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Interdependent mechanisms for processing gender and emotion: The special status of angry male faces

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Abstract (350)
While some models of how various attributes of a face are processed have posited that face features, invariant physical cues such as gender or ethnicity as well as variant social cues such as emotion, may be processed independently (e.g., Bruce & Young, 1986), other models suggest a more distributed representation and interdependent processing (e.g., Haxby, Hoffman, & Gobbini, 2000). Here we use a contingent adaptation paradigm to investigate if mechanisms for processing the gender and emotion of a face are interdependent and symmetric across the happy-angry emotional continuum and regardless of the gender of the face. We simultaneously adapted participants to angry female faces and happy male faces (Experiment 1) or to happy female faces and angry male faces (Experiment 2). In Experiment 1 we found evidence for contingent adaptation, with simultaneous aftereffects in opposite directions: male faces were biased towards angry while female faces were biased towards happy. Interestingly, in the complementary Experiment 2 we did not find evidence for contingent adaptation, with both male and female faces biased towards angry. Our results highlight that evidence for contingent adaptation and the underlying interdependent face processing mechanisms that would allow for contingent adaptation may only be evident for certain combinations of face features. Such limits may be especially important in the case of social cues given how maladaptive it may be to stop responding to threatening information, with male angry faces considered to be the most threatening. The underlying neuronal mechanisms that could account for such asymmetric effects in contingent adaptation remain to be elucidated.

Keywords: face perception, contingent adaptation, emotion, visual aftereffects, tuning
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Introduction
Faces are among the most important social stimuli. Fundamentally adaptive in nature, our ability to perceive the information conveyed by a face can enhance our chances of survival by allowing us to interpret vital, dynamic, and potentially dangerous social information. It has been shown that facial emotions are accurate predictors of future behavior; therefore, appropriately identifying and responding to an angry face may enable us to avoid an ensuing physical threat (Andrew, 1963; Chevalier & Skolnikoff, 1973). The evolutionary relevance of faces is apparent in an infant’s ability to mimic facial expressions just hours from birth (Meltzoff & Moore, 1983) and an adult’s ability to perceive face-like patterns in random stimuli, such as seeing a face on the moon (Liu, Jun, Lu, Ling, Jie, & Lee, 2014).

Early models of face processing suggested that the mechanisms for processing different features of a face are independent. Bruce and Young (1986) postulated that structurally different face features, such as gender, identity, emotion, and ethnicity, are processed by separate, distinct, mechanisms in the visual system, which do not interact. Although some neuropsychological (e.g., Calder, Young, Perrett, Etcoff, & Rowland, 1996) and behavioral (e.g., Bruce, Burton, Hanna, Healey, Mason, Coombes, et al., 1993) evidence supported the Bruce & Young model of independent model, several criticisms had been identified (see Calder & Young, 2005 for review) and subsequent behavioral and neurophysiological studies have found counter evidence, supporting a model of interdependent mechanisms such that different facial features may interact and combine to bias our perception and underlying neuronal processes, (e.g., Bestelmeyer, Jones, DeBruine, Little, & Welling, 2010; Ng, Ciaramitaro, Antis, Boynton, & Fine, 2006).

Known as the psychophysicist’s electrode, adaptation to repeated stimulus presentation reduces neuronal response, biasing the perception of subsequent stimuli in the opposite direction (for a review see Webster & McLeod, 2004) and biasing subsequent neuronal activation patterns (e.g., Grill-Spector & Malach, 1999). Adaptation can act on single, more simple, stimulus features, which are fairly low-level, such as orientation or visual motion (e.g. Gibson & Radner, 1933; Mather, Verstraten, & Anstis, 1998; 2006; Wade,
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1994). Adaptation can also act on more complex stimulus features, for example, aspects of a face, from the encoding of static structural statistics (the shape of the eyes or nose or the distances between the eyes, or unique facial characteristics which define gender, race or age (e.g., Ackerman, Shapiro, Neuberg, Kenrick, Becker, Griskevicius, et al. 2006; Gibson, & Radner, 1937; Kohler & Wallach, 1944; Leopold, O’Toole, Vetter, & Blanz, 2001; Muskat, Paras, Webster, 2000; Ng, Caramitaro, Anstis, Boynton & Fine, 2006; Russell, Sinha, Biederman, Nederhouser, 2000; Webster & MacLin, 1999; Webster, Kaping, Mizokami, & Duhamel, 2004), to the encoding of dynamic structural statistics, for example, emotion (e.g., Bestelmeyer, Jones, DeBruine, Little, & Welling, 2010; Hsu & Young, 2004; O’Neil & Webster 2011; Rutherford, Chattha, & Krysko, 2008).

