Beauty in everyday motion: Electrophysiological correlates of aesthetic preference for human walking

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1	Beauty in everyday motion: electrophysiological correlates of aesthetic preference
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29 Abstract

30 Aesthetic preference occurs in everyday experience. Studies have suggested that 31 aesthetic preference (such as observing other's motion) affects social interaction via 32 enhanced neural processing. This study investigated the effect of aesthetic preference on 33 neural activities, in response to walking motion. Twenty participants observed 34 biological motion (BM) representing three walking types (model-posture, good-posture, 35 and bad-posture) and their scrambled motion (SM) during the event-related potentials 36 measurement. The N200 and N300 amplitudes, reflecting the early sensory and the later 37 integrational processes, were analyzed. The results revealed that the N200 amplitude of 38 BM was greater than that of SM in the good- and bad-posture conditions. The N300 39 amplitude was larger in BM than SM regardless of the walking type. Exploratory 40 regression analyses indicated that the N300 for BM, but not for SM or N200, was more 41 negatively deflected with the increase of aesthetic preference scores. Our findings 42 suggest that aesthetic preference enhances the later integrational process of BM 43 represented in the N300 amplitude, whereas the early perceptual process (reflected by 44 the N200 amplitude) is potentially modulated by familiarity rather than aesthetic 45 preference in other's motion.

46

47 Keywords

48 Beauty, walk, event-related potentials, point-light display, biological motion

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- 50

51 Introduction

52 Aesthetic preference—beauty, fondness, and attractiveness—permeates our 53 lives. It occurs in both everyday experiences and qualitatively different and special 54 experiences such as art appreciation (Langlois, et al., 2000). In accordance with the 55 evidence of aesthetic preference for artistic activities (e.g., ballet dance) (Chang, et al., 56 2016; Cross, Kirsch, Ticini, & Schutz-Bosbach, 2011), Johnson and Tassinary (2007) 57 demonstrated that human beings form aesthetic preferences by observing others' daily 58 body motions (i.e., walking). This study presented various walking animations, which 59 differ in terms of sex, gait, and movement, and requested the participants to evaluate 60 aesthetic preference for each walking motion. Participants' aesthetic preferences varied 61 accordingly among the animations. These suggest that aesthetic preference of others' 62 daily body motion has significance for social interactions. Thus, identifying the 63 processing of aesthetic preferences for everyday experience would contribute toward 64 understanding the underlying mechanisms of human social interaction. This study 65 investigated how aesthetic preferences affect event-related potential in response to the observation of human walking. The high temporal resolution of the measure used can 66 67 contribute toward understanding neurocognitive mechanisms (Luck, 2014) for the 68 processing of aesthetic preferences for daily body motion.

69 Neuroaesthetic studies have revealed that high aesthetic preference is 70 associated with the enhancement of both sensory and general processes. Previous 71 studies have indicated that strong aesthetic preference induces enhanced neural activity 72 in the sensory region corresponding to the modality of a presented stimulus (Boccia, et 73 al., 2016; Cattaneo, 2020; Chatterjee, Thomas, Smith, & Aguirre, 2009; Di Dio, 74 Macaluso, & Rizzolatti, 2007). For example, Chatterjee, et al. (2009) demonstrated that 75 beautiful faces automatically generate neural activities in the brain regions specialized 76 for visual and facial perception. On the other hand, several studies have suggested that,

77 being independent from the sensory modality of the presented objects (Ishizu & Zeki, 78 2011), high aesthetic preference enhances the neural activities in brain regions—the 79 areas partially involved in the attention, social, and emotion networks (Ishizu & Zeki, 80 2011; Jacobsen, Schubotz, Hofel, & Cramon, 2006; Kawabata & Zeki, 2004; Nadal, Munar, Capo, Rossello, & Cela-Conde, 2008). For example, Kawabata and Zeki (2004) 81 82 demonstrated that beautiful paintings caused increased activation in the medial 83 orbitofrontal cortex, anterior cingulate gyrus, and left parietal cortex than neutral 84 paintings, regardless of the modalities of the painted objects. Although these studies 85 suggest that aesthetic preference facilitates the visual sensory and the general processes, the majority of these findings were obtained by utilizing the static stimuli, rather than 86 87 videos of human motion.

