# Early and late event related potentials are modulated by infant and adult faces of high and low attractiveness

Amanda C. Hahn<sup>1</sup>, Lawrence A. Symons<sup>2</sup>, Taylor Kredel<sup>2</sup>, Kevin Hanson<sup>2</sup>, Lianne Hodgson<sup>2</sup>, Lori Schiavone<sup>2</sup>, K.J. Jantzen<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Institute of Neuroscience & Psychology, University of Glasgow, Glasgow, G12 8QB, UK. Tel: 011 44 141 330 1677

<sup>2</sup> Department of Psychology, Western Washington University, Bellingham WA 98225. Tel: 001 360 650 3000

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<u>Corresponding author:</u> Amanda Hahn Institute of Neuroscience & Psychology University of Glasgow Glasgow, G12 8QB, UK. Telephone: +44 141 330 1677 Email: <u>Amanda.Hahn@glasgow.ac.uk</u>

Additional author email addresses: Lawrence Symons: Larry.Symons@wwu.edu Taylor Kredel: kredelt@students.wwu.edu Kevin Hanson: kphanson9@aol.com Lianne Hodgson: hodgson99@gmail.com Lori Schiavone: lori.schiavone1@gmail.com K.J. Jantzen: Kelly.Jantzen@wwu.edu

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#### Abstract

2 The processing of infant faces may be somewhat distinct from that of adult 3 faces. Indeed, recent neuroimaging studies have provided evidence of an 4 early, "baby-specific" neural response whereby infant faces are perceived more rapidly than adult faces. Using event-related potentials, the present 5 6 study aimed to determine whether the preferential response to infant faces is present at both early and late stages of face processing, and to investigate 7 8 the effects of aesthetic appearance on the processing of adult and infant 9 faces by directly manipulating the perceived attractiveness or cuteness within 10 a given face identity. Here, we find evidence for enhanced processing of 11 infant faces, relative to adult faces, at both early (N170, P2) and late (LPC) 12 stages of face processing. We also find that the aesthetic appearance of both 13 infant and adult faces modulates early neural responses, with enhanced 14 responses to less attractive/cute faces as compared to more attractive/cute 15 faces. Overall, our results provide additional evidence for a preferential 16 response to infant faces at early stages of processing, and provide new 17 evidence that this preferential response occurs at later stages of face 18 processing as well, independent of the aesthetic quality of the face or 19 observer sex.

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25 **Keywords**: face processing, attractiveness, baby, N170, LPC

26	Introduction
27	Given the importance of parental care for the survival of human infants, and
28	the fact that infant facial morphology differs from that of adults (Bergersen,
29	1966; Enlow & Hans, 1996), the processing of infant faces may be somewhat
30	distinct from that of adult faces. Indeed, behavioral studies have
31	demonstrated that infant faces are attentionally prioritized above adult faces
32	and other social stimuli (Brosch et al., 2007; Cárdenas et al., 2013; Hodsoll et
33	al., 2010; Proverbio, 2011a; Thompson-Booth et al., 2014a, 2014b) and elicit
34	more positive affective responses (Hildebrandt & Fitzgerald, 1978; Senese et
35	al., 2013), stronger arousal responses (Esposito et al., 2014), and even
36	increase careful behavior and focus (Nittono et al., 2012). Some work even
37	suggests that face-processing limitations, such as the other-race effect, may
38	not affect the processing of infant faces (Proverbio, 2011a; but see Hodsoll et
39	al., 2010).
40	

41 Infant-typical features, such as a large/bulbous forehead, large eyes, small 42 chin, and close-set features positioned low on the face are related to 43 perceptions of infant cuteness or attractiveness (Alley, 1981; Glocker et al., 44 2008; Hildebrandt & Fitzgerald, 1979; Little, 2012; Sternglanz et al., 1977). 45 These infantile features are thought to trigger the Kindchenschema (Lorenz, 46 1943), an innate releasing mechanism for caretaking behavior and affective 47 orientation towards infants (e.g., Langlois et al., 1995).

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49 Supporting neuroimaging studies have provided evidence of a "baby-specific" neural response to infant stimuli (e.g., Caria et al., 2012; Grasso et al., 2009; 50

51 Kringelbach et al., 2008; Parsons et al., 2014; Proverbio et al., 2010a, 2011b). 52 In particular, event-related potential (ERP) studies have shown that early 53 structural encoding responses are larger for infant faces than adult faces 54 (Grasso et al., 2009; Proverbio et al., 2010a, 2011b). Source localization 55 (Proverbio et al., 2010a) and MEG (Kringelbach et al., 2008) techniques 56 suggest that these differences may, at least partly, originate in the 57 orbitofrontal cortex - a key region implicated in reward processing 58 (Kringelbach & Radcliffe, 2005) and parental behavior (Parsons et al., 2013a). 59 One interpretation of the foregoing results is that baby faces are more 60 rewarding, which may act to facilitate motivation for caretaking responses. 61 62 When viewing adult faces early indices of visual processing, including the 63 N170 ERP component, are modulated by facial attractiveness (Chen et al., 64 2012; Marzi & Viggiano, 2010; Pizzagalli et al., 2002; Schacht et al., 2008; 65 Werheid et al., 2007; Zhang & Deng, 2012). Facial attractiveness also has effects in later stages of face processing wherein affective and identity 66 67 information is extracted from faces. For example, the late positive component 68 (LPC), which is thought to reflect heightened processing linked to motivation 69 and attention, is modulated by the attractiveness of adult faces (Chen et al., 70 2012; Johnston & Oliver-Rodríguez, 1997; Marzi & Viggiano, 2010; Oliver-71 Rodríguez et al., 1999; Schacht et al., 2008; Werheid et al., 2007; Zhang et 72 al., 2011, 2012).

