Running head: SHORT TITLE

1

2

3

4

1

Replication of Corrigendum: The Crowd-Emotion-Amplification Effect

Liu Jiachen¹, Yang Qingren¹, & Zhang Yilin¹

¹ Nanjing Normal University

Author Note

- Each member of our group actively participated in every step of the replication
- 6 process, but there was still a focus on division of labor. We had the following
- ⁷ responsibilities: Liu Jiachen was primarily responsible for code verification, creating plots,
- and proofreading the manuscript; Yang Qingren primarily handled the Chinese manuscript
- and statistical verification; Zhang Yilin was primarily responsible for the English
- manuscript, presentation, and PowerPoint production.

Abstract

We replicated the first study of the article "The Crowd-Emotion-Amplification Effect" written by Amit Goldenberg, published in the journal "Psychological Science" in March 13 2021. This article investigates how people judge the emotions of a group of individuals by 14 rapidly scanning their facial expressions. The researchers proposed that when people 15 observe a group, they tend to focus on faces displaying strong emotions, leading to a 16 phenomenon known as the crowd-emotion amplification effect, where the estimated average 17 emotional response of the group is more extreme than the actual average. In the first study 18 (N = 50), the researchers documented the crowd-emotion amplification effect. In the second study (N = 50), even with increased exposure time, the effect was successfully replicated. In the third study (N = 50), the researchers used eye-tracking technology to demonstrate that attention bias towards emotional faces drives the amplification effect. Through replicating this study, we gained a better understanding of the crowd-emotion 23 amplification effect. 24

Keywords: emotions, social cognition, perception, intergroup dynamics, open data, open materials, preregistered

Replication of Corrigendum: The Crowd-Emotion-Amplification Effect

28 Introduction

27

Imaging yourself making a speech in front a group of people, you quickly scan the 29 audience, how can you make split-second judgements about the emotions of the crowd. 30 This article proposes that perceivers preferentially attend to faces exhibiting strong 31 emotions, as highly emotional faces are more salient than neutral faces (Pessoa et al., 2002), which in turn generates a crowd-emotional-amplification effect—estimating a 33 crowd's average emotional response as more extreme than it actually is. One explanation is that people preferentially attend to faces conveying strong emotions over faces with neutral 35 expressions (Eimer & Holmes, 2007; Pessoa et al., 2002). Thus, when a person infers a 36 crowd's emotion, attentional bias toward more emotional faces should contribute to an 37 amplification in the average emotion estimate. When generating rapid evaluation of others' 38 emotions, the capacity for visual representation is finite (Alvarez, 2011; Whitney & 39 Yamanshi Leib, 2018), ensemble coding compensates for this limitation by allowing perceivers to form compressed, summary representations of visual information (Whitney et al., 2014). While how these summaries are computed is still under debate. Whether people 42 encode all items in a set or only a subset, it is plausible they preferentially attend to the most salient items in a set (Kanaya et al., 2018; Sweeny et al., 2013). Kanaya and colleagues (2018) explored this hypothesis, their experiments provided evidence of amplification in the estimation of multiple objects, however, it is thus unclear whether a similar effect of amplification would be evident with faces. By replicating this study, we can further deepen our understanding of the crowd-emotion amplification effect. In the first study (N = 50), researchers documented the presence of the crowd-emotion amplification effect. In the second study (N = 50), even with increased exposure time, the effect was replicated. In the third study (N = 50), researchers employed eye-tracking 51 technology to demonstrate that attentional bias toward emotional faces drives the

generation of the emotion amplification effect. The results of these replicated studies
enable us to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the characteristics and
underlying mechanisms of the crowd-emotion amplification effect. The significance of
conducting replicated studies lies in several aspects. Firstly, replication allows us to
validate and confirm the findings of the original study, ensuring the reliability and
robustness of the observed effects. It helps establish the generalizability of the phenomenon
under investigation and strengthens the overall body of knowledge in the field.

Secondly, replication provides an opportunity to examine the consistency and stability of the effects over different samples, settings, or conditions. By replicating the study with different participants or manipulating certain variables, we can explore the boundary conditions of the phenomenon and gain a deeper understanding of its underlying mechanisms.

Furthermore, replication allows for the identification of potential limitations or factors that may influence the observed effects. If the results of the replication study align with those of the original study, it enhances the confidence in the validity of the findings. On the other hand, if the results differ, it prompts further investigation into the factors contributing to the discrepancy and encourages critical evaluation and refinement of the original research.