It has been shown that adaptation to certain features of a face cannot solely be accounted for by retinal adaptation of low-level image statistics. For example, Bestelmeyer and colleagues (2008) adapted participants to female and male faces or to female and “hyper-female” faces to test if adaptation was specific to stimulus category, gender, or to underlying structural differences. Hyper-female faces were as mathematically different in terms of their structure from female faces as were male faces. Their results indicated that adaptation acted at the level of the category of gender, female, not at the level of basic structural differences between stimuli, which could be accounted for by low-level retinal adaptation to image statistics. In the case of emotional information as well, adaptation has been found to act at the level of the category of emotion, as opposed to low-level structural differences (Etcoff & Magee, 1992; Smith, Cottrell, Gosselin, Schyns, 2005; Leopold, O’Toole, Vetter, Blanz, 2001).

Given that our experience of a face is not one of single features, it is important to understand how various combinations of face features come to be represented and how they ultimately influence our perception. Researchers aiming to uncover independent versus interdependent processing have often relied on the powerful methodology of contingent adaptation, i.e. adapting to a combination of features and looking for evidence of contrasting or opposing aftereffects based on unique stimulus feature combinations. In contingent adaptation two features are paired and always presented together. Given that 2
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different sets of opposing features are presented, if mechanisms for processing are independent there should be no net adaptation since there is equal exposure to opposing conditions. The presence of opposing aftereffects suggests that unique combination of features can be adapted, that they are interdependent and possibly jointly tuned at the neuronal level.

Evidence for contingent adaptation has been found for simple visual features, such as in the classic example of the McCullough effect, where adapting to green-black horizontal gratings and red-black vertical gratings yields orientation specific after effects, such that horizontal gratings are biased to be appear redder while vertical gratings are biased to appear greener (Lovegrove & Over, 1972; McCoullough, 1965; Wandell, Poirson, Newsome, Baseler, Boynton, Huk, et al., 1999). Furthermore, interdependent mechanisms have also been found in the processing of faces across several domains of features. Studies have adapted to a combination of static structural features, such as eye distance and gender, expanded eye distance paired with one gender and reduced eye distance paired with another gender (Little, DeBruine, Jones, 2005). Here opposite, gender-contingent aftereffects were found as a function of eye distance; responses to faces of one gender were biased towards expanded eye distance, while towards contracted eye distance for the other gender. Evidence also suggests opposite, gender-contingent aftereffects as a function of ethnicity, with contingent adaptation reflected at the neuronal level in areas important for face processing, such as the inferior occipital cortex and the fusiform and cingulate gyrus, suggesting joint neuronal tuning for gender and ethnicity (Ng, et al., 2006).

Research investigating interdependent processing for gender and emotion is equivocal. In a selective attention task Le Gal and colleagues (2002) found evidence suggesting gender and emotion, anger and surprise, are encoded independently, while in a contingent adaptation task, Bestelmeyer and colleagues (2010) found evidence suggesting gender and emotion, anger and fear, are encoded interdependently. XXXX why discrepancy
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In the present study we not only tested whether mechanisms for processing gender and emotion are interdependent or independent, but also whether such are complementary across emotional categories. We use a contingent adaptation paradigm to investigate mechanisms for face processing along the happy-angry continuum. In contrast to much previous work, we consider complementary conditions of contingent adaptation for gender and emotion, adapting to angry females and happy males in Experiment 1 and the complementary condition, happy females and angry males, in Experiment 2.

We tested a unique combination of face features, gender and emotion (happy versus angry), as highlighted in Figure 1 (adapted from Ng, et al., 2006). A sample of the contingent pairs of face features adapted in Experiment 1, happy male and angry female faces, are shown outlined in dark ovals. Repeated exposure to these unique feature combinations should yield no net adaptation if features are represented independently since subjects are adapted with equal frequency to male and female faces and to angry and happy faces (illustrated on the right). Repeated exposure to these unique feature combinations should yield adaptation effects in different, opposing, directions if male and female faces are being processed interdependently, such that adaptation to female faces is contingent on one emotion and adaptation to male faces is contingent on another emotion (illustrated on the left). In such a scenario, our Experiment 1, adapting to female angry faces should bias female faces to be perceived as happier, while concurrent adaptation to male happy faces should bias male faces in the opposite direction, to be perceived as angrier.
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Interdependent Processing
adapt both gender and emotion

Independent Processing
adapt neither gender nor emotion

Figure 1: Interdependent versus Independent Processing of Emotion and Gender. On the left, dashed circles represent mechanisms selective for both gender and emotion, interdependent. On the right, dashed ovals represent mechanisms selective for gender or emotion, independent. The shaded areas reflect what would be adapted in our Experiment 1, where we adapt to angry female and happy male faces. Arrows indicate hypothetical adaptation after-effects for each model, with the longer, horizontal, arrows indicating the adaptation effects we quantified.

