

Decision flexibilities in autism spectrum disorder: an fMRI study of moral dilemmas

Shisei Tei,^{1,2,3,4,†} Mizuki Tanicha^{5,†} Takashi Itahashi,¹ Yuta Y. Aoki,¹ Haruhisa Ohta,^{1,6} Chenyu Qian,⁵ Ryu-ichiro Hashimoto,^{1,7} Motoaki Nakamura,^{1,8} Hidehiko Takahashi,^{1,2,5} Nobumasa Kato,¹ and Junya Fujino^{1,2,5}

¹Medical Institute of Developmental Disabilities Research, Showa University, Setagaya-ku, Tokyo 157-8577, Japan

²Department of Psychiatry, Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8507, Japan

³Institute of Applied Brain Sciences, Waseda University, Tokorozawa, Saitama 359-1192, Japan

⁴School of Human and Social Sciences, Tokyo International University, Kawagoe, Saitama 350-1198, Japan

⁵Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Graduate School of Medical and Dental Sciences, Tokyo Medical and Dental University, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-8510, Japan

⁶Department of Psychiatry, School of Medicine, Showa University, Setagaya-ku, Tokyo 157-8577, Japan

⁷Department of Language Sciences, Graduate School of Humanities, Tokyo Metropolitan University, Hachioji-shi, Tokyo 192-0397, Japan

⁸Kanagawa Psychiatric Center, Yokohama, Kanagawa 233-0006, Japan

Correspondence should be addressed to Shisei Tei, Medical Institute of Developmental Disabilities Research, Showa University, 6-11-11 Kita-karasuyama, Setagaya-ku, Tokyo 157-8577, Japan. E-mail: chengctky@gmail.com.

Junya Fujino, Medical Institute of Developmental Disabilities Research, Showa University, 6-11-11 Kita-karasuyama, Setagaya-ku, Tokyo 157-8577, Japan.

E-mail: jf15psyc@tmd.ac.jp.

[†]Shisei Tei and Mizuki Tanicha contributed equally to this study.

Abstract

People make flexible decisions across a wide range of contexts to resolve social or moral conflicts. Individuals with autism spectrum disorder (ASD) frequently report difficulties in such behaviors, which hinders the flexibility in changing strategies during daily activities or adjustment of perspective during communication. However, the underlying mechanisms of this issue are insufficiently understood. This study aimed to investigate decision flexibility in ASD using a functional magnetic resonance imaging task that involved recognizing and resolving two types of moral dilemmas: cost–benefit analysis (CBA) and mitigating inevitable misconducts (MIM). The CBA session assessed the participants' pitting of result-oriented outcomes against distressful harmful actions, whereas the MIM session assessed their pitting of the extenuation of a criminal sentence against a sympathetic situation of defendants suffering from violence or disease. The behavioral outcome in CBA-related flexibility was significantly lower in the ASD group compared to that of the typical development group. In the corresponding CBA contrast, activation in the left inferior frontal gyrus was lower in the ASD group. Meanwhile, in the MIM-related flexibility, there were no significant group differences in behavioral outcome or brain activity. Our findings add to our understanding of flexible decision-making in ASD.

Key words: autism spectrum disorder; flexibility; functional magnetic resonance imaging; inferior frontal gyrus; moral dilemma

Introduction

Flexibility is a core aspect of human behaviors. An appropriate adjustment of thoughts and behaviors in response to changing environmental demands is not only indispensable for survival but also imperative for harmonious social living (Vlek and Keren, 1992; Barrett and Henzi, 2005; McNally et al., 2012; Welborn et al., 2016). In particular, moral dilemmas (MDs) frequently arise during human socialization (Mobbs et al., 2007; Schneider et al., 2013; Tei et al., 2017, 2019a; Shamay-Tsoory et al., 2019), and their flexible resolution prompts social adaptations (Bartels, 2008; Crockett et al., 2010; Shenhav and Greene, 2010; Berns et al., 2012).

Individuals with autism spectrum disorder (ASD), which is characterized by altered social interaction and atypical, pervasive interests, often report facing difficulties in making flexible or optimal decisions when faced with MDs (Schneider et al., 2013; Fujino et al., 2020a). These difficulties can negatively affect their social functioning (Geurts et al., 2009; Fujino et al., 2019; Hu et al., 2021; Uddin, 2021). Investigations on the underlying mechanisms of decision flexibility can contribute to a better understanding of ASD and may provide helpful knowledge for the development of effective interventions.

Several functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) studies have inspected flexible cognition and behavior in people with ASD

Received: 28 August 2021; Revised: 7 February 2022; Accepted: 24 March 2022

© The Author(s) 2022. Published by Oxford University Press.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs licence (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>), which permits non-commercial reproduction and distribution of the work, in any medium, provided the original work is not altered or transformed in any way, and that the work is properly cited. For commercial re-use, please contact journals.permissions@oup.com

(Philip *et al.*, 2012; Uddin, 2021). For example, previous studies examining cognitive inflexibility in ASD using various neuropsychological tasks, such as the Wisconsin Card Sorting Test and the intradimensional/extradimensional task, have found that neural networks involving the lateral prefrontal cortex (PFC), parietal cortex and cingulate gyrus were altered in this disorder (Geurts *et al.*, 2009; Dajani and Uddin, 2015). Moreover, recent studies investigating flexible choice behavior using decision-making and reversal learning tasks have shown the alteration of activity in brain regions important for executive function, response planning and change detection (D'Cruz *et al.*, 2016; Uddin, 2021). However, although several studies reported an atypical pattern of moral reasoning in ASD (Moran *et al.*, 2011; Zalla *et al.*, 2011; Buon *et al.*, 2013; Schneider *et al.*, 2013; Bellesi *et al.*, 2018; Dempsey *et al.*, 2020; Hu *et al.*, 2021), our understanding of the neural mechanisms underlying decision inflexibility in MD situations in this disorder is still limited.

