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Heroism and Prestige in Two Popular War Films

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This essay focuses primarily on Fury (2014) and to a lesser extent on Saving Private Ryan (1998), two popular war films. I suggest cognitive mechanisms that make the actions of main characters biologically plausible and intelligible. The principal ones have to do with social status and especially prestige, which is based on certain kinds of competence, especially in heroic leaders. Prestige is understood to be co-created by leaders and followers together. Heroism is understood to be depicted in these films as effective leadership in extreme circumstances so as to solve collective action problems. Heroic qualities are signaled (honestly) by means of wounds and scars. These signals are received and understood (both in the films and in their viewers) by means of social learning and social comparison judgments that track prestige. Group cohesion is also explored, especially in Fury, in terms of shared emotions, mimicry, rituals, and commitment to a common task. Hatred of morally defined out-groups is also seen at work. I conclude that these films posit warfare as one of a small number of "biologically possible arrangements" that accomplish a rare concatenation of fitness promoting goals. Some consideration is also given to what makes consilience between empirical science and cinematic imagination possible.

Keywords: war, heroism, prestige

Fury (2014), written and directed by David Ayer, joins a rich company of films treating various aspects of American involvement in World War II. It has so far received very little in the way of critical analysis and evaluation. But, like many other films of its ilk, it brings all the vividness and emotional excitement of the cinematic medium to a treatment of armored warfare that is nearly unique in modern film history. Like other films it also serves to underscore some of the issues pertaining to the moral psychology of human warfare. Indeed, I contend that it explores (often in spite of itself) many of the fundamental cognitive mechanisms that undergird human behavior in war. Those cognitive mechanisms, in turn, furnish proximate explanations for the behaviors in question.

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Such explanations are to be distinguished from evolutionarily ultimate explanations that "are concerned with the fitness consequences of a trait or behavior and whether it is (or is not) selected" (Scott-Phillips, Dickins, and West, 2011, p. 38). That is, ultimate explanations claim that a trait or behavior promotes reproductive success, and notably inclusive fitness (that is, enhanced fitness consequences for a target individual and all other individuals suitably related to that target). By contrast, proximate explanations "are concerned with the mechanisms that underpin the trait or behavior — that is, how it works" (Scott-Phillips et al., 2011, p. 38; for the wider subject, including doubts as to the adequacy of this dichotomy, see Laland, 2015; Uller and Laland, 2019). Proximate mechanisms that generate a trait or behavior can be quite various. Here I am mainly concerned with cognitive mechanisms and especially those that pertain to dynamics of social status. Films, after all, make a poor medium for displaying ultimate fitness consequences. But they can both display, instantiate, and trade on more proximate mechanisms quite well (and ultimate explanations do not stand without proximate mechanisms: Sterelny, 2013).

Fury is not, however, without its flaws, even serious ones. It begins by displaying a set of five historical statements all of which are either clearly or at least arguably false. These have particularly to do with the performance of the American M4 medium tank (the "Sherman" as it came to be known). Here the film-maker is in the grip of Belton Cooper's egregiously misleading book on the Sherman tank (Cooper, 2003). The Sherman was in fact a far better weapon system than Cooper allows, as the empirical evidence shows. It was not out-gunned or out-armored by German tanks, and neither was it the "death trap" Cooper makes it out to be, due to fire, especially at this late stage of the war (only 5-10% of these tanks burned out completely once the ammunition for the main gun was stored more appropriately). Some 50,000 men served in the American tank corps in Europe, and just over 1400 of them were killed in combat (or died of wounds), for a death rate of 2.8%, which is virtually the overall average for all American forces in World War II. The statements also include a mistake about the use of the phrase "total war" by German authorities (it goes back at least to Ludendorff's 1935 memoir of World War I, with different but equivalent expressions going back to the eighteenth century). The whole set of five claims establishes the basic, allegedly realistic, context for the film story (some critics, e.g., Jacob, 2015, accept these statements quite uncritically). The film makers also commit serious errors about military tactics and strategy, both American (no such commander would send out a single tank into enemy territory without supporting ground troops, artillery and/or air support) and German (no German commander at this late stage of the war would march a battalion of troops right down the middle of a road in close order ranks, especially where their enemy controlled the air; neither would he attack a stationary tank head-on). Furthermore, the effects of weapons on human flesh are often portrayed falsely, some of which will concern us further.

In all of these respects, this film pretends to a type and degree of historical realism that cannot be substantiated.

There is a wide range of other issues that *Fury* raises, not least in the context of contemporary critical discussions of war films in general. Almost all of these issues merit much more detailed and lengthy treatment than can be given in this essay. Heroism in war will concern us closely, and it in turn invites treatment of models of masculinity in war films (e.g., Gates, 2005; Jeffords, 1990; Stegall, 2014). Similarly, war films always have an underlying attitude towards war, one that is often foundational for the structure of their narratives. For many of them, the notion of "the just war" is deeply encoded in their narrative structures (Finlay, 2017). Indeed, Fury, Saving Private Ryan (1998), and many other war films, can plausibly be taken to be "enchanted" with war (the term is coined by Cole, 2009). So powerful is the attraction of war and the tendency to idealize it, that it is plausible even to argue that there are no genuinely anti-war films on our cinematic horizon (Mieszkowski, 2009; cf. Eide, 2007; Nouzeilles, 2016). In short, "these films love war" (Gates, 2005, p. 307). The hyper-graphic violence depicted in the combat sequences of films like Saving Private Ryan and Fury, has been characterized as "combat voyeurism" (Monnet, 2016; Peebles, 2009; Tatar, 2019) and while this will concern us further, it deserves a separate study of its own. Fury engages with the presence in war of children, in a variety of roles, but this, too, will be largely passed over in silence (it is noted but not pursued by Monnet, 2016, p. 411). And, finally, though some "leveling" effects will be noted in what follows, the thesis that Fury deliberately strikes a "moral equivalence" between American and German soldiers (Finlay, 2017; Summers, 2015) runs into a decisive objection that will also be noted later. But a full treatment of this issue will also lie outside the bounds of this essay. All of these issues warrant the claim that Fury is a reversion to an older type of triumphalist World War II film. (Such triumphalism may be a kind of didacticism in films: for a discussion of such didacticism see Plantinga, 2018, pp. 35-54.)

My main concern is with the notion of war heroism, its relationship to social status, and the cognitive mechanisms that make such status possible. My contention will be that these mechanisms comprise a suite of cognitive capacities that furnish a deep structure for this film, one lying beneath its more superficial features of event and depiction, and certainly deeper than the framework set by its opening (and misleading) claims. It is that deep structure, in turn, that gives this film its value as an exploration of the moral psychology of war, quite in despite of its manifest, and even egregious, flaws. I will begin with a general outline of social status and the role in it of prestige.

Social Status and Prestige Dynamics

Humans are hyper-social animals. Our brains and intelligence are finely honed to function in some of the most complex social environments found on the planet.

Some have argued that primate evolution has delivered our type of brain precisely because of the computational demands of our highly complex social environments, especially the dynamics of in-group social life (Adolphs, 2009; Dunbar, 2009; but for dissent see Ashton, Kennedy, and Radford, 2020; DeCasien, Williams, and Higham, 2017; Lockwood, Apps, and Chang, 2020; Rosati, 2017). One significant aspect of those environments is the notion of social status. Status has to do with power and the "standing" within a social group that goes with such power, especially the power to influence others. It is customary to assert that there are broadly two ways in which humans establish status: dominance or prestige (Cheng, Tracy, Foulsham, Kingstone, and Henrich, 2013; Cheng, Tracy, and Henrich, 2010; Henrich, 2016). Dominance is, roughly speaking, the exercise of coercive physical force, while prestige has more to do with expertise in skills or knowledge over matters of high value to the relevant social group. Dominance is sometimes held to be supported by one form of pride (hubristic pride) while prestige is supported by another (authentic pride). Both higher dominance and higher prestige are correlated with greater access to contested resources and ultimately with higher fertility or reproductive success (Henrich and Gil-White, 2001; Ketterman and Maner, 2021; Von Rueden, Gurven, and Kaplan, 2011). However, Bernard Chapais has argued for a more unified model of social status (Chapais, 2015). The key to this argument is the role of competence. It is competence in skills and/or knowledge over locally valued domains that gives rise to prestige and the respect or deference of others that goes with it. But even those seeking status by means of dominance must also exercise competence, in, for example, the use of weapons, the timing of the application of force, recruiting of allies, controlling fear, controlling information and resources affecting the welfare of others. On this view, the boundary between dominance and prestige is a fuzzy one. Moreover, there is good reason to think that competence is the root of all social status. Thus, those who exercise dominance successfully are likely to garner prestige (Von Rueden et al., 2011 recognize that many dominant men are also prestigious). Behavior undertaken to protect or defend status against the depredations of others may well take the form of competition or out-performing, but even here competence is the key to success: "... it is unlikely that bullies acquire status through intimidation alone — i.e., without prestige" (Chapais, 2015, p. 164). It also appears that pure dominance is a stable strategy for cooperation only in the short term, while prestige is better suited to the long-term in cooperative social relationships (Cheng, 2020; Henrich, Chudek, and Boyd, 2015; Redhead, Cheng, Driver, Foulsham, and O'Gorman, 2019), which explains well why there are so few purely dominant social hierarchies among humans. It is thus better to recognize two motivational domains or components of status, one competitive (supported by hubristic pride) and the other cooperative (supported by authentic pride), rather than two distinct "ways to the top." But, social status among humans has little value apart from the regard, respect, and deference conferred by others

