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1 **Women's pathogen disgust predicting preference for facial masculinity may be specific to age**
2 **and study design.**

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16 genes; forced-choice

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Abstract

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Facial masculinity in men is thought to be an indicator of good health. Consistent with this idea, previous research has found a positive association between pathogen avoidance (disgust sensitivity) and preference for facial masculinity. However, previous studies are mostly based on young adult participants and targets, using forced-choice preference measures; this begs the question whether the findings generalise to other adult age groups or other preference measures. We address this by conducting three studies assessing facial masculinity preferences of women of a wider age range rating target face of a wider age range. In Studies 1 and 2, 447 and 433 women respectively made forced choices between two identical faces that were manipulated on masculinity/femininity. In Study 1, face stimuli were manipulated on sexual dimorphism using age-matched templates, while in Study 2 young face stimuli were manipulated with older templates and older face stimuli were manipulated using young templates. In the full sample for Study 1, no association was found between women’s pathogen disgust and masculinity preference, but when limiting the sample to younger women rating younger faces we replicated previous findings of significant association between pathogen disgust and preference for facial masculinity. Results for Study 2 found no effect of pathogen disgust sensitivity on facial masculinity preferences regardless of participant and stimuli age. In Study 3, the facial masculinity preferences of 386 women were revealed through their attractiveness ratings of natural (unmanipulated) faces. Here, we did not find a significant association of pathogen disgust on facial masculinity preferences, regardless of participant and stimuli age. These results call into question the robustness of the link between women’s pathogen avoidance and facial masculinity preference, and raise questions as to why the effect is specific to younger adults and the forced-choice preference measure.

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Recent research has identified a link between women's pathogen avoidance and stronger preference for facial masculinity in a mate. For instance, DeBruine, Jones, Tybur, Lieberman and Griskevicius (2010) conducted two studies investigating the link between women's pathogen disgust and their preference for facial masculinity. In Study 1, 345 women were shown 20 pairs of the same face; one had been manipulated to be more masculine and the other more feminine. This study utilised a forced-choice preference measure where participants were asked which face they found more attractive. Results were that women higher in pathogen disgust (but not sexual or moral disgust) were more likely to choose the masculinised face as more attractive. In Study 2, 74 women were given a choice between two unmanipulated faces that had been pre-chosen based on rated facial masculinity/femininity. Again, it was found that women with high pathogen disgust were more likely to choose the masculine face. This effect appears to persist across several levels of analysis, not only across individuals with differences in pathogen disgust predicting masculinity preference (DeBruine, Jones, Tybur, Lieberman, & Griskevicius, 2010; Jones, Fincher, Little, & DeBruine, 2013), but also across countries with different levels of national health predicting mean levels of masculinity preference for that nation (DeBruine, Jones, Crawford, Welling, & Little, 2010; Penton-Voak, Jacobson, & Trivers, 2004), and in response to pathogen cues (Lee & Zietsch, 2011; Little, DeBruine, & Jones, 2011).

The prominent theory behind these findings is that male facial masculinity is an indicator of good health and that women high in pathogen avoidance are therefore more likely to prefer a facially masculine partner. According to this theory, testosterone is an immunosuppressant and is also required in high levels to develop masculine facial features; as such, only males with good immune functioning are able to support the high levels of testosterone necessary to develop a masculine face. In this way, facial masculinity in men is thought to serve as an honest indicator of good health (Folstad & Karter, 1992; Zahavi, 1975). Consistent with this theory, facial masculinity

68 has been found to be associated with objective (Gangestad, Merriman, & Thompson, 2010; Rantala
69 et al., 2012; Rhodes, Chan, Zebrowitz, & Simmons, 2003; Thornhill & Gangestad, 2006) and
70 perceived health (Rhodes et al., 2003; Scott, Swami, Josephson, & Penton-Voak, 2008). However,
71 the underlying mechanism for this preference is unclear. Facial masculinity in men may represent
72 heritable genetic quality that improves offspring's fitness; however, this 'good genes' theory has
73 recently been questioned (Scott, Clark, Boothroyd, & Penton-Voak, 2013), and recent evidence
74 suggests that the genes increasing male facial masculinity are detrimental to female attractiveness,
75 reinforcing doubt regarding the link between masculinity and good genes (Lee et al., 2014).
76 Alternatively, indicators of good health may instead be preferred for more direct benefits (Scott et
77 al., 2013; Tybur & Gangestad, 2011). For instance, men with cues to good health may be less likely
78 to succumb to sickness themselves, reducing potential disease transmission to the choosing female.
79 Also, one's ability to acquire resources is hampered while ill, and additional effort/resources are
80 required to nurse a sick individual back to health. We note that it is also possible that facial
81 masculinity may not represent past or current immunocompetence, but may still be associated with
82 good genes or other direct benefits (e.g., facial masculinity may be associated with ability to
83 physically compete intrasexually; (Puts, 2010). However, theory describing the association between
84 pathogen avoidance and masculinity preference relies on facial masculinity being (or once being)
85 associated with some health benefit (either directly or indirectly).