Methods

Participants

Participants were recruited from the University of Massachusetts Boston community of undergraduate and graduate students via email or posted flyers. A total of 33 participants completed Experiment 1 (18 females, mean age = 23 years, sem = 0.712, range = 18-33, with no significant difference in age between male and female participants, p = 0.31). Experiment 2 was completed by an additional, and different sample, of 33 participants (18 females, mean age = 24 years, sem = 1.486, range = 18-64, with no significant differences in age between male and female participants, p = 0.40). An additional 10 participants completed Experiment 1 but had to be excluded for the following reasons: an insufficient number of completed trials, less than 45 trials per condition (5), biased responses, where subjects selected the wrong emotion for unambiguous faces (80% morphs) more than 50% of the time (2), or a PSE exceeding 2 standard deviations of the mean PSE (3). An additional 7 participants completed Experiment 2 but had to be excluded for the following reasons: an insufficient number of completed trials (2), biased responses (4), or experimenter error (1).
All participants reported normal or corrected-to-normal vision and gave informed consent. Participants were compensated monetarily or allotted extra credit in accepted undergraduate psychology courses. This study was approved by the University of Massachusetts Boston Institutional Review Board.

**Stimuli**

Adapting stimuli consisted of 30 face images (15 female and 15 male; 20 Caucasian, 3 Asian, and 7 Black). Faces were chosen from the NimStim face database (Tottenham, Tanaka, Leon, McCarry, Nurse, et al, 2009). This database includes faces rated and scored for their validity of emotional expression by 81 participants, where participants were presented with a face and asked to judge the face as either “angry”, “surprise”, “afraid”, “sad”, “happy”, “disgust”, “neutral”, “calm”, or “none of the above” (Tottenham, et al, 2009). We only included faces from the NimStim face database with validity ratings of 75% or higher for happy and angry expressions for our set of adapting stimuli. All faces were gray-scaled to 50% and were embedded within a gray oval to reveal only the most emotionally relevant face features, with distracting stimuli such as clothing and hair artifacts occluded (see Figure 2).

**Figure 2: Sample Stimuli.** Examples of two sample faces from the NimStim database, one female (upper panel) and one male (lower panel), morphed along an emotional continuum, in steps ranging from 80% angry to neutral to 80% happy. Morph steps were chosen to optimize sampling where the dynamic range should be greatest, close to neutral, so are not linear. All faces were gray scaled and presented on a gray background.
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Test stimuli consisted of eight faces (4 female and 4 male; 5 Caucasian, 2 Asian, and 1 Black). Test images were also selected from the NimStim face database (Tottenham, et al., 2009) using the same criterion as mentioned for adapting stimuli. Test images were morphed using the MorphMan software package (STOIK Imaging, Moscow, Russia). A fully affective face was morphed with its complementary neutral to simulate an emotional continuum ranging from 80%, 40%, 20% to 10% angry as well as from 80%, 40%, 20% to 10% happy (see Figure 2 to see the angry to happy morphs for a sample female face, top panel, and male face, bottom panel). Morphing was performed by placing points on prominent face features: eyebrow ≈ 28 points; eyes ≈ 30 points; nose ≈ 14 points; mouth ≈ 22 points; face contour ≈ 18 points. Sample faces showing how points were selected for morphing prominent face features are shown in Figure 3.

Apparatus

Face stimuli were presented on a Nexus cathode ray-tube monitor with participants seated 45 cm away from the monitor, positioned on a chin and forehead rest to maintain constant viewing distance. Face stimuli were 595x595 pixels and subtended a viewing angle of 19.8 degrees. Stimuli were presented using Matlab and the psychophysics toolbox (Brainard, 1997; Pelli, 1997). Manual responses were recorded via button press. Participants wore noise-cancelling headphones to minimize ambient noise.
Experimental Procedures

Before the start of the experimental session outlined below, each subject was familiarized with the sequence of events in time and practiced on several trials where they heard an auditory alerting cue, were presented with a blank oval for 1sec, followed by a question mark presented for 1.5sec, during which time they had to arbitrarily respond via button press. A minimum of 4 practice trials were completed, with subjects given more practice if they failed to understand instructions.