Previous studies focusing on dance provide clues that are more direct regarding 88 89 understanding the relationship between aesthetic preference for bodily motion and the 90 neural activities associated with visual sensory and general processing. For example, 91 Cross, et al. (2011) reported associations between the high aesthetic preference for 92 dance performances and the enhanced neural activities of visual areas involved in 93 motion and form processing (V5/MT+; inferior temporal gyrus, middle temporal gyrus, 94 and middle occipital gyrus; and inferior parietal lobule). Calvo-Merino et al. (2010) also 95 showed that enhancement of the activities of the extrastriate body area are associated 96 with aesthetic preference for a dance posture. On the other hand, Kirsch et al. (2015) 97 reported that the increased activities of the posterior temporal region (i.e., superior 98 temporal sulcus: STS)—involved in processing multisensory integration with 99 modulation from attention, social, and emotion networks (Allison, Puce, & McCarthy, 100 2000)—are associated with high aesthetic preferences for a dance motion after training 101 in dance performance. These studies revealed the enhanced activities involved in visual 102 sensory and general processing in response to bodily motion with the high aesthetic

preference. However, the majority of research thus far has only analyzed artistic body 104 motion (i.e., dance movement). Therefore, it remains unknown as to how aesthetic 105 preference for bodily motion in everyday experience (i.e., walking) is processed. 106 Biological motion (BM) stimuli-expressed in point-light displays-are 107 appropriate for investigating the influence of aesthetic preference. BM transmits 108 information, such as emotion (Bachmann, Munzert, & Kruger, 2018; Wenderoth, et al., 109 2012), gender (Johnson & Tassinary, 2005; Kozlowski & Cutting, 1977), and person 110 identification (Cutting & Kozlowski, 2013). BM has been used to investigate the neural 111 mechanisms involved in the perception of bodily motion. Giese and Poggio (2003) 112 proposed a neurocognitive model of BM perception: two sensory streams and later 113 processes involved in the integration of their sensory information. The first sensory 114 stream is a ventral pathway that is specialized for the analysis of body forms. The 115 second is a dorsal pathway that is specialized for the processing of optic-flow/motion 116 information. This sensory information are integrated within the STS (Giese & Poggio, 117 2003). In line with Giese and Poggio (2003), functional imaging studies in humans have 118 identified that point-light display of body motion selectively activates areas in the STS 119 (Beauchamp, Lee, Haxby, & Martin, 2003; Bonda, Petrides, Ostry, & Evans, 1996; 120 Grossman, et al., 2000; Howard, et al., 1996; Vaina, Solomon, Chowdhury, Sinha, & 121 Belliveau, 2001). Other areas in the ventral pathway, namely, fusiform face areas 122 (Beauchamp, et al., 2003; Grossman & Blake, 2002; Vaina, et al., 2001) and lingual 123 gyrus (Cignetti, et al., 2017; Servos, 2002) are identified as being activated. Moreover, 124 event-related potentials (ERPs) have shown that BMs elicit two ERPs (i.e., N200 and 125 N300) corresponding to the early sensory and later integration processes. Given the high 126 temporal resolution of ERPs, these electrophysiological measures could permit the 127 separate investigation of the two processes and contribute toward understanding the 128 cognitive processing of aesthetic preference.

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129 The N200, a negative ERP component approximately 200 ms after stimulus 130 onset at occipitotemporal (OT) areas, represents the visual sensory processes involving 131 the perception of both form and motion (Baccus, Mozgova, & Thompson, 2009; 132 Buzzell, Chubb, Safford, Thompson, & McDonald, 2013). These studies reported that 133 BM for walking produced larger amplitudes of the N200 compared with the scrambled motion (SM) and static point-light image of a walking human. This suggested that the 134 N200 is sensitive to both form and motion information (Baccus, et al., 2009; Buzzell, et 135 136 al., 2013). Another ERPs study proposed that the N200 amplitude was more attenuated 137 by the adaptation to BM and SM than the static point-light image (Hirai & Kakigi, 138 2008). This suggested that the N200 was sensitive to the motion of BM and SM. These 139 findings suggest that the N200 represents the sensory process involved in the encoding 140 of body form and motion of BM and local motion analysis. Jokisch et al. (2005) showed 141 that the N200 is mainly located in posterior areas near the midline. We hypothesized 142 that high aesthetic preference for a human walking is associated with the large 143 amplitude of the N200, representing activities of the sensory process. This is based on 144 the studies demonstrating the association of high aesthetic preference-with the 145 enhanced neural activities in the sensory regions—including main sources of the N200 146 (Boccia, et al., 2016; Cattaneo, 2020; Chatterjee, et al., 2009; Di Dio, et al., 2007; Kirk, 147 2008; Li & Zhang, 2020; Luo, Yu, Li, & Mo, 2019; Mizokami, et al., 2014). This 148 expectation is consistent with ERP studies showing that enhanced a negative peak 149 around 200 ms at the occipitotemporal areas is associated with aesthetic preference for a 150 face (Meng, Li, Peng, Li, & Shen, 2020; Y. Zhang, et al., 2020). 151 The N300, the negative component at approximately 300 ms in OT areas, 152 represents the activities of the later process of BM perception. ERP studies on BM have 153 shown that the main sources of the N300 are the STS and fusiform gyrus (Jokisch, et al., 154 2005). Jokisch et al. (2005) indicated that the N300 has larger amplitude for upright and