86 Despite several studies finding a link between women's pathogen avoidance and their
87 preference for facial masculinity, the research has some limitations. First, studies supporting this
88 association solely rely on a forced-choice task (i.e., participants are required to choose between two
89 targets that differ on the trait of interest which is more attractive; (DeBruine, Jones, Crawford, et al.,
90 2010; DeBruine, Jones, Tybur, et al., 2010; Jones et al., 2013; Little et al., 2011; Penton-Voak et al.,
91 2004). Lee et al. (2013), which used a ratings paradigm, found no association between women's
92 pathogen disgust and revealed preference for facial masculinity when 422 women rated realistic

93 dating profiles. This could suggest that the influence of facial masculinity may be limited to the
94 forced-choice study design.

95 Second, research in this area has also focused on young adults and often neglects older
96 individuals. To illustrate this, the range of mean participant age of studies investigating the link
97 between pathogen avoidance and preference for masculinity is 18.6 to 25.3 years (DeBruine, Jones,
98 Crawford, et al., 2010; DeBruine, Jones, Tybur, et al., 2010; Jones et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2013; Lee
99 & Zietsch, 2011; Little et al., 2011; Penton-Voak et al., 2004). Also, when reported, the age of
100 facial stimuli used to assess masculinity preference is of young adults. Research investigating the
101 link between health and facial masculinity has also been limited to participants in early adulthood or
102 late adolescence (Gangestad et al., 2010; Rantala et al., 2012; Rhodes et al., 2003; Thornhill &
103 Gangestad, 2006). Such an overrepresentation of young adults is problematic for several reasons:
104 First, it is unclear if facial masculinity remains a cue to health in older men even though facial
105 masculinisation, and hence the purported link with immunocompetence, occurs primarily during
106 adolescence. Although evidence for a link between facial masculinity and health has been drawn
107 only from samples of younger men, it has been implicitly assumed that facial masculinity indicates
108 good health in male faces in general. If this were the case, we would expect that women's pathogen
109 disgust should predict preference for facial masculinity regardless of age of the male. Second,
110 restricting assessment of masculinity preferences to samples of young adults might obscure
111 important evidence regarding the underlying mechanism for preferring facial masculinity. Young
112 adults differ in motivations and priorities in mate preference compared to older individuals; for
113 example, younger women within the reproductive age range may place greater importance on
114 genetic quality compared to older women (Little et al., 2010). Therefore, we may expect a different
115 pattern of results when testing different age groups, which in turn has implications for
116 understanding the underlying mechanisms for preferring facial masculinity.

117 To address these limitations, we conducted three studies investigating the association
118 between women's pathogen disgust and their preference for facial masculinity. In all three studies

119 we include a much wider age of participants and target faces than has been included in previous
120 studies. Study 1 and 2 used a force-choice design with target faces manipulated on sexual
121 dimorphism. Study 1 manipulated sexual dimorphism using morphological differences between
122 male and female faces that matched the age of the stimuli, while in Study 2 younger stimuli were
123 manipulated on sexual dimorphism based on differences between older faces and older stimuli were
124 manipulated based on differences between younger faces. Study 3 revealed preference for facial
125 masculinity through attractiveness ratings (as oppose to using a forced-choice design) in natural
126 (unmanipulated) faces.

127

128 STUDY 1

129

130 In Study 1, we expand upon the first study presented in DeBruine et al. (2010). Here we assessed
131 the association between the women's pathogen disgust on preference for facial masculinity in
132 manipulated faces using a forced-choice paradigm with a wider range of ages for both participants
133 and targets.