on those with higher status than theirs. For without respect there is little prospect of dominant individuals achieving important coalitional goals (e.g., support in war, support in group politics, dispute resolution, marriage). And without these there can be little gain to inclusive fitness due to the exercise of mere brute force. Respect and deference, in their turn, are repaid by the exercise of expertise/competence on behalf of the community, often by either lateral (within a generation) or vertical (across multiple generations) transmission of vital social knowledge. "Social status may be viewed less as the trait of an individual than as the behavior produced by others' perception of that individual," as one recent investigation puts it (Von Rueden et al., 2011, p. 2224). Lower-status group members confer status on the group's experts (Chapais, 2015, p. 164). The experts, in turn, because of the asymmetries between their knowledge or skill and that of the other group members, will possess "dependence-based power" or "leverage" as some have called it (Chapais, 2015, p. 167; Lewis, 2002). This whole process is a complex dynamic form of social exchange (Price and Van Vugt, 2014). Its foundation lies in the psychology of admiration that motivates respect/deference for prestigious individuals, a psychology probably present in our closest primate relatives (Fessler and Gervais, 2010). This latter point raises the issue of the phylogenetic history of prestige.

It seems reasonably clear that rudimentary forms of prestige operate among chimpanzees, one of our closest primate relatives (Horner, Proctor, Bonnie, Whiten, and De Waal, 2010; Kendal, Hopper, Whiten, Brosnan, Lambeth, Schapiro, and Hoppitt, 2015; King and Sueur, 2011; Smith, Gavrilets, Mulder, Hooper, El Mouden, Nettle et al., 2016; Vermande and Sterck, 2020; Watson, Reamer, Mareno, Vale, Harrison, Lambeth et al., 2017). As such, human prestige is probably homologous with chimpanzee prestige, i.e., a trait derived from our common ancestor and thus more than six million years old. There is also evidence for prestige dynamics among elephants (McComb, Moss, Durant, Baker, and Sayialel, 2001; McComb, Shannon, Durant, Sayialel, Slotow, Poole, and Moss, 2011; Mutinda, Poole, and Moss, 2011; TenHouton, 2017), corvids (Fraser and Bugnyar, 2011; Kulahci, Rubenstein, Bugnyar, Hoppitt, Mikus, and Schwab, 2016) and perhaps even cetaceans (Janik, 2014; King and Janik, 2013). These species are phylogenetically distant from one another, so prestige here would probably arise from convergent (or parallel) evolution, rather than by common ancestry. It is not surprising that similarly social animals might converge on similar cognitive strategies and mechanisms for solving recurrent adaptive problems (Arbilly and

 1 Status, in men at least, can confer advantages in reproductive success (RS): Von Rueden and Jaeggi, 2016. It is notable here, however, that the relationship between status and RS is much weaker in humans (r=0.19) than it is in non-human primates (r=0.80).

Laland, 2017; Plotnik and Clayton, 2015). And high on the list of such problems for social animals will be securing cooperation within groups and effective forms of leadership for cooperative groups.

I shall also suppose that heroism is a specialized form of prestige, both from the side of the heroic agent and from the side of the observers (or judges) who confer respect and deference upon them.² Most forms of human sociality imply a certain level of expected altruistic action on the part of its members, expectations set by patterns of kinship, reciprocity, avoidance of punishment, and vested interests (Batson, 2011; Boehm, 2012; Hare and Woods, 2020; Tomasello, 2016; Wrangham, 2019). To go well beyond what is expected on these grounds is to act heroically. Heroism is, then, a form of generosity (and not merely accompanied by generosity), the willingness to risk great loss or damage in exchange for doing great good for others. It is a form of altruistic action, "an unambiguous good. In the absence of war, it does no harm to the individual or group, but in the event of war it can be decisive for victory" (Smirnov, Arrow, Kennett, and Orbell, 2007, p. 934; cf. Franco, Blau, and Zimbardo, 2011; Johnson, 2016; Kafashan, Sparks, Rotella, and Barclay, 2017; Rusch, 2014, 2022; Rusch and Löscher, 2013; Rusch and Störmer, 2015). War, of course, presents many circumstances which are themselves extreme, and which thereby defeat ordinary expectations for altruistic action. To take the lead by decisive action that benefits others in such circumstances is to act heroically (Rand and Epstein, 2014). Such heroism is virtually bound to secure considerable prestige for the heroic agent. But for prestigious heroism to occur and such respect to be conferred, it must be possible to recognize heroic actions (and persons) as such. With the issue of recognition we can return to our films.

Signaling War Heroism

In Saving Private Ryan and Fury, we are shown many explicit effects of the weapons of war on human bodies. We see men eviscerated, with their limbs blown off, decapitated, shot through the body, missing whole sections of their heads and faces, burning to death, crushed flat by armored vehicles. We see something of the sheer confusion of combat, the noise, and the randomness of wounding and death. The opening sequence of Ryan is notable in all of these respects and can be emotionally overwhelming for the viewer (who, however, takes no action corresponding to those emotions). Probably no other film

²Our films, in keeping with many cultural stereotypes, designate only male heroes, and this, as we know, is highly misleading. In some important contexts, women are more commonly heroic than men. But, given the nature of combat in WWII, the stereotype is virtually bound to ensue. On the whole issue see Becker and Eagly, 2004; Cohn, 1993; Gottschall, 2005, pp. 212–213, Table 2; Schwarz, 2016.

conveys as effectively the sheer terror and brutality of modern warfare. In *Fury* and *Ryan*, also, we see the carnage wrought by modern weapons and tactics: heaps of dead bodies in trucks, being bulldozed into mass graves, the terrible suffering of the wounded in aid stations. By such means we come to as near a visceral reckoning with the lethality of war, as may be possible to a mere onlooker.³ A man in the thick of combat for long periods is unlikely to emerge without evidence of past wounds. And here we encounter a powerful indicator of war heroism, one that *Fury* trades on heavily.