155 inverted BM compared to SM. Moreover, Hirai and Kakigi (2008) found that the 156 amplitude of N300 in response to BM was attenuated following an adaptation to BM but not for SM and static point-light image. These studies suggest that the process 157 reflected in the N300 is associated with the processing of biologically relevant motion 158 159 patterns based on the integration of the form and motion information in STS co-acting 160 attention, social, and emotion networks (Giese & Poggio, 2003). We considered the 161 association of high aesthetic preference with enhanced activities in the STS (Alluri, et 162 al., 2013; Sachs, Ellis, Schlaug, & Loui, 2016) and previous ERP studies showing a 163 negative deflection around 300 ms in the occipitotemporal areas to aesthetic objects 164 (Shi, Huo, & Hou, 2021; Wiese, Altmann, & Schweinberger, 2014; Zhang & Deng, 165 2012). Hence, we hypothesized that high aesthetic preference is associated with the 166 large amplitude of the N300.

167 This study investigated whether aesthetic preference for human walking motion 168 is associated with the early sensory (N200) and later integrational processes (N300). 169 The ERPs were measured in response to three types of BMs (model-posture, good-170 posture, and bad-posture) and their SM as a control condition. Additionally, a rating task 171 was conducted to confirm whether BM of the model- and good-posture conditions was 172 judged as more aesthetically preferable than the bad-posture condition. Statistical 173 analysis was conducted to examine whether the N200 and N300 amplitudes-elicited 174 by BM with high aesthetic preference (i.e., model and good posture)-were larger than 175 with low aesthetic preference (i.e., bad posture). Previous studies have reported that the 176 right hemisphere is dominant in BM perception (Bonda, et al., 1996; Grossman, et al., 177 2000), and another study reported that the association of the aesthetics preference for dance with activities of the posterior temporal region is only observed in the left 178 179 hemisphere (Kirsch, et al., 2015). These observations suggest that the neural activity of 180 aesthetic preference of BM is modulated by laterality (i.e., right and left

181 occipitotemporal sites). Thus, this study included the factor of laterality in the statistical 182 analysis. Further, exploratory regression analyses were conducted to examine whether 183 aesthetic preference to each stimulus was associated with the amplitude of the ERPs 184 separately in BM and SM conditions. 185 186 **Materials and Methods** 187 **Participants** 188 A total of 23 male students from Kyushu University aged between 20 and 25 years (M = 22.3, SD = 1.4) participated in this study. The data of three participants were excluded 189 190 from the analysis due to the disconnection of a reference electrode or the electrodes 191 placed on the right and left OT regions. Finally, data from the remaining 20 participants 192 were analyzed. All participants provided written informed consent for the experimental 193 procedure approved by the Ethical Committee of Kyushu University (Approval No. 194 191). 195 196 Stimuli 197 The stimuli were 180 point-light displays of BM (representing a human walking, 60 per 198 walking type [model-, good-, and bad-posture]) and 180 point-light displays of SM (60

per walking type). The stimuli were produced in three steps: capturing motion data of
three forms of walking, converting the data to BM, and creating SM by manipulating

201

BM.

202

203 Capturing walking motion

Male and female walking instructors were required to wear 15 reflective markers on the top of their heads and on the joints of their limbs. The instructors were subsequently required to walk like a model on a runway, with a good posture (as seen in daily life),

and in a bad-looking posture (as seen in daily life). Their walking movements were
recorded by a three-dimensional motion analysis system consisting of nine infrared
cameras (Raptor Hawk, Motion Analysis, USA) at 100 Hz. Eighteen motions, three
motions for each condition (i.e., walking type [model, good, and bad-posture]) in each
sex, were recorded.

212

213 *Converting to the biological motion*

214 Using editing software and a motion capture acquisition (Cortex, Motion Analysis,

USA), the vertical, horizontal, and time axis of each motion data were modified to unify

the height of walkers and their walking pace. The preprocessed data were converted to

217 point-light displays consisting of 15 moving white dots on a black background with 800

218 ms duration (Figure 1). To cover different phases of the walking cycle, ten stimuli were

219 created from each motion data by sliding the time window for 100 ms each. A total of

220 180 BM stimuli were used in the experiment. Supplementary File 1 shows examples of

BM stimuli.

222

223 Making the scrambled motion

A total of 180 SM stimuli were created by randomizing the starting position of the dot of each BM. Consequently, the global configuration of human walking was collapsed in SM; however, the local motions (i.e., velocity and speed of the dots) in SM were the same as those in BM.