134

135 Method

136

137 *Participants*

138 A total of 478 women were recruited from <https://www.MTurk.com>, an online crowd-
139 sourcing website in return for online credit. Participation was conditional on being female,
140 heterosexual and residing in the United States. Participants missing data on any variable ($N = 12$),
141 or who fell outside the selection criteria ($N = 19$) were removed from analysis; reducing the sample
142 size to 447 ($N = 36.79$ years, $SD = 10.52$, age range = 20-66 years).

143 *Stimuli*

144 Participants first completed a task measuring their preference for facial masculinity.
145 Participants were randomly assigned to rate either the young or middle-aged male faces with neutral
146 expressions from the FACES database (Ebner, Riediger, & Lindenberger, 2010). The young stimuli
147 (aged between 19-31 years) set contained 27 faces, while the middle-aged (aged between 29-55) set
148 contained 24 faces. Preference for facial masculinity was measured using a forced-choice task
149 where participants were presented with two images of the same face side-by-side: one had been
150 manipulated to be more masculine while the other more feminine. Participants were asked to rate
151 which face they found more attractive on an 8-point scale (1 = *Left is much more attractive*; 8 =
152 *Right is much more attractive*).

153 The masculinity/femininity of each photo was manipulated by morphing each individual
154 face with a masculine or feminine template (similar to that used in Lee et al., 2013). To create the
155 template faces, separate average faces for each sex and age group were made from 25 male and 25
156 female faces. Seventy facial landmarks were then manually placed on symmetrised versions of each
157 averaged face, and the linear differences between facial landmarks for males and females within the
158 same age group were calculated. These differences were then extended past the average face by
159 200% to produce a hyper-masculine/feminine template for each age group. To produce the
160 masculinised face, each individual was morphed by 50% with the hyper-masculine template, while
161 morphing each face by 50% with the hyper-feminised template produced the feminised image. This
162 effectively manipulated face shape and colour along the dimension of objectively defined sexual
163 dimorphism. All manipulation of images was conducted in the Fantamorph 5 software package. See
164 Figure 1 for example stimuli. The order in which face pairs were presented and the location of the
165 masculinised face in each pair (left or right) was randomised for each participant.

166

167

- FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE -

168

169 *Measures*

170 *Pathogen disgust.* The Three-Domain Disgust Scale (Tybur, Lieberman, & Griskevicius,
171 2009) contains 21 items measuring disgust across three factors, being moral, sexual, and pathogen
172 disgust. While all three subscales were administered, here we focus on the pathogen disgust
173 subscale (seven items), which refers to aversion to pathogen contagions that could threaten one's
174 health. Participants rated their level of disgust on a 7-point scale (0 = *Not at all disgusting*; 6 =
175 *Extremely disgusting*) on statements such as "Accidentally touching a person's bloody cut." The
176 Three Domain Disgust Scale was administered as part of a larger set of questionnaires aimed at
177 assessing preference for facial masculinity across a wide age group. Additional measures not focal
178 to the hypothesis included measures of sociosexual orientation, participants' own
179 masculinity/femininity, and information on contraception use and menstrual cycle.

180 *Analysis*

181 Each participant rated the total number of faces in either the young (27 faces) or old (24
182 faces) stimuli condition; this resulted in 11,332 observations. These data are hierarchical, such that
183 each face pair rated by each participant (Level 1) are nested in the participant themselves (Level 2).
184 As such, we analysed the data using multilevel package in the R software package (for an
185 explanation of this technique and its advantages over other approaches to analysing hierarchical
186 data, see (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). In the model, the outcome variable was the rated preference
187 for the masculinised face compared to the feminised face for each face pair. At Level 2, pathogen
188 disgust and participants' age was entered as continuous predictors with stimuli age as a
189 dichotomous variable (0 = young stimuli; 1 = middle-aged stimuli). All interaction terms between
190 Level 2 predictors were also included. To aid interpretation, all continuous variables were
191 standardised before being entered into the model. See the Supplementary Material for additional
192 detail on the analyses conducted.

