Facial resemblance increases the attractiveness of same-sex faces more than other-sex faces

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Reactions to facial self-resemblance could reflect either specialized responses to cues of kinship or byproducts of the general perceptual mechanisms of face encoding and mere exposure. The adaptive hypothesis predicts differences in reactions to self-resemblance in mating and prosocial contexts, while the byproduct hypothesis does not. Using face images that were digitally transformed to resemble participants, I showed that the effects of resemblance on attractiveness judgments depended on both the sex of the judge and the sex of the face being judged: facial resemblance increased attractiveness judgments of same-sex faces more than other-sex faces, despite identical procedures being used to manipulate resemblance. A control experiment indicated these effects were caused neither by lower resemblance of other-sex faces than same-sex faces, nor by an increased perception of averageness or familiarity of same-sex faces due to prototyping or mere exposure affecting only same-sex faces. The differential impact of self-resemblance on same-sex and other-sex faces supports the hypothesis that humans use facial resemblance as a cue of kinship.

1. INTRODUCTION

Judgments of facial attractiveness are highly consensual (Langlois et al., 2000), reflecting preferences for visible attributes such as bilateral symmetry, quality of the skin, averageness or typicality, and secondary sex characteristics (Thornhill & Gangestad, 1999). Attributes of the raters, such as own attractiveness, ovarian cycle stage, and romantic relationship status also affect judgments (Little, Burt, Penton-Voak, & Perrett, 2001; Penton-Voak et al., 1999; Johnston & Barry, 2001; Little, Jones, Penton-Voak, Burt, & Perrett, 2002). Another characteristic that may affect a face’s attractiveness is its resemblance to the judge’s own face.

Why might people be expected to respond to self-resemblance? One possibility is that self-resemblance is a cue of genetic relatedness (Hauber & Sherman, 2001) to which humans have evolved a specific sensitivity because kinship has affected the costs and benefits, in inclusive fitness, of social decisions (Hamilton, 1964). This hypothesis suggests that responses to self-resemblance may not be uniformly positive since the appropriate (fitness-enhancing) response to kin in ancestral environments was different in such distinct domains as altruism and mate choice. Indeed, self-resemblance has been shown to both increase affiliative behaviour in peacock brothers raised apart (Petrie, Krupa, & Burke, 1999) and decrease mating behaviour between baboon paternal half-siblings (Alberts, 1999). Alternatively, positive responses to self-resemblance could simply be non-adaptive byproducts of more general phenomena, such as liking what is familiar (Zajonc, 1968; Bornstein, 1989).

In this paper, I present evidence that attributions of attractiveness are enhanced by facial resemblance to self and that this enhancement is greater for same-sex faces than for other-sex faces. I also show that this same-sex bias is neither a result of low perceived resemblance to other-sex faces nor a functionless byproduct of a general preference for familiar stimuli. This suggests that the same-sex bias in attractiveness enhancement caused by self-resemblance is a product of specialized responses to facial resemblance as a cue of kinship, functioning to favour kin in a non-sexual prosocial context and avoid kin in a mating context.

Resemblance and Attractiveness of Other-Sex Faces

Negative consequences of inbreeding are well-documented in humans (Bittles & Neel, 1994). Many authors have argued that human sexual psychology includes adaptations for avoiding inbreeding, including the “Westermarck effect” whereby children reared together tend to find one another sexually unappealing (e.g. Wolf, 1995). Surprisingly, however, rather than selecting maximally dissimilar mates, human couples tend to resemble one another on both physical and personality traits (Keller, Thiessen, & Young, 1996; Buston & Emlen, 2003; Hinsz, 1989; Griffiths & Kunz, 1973; Bereczkei, Gyuris, Koves, & Bernath, 2002; Zajonc, Adelmann, Murphy, & Niendenthal, 1987). This is puzzling in light of the documented costs of inbreeding. If people are attracted to others who physically resemble themselves despite those costs, this could be
either an incidental byproduct of a general preference for familiarity (Zajonc, 1968; Bornstein, 1989), evidence of preferences evolved to produce optimal inbreeding (Bateson, 1983), or it could indicate that the physical attributes on which couples are judged as similar (e.g. attractiveness, weight, demeanor) are not reliably correlated with genetic relatedness.