228

229 *Experimental procedure*

The experiment was conducted in an electromagnetic shield room. In the initial session,
participants sat 60 cm away from the display monitor (E2351VR-BN, LG Electronics,
Korea) with a multichannel electroencephalogram (EEG) cap (64ch Geodesic Sensor

233 Net, Electrical Geodesics, Inc., USA). The task in the first session was conducted 234 according to a previous study (Jokisch, et al., 2005) (Figure 1a). A white cross was 235 presented on the center of the monitor for 2,000 ms to alert the participants the 236 beginning of trial. A BM or SM stimuli with 800 ms duration were subsequently 237 displayed on the same location. The next trial was immediately initiated following 238 completion of the previous trial. Participants were asked to answer whether they 239 perceived a human (or not) by pressing one of the assigned buttons (num 1: person, num 240 3: not person). The correct rate and response times remained similar across conditions 241 (see Supplementary File 2). The first session consisted the three blocks. The stimuli 242 (360 stimuli) were presented once per block in a random order. The total number of 243 trials for each participant was 1080. The participants were instructed to maintain their 244 gaze on the center of the monitor throughout each trial. Additionally, they were required 245 to reduce blinking and body movements, except for stimuli responses. The stimulus 246 presentation and data acquisition were controlled using Presentation v18.1 247 (Neurobehavioral Systems, Inc., USA) on a Windows computer (Dell, Inc., USA; windows 10.0 64bit, Microsoft Corp., USA). 248

249 In the second session, the participants rated the stimuli displayed on the 250 monitor by placing a mark using a mouse on the following eight visual analog scales: 251 beautiful/not beautiful, beautiful move/not beautiful move, human/not human, beautiful 252 human/not beautiful human, masculine/feminine, like/not like, elegant/not elegant, and 253 attractive/unattractive (see Supplementary File 3). These scales were used to cover 254 various expressions of aesthetic preference, based on a previous study suggesting that 255 aesthetic preference can be judged as being largely beautiful, elegant, attractive, and 256 likable (Marković, 2012). Considering that human beauty is different from the beauty of 257 non-human objects especially in terms of function (Yarosh, 2019), the evaluation 258 included both scales reflecting human beauty (a beautiful human) and beauty of non259 human aspects (a beautiful motion). The scores of the analog scales were integrated 260 using principal component analysis (PCA). Finally, the value of the principal 261 component was used as a comprehensive score for aesthetic preference (see 262 Supplementary File 4). The total number of presented stimuli was 36 (6 stimuli for 263 every 6 conditions [model-BM, good-posture-BM, bad-posture-BM, model-SC, goodposture-SC, bad-posture-SC]). The duration of the stimuli was 6,000 ms, including three 264 265 walking cycles. Participants could repeat a playback of each stimulus until they marked 266 the scales with confidence. Participants observed only one among ten stimuli with 267 different phases of an original walking cycle. The selection of the presented stimuli and 268 the order of their presentation were randomized among participants.

269

270 *EEG recordings and analysis*

271 The EEG was recorded from 64 sites on the scalp using a multichannel EEG

272 measurement system (Net Amps 200 64-channel EEG Amplifier and Net Station ver.

4.1.2; Electrical Geodesics Inc., USA). The EEG signals were sampled at 500 Hz with

an online filter (passband: 0.01–200 Hz). Their impedances were maintained at less than

275 70 k Ω . A reference followed the default setting of the multichannel EEG cap (64-

276 channel Geodesic Sensor Net, Electrical Geodesics, Inc., USA).

277 The EEGLAB toolbox (Brunner, Delorme, & Makeig, 2013; Delorme & 278 Makeig, 2004) implemented on MATLAB (The MathWorks, Inc., USA) was used for 279 the EEG preprocessing and ERP calculation. For the preprocessing, an offline band-pass 280 filter (finite impulse response filter: 0.5–40 Hz; transition bandwidth: 1 Hz) was 281 applied. Normalized spectrum power (frequency range: 0–200 Hz) and kurtosis for each 282 EEG channel were calculated for automatic channel rejection. The threshold of rejection 283 was over 5 SD for both measures using all EEG channels in each participant. The 284 continuous EEG signals were epoched into 1,000 ms segments for each trial. Pre285 stimulus baseline data were collected for 200 ms, and experimental data were collected 286 for 800 ms following stimulus onset. The epochs containing abnormal activities were 287 automatically rejected based on their spectrum power [frequency range: 0–40 Hz; threshold: -60-40 dB; kurtosis (thresholds: 5); and linear trends (a number of 288 289 consecutive points for the detection of linear patterns: 750, a threshold of absolute 290 slope: 50, a threshold of coefficient: 0.3)]. The EEG signals were then re-referenced to 291 the common average reference. The independent components (ICs) analysis using the 292 Infomax algorithm was performed for separating the EEG signals and artifacts. ICs 293 representing eye artifacts, heartbeats, or muscle activities were manually rejected based 294 on the topographical map and the frequency spectrum. The remaining components were 295 projected back to the EEG sensor space. The number of trials without artifact 296 contamination remained similar across conditions (M = 152.9, SD = 9.85; $F_{motion type (1,19)}$ 297 = 1.53, $F_{\text{walking type }(2,38)} = 0.34$, $F_{\text{motion type } \times \text{ walking type }(2,38)} = 0.10$, ps > 0.05). For the analysis of ERPs (i.e., N200 and N300), the averaged EEG signals in 298 299 each left and right occipitotemporal area (left OT: E29, E30, E32, right OT: E43, E44, 300 E47; Figure 2b) were used (Hirai, Fukushima, & Hiraki, 2003; Hirai, Senju, Fukushima, 301 & Hiraki, 2005). We found a negative peak approximately 260 ms for N200 and 302 approximately 350 ms for N300. These results are similar to a study conducted by Inuggi et al. (2018) on BM perception. The time windows were set to 40 (Inuggi, et al., 303 304 2018) and 100 (Masahiro Hirai & Hiraki, 2006) ms wide, including the peaks of N200 305 and N300, respectively (Figure 2a). The mean amplitudes of the N200 (240–280 ms) 306 and N300 (300–400 ms) with a baseline correction (-200–0 ms) were used for the 307 statistical analysis.