Stimulus Sequence for Baseline Condition

For the first 180sec, participants fixated a cross presented at screen center. At the end of this period an auditory cue (500hz) alerted participants to an upcoming stimulus, a test face, which appeared for 1sec followed by a question mark for 1.5 sec. Participants were asked to make a forced choice decision and judge the previously displayed test face as either happy or angry during the time the question mark was displayed. They pressed the ‘z’ key for faces judged happy and the ‘x’ key for faces judged angry. After each test face a fixation cross was presented at screen center for 8sec (see Figure 4 for details).

A total of 64 test images were presented: 8 neutral faces, 8 face morphs for each of the angry and happy morphs at 10%, 20% and 40%, and 4 face morphs for each of the angry and happy morphs at 80%. The order of test image presentation varied randomly across trials. Participants were instructed to fixate gaze at screen center throughout the trial, but eye position was not monitored.
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Figure 4: Experimental Procedure. Participants were run in a two-alternative forced choice task and had to judge a series of randomized morphed test faces as either happy or angry (8 unique face identities, 4 male and 4 female; each unique face morphed along an emotional continuum from angry to neutral to happy). For the Baseline Condition, nothing was presented the first 180sec nor the 8sec following every test face morph. Each test face morph was presented for 1sec and participants had 1.5sec to judge the face morph they had seen. Next for the Adaptation Condition, the first 180 seconds presented a series of randomized adaptation faces (30 unique face identities, 15 male and 15 female, the original NimStim sample faces, defined as 100% emotional). Again, each face was presented for 1sec and participants had 1.5sec to judge the test face morph they had seen. After each test face morph was judged, there was an 8sec period of Top-Up Adaptation, where 8 adaptation faces were presented at random, each for 1sec. In Experiment 1, all adapting female faces were angry and all adapting male faces were happy, whereas in Experiment 2, all adapting female faces were happy and all adapting male faces were angry.

Stimulus Sequence for Adaptation Condition
For the first 180sec, participants fixated screen center as a series of 180, randomly chosen, adapting faces (100% emotion) were presented, each for 1sec. At the end of this adaptation period an auditory alerting cue (500hz) indicated an upcoming stimulus, a test face, which appeared for 1sec followed by a question mark for 1.5sec. Participants were asked to make a forced choice decision, to judge the previously displayed test face as either happy or angry during the time the question mark was displayed by pressing the ‘z’ key for faces judged happy and the ‘x’ key for faces judged angry. After each test image a series of 8, randomly chosen, adapting faces (100% emotion) each presented for 1sec appeared for a total top-up adaptation period of 8sec (see Figure 4 for details).

As in the baseline condition, a total of 64 test images were presented: 8 neutral faces, 8 face morphs for each of the angry and happy faces for 10%, 20% and 40% morphs, and 4...
faces morphs for each of the angry and 80% morphs. As in baseline, the order of test image presentation varied randomly across trials. Participants were instructed to fixate gaze at screen center throughout the trial, but eye position was not monitored.

The duration and sequence of events in time were similar for the baseline and adaptation condition to equate for subject fatigue as a function of time on task within a condition. The only difference between conditions was the presentation of a blank screen with a fixation cross (in baseline) versus a face at 100% emotion (in adaptation) during the 180sec start of each session and during the 8sec top-up adaptation period. For Experiment 1, adapting faces consisted of angry female and happy male faces at 100% emotion (the original NimStim sample faces). For Experiment 2, adapting faces consisted of happy female and angry male faces at 100% emotion (the original NimStim sample faces). Each experiment consisted of one baseline condition and one adapt condition, each lasting roughly 18 minutes, with a 5min break between.

**Data Analysis**

For the analyses described below, trials for which participants did not make a judgment in the allotted time were excluded from further analysis. Out of the possible 64 trials total, participants completed an average of 58.12 baseline trials (sem: 0.75; range: 50-64) and 60.52 adapt trials (sem: 0.496; range: 50-64) for Experiment 1 and 57.91 baseline trials (sem: 0.885; range: 48-64) and 60.12 adapt trials (sem: 0.593; range: 52-64) for Experiment 2. Data for Experiment 1 reflects a total of 1,918 baseline trials and 1,997 adapt trials across 33 subjects, while data for Experiment 2 reflects a total of 1,911 baseline trials and 1,984 adapt trials across 33 subjects.

**Quantifying Changes in the Point of Subjective Equality**

During the baseline condition we aim to capture each participant’s intrinsic bias in the identification of emotion in male and female faces. We calculate each participant’s unique neutral point, or point of subjective equality (PSE), by determining which face morph the participant is equally likely to judge as happy or angry. The PSE allows us to determine the mathematical face morph, even if never presented, that is judged
emotionally ambiguous, at chance levels or 50% for judging a face happy or angry. We
measure the strength of adaptation separately for female and male faces by quantifying
changes in judgments of the morph judged emotionally neutral at baseline, i.e., how
much more or less happy the female and male face morph at the PSE is judged after
adaptation.

