Human body odour modulates neural processing of faces: effective connectivity analysis using EEG

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Abstract—Facial emotion processing by the brain plays a decisive role in human social interactions. This signal helps us interpret and predict people's behaviours. However, other social signals such as human voices or human body odours may facilitate or impair the identification of facial expressions. Here we studied the effects of emotional human body odours on face processing by measuring evoked neural responses and brain connectivity using the electroencephalogram (EEG). We used an emotion recognition task in which the participants attributed an emotion (i.e. happy vs fearful) to a presented face image while simultaneously exposed to emotional body odours. First, we measured face related potentials (FRP)s including P100 and N170 components. Statistical analyses revealed significant differences among FRPs recorded in different odour conditions. Second, we used a hierarchical Bayesian approach including a group dynamic causal model (DCM) followed by parametric empirical Bayes (PEB) to characterize the brain network explaining differences between FRPs. Our preliminary results suggested that different brain networks contribute to neutral face processing in the presence of different emotional body odours.

Index Terms—human body odour, social interaction, effective brain connectivity, dynamic causal model, parametric empirical Bayes.

I. INTRODUCTION

The brain processes information with a high degree of efficiency in order to perform the most accurate inference from the data it receives. This complex process involves various neural mechanisms that analyze, filter, and combine incoming information to produce the best possible conclusion. One interesting example is the way the brain processes emotions conveyed by facial expressions in the presence of human body odours. Previous research suggested that the perception of facial expression is influenced by body odours that are collected in various emotional contexts [1]–[4]. In spite of this existing literature on the behavioural effects of body odours on face processing, its underlying neural mechanism is not understood.

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In a recent study, Callara *et al.* [5] investigated the effects of happy and fearful body odours on neutral face processing. They used EEG to measure the modulation of neural responses in the context of emotional body odours. Estimated face related potentials indicated a significant increase in the amplitude of the late positive potential (LPP) in the central-left brain area. They also measured behavioural responses to investigate the level of valence and arousal induced by body odours. However, statistical analysis did not reveal significant changes in the behavioural responses collected. In other research, Rekow *et al.* [6], [7] performed an EEG study to explore the effects of body odours on visual categorisation. The measured EEG spectrum showed that body odour facilitated categorising ambiguous face-like objects as real faces. In addition, their findings revealed a significant effect of body odour on the amplitude of the EEG spectrum during visual processing and on the right hemisphere. Body odour assistance for face categorization has also been investigated by Leleu *et al.* [8]. The main focus of their research was to explore if maternal body odour can help infants for successful face categorization. In this study, maternal body odours were collected from the t-shirts of infants' mothers under controlled conditions. Leleu *et al.* [8] measured brain responses by averaging the power of EEG signals acquired during maternal and control odour conditions. Comparing the estimated powers indicated a significant increase in the amplitude of the EEG spectrum when using maternal body odours. The enhancement of neural responses was observed over the right occipito-temporal cortex. It is important to note that Rekow *et al.* [6], [7] and Leleu *et al.* [8] both relied on ambiguous visual signals being processed by the brain. This was examined by using face-like pictures and recruiting immature face processing systems in young infants in [6], [7] and [8] respectively. There is little EEG research in this area, and the existing literature suffers from a lack of brain connectivity analysis to identify the neural circuit modulated by body odours. Connectivity analysis could be particularly important when multiple sensory inputs must be combined. For example in the present study visual stimuli are blurred making the fusion of visual and olfactory cues important.

Here, we addressed this issue by performing connectivity analysis on an EEG data set to study how emotional body odours modulate neutral face processing in the brain. In light of previous findings, it was expected that the central-left brain area and the right occipito-temporal cortex play a dominant connectivity role. We proposed a data analysis pipeline based

on dynamic causal modeling (DCM) and parametric empirical Bayes (PEB) for measuring effective connectivity in the level of hidden neural states [9], [10].