Scars indicate past wounds, and wounds received in war are often (though not always) taken to be indicative of heroism. Wounds and scars thus can be signals to others of the qualities that belong to heroes. These qualities may include physical strength and stamina, mental toughness, capacities for effective leadership, ability to accurately assess risks and a rich capacity for problem-solving by means of bold and decisive action. Heroic properties may also include elements of personality, including trustworthiness, honesty, obedience to authority, cooperation, and especially a willingness to subordinate one's own interests to those of the larger group. Similarly, they may include emotional qualities of personality: the capacity reliably and appropriately to display fear, empathy, compassion, even murderous rage, and emotional resilience. In sum, " ... intergroup conflict offers an arena for men (but not for women) to show off their physical strength, courage, and leadership skills both to same sex rivals (intra-sexual selection) as well as to members of the opposite sex (inter-sexual selection)" [Rusch, Leunissen, and Van Vugt, 2015, p. 367]. Heroic actions, then, may act as honest signals of these properties, and these signals may expose those traits to the force of sexual selection (cf. Mayr, 2001, p. 138). Hard empirical evidence for this view is difficult to come by, but not entirely absent. In one study carried out in a South American tribal population, men who had participated as leaders in war raids and who had achieved a certain measure of seniority and leadership authority in the tribe proved to have more reproductive success than others, as the theory of sexual selection predicts (Glowacki and Wrangham, 2015; Nawata, 2020; Rusch and Störmer, 2015; Zefferman and Matthew, 2015; the study of Meriam turtle-hunters by Smith, Bird and Bird, 2003 shows similar effects of heroism). In a study of surviving American Medal of Honor (MOH) winners from World War II, it was found that Medal winners had, on average 3.18 children, where more regular soldiers who were their peers had on average 2.72 children, a difference of approximately 17% (Rusch, Leunissen, and Van Vugt, 2015, p. 369; cf. Rusch and Störmer, 2015). A related study of MOH winners from World War I was inconclusive as regards children of MOH winners, but has suggestive parallel results when it comes to

³ However, as Monnet, 2016, p. 409 notes, "... combat on film, no matter how hard it tries to create a reality-effect, can never by anything but safe, vicarious play." Such safety has something to do with "decoupling," a phenomenon I will discuss later.

differential rates of marriage of MOH winners (Dingle, 2006, pp. 66–67). These findings suggest a higher degree of reproductive success among the Medal winners than among other soldiers. That females may have a marked preference for "heroic qualities" in prospective mates was also the finding of Kelly and Dunbar, 2001 (their sample size, however, is small).

There is another side to this coin. Hunter-gatherer groups are well known to punish individuals who display cowardice in war (Matthew and Boyd, 2011, 2014; Wiessner, 2005). Although we cannot simply read off of such behavior the parallel phenomena in our ancient human and hominin ancestors, it is customary to suppose that patterns of behavior found in modern hunter-gatherers at least suggest similar patterns in the early period of human adaptation. Our tendency, then, to prefer heroes to cowards, to distinguish between mere incompetence in war and actual cowardice, and the like, may well be part of our ancient evolutionary heritage. This is in keeping with the role of punishments in sustaining cooperation, especially among large groups of non-kin.⁴ It is notable in this regard that such punishment is especially effective when it is coordinated among several punishing agents and is costly to the punishing agents themselves (Bowles, Boyd, Matthew, and Richerson, 2012; Hauert, Traulsen, Brandt, Nowak, and Sigmund, 2007; Krasnow, Cosmides, Pedersen, and Tooby, 2012; Raihani, Thornton, and Bshary, 2012; Sääksvuori, Mappes, and Puurtinen, 2011). Such punishment also makes stable social niches possible for primates like us, and these effects are intensified in periods of war (Flack, Girven, De Waal, and Krakauer, 2006; Gneezy and Fessler, 2012). It is little wonder, then, that we as a species have evolved marked preferences for rewarding heroism, especially heroism in war. The same mechanisms operate in all of us, making us deeply susceptible to fictive depictions of war heroism such as we find in Fury and Ryan. Our phylogenetic heritage virtually dictates the form the narrative is likely to take, how heroism will be indicated or signaled, and how heroism will be perceived and rewarded, both within the context of the film itself and by its viewers.

All kinds of animals engage in the creation and deployment of many kinds of signals, ranging from automatic forms of behavior to various kinds of voluntary communication (Owren, Rendall, and Ryan, 2010; Pentland, 2008; Searcy and Nowicki, 2005; Smith and Harper, 2003; Tomasello, 2010, pp. 13–55). One key for animal survival is to learn how to detect honest signals and distinguish them from false and misleading signals. And, of course, it is also important to learn how to fabricate and deploy honest signals. What makes signals honest is much debated among biologists today. I shall suppose here that one way to insure honesty in

⁴ The ontogeny of third-party punishment in humans is very early, with elements detectable at one year of age: Redhead, Dhaliwal and Cheng, 2021; Ting, He, and Baillargeon, 2019; Yang, Choi, Misch, Yang, and Dunham, 2018; Yudkin, Van Bavel, and Rhodes, 2020. Early ontogeny is often one indication that the behavior in question is adaptive.

signaling is to attach some cost to the signaler: costly signals are more likely than cheap ones to be honest indicators of the properties in question (Bird, Smith and Bird, 2001; Gintis, Smith, and Bowles, 2001; Semple and Higham, 2013; Zahavi and Zahavi, 1997). Moreover, often a cost is attached to dishonest signaling (as in the hunter-gatherers groups noted above; and cf. Higham, 2014). When Sgt. Collier (Brad Pitt) shows us his burn scars, in the long scene in the apartment of Irma (Anamaria Marinca) and her young cousin Emma (Alicia von Rittberg), we understand that he has earned his place as a leader, his status as a heroic figure. A fresh wound above Captain Waggoner's eye (Jason Isaacs) likewise is a costly signal that this man, too, has been in the forefront of battle and has (so far) prevailed. The psychological wounds and scars borne by the entirety of Fury's crew (some of them rehearsed for us in the apartment) similarly signal to us, their audience, that these are tough men who have prevailed in extraordinarily dangerous conditions. Wounds and scars from old wounds are honest signals in so far as they are costly and very hard to fake. Moreover, if they are faked, the cost to the faker can be very high indeed: an enduring and pervasive loss of status.

Wounds and scars are not universally taken to be signals of heroism. There have been in the past cultures in which wounds received in battle (especially wounds to the face or head) were understood to be signals of shame or guilt, not of heroism at all (Evans, 1999; Skinner, 2015). It is thus evident that cultural conditions also play a role in how signals are received, and how they might be crafted and transmitted in any given society. Even today, disfiguring wounds received in war or by "first responders" — especially those to the face — are often treated as shameful (when they should not be). Those who bear such wounds often feel forced to hide from the rest of us. This, too, is a matter of culture and more or less settled manners of acting widespread or dominant in a given culture. The close association of wounds/scars with heroism remains, nonetheless, as one prominent cultural thread among many, one that is available to the film-makers to exploit. For we, the audience, also share this cultural deposit, by virtue of our common biology, and learn from it how to respond to these signals.

It is notable that Collier displays his burn scars and though he is aware that Irma, Emma, and Norman Ellison (Logan Lerman) all see them clearly, he makes no explicit comment about them (a perfectly unbelievable back-story for these scars originally included in the script was, wisely, dropped). We take it that the scars are from an earlier tank fire. Given the context in the film, no other explanation occurs to us. The confluence of Collier's "credibility enhancing display" (Henrich, 2009; Kraft–Todd, Bollinger, Gillingham, Lamp, and Rand, 2018; Kraft–Todd and Rand, 2021) and the cultural thread connecting scars with heroism is enough to elicit that explanation. It is a deft touch by the film-maker to keep Collier silent on the matter, allowing us the viewers to supply the missing explanation (here also may be an instance of what Plantinga, 2018 treats as the "influence" of films on their viewers, though one driven neither by transfer nor emotion).

It is perhaps all the more odd to find both Fury and Ryan sometimes squeamish about the same issue. Thus, in Ryan the two most heroic figures, Sgt. Mike Horvath (Tom Sizemore) and Capt. John Miller (Tom Hanks) die with hardly a mark on them. Instead, all around them men are wounded and bear the (often grotesque) marks of their wounds. By such indirect indicators, we see what lethal environments Horvath and Miller have survived. But when they themselves are killed, death is caused in such a way as to leave their physical appearance virtually unchanged. And when Sgt. Collier is killed in Fury, he, too, is largely unmarked by his fatal wounds. He is shot through the upper torso three times by a German sniper at close range, but not yet killed (indeed, is still able to lever his body back into the tank).⁵ Later, he is actually killed by having two German grenades detonate at his feet inside that very turret. But when we see his body after this, there is not a mark on his face, hands, or head. Real German grenades exploding in the confines of a tank turret would have shredded his body. There seems to be a cinematic rule operating here: the hero can be marked up in a variety of ways, and can be surrounded by other dead or wounded men (indicative of a dangerous environment), but must not be seen to be grievously torn to pieces in his moment of death. Or perhaps the film-makers also share that other cultural thread which makes war wounds, and especially wounds to the face, shameful.