308

309 Statistical analysis

310 An analysis of variance (ANOVA) with motion type (BM/SM), walking type

(model/good/bad-posture), and laterality (right OT/left OT) as within-participant factors
with Greenhouse–Geisser correction was conducted for the ERPs (i.e., N200 and N300
amplitudes at the left and right OT). Further analysis included tests of simple effects and
multiple comparisons using Shaffer's procedure.

315 To investigate the effects of aesthetic preference on the ERPs, exploratory 316 regression analyses with the evaluated score of the stimuli as an independent variable 317 were performed (see Supplementary File 4). The factor of the laterality (right OT/left 318 OT) was not included in the regression analyses because the ANOVA did not show 319 interaction effects between laterality and walking type. Prior to the regression analyses, 320 PCA was applied to the scores of eight visual analog scales for dimensional 321 compression of the scores reflecting aesthetic preference. The first principal component 322 (PC1) was selected as the score of aesthetic preference for each stimulus. This score 323 was used for the regression analyses. The results of the PCA are highlighted in 324 Supplementary File 4, indicating that the PC1 can well extract variance of items 325 associated with beauty and attractiveness. In addition, parallel analysis (Franklin, 326 Gibson, Robertson, Pohlmann, & Fralish, 1995) confirmed that the PC1 can sufficiently explain the variance of the data. 327

R, R packages (Franklin, et al., 1995; Kuznetsova, Brockhoff, & Christensen,
2017; Revelle, 2021), and R function—including anovakun ver. 4.8.5 (Iseki, 2020)—
were used for the statistical analysis. Significance α level was set to 0.05.

331

332 Results

333 The evaluated score of the stimuli

The ANOVA for the score of the PC1 revealed a significant main effect of motion type

335 $(F_{(1,19)} = 106.1, p < 0.0001, partial\eta^2 = 0.85)$. This indicates that BM were evaluated as

336 more beautiful than SM. Additionally, there was a significant main effect of walking type ($F_{(2,38)} = 17.6$, p < 0.0001, partial $\eta^2 = 0.48$) and motion type × walking type 337 interaction ($F_{(2,38)} = 15.6$, p < 0.0001, partial $\eta^2 = 0.45$). The follow-up analysis 338 indicates a simple effect of walking type only for BM condition (BM: $F_{(2,38)} = 26.4$, p 339 <0.0001, partial $\eta^2 = 0.58$, SM: $F_{(2,38)} = 0.41$, p = 0.667, partial $\eta^2 = 0.02$). BM of the 340 341 good- and model-posture conditions were evaluated as more beautiful than those of the bad-posture condition (model posture vs. bad posture: $t_{(19)} = 5.10$, adj.p = 0.0001; good 342 posture vs. bad posture: $t_{(19)} = 7.29$, adj.p < 0.0001). 343

344

345 ERP results

- 346 *N200*
- 347 The ANOVA for N200 indicated a significant main effect of motion type ($F_{(1,19)} = 7.67$,
- 348 p = 0.012, partial $\eta^2 = 0.29$). This was qualified by a significant motion type × walking
- 349 type interaction ($F_{(2,38)} = 4.23$, p = 0.022, partial $\eta^2 = 0.18$). Follow-up analyses
- indicated significant simple main effects of motion type for good-posture ($F_{(1,19)} = 8.56$,
- 351 p = 0.0087, partial $\eta^2 = 0.31$) and bad-posture conditions ($F_{(1,19)} = 8.51$, p = 0.0088,
- 352 partial $\eta^2 = 0.31$), however, not for the model-posture condition ($F_{(1,19)} = 2.09, p =$
- 0.164, partial $\eta^2 = 0.10$). The N200 amplitude of BM was larger than that of SM, except
- 354 for the model-posture condition (see Figure 3). The simple effect of walking type was
- not significant for both motion type conditions (BM: $F_{(1.5,28.2)} = 2.30$, p = 0.130,
- 356 partial $\eta^2 = 0.11$, SM: $F_{(2,38)} = 2.86$, p = 0.070, partial $\eta^2 = 0.13$). In addition, there was a
- 357 significant main effect of laterality ($F_{(1,19)} = 6.76$, p = 0.018, partial $\eta^2 = 0.26$),
- indicating that the N200 amplitude of the right OT was larger than that of the left OT.
- 359 There were no significant interactions of laterality with motion type ($F_{(1,19)} = 0.016, p =$
- 360 0.900, partial $\eta^2 = 0.001$) nor walking type ($F_{(1,19)} = 0.819$, p = 0.448, partial $\eta^2 = 0.04$).