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While previous research has investigated the time course of attractiveness
processing in adult faces, less work has been done exploring the processing

76 of infant facial appearance. The attentional bias for infant faces over adult 77 faces previously observed is positively correlated with subjective arousal 78 ratings of the infant stimuli (Brosch et al., 2007), suggesting that the aesthetic 79 quality of infant faces may influence how efficiently these faces are 80 processed. Furthermore, infant's faces are attentionally prioritized above 81 children's faces (Thompson-Booth et al., 2014b) providing additional support 82 for the notion that cuteness, which is linked to baby-like appearance (Little, 83 2012), may modulate the processing of infant faces. In a study comparing 84 responses to infant and prepubertal-children's faces, Proverbio et al. (2011b) 85 observed an increased N2 response to infant faces compared to older 86 children's faces in women but not men, suggesting that baby schema may 87 modulate the early processing of faces, at least in women. In the same study, 88 however, no differences between infant and children's faces were observed at 89 either P1 or N170 in men or women. While Proverbio et al's (2011b) findings 90 provide equivocal support for the hypothesis that baby schema may modulate 91 face processing, Glocker et al. (2009) demonstrated, in a sample of 92 nulliparous young women, that experimentally manipulating baby schema in 93 infant faces modulated activation in neural regions associated with the 94 processing of rewards (i.e., the nucleus accumbens), providing additional 95 support for this hypothesis. There is also evidence that structural 96 abnormalities that disrupt the baby schema, such as cleft lip and palate, result 97 in processing disruptions (i.e. a diminished "baby-specific" neural response, 98 Parsons et al., 2013b). Together, these studies suggest that the cuteness 99 (i.e., aesthetic quality) of infant faces may modulate the processing of infant 100 faces.

102 Both men and women show increased early neural responses to infant faces 103 compared to adult faces (Proverbio et al., 2010a, 2011b). Evidence suggests 104 that women also show an age coding effect in the left hemisphere (i.e. larger 105 responses to infant faces than adult faces) that is not consistently observed in 106 men (Proverbio et al., 2010a, 2011b). Although some behavioral studies also 107 suggest that women respond more strongly to infant faces than men do (e.g., 108 Cárdenas et al., 2013; Charles et al., 2013; Hahn et al., 2013), others find no 109 evidence of a sex difference (e.g., Brosch et al., 2007; Parsons et al., 2011a). 110 While evidence for a sex difference in responses to infant faces generally may 111 be equivocal, there is more consistent evidence that women show stronger 112 differential responses to infant facial cuteness than men do (Archer & Monton, 113 2011; Hahn et al., 2013; Lobmaier et al., 2010; Sprengelmeyer et al., 2009; 114 Yamamoto et al., 2009; c.f. Sprengelmeyer et al., 2013). As such, differences 115 in the aesthetic quality of stimuli across studies could, at least partly, explain 116 discrepancies in reported sex differences. 117

118 The present study had three main aims: (1) to determine whether the 119 preferential response to infant faces is present at both early and late stages of 120 face processing, (2) to investigate the effects of aesthetic appearance on the 121 processing of adult and infant faces by directly manipulating the perceived 122 attractiveness or cuteness within a given face identity, and (3) to explore possible sex differences in the processing of infant face stimuli. We used an 123 124 ERP design to investigate the time course of men's and women's responses to infant and adult faces. Given that the LPC reflects attentional/motivational 125

126 processing and infant faces tend to be attentionally prioritized, we predicted 127 that the preferential response to infant faces previously observed at early 128 indices of visual processing would also be apparent for the LPC. Based on 129 previous work demonstrating that attractiveness modulates both early and late ERPs for adult facial stimuli, we also anticipated that manipulating the 130 131 cuteness of our infant facial stimuli and attractiveness of our adult facial 132 stimuli would similarly modulate these ERP responses. Finally, given that 133 women tend to respond more strongly to social stimuli generally (e.g., 134 Proverbio et al., 2008) and that there is some evidence that they are more 135 sensitive to subtle cues of infant cuteness than are men (e.g., Lobmaier et al., 136 2010), we predicted that if manipulating infant appearance did have a 137 modulatory effect on ERP responses, this effect might be more apparent in 138 women than in men.

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## Methods

141 Participants

142 15 men and 15 women between the ages of 18 and 31 years (mean = 22.1, 143 SD = 2.6) volunteered for the current study. Participants were recruited 144 through the Psychology subject pool at Western Washington University and 145 were compensated with experimental credits. All participants provided 146 informed consent prior to participation. This study was approved by the 147 Institutional Review Board at Western Washington University. Demographic 148 data including age, sexual orientation, parental status, contact with children, 149 and contraceptive use (women only), were collected from all participants. 150 Sexual orientation was assessed on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 =

151 completely homosexual, 4 = bisexual, and 7 = completely heterosexual. Data 152 from one participant who identified as homosexual was excluded from the 153 analyses reported below (we note here, however, that retaining this individual 154 in the dataset did not alter the pattern of results reported below). Additionally, one participant who reported having children was excluded from subsequent 155 156 analyses (note: nulliparous samples are commonly used when investigating 157 responses to infant cuteness, e.g. Glocker et al., 2009; Hahn et al., 2015a, 158 2015b). All remaining participants reported little to no contact with children 159 (mean weekly contact = 1.0 hours, SD = 1.8). Handedness was assessed 160 using the Edinburgh handedness questionnaire (EHQ; Oldfield, 1971). Two 161 participants (1 male, 1 female) reporting left-hand dominance were excluded 162 from subsequent analyses. The final analyses reported here included 13 163 heterosexual men and 13 heterosexual women, all of whom were right-164 handed and none of whom had children.