It is well, then, that there are other (more credible) ways of signaling heroic traits and status. This is especially clear in the case of Sgt. Collier. He is shown to be a man to whom other equally experienced soldiers pay considerable deference, especially his fellow tank commanders. Even his superior officers do so. When the hapless Lt. Parker (Xavier Samuel) is killed, there is no question that Collier will lead the tank platoon. He directs them successfully in battle. In Irma's apartment, when it becomes necessary, he can dominate his crew, asserting his authority (albeit an authority based on his competence). All of this is readily apparent to Norman Ellison, the "new guy" in the Fury crew. Similarly, in Ryan, Captain Miller is chosen by his own superior officer, Lt. Col. Anderson (Dennis Farina) to carry out a variety of missions because he is the best small-unit commander he has. The choice of him and his squad to search for Private Ryan (Matt Damon) is based on this record of competence (a reputation effect). And we see him lead other men, even those not originally under his command, in battle, notably on D-Day itself at Omaha Beach where he and Sgt. Horvath round up a rag-tag bunch of men who have survived the initial crossing of the beach itself and forge them into an effective fighting unit. His decision to help defend the bridge, after finding Private Ryan, though somewhat forced on him, also shows his competence, for without him the small unit guarding the bridge when Miller's group arrives would have

⁵The standard German sniper rifle during World War 2 was he bolt-action Mauser Kar98k, with various types of scopes and chambered for the 7.92 mm cartridge (riughly equivalent to .30 caliber). It was capable of kills at distances up to 1.1. km. See detailed discussion in Senich, 1982, pp. 159–280.

been overwhelmed very soon by the attacking Germans. In both cases, Miller exerts "exemplary leadership," which is commonly construed as a characteristic of war heroes (Efthimiou and Franco, 2017; Franco, 2017; Johnson, 2016; Kafashan, Sparks, Rotella, and Barclay, 2017; Kohen, Langdon, and Riches, 2019; Rusch, 2022). Both Collier and Miller are the quintessentially effective leaders in combat. Norman is told twice (once by Fury's crew, and once by Collier himself) that Collier has been with these men since 1942 and has kept most of them alive until now. Corporal Upham (Jeremy Davies), the new guy in Ryan, knows that Miller and Sergeant Horvath have been together for some time and that the squad has survived repeated lethal encounters with the enemy. (We, the audience, also get a brief glimpse of the small tins of dirt that Sgt. Horvath has collected from earlier amphibious landings in North Africa and Sicily, also an effective credibility-enhancing display.) All of this, together with the prestige it earns these leaders, is readily visible to Ellison and Upham, as also to us. They could hardly fail to draw the obvious conclusion: in Sgt. Collier and in Captain Miller they see men of very high prestige, prestige based on competence in war-making. Apart from that prestige, they would not be the heroic figures we are presented with.

It is no good making signals of heroism and prestige if they are not received and understood. The person who most needs to receive these signals is the newcomer, and his problem is not a simple one. I will concentrate on Ellison.

Recognizing Heroism by Tracking Prestige

Norman Ellison's problem is acute. He is wholly untrained for fighting war from inside a tank. He was trained as a clerk-typist, and now finds himself in a bizarre and alien environment. What is essential is that he learn rapidly what it is that he needs to know. But what is it that he needs to know? First, and foremost, he needs to learn the most basic reality of his situation. Collier takes him to a captured German soldier and says to Norman, "He's here to kill you; you're here to kill him." And, when Norman claims he cannot kill in cold blood, Collier forces him to kill that German. Later Collier shows Norman a room full of Nazi grandees and their wives, all of whom have committed suicide (some by gunshot) rather than be captured alive. And, of course, Norman also sees Lt. Parker die horribly (and the rest of his crew) when his tank is attacked by a very young German soldier and destroyed by fire. In war, it is kill or be killed. In learning to kill, Norman must also find within himself a capacity for lethal violence. There is excellent reason

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⁶ Both we, the viewers, and Norman are hereby invited to perform an act of practical reasoning: given that action A or B *must* be undertaken and that action A is absolutely undesirable, practical reason tells him to take the alternative. This is almost a perfect example of the phenomenon discussed by Turvey, 2019. Like Turvey, I seriously doubt Plantinga's theory of the primacy of emotions in effecting influence on viewers by films. Practical reasoning of the kind here displayed is at least as important. Further reasons for doubting this part of Plantinga's main theory in his recent book will appear in due course.

to think that all humans are hardwired for such violence. This is why we resort to homicide to solve certain well-known adaptive problems and under highly predictable circumstances (Buss, 2005; Duntley and Buss, 2008, 2011). We also know that human lethal violence has a long and distinguished phylogeny. A recent analysis of that long history across mammalian species concludes that "... humans have phylogenetically inherited their propensity for violence" (Gomez, Verdu, Gonzalez-Megias, and Mendez, 2016, p. 235; cf. Wrangham, 2019, pp. 248-272). But it is his own capacity for lethal violence that Norman urgently needs to discover and own. We see him do so in a series of combat situations. The actions of Sgt. Collier and the other members of Fury's crew serve as his template, sponsoring his self-discovery (see Corcoran, Crusius, and Mussweiler, 2011; Corcoran and Mussweiler, 2010; Mussweiler and Rüter, 2003 on social comparison generally; and for the linkage of self-discovery with it see Diel, Grelle, and Hofmann, 2021; Strickhouser and Zell, 2015). Full ownership of that capacity emerges when Norman slaughters the Germans who are escaping from their wrecked Tiger tank, pre-empting even the action of Sgt. Collier. Earlier, it was Collier who tracked down and killed the young soldiers who attacked Lt. Parker's tank. Now the student has taken the teacher's place. In Ryan we see Corporal Upham "graduate" to the same self-understanding when he executes Steamboat Willie (Jörg Stadler) towards the end of the film. Both Ellison and Upham need to find and harness their own capacities for killing, and both succeed in doing so, making use of the examples they have already seen. (We may therefore also add to the concept in Allison, Goethals, Marrinan, Parker, Spyrou, and Stein [2019] of the "metamorphosis of the hero," the further concept of the metamorphosis of the *latent* hero; such metamorphosis bearing also some relationship to Joseph Campbell's idea of the hero's journey: see Efthimiou and Franco, 2017; Vogler, 2017.) This implies solutions to two further problems.

To engage in almost any form of "social learning," such as Ellison and Upham undergo, it is necessary to solve two other problems: identifying "who" to learn from and "how" to learn from that person (for these as characteristic of social learning, see Jimenez and Masoudi, 2019; Kirby, 2007; Tomasello, 2019, pp. 45–90; Van Schaik, Graber, Schuppli, and Burkart, 2017; and for social learning as a cognitive mechanism widely found across the animal world, including fish, see Laland, Atton, and Webster, 2011; for primates see Canteloup, Hoppitt, and Van de Waal, 2020; Whiten and Van de Waal, 2018). In their situations it is natural for them to look to their heroic leaders, and both do so. Moreover, both men display behavior that is typical of lower-status individuals in a prestige hierarchy: they approach their prospective mentors, maintain an attitude of open deference

⁷Here, again, we have to do with early ontogeny in humans. Indeed, there is good evidence for certain forms of social learning even in human fetuses: see James, 2010; Krueger and Garvan, 2014; Partanen, Kujala, Näätänen, Liitola, Sambeth, and Huotilainen, 2013.

towards them, engage with them, pay close attention to what their models say and do, maintain an open bodily stance (as opposed to the cringing fearfulness of men trying to avoid dominants), and allow their admiration of their models to blossom (for this pattern see Henrich, 2016, p. 128). "Selection also favors attending to, learning from, and respecting the senior members of one's community when they are likely to possess valuable cultural information," as Henrich puts it (2016, p. 137; cf. Laland, 2007, p. 4: " ... copying others indiscriminately is not adaptive;" with which remark compare his discussion of high-fidelity transmission of cultural knowledge in Laland, 2017, pp. 150-174). In the case of Norman, in particular, we see the dynamics of admiration reach their most acute point when he decides to stay at the cross-roads with Sgt. Collier and the tank. Here Norman takes the lead over the other members of the crew, who in turn follow his lead and make a similar decision, even though it will eventually cost them their lives. When Collier is killed, we see Norman treat his dead body with respect and affection, just as Collier had earlier treated the dead body of "Red" Connolly, his previous bow gunner, whose position Norman has assumed, with respect and affection. The student now models the behaviors of the teacher. And the last thing we hear at the end of the film is someone else calling Norman a hero. Howsoever unconvincing and even clumsy that final scene may be, it makes the point: heroism can breed heroism in those who are receptive to its patterns of behavior, motivation, and affect.8 Apart from the cognitive significance of prestige it would be much harder than it would otherwise be for such transmission of cultural values to occur. And it would also be much harder for young, untried soldiers to survive their initial exposure to the rigors of combat.