Penton-Voak, Perrett, and Peirce (1999) used computer-graphics image manipulation to investigate the impact of resemblance to self on perceptions of attractiveness. Male faces that resembled female participants were generated by changing the shape of an average male face to the same degree that the focal woman’s face differed from the female average. Participants rated the attractiveness of the transformed male faces and independent raters judged the resemblance between participants and each face. The average rating of the resemblance between a participant and a given face was positively and significantly correlated with the attractiveness rating the participant gave that face. Whether the results of this study bespeak a relationship between facial resemblance and sexual attraction or positive feelings that are independent of sex is unclear because the study was restricted to women’s ratings of male faces.

**Resemblance and Attractiveness of Same-Sex Faces**

Although men’s and women’s attractiveness ratings of male and female faces correlate highly, attractiveness judgments of other-sex faces may carry a somewhat different connotation than attractiveness judgments of same-sex faces (Zebrowitz & Rhodes, 2002). Attractiveness judgments of other-sex faces are more likely to include an evaluation of desirability to the judge as a sexual or romantic partner, while judgments of same-sex faces are more likely to be evaluated on imagined desirability to other-sex people or on non-sexual, general positive regard.

Attractive people are judged positively in many domains, including intelligence, friendliness, sincerity and trustworthiness (e.g. Dion, Berscheid, & Walster, 1972; Eagly, Ashmore, Makhijani, & Longo, 1991). Attractive people even receive higher offers in economic games (Solnick & Schweitzer, 1999; Hancock & Ross, 2002). DeBruine (2002) reported that facial resemblance affected economic decisions when research participants had the option to divide a small sum of money equally between self and a same-sex pictured partner or to trust that partner with the division of a larger sum of money. Participants were more likely to trust partners whose images had been subtly manipulated to resemble themselves than partners whose images had been made to resemble others. Self-resembling faces may be judged more trustworthy, or people may be less concerned about whether they will reciprocate trust, much as kin are relatively unconcerned about equity in their interactions (Hames, 1987). Although they did not directly assess the impact of facial resemblance on the attractiveness of same-sex faces, these results suggest a general increase in positive regard towards such faces.
perceptions of averageness will also be greater for same-sex faces than other-sex faces. Alternatively, the existence of a single, sex-neutral face prototype (single-prototype hypothesis) should lead to equal enhancement of perceived averageness for both same-sex and other-sex faces. This would demonstrate both that the experimental manipulation of resemblance was sufficient to produce responses to both same-sex and other-sex faces and also support the hypothesis that a specific mechanism acts to temper the enhancement of attractiveness due to self-resemblance in the case of other-sex faces.

2. METHODS

(a) Experiment 1: Attractiveness Judgments

(i) Participants

Participants were 53 male and 55 female undergraduate students enrolled in introductory psychology (mean age=19.2 years, SD=1.6). They were of varying ethnic backgrounds, but were divided into the broad phenotypic categories of East Asian (14 male, 16 female), European (25 male, 32 female) and West Asian (14 male, 7 female) for the purposes of transforming faces.

Participants were grouped into testing units with one to six other same-sex, same-phenotypic-category students who acted as controls for each other. All participants in a testing unit viewed the same set of seven images, which included one transformed image made from each participant in the testing unit. For testing units with fewer than seven participants, images made from unknown same-sex, same-phenotypic-category participants were added to equate the number of images seen by each participant.

(ii) Transformed Facial Stimuli

Average composite faces were created using the images of 20 individuals of the same sex and phenotypic category with a mean age of 19 years. Male and female composite faces were made for East Asian, European and West Asian faces. The original head and shoulder photographs were taken using a digital camera under standard lighting conditions. The shape of each face was delineated using 171 facial landmarks and the average faces were constructed with image manipulation software (Rowland & Perrett, 1995; Tiddeman, Perrett, & Burt, 2001) by combining the shape, color and texture information from the individual images.

The same procedure was used to photograph and delineate the participants’ images. To decrease the chance that participants would guess the nature of the experiment, their face photographs were taken one week before the experiment for an unrelated study about facial masculinity and spatial ability. Each participant’s image was used to transform the composite male and female faces of the same phenotypic category. Transforms were made by calculating the shape differences between the participant’s face and the same-sex composite face (Figure 1). To make same-sex transforms, 50% of this difference was applied to the same-sex composite face. To make other-sex transforms, 50% of the difference between the participant and same-sex composite was applied to the other-sex composite face. This is functionally identical to the procedure used by DeBruine (2002) to make same-sex 50% shape-only morphs and only different in the degree of transformation (50% vs. 100%) from that used by Penton-Voak et al. (1999) to make male transforms from images of female research participants. A 50% degree of transformation is the most one can use without participants noticing resemblance to self in same-sex images. I do not assume that 50% is equivalent to the degree of resemblance expected for siblings or first cousins, but I do assume it is sufficient to reach a threshold resemblance effect.