165

166 Stimuli

167 Following previous methodology (Hahn et al., 2013), 35 male, 35 female, and 168 35 infant composite faces were created by averaging the shape, color, and 169 texture cues of two individual faces (see Tiddeman et al., 2001 for more 170 information regarding these computer graphic techniques). Attractiveness 171 (adult faces) and cuteness (infant faces) prototypes that had been previously 172 manufactured (see Hahn et al., 2013) were then used to modify the 2D linear 173 shape of the facial composites by applying a transform based on a proportion 174 of the difference in shape between the high-attractive/cute and low-175 attractive/cute prototypes to each face in order to manipulate the aesthetic

appearance within a given identity. Each composite face was transformed 50% in attractiveness/cuteness (based on shape cues alone) to create the
low-aesthetic version and +50% attractiveness/cuteness to create the highaesthetic version (see Figure 1).

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181 To ensure that the transforms reliably affected perceived

182 attractiveness/cuteness, the stimuli were evaluated by 98 heterosexual raters 183 (27 male, 71 female; mean age = 23.3 years, SD = 6.5) in a 2-alternative 184 forced choice paradigm. Raters saw the high- and low-aesthetic version of 185 each face and were asked to indicate which face they thought was more 186 attractive (adult faces) or cute (infant faces). Male, female, and infant faces 187 were presented in separate blocks. The order in which the stimuli groups and 188 composite faces within each group were presented was randomized across 189 participants. Similarly, the presentation of the high- and low-aesthetic versions 190 of each face on the right or left side of the screen was randomized across 191 trials. Responses on this preference test were recorded as 0 = preference for 192 low-aesthetic version or 1 = preference for high-aesthetic version. Mean 193 preference scores across the set of stimuli ranged from 0.48 to 0.95. Chi-194 square tests indicated that for all but five of the 105 composite identities, the 195 high-aesthetic version was chosen as more attractive/cute than the low-196 aesthetic version at levels significantly greater than chance (all p < .05). There 197 was no significant preference for the high-aesthetic version of the remaining 5 faces (1 infant, 3 female, 1 male; all ps > .10). 198 199 [INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE]

## 201 EEG apparatus and recording

202 Stimuli were presented in full color on a 19-inch Dell LCD monitor. Stimulus 203 presentation and response recording were controlled by in-house software 204 written in Visual Basic. All responses were made with a Cedrus 8-button box 205 (Cedrus Corporation, San Pedro, CA, USA). EEG was continuously recorded 206 from 64 scalp sites, using BioSemi ActiveTwo Ag/AgCl electrodes and 207 hardware (Biosemi, Amsterdam, The Netherlands). The electrodes were 208 placed according to the 10-5 electrode system (Oostenveld & Praamstra, 209 2001), using a nylon electrode cap. EEG signals were amplified with a 210 bandpass of DC-104 Hz by BioSemi ActiveTwo amplifiers, sampled at 512 211 Hz. 212

213 Procedure

214 During EEG recording, participants were seated in a dimly lit room. They were 215 instructed to fixate on a cross in the center of the screen and minimize eye or 216 body movements during the recording period. EEG data were collected over 217 two sets of two blocks. Within a block, each of the 105 composite identities 218 was presented in either the high-aesthetic or low-aesthetic version. The 219 alternate version of the face was then presented in the subsequent block such 220 that each identity was only displayed once per block. The two sets contained 221 identical blocks, however the selection of high- vs. low-aesthetic faces 222 allocated into the first and second block was randomized between sets (total 223 of 105 trials per block x 2 blocks per set x 2 sets = 420 trials). Each trial 224 began with the presentation of a red fixation cross at the center of a gray 225 background (rgb: 128, 128, 128). A face was then displayed in the center of

the screen for 1000ms, after which time a rating task was presented whereby
participants were asked to rate the attractiveness (adult faces) or cuteness
(infant faces) on a 5-point scale where 1= not at all attractive/cute and 5 =
very attractive/cute. Responses were provided using the button box. The trial
ended when a response was made. Trials were separated by a random
interstimulus interval between 500 and 1000-ms. Participants were allowed a
short (1-2 min) break between blocks.

233

EEG data processing and analysis

235 Off-line segmentation and averaging of EEG signals was performed with

EEGlab v6.01b (Delorme & Makeig, 2004), running on Matlab 7.3.0

237 (Mathworks, Inc., Natick, MA, USA). In a small number of cases, a single

238 channel demonstrated excessive noise and was replaced by a new channel

239 derived by spherical interpolation of the surrounding channels. After

downsampling from 512 to 256 samples per second, data were bandpassed

between .5 and 20 Hz. We used an independent component analysis (ICA)

approach to isolate artifacts and noise sources (Jung et al., 2000). First, we

243 performed an ICA decomposition on the continuous data of each participant.