War Heroism and Collective Action Problems

One earmark of both human aggression and human cooperation is that they extend to large groups of non-kin. There can be little doubt that ancient patterns of kinship underlie them (Chapais, 2008). But humans cooperate and aggress over scales vastly in excess of what primitive kinship dynamics will support. And it is here that a particular kind of social problem arises: the problem of collective action, i.e., how to get individuals who have no kinship relationship to one another to cooperate effectively to solve other common problems (Willems, Hellriegel, and Van Schaik, 2013; Willems, Jean, Arseneau, Schleuning, and Van Schaik, 2015). The problem becomes especially acute in warfare: "A war party faces the problem of altruism *par excellence*. Every member has an incentive to cheat by keeping himself out of harm's way and exposing others to greater risk" (Pinker, 1997, p. 626).

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⁸ It also illustrates well the point Kafashan et al., 2017 emphasizes: the critical role played by those who *judge* that someone is a hero or has acted heroically. Deference is a major signal of such judgments.

Both *Fury* and *Saving Private Ryan* capture especially well the sheer unalloyed urgency of their respective problems of collective action *versus* free-riding. In *Ryan* this is notable in the opening extended combat sequence during the D-Day invasion. Here a whole crowd of American soldiers stands to perish on the beach if John Miller and Mike Horvath fail to rally them effectively. In *Fury*, of course, we have a different situation, one in which it is much more difficult (given the size of the average Sherman tank crew) to shirk the task of collective action, but in which it is still possible to do so, even though it is either "pull together" or be lost separately. I shall focus mainly on *Fury* for what follows regarding the internal dynamics of solving the collective action problem (CAP). The solution implicates both leadership and followership in small groups.

What saves the lives of the crew of Fury (for as long as they do live), and even many of those whom they save in the field (e.g., other tank crews and their supporting infantry) is the leadership of Sgt. Collier. Films are excellent vehicles for displaying the qualities of such leadership. Collier, more particularly, displays exceptional capacities for initiative, application of practical intelligence (though not "timeless phronesis" as Franco, Efthimiou and Zimbardo, 2016, p. 337 would have it; on the contrary, Collier's practical wisdom is very much of a piece with his time and place) and good timing, to enable his men (and others associated with them) to successfully invade a small German town, to defeat a larger, heavier German tank (a Tiger), and eventually to defend the vital crossroads successfully against a much more powerful enemy force. John Miller and Mike Horvath display similar capacities in the combat sequences of Ryan, notably on Omaha Beach during D-Day, later in overcoming the German machine-gun nest at the radar site, and eventually in defending the bridge where they both die. Decisive judgments and good timing save the day in nearly every instance. Effective choreographing of action, use of associated CGI technology, film editing, and film music all combine to convey the value of such judgments to us, the audience.9 With it our admiration of these heroic figures is aroused, by means of the same psychology of admiration that operates on both sides of the fictive fourth wall (and elsewhere in the phylogeny of human heroism). We also see that Collier and Miller, especially, are trustworthy characters, and trustworthiness is also a sign of effective leadership in small groups. A readiness to engage in uncalculating cooperation is one way to communicate such trustworthiness to one's followers (Jordan, Hoffman, Nowak, and Rand, 2016). The confluence of interests between leaders and followers, especially in the extreme circumstances of combat, may also explain the effectiveness of such signals and their coordinated reception by followers (Higham, 2014). Moreover, from the point of view of followers, such leadership solves many coordination problems that otherwise would threaten their welfare (Hooper, Kaplan, and Boone, 2010). Throughout these scenes

⁹ See Shimamura, Cohn-Sheehy, Pogue, and Shimamura, 2015 on the role of edits in directing attention. For a wider perspective see Carroll and Seeley, 2013.

we see the sheer competence and boldness of these leaders, and the resulting prestige that they carry.

But, as I have stressed earlier, prestige is co-created by leaders and followers together. That leadership and followership are likewise co-created is a fundamental feature of both, as recent empirical investigations show (Glowacki and Von Rueden, 2015; Kelly, Zuroff, Leybman, and Martin, 2011; Leroy, Anseel, Gardner, and Sels, 2012; Uhl-Bien and Carsten, 2018; Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, and Carsten, 2014; Van Vugt, 2006). Such coordination belongs to the dynamics of prestige, for prestige is conferred on high-status individuals by lower-status individuals and can (and will) be withdrawn in appropriate conditions. This deep coordination of leadership with followership is the key, in my view, to their joint capacity to solve collective action problems (cf. Gavrilets, 2015; Gavrilets and Fortunato, 2014). For well-coordinated leaders and followers are already predisposed, cognitively, motivationally, and affectively, to solve them in a cooperative fashion. The social construction approach to leadership-followership predicts that disrespectful followers of beneficial leaders will be subjected to punitive affects and actions by other group members (Price and Van Vugt, 2014). We see several brilliant instances of this in Fury when the hapless Norman Ellison is first introduced to the crew and a little later when he is forced to kill his first German, and in Ryan when Private Reiben (Edward Burns) mutinies against Miller's commands at the radar site (and very nearly gets shot for it by Sgt. Horvath). As we have already noted, both Private Ellison and Corporal Upham are merely naïve and incompetent, having had no combat experience previously to being assigned to their respective new units. Both punishment and instruction also fall under the purview of leadership and followership (Harcourt, Ang, Sweetman, Johnstone, and Manica, 2009; Judge and Bono 2000; Price and Van Vugt, 2014; Van Vugt and Ronay, 2014).

Fury is especially instructive about what constitutes good followership. For the crew of Fury itself is, as we see repeatedly in the combat sequences, a well-functioning unit (once Ellison gets up to speed). Their obedience to authority is (usually) immediate and unquestioning. Their extreme circumstances require this, and here is an extension of the respect/deference that belongs to prestige dynamics. They are also well-trained (most of which training, of course, has taken place in the past and out of viewers' awareness), as we see especially in their defeat of the German Tiger tank. Driver, commander, loader, gunner and even the bow machine-gunner, here function smoothly, accurately, and quickly. Compare the skills displayed by Miller's sniper, Private Jackson (Barry Pepper), and also in the

¹⁰ This is also historically accurate: field tests showed that Sherman tanks were quite capable of defeating German Tiger tanks, especially when equipped with the 76mm gun and high-velocity armor piercing rounds: Mendes, 2019; Samsonov, 2013. Shermans were also much faster and more maneu-

verable than the heavier Tigers, facts the film capitalizes on.

fire-and-movement of the rest of that squad. Good followers may preserve their own capacity for self-determination (Leroy et al., 2012), but are also able to subordinate self-determination to the needs of the larger group. Among those needs is acceptance of leadership when it is most needed.

Sgt. Collier also displays another signal feature of leadership in small groups, though it is easily overlooked in the heat of combat. This is his generosity. We see it in his readiness to praise the performances of his crew, his looking after their physical welfare (making sure Ellison gets fed, for example), the lengths he goes to teach Ellison what he most needs to learn, and his empathy with the crew over the death of Red Connolly. His generosity also extends to his treatment of escaping civilians, surrendering young soldiers, his deference to the old man who gets shot by a German sniper, his punishing the SS officer who hanged the children. And perhaps most startling is his sharing his precious fresh eggs in Irma's apartment. Even his surprising Boyd "Bible" Swan (Shia LaBeouf) with his own knowledge of scripture is another mark of generosity. And, of course, the jokes, always the jokes. Generosity is a mark of prestige-based leadership (Boehm, 1993, p. 233; Chapais, 2015, pp. 179–180; Henrich, 2016, p. 130). It is not, therefore, surprising to find it in a heroic character like Sgt. Collier. It is the underlying dynamics of prestige, I contend, that account for this.

Well-led groups practicing good followership require internal cohesion if they are to succeed (Reiben's offense, in *Ryan*, is to threaten irremediable damage to that cohesion). The practices that help secure such cohesion will concern us next.