Although one might intuitively expect such a procedure to make male faces more feminine and female faces more masculine, this transformation only masculinizes or feminizes the resulting transform to the extent that the participant’s face is more masculine or feminine than his or her same-sex composite face. In other words, only the differences between a participant’s face and the same-sex composite face are used to transform the male and female composites.

(iii) Procedure

Participants made two-alternative forced-choice decisions between all 21 possible pairs of faces in each testing unit. Specifically, they were asked to, “Click on the face you find more attractive”. Forced choice tests have been shown to be a more sensitive test of kin recognition than sequential discrimination in birds (Beecher, 1991) and were described by participants in pilot experiments for this study as easier than a Likert scale rating of the attractiveness of singly-presented faces.

Each participant thus made six decisions for each of the seven faces, including his or her own transformed image. Half the participants viewed a block of same-sex faces first, then repeated the procedure with the other-sex faces, and half viewed the stimuli in the opposite order. All participants in a given testing unit saw the stimuli in the same blocked order. The initial order of faces was randomized and then presented in an optimal way for two-alternative forced choice tasks (Ross, 1934), whereby each image was shown equally often in each position and the presentation of identical stimuli was maximally spaced.

After the experiment was completed, participants were asked to write down what they thought the experiment was testing and how the images were manipulated. No participants guessed that the images they viewed contained information from their own faces.

(iv) Statistical Methods

Two attractiveness scores were computed for each transformed image. The first (own-preference) was the number of times the participant whose face was used to make the transform chose this image. The second (other-preference) was the average number of times that others in the same testing unit chose that same image. These scores could range from
zero (the image was never chosen as the more attractive of the pair) to six (the image was chosen as the more attractive in all six pairings).

Each participant’s preference for self-resemblance was computed as the difference between the above-described attractiveness scores (i.e. own-preference minus other-preference). If participants judged their own transforms on the same criteria that others judged those faces, this difference score should average zero. Difference scores greater than zero will support the prediction that self-resemblance positively affects judgments of attractiveness.

A repeated-measures factorial ANOVA was used to determine the effects of three variables on the attractiveness scores for the transformed faces. Within-subjects effects of face sex and judge resemblance (i.e. own-preference vs. other-preference) and the between-subjects effect of participant sex were assessed. An interaction among participant sex, face sex and judge resemblance will support the prediction that resemblance will increase the attractiveness of other-sex faces less than same-sex faces. Paired t-tests were used to analyze the effect of judge resemblance on men’s and women’s judgments of male and female face transforms separately. All reported p-values are two-tailed.

(b) Experiment 2: Averageness Judgments

(i) Participants

Participants were 33 male and 45 female undergraduates taking introductory psychology (mean age = 19.7 years, SD = 1.2). They were also grouped by phenotype (east Asian: 7 male, 10 female, European: 23 male, 32 female, west Asian: 3 male, 3 female).

(ii) Stimuli

Transformed facial stimuli were made as in Experiment 1.

(iii) Procedure

Participants were instructed, “You will be asked to choose which one is more average in each pair. By average, I mean most typical or ordinary.” As in experiment 1, participants were grouped into testing units that viewed the same seven faces, but only 6 of those were transforms made from self or other participants. The seventh face was the unmanipulated composite, included to assess whether participants perceived their own transforms as more “average” than a statistically average composite.

(iv) Statistical Methods

To determine whether participants could detect averageness, a one-sample t-test was used to compare the number
FACIAL RESEMBLANCE INCREASES ATTRACTIVENESS

3. RESULTS

(a) Experiment 1: Effects of Resemblance on Attractiveness Judgments

As anticipated from the hypothesis that resemblance cues familiarity or kinship and evokes positive regard, the participant whom an image resembled chose it as the attractive face more often than other participants did (Figure 2a) and this result was confirmed as a main effect of judge resemblance (own-preference vs. other-preference; \(F_{1,106} = 20.9, p < 0.001\)). There was no main effect of participant sex (\(F_{1,106} = 0.01, p = 0.92\)) or face sex (\(F_{1,106} = 0.15, p = 0.70\)). Confirming the hypothesis that resemblance will increase the attractiveness of other-sex faces less than same-sex faces, there was a significant three-way interaction among participant sex, face sex and judge resemblance (\(F_{1,106} = 10.57, p = 0.002\)); both men and women preferred self-resembling transforms over non-self transforms to a greater extent with same-sex faces than with other-sex faces.