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Data acquisition

Data from 30 healthy subjects were recorded using 32 EEG electrodes at a sample rate of $500\,\mathrm{Hz}$. All the participants had normal olfaction and normal or corrected-to-normal vision. In addition, they provided signed informed consent before undertaking the experiment. The acquisition was performed by the 32-channel EEG system LiveAmp (Brain Vision Inc.) at the Polytechnic University of Valencia (UPV). The study received approval from the scientific committee of the UPV ($P2\_18\_06\_19$).

B. Experimental protocol

In this study, an experimental protocol was designed using olfactory and visual stimuli to investigate the influence of body odours on facial emotion attribution. The olfactory stimuli consisted of clean air and body odours. The body odours were collected from a number of donors when they experienced neutral, happy and fearful emotions [11]. For brevity, we call these four conditions *clean air*, *neutral*, *happy* and *fearful* body odours, respectively. An experimental paradigm included four blocks of odours in which participants were exposed to clean air and body odours were used. The block with clean air was used as the baseline or control and the blocks of body odours were used as experimental conditions. The visual stimuli consisted of 40 face images (21 men, 19 women) expressing neutral emotion [12]. In order to enhance the effects of olfactory factors on decision-making, low-contrast face images were used in this study. The contrast of face images was progressively increased (see Fig. 1(b)) at a rate determined empirically when designing the experiment and kept fixed throughout the data collection. condition. In each block of odour presentation, 10 neutral face images were presented and the subjects were requested to decide whether the given face was happy or fearful by pressing two keys on the keyboard. Subjects had permission to submit their response immediately after receiving the visual stimuli and as soon as they were able to attribute emotion to the presented face. The screen was cleared when the subject answered and then after one second the next face image was presented on the screen. Fig. 1(a) shows a schematic illustration of the olfactory blocks used in our study. Each block included 10 trials and in each trial, one neutral face image was shown to the subject. The order of images was randomised across the blocks and the order of olfactory blocks was also randomised across subjects. Fig. 1(b) shows two sample trials of the paradigm.

C. Data Analyses

1) Preprocessing: All the preprocessing stages were performed using the scripts implemented by MATLAB and EEGLAB toolbox [13]. In the first stage of preprocessing, the acquired EEG signals were down-sampled to $128\,\mathrm{Hz}$. Then a
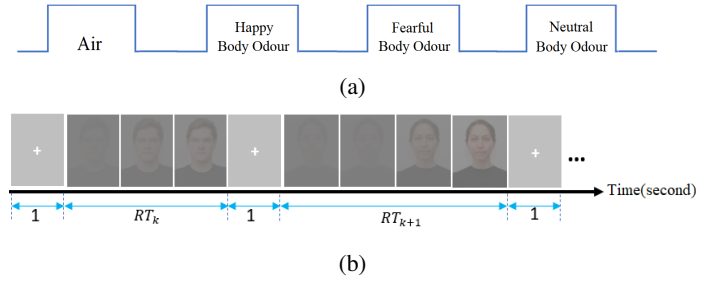

(a)

(b)

Fig. 1: A schematic illustration of the experimental design. (a) The experimental design consisted of one control (i.e air) and three experimental conditions (i.e. happy, fearful and neutral body odours) each including 10 trials. (b) Two sample trials of the experiment. RT in the figure denotes the response time.

band-pass filter with cut-off frequencies at $0.1\,\mathrm{Hz}$ and $40\,\mathrm{Hz}$ was used for noise removal. The reason for selecting such a wide frequency band was to avoid losing EEG information as much as possible. In the third stage of preprocessing, non-EEG channels such as electrooculogram (EOG), flat-line channels, low-frequency drifts and short-time bursts were removed from the data. Then, the remaining channels were interpolated to retrieve the channels removed in the previous stage. Interpolation recovers the spatial resolution of EEG to the initial resolution that data was recorded. After interpolation, common average referencing was used to re-reference the EEG signals. Then, the trial epochs were calculated by segmenting data from $-1\,\mathrm{s}$ to $2\,\mathrm{s}$ around the face stimulus onsets. Then we performed a visual inspection to remove the epochs contaminated by abrupt artifacts. In the last stage, independent component analysis (ICA) was used to remove residual noise components such as eye blinks, eye movements and muscle movements. The ICA algorithm used in this study was infomax which is available in EEGlab [14]