Group Cohesion and Newcomer Dynamics

According to some social scientists, smaller groups of humans (e.g., 3-5 members as compared with 8-20 members) can be more cohesive than larger ones, and the same rule seems to apply across primate species (Lehmann, Korstjens, and Dunbar, 2007; Wakefield, 2013; Wiszniewski, Allen, and Möller, 2009). A further notable and relevant feature of group cohesion is that it is most effectively based on commitment to the same goals or tasks, rather than on how the members of the group feel about one another. It is not personal attraction or affection that matters (though these may rise very high in any given cohesive group) but commitment to the common task and a similarly high valuation of that task by all the members of the group. This is particularly so in the case of the military: "All of the evidence indicates that military performance depends on whether service members are committed to the same professional goals, not whether they like one another" (MacCoun, Kier, and Belkia, 2006, p. 652; cf. Castaño, Watts, Tekleab, and Amanuel, 2013; Evans and Dion, 2012; Griffith, 1988; Gully, Devine, and Whitney, 2012). This helps us to understand what otherwise may be missed in Fury (e.g., by Gates, 2005), in particular; namely, the emphasis on doing "the job."

"I need you to perform," says Sgt. Collier to Norman. "Do your job! Do what you're here for!" The tank's primary driver, Trini "Gordo" Garcia (Michael Peña) tells Norman peremptorily: "Do your job!" And when Norman finally finds it within himself to fire his machine gun at the enemy, the response is "Good job, Norman. Welcome to the Army." The crew makes a joke about it, one in which Norman is finally included. They repeat their mantra: "Best job I ever had." Sometimes this is initiated by the commander and sometimes from other members of the crew. It is one of several rituals that this crew has, and it is a very revealing one. They have a job to do and that is why they are in this tank together. It is up to them to do that job together. If Norman does not pull his weight as the bow gunner, the entire crew is in danger of failing to do their job too. Similarly, John Miller is singled out by his commander, Lt. Col. Anderson, for difficult "assignments," because he and his men are effective at solving the collective action problems those jobs entail.¹¹ They can be relied upon and so they are, again and again and again, until finally their last job overwhelms (most of) them. Soldiers forge strong emotional ties with one another, to be sure, especially soldiers who have gone through extensive combat together, and we see this in our films. But most often, the evidence shows, those affective ties do not survive the end of the war. Moreover, ties of affection do not correlate well with unit effectiveness or performance. What holds the military units together more strongly than affection is commitment to their common tasks and the values entailed by their achievement. It is of special note here that those values are held in common, for it is these standards that allow for judging adequate performance on "the job." Communally held standards also lie behind judgments of relative prestige. Indeed, there is no such thing as prestige apart from at least locally agreed-upon standards, for it is against these that (always relative) prestige is measured.

The whole verbal play on "the job," especially in *Fury*, is also a case of mimicry, for each member of the crew mimics the others. We know that mimicry tends to promote affiliation and can thus contribute to the cohesion of small groups (Chartrand and Lakin, 2013; Fischer and Hess, 2017; Hess, 2021; Lakin and Chartrand, 2003; Manrique, Marin, Nieto–Aleman, Read, Hernandez–Jaramillo, Garcia–Palacios, and Zeidler, 2021). Rituals can have similar effects on groups, and can also function as signals of common commitments to joint tasks and common valuation of the goals they represent. "Simply by attending and participating one has publically indicated one's inclusion in the community ... ritual actions create social realities that result in largely shared sacred values" (Sosis and Shaver, 2016, pp. 77–78). In *Fury* we have the ritual of "The best job I ever

¹¹We are seeing here the emergence of a kind of professionalism (the profession of arms). If this film influences its viewers at all, that influence may be partly due to the model of professionalism that is offered to our imaginations by the film. This has relatively little to do with emotion.

had." But we also have at least two others rituals. Each member of the tank crew has been "christened" and given a war name: Sgt. Collier is "Wardaddy," Boyd Swan, the gunner, is "Bible," Grady Travis, the loader, is "Coon Ass," the dead bow gunner was "Red" Conley, and the tank's driver is "Gordo." For the most part we never learn how these names came to be attached to these men. But, as a mark that he has finally been accepted as a full member of the crew, someone who has been blooded in combat and who has succeeded in learning to "do his job," the hapless Norman Ellison is christened "Machine," by his commander. Collier even uses the appropriate speech-act: "I christen thee 'Machine.'" The other ritual has to do with passing on of important knowledge to Norman, and this brings us to one of the more savage aspects of Fury. The learning of knowledge vital to the well-functioning of a group is a form of ritual, "learning secret knowledge," the acquisition of beliefs essential to group identity and ritual meaning (Sosis, 2006, pp. 72–77; Whitehouse, 2021, pp. 82–105). We may thus consider the education (and eventual assimilation) of Norman Ellison and Corporal Upham a form of ritual. Not for nothing, after all, do we commonly say that soldiers have been "baptized by fire." Exposure to actual combat makes them members of the in-group.

Rituals aid group cohesion, leadership aids group cohesion, and commitment to common tasks promotes that same cohesion. Without these devices, solutions to the problems of collective action are much less likely to emerge in groups. Moreover, solutions to the collective action problem at the level of small groups is probably critical to their solution in much larger groups (Centola, 2013), which helps to explain why military forces place so much emphasis on small unit training. In Fury we see this in so far as the crew of the tank Fury has a marked influence on the functioning of the larger platoon of tanks that they are briefly part of. We also see here that small unit cohesion has a durable influence on the functioning of that unit over time. Cohesion thus has the power to propagate over social space and time both. Indeed, one obvious advantage to a group of solving the CAP effectively at one time is that it then becomes more likely that this same group can solve novel collective action problems that arise at later times and in different settings. Well-trained military units can be relied upon to function effectively in novel circumstances. In this way, "the distinctive character of human social life depends on the accumulation, preservation, and intergenerational transmission of cognitive capital," (Sterelny, 2012, p. 65; cf. Gavrilets and Shrestha, 2021; Gavrilets and Richerson, 2017; Perry, Shrestha, Vose, and Gavrilets, 2018; Tomasello, 2019, pp. 134-160).12 In Ryan John Miller's squad is

¹²Such transmission is not to be confused with Plantinga's "transfer" hypothesis (2018, pp. 55–74). Plantinga's "transfer" has more to do with alleged processes whereby someone acquires cognitive skills (or related material) in one setting and is later able to apply those same skills in quite a different setting far removed from the original (philosophers, for example, often hold that analytical, argumentative, and representational skills acquired in philosophy courses transfer to other disciplines).

called upon to solve new problems as they arise precisely because they have been effective in doing so in the recent past and in contexts closely similar to the new ones. Wardaddy's commanding officer calls upon him and his crew precisely because he knows they are likely to get "the job" done. Both groups thus exhibit a distinctive culture of competence: of reliably and effectively solving collective action problems, in large measure due to their well-functioning as a group. Both groups also exude a sense of pride in their competence, the same "authentic pride" that characteristically goes with relatively high prestige. Their swagger is well-deserved and reflects their prestige relative to other, and especially untried or inexperienced, units.

Finally, it is worth noting in this connection that emotions also play a direct role in group cohesiveness. In units like Miller's squad and Collier's tank crew, especially undergoing the rigors of protracted combat, there are bound to be a wide range of emotions in evidence: fear, disgust, contempt, anger, pride, affection, hatred, desire for approval, shame, guilt, the need to belong, self-esteem, loyalty, empathy, jealousy, Schadenfreude, amusement, excitement, among others. So-called "moral emotions," such as guilt, shame, disgust and the like, are particularly important as they tend to motivate actions that sustain social relatedness (Fiske, 2002; Keltner and Haidt, 1999; Rai and Fiske, 2011). It is pretty easy to see how positive emotions might serve in this way. But what is perhaps more remarkable is that sometimes even very negative emotions can also serve to enhance the cohesiveness of small groups and their capacities to perform their tasks well (Barsade and Knight, 2015; Knight and Eisenkraft, 2015; Yang and Kelly, 2016). Film is an excellent medium for displaying emotions, given that it makes use of multiple sensory modalities, makes possible close-ups of the face, mouth, and eyes (for emotional faces see Landi, Viswanathan, Serene, and Freiwald, 2021; Mavratzakis, Herbert, and Walla, 2016; Montag and Panksepp, 2016; Muukkonen, Ölander, Numminen, and Salmela, 2020; Ruba, Meltzoff, and Repacholi, 2020) and allows for movement of the body (and thus emotional body language, for which see Botta, Lagravinese, Bove, Avenante, and Avanzino, 2021; De Gelder, 2009; Ferrari, Ciricugno, Urgesi, and Cattaneo, 2022; Keck, Zabicki, Bachmann, Munzert, and Krüger, 2022).¹³ Combining these modalities

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A major problem for Plantinga's theory is that the best recent scientific evidence indicates that "far" transfer (the kind he needs) probably does not exist or if it does exist is rare: see Luniewska, Chyl, Debska, Kacprzak, Plewko, Szczerbinski et al., 2018; Sala and Gobet, 2017a, 2017b, 2017c; and Sala, Aksayli, Tatlidil, Tatsuma, Gondo, and Gobet, 2019.