To determine the PSE for male and female faces, the dataset for the baseline condition
and for the adaptation condition is subdivided based on the gender of the face morph and
each dataset is then fit with a psychometric function. Data is plotted such that the x-axis
is the morph continuum for a given gender and the y-axis is the percentage of happy
responses for each face morph. This data is fit using a cumulative normal function. To
quantify the shift in the PSE post-adaptation, we determine the change in the judgment
for the face morph judged neutral at baseline, i.e., the percent change in judgments of
happy along the y-axis (see Figure 5).

If mechanisms for processing gender and emotion are interdependent, we expect
adaptation to angry female and happy male faces to produce simultaneous aftereffects in
opposite directions, contrastive aftereffects, with male faces judged happier and female
faces judged angrier. The lack of such contingent adaptation, no contrastive aftereffects
for male and female faces, would suggest independent processing for gender and
emotion. A concrete example of expected results for contingent adaptation in our
paradigm for Experiment 1 is illustrated in Figure 5. In Experiment 1 participants are
adapted to angry female and happy male faces. Post-adaptation, if the 0% female morph
was judged neutral at baseline, this same morph should be viewed as happier (a positive
shift, as depicted by the upward arrow in Figure 5 on the left), while, if the 0% male
morph was judged neutral at baseline, this same morph should be viewed as angrier (a
negative shift, as depicted by the downward arrow in Figure 5 on the right). Evidence for
contingent adaptation is expected to yield complementary effects in the opposite direction
in Experiment 2, where subjects are simultaneously adapted to happy female and angry
males faces.
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Figure 5: Psychophysics Data Fitting and Predictions. The x-axis represents the morphed face continuum and the y-axis represents the percentage of happy responses. Data was fit using a cumulative normal. The solid black line depicts the fit to baseline data. From this fit we determined each participant’s unique neutral point, or point of subjective equality (PSE), the morph supporting 50% happy judgments, where the face was equally likely to be judged happy or angry. The dotted black line depicts the fit to post-adaptation data. We quantified the adaptation effect by determining how much happier or angrier the face morph judged neutral at baseline (at the PSE) was post-adaptation, indicated by the arrow. After adaptation to angry female faces (and happy male faces, not shown), an interdependent model would predict the female faces judged neutral at baseline would be judged happier (depicted as an upward shift and shown on the left). After adaptation to happy female faces (and angry male faces, not shown), an interdependent model would predict the face judged neutral at baseline would be judged angrier (depicted as a downward shift and shown on the right).
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Results

Data for a representation single participant in Experiment 1 is shown in Figure 6. The range of face morphs for which subjects had to make a judgment is plotted along the x-axis for female faces on the left and male faces on the right, with the convention of angry emotions to the left of zero and happy emotions to the right of zero. For this subject, the female face morph judged happy 50% of the time (baseline PSE) was at -0.0376% angry. This same female morph was judged 37.77% happier (PSE shift) after adaptation to female angry faces. Meanwhile, the male face morph judged happy 50% of the time (baseline PSE) was at 17.868% happy. This same male morph was judged 27.71% angrier (PSE shift) after adaptation to male happy faces. Thus, simultaneous adaptation to angry females and happy males led to contrastive aftereffects in opposite directions, supporting interdependent mechanism for processing face gender and emotion.

A summary of results from Experiment 1 across our 33 subjects is shown on the left in Figure 7. In a 2x2 mixed variable design, where the dependent variable was the post-adaptation percent shift in judgments of the PSE face at baseline, the independent within-
subject variable was the gender of the face morph (male vs. female), while the between-subject independent variable was the gender of the participant, a MANOVA revealed a significant main effect of gender of the morph test face ($F_{1,31}=28.504$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2=0.48$, and observed power=0.999). After adaptation to angry female and happy male faces, participants showed post-adaptation shifts in opposite directions, with the female face at the PSE judged happier and the male face at the PSE judged angrier. There was no significant effect of gender of the participant ($p=0.217$).