2) Face Related Potentials: We estimated face related potentials associated with experimental and control conditions by averaging clean EEG epochs across all subjects. The computed FRPs represent the brain responses to face stimuli in different olfactory conditions. To measure the modulation of FRPs by odours, we focused on evaluating the FRPs differences in both scalp and neural spaces. The modulation of the scalp data was investigated by comparing FRPs measured in the experimental (i.e. emotional body odour) and control (i.e. clean air) conditions using ANOVA. The threshold value was $p = 0.05$ and the results were corrected for multiple comparisons using a false discovery rate (FDR). The modulation of brain responses in neural space was investigated by measuring brain connectivity underlying the observed FRPs. To this aim, the contrast between FRPs associated with emotional body odours and clean air was used to characterise the parameters of the brain network underlying each condition. Using the contrast of ERPs measured in experimental and control conditions led to reducing the effects of the face images while boosting the effects of body odours on brain connectivity.

3) Brain Connectivity: We used the statistical parametric mapping (SPM) toolbox to conduct brain connectivity analyses [15]. In particular, we focused on measuring effective connectivity among brain regions. Effective connectivity infers directed causal influences among neural populations [16]. In this context, experiment factors may modulate one neural population's causal effect on another. Here, we used a hierar-cherved data. The parameters ofical Bayesian approach based on DCM and PEB to characterise effective connectivity [10], [17]. The dynamic causal model is the most popular framework proposed to explore effective connectivity [9]. DCM employs a set of differential equations to explain the cognitive process in the brain that produce the observed signals. The parameters of the differential equations represent either the strength of connections among brain sources or the strength of connections' modulations resulting from experimental conditions. In DCM analysis, a forward model is needed to project the activities of the hidden neural populations to the scalp. Here, we used the ERP neural-mass model [18] that has been implemented in SPM12. The coordinate of the brain sources in MNI space and the prior value of the connectivity parameters should be specified for DCM first. Then DCM uses the Bayesian technique to estimate the posteriors. In this study, we specified five brain areas as the network's nodes that were detected through the group source inversion approach proposed by Litvak and Friston [19]. Group source inversion is a constrained source localisation technique assuming all subjects rely on the same source priors. The brain regions identified by group source inversion and their corresponding MNI coordinates are:

- superior occipital (O): 14,-96,20
- superior parietal (P): 28,-50,64
- superior temporal (T): 54,0,-14
- superior motor (M): 14,18,56
- inferior frontal (F): 48,36,8

The above brain regions have been reported by the relevant research as the areas underlying visual/olfactory processing or decision-making tasks [20]–[22]. A fully connected DCM was generated using the above regions as the prior model of brain connectivity. We assumed all the connections could be modulated by two factors (i.e. face and odour). Since we are interested in investigating the effects of olfactory stimuli on face processing, the face image stimulus was considered as the driving input in our analysis. Fig. 2 shows a schematic illustration of the model specified according to the above assumptions as a prior for brain connectivity investigation.