Ultimately, the significance of replication lies in its contribution to the cumulative
nature of scientific knowledge. It fosters transparency, rigor, and intellectual progress by
encouraging researchers to build upon existing findings, challenge assumptions, and refine
theories. Through replication, we can gain a more comprehensive and reliable
understanding of the phenomenon under study, and its implications can extend to various
fields, applications, and practical contexts. Through an in-depth exploration of the
crowd-emotion amplification effect, we can develop a more accurate understanding of the
dynamic changes in emotions within a group and apply it in practical contexts. The

significance of this research lies in providing valuable insights into how individuals make

⁸⁰ judgments about emotions when observing a crowd, while also reminding us of important

considerations in social interaction and emotional cognition.

Research hypothesis

Based on the above research background, the study proposed three hypotheses.

84 Hypothesis 1: Participants would show a crowd-emotion-amplification effect, estimating a

crowd's average emotion as more intense than it actually is. Hypothesis 2: The

86 amplification effect would be stronger as the number of faces within an array increased

following Kanaya et al., 2018). Hypothesis 3: Amplification would be more robust for

88 negative emotions than for positive emotions.

89 Methods

90 Participants

82

After conducting a power analysis that suggested that a sample size of 50

participants completing 150 trials would provide power of 97% to support the first

hypothesis, they recruited 50 participants (23 men, 27 women; age: M = 19.52 years, SD = 19.52 years, SD = 19.52

94 1.69), each of whom completed 150 trials.

95 Procedure

In each trial, participants first saw an array containing 1 to 12 faces (Fig. 1). These

faces expressed different intensities of emotion from either neutral-to-angry or

neutral-to-happy continua (Fig. 2). The group-average intensity, the valence of the faces,

and the set size were all chosen randomly on each trial. They did not mix the happy and

angry faces in the same set for two reasons. First, doing so could undermine their ability to

detect an amplification effect. Second, the most-happy and most-angry faces were not

equal in intensity, thus making the average between the two different from zero. They 102 concatenated 50 modifications of a face from neutral to extremely angry and from neutral 103 to extremely happy, effectively creating a visual rendering of 50-points anger or happiness 104 scales. (Fig. 2). On every trial, an array containing between 1 and 12 faces was presented 105 to participants. Faces could appear in any of 12 fixed locations on the screen. The group's 106 mean emotional intensity was randomly set to be between 10 and 40 (on the basis of a 107 50-point scale of angry or happy faces, 1 being neutral and 50 being very angry or very 108 happy). They limited the range of the group means in order to allow distributions of 109 intensity that were as close to uniform as possible within the 50-point scale. The sets were 110 engineered so that the standard deviation of a 12-face array was always 10, from which 111 they randomly chose a subset of 1 to 12 faces. To prevent residual visual processing, they 112 immediately followed each face in the array with a mask at the same location. After 113 viewing the face array and the mask, participants were asked to evaluate the average 114 emotion expressed in the array. They presented a single face bearing a neutral expression 115 on the screen after the array was masked, so participants could make their evaluations. 116 After completing the main task, participants filled out a short survey that included an 117 abbreviated version of the Social Interaction Anxiety Scale, the Need to Belong Scale, and 118 demographic questions including age, gender, race, and education level. Figure 2 A sample 119 of three faces from the neutral-to-angry scale (top) and from the neutral-to-happy scale 120 (bottom) that were used in the studies. Results To measure amplification in estimation of 121 the face sets, they conducted a mix-model analysis of repeated measures, comparing the 122 actual mean emotion expressed in each set with participant estimated mean emotion. The 123 results show that the estimated mean crowd emotion was 1.87 points higher (scale from 1 124 to 50) than the actual mean crowd emotion, b = 2.87, 95% confidence interval (CI) = 125 [2.53, 3.21], SE = 0.17, t(14533) = 16.8, p < .001, R2 = .05, which support the 126 crowd-emotion-amplification hypothesis (Hypothesis 1). They used a single mode to test 127 whether an increase in the number of faces (Hypothesis 2) or the type of emotions 128