Prior fMRI research in people with typical development (TD) has investigated the neural mechanisms of flexible decision-making in two types of MD situations involving (i) cost-benefit analysis (CBA; Greene, 2007) and (ii) mitigating inevitable misconducts (MIM; Yamada *et al.*, 2012). For example, a CBA study assessed the participants' pitting of result-oriented outcomes (well-being maximizing) against distressful harmful actions (i.e. collective gain vs personal loss/distress dilemma), and CBA-induced decisions were associated with the activation of diverse brain regions, including lateral PFC, medial PFC and temporoparietal junction (TPJ; Tei *et al.*, 2017). Meanwhile, another MIM study assessed the participants' pitting of the extenuation of a criminal sentence against a sympathetic situation of defendants suffering from violence or disease (i.e. compassionate exculpation vs respectful punishment of moral transgression), and the MIM-induced decisions were associated with activity in brain regions including lateral PFC, precuneus and TPJ (Yamada *et al.*, 2012). Both CBA and MIM bear essential roles in socially adaptive behaviors requiring situation-sensitive balancing between exploration and exploitation trade-offs (e.g. Addicott *et al.*, 2021) and in social-affective/empathic engagement (Crone and Dahl, 2012). Therefore, understanding how individuals with ASD behave under these MD situations can potentially reveal new insights into the practical implications of their social cognition.

The current study aimed to investigate decision flexibility in people with ASD. In this endeavor, we used an fMRI task that involved recognizing and resolving two types of MDs (CBA and MIM). We predicted that participants with ASD would show reduced flexibility in both CBA and MIM contexts, as compared to TD participants. We also predicted that unique brain activation patterns would emerge in the respective decision flexibility in CBA and MIM contexts.

Methods

Participants

Twenty-five adults with ASD and 29 with TD were enrolled in this study. The sample size was determined on the basis of previous fMRI studies on moral decision-making by individuals with ASD (e.g. Schneider *et al.*, 2013; Hu *et al.*, 2021). We enrolled only male participants because of potential gender differences in moral decision-making (De Dreu and Kret, 2016; Rosen *et al.*, 2016). Participants with ASD were recruited from a database of volunteers who had received a clinical diagnosis of ASD in the outpatient units of the Showa University Karasuyama Hospital. The diagnostic procedure to identify individuals with ASD was the same as in our previous studies (Fujino *et al.*, 2017; Tei *et al.*, 2018, 2019b). Further details regarding participants are described in Supplementary Methods.

The intelligence quotient (IQ) scores of all ASD participants had been evaluated before the study using either the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale—Third Edition or the WAIS-Revised. The IQ scores of the TD participants were estimated using a Japanese version of the National Adult Reading Test, based on previous studies (Matsuoka *et al.*, 2006; Kubota *et al.*, 2020; Fujino *et al.*, 2020b). In addition, all participants completed the Japanese version of the Autism Spectrum Quotient (AQ) test that includes items covering both social and non-social aspects of behavior and cognition (Baron-Cohen *et al.*, 2001; Wakabayashi *et al.*, 2006).

Three participants with ASD and one TD participant were excluded from the analysis (please see Supplementary Methods for details). Thus, data from 22 participants with ASD and 28 TD participants were analyzed (age: 20–46 years). Participants' demographic data are shown in Table 1. The TD and ASD groups were matched for age, handedness, education, estimated IQ level and current smoking status. Smoking status is reportedly associated with various types of decision-making (Critchley and Capewell, 2003; Lejuez *et al.*, 2003; Fujino *et al.*, 2020a). As shown in Table 1, the AQ scores were significantly higher in the ASD group compared to those in the TD group.

This study was approved by the Committee on Medical Ethics of Kyoto University and the institutional review board of Showa University Karasuyama Hospital and was conducted in accordance with The Code of Ethics of the World Medical Association. After a complete description of the study, written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

fMRI task

During fMRI scanning, we asked participants to confront with a series of everyday MDs, which were designed so that participants would feel that conducting the action in these MD vignettes was morally wrong, but potentially acceptable or permissible

Table 1. Demographic and clinical characteristics of the participants

	TD Group (n = 28)	ASD Group (n = 22)	Statistics P
Age (years) [min–max]	29.4 ± 6.9 [20–43]	30.4 ± 6.2 [21–46]	0.59 ^a
Handedness right/left	25/3	21/1	0.42 ^b
Current smoker/non-smoker	2/26	3/19	0.45 ^b
Education (years) [min–max]	14.5 ± 1.9 [12–18]	15.0 ± 2.0 [12–18]	0.41 ^a
Estimated full-scale IQ [min–max]	105.9 ± 7.9 [87–118]	104.7 ± 13.2 [79–133]	0.73 ^a
AQ [min–max]	16.2 ± 6.6 [5–30]	33.3 ± 5.2 [22–46]	< 0.01 ^a

^aTwo-sample t-test.

^bTwo-tailed chi-squared test.

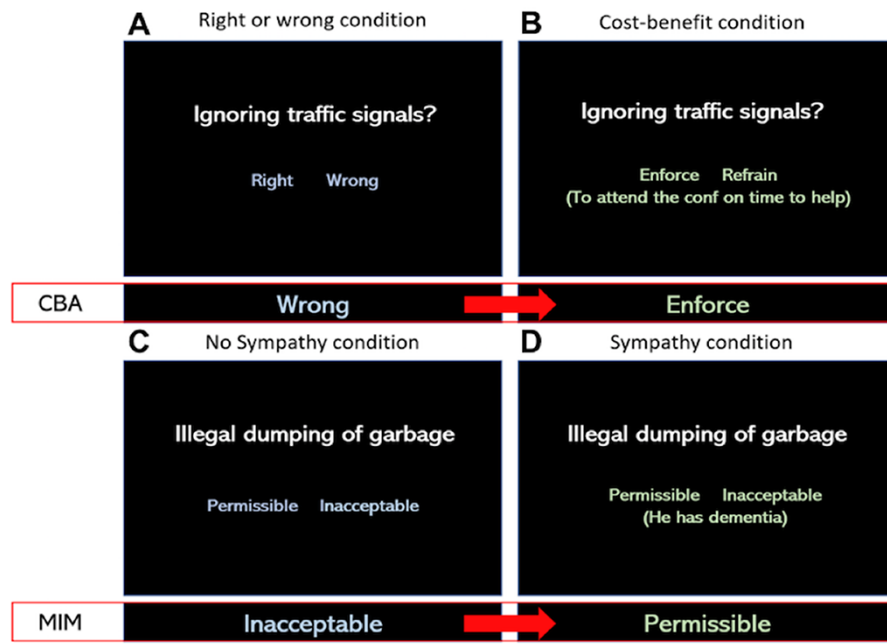


Fig. 1. Experimental design. In the CBA session, participants were instructed to press a button to either (i) evaluate whether these actions are R/W (A) or (ii) judge whether to enforce result-oriented actions to prioritize social benefits and welfare (B). Likewise, regarding the MIM session, participants made decisions on whether to (i) permit social norm/rule violation in no sympathy-evoking situations (C) or (ii) permit these identical violations in sympathy-evoking situations (D).