We proposed a hierarchical Bayesian approach including two levels for measuring the posterior of the specified model. Fig. 3 shows the block diagram of the hierarchical brain connectivity analysis used in this study. In the first level of the hierarchy, a group of DCMs was created for each experimental condition. Each member of the group DCM represents the brain connectivity of one subject. Then, the parameters of the models associated with a specific experimental condition were estimated using the contrast between observed FRPs in that
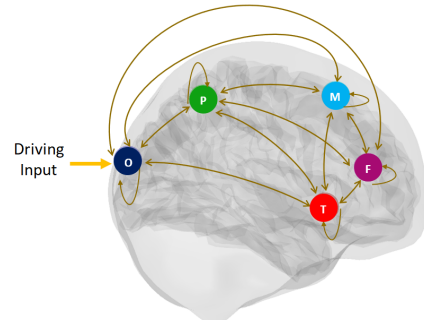

Fig. 2: The model specified as a prior to investigate effective connectivity among regions of interest during face and body odour processing. O, P, T, M, F refer to superior occipital, superior parietal, superior temporal, superior motor and inferior frontal respectively.

condition and the control condition. Equation (1) shows the mathematical representation of the analysis performed in the first level [9]:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\mathbf{z}} &= f(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{U}, \theta^{(\mathbf{1})}) \\
\mathbf{Y}_i &= \Gamma_i(\mathbf{z}, \theta_i^{(1)}) + \mathbf{W}_1 \lambda_i + \epsilon_i^{(1)}.
\end{aligned}
\tag{1}
$$

The first line of (1) explains the variation of neural activity in the brain regions $\dot{\mathbf{z}}$ as a function of neural activity of brain areas involved in the network $\mathbf{z}$, inputs (i.e stimuli) $\mathbf{U}$ and network's parameters $\theta^{(1)}$. In the second line, $\mathbf{Y}_i$ represents the data observed from subject i, $\Gamma_i(\mathbf{z}, \theta_i^{(1)})$ indicates the first level DCM trying to interpret observed data using parameters $\theta_i^{(1)}$ and neural activity in the brain regions $\mathbf{z}$, $\mathbf{W}_1 \lambda_i$ models uninteresting components and $\epsilon_i^{(1)}$ denotes the residual noises obtained in the first level of the analysis. We generated three groups of DCMs (i.e. the colourful blocks in Fig.3) associated with three experimental conditions to study how emotional human body odours modulate face processing in the brain. The fully connected model proposed in 2 was used as prior and contrast of ERPs observed in experimental and control conditions were used as observations. In the 1st level of connectivity analysis, the posterior values of the parameters
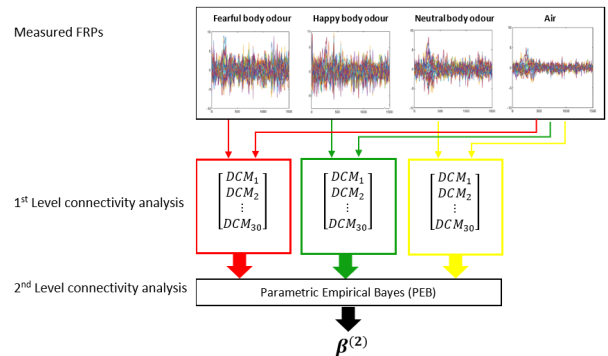

Fig. 3: Block diagram of brain connectivity analysis.

were estimated using the priors, observed data and Variational Laplace [23].

In the second level of the hierarchy, we performed Parametric Empirical Bayes (PEB) to estimate the average and the main effects of conditions [10]. Equation (2) explains the theory behind PEB enabling us to investigate our hypotheses about brain connectivity [17]:

$$
\begin{bmatrix} \theta_{11} \\ \theta_{21} \\ \vdots \\ \theta_{n1} \\ \vdots \\ \theta_{1m} \\ \theta_{2m} \\ \vdots \\ \theta_{nm} \end{bmatrix}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 & \mathbf{x}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{x}_k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_k \end{bmatrix}^{(2)} + \epsilon^{(2)} \quad (2)
$$

In (2), $\theta^{(1)}$ is a matrix where each row represents the parameters estimated for each subject and each experimental condition in level one. For example, θ_{2m} is a row vector that refers to the parameters estimated for the subject 2 who participated in condition m. In PEB, these parameters can be modelled by General Linear Model (GLM) using a design matrix $\mathbf{X}$. Columns of the design matrix encode the hypotheses of interest such as the mean effect of one specific factor or group differences across conditions. In (2), $\beta^{(2)}$ is a matrix whose rows represent the second-level parameters. Each row of $\beta^{(2)}$ is associated with one column of $\mathbf{X}$. For example, β_2 includes parameters explaining the hypothesis encoded by $\mathbf{x}_2$. Finally, $\epsilon^{(2)}$ represents the additive noise.