244 We then manually inspected spatial and temporal properties of the

components and removed those that clearly captured artifacts such as eye

blinks, eye movement and muscle artifacts. Epochs time locked to the onset

of the face stimuli were extracted from the cleaned data using a time window

of -100ms to 800ms. Trials were automatically classified as containing an

artifact if they had a peak voltage that exceeded 100 uV, a peak to peak

voltage greater than 100 uV within a 100ms moving window, or a sample to

252 rejected from further analysis. An average of 3.46 trials were rejected from the 253 male participants and 11 trials from the female participants. The remaining 254 trials were averaged separately for each condition. 255 256 Four components of the ERP waveforms were analyzed: (1) P1 (90-100ms) 257 for electrodes PO7 and PO8; (2) N170 (120-200ms) for electrodes P7 and P8; 258 (3) P2 (200-250MS) for electrodes PO3 and PO4; (4) Late Positive 259 Component (LPC) (300-700ms in 50ms intervals) for electrodes POz and Pz. 260 We selected channels at which ERP components showed the greatest amplitude. The sites selected for focused analysis were consistent with 261 262 previous research for each of the four components. For the P1, N170 and P2 263 components, we measured amplitude and latency of the peak response. 264 Following Werheid et al. (2007), the mean amplitude of the LPC was 265 measured within eight consecutive time periods of equal duration from 300ms 266 to 700ms: (300-350ms, 350-400ms, 400-450ms, 450-500ms, 500-550ms, 267 550-600ms, 600-650ms, 650-700ms). ERP data for the P1, N170, and P2 268 components were subjected to multifactorial repeated-measures ANOVAs 269 with *hemisphere* (left, right), *face type* (infant, same-sex, opposite-sex) and 270 aesthetic (high-attractiveness/cuteness, low-attractiveness/cuteness) as 271 within-subject factors and *participant sex* (male, female) as a between-subject 272 factor. A similar analysis was conducted for the LPC component, using a model in which hemisphere was not included; instead, data from electrodes 273 274 POz and Pz were averaged for the analysis. All statistical analyses were

sample change of greater than 30 uV. All trials containing artifacts were

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275 performed in SPSS version 20.0.

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#### Results

Because there is evidence of an opposite-sex bias in face processing among heterosexual individuals (e.g., Proverbio et al., 2010b), the sex of the adult facial stimuli was coded relative to the participant (i.e., same-sex or oppositesex) for all analyses reported here.

282

283 Behavioral Data

For the attractiveness/cuteness ratings, a 3x2x2 mixed design ANOVA was

conducted in which *face type* (infant, same-sex, opposite-sex) and *aesthetic* 

286 (high, low) were within-subject factors and *participant sex* (male, female) was

a between-subject factor. While there was no main effect of face type

288 (Greenhouse-Geisser corrected: F(1.4,33.5) = 2.01, MSE = 0.55, p = .16,  $\eta^2$ 

289 = 0.06) or participant sex (F(1,24) = 0.66, MSE = 0.20, p = .43,  $\eta^2 = 0.03$ ),

there was a significant interaction between *face type* and *participant sex* 

291 (Greenhouse-Geisser corrected: F(1.4,33.5) = 7.67, MSE = 0.55, p = .005,  $\eta^2$ 

292 = 0.23). Independent samples t-tests, using a Bonferroni corrected alpha of

293 .017, showed that men and women gave similar ratings, on average, to the

294 infant faces (t(24) = -0.37, p = .716, mean difference = -0.10, SE mean

295 difference = 0.28) and same-sex faces (t(24) = -0.85, p = .406, mean

difference = -0.17, SE mean difference = 0.20), but men rated opposite-sex

faces significantly higher than women did (t(24) = 3.91, p = .001, mean

298 difference = 0.69, SE mean difference = 0.18).

300 There was a main effect of *aesthetic* (F(1,24) = 140.62, MSE = 0.02, p < 140.62.001,  $n^2 = 0.83$ ), such that the high-aesthetic versions (mean = 3.03, SEM = 301 .09) of the faces were rated as more attractive/cute than the low-aesthetic 302 303 versions (mean = 2.76, SEM = .08). This main effect was gualified by an interaction with participant sex (F(1,24) = 4.59, MSE = 0.02, p = .043,  $\eta^2 =$ 304 305 0.03). An independent samples t-test on the average difference scores 306 between the high and low aesthetic versions of faces (regardless of face type) 307 showed that men differentiated less than women did (t(24) = -2.14, p = .043,mean difference = -0.10, SE mean difference = 0.05). 308 309

310 The two-way interaction between aesthetic and face type was also significant  $(F(2,48) = 10.71, MSE = 0.01, p < .001, \eta^2 = 0.29)$ . To explore this interaction 311 further, we calculated difference scores for each face type by subtracting the 312 average rating of the low-aesthetic versions from the average ratings of the 313 314 high-aesthetic versions. Paired t-tests, using a Bonferroni corrected alpha of 315 .017, of these difference scores revealed that the degree to which high-316 aesthetic versions were rated as more attractive/cute than low-aesthetic 317 versions was greater for opposite-sex faces than either infant faces (t(25) =318 4.13, *p* < .001, mean<sub>opposite-sex difference score</sub> = 0.39, SD<sub>opposite-sex difference score</sub> = 319 0.23, mean<sub>infant difference score</sub> = 0.20, SD<sub>infant difference score</sub> = 0.15) or same-sex 320 faces (t(25) = 3.25, p = .003, mean<sub>same-sex difference score</sub> = 0.22, SD<sub>same-sex difference</sub> 321  $_{score}$  = 0.16). There was no difference in the aesthetic effect for ratings of 322 infant faces compared to same-sex faces (t(25) = -0.59, p = .56). 323