(Greene *et al.*, 2004; Barbey and Grafman, 2011). The application of MD concerning CBA and MIM to investigate to explore flexibility is a well-established approach that examines participants' frequency in tilting decisions from deontological mindsets (moral rule-based) into more situation-adjusted, flexible mindsets (Greene *et al.*, 2004; Yamada *et al.*, 2012; Tei *et al.*, 2017).

The MD task consisted of two consecutive sessions applying CBA-related MD and MIM-related MD. Regarding CBA, based on our previous fMRI study on moral flexibility (Tei *et al.*, 2017), participants were instructed to press a button to either (i) evaluate whether these actions are right or wrong (R/W condition, Figure 1A) or (ii) judge whether to enforce result-oriented actions to prioritize social benefits and welfare (cost-benefit: C/B condition, Figure 1B). Likewise, regarding MIM, based on a previous moral study (Yamada *et al.*, 2012), participants made decisions on whether to (i) permit social norm/rule violation in no sympathy-evoking situations (NS condition, Figure 1C) or (ii) permit these identical violations in sympathy-evoking situations (SP condition, Figure 1D). For example, in CBA, they were confronted with the outline of vignettes, such as 'Ignoring traffic signals', and the enforcing action resulted in well-being maximization (e.g. to attend the conference on time and help in running the conference). In MIM, the outline described as 'Illegal dumping of garbage' and sympathy-evoking situations were labeled inevitable circumstances (e.g. the person has dementia).

In this MD task, we applied a block design (24 s each) that included 10 blocks of CBA-related vignettes (R/W and C/B; 5 blocks each) and another 10 blocks of MIM-related vignettes (SP and NS; 5 blocks each). Each block included four trials (6 s each), where participants viewed short phrases representing each vignette. Specifically, all participants had to make a judgment within 5.5 s while each moral vignette was presented (Figure 1). Subsequently, participants' actual responses were displayed (0.5 s). Cases in which participants could not make a judgment within 5.5 s of the

presentation of the judgment screen were considered as missed trials. Overall, participants were presented with a total of 80 vignettes. A fixation cross was displayed between blocks for 14 s. To avoid a confounding effect, R/W, C/B, SP and NS conditions were displayed in a pseudo-random order, that is, the same order of questions for each participant. Subsequently, we examined brain regions comparing C/B against R/W, as well as SP against NS conditions.

Acquisition and pre-processing of fMRI data

All participants underwent MRI scans on a 3 T whole-body scanner equipped with an 8-channel phased-array head coil (Verio, Siemens, Erlangen, Germany). Image processing was carried out using SPM12 (Wellcome Trust Center for Neuroimaging, London, UK) in MATLAB (MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA). Please see Supplementary Methods for details.

Statistical analyses

Behavioral data

We estimated participants' flexibility levels by computing the switching rate of decisions in CBA and MIM sessions (switching was defined as follows: CBA, judging the actions as wrong but choosing to enforce the action in the same vignette; MIM, judging the violation as not permissible in a non-sympathy-evoking circumstance, but permissible in a sympathy-evoking circumstance). Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 24 (IBM, Armonk, NY, USA). Results were considered statistically significant at $P < 0.05$ (two-tailed).

fMRI data

After pre-processing, we fitted a general linear model to the fMRI data. In the first-level analyses, the design matrix contained four task-related regressors (R/W, C/B, SP and NS) as regressors

of interest. To minimize motion-related artifacts, six movement parameters (three displacements and three rotations) were also included as additional regressors of no interest. Data were high-pass filtered at 128 s. CBA/MIM-related activation was identified using the contrast of C/B vs R/W and SP vs NS conditions, respectively. The comparison produced a contrast image for each participant, and these contrast images were used for second-level fMRI analyses.

In second-level analyses, we used a random-effects model to make inferences at the population level. First, CBA/MIM-related activation was computed using one-sample *t*-tests separately for the TD and ASD groups. Next, to compare differences in neural activity between the TD and ASD groups, two-sample *t*-tests were performed. Based on previous fMRI studies of decision-making under MDs (Yamada et al., 2012; Tei et al., 2017), we focused on the following regions of interest (ROIs): the inferior frontal gyrus (IFG), the middle frontal gyrus (MFG), the medial PFC, the insula, the amygdala, the anterior cingulate cortex, the precuneus and the TPJ. All anatomical masks of these ROIs (except for the TPJ) were taken from the Automated Anatomical Labeling atlas (Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2002) using the WFU PickAtlas toolbox (Maldjian et al., 2003). On the basis of previous studies (Tei et al., 2014, 2017), we applied a standard 10-mm sphere mask for the TPJ ROI [*x*-*y*-*z* Talairach coordinates ($\pm 50, -55, 25$)]. We defined an activity as significant if it survived family-wise error (FWE) correction for multiple comparisons, with a cluster level of $P < 0.05$ for each ROI (at voxel-level uncorrected $P < 0.001$). With respect to brain regions outside these ROIs, we reported activations thresholded at a voxel-level $P < 0.05$ (FWE corrected) with a minimum cluster extent of 100 contiguous voxels after whole-brain correction for multiple comparisons, based on the previous studies (e.g. Li et al., 2017; Tomasi and Volkow, 2019).

Results

Behavioral data

Overall, the participants [$N = 50$ (TD 28 and ASD 22)] performed the MD task well, missing an average of only 1.07 ± 1.21 (mean \pm s.d., TD) and 1.05 ± 1.70 trials (ASD; please see the

Methods section for details). There were no significant differences between the groups in the number of missed trials ($P = 0.95$).