We investigated the average and the main effects of body odours on brain connectivity by generating a design matrix including four columns. The first column of the design matrix (i.e. $\mathbf{x}_1$) was a column of ones and encoded the mean effect of all conditions. The corresponding parameter can be interpreted as the overall effects of neutral face and body odours on brain connectivity. We used a combination of zeros and ones to encode the additive effects of emotional human body odours when the brain is involved in neutral face processing. Fig. 4 shows the schematic illustration of the design matrix utilised in our study. Since we were interested in the modulatory effects of the experimental conditions, $\theta^{(1)}$ in (2) included only the parameters representing modulation in the first level DCMs. Having the parameters estimated in the first level $\theta^{(1)}$ and the specified design matrix $\mathbf{X}$, the second level parameters $\theta^{(2)}$ can be calculated using (2). We inspected the quality of the model inversion (i.e. parameter estimation) by evaluating the free energy of the models in the first and second levels [23], [24]. Parameter estimation in the second level was then followed by the Bayesian model comparison (BMC) and the Bayesian model reduction (BMR). This stage led to identifying the parameters offering the most accurate and less complex interpretation of observed data [24], [25]. In the next section, the results obtained by our study are presented.

III. RESULTS

A. Face related potentials

Fig. 5 represents the average power of brain potentials evoked by face stimuli over the scalp in each olfactory condition. The results revealed that the amplitude of brain responses was dominant in the frontal and occipital EEG electrodes. It is also observed that the fearful body odour increased the amplitude of brain responses. Fig. 6 shows the FRP waveforms measured by P3, P4 and FC6 in three experimental and their complementary control conditions. The measured FRPs included P100, N170 and P300. We conducted ANOVA to inspect the influence of emotional body odours on the FRP components. We used ($p_{value} = 0.05$) and FDR correction for multiple comparisons. The statistical analysis revealed some significant differences between the FRPs measured during experimental conditions (i.e. emotional human body dour) and control conditions (i.e. clean air). Time intervals with significant differences are shown by grey colour in Fig. 6. Inspecting the results indicated that significant differences among the measured FRPs happened in different time intervals across the scalp.

B. Brain connectivity

The results presented in this section explain the underlying brain process producing the observed FRPs. Fig. 7 shows the brain networks involved in each experimental condition. Fig. 7 represents only the connections that were modulated by the experimental factors. The numerical value of the networks' parameters, estimated by PEB, is written on each brain connection and indicates the strength of connectivity modulation due to applying specific experimental condition. Positive and negative values represent excitation and inhibition respectively. Fig. 7(a) provides a schematic illustration of the parameters corresponding to the first column of the design matrix. The main objective of this column was to encode the average modulation effects of all the factors on effective connectivity. The average effects of all factors can be interpreted as the baseline of connectivity. Fig. 7(b-d) explains the main effect
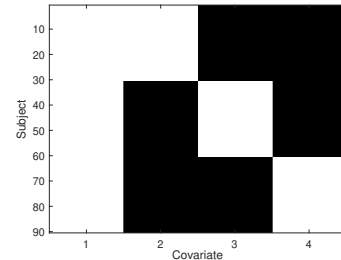

Fig. 4: Between subjects design matrix including 4 covariates. Rows 1-30, 31-60 and 61-90 are associated with the group DCMs estimated for happy, fearful and neutral body odours respectively. Columns one to four encode the i) average effect of all odours and the main effects of ii) happy iii) fearful, and iv)neutral body odours respectively.

