

Children, but not chimpanzees, have facial correlates of determination

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1 **Summary**

2 Facial expressions have long been proposed to be important agents in forming and
3 maintaining cooperative interactions in social groups. Human beings are inordinately
4 cooperative as compared with their closest living relatives, the great apes, and hence one
5 might expect species differences in facial expressivity in contexts in which cooperation could
6 be advantageous. Here, human children and chimpanzees were given an identical task
7 designed to induce an element of frustration (it was impossible to solve). In children, but not
8 chimpanzees, facial expressions associated with effort and determination positively correlated
9 with persistence at the task. In contrast, bodily indicators of stress (self-directed behaviour)
10 negatively correlated with task persistence in chimpanzees. Thus, children exhibited more
11 behaviour as they persisted, and chimpanzees exhibited less. The facial expressions produced
12 by children, could, therefore, function to solicit pro-social assistance from others.

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15 **Keywords:** Facial expression; cooperation; FACS; frustration; determination; emotion

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24 1. Introduction

25 Human facial expressions have great similarity to those of other primates [1] and are
26 produced using a highly conserved system of facial musculature [2]. Overall physical
27 similarity of the main facial expression configurations, however, may obscure important
28 differences in how facial expression is actually used. Specifically, facial expressions have
29 long been proposed as important agents in coordination and cooperation in social interaction
30 [3-6], and so it is possible that facial expression differs between species depending on their
31 tendency to cooperate. Humans exhibit a motivation for, and level of, cooperation in their
32 social interactions that is unique among primate species [7], and so, in this context, we might
33 expect human facial expressivity to exhibit some important differences from other primates.

34 Facial expressions are linked to internal emotional states, in the sense that they
35 convey to others something about what the sender is feeling, thinking or is likely to do next
36 [8]. The link between expression and emotion is not absolute [9], but in order for some level
37 of honest communicative meaning to evolve, there must be an advantage to both sender and
38 receiver [10]. Smiling, for example (and its counterpart in chimpanzees, the bared-teeth
39 display) seems to act as an honest signal of benign intent and benefits both sender and
40 receiver by increasing social contact and avoiding conflict [4, 11]. Facial expressions that
41 indicate potential weakness on the part of the sender, however, can only be functional for the
42 sender if there is potential assistance from observers [12]. Otherwise, it could be
43 disadvantageous for the sender, as others could withdraw investment or take advantage of the
44 sender's weakened state.

45 Several studies have demonstrated that non-human primates, especially chimpanzees,
46 cooperate with conspecifics [e.g. 13], that individuals respond to distress in others [e.g. 14]
47 and that human empathy is rooted in socio-cognitive abilities present in other primates [15].
48 However, the extent to which humans help each other and live in large, cooperative societies

49 is unique among primates [7, 16]. Human helping can also be underpinned by conscious,
50 goal-directed empathy, whereas non-human primate cooperation could be explained by
51 simpler (albeit closely related) phenomena [17]. Expressing weakness to others, therefore,
52 could benefit humans more than other primates, by stimulating empathy and helping
53 behaviour. In which case, we might see facial expressions that reflect difficulty reaching a
54 goal (frustration, confusion etc.) to a greater extent in humans than other primates. Such
55 expressions could still stimulate helping in an indirect manner (mimicry of others' facial
56 expressions is associated with empathy in humans [18]), but there is also the potential for
57 goal-directed, helpful responses.

58 In the current study, human children and chimpanzees were presented with a task that
59 was impossible to solve, and thus designed to assess individual differences in persistence,
60 frustration and determination. FACS [19] and ChimpFACS [20] were used to systematically
61 document facial movements produced throughout the task and to make explicit comparisons
62 between the two species. We examined the full range of facial movements in both species,
63 but focussed the analysis specifically on specific components of the human anger facial
64 expression (AU17: chin raiser and AU24: lip presser) which are associated with
65 determination [21] and may also signal effort and concentration. These movements have
66 anatomically equivalent movements in the chimpanzee bulging lip face produced in
67 aggressive contexts [22, 23] (see Figure 1) which allowed us to make direct comparisons.
68 Self-directed behaviour was recorded as a measure of stress [24], see ESM for descriptions
69 and a video example.

70

71 **2. Materials and Methods**

72 *Participants:* Participants were 32 children aged 3 (16 girls) and 33 children aged 6 (17
73 girls). Three 6 year olds had to be excluded from the analysis due to experimenter errors. The

74 children were tested in the Developmental and Comparative Psychology Department at the
75 Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology in Leipzig, Germany. Chimpanzees (34:
76 21 females; 7 to 25 years of age) were from the Ngamba Island chimpanzee sanctuary
77 (Uganda).

78 *Design:* All subjects participated in a task in which their persistence in trying to obtain
79 a reward (that was suddenly impossible to get) was examined (Figure 2: Herrmann et al. in
80 prep). In a pretest, the subject was given a transparent box that contained a toy token
81 (children) or a piece of banana (chimpanzee) and was shown how to open the box. In the test
82 trial the experimenter then locked the box (out of sight) and placed the locked box back in
83 reach of the subject. After two minutes the trial then ended.