Figure 2 shows the mean switching rate of the CBA and MIM sessions in both groups. The switching rate of the CBA session was significantly lower in the ASD group than in the TD group (TD 0.36 ± 0.29 , ASD 0.22 ± 0.18 , $P = 0.03$, Figure 2A), whereas there were no significant differences in the switching rate of the MIM session between the groups (TD 0.57 ± 0.20 , ASD 0.50 ± 0.23 , $P = 0.21$, Figure 2B).

fMRI data

ROI analyses

In CBA contrast (C/B > R/W), several brain regions, including the bilateral IFG, bilateral MFG, right medial PFC, bilateral precuneus and bilateral TPJ, were activated in the TD group (Figure 3A, Supplementary Table S1). Meanwhile, the bilateral MFG and bilateral precuneus were activated in the ASD group (Figure 3B, Supplementary Table S1). Two-sample *t*-tests revealed that activation in the left IFG was lower in the ASD group compared to that in the TD group (Figure 4, Supplementary Table S1). We did not find significant differences in any other brain regions between the groups. In MIM contrast (SP > NS), the left MFG and bilateral TPJ were activated in the TD group (Figure 5A, Supplementary Table S1). Meanwhile, the bilateral MFG, bilateral precuneus and bilateral TPJ were activated in the ASD group (Figure 5B, Supplementary Table S1). We did not find significant differences in brain activation between the groups (Supplementary Table S1).

Brain regions outside the ROIs

Outside the ROIs, we found significant brain activation in the right cuneus and left inferior occipital gyrus in CBA contrast (C/B > R/W) in the TD group. No significant brain activation was observed in the ASD group. We did not find any significant differences in brain activation in this contrast between the groups. In MIM contrast (SP > NS), no significant brain activation was observed in the TD or ASD groups. Again, we did not find any significant differences in brain activation between the groups. Please see Supplementary Table S2 for further details.

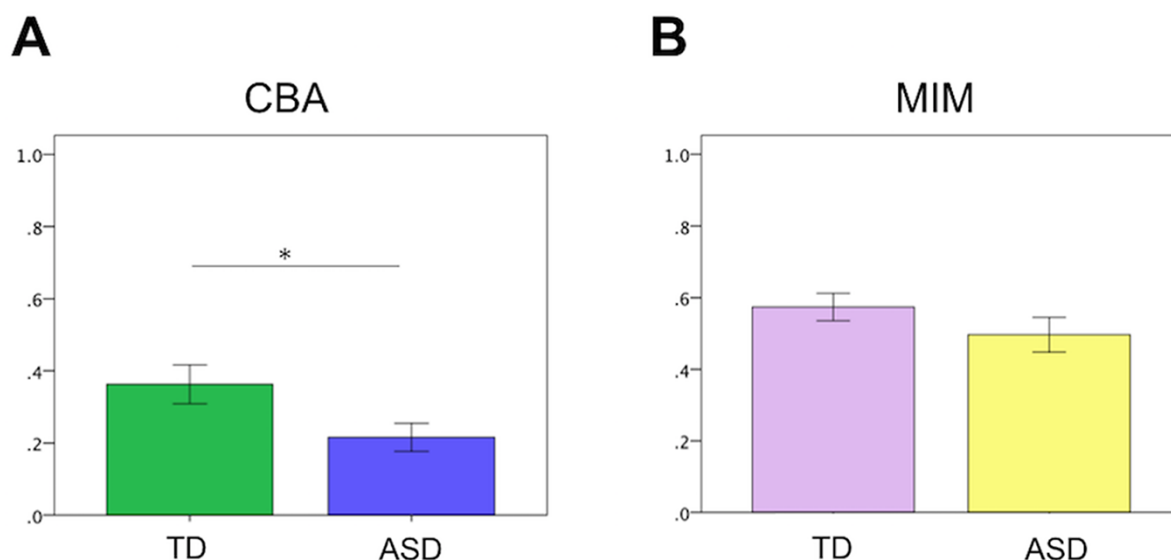


Fig. 2. Switching rate of decisions in CBA and MIM sessions. In the CBA session, the switching rate was significantly lower in the ASD group than in the TD group (A), whereas, in the MIM session, there were no significant differences in the switching rate between the groups (B). The error bars indicate \pm standard errors. * $P < 0.05$.

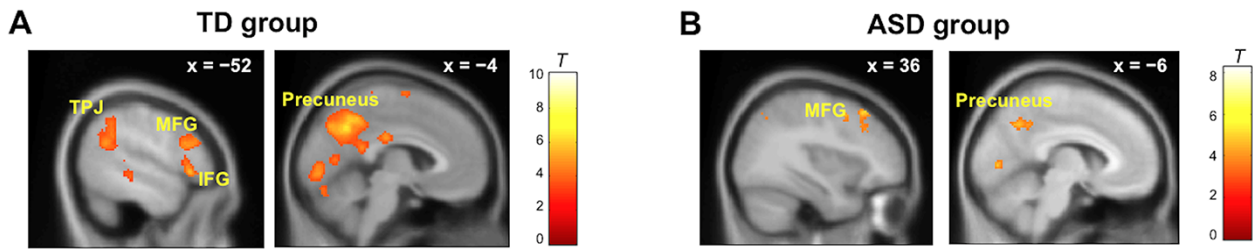


Fig. 3. Brain regions activated in CBA contrast (C/B > R/W). (A) TD group. (B) ASD group. Images were thresholded at an uncorrected P-value of 0.001 for visualization purpose.