193

194

Results

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196 The intra-class correlation (i.e., the proportion of the total variance that is between-rater
197 variance) for masculinity preferences was .37. For full information on the random effects from the
198 HLM analysis, see the Supplementary Materials. Participants reported whether they used hormonal
199 contraception (“Do you currently use hormonal contraception, such as birth control pills, a
200 contraceptive injection, or a contraceptive implant?”) as well as their menopause status (“Have you
201 gone through menopause?”). While we found a significant difference in age between women that
202 used and did not use hormonal contraception ($t(469) = 7.17, p < .001$), and menopause status
203 ($t(468) = -17.82, p < .001$), the pattern of results did not differ in models controlling for these
204 variables. Therefore, we only report the original analyses here.

205 The fixed effects from the HLM analysis are reported in Table 1. Despite the masculine face
206 being randomly presented on either the right or left side, participants showed a preference for faces
207 on the right; therefore, we included presentation side as a Level 1 predictor to control for this (0 =
208 Masculine face presented on the left; 1 = Masculine face presented on the right). The only other
209 significant predictor was stimuli age group, such that preference for facial masculinity increased
210 when participants were rating the older stimuli set. Contrary to previous findings, there was no
211 significant positive association between pathogen disgust and preference for facial masculinity. No
212 interaction terms between predictors were significant.

213

214

- TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE -

215

216 Previous findings that women more sensitive to pathogen disgust prefer more masculine
217 faces were derived from samples of only young women rating young stimuli. As a comparable
218 analysis, we reran the above while only including young participants (<35 years old) who rated the
219 young stimuli set ($N = 92$); we found a significant positive effect of pathogen disgust on preference
220 for facial masculinity (Table 2). This may suggest that the influence of women’s pathogen disgust
221 on facial masculinity preferences in the forced choice design is limited to young people rating

222 young stimuli. While we only report results from pathogen disgust here, we note that we did not
223 find the same pattern of results with moral or sexual disgust.

224

225 - TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE -

226

227 STUDY 2

228

229 In Study 1, we manipulated facial sexual dimorphism using templates that matched the age
230 of the individuals in the stimuli. Given that there may be morphological differences between
231 younger male and female faces compared to older male and female faces, an alternative
232 interpretation may be that the effect of pathogen disgust on masculinity preferences may be specific
233 to the morphological differences between younger male and female faces rather than the age of
234 participants. We test this alternative in Study 2, which is identical to Study 1 except that older faces
235 were manipulated using templates derived from younger faces, while younger stimuli were
236 manipulated using templates derived from older faces.

237

238 Method

239

240 *Participants*

241 A total of 433 women were recruited from <https://www.MTurk.com> in return for online
242 credit. Identical to Study 1, participation was conditional on being female, heterosexual and
243 residing in the United States. Participants missing data on any variable ($N = 22$), or who fell outside
244 the selection criteria ($N = 16$) were removed from analysis; reducing the sample size to 395 ($N =$
245 38.55 years, $SD = 12.67$, age range = 18-75 years).

246 *Stimuli*

247 The faces and method of manipulating facial sexual dimorphism was identical to Study 1,
248 except for the templates used to manipulate sexual dimorphism of the young and older stimuli.
249 While we used age-matched templates to manipulate facial masculinity/femininity in Study 1, here
250 we used the older templates to manipulate the younger faces, and the younger template to
251 manipulate the older faces.

252 *Procedure*

253 The procedure for Study 2 was identical to Study 1.

254 *Analysis*

255 Each participant rated the total number of faces in either the young (27 faces) or old (24
256 faces) stimuli condition; this resulted in 10,093 observations. Analysis conducted was identical to
257 Study 1. See the Supplementary Material for additional details.

258

259

Results

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261 The intra-class correlation (i.e., the proportion of the total variance that is between-rater
262 variance) for masculinity preferences was .39, indicating there was significant variation in
263 preferences between participants. Similar to Study 1, we found a significant difference in age
264 between women that used and did not use hormonal contraception ($t(392) = 6.67, p < .001$), and
265 menopause status ($t(393) = -22.42, p < .001$). Also similar to Study 1, the pattern of results did not
266 differ in models controlling for these variables. Therefore, we only report the original analyses here.

267 The fixed effects from the HLM analysis are reported in Table 3. No significant effects of
268 participant or stimuli age, or pathogen disgust were found on masculinity preference, and there
269 were no significant interactions. This suggests that the null finding with older adults in Study 1 is
270 not due to a difference in morphology between older male and female faces and younger male and
271 female faces. It also suggests that the effects of pathogen disgust on young participants' preference

272 for facial masculinity may only exist for young faces when the sexual dimorphism manipulation is
273 also based on young faces.