of each emotional body odour on brain connectivity. The parameters of the networks shown by Fig. 7(b-d) are associated with columns $2-4$ of the design matrix. These columns encode the main effects of each body odour on brain connections. As seen in Fig. 7(a), common effects of all factors led to modulating 10 brain connections. Fig. 7(b-d), shows the connectivity pathway that was modulated by happy, fearful and neutral body odours. Comparing Figs. 7(a-d) indicated that applying happy and fearful body odours modulated more brain connections compared to neutral body odour. In addition, the strength of modulation by happy and fearful body odour conditions was significantly higher than neutral body odour. According to the Figs. 7(b-c), fearful and happy body odours modulated the superior motor cortex significantly. This can be supposed as the influencing effect of the emotional body odours trying to tempt the subject to attribute the emotion to the presented face through pressing the button. In addition, the obtained results revealed that the connection between the superior parietal and inferior frontal was modulated by all three body odours. Comparing the parameter values measured for this connection show that the strength of modulation in fearful and happy body odour conditions was remarkably stronger than in neutral body odour condition.

IV. DISCUSSION

In this preliminary study, we investigated the effects of emotional body odours on the neural processing of neutral face images. In our study, EEG was used to measure the brain responses evoked by face processing when subjects were exposed to different odours. Measuring FRPs revealed face related components such as $P100$ and $N170$. The obtained evoked potentials have also been reported in a paper that explored a similar EEG experiment [20]. We also observed a strong late positive potential component in most of the

(a)

(b)

(c)

Fig. 6: Comparison of ERP waveforms measured in air condition and (a) fearful body odour, (b) happy body odour and (c) neutral body odour conditions. Time "0" in the figures indicates the face presenting onset. The grey bars indicate the time slots that a significant difference was observed between the ERPs measured in experimental and control conditions.
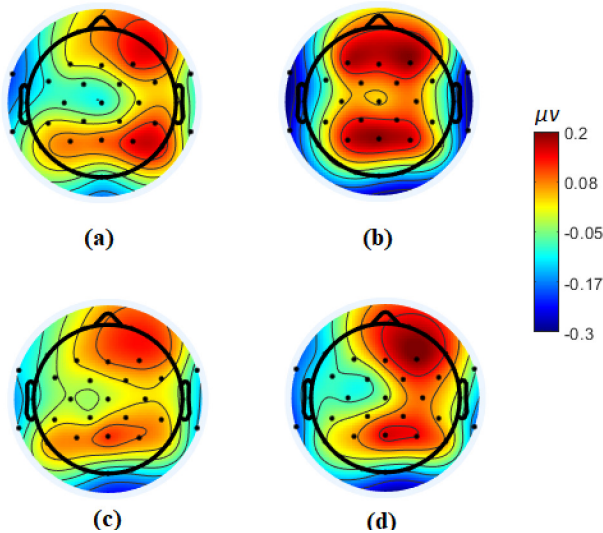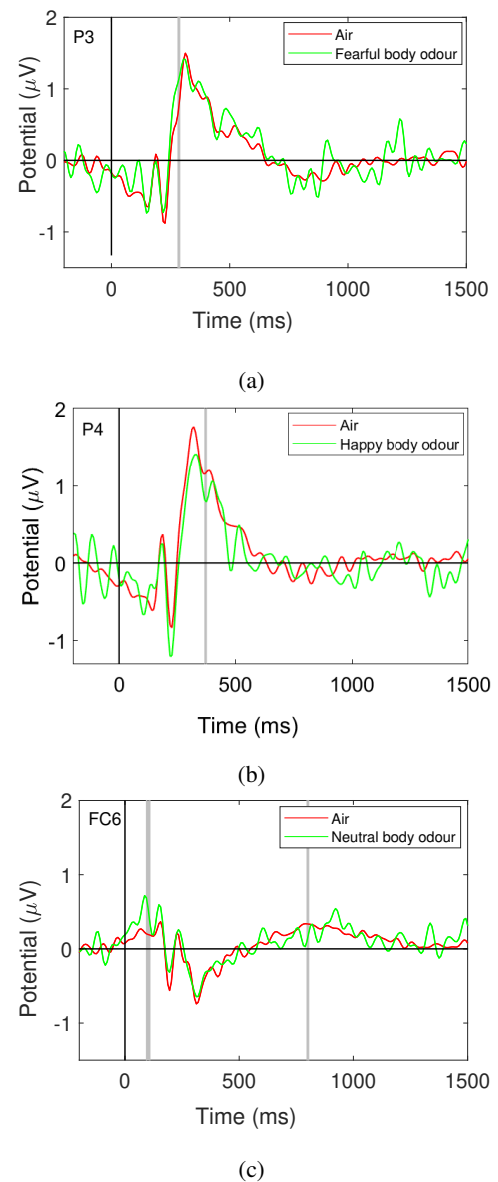