A summary of results from Experiment 2 across our 33 subjects is shown on the right in Figure 7. Using the same 2x2 mixed variable design outlined for Experiment 1, MANOVA revealed no evidence of contingent adaptation ($p>0.05$). There was no significant difference in adaptation based on the gender of the morph test face, nor any significant difference in adaptation based on gender of the participant. Overall, the results

![Figure 7: Psychophysical Results Post-Adaptation. Data depicting the change in judgment of the face morph judged emotionally neutral at baseline (Baseline PSE) are depicted for female and male test faces for Experiment 1 (left) and Experiment 2 (right). The x-axis represents the gender of the test face, while the y-axis represents the percent change in judgment of the unique face judged neutral at baseline for each subject. Thus, each subject’s data is normalized based on initial biases in judging a face. Data show the mean change in judgment (+/- sem across subjects). In Experiment 1 (left), post-adaptation to angry female and happy male faces, female faces are judged happier, an overall positive shift, while male faces are judged angrier, an overall negative shift. In Experiment 2 (right), such contrastive aftereffects are not found. Rather, post-adaptation to happy female and angry male faces, both female and male faces are judged angrier (an overall negative shift).]
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of Experiment 2 do not support interdependent mechanisms for face processing, which would have predicted contrastive aftereffects.

Post-hoc analyses across conditions from Experiments 1 and 2, to test if the mean magnitude of the adaptation effect (irrespective of direction) was weaker when adapting to angry versus happy faces, found a trend for comparatively weaker adaptation for angry versus happy faces, irrespective of the gender of the face (p=0.0691 for male faces and p=0.075 for female faces).

One possible explanation for weakened adaptation could arise from biases in perceiving anger in a face at baseline. Our quantification of adaptation is normalized by results at baseline. If the baseline PSE is already biased, this might restrict the dynamic range over which adaptation could alter responses, minimizing adaptation effects specifically for angry faces. Figure 8 shows the baseline PSE for Experiment 1 and Experiment 2, on the left and right, respectively. Across both Experiments, we find a significant main effect of gender of the morph test face. For both Experiment 1 and 2, baseline PSE is significantly more positive for male compared female test faces (Expt 1: p=0.001; Expt 2: p=0.042). These results indicate that, at baseline, the PSE is significantly more positive for male compared to female faces, indicating that a male face must contain more happiness to be perceived as emotionally neutral. Thus, there is a bias in perceiving male faces more negatively from the outset. Although baseline biases could account for the trend for weaker adaptation effects to angry male faces, they can not account for the wrong direction of this adaptation effect, where adaptation to angry male faces should bias the percept of neutral male faces to be happier, a net positive shift. Nor can baseline biases account for the trend for weaker adaptation to angry female faces, since no baseline bias was observed for female faces.
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Discussion

We used a classic method, contingent adaptation, to test if mechanisms for processing the gender and emotion of a face were interdependent or independent. Our task design was optimized for adaptation to the categories of emotion and gender rather than to unique face identities of a particular gender and emotion given that we used 30 unique face identities during adaptation and a subset of 8 unique face morph identities during test. Our results from Experiment 1, where we adapt to angry female and happy male faces, provide evidence for contrastive perceptual aftereffects: after adaptation, female faces at the PSE are judged happier while male faces at the PSE are judged angrier. These results are what would be predicted if mechanisms for processing gender and emotion are interdependent, corroborating and extending previous work finding evidence for interdependent processing among different combinations of face features, such as gender and emotion, (Bestelmeyer, et al., 2010, 2011; Hsu & Young, 2004; Webster, Kaping, Mizokami, Duhamel, 2004) gender and ethnicity (Bestelmeyer, et al., 2010; Ng, et al., 2006), and even gender and structural features, such as eye spacing (Little, DeBruine, Jones, 2005).
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Contrary to the predictions of interdependent mechanisms, our results from Experiment 2, where we adapted to happy female and angry male faces, failed to provide evidence for contrastive perceptual aftereffects. Thus, although female faces at the PSE were judged angrier after adaptation, male faces at the PSE were not judged happier after adaptation. Interestingly, it is not the case that female test faces show no net adaptation effect, as predicted from an independent mechanism for processing face gender and emotion. Nonetheless, the unique combination of angry male faces confers a special processing status, rendering such a combination of facial features resistant to classic contingent adaptation effects.

Across experiments, we found a trend, albeit insignificant, for overall weaker adaptation to angry compared to happy faces, for both female and male faces, corroborating and extending previous neurophysiological evidence for weaker adaptation to anger (e.g., Gerlicher, van Loon, Scholte, Lamme, & van der Leij, 2013) and extending previous behavioral evidence that male faces are biased to be perceived as angry (for example, Bayet, Pascalis, Quin, Lee, Gentaz, & Tananka, 2015). The biases we find at baseline, while reducing the dynamic range over which adaptation can act, can not account for our failure to find opposite adaptation effects for angry male faces compared to happy male faces.