274

275 - TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE -

276

277 STUDY 3

278

279 In Study 3, we use a different paradigm to test for the same associations between pathogen
280 disgust and preference for facial masculinity. Here, participants rated the attractiveness of
281 individually presented facial photos of males that naturally varied on facial masculinity and age in
282 two face sets. From these attractiveness ratings we were able to infer preference for facial
283 masculinity and test for any association with pathogen disgust.

284

285 Method

286

287 *Participants*

288 Participants were 486 females recruited from MTurk in return for online store credit.
289 Participants who did not identify as a heterosexual female ($N = 31$), were missing data on any
290 variable ($N = 60$), did not pass control questions that indicated paying attention to items ($N = 4$), or
291 fell outside the age range of 18-50 years ($N = 5$) were removed from analysis. This reduced the
292 sample to 386 ($M = 34.99$, $SD = 8.23$).

293 *Stimuli*

294 Participants rated faces from two stimuli sets for a total of 91 faces. The order in which
295 stimuli sets were presented and also the order of faces within each set was randomised. Participants
296 rated each face on attractiveness of a 100-point slide scale (0 = very unattractive; 100 = very
297 attractive).

298 *Face Set 1.* The first face set was the FACES database used in Study 1 (Ebner et al., 2010).
299 Precise ages of each target face were not provided, but instead were separated two age groups. As in
300 Study 1, there were 27 faces between the ages of 19 and 31 years, and 24 faces between the ages of
301 39 and 55 years (coded as 0 = younger group, 1 = older group). Online volunteers (17 males, 21
302 females, $M = 26.00$, $SD = 7.27$) pre-rated each face on facial masculinity.

303 *Face Set 2.* The second set contained 40 faces evenly ranging in age from 18 to 55 years
304 collected from an online database. Precise ages of the individuals when photographs were taken
305 were known for this set, so it was possible to include stimuli age as a continuous variable. These
306 faces were also pre-rated on facial masculinity by 54 online volunteers ($M = 23.69$, $SD = 9.21$).

307 *Measures*

308 After rating faces on attractiveness, participants completed the Three Domain Disgust Scale
309 as described in Study 1. No other measures were included in the survey.

310 *Analysis*

311 Similar to study 1, a Hierarchical Linear Model was used to analyse the data where each
312 face rated (Level 1) was nested in the participants themselves (Level 2). For Face Set 1, there were
313 15,440 observations, while there were 19,686 observations for Face Set 2. As with Study 1, we
314 analysed the data using Hierarchical Linear Modelling using the multilevel package in the R
315 software package. In the model, the outcome variable was the ratings of attractiveness. At Level 2,
316 participants' age and pathogen disgust were entered as predictors, while Level 1 predictors included
317 pre-rated facial masculinity and stimuli age. All interaction terms between predictors were also
318 included in analysis. To aid interpretation, all continuous variables were standardised before being
319 entered into the model. See the Supplementary Material for additional detail on the analyses
320 conducted.

321

322

Results

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324 We first analysed the two face sets separately; however, the pattern of results of both sets
325 was fairly similar, so we report here an analysis that combined both face sets (for the results of the
326 analyses where face sets were kept separate, see the Supplementary Materials). In order to combine
327 face sets, stimuli ages from Face Set 2 were dichotomised to as closely match Face Set 1 as possible
328 (0 = 18-35 years; 1 = 36-55 years). The intra-class correlation (i.e., the proportion of the total
329 variance that is between-rater variance) for attractiveness rating was .29. For full information on the
330 random effects from the HLM analysis for the combined face sets, see the Supplementary
331 Materials.

332 The fixed effects from the HLM analysis are reported in Table 4. We found main effects of
333 all predictors; overall, older participants and those with lower pathogen disgust gave higher
334 attractiveness ratings. Younger and more feminine stimuli also received higher attractiveness
335 ratings. Importantly, and contrary to previous work, we did not find an overall significant
336 interaction between pathogen disgust and facial masculinity on attractiveness ratings, and the
337 association was not significantly moderated by either participants' age or stimuli age. Also, contrary
338 to the results from Study 1, the relationship between pathogen disgust and preference for facial
339 masculinity remained non-significant when only looking at younger participants' (< 35 years old)
340 ratings of younger stimuli (< 35 years old). Thus, when not using the forced-choice paradigm, we
341 find no evidence for an association between pathogen disgust and preference for facial masculinity
342 regardless of the age of the participants or stimuli.