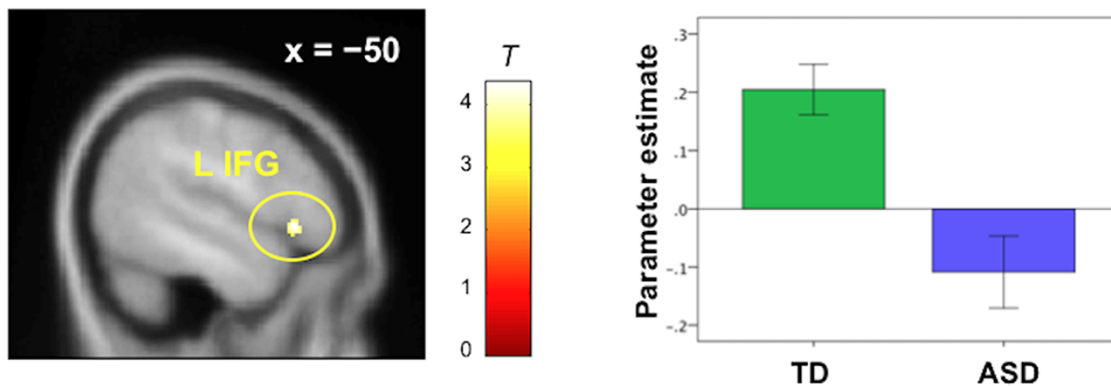


Fig. 4. Difference in brain activation between the TD and ASD groups in CBA contrast (C/B > R/W). In the ASD group, the neural activation in the left IFG was lower compared to that in the TD group during CBA-related decision-making. A statistical threshold was set at cluster-level FWE corrected $P < 0.05$ (at voxel level, uncorrected $P < 0.001$).

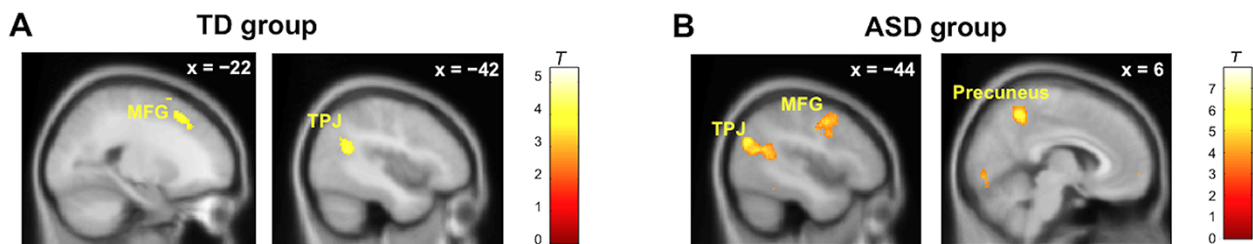


Fig. 5. Brain regions activated in MIM contrast (SP > NS). (A) TD group. (B) ASD group. Images were thresholded at an uncorrected P-value of 0.001 for visualization purpose.

Discussion

To the best of our knowledge, this was the first study to investigate decision flexibilities in ASD using an fMRI task involving the resolution of two types of MD in the CBA and MIM contexts. The results have clinical implications and add to the ASD literature on flexibility.

In CBA-related flexibility, the TD participants recruited diverse brain regions including the IFG, MFG, medial PFC, precuneus and TPJ, which are known to be involved in adjustable perspective shifting such as attending to and disengaging from dilemma-induced distress and incentives to resolve and diffuse/control the conflicting situations (Greene et al., 2004; Greene, 2007; Moll and de Oliveira-souza, 2007; Schneider et al., 2013). Our results are consistent with those of previous studies (Berns et al., 2012; Tei et al., 2017) and highlight that these brain areas are crucial in flexible result-oriented moral reasoning via switching or weighing between well-being maximization and personal distress (concerning the situation of others) in the MD situations. These brain areas

can subserve modulation of attention to morally and/or socially relevant information (Greene et al., 2004; Yoder et al., 2015).

As predicted, the switching rate in CBA-related flexibility was significantly lower in the ASD group than in the TD group. Previous behavioral studies reported that people with ASD are not only relatively more rule-bound (Geurts et al., 2009; Tei et al., 2019b) but also relatively more 'pure' or 'immaculate' in their response to social/moral transgressions (Shulman et al., 2012; Margoni and Surian, 2016). Additionally, recent studies have shown that ASD participants often tend to over-evaluate moral culpability and negative moral consequences, as compared to TD participants, and the authors proposed that such disproportionate reliance on learned social rules or norms possibly compensates for their less reflexive mentalizing (Zalla et al., 2011; Hu et al., 2021; Uddin, 2021). These findings further suggest that people with ASD might be affected by their personal distress, which could affect CB judgments. However, further research on appropriate measures for personal distress would be required to support this view.

Furthermore, in the corresponding CBA contrast, activation in the left IFG was lower in the ASD group compared to that in the TD group. The lateral PFC, including IFG, plays a key role in various cognitive processes, such as attention, inhibition, switching, working memory and context monitoring (Barbey and Grafman, 2011; Lamm and Majdandžić, 2015; Fujino et al., 2016, 2018; Allaert et al., 2022; Fallon et al., 2020; Qu et al., 2020; Tei et al., 2020). Regarding moral decision-making, this brain area is reported to crucially support utilitarian decisions through cognitive control to override potent emotional responses, maintain goal-directed mindsets and modulate intuitive bias (Mansouri et al., 2017). More specifically, the lateral PFC may incorporate decisions based on adaptive social norms for obligatory, prohibited and permissible courses of action (Barbey and Grafman, 2011), and 'necessary (obligatory or prohibited)' and 'also' 'possible (permissible)' behaviors can be updated based on ones' experiences and social knowledge (Geurts et al., 2009; Fujino et al., 2020a). They may form beliefs, instinct, a sense of values and social cognitions to develop behavior-guiding principles (Satpute and Lieberman, 2006; Evans, 2008), and this processing might be altered or biased in ASD individuals (Dajani and Uddin, 2015).

As for MIM-related flexibility, the MFG and TPJ were activated in the TD group. Activation in these brain areas was commonly observed in both CBA- and MIM-related MD. It is plausible to assume that these brain regions subserve shifting of decision rules/perspectives, mentalizing for people in the MD and contextual understanding and consideration, as well as adjustable attending/disengaging from emotional distress (Crone and Dahl, 2012; Mazefsky, 2015; Tei et al., 2019a, 2021; Fujino et al., 2020b; Park et al., 2021), given that both flexible responses in CBA and MIM were designed to evoke this functioning.