- 362 **N300**
- 363 There were significant main effects of motion type ($F_{(1,19)} = 107.5, p < 0.0001$, partial η^2
- 364 = 0.85) and walking type ($F_{(2,38)} = 3.69, p = 0.034$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.16$), which were
- qualified by a significant motion type \times walking type interaction ($F_{(2,38)} = 4.84, p =$
- 0.014, partial $\eta^2 = 0.20$). N300 amplitude for BM was larger than that for SM among all
- 367 walking types (model posture: $F_{(1,19)} = 53.13$, p < 0.0001, partial $\eta^2 = 0.74$, good
- 368 posture: $F_{(1,19)} = 119.7$, p < 0.0001, partial $\eta^2 = 0.86$, bad posture: $F_{(1,19)} = 125.1$, p < 0.0001
- 0.0001, partial $\eta^2 = 0.87$, see Figure 3). However, the simple effect of walking type was
- 370 observed for SM (BM: $F_{(2,38)} = 1.05$, p = 0.361, partial $\eta^2 = 0.05$, SM: $F_{(2,38)} = 8.81$, p =
- 0.0028, partial $\eta^2 = 0.32$). The effects associated with laterality were not significant
- 372 (main effect: $F_{(1,19)} = 0.16$, p = 0.697, partial $\eta^2 = 0.01$, motion type × laterality
- interaction: $F_{(1,19)} = 2.71$, p = 0.116, partial $\eta^2 = 0.13$, walking type × laterality
- 374 interaction: $F_{(1,19)} = 0.060$, p = 0.942, partial $\eta^2 = 0.003$).
- 375

376 *Exploratory regression analyses*

377 The regression analyses, with the score of aesthetic preference as an independent

variable, indicated that the N300 amplitude for BM was more negatively deflected with

379 increasing the score ($\beta = -0.263$, $t_{(118)} = -3.80$, p = 0.0002; $\mathbb{R}^2 = 0.102$, $F_{(1,118)} = 14.46$,

- 380 p = 0.0002). There was no significant effect in SM condition (see Figure 4). For the
- 381 N200 amplitude, the analyses did not reveal the significant effect of aesthetic preference
- 382 for BM and SM conditions.
- 383

384 **Discussion**

385 This study investigated the influence of aesthetic preference for a human walking on

- 386 ERPs involved in the early and later processes of BM. Participants observed BM of
- 387 three types of walks (i.e., model-, good-, and bad-posture) and their SM during ERP

388 measurement. Participants also rated aesthetic preference for each stimulus. The results 389 of the rating task confirmed that the participants had higher aesthetic preferences for 390 BM in the model and good postures than those in the bad posture. There are two main 391 findings from the ERP analyses. First, the N300 amplitude of BM was larger than that 392 of SM, and the N200 amplitude of BM was greater than that of SM only in the 393 conditions of good and bad posture. This finding suggests that the two ERP components 394 are associated with different psychological functions. Second, the exploratory 395 regression analysis indicated that aesthetic preference was positively correlated with the 396 N300 amplitude for BM, whereas the factorial analysis did not reveal the systematic 397 relationship between aesthetic preference and electrophysiological measures. This 398 finding suggests that aesthetic preference moderates the later process of BM.

399 The results indicate that the amplitude of the N300 is enhanced in response to 400 BM, regardless of the walking types. Previous studies have reported the larger 401 amplitude of the N300 for BM representing human walking than SM (M. Hirai, et al., 402 2005; Jokisch, et al., 2005; Puce & Perrett, 2003). An ERP study also revealed that the 403 N300 showed larger amplitudes for upright and inverted BM than for SM (Jokisch, et 404 al., 2005). This suggests that the N300 component reflects the fine visual analysis of 405 motion patterns specific to BM. Additionally, the fMRI study showed that viewing 406 upright and inverted BM activated the posterior STS. This is the main source of the 407 N300 (Jokisch, et al., 2005; Krakowski, et al., 2011; Safford, Hussey, Parasuraman, & 408 Thompson, 2010), compared to SM (E. D. Grossman & Blake, 2001). These findings 409 suggest that the N300 represents neural activities in the STS that reflect the processing 410 of fine global structure from motion at the later stage of BM perception. In addition, the results revealed that the N300 amplitude was sensitive to BM in all walking styles. This 411 412 further supports the proposal of the previous study that the stage of processing in N300

reflects the integrative analysis of socially relevant motion patterns (Jokisch, et al.,2005).