343 There were also three significant two-way interactions; as these are not pertinent to the main
344 hypotheses the nature of these interactions are only described briefly here. First, older participants
345 rated older faces significantly less negatively compared to younger participants. There was also a
346 significant interaction between stimuli age and facial masculinity, such that facial masculinity was
347 not associated with attractiveness in older faces, but was negatively associated with attractiveness in
348 younger faces. Finally, there was a significant interaction between participants' age and pathogen
349 disgust, such that younger participants with high pathogen disgust gave higher attractiveness ratings

350 compared to all older participants, or young participants with low pathogen disgust. This pattern of
351 results is specific to pathogen disgust, and not sexual or moral disgust.

352

353 - TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE -

354

355 Some evidence to suggested perceived masculinity from subjective ratings might measure a
356 different construct to objective structural masculinity (Scott, Pound, Stephen, Clark, & Penton-
357 Voak, 2010). To address this we ran an additional analysis using objectively derived facial
358 masculinity scores from landmark coordinates. Here, we found a significant positive correlation
359 between rated masculinity and objective masculinity in men ($r = .38, p < .001$). The pattern of
360 results for objective masculinity, pathogen disgust, participant age and stimuli age was the same
361 pattern found with rated masculinity reported above, which suggests that results are not specific to
362 subjectively rated masculinity. For full details of analyses conducted with objective facial
363 masculinity see the Supplementary Materials.

364

365 Discussion

366

367 Contrary to predictions based on previous research, we did not find an overall link between
368 women's pathogen disgust and preference for facial masculinity in any of the three studies.
369 Previous research that found a link between pathogen avoidance and masculinity preferences used
370 only young adult participants assessing young adult targets, and relied solely on the forced-choice
371 design. We replicated that specific effect in Study 1 when we only considered younger women who
372 rated younger male targets in the forced-choice design (as per previous studies in which the effect
373 was found), but despite large samples the association was not observed in older participants, or for
374 older stimuli, or in Study 2 when younger faces were manipulated using sexual dimorphism based
375 on older faces. Also, there were no significant effects of pathogen disgust for any participants or

376 stimuli when the forced-choice design was not used. Our results suggest that the association
377 between women's pathogen avoidance and preference for masculinity may be quite age- and
378 methodology-specific.

379 The results from Study 1 suggest that any association between pathogen disgust and
380 women's masculinity preference is age-dependent (though, given that we were unable to find such a
381 pattern in Study 2 and 3, any claim of an age-dependent link is tentative). If an age-dependent link
382 does exist, it implies that the inferences normally drawn from the link – i.e., that facial masculinity
383 indicates good health in men and that women have evolved mate preferences that are calibrated to
384 their degree of pathogen avoidance – may not apply to older adults. First, it needs to be established
385 whether masculinity is associated with health in older men as well as younger men. The studies
386 which found a link between male facial masculinity and health used young samples (Gangestad et
387 al., 2010; Rantala et al., 2012; Rhodes et al., 2003; Thornhill & Gangestad, 2006), though even then
388 the link is controversial as other studies have found null effects (Thornhill & Gangestad, 2006; van
389 Anders, 2010) or even negative association (Booth, Johnson, & Granger, 1999; Muehlenbein &
390 Bribiescas, 2005) – but future studies should endeavour to investigate older as well as younger men.

391 If any link between facial masculinity and health is age-dependent, one possible explanation
392 could be that, because testosterone-dependent masculinisation of face shape occurs primarily during
393 adolescence, facial masculinity best indicates immunocompetence during adolescence and the
394 period immediately following (young adulthood), whereas by later-adulthood the link has
395 deteriorated. This is supported by results from Study 2, where pathogen disgust did not influence
396 sexual dimorphism differences based on older faces, even with young participants rating young
397 stimuli. In later-adulthood, characteristics other than facial masculinity might better indicate current
398 health in men – this may include facial skin colour or texture, or facial symmetry, as these may be
399 traits more readily influenced by health perturbations faced in adulthood compared to facial sexual
400 dimorphism.