Contrary to our predictions, there were no statistical group differences (ASD/TD) neither in MIM switching rates, nor the brain activity in the MIM contrast. One possible explanation for this finding is that our ASD participants' MIM-related flexibility was relatively intact (compared to CBA-related flexibility). Thus, the potential emotional components of the MIM-related MD, such as affective sharing and emotional identification, might have been somewhat analogous in the ASD and TD groups (e.g. Bird and Viding, 2014). Such an interpretation appears consistent with our brain-imaging findings, i.e. the CBA contrast images showed significant group differences in brain activation in the IFG, whereas the MIM contrast did not show group differences in any brain regions. These results were in line with the abovementioned idea that the potential functional components of the MIM that emerged in the ASD and TD groups were fairly similar. In summary, our results implied that our participants with ASD were relatively intact in terms of MIM-related flexibility but not CBA-related flexibility. Notably, CBA-related flexibility requires the shifting of attention and decision-making rules by illuminating morally and/or socially relevant information, which are areas that individuals with autism frequently report difficulties with (e.g. Shulman et al., 2012; Tei et al., 2019b).

Additionally, it is also possible that our ASD participants were able to make more flexible responses in the 'hypothetical' social dilemma in our laboratory tasks, even though they would behave more inflexibly in their real-world, daily life events (Geurts et al., 2009). While our in-house dilemmas are developed to simulate daily events and participants were requested to imagine themselves as a protagonist in each moral vignette, these dilemmas are still hypothetical. Therefore, it is essential to consider refining

the moral reasoning experiments and more sensibly inspect what social contexts lead to atypical responses in people with ASD.

There are several limitations to this study. First, while the sample size was comparable to the previous fMRI studies of moral decision-making on ASD (e.g. Schneider et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2021), it remained relatively small. Second, our sample consisted of only males. Previous studies have shown potential gender differences in moral decision-making (De Dreu and Kret, 2016; Rosen et al., 2016). Thus, our present findings may not be generalized to female subjects. In a similar vein, generalization of the results warrants more exploration of the choice of ROI and whole-brain analyses. It is possible that these limitations restricted significant group differences and/or brain activation patterns in the CBA/MIM contrast images.

Moreover, it is crucial to include adolescents with ASD and the assessment of behavioral/personality features (e.g. empathic traits; Coll et al., 2017) that may provide additional insights. Previous studies have indicated that MIM-related flexibility might be altered in adolescents with ASD (Shulman et al., 2012; Schaller et al., 2019), although this may be attributable to insufficient (immature) mentalizing and sympathy skills, which could be nurtured by social experiences as individuals mature. Meanwhile, recent reviews suggest that people with ASD are on average less biased and more rational/consistent than TD participants when making decisions due to their lower reliance on prior experience and incoming information (Rozenkrantz et al., 2021). However, in light of a reduced cognitive bias, the findings of autism studies involving moral reasoning are rather mixed (e.g. Gleichgerricht et al., 2013; Schneider et al., 2013). As flexible decision-making in ASD during moral reasoning appears complex, further studies are warranted. In this endeavor, it is crucial to utilize more ecologically valid measures to enhance task variation (Geurts et al., 2009) that allows the assessment of participants' characteristics to understand the effects of different social contexts when making decisions.

Notwithstanding these limitations, the current results add to our understanding of the decision flexibility in ASD. Our findings may be useful in addressing practical implications of their social cognition and behavior.

Acknowledgements

The authors wish to extend their gratitude to the research team of the Medical Institute of Developmental Disabilities Research at Showa University for their assistance in data acquisition.

Funding

This work was supported by grants-in-aid for Young Scientists (20K16654) and Scientific Research C (17K10326, 21K07544) from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan (MEXT); a grant from SENSHIN Medical Research Foundation; and Intramural Research Grant (2–7) for Neurological and Psychiatric Disorders of NCNP. A part of this study is the result of the Joint Usage/Research Program of Medical Institute of Developmental Disabilities Research, Showa University. These agencies had no further role in the study design, the collection, analysis, and interpretation of data, the writing of the report, or in the decision to submit the paper for publication.

Conflict of interest

The authors declared that they had no conflict of interest with respect to their authorship or the publication of this article.

Supplementary data

Supplementary data are available at SCAN online.