415 The regression analyses highlighted the possibility of the association between the higher aesthetic preference for BM and the larger amplitude of the N300 (Figure 3). 416 417 Previous ERP studies also reported the association of aesthetic preference for objects 418 (i.e., a product (Shi, et al., 2021) and face [(Wiese, et al., 2014; Z. Zhang & Deng, 2012)] 419 with ERP components, showing a negative deflection at approximately 300 ms after 420 stimulus presentation in the occipitotemporal areas. These findings suggest that 421 aesthetic preference is processed in the later stage of visual perception. Furthermore, 422 neuroaesthetic studies highlight the psychological function of this processing stage. The 423 studies suggest that the brain regions associated with aesthetic preference overlap 424 considerably with attention, emotion, and social networks (Cela-Conde, Agnati, Huston, 425 Mora, & Nadal, 2011; Chatterjee, et al., 2009; Chatterjee & Vartanian, 2014). Holmes 426 and Zanker (2012) also indicated that aesthetic preference induced visual attention 427 toward the objects regardless of the task demands. A previous ERP study revealed that 428 the attention to the motion in BM enhanced the N300 amplitude when compared with 429 the participants attending to an irrelevant aspect of the objects (M. Hirai, et al., 2005). 430 Our results indicate that aesthetic preference of BM is processed after 300-400 ms 431 stimulus onset—at the latest. This suggests the possibility of high aesthetic preference, 432 enhancing the extraction of socially relevant motion patterns effectively via the 433 enhanced attention to BM.

Our results highlighted that the N200 amplitude of BM is larger than that of SM in the good- and bad-posture conditions. However, the N200 amplitude was not differentiated for BM in the model-posture condition and their SM. As some ERP studies have shown such an attenuation of the negative potential around 200 ms for attractive faces when compared with a corresponding potential for less attractive faces

439 (Hahn, et al., 2016; Hsiao, Tagai, Shimakura, Isobe, & Nittono, 2017), it is possible that 440 the attenuation of the N200 to the model posture is the reflection of aesthetic 441 processing. However, this interpretation is inconsistent with another studies 442 demonstrating the enhancement of the negative potential around 200 ms for 443 aesthetically preferred objects (Meng, et al., 2020; Y. Zhang, et al., 2020). The 444 behavioral results also contradicted with the modulated pattern of the N200 amplitudes. There were no differences in the score of aesthetic preference between the model and 445 446 the good-posture condition. The score of the bad-posture condition was lower than that 447 of each of the other conditions. The regression analyses did not identify the relationship 448 between the N200 amplitude and the score for aesthetic preference. These results 449 suggest that the N200 was modulated by other factors rather than aesthetic preferences 450 of BM. We speculated that differences in N200 amplitude might be affected by 451 familiarity although there is no direct evidence supporting this interpretation in the 452 present study. The familiarity of the walking stimuli was controlled during the 453 experiment because participants observed each stimulus the same number of times. 454 However, the experience of each type of walking differs before the experiment. The 455 participants hardly, if ever, had seen a model walk the runway as a fashion model. This 456 suggests that less familiarity of the walking stimuli under the model-posture condition attenuates the effectiveness of visual processing. Previous studies have shown that 457 458 familiarity with the motion (i.e., expertise or doing experience) influences the 459 perception of the motion. For example, ballet dancers can discriminate the exemplars of 460 dance better than non-experts (Calvo-Merino, Ehrenberg, Leung, & Haggard, 2010). 461 Studies using fMRI (Calvo-Merino, Glaser, Grezes, Passingham, & Haggard, 2005; 462 Calvo-Merino, Grezes, Glaser, Passingham, & Haggard, 2006) and EEG (Di Nota, 463 Chartrand, Levkov, Montefusco-Siegmund, & DeSouza, 2017; Orgs, Dombrowski, 464 Heil, & Jansen-Osmann, 2008) have shown that familiarity enhances brain activity

465 involved in the perception of body motion. In addition, the ERP study reported that the 466 repeated exposure to stimuli enhances the negative peak amplitude 230–280 ms after 467 stimuli onset in the occipitotemporal areas (Han, et al., 2020). Similarly, another BM study suggested that the N200 amplitude was related to the ease of BM perception, 468 469 demonstrating the attenuation of the N200 amplitude for inverted BM compared with 470 upright BM (Jokisch, et al., 2005). Given these findings, we speculate that the N200 is 471 sensitive to familiarity with human motion, and amplitude is attenuated when the 472 stimuli represent unusual motion (i.e., model walking). This may be due to the difficulty 473 of simulating the specific motion in the brain (Inuggi, et al., 2018). Future studies 474 directly manipulating the familiarity and aesthetic preference of stimuli are needed to 475 elucidate the processing reflected in the N200.