84 *Coding:* Each 2 minute trial was coded for measures of persistence: the percentage of
85 time the subject manipulated the box, the number of breaks taken (over 2 sec) and the latency
86 to the first break. Each trial was then coded using FACS or ChimpFACS (respectively) using
87 point sampling (5 sec intervals) to approximate rates of facial movements. Self-directed
88 behaviours (SDB) were coded in both species using continuous sampling, and transformed
89 into rates. All FACS coding was conducted by certified coders and coding agreement was
90 obtained (see ESM for detailed explanations of coding and reliability assessment). Rate of
91 AU17 (chin raiser) and AU24 (lip presser) were calculated, along with rates of total facial
92 movement. [Note: other combinations of movement relevant to chimpanzee and/or human
93 repertoires were also explored but there were no further relationships with task performance.]

94

95 **3. Results**

96 All variables were non-normally distributed, so non-parametric statistics were used
97 throughout. Table 1 shows the relationship between the measures of task persistence and the
98 behavioural variables for both species (the two children groups were similar in this respect

99 and so were combined). In human children, the target movements negatively correlated with
100 number of breaks from the task, and positively correlated with total time spent on the task,
101 and latency to first break. Therefore, children who persisted most with the task (and did not
102 give up easily) produced more of these facial movements. For the children, there were no
103 significant correlations between measures of task persistence and overall facial movements or
104 SDB. Chimpanzee SDB positively correlated with number of breaks from the task, but
105 negatively correlated with total time spent on the task and latency to first break. Overall,
106 therefore, chimpanzees who persisted least with the task, and gave up more easily, exhibited
107 more SDB. There were no significant correlations between measures of task persistence and
108 overall facial movement or target facial movements (see ESM).

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110 **4. Discussion**

111 Children produced facial movements associated with effort and determination
112 (components of anger facial expressions) at higher rates the more they persisted with an
113 impossible task. Chimpanzees, in contrast, did not produce these facial movements in relation
114 to task performance, despite having the capacity to produce identical movements, and having
115 a (potentially) homologous facial expression to anger in their repertoire. No relationship
116 between other facial movements and task performance was found in the chimpanzees, so it
117 does not seem to be the case that the chimpanzees have a different form of facial expression
118 that was missed. Instead, chimpanzees showed bodily indicators of stress (self-directed
119 behaviour: SDB) in relation to task persistence. Unlike the facial movements in children,
120 however, SDB are unlikely to signify determination or persistence, as chimpanzees produced
121 more SDB when they engaged *less* with the task, and so were less determined to get the
122 reward (possibly due to finding it most stressful).

123 Whether these facial movements are associated with a subjective, emotional
124 experience of effort/determination in children is unknown, but consideration of proximate
125 correlates is not necessary to speculate on function. One reason that humans and chimpanzees
126 differ in facial expressions in relation to a frustrating task might be that, as a more
127 cooperative species [7], humans benefit more from communicating their weaknesses to
128 others. By producing facial expressions that reflect the motivation to complete the task (or
129 frustration in not being able to complete it), individuals could stimulate empathy in others
130 [18] and receive support. In contrast, self-directed behaviour may not convey the same kind
131 of context specific information and hence may not be suitable for eliciting helping behaviour
132 in others. Whether SDB are communicative to others (and in what sense) however, is
133 unknown.

134 Since facial expression production is highly sensitive to the specific social context
135 [25], the difference in experimental set up between the two species (the experimenter was a
136 conspecific for the humans, but heterospecific for the chimpanzees) might have played a role.
137 While this is an important consideration, it seems unlikely to explain the differences for two
138 reasons. First, although the setting was social in the sense that the experimenter was present,
139 the experimenter was not interacting with the participant or reacting to their behaviour, but
140 instead was turned away from the subject during the test. Second, in non-human primates
141 there is only limited evidence that the presence of an audience affects how facial expressions
142 are produced to this level of subtlety [26].

143 In sum, this is the first explicit comparison of facial expression between humans and
144 another primate species using systematic, anatomically based coding (FACS and
145 ChimpFACS) and an equivalent experimental design. Such comparisons are necessary and
146 important to understand how the similarities and differences in facial expression between
147 humans and their closest living relatives, the nonhuman great apes, have evolved.

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161

162 **Figure Legends**

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164 Figure 1. Human anger facial expression and chimpanzee bulging lip display, both comprised
165 of Action Unit 17 (chin raiser) and Action Unit 24 (lip presser). Human image from FACS
166 manual [19] and chimpanzee image courtesy of Lisa Parr.

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169 Figure 2. Experimental set-up for children (a) and chimpanzees (b).

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172 Table 1. Relationship between measures of task persistence and the behavioural variables

173 (Spearman's Rho).

Task Persistence	Total facial movement	AU17 and AU24 facial movement	Self-directed behaviour
Children			
Number of breaks	-.159	-.361*	.018
Time on task (%)	.243	.450*	-.191
First break latency	-.188	.427*	-.199
Chimpanzees			
Number of breaks	-.119	-.024	.555*
Time on task (%)	.187	.082	-.516*
First break latency	.133	.188	-.579*

174 (*Significant at $p < 0.0167$, Bonferonni corrected from 0.05 as three tests were applied per

175 behavioural variable)

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