401 As for why older women might not show an effect, this could be because older women are
402 less likely to reproduce and so heritable immunocompetence is of less relevance (assuming facial
403 masculinity is associated with good genes). This explanation is congruent to findings that women's
404 facial preferences can differ according to reproductive capability, such as between childhood and
405 adolescence (Saxton, Caryl, & Roberts, 2006), or between pre-menopausal and post-menopausal
406 women (Jones, Vukovic, Little, Roberts, & DeBruine, 2011; Vukovic et al., 2009), and is consistent
407 with the finding that the association between women's pathogen avoidance is also specific to male
408 faces (Little et al., 2011). Alternatively, older women's preferences may be primarily calibrated for
409 choosing older male partners in whom the link between facial masculinity and health has
410 deteriorated, or perhaps the null effect is a side-effect of hormonal changes that occur during
411 women's later-adulthood. Changes to hormonal levels due to the menopause process can begin
412 around age 35 years (Al-Assawi & Palacios, 2009), and hormone status, which can be influenced by
413 contraception use or the menstrual cycle, has also been associated with changes in women's facial
414 masculinity preferences (Little, Burriss, Petrie, Jones, & Roberts, 2013; Welling et al., 2007).
415 However, the relationship between hormones and our findings is unclear, as while we found
416 significant associations between age, and hormonal contraception use and rate of menopause in
417 Study 1 and 2, controlling for these did not influence the pattern of results.

418 Results from Study 2 suggest that the age-dependent effect in Study 1 is not solely due to
419 different sexual dimorphism transforms being applied to older and younger face (i.e., the sexual
420 dimorphism templates used for the manipulation matched that of the age group). In addition, in
421 Study 1 we found no relationship of pathogen disgust on masculinity preference for older
422 participants rating the younger faces (which we would expect if the effect was based solely on the
423 younger manipulation; the effect with older participants rating younger faces in fact trends in the
424 opposite direction). Thus, these results may further suggest the sexual dimorphism between younger
425 faces and not between older faces may be a cue to health. Given that previous studies that have
426 purported a link between pathogen avoidance and masculinity preference often use a sexual

427 dimorphism transform based on young faces, this raises further issues if the effect cannot generalise
428 to other sexual dimorphism manipulations.

429 In addition, contrary to findings from forced-choice studies of young participants rating
430 young stimuli in previous papers and here in Study 1, we did not find any association between
431 pathogen disgust and revealed preference for facial masculinity in Study 3. Study 3 used a
432 standalone-rating design in which participants' preferences are inferred from their rating of each
433 standalone facial photo, rather than a forced choice between two photos. Studies that have found an
434 association of pathogen disgust with masculinity preference have exclusively used the forced-
435 choice design (DeBruine, Jones, Crawford, et al., 2010; DeBruine, Jones, Tybur, et al., 2010; Jones
436 et al., 2013; Little et al., 2011), while another study using a different paradigm failed to replicate the
437 association (Lee et al., 2013). This may suggest that the effect is specific to the forced-choice
438 design.

439 One possible explanation for this specificity is that the forced-choice design is more
440 sensitive at detecting a true association, and that associations tested via standalone attractiveness
441 ratings lacks sufficient power. This possibility is made less likely by the fact that studies using the
442 ratings paradigm have used unusually large sample sizes to compensate for this (studies using a
443 rating paradigm now have an average $N = 362$, compared to previous forced-choice studies that
444 have an average $N = 133$; (DeBruine, Jones, Tybur, et al., 2010; Jones et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2013;
445 Little et al., 2011; Penton-Voak et al., 2004) and that we would expect results to at least trend in the
446 predicted direction for Study 3 ($N = 386$), which they do not. Alternatively, the forced-choice
447 design may tap slightly different construct than the ratings paradigm — for example, a forced
448 choice between two adjacent faces seems more likely to be affected by conscious awareness of
449 differences in masculinity than standalone ratings of random faces. However, it should be noted that
450 previous research has found that masculinity preference measured by a forced-choice design is
451 associated with masculinity preference measured using other methods (DeBruine et al., 2006). We
452 also note that when we refer to the literature relying on the forced-choice paradigm, we are

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Figure Captions

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576 Figure 1. Feminised (left) and masculinised (right) faces of young (top) and middle-aged (bottom)
577 male targets.