References

- Addicott, M.A., Pearson, J.M., Schechter, J.C., Sapyta, J.J., Weiss, M.D., Kollins, S.H. (2021). Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder and the explore/exploit trade-off. *Neuropsychopharmacology*, **46**(3), 614–21.
- Allaert, J., De Raedt, R., Sanchez-Lopez, A., Baeken, C., Vanderhasselt, M.-A. (2022). Mind the social feedback: effects of tDCS applied to the left DLPFC on psychophysiological responses during the anticipation and reception of social evaluations. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, **17**(1), 131–41.
- Barbey, A.K., Grafman, J. (2011). An integrative cognitive neuroscience theory of social reasoning and moral judgment. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Cognitive Science*, **2**(1), 55–67.
- Baron-Cohen, S., Wheelwright, S., Skinner, R., Martin, J., Clubley, E. (2001). The autism-spectrum quotient (AQ): evidence from Asperger syndrome/high-functioning autism, males and females, scientists and mathematicians. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, **31**(1), 5–17.
- Barrett, L., Henzi, P. (2005). The social nature of primate cognition. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, **272**(1575), 1865–75.
- Bartels, D.M. (2008). Principled moral sentiment and the flexibility of moral judgment and decision making. *Cognition*, **108**(2), 381–417.
- Bellesi, G., Vyas, K., Jameel, L., Channon, S. (2018). Moral reasoning about everyday situations in adults with autism spectrum disorder. *Research in Autism Spectrum Disorders*, **52**, 1–11.
- Berns, G.S., Bell, E., Capra, C.M., et al. (2012). The price of your soul: neural evidence for the non-utilitarian representation of sacred values. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B, Biological Sciences*, **367**(1589), 754–62.
- Bird, G., Viding, E. (2014). The self to other model of empathy: providing a new framework for understanding empathy impairments in psychopathy, autism, and alexithymia. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, **47**, 520–32.
- Buon, M., Dupoux, E., Jacob, P., Chaste, P., Leboyer, M., Zalla, T. (2013). The role of causal and intentional judgments in moral reasoning in individuals with high functioning autism. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, **43**(2), 458–70.
- Coll, M.P., Viding, E., Rütgen, M., et al. (2017). Are we really measuring empathy? Proposal for a new measurement framework. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, **83**, 132–9.
- Critchley, J.A., Capewell, S. (2003). Mortality risk reduction associated with smoking cessation in patients with coronary heart disease: a systematic review. *Jama*, **290**(1), 86–97.
- Crockett, M.J., Clark, L., Hauser, M.D., Robbins, T.W. (2010). Serotonin selectively influences moral judgment and behavior through effects on harm aversion. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, **107**(40), 17433–8.
- Crone, E.A., Dahl, R.E. (2012). Understanding adolescence as a period of social-affective engagement and goal flexibility. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, **13**(9), 636–50.
- Dajani, D.R., Uddin, L.Q. (2015). Demystifying cognitive flexibility: implications for clinical and developmental neuroscience. *Trends in Neurosciences*, **38**(9), 571–8.
- D’Cruz, A.-M., Mosconi, M.W., Ragozzino, M., Cook, E.H., Sweeney, J.A. (2016). Alterations in the functional neural circuitry supporting flexible choice behavior in autism spectrum disorders. *Translational Psychiatry*, **6**(10), e916.
- De Dreu, C.K., Kret, M.E. (2016). Oxytocin conditions intergroup relations through upregulated in-group empathy, cooperation, conformity, and defense. *Biological Psychiatry*, **79**(3), 165–73.
- Dempsey, E., Moore, C., Johnson, S., Stewart, S., Smith, I. (2020). Morality in autism spectrum disorder: a systematic review. *Development and Psychopathology*, **32**(3), 1069–85.
- Evans, J.S.B. (2008). Dual-processing accounts of reasoning, judgment, and social cognition. *Annual Review of Psychology*, **59**, 255–78.
- Fallon, N., Roberts, C., Stancak, A. (2020). Shared and distinct functional networks for empathy and pain processing: a systematic review and meta-analysis of fMRI studies. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, **15**(7), 709–23.
- Fujino, J., Fujimoto, S., Kodaka, F., et al. (2016). Neural mechanisms and personality correlates of the sunk cost effect. *Scientific Reports*, **6**, 33171.
- Fujino, J., Tei, S., Hashimoto, R.I., et al. (2017). Attitudes toward risk and ambiguity in patients with autism spectrum disorder. *Molecular Autism*, **8**(1), 45.
- Fujino, J., Kawada, R., Tsurumi, K., et al. (2018). An fMRI study of decision-making under sunk costs in gambling disorder. *European Neuropsychopharmacology*, **28**(12), 1371–81.
- Fujino, J., Tei, S., Itahashi, T., et al. (2019). Sunk cost effect in individuals with autism spectrum disorder. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, **49**(1), 1–10.
- Fujino, J., Tei, S., Itahashi, T., et al. (2020a). Impact of past experiences on decision-making in autism spectrum disorder. *European Archives of Psychiatry and Clinical Neuroscience*, **270**(8), 1063–71.
- Fujino, J., Tei, S., Itahashi, T., et al. (2020b). Role of the right temporoparietal junction in intergroup bias in trust decisions. *Human Brain Mapping*, **41**(6), 1677–88.
- Geurts, H.M., Corbett, B., Solomon, M. (2009). The paradox of cognitive flexibility in autism. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, **13**(2), 74–82.
- Gleichgerricht, E., Torralva, T., Rattazzi, A., Marengo, V., Roca, M., Manes, F. (2013). Selective impairment of cognitive empathy for moral judgment in adults with high functioning autism. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, **8**(7), 780–8.
- Greene, J.D., Nystrom, L.E., Engell, A.D., Darley, J.M., Cohen, J.D. (2004). The neural bases of cognitive conflict and control in moral judgment. *Neuron*, **44**(2), 389–400.
- Greene, J.D. (2007). Why are VMPFC patients more utilitarian? A dual-process theory of moral judgment explains. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, **11**(8), 322–3.
- Hu, Y., Pereira, A.M., Gao, X., et al. (2021). Right temporoparietal junction underlies avoidance of moral transgression in Autism Spectrum Disorder. *Journal of Neuroscience*, **41**(8), 1699–715.
- Kubota, M., Fujino, J., Tei, S., et al. (2020). Binding of Dopamine D1 Receptor and Noradrenaline Transporter in Individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder: A PET Study. *Cerebral Cortex*, **30**(12), 6458–68.
- Lamm, C., Majdandžić, J. (2015). The role of shared neural activations, mirror neurons, and morality in empathy—A critical comment. *Neuroscience Research*, **90**, 15–24.
- Lejuez, C.W., Aklin, W.M., Jones, H.A., et al. (2003). The balloon analogue risk task (BART) differentiates smokers and nonsmokers. *Experimental and Clinical Psychopharmacology*, **11**(1), 26.
- Li, H., Jia, X., Qi, Z., et al. (2017). Altered functional connectivity of the basal nucleus of Meynert in mild cognitive impairment: a resting-state fMRI study. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience*, **9**, 127.
- Maldjian, J.A., Laurienti, P.J., Kraft, R.A., Burdette, J.H. (2003). An automated method for neuroanatomic and cytoarchitectonic