Fig. 5: average power of brain responses to face stimuli observed in (a) air, (b) fearful body odour, (c) happy body odour and (d) neutral body odour conditions. .

channels. Analysis performed in [20] also led to obtaining strong late positive potential due to using emotional body odours and neutral face images simultaneously. The measured scalp maps indicated strong brain responses in the areas that were in line with the previous relevant studies [6]–[8]. We measured the modulation of brain responses by comparing i) FRPs and ii) effective connectivity acquired in different olfactory conditions. In all the comparisons, the air condition was considered as the baseline. Comparing the FRPs revealed that the emotional body odours induced some changes in the
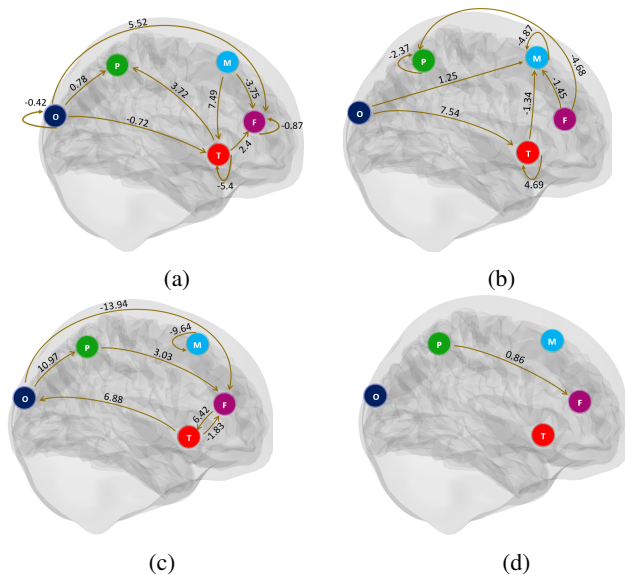
(a)   (b)

(c)   (d)

Fig. 7: Pathway of effective connectivity underlying neutral face processing in (a) all olfactory, (b) fearful body odour, (c) happy body odour and (d) neutral body odour conditions. Reported values represent the effect of modulation resulted from the corresponding olfactory conditions. O, P, T, M, F refer to superior occipital, superior parietal, superior temporal, superior motor and inferior frontal respectively.

evoked responses. The results of group effective connectivity also led to revealing a more specific connectivity pattern underlying emotional body odour processing. The outcome of our connectivity analysis showed that fearful and happy body odours modulated brain connections remarkably. It is observed that fearful and happy body odours strongly modulated the connection among the superior occipital, superior temporal, superior parietal and inferior frontal. According to the relevant literature, all these brain areas play key roles in face, emotion and odour processing [21], [22]. Although our preliminary study revealed that emotional human body odours modulated face processing, further investigation will be needed to test the robustness of these results. This can be obtained by increasing the number of subjects and using a more comprehensive design matrix for the PEB analysis.

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