324	The three-way interaction between aesthetic, face type and participant sex
325	approached significance ( <i>F</i> (2,48) = 2.67, <i>p</i> = .080, $\eta^2$ = 0.07) and was driven
326	by the fact that the aesthetic manipulation had a similar effect on women's
327	and men's ratings for the cuteness of infant faces ( $t(24) = 1.18$ , $p = .25$ , mean
328	difference = $0.07$ , SE mean difference = $0.06$ ) and the attractiveness of same
329	sex adult faces ( $t(24) = 0.19$ , $p = .85$ , mean difference = 0.01, SE mean
330	difference = 0.06), while the aesthetic manipulation had a larger effect on
331	women's ratings of the attractiveness of opposite-sex adult faces it did for
332	men ( $t(24) = 2.60$ , $p = .016$ , Bonferroni corrected alpha = .017, mean
333	difference = 0.21, SE mean difference = 0.08, see Figure 2).
334	
335	[INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE]
336	P1 Amplitude
337	We observed a three-way interaction between hemisphere, face type, and
338	participant sex (F (2,48) = 3.73, $MSE = 1.53$ , $p = .031$ , $\eta^2 = 0.13$ ) for P1
339	amplitudes. We further explored this interaction by calculating the magnitude
340	of the right-hemisphere bias (i.e. peak amplitude at PO8 minus peak
341	amplitude at PO7) in response to infant faces, same-sex faces, and opposite-
342	sex faces. Multivariate ANOVA indicated that the magnitude of the sex
343	difference in right-hemisphere bias (i.e. males > females) was largest for
344	opposite-sex adult faces ( $F(1,24) = 4.02$ , $MSE = 13.28$ , $p = .056$ , $\eta^2 = 0.14$ ),
345	followed by same-sex adult faces ( <i>F</i> (1,24) = 3.00, <i>MSE</i> = 15.98, <i>p</i> = .096, $\eta^2$
346	= 0.11), and relatively unapparent for infant faces ( $F(1,24) = 0.57$ , $MSE =$
347	15.79, $p = .459$ , $\eta^2 = 0.02$ ). There were no other significant effects or

interactions in our main analysis of P1 peak amplitudes (all *F* < 3.20, all *p* > .086, all  $\eta^2$  < 0.12).

350

351 P1 Latency

- There were no modulatory effects of *face type, aesthetic,* or *participant sex* for P1 peak latencies (all *F* < 3.47, all *p* > .075, all  $\eta^2$  < 0.12).
- 354

355 N170 Amplitude

- N170 amplitudes were modulated by face type (F(2,48) = 22.53, MSE = 2.83,
- 357  $p < .001, \eta^2 = 0.47$ ) and aesthetic ( $F(1,24) = 6.60, MSE = 0.83, p = .017, \eta^2 =$
- 358 0.20). Helmert contrasts indicated that peak N170 amplitudes were larger (i.e.
- more negative) for infant faces than adult faces (F(1,24) = 31.69, MSE =
- 360 1.49, p < .001,  $\eta^2 = 0.57$ ), while no differences were observed for responses
- to same-sex and opposite-sex adult faces (F(1,24) = 0.83, MSE = 0.84, p = 0.84, p
- 362 .373,  $\eta^2 = 0.03$ ; see Figure 3). Similarly, peak N170 amplitudes were larger for
- 363 the low-aesthetic versions of faces (mean = -4.08, SEM = 0.55) than the high-
- aesthetic versions (mean = -3.82, SEM = 0.55). No other effects or
- interactions reached significance (all *F* < 1.96, all *p* > .17, all  $\eta^2$  < 0.07).
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367

- [INSERT FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE]
- 368

369 N170 Latency

370 There were no effects of *face type, aesthetic,* or *participant sex* for N170 peak

371 latencies (all Greenhouse-Geisser corrected F < 2.12, all p > .14, all  $\eta^2 <$ 

372 0.08).

P2 peak amplitude was modulated by *aesthetic* (F(1,24) = 6.52, MSE = 0.99,

376 p = .017,  $\eta^2 = 0.19$ ), with greater peak amplitudes observed for the low-

aesthetic versions (mean = 6.11, SEM = 0.61) than the high-aesthetic

378 versions (mean = 5.82, SEM = 0.63) for all face types.

379

There was a significant interaction between face type and participant sex (F 380 (2,48) = 4.97, MSE = 2.83, p = .011,  $n^2 = 0.16$ ), and the higher-order 381 382 interaction between face type, participant sex, and hemisphere approached significance (F(2,48) = 3.08, MSE = 0.96, p = .055,  $\eta^2 = 0.11$ ). Repeating the 383 analysis separately for men and women revealed that men showed a main 384 effect of face type (F(2,24) = 10.29, MSE = 1.58, p = .001,  $n^2 = 0.46$ ) but no 385 interaction between face type and hemisphere (F(2,24) = 0.38, MSE = 1.03, p 386 = .69,  $\eta^2$  = 0.03), while women tended to show an interaction between face 387 type and hemisphere (Greenhouse-Geisser corrected: F(1.27, 15.25) = 3.77, 388  $MSE = 1.40, p = .063, \eta^2 = 0.24$ ) but no main effect of face type (F (2,24) = 389 2.03, MSE = 4.09, p = .62,  $\eta^2 = 0.04$ ). Helmert contrasts showed that the main 390 391 effect of face type seen in men reflected increased peak P2 amplitudes in 392 response to infant faces were than the other face types (i.e., same-sex and opposite-sex, F(1,12) = 15.12, MSE = 3.02, p = .002,  $n^2 = 0.56$ ), while 393 responses to same-sex and opposite-sex faces did not differ (F(1,12) = 1.76), 394 MSE = 2.28, p = .21,  $n^2 = 0.13$ ). For women, although there was no main 395 396 effect of face type, the interaction observed between hemisphere and face 397 type indicated that the magnitude of the right and left hemisphere response

398 was similar for infant and opposite-sex faces, but differed for same-sex faces,

399 with an increased response in the left hemisphere (PO3) relative to the right

- 400 hemisphere (PO4) for this face type. There were no other significant effects or
- 401 interactions in our main analysis (all F < 3.16, all p > .08, all  $\eta^2$  < 0.10).
- 402