¹³The situation is, of course, very complex. We detect emotions from voices and also from gait: on voices see Bryant, 2021; Nussbaum, Von Eiff, Skuk, and Schweinberger, 2022; Woodward, Plate, Morningstar, Wood, and Pollak, 2021; and on gait see Halovic and Kroos, 2018; Schneider, Christensen, Häussinger, Fallgatter, Giese, and Ehlis, 2014. We have also to deal with the integration of these inputs, on which see Schelenz, Klasen, Reese, Regenbogen, Wolf, Kato, and Mathiak, 2013.

is one of the most effective means of nonverbal expression of emotion (Stins, Roelofs, Villan, Kooijman, Hagenaars, and Beek, 2011).¹⁴

This casts an interesting light on what is otherwise a rather discordant and disturbing sequence in Fury. When the crew of Fury rehearse for Norman the story about killing the horses that had been wounded when American forces surrounded and forced the surrender of a German army, it is clear that this was a very traumatic event for these men. "Gordo" turns to Norman at the end of this recounting and says "But you weren't there." He thus marks out Norman as the odd man out. In telling the story, some of its horrific emotional freight gets discharged. And clearly those negative emotions had bound the members of this crew more tightly together than they were before those events. The evidence for this is the immediate exclusion of the new guy from that bond simply because he has had no share in that traumatic experience and its consequences (cf. Sunar, Cesur, Piyale, Tepe, Biten, Hill, and Koc, 2021). It is the recall of a common experience and the common horror that it evoked that motivates Gordo's exclusionary comment to Norman. Here the point made by Knight and Eisenkraft in their study of the positive effects on groups of negative emotions is brought to life. The film even captures their point that a significant condition for negative emotions having positive effects on groups is that the source of those emotions be external to the group. So also here: the shared horror is all due to events external to the crew and forced on them by the specific demands of the war at that time and place. (I am not presupposing that these effects in the film are the product of a neuro-scientifically well-informed design; rather, they are the results of good artistic intuitions that coincide with our best relevant science. It is a further issue as to what makes such "consilience" possible, an issue I will return to in the concluding section.)

But groups cannot remain sealed off from newcomers, especially military units in combat. There has to be a way for them to incorporate new members, if only to replace lost members. It now seems likely that many forms of social cognition, especially in the complex arena of between-group and within-group dynamics, are the product of a coalitional psychology that is itself the product

¹⁴ Close-up views of the human face are sometimes believed to evoke empathy in film viewers (Plantinga, 1999), but good empirical evidence for this is surprisingly difficult to produce. Choi and Watanuki, 2014; Lankhuizen, Balint, Savardi, Konijn, Bartsch, and Benini, 2020; McCrackin and Itier, 2021, all sought to show a causal relationship between perception of the face, as such, and empathic response, but failed to do so. Plantinga's view must also face the impressive critique in Barrett, Adolphs, Marcella, Martinez, and Pollak, 2019, according to which our ability to infer particular emotions from movement of facial muscles are not as impressive as we once thought them to be (cf. Carroll and Russell, 1996; Holland, O'Donnell, and Dziobek, 2021 for similar critiques). For those who hold that empathy is a good that should be enhanced by all means available, the critique in Bloom (2016) has also to be dealt with (and cf. Kanske, Böckler, and Singer, 2015; Lamm and Majdandzic, 2015; Singer and Klimecki, 2014).

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of natural selection in our ancient evolutionary past. Such is especially likely in the case of inter/intra-group conflict, including warfare (Boyer, Firat, and Van Leeuwen, 2015; Cikara, 2021; Delton and Sell, 2014; Tooby and Cosmides, 2010; Winegard, Kirsch, Vonash, Winegard, and Geary, 2020). Among these cognitive "modules" is one that deals with encounters with newcomers. This module constitutes a suite of cognitive sub-routines to guide evaluation of newcomers and their potential impact on an existing coalition. Newcomers, after all, are largely unknown as regards the costs and benefits they may bring to a coalitional group. Newcomers also often require intensive instruction into the purposes, values, goals, and methods of the coalition, their relative ignorance serving otherwise to erode the coordination and effective performance of the group. They may also compete for status in the group (e.g., Private Reiben's mutiny), and their willingness to subordinate their own interests to those of the group has to be tested, usually repeatedly. The behavior of established groups towards newcomers, then, tends to follow a fixed constellation of events. Newcomers are often subjected to a period of explicit evaluation, during which they have only limited access to group benefits. They may undergo explicit rituals or other processes of initiation (hazing, rather as Norman undergoes when he faces the overt hostility of the rest of Fury's crew when he first meets them).¹⁵ They will be less trusted than established members; they will be considered more worthy of punishment, especially when they contravene the mores of the group. They are likely to be judged less competent than existing members in a variety of domains (Cimino and Delton, 2010; Delton and Cimino, 2010; Delton, Nemirow, Robertson, Cimino, and Cosmides, 2013). All this should sound familiar. For both Corporal Upham in Saving Private Ryan and Private Ellison in Fury pass through this sequence of events, only eventually to be fully integrated into their respective groups (though Upham's group is much reduced). The upshot is a major change in their status within these groups. In the case of Norman Ellison we see this acceptance marked by a ritual: the conferring of a war name. In the case of Corporal Upham there is no such ritual, but we realize that his transformation is complete when he executes Steam Boat Willie, the survivor of their assault on the German radar site whom Miller had let go earlier in the film and who is himself responsible for killing Miller. Upham and Ellison are virtually textbook cases of the functioning of the cognitive module we are considering.

¹⁵ It seems likely that human ritualistic behavior derives from our last common ancestor with chimpanzees, if not before (see Peoples, Duda, and Marlowe, 2016; Rossano, 2010, pp. 131–138; Rossano, 2015; and Winkelman, 2020). One shortcoming of Whitehouse (2021) is his overlooking of the primate background of ritualistic behavior, perhaps due to his view that ritual is an evolutionary by-product of language rather than an adaptation in its own right.

A related development is Wardaddy's specific hatred for the SS. Early in the film he says to Norman: "He's an SS. They're real assholes. I kill every SS I can. You'd seen what I seen, you would too." We later see evidence of SS brutality when the bodies of young children who have been hanged for alleged disloyalty to the regime are displayed in a town Fury enters. Identifying the SS officer who had these children hanged, Wardaddy orders his summary execution. There is some historical realism here, in so far as the primary function of the actual SS was to shore up the authority and power of the regime, together with its moralistic racism. They were not primarily combat troops at all, though some formations (the so-called Waffen SS) certainly were intended for combat from the beginning. In sum, the SS were the terror police responsible for detecting, controlling, and punishing the enemies of the Nazi ideology itself. Moreover, their mission, their very identity and training, were all derived from Nazi race theory and the morality that it generated (Gilbert, 2019; Weale, 2012). In common with the higher Nazi political establishment, the SS saw themselves as engaged in a great moralistic crusade against international Judaism and Bolshevism. What social scientists have discovered is that where groups draw strongly on a moral foundation for their identity, relationships between them and other groups who do not share that foundation can be especially rife with intolerance, enmity, and hatred, all of which often spills over into overt aggression against them. The more at odds the in-group is with the foundational morality of the out-group, the stronger is the enmity of one to the other: " ... disagreement on matters of morality are accompanied by strong emotions, intolerance, a desire for social/ physical distance, lack of goodwill, and little regard for procedural safeguards" (Weisel and Böhm, 2015, p. 112; cf. Parker and Janoff-Bulman, 2013). Among those deep emotions is contempt, and nothing characterizes Collier's hatred for the SS better than contempt. This emotion signals that he regards the SS as on the other side of a deep divide in values, as individuals and a group that fail utterly to uphold the values he holds and shares with his men (Gervais and Fessler, 2017; Mason, 2003). The SS possesses zero prestige, in Collier's view; indeed, what they merit is the very antithesis of prestige or status. Collier's contempt for them thus signals a kind of anti-prestige. (This is also the main objection, in my view, to the thesis of Summers [2015] and Finlay [2017] that Fury strikes a moral equivalence between American and German soldiers. As between prestige, of howsoever low a degree, and an absolute negation of prestige, there cannot be any equivalence, other indications in the film of moral "leveling" between the two sides notwithstanding.)