- atlas-based interrogation of fMRI data sets. *Neuroimage*, **19**(3), 1233–9.
- Mansouri, F.A., Egner, T., Buckley, M.J. (2017). Monitoring demands for executive control: shared functions between human and nonhuman primates. *Trends in Neurosciences*, **40**(1), 15–27.
- Margoni, F., Surian, L. (2016). Mental state understanding and moral judgment in children with autistic spectrum disorder. *Frontiers in Psychology*, **7**, 1478.
- Matsuoka, K., Uno, M., Kasai, K., Koyama, K., Kim, Y. (2006). Estimation of premorbid IQ in individuals with Alzheimer's disease using Japanese ideographic script (Kanji) compound words: Japanese version of National Adult Reading Test. *Psychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences*, **60**(3), 332–9.
- Mazefsky, C.A. (2015). Emotion regulation and emotional distress in autism spectrum disorder: Foundations and considerations for future research. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, **45**, 3405–8.
- McNally, L., Brown, S.P., Jackson, A.L. (2012). Cooperation and the evolution of intelligence. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, **279**(1740), 3027–34.
- Mobbs, D., Lau, H.C., Jones, O.D., Frith, C.D. (2007). Law, responsibility, and the brain. *PLoS Biology*, **5**(4), e103.
- Moll, J., de Oliveira-souza, R. (2007). Moral judgments, emotions and the utilitarian brain. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, **11**(8), 319–21.
- Moran, J.M., Young, L.L., Saxe, R., et al. (2011). Impaired theory of mind for moral judgment in high-functioning autism. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, **108**(7), 2688–92.
- Park, B., Fareri, D., Delgado, M., Young, L. (2021). The role of right temporoparietal junction in processing social prediction error across relationship contexts. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, **16**(8), 772–81.
- Philip, R.C., Dauvermann, M.R., Whalley, H.C., Baynham, K., Lawrie, S.M., Stanfield, A.C. (2012). A systematic review and meta-analysis of the fMRI investigation of autism spectrum disorders. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, **36**(2), 901–42.
- Qu, C., Hu, Y., Tang, Z., Derrington, E., Dreher, J.-C. (2020). Neurocomputational mechanisms underlying immoral decisions benefiting self or others. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, **15**(2), 135–49.
- Rosen, J.B., Brand, M., Kalbe, E. (2016). Empathy mediates the effects of age and sex on altruistic moral decision making. *Frontiers in Behavioral Neuroscience*, **10**, 67.
- Rozenkrantz, L., D'Mello, A.M., Gabrieli, J.D. (2021). Enhanced rationality in autism spectrum disorder. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, **25**(8), 685–96.
- Satpute, A.B., Lieberman, M.D. (2006). Integrating automatic and controlled processes into neurocognitive models of social cognition. *Brain Research*, **1079**(1), 86–97.
- Schaller, U.M., Biscaldi, M., Fangmeier, T., van Elst, L.T., Rauh, R. (2019). Intuitive moral reasoning in high-functioning autism spectrum disorder: a matter of social schemas? *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, **49**(5), 1807–24.
- Schneider, K., Pauly, K.D., Gossen, A., et al. (2013). Neural correlates of moral reasoning in autism spectrum disorder. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, **8**(6), 702–10.
- Shamay-Tsoory, S.G., Saporta, N., Marton-Alper, I.Z., Gvirts, H.Z. (2019). Herding brains: a core neural mechanism for social alignment. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, **23**(3), 174–86.
- Shenhav, A., Greene, J.D. (2010). Moral judgments recruit domain-general valuation mechanisms to integrate representations of probability and magnitude. *Neuron*, **67**(4), 667–77.
- Shulman, C., Guberman, A., Shiling, N., Bauminger, N. (2012). Moral and social reasoning in autism spectrum disorders. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, **42**(7), 1364–76.
- Tei, S., Becker, C., Kawada, R., et al. (2014). Can we predict burnout severity from empathy-related brain activity? *Translational Psychiatry*, **4**(6), e393.
- Tei, S., Fujino, J., Kawada, R., et al. (2017). Collaborative roles of temporoparietal junction and dorsolateral prefrontal cortex in different types of behavioural flexibility. *Scientific Reports*, **7**, 6415.
- Tei, S., Fujino, J., Hashimoto, R.I., et al. (2018). Inflexible daily behaviour is associated with the ability to control an automatic reaction in autism spectrum disorder. *Scientific Reports*, **8**(1), 8082.
- Tei, S., Kauppi, J.-P., Fujino, J., et al. (2019a). Inter-subject correlation of temporoparietal junction activity is associated with conflict patterns during flexible decision-making. *Neuroscience Research*, **144**, 67–70.
- Tei, S., Fujino, J., Itahashi, T., et al. (2019b). Egocentric biases and atypical generosity in autistic individuals. *Autism Research*, **12**(11), 1598–608.
- Tei, S., Kauppi, J.-P., Jankowski, K.F., et al. (2020). Brain and behavioral alterations in subjects with social anxiety dominated by empathic embarrassment. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, **117**(8), 4385–91.
- Tei, S., Fujino, J., Itahashi, T., et al. (2021). The right temporoparietal junction during a cooperation dilemma: An rTMS study. *Neuroimage: Reports*, **1**, 100033.
- Tomasi, D., Volkow, N.D. (2019). Association between brain activation and functional connectivity. *Cerebral Cortex*, **29**(5), 1984–96.
- Tzourio-Mazoyer, N., Landeau, B., Papathanassiou, D., et al. (2002). Automated anatomical labeling of activations in SPM using a macroscopic anatomical parcellation of the MNI MRI single-subject brain. *Neuroimage*, **15**(1), 273–89.
- Uddin, L.Q. (2021). Brain mechanisms supporting flexible cognition and behavior in adolescents with autism spectrum disorder. *Biological Psychiatry*, **89**(2), 172–83.
- Vlek, C., Keren, G. (1992). Behavioral decision theory and environmental risk management: assessment and resolution of four 'survival' dilemmas. *Acta Psychologica*, **80**(1–3), 249–78.
- Wakabayashi, A., Baron-Cohen, S., Wheelwright, S., Tojo, Y. (2006). The Autism-Spectrum Quotient (AQ) in Japan: a cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, **36**(2), 263–70.
- Welborn, B.L., Lieberman, M.D., Goldenberg, D., Fuligni, A.J., Galván, A., Telzer, E.H. (2016). Neural mechanisms of social influence in adolescence. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, **11**(1), 100–9.
- Yamada, M., Camerer, C.F., Fujie, S., et al. (2012). Neural circuits in the brain that are activated when mitigating criminal sentences. *Nature Communications*, **3**, 759.
- Yoder, K.J., Harenski, C., Kiehl, K.A., Decety, J. (2015). Neural networks underlying implicit and explicit moral evaluations in psychopathy. *Translational Psychiatry*, **5**(8), e625.
- Zalla, T., Barlassina, L., Buon, M., Leboyer, M. (2011). Moral judgment in adults with autism spectrum disorders. *Cognition*, **121**(1), 115–26.