403 P2 Latency

404 P2 latencies were modulated by face type (F(2,48) = 7.55, MSE = 93.08, p =.001,  $n^2 = 0.20$ ). Pairwise comparisons, using a Bonferroni corrected alpha of 405 406 .017, showed that responses to infant faces were significantly delayed 407 compared to opposite-sex faces (p = .005, mean difference = 4.96ms, SE 408 mean difference = 1.61) and tended to be delayed compared to same-sex (p 409 = .034, mean difference = 3.83ms, SE mean difference = 1.71), no difference 410 in latency was observed between same-sex and opposite-sex adult faces, 411 however (p = .280, mean difference = 1.14ms, SE mean difference = 1.03). 412 There was also a main effect of participant sex (F(1,24) = 11.48, MSE = 413 972.28, p = .002,  $\eta^2 = 0.32$ ), such that men had delayed P2 latencies (mean = 414 227.34ms, SEM = 2.50) compared to women (mean = 215.38ms, SEM = 415 2.50). The effect of face type was qualified by an interaction with participant sex (F (2,48) = 6.61, MSE = 93.08, p = .003,  $n^2 = 0.17$ ). Separate analyses for 416 men and women revealed that this main effect of *face type* was present in 417 men (F(2.24) = 9.31, MSE = 138.94, p = .001,  $n^2 = 0.44$ ) but not women (F418 (2,24) = 0.52, MSE = 47.23, p = .60,  $\eta^2 = 0.04$ ). 419 420

421 The main effect of *hemisphere* (F(1,24) = 6.54, *MSE* = 123.62, p = .017,  $\eta^2 =$ 

422 0.21) indicated that P2 peak latencies were delayed in the left hemisphere

423 (PO3: mean = 222.97ms, SEM = 2.07) relative to the right hemisphere (PO4:

424 mean = 219.75ms, SEM = 1.66). Finally, *aesthetic* was shown to modulate P2

425 peak latencies (F(1,24) = 6.54, MSE = 64.44, p = .017,  $\eta^2 = 0.20$ ), with

- 426 delayed responses to the low-aesthetic versions of the faces (mean =
- 427 222.53ms, SEM = 1.87) compared to the high-aesthetic versions (mean =
- 428 220.20ms, SEM = 1.77). There were no other significant effects or
- 429 interactions (all *F* < 2.68, all *p* > .11, all  $\eta^2$  < 0.11).
- 430

431 LPC

432 For each of the eight timeframes of the LPC, a 3x2x2 mixed design ANOVA 433 was conducted in which face type (infant, same-sex, opposite-sex) and aesthetic (high, low) were within-subject factors and participant sex (male, 434 435 female) was a between-subject factor and peak amplitude served as the dependent variable. As seen in Figure 4, there was a consistent, significant 436 effect of face type at all LPC windows (all F(2,48) > 4.05, all MSE < 1.91, all p 437 < .024, all  $\eta^2$  > 0.14) with the exception of 550-600ms and 600-650ms (both F 438 (2,48) < 1.03, both MSE > 1.86, both p > .36, both  $n^2 < 0.05$ ). At 300-550ms 439 440 (i.e. the first 5 time windows), Helmert contrasts indicated that LPC peak amplitudes were greater in response to infant faces than either opposite-sex 441 442 or same-sex adult faces (all p < .03), no significant differences between the 443 face types were observed for 550-650ms (both p > .22), and at the last time 444 window (650-700ms), infant faces elicited the lowest LPC amplitudes (p =.02). Across all time windows, no differences were observed between 445 446 opposite-sex and same-sex adult faces (Helmert contrasts, all p > .08).

448 Although women tended to show greater LPC responses than men, in

449 general, this sex difference was only significant at 600-650ms (F(1,24) =

450 4.69, MSE = 17.11, p = .040,  $\eta^2 = 0.16$ ), marginally significant at 400-450ms

and 500-550ms (both *F* (1,24) > 3.49, both *MSE* < 30.07, both *p* < .075, both  $\eta^2$  > 0.12), and failed to reach significance at the remaining time windows (all

453 F(1,24) < 2.80, all p > .10, all  $\eta^2 < 0.10$ ).

454

Aesthetic had a significant effect at 300-350ms (F(1,24) = 4.65, MSE = 0.67, 455 p = .041,  $n^2 = 0.16$ ) whereby the low-aesthetic versions of the faces elicited 456 457 higher LPC amplitudes than the high-aesthetic versions of the faces. 458 However, there were no other significant effects of *aesthetic* (all F(1,24) <2.76, all p > .11, all  $\eta^2 < 0.10$ ). At 300-350ms, there was a three-way 459 460 interaction between face type, aesthetic, and participant sex (F(2,48) = 3.29, MSE = 0.68, p = .046,  $\eta^2 = 0.12$ ). To explore this interaction, we calculated 461 462 difference scores measuring the effect of the aesthetic manipulation for each 463 face type by subtracting the LPC response to the low-aesthetic version of each face type, from the corresponding response to the high-aesthetic 464 465 version. Independent t-tests on these difference scores indicated that 466 although women generally showed a greater difference in response to the high-versus low-aesthetic versions of same sex faces than did men (t(24) =467 468 1.85, p = .077, Bonferroni corrected alpha of .017), there were no significant 469 differences with respect to the effect of the aesthetic manipulation on the 470 observed LPC response for any of the face types.