How is it that the failure of contingent adaptation effects for one condition, but not its compliment, have not been noted before? We tested complementary conditions, something not always considered. In addition, even when complimentary conditions have been considered, analytic methods may have obscured results. For example, Bestelmeyer and colleagues (2010) tested complimentary stimulus pairs in their contingent adaptation paradigm, angry females and fearful males or fearful females and happy males; yet, they collapsed across gender of the test images to examine the effect of fearful versus angry. Thus, biases as a function of gender may have been obscured. In addition, this study focused on negative, threatening, emotions. In our experimental paradigm, we separate out effects based on the gender of the test image and focus on a negative and positive emotion. The unique combination of gender and emotion we chose allowed us to uncover the special status of angry male faces at the behavioral level. Our behavioral findings are
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in line with neuroimaging results, which find evidence for weaker neuronal adaptation in face selective areas when adapting to angry male faces (Gerlicher, et al., 2013; although see Suzuki, Goh, Hebrank, Sutton, Jenkins, & Flicker, 2011, who found the weakest fMRI adaptation effects for happy faces).

One possible explanation for our results is that angry male faces are so emotionally salient that they are resilient to adaptation effects. Such resilience to adaptation may arise from socialization, and should be especially true for negative emotions, such as anger, given that they serve as a cue to potentially threatening environments for which we need to maintain alertness and responsiveness. The selective pressure for fast responsiveness to negative emotional information, may have driven the development of perceptual and cognitive mechanisms with enhanced processing for negative emotions. In fact, evidence suggests that reaction times to threatening, negative, information are faster (Adams, Grey, Garner, Graf, 2010; Tamietto & de Gelder, 2010). Previous studies have highlighted factors that socialize association between gender and emotion (for a review see Tay, 2015. It has been shown that males express anger more often than females in social situations (Fabes & Martin, 1991). Considering that displays of facial emotion have been shown to be accurate predictors of future behavior, it would be advantageous to associate maleness with anger (Andrew, 1963; Chevalier & Skolnikoff, 1973).

In our study, angry male faces may have been so emotionally salient that participants did not adapt, thus yielding no net contingent adaptation effect. The special status for angry male faces may be the result of two mechanisms, one for increased salience in combination with one for weakened adaptation. Both mechanisms play a role in optimizing visual performance, adaptation via optimizing sensitivity for novel over familiar stimuli and attention via optimizing sensitivity to behaviorally relevant over irrelevant stimuli. Previous studies have examined how the effects of attention and adaptation interact for non-emotional and less complex visual features, such as visual contrast or perceived speed, suggesting that attention and adaptation may be separate and independent mechanisms (e.g., Anton-Erxeleben, Hermann, & Carrasco, 2013; Pestilli, Viera, & Carrasco, 2009; but see Rezec, Krekelberg, & Dobkins, 2004 for evidence suggesting that attention produces an “adaptation gain” for visual motion, enhancing the
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Attention has been shown capable of overcoming adaptation to restore contrast sensitivity (Pestilli, Viera, & Carrasco, 2009) and alter perceived speed (Anton-Erxeleben, Hermann, & Carrasco, 2013). Attention has also been shown to be captured more readily by angry male faces compared to positive or neutral faces (e.g., Bannerman, Milders, & Sahraie, 2010; Feldmann-Wustefeld, Schmidt-Daffy, & Schubo, 2001; Huang, Chang, & Chen, 2011; see Holmes, Bradley, Nielsen, & Mogg, 2009 for an example at the level of physiology). It remains to be seen how mechanisms of attention and adaptation interact or remain independent when emotional, complex, visual stimuli are being processed. Previous work has highlighted biases in the allocation of attention to faces as a function of emotional valence (e.g., Eastwood, Smilek, & Merikle, 2001; Vuilleumier, 2002). In order to tease apart the specific contributions of attention, or salience, versus adaptation, in responses to emotional, complex, visual stimuli like angry male faces, future research could adapt to less salient angry male faces or the perception of anger in male and female faces could be empirically parameterized to create true equivalence in salience for a given emotional valence, especially for threatening emotional stimuli. Furthermore, it would be important to monitor shifts in gaze. In our current study, while we asked participants to maintain stable fixation, eye movements while viewing face stimuli were not monitored.

In sum, our results suggest that finding evidence in support of interdependent versus independent mechanisms for processing emotion and gender may depend on the unique combination of face features being considered. Whether or not there is a special status imparted to emotional information in general, threatening emotional information in particular, or whether other unique combinations of facial features might also be resilient to adaptation, remains to be determined as does the development of such potential biases in how combinations of face features are processed and their neuronal underpinnings.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1: Interdependent vs Independent Processing of Emotion and Gender
On the left, dashed circles represent mechanisms selective for both gender and emotion, an interdependent processing model. On the right, dashed ovals represent mechanisms selective for gender or emotion, an independent processing model. The shaded areas reflect what would be adapted in our Experiment 1, where we adapt to angry female and happy male faces. Arrows indicate hypothetical adaptation after-effects for each model, with the longer, horizontal, arrows indicating the adaptation effects we quantified.