Conclusion: Deep Structure

I hope to have shown that *Fury* (and to some extent also *Saving Private Ryan*) is suffused with the dynamics of prestige and that the film rests upon cognitive

mechanisms that underlie prestige. Such mechanisms belong to our coalitionary psychology, which in turn is closely tied to the human kinship system and its fundamental principle of exogamy. For exogamous kinship requires that humans be able to (a) recognize who is their kin and who is not kin (Chapais, 2008, pp. 93-131; Green, Holmes, Davidson, Paterson, Stockley, Beynon, and Hurst, 2015; Mateo, 2015; Rendall, 2004); (b) extend appropriate altruistic behavior to varying degrees of kin; and (c) extend similarly altruistic behavior (e.g., alliance formation) to non-kin. That third thing is capable of further extensions by way of the notion of "fictive kin," which is highly relevant to soldiers in war who are often regarded in a more than merely metaphorical sense as "bands of brothers" (for fictive kin see Abou-Abdullah, Kashima, and Harb, 2016; Funk, 2022; Kuparinen, 2016; Leyton, 2018; Qirko, 2011). These cognitions, in turn, rest on more fundamental mechanisms of memory that make all kinds of familiarity possible (Deffler, Brown, and Marsh, 2015; Frithsen and Miller, 2014; Gilmore, Nelson, and McDermott, 2015). But we cannot explore these matters further here. Since coalition building and the psychology that makes this possible is itself considerably older than our own species, we may expect such kinship dynamics to similarly predate the emergence of humans approximately 300,000-400,000 years ago.

I hope also to have given reasons to think that while the five statements shown at the beginning of *Fury* may provide the superficial structure of the film, it is these underlying mechanisms that provide the film with its "deep structure." There is thus a sense in which *Fury* and *Ryan* are studies in prestige dynamics. Such dynamics inform how heroism is portrayed, how leadership matters in small-unit combat, how unit cohesion is achieved, and how new members are incorporated into small units. Raymond Tsur once said:

I argue that "cultural programs" have solid cognitive foundations and are shaped and constrained by the natural capacities and constraints of the human brain, resulting in certain significant regularities ... the generation of culture is governed by adaptation devices exploited for cultural and aesthetic ends. (Tsur, 2002, p. 64; cf. Richardson and Steen, 2002)

I concur in this judgment and seek to draw into its ambit war films like *Fury* and *Ryan*. These, too, are the products of a "cultural program" and are similarly constrained and structured. I will go further and suggest that just as cognitive mechanisms are themselves products of natural selection, so also are such cultural products (albeit at a greater remove) themselves products of the underlying biology of human animals, in these cases as they are poised in a certain kind of extreme social environment, namely war. That environment makes various affordances available to those animals in response to which the individual humans

(and the groups they form) craft their emotions, motivations, and behavior. ¹⁶ The task of the dramaturge is to craft a story that captures as much of this deep structure as his or her craft and medium allows them to do. It is thus human biology (in a wide sense of that term) that may account for the consilience I posit in this study between cinematic imagination and empirical science. I have moved freely back and forth between the language of science and the language of cinematic craftsmanship precisely to suggest that we do not have here to deal with "two cultures," as C. P. Snow (1961), once famously described them, but rather with two imaginative windows on the realities known both to the dramaturge and the scientist. I have ventured onto this ground before (see McClelland, 1993, 2014a, 2014b, 2016a, 2016b, 2016c, and 2018) and expect to again. Exactly what epistemic powers and metaphysical grounds are implied by the success of these experiments remains to be elaborated elsewhere. ¹⁷

But it seems to me that *Fury* goes further still. In a recent study of the biological foundations of religion, Richard Sosis draws this conclusion:

By an unimaginably large margin, most biologically possible arrangements cannot unite unrelated organisms under common purpose, achieve extraordinary self-sacrifice, and motivate large-scale cooperation and coordination (Sosis, 2009, pp. 328–329; cf. Norenzayan, Shariff, Gervais, Willard, McNamara, Slingerland, and Henrich, 2016).

Sosis goes on to argue that religion is one of the few such "arrangements" that has the power to do these things. *Fury* and *Ryan* posit that war is another such

¹⁶It is doubtful that films influence their viewers' actions as Plantinga holds them to do (2018, pp. 55-74; cf. Carroll, 2014). A major reason for thinking so is given by Tooby and Cosmides: " ... fictional worlds engage emotion systems while disengaging action systems (just as dreams do)" [2001, p. 8]. Such "decoupling" is essential to successful film viewership and all goal-directed behavior, but undermines Plantinga's thesis. Without decoupling we could not tolerate the often intense emotions that films arouse in us. See further: Carroll and Seeley, 2013, p. 54; Friedman and Leslie, 2007; Leslie, 1987; Turner, 2016; Werner, 2020. The underlying neurobiology of decoupling is increasingly well-understood, engaging especially circuits of the prefrontal cortex and elements of the basal ganglia and amygdala: see Dilgen, Tejeda, and O'Donnell, 2013; Guo, Schmitz, Mur, Ferreira, and Anderson, 2018; Hannah and Aron, 2021; Li, Nguyen, Ma, and Dan, 2020; Sagaspe, Schwartz, and Vuillenmier, 2011; Sebastian, Konken, Schaum, Lieb, Tüscher, and Jung, 2021; Vitale, Monti, Padron, Avenanti, and De Vega, 2022. For such influence on viewers' actions in the real world that films may exert, the work of imagination on a film's affordances may suffice, thus dispensing with Plantinga's "transfer and cultivation" model. For affordances see: Bin, 2016; Chemero, 2003; Gibson, 1977; Rucinska, 2017. On imagination see (in the representational and meta-representational traditions): Gilmore, 2019; Harris, 2000, 2022; Oatley, 2011, 2013, 2016, 2022; Oatley, Dunbar, and Budelmann, 2018; Zunshine, 2003, 2006, 2009, 2017. For enactivist approaches to imagination see: Caracciolo, 2013; Medina, 2013; Ravenscroft, 2017; Weichold and Rucinska, 2021. Neither should the role of reasoning be overlooked: Bloom, 2016; Friend, 2010, 2016; Turvey, 2019.

¹⁷ However, it will be difficult to avoid reference to some conception of human nature, for help with which see Bird, 2007 and Ellis, 2001. These explorations, however, go well beyond the remit of the current project.

"biologically possible" arrangement. For war also has the power to draw biologically unrelated organisms into a common purpose, to achieve extraordinary self-sacrifices to achieve that common purpose, and to motivate large-scale cooperation and coordination, as we have seen. Prestige dynamics play their part in creating such arrangements and the cultural products they make possible. This idea should be of great interest to students of moral psychology. For, given what we know about the phylogeny of human lethal violence, war is by far the older formation (relative to religion), reaching back at least as far as our last common ancestor with chimpanzees (Gomez et al., 2016; Liddle, Shackelford, and Weekes-Shackelford, 2012). And, given what we know about the ontogeny of aggressive behavior in humans, emerging as it does by two years of age if not sooner, lethal violence is also likely to be the more deeply psychologically rooted capacity than is religious devotion and worship (Card, Sawalani, Stucky, and Little, 2008; McCullough, Kurzban, and Tabak, 2013; Tremblay, Nagin, Seguin, Zoccolillo, Zelazo, Boivin et al., 2004). Religion among humans is thought to have emerged between 30,000 and 80,000 years ago (Dickson, 1990; Rossano, 2010; Winkelman, 2020). War is thus easily two orders of magnitude older, in the order of phylogeny, than is religion. This may help explain why religion is so often brought into the service of human warfare, but relatively rarely does anything to mitigate our lethal violence, whether on an individual basis or in groups. Whether war or other forms of lethal violence are ineluctable features of human affairs is beyond my ken. What is clear is that we already know something of the conditions under which these are both less and more likely to occur. What is far from clear is that we have the capacity as a species to insure the reliable realization of those conditions.

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