472	There were no other significant effects or interactions (all $F < 2.39$ , all $p > .10$ ,
473	all $\eta^2 < 0.09$ ).
474	
475	[INSERT FIGURE 4 ABOUT HERE]
476	
477	Discussion
478	The current study used an ERP design to investigate the neurophysiological
479	time course of responses to infant and adult faces with varying aesthetic
480	appearance. Using established computer graphic techniques, we directly
481	manipulated attractiveness or cuteness within a given face identity to explore
482	the time course of aesthetic processing in adult and infant faces, respectively.
483	Our behavioral data indicated that there was a perceptible difference in
484	attractiveness (adult faces) or cuteness (infant faces) of the stimuli between
485	the high-aesthetic and low-aesthetic versions. This difference was similarly
486	apparent in men and women for same-sex and infant faces, while the
487	aesthetic manipulation tended to have a greater effect on men's ratings of
488	opposite-sex faces than it did women's. That the degree to which high-
489	aesthetic versions were rated as more attractive/cute than low-aesthetic
490	versions was greater for opposite-sex faces than either same-sex faces or
491	infant faces suggests that facial attractiveness may be particularly salient in
492	potential mates relative to other social groups (e.g., same-sex peers), and is
493	consistent with the commonly observed opposite-sex bias in face processing
494	(e.g., Proverbio et al., 2010b) and face preferences (e.g., Little & Jones 2003).
495	

496 Our first aim was to determine whether the preferential response to infant 497 faces previously observed at early processing stages is present at both early 498 and late stages of face processing. Our results demonstrate that both men 499 and women do, indeed, demonstrate enhanced neural responses to infant 500 faces, relative to adult faces, at both early and late stages of processing. 501 Enhanced responses to infant faces relative to adult faces (both same- and 502 opposite-sex) were observed at multiple ERP components, including the N170 503 (amplitude), P2 (amplitude and latency), and LPC. This result is consistent 504 with previous research demonstrating an early (130-170ms) "baby specific" 505 neural response observed in frontal (Kringelbach et al., 2008) and occiptio-506 temporal regions (Proverbio et al., 2011b). Although Kringelbach et al. (2008) 507 observed this response as early as 130ms, we did not observe a heightened 508 response to infant faces at the P1 component. Our finding is consistent with 509 Proverbio et al. (2011b), who also failed to find a heightened response to 510 infant faces at P1 in occipito-temporal regions. Kringelbach and colleagues 511 (2008) analyzed the alpha and beta oscillatory activity of source generators 512 determined by applying synthetic aperture magnetometry on MEG 513 data. Because modulation of alpha and beta activity by infant faces may not 514 be phase locked to stimulus onset, the early differences reported by 515 Kringelbach and colleagues (2008) may not be evident in our evoked 516 response data. Moreover, our, and most other ERP studies apply low pass 517 filters inconsistent with the analysis of higher frequency oscillatory 518 activity. These methodological differences may explain differences across 519 studies in terms of the earliest detectable "baby specific" response. Both the 520 current study and Proverbio (2011b), however, observed heightened

responses to infant faces at the N170 component. Overall, our results

522 demonstrate additional evidence for a "baby specific" early neural response.

523 This type of preferential processing at the early stages of face processing may

524 lead to increased attention and subsequent later processing (Barbeau et al.,

525 2008).

526

527 We also extend these previous findings by demonstrating heightened 528 processing of infant faces, relative to adult faces, at later stages of processing 529 (i.e., the LPC). Given that the LPC reflects attentional or motivational 530 processing (van Hooff et al., 2011) related to the affective value of a stimulus 531 (Johnston & Oliver-Rodríguez, 1997, Schupp et al., 2000; 2004), the 532 enhanced response to infant faces at this stage of processing may suggest 533 that infant faces hold increased attentional or motivational salience relative to 534 adult faces. Indeed, this explanation is consistent with visual attention studies 535 demonstrating that infant faces are attentionally prioritized over adult faces 536 (Brosch et al., 2007; Cárdenas et al., 2013). However, behavioral studies of 537 the motivational salience of infant faces have not necessarily provided 538 converging evidence that infant faces are more motivationally salient than 539 adult faces in general (Parsons et al., 2011a), but they may be more 540 motivationally salient than same-sex faces, at least among heterosexual 541 women (Hahn et al., 2013). Thus, the increased LPC response observed here 542 could be more closely tied to attentional salience than motivational salience. 543 This interpretation would be consistent with our finding that, overall, 544 participants did not rate the baby faces as more attractive than the adult 545 faces.

547 Our second aim was to investigate the effects of aesthetic appearance on the processing of adult and infant faces. We observed enhanced responses to 548 549 low-aesthetic versions of the faces as compared to high-aesthetic versions of the faces at the N170 and P2 components, but not the P1 or LPC. Previous 550 551 studies suggesting that the attractiveness of adult faces modulates these 552 early components have provided equivocal evidence as to the direction of this 553 effect: several studies have found enhanced responses to atypical or 554 unattractive faces relative to typical or attractive faces (Chen et al., 2012; Halit 555 et al., 2000; Trujillo et al., 2014), while others have observed enhanced 556 responses to attractive faces relative to unattractive faces (Zhang et al., 2011, 557 2012). One possible explanation is that varying appearance within an 558 individual identity (e.g. Halit et al., 2000) produces different effects than using natural variation in appearance (e.g., Zhang et al., 2011). Future work 559 560 exploring how subtle variation versus naturally occurring variation in aesthetic 561 guality of faces impacts the neural processing of faces may shed light on this 562 issue. Another possibility is that responses may be modulated by deviation 563 from averageness rather than attractiveness, per se, as enhanced responses 564 have been observed for attractive and unattractive faces relative to 565 average faces (Schacht et al., 2008; Trujillo et al., 2014; van Hooff et al., 566 2011). Indeed, several behavioral studies have demonstrated that the 567 relationship between averageness and attractiveness is complex and nonlinear (e.g., DeBruine et al., 2007; Perrett et al., 1994). It may be the case 568 569 that, in the present study, the unattractive faces were farther from an average 570 (or prototypical) face than were the attractive faces, leading to an increase in

the N170 and/or P2 components. Importantly, there was no interaction
between aesthetic and face type at either the N170 or P2 component,
suggesting that aesthetic appearance may have similar effects on the
processing of adult and infant faces.