Figure 2: Sample Stimuli.
Examples of two sample faces from the NimStim database, one female (upper panel) and one male (lower panel), morphed along an emotional continuum, in steps ranging from 80% angry to neutral to 80% happy. Morph steps were chosen to optimize sampling where the dynamic range should be greatest, close to neutral, so are not linear. All faces were gray scaled and presented on a gray background.

Figure 3: Sample Points for Morphing Faces.
Faces from the NimStim face database were morphed using MorphMan, by placing points on prominent face features (sample a male face on right and female face on left). Starting points on neutral face images, shown here, were mapped onto end points in the complementary expressive face (100% happy and also 100 angry).

Figure 4: Experimental Procedure.
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Participants were run in a two-alternative forced choice task and had to judge a series of randomized morphed test faces as either happy or angry (8 unique face identities, 4 male and 4 female; each unique face morphed along an emotional continuum from angry to neutral to happy). For the Baseline Condition, nothing was presented the first 180sec nor the 8sec following every test face morph. Each test face morph was presented for 1sec and participants had 1.5sec to judge the face morph they had seen. Next for the Adaptation Condition, the first 180 seconds presented a series of randomized adaptation faces (30 unique face identities, 15 male and 15 female, the original NimStim sample faces, defined as 100% emotional). Again, each face was presented for 1sec and participants had 1.5sec to judge the face morph they had seen. After each test face morph, there was an 8sec period of Top-Up Adaptation, where 8 adaptation faces were presented at random, each for 1sec. In Experiment 1, all adapting female faces were angry and all adapting male faces were happy, whereas in Experiment 2, all adapting female faces were happy and all adapting male faces were angry.

Figure 5: Psychophysics Data Fitting and Predictions.

The x-axis represents the morphed face continuum and the y-axis represents the percentage of happy responses. Data was fit using a cumulative normal. The solid black line depicts the fit to baseline data. From this fit we determined each participant’s unique neutral point, or point of subjective equality (PSE), the morph supporting 50% happy judgments, where the face was equally likely to be judged happy or angry. The dotted black line depicts the fit to post-adaptation data. We quantified the adaptation effect by determining how much happier or angrier the face morph judged neutral at baseline (at
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the PSE) was post-adaptation, indicated by the arrow. After adaptation to angry female faces (and happy male faces, not shown), an interdependent model would predict the female faces judged neutral at baseline would be judged happier (depicted as an upward shift and shown on the left). After adaptation to happy female faces (and angry male faces, not shown), an interdependent model would predict the face judged neutral at baseline would be judged angrier (depicted as a downward shift and shown on the right).

Figure 6: Psychophysical Results for a Sample Participant. Experiment 1 single participant data. Plotted on the x-axis is the morphed face continuum, angry to happy. The y-axis represents the percentage of trials the participant judged a given face morph as happy. Solid black lines represent fits to the baseline data, while dotted black lines represent fits to the post-adaptation data. After adaptation to angry female and happy male faces, the baseline PSE face morph for female faces was judged 24.03% happier (left) while the baseline PSE face morph for male faces was judged 29.69% angrier (right).

Figure 7: Psychophysical Results Post-Adaptation:

Data depicting the change in judgment of the face morph judged emotionally neutral at baseline (Baseline PSE) are depicted for female and male test faces for Experiment 1 (left) and Experiment 2 (right). The x-axis represents the gender of the test face, while the y-axis represents the percent change in judgment of the unique face judged neutral at baseline for each subject. Thus, each subject’s data is normalized based on initial biases in judging a face. Data show the mean change in judgment (+/- sem across subjects). In
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Experiment 1 (left), post-adaptation to angry female and happy male faces, female faces are judged happier, an overall positive shift, while male faces are judged angrier, an overall negative shift. In Experiment 2 (right), such contrastive aftereffects are not found. Rather, post-adaptation to happy female and angry male faces, both female and male faces are judged angrier (an overall negative shift).

Figure 8: Psychophysical Results at Baseline:

Data depicting baseline biases for female and male test faces are shown for Experiment 1 (left) and Experiment 2 (right). The x-axis represents the gender of the test face, while the y-axis represents the baseline point of subjective quality. Data shows the mean PSE at baseline (+/- sem across subjects). In both Experiment 1 and 2, the baseline PSE for male test faces is significantly more positive (happier) than for female test faces, indicating that male faces require more happiness to be perceived as neutral and are biased to be perceived more negatively.