Paired t-tests showed that both male and female participants judged their own same-sex transformed faces as more attractive than other participants judged them (men: \(t_{52} = 3.40, p = 0.001\), women: \(t_{54} = 4.75, p < 0.001\)). Neither men nor women judged their own other-sex transformed faces as significantly more attractive than other participants judged them (men: \(t_{52} = 0.71, p = 0.48\), women: \(t_{54} = 2.06, p = 0.044\); Bonferroni-corrected critical \(p = 0.0125\)).

(b) Experiment 2: Effects of Resemblance on Averageness Judgments

Both male and female participants chose male and female composites as the more average or typical face in a pair more often than chance (all \(p < 0.01\)), demonstrating that they could indeed detect averageness. Participants also chose composite faces and more often than they chose self-transforms (\(F_{1,76} = 8.0, p = 0.006\)).

Men and women selected both male and female self-transforms as more average than other participants did (main effect of resemblance: \(F_{1,76} = 19.8, p < 0.001\)). Face sex was not a statistically significant main effect (\(F_{1,76} = 2.92, p = 0.092\)), nor were there any significant main effects of participant sex or interactions among any of the main factors (all \(F_{1,76} < 2.0, p > 0.15\)).

Contrary to the results expected if people form male and female mental face prototypes and if resemblance to self affects only the perceived averageness or typicality of same-sex faces, there was no interaction among participant sex, face sex and resemblance (\(F_{1,76} = 1.97, p = 0.165\), Figure 2b). Inasmuch as perceived averageness or typicality is influenced by familiarity, these results show that resemblance to self affects the familiarity of same-sex faces no more than it affects other-sex faces.

4. DISCUSSION

Experimentally manipulated facial resemblance to self influences the perceived attractiveness of faces. Although same-sex and other-sex self-resembling transforms were produced by identical image manipulation techniques, attractiveness was enhanced for same-sex faces to a much greater extent than for other-sex faces. This result supports the hypothesis that facial resemblance is a cue of kinship to which humans respond differently in social and mating contexts and is consistent with the suggestion by Hauber and Sherman (2001) that highly social species are likely to have separate functional neural mechanisms to deal with these different contexts. Same-sex faces elicit judgments of non-sexual positive regard, which cues of kinship should increase, while other-sex faces elicit judgments of sexual or romantic appeal to the judge, which cues of kinship should decrease. This could explain why other-sex self-resembling faces are not judged as aversive, since attractiveness judgments of other-sex faces may reflect a combination of prosocial regard and sexual appeal. This assertion would be further strengthened by evidence that resemblance of other-sex faces to self elicits positive responses in an explicitly non-sexual context, but negative responses in an explicitly sexual context.

Experiment 2 determined whether the existence of separate male and female mental face prototypes can explain the same-sex bias in enhancement of attraction due to resemblance. A strong prediction of the two-prototype hypothesis is that familiarity with one’s own face will only affect the same-sex prototype. The results of Experiment 2 clearly demonstrated that this is not the case, since resemblance to self increased the perceived averageness of same-sex faces.
no more than other-sex faces, supporting the singlePrototype hypothesis. Moreover, this result provided evidence that the resemblance of other-sex faces to the participants from which they were made was sufficient to cause an effect equal to that for same-sex faces on perceptions other than attractiveness. While familiarity, at some level, must be driving the increased attractiveness of self-transforms, it cannot account for the differential effects of resemblance on same-sex and other-sex faces.

Although it is unlikely that our human ancestors would have experienced their own faces to the same extent that we now see ourselves in mirrors and photographs, resemblance to self may evoke kin-recognition mechanisms only to the extent that a person resembles family members (e.g. Penn & Potts, 1998). Alternatively, experience with one’s own face may contribute to the development of a self or family template. The extent to which my findings can be attributed to matching to one’s own phenotype versus matching to a template based on experience with family members was not addressed in this study. Further experiments comparing responses to self-resemblance between adopted and non-adopted people could elucidate these possibilities.

The present study has established that the attractiveness of faces is influenced by self-resemblance. This effect could contribute to stable individual differences in perceptions of attractiveness and may explain the increase in trust towards self-resembling same-sex faces found by DeBruine (2002). The greater enhancement of attractiveness due to self-resemblance for same-sex faces compared to other-sex faces reported in the present study cannot be explained as a functionless byproduct of general face-processing mechanisms, but may be a product of specific adaptations for kin recognition that are sensitive to cues of the costs and benefits of self-resemblance for same-sex faces compared to other-sex faces.

References