476 The present study provides several implications for the neurocognitive model 477 of BM perception and for future studies. A recent review paper proposed that the ERPs 478 associated with BM (i.e., N200 and N300) represent the cortical processing of fine 479 configural information including action types, styles, and visual features (i.e., bodily 480 action evaluator (Hirai & Senju, 2020)) following the detection stage in the subcortical 481 regions (i.e., Step Detector). Our results suggest that the "bodily action evaluator" 482 processes contain at least two functionally and temporally distinct processes. The early process was affected by the walking type, suggesting the effect of familiarity, while the 483 484 later process was associated with aesthetic preference for BM. However, various 485 neuroaesthetic studies have reported evidence contrary to our findings. The rTMS study 486 suggested that enhancement of neural activities in the later processes caused negative 487 sifting of aesthetic preferences (Calvo-Merino, Urgesi, et al., 2010). In addition, other 488 rTMS studies indicated a critical role of the early processes in mediating the aesthetic 489 evaluation of bodies (Cazzato, Mele, & Urgesi, 2014, 2016). Cattaneo (2020) suggests 490 the possibility that the degree to which aesthetic preference relies on early or later

491 processes depends on stimuli features, such as static vs. dynamic bodies and dance vs. 492 ordinary dynamic postures. These rTMS studies used static images with implied motion, 493 while the present study used BM without featural information. It is possible that the 494 differences in stimuli features caused inconsistent results between our study and the 495 rTMS studies. Such features of objects should be further considered for the 496 understanding of the underlying neural mechanisms for aesthetic preference in BM 497 perception.

498 There are a number of limitations that require acknowledgment. First, the 499 present study included only male participants. This has an advantage for avoiding the 500 contamination of hormonal effects with the menstrual cycle on judgments of the 501 attractiveness to others (Sundstrom Poromaa & Gingnell, 2014). Previous studies have 502 demonstrated sex difference in the efficacy of BM perception (Cela-Conde, et al., 503 2009). Second, the stimuli were point-light displays without the appearance of the 504 walkers, and they looked like they were walking toward observers. It is possible that 505 participants had difficulty rating aesthetic preference for various stimuli, and the onset 506 of the ERP components was relatively delayed. However, the participants rated BM of 507 the model- and good-posture conditions as more beautiful than those of the bad-posture 508 condition. We found the positive correlation between aesthetic preference and ERP was 509 elicited by BM. The difference of motion patterns in BM allowed the emergence of 510 aesthetic preference and exploration of its underlying neural processes. Third, the 511 regression analyses-with the score of aesthetic preference as an independent 512 variable—were conducted as an exploratory analysis. The results are preliminary, and 513 further studies are required to replicate whether an aesthetic preference enhances neural 514 processes (especially at the later stage of BM perception).

515 In summary, the findings of this study suggest that aesthetic preference for 516 others' everyday motions enhances the perceptual processes. Aesthetic preference is

517	associated with the neural activities in the later stage of BM perception. The neural
518	activities represent an integration of the sensory information via modulation from other
519	neural networks including attention and social networks. Aesthetic preference may drive
520	the neural processes involving the integration of sensory information in everyday
521	experience.
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525	Authors' Contributions
526	SHa, YN, and YI designed and performed the experiment and analyzed data with advice
527	from SHi. HN contributed to making stimuli and experiment design. SHa, YN, YI, SU,
528	YE, MU, TO, and SHi contributed to the data interpretation. SHa and SU wrote the
529	manuscript, and all authors revised it. All authors read and approved the final
530	manuscript.
531	
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746 Figure Captions



Figure 1. Illustration of the task in the first session

A: an example of a trial of the experiment task. B: examples of BM for each walk type.



Figure 2. Grand average waveforms and scalp topography maps for each condition A: Grand average waveforms at the left and right OT. The blue and black lines indicate grand average waveforms elicited by BM and SM. The line type indicates the walking type. A solid line indicates model posture, a dashed line indicates good posture, and a dotted line indicates bad posture. The rectangles indicate time windows of N200 and N300. The left figure illustrates the waveforms at the left OT, and the right shows them at the right OT. B: Scalp topographies maps of N200 and N300 time windows. Gray circles indicate electrodes included in ERP calculations.



772Figure 3. Mean amplitudes of N200 and N300 elicited by BM and SM in the three773walking types (bad, model, and good postures). The effort bar indicates the standard774deviation. *: p < 0.01; **p < 0.001



Figure 4 Scatter plots of the score of PC1 and ERPs (elicited by both BM and SM)

Scatter plots of the score of PC1 and N300 amplitudes. The color of the dots and lines

indicates the motion types. The blue and black indicate BM and SM condition,

respectively. The lines show regression expressions for each motion type. The sharps of

the dots represent walking type; \bullet shows the model posture, \blacktriangle is the good posture, and

⁷⁸⁸ ■ is the bad posture. The amplitudes of the N300 for BM were negatively deflected with

increasing participants' impression of beauty representing as the score of PC1 ($\beta =$

790 $-0.263, t_{(118)} = -3.80, p = 0.0002; R^2 = 0.102, F_{(1,118)} = 14.46, p = 0.0002).$

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