575

576 Surprisingly, we did not find effects of attractiveness/cuteness for the LPC, with the exception of a single negative relationship at the earliest time window 577 578 (300-350ms). This late component has previously been shown to respond 579 differentially to attractive and unattractive stimuli, although again the direction 580 is unclear (Chen et al., 2012; Johnston & Oliver-Rodríguez, 1997; Schacht et 581 al., 2008; Werheid et al., 2007). It may be that the aesthetic manipulation we 582 employed here was too subtle to elicit differential responses at the late stage 583 of processing, even though participants could clearly detect differences in attractiveness. If, as Johnston (e.g. Johnston & Oliver-Rodríguez, 1997) and 584 585 others have suggested, the LPC is sensitive to incentive salience, it is 586 possible that the image set used in our study did not contain faces that were 587 unattractive enough to influence their affective value. As such, although subtle 588 differences in attractiveness were detected, they did not influence the value or 589 salience of the face that is indexed in the LPC. An additional condition in 590 which the faces were manipulated to be unpleasant or highly unattractive 591 would serve as confirmation of this hypothesis. Indeed, there is evidence that 592 facial deformities in infant faces, such as cleft lip, negatively impact upon their 593 incentive salience (Parsons et al., 2011b).

594

595 Finally, we investigated potential sex differences in responses to the aesthetic 596 appearance of adult and infant faces. Consistent with previous findings, 597 (Proverbio et al., 2006b, 2010a, 2011b), women tended to show increased left 598 hemisphere activity compared to men early during processing (as indicated by a right hemisphere bias in men that was absent in women). Interestingly, this 599 600 was most prominent for the processing of opposite- and same-sex faces and 601 was not apparent for infant faces. Additionally, we found this asymmetry in an 602 earlier ERP component (P1) than has previously been studied (N170; 603 Proverbio et al., 2010a). Proverbio and colleagues, who reported the lack of 604 asymmetry in females for the N170, did not evaluate responses other than the 605 N170, and in a subsequent investigation (Proverbio et al., 2011b) no 606 asymmetries were reported based on evaluation of the scalp electrode ERP. 607 608 We did not find any evidence for a sex difference in the LPC response to 609 infant faces. Although some studies suggest that a sex difference may exist

610 for behavioral and neural responses to infant cues, others present no

611 evidence of such a sex difference in responses to infant cues (reviewed in

Hahn & Perrett, 2014). Interestingly, one study found that women show

613 greater responses to infant cues in a sample of parous, but not nulliparous,

614 individuals (Proverbio et al., 2006a), suggesting that parity may influence

responses to infant cues. In the present study, women tended to show an

616 increased LPC response to all stimuli types, relative to men, although this

617 difference did not reach statistical significance at all time windows. However,

this pattern is consistent with work demonstrating that women show increased

responsivity to social stimuli, generally (Proverbio et al., 2008).

621 The current study assessed men's and women's responses to the aesthetic 622 quality of adult and infant faces in a sample of young, nulliparous adults. 623 While nulliparous samples are frequently used to assess responses to infants (e.g., Glocker et al., 2009; Hahn et al., 2015a, 2015b), there is some evidence 624 625 that parental status may modulate neural and behavioral responses to infants 626 (Proverbio et al., 2006a; Weisman et al., 2006; c.f. Noll et al., 2012) and that 627 familiarity with infants can affect early and late processing differently (i.e., 628 "own" versus "other" infant effects, Bornstein et al., 2013; Esposito et al., 629 2015). Future work is needed to determine if the enhanced response to infant 630 faces is similar in in nulliparous and parous individuals. A potential limitation 631 of the current study is that we did not account for psychological conditions that 632 may impact the processing of infant cues, such as depression (e.g., Laurent & 633 Ablow, 2012). Additional work is needed to determine if the effects of 634 depressive symptoms affect the processing of adult and infant faces in a 635 similar fashion. 636

637 Overall, our results demonstrate a preferential response to infant faces in 638 early and late processing stages that is independent of the aesthetic quality of 639 the face or observer sex, providing additional evidence for a "baby specific" 640 neural response (e.g., Kringelbach et al., 2008). This "baby specific" neural 641 response may serve an adaptive function - because human infants are highly 642 dependent on caregivers for survival, increased attentional processing of 643 infant stimuli may help to orient adults towards infants. Indeed, previous 644 research has provided evidence for heightened biological sensitivity to infants

in mothers (Bornstein et al., 2013), and here we extend this finding to show a
similar heightened processing in nulliparous individuals. Given the prevalence
of alloparental care in modern society, it would be potentially beneficial for
parents and non-parents alike to show increased attentional processing of
infant cues.

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- 655
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## 912 **Figure Captions**

913

914 *Figure 1.* Examples of high-cute/attractive (left column) and low-cute/attractive (right
915 column) faces.

916

917 *Figure 2.* Average ratings from women (purple bars) and men (blue bars) given to the

918 low-aesthetic versions (dashed) and high-aesthetic versions (solid) of each face type.

919

- 920 Figure 3. N170-responses to infant faces (blue lines), same-sex adult faces (red
- 921 lines), and opposite-sex adult faces (grey lines). Solid lines represent the high-
- 922 aesthetic versions of the faces while dashed lines represent the low-aesthetic

923 versions of the faces.

924

925 Figure 4. LPC-responses to infant faces (blue lines), same-sex adult faces (red

926 lines), and opposite-sex adult faces (grey lines) from two posterior midline channels.

927 Solid lines represent the high-aesthetic versions of the faces while dashed lines

928 represent the low-aesthetic versions of the faces. The vertical lines beginning at

929 300ms show the borders of the eight analysis windows.

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