expressed by the faces (Hypothesis 3) influenced the crowd-emotion-amplification effect. 129 Results were in line with the second and the third hypothesis. Number of faces 130 significantly predicted an increase in amplification, b = 0.42, 95% confidence interval (CI) 131 = [0.21, 0.64], SE = 0.03, t(7233) = 3.86, p < .001, R2 = .08 (Fig 3). For hypothesis 3, 132 amplification was stronger for crowds expressing negative emotions than crowds expressing 133 positive emotions, b = 0.24, 95% confidence interval (CI) = [0.02, 0.45], SE = 0.11, t(7253) 134 = 2.18, p = .02, R2 = .08. The interaction between number of faces and the valence 135 expressed by the faces was not significant, b = 0.08, 95% confidence interval (CI) = [-0.13, 0.30, SE = 0.11, t(7226) = 0.76, p = .44, R2 = .08. 137

138 Conclusion

143

In sum, the study 1 support crowd-emotional-amplification effect, participants
estimated that face sets were more emotional than they actually were, amplification
increased with set size, and amplification was stronger for negative compared with positive
emotions.

Study Replication Ideas and Process

Our approach to replicating the study involved several steps. First, we followed the 144 open practices checklist provided in the article to locate the necessary raw data and code. 145 We carefully examined the data to verify if any preprocessing had been applied and 146 checked the compatibility of the code with our platform. Second, we conducted a thorough review of the code, cross-referencing it with the article to understand the tasks it performed, verifying the steps involved, and comprehending its logical flow. Third, we 149 attempted to run the original code, identifying any issues that arose, making necessary 150 corrections, and continuing the execution. Fourth, we explored alternative statistical 151 approaches to test whether different results would be obtained. Finally, in sections where 152

visualizations were not provided, we supplemented the analysis with appropriate graphics to enhance the understanding and visual representation of the data obtained.

Republication Results

155

In terms of data, our obtained results are basically consistent with those in the text, 156 but in the results of the analysis of hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 3, there are some 157 discrepancies with the data in the text. Based on the principle of scientific notation, the b 158 for hypothesis 2 ought to be 0.43, but not 0.42, and the p for hypothesis 3 ought to be 0.03 159 but not 0.02. What's more, the SE for hypothesis 2 should be 0.11, but the article puts 160 0.03 (Fig. 4). Also, the same problem exists with the reporting of R2 in the results of 161 assumptions 2 and 3, which should be 0.09 instead of 0.08 (Fig. 5). However, during the 162 process of replication, we encountered several issues. Firstly, there were problems with data 163 cleaning. Even though the data had already undergone preprocessing, there were still some 164 issues that affected the overall functioning of the code. The most common issue was related 165 to data type conversion. The original code often required specific data types, such as factor 166 variables or other types, for performing statistical operations. However, the data had 167 default types, which prevented the statistical analyses from being conducted. Therefore, we 168 redefined the data preprocessing steps. We carefully selected appropriate data types for 169 different scenarios to ensure the accuracy of the results and the smooth execution of the 170 code. Secondly, there were errors in variable names. The column names of the encoded 171 data were incorrect, and the variable names used in the code were also erroneous. We made the necessary corrections to address these issues. Thirdly, the existing data visualizations 173 in the original article were not clear, and the plotting code was incomplete. We filled in the missing code and enhanced the existing images to improve their readability. Moreover, we 175 supplemented the analysis with additional plots using the "gplot" library to provide more 176 intuitive insights. 177

Discussion and Conclusion

178

According to the article on open practices, we obtained the data and analysis code for
the first study in the article. By understanding the content of the code, we ran the
provided code in our local R environment and made necessary corrections, ultimately
obtaining results similar to those in the article.

We conducted tests for three hypotheses. To measure the amplification effect in facial 183 ensemble estimation, we performed a repeated-measures mixed model analysis comparing 184 the difference between the actual average emotion expressed in each ensemble and the 185 participants' estimated average emotion. As each participant encountered four facial 186 identities, we included two random intercepts: facial identity and participant. The results 187 supporting the hypothesis of group emotion amplification showed that the estimated average group emotion was 2.87 points higher (on a scale of 1 to 50) than the actual average group emotion, with b = 2.87, 95% confidence interval (CI) = [2.53, 3.21], SE = 190 0.17, t(14533) = 16.8, p < .001, R2 = .05.1. 191

We used a model to test whether increasing the number of faces (hypothesis 2) or the 192 emotional expression type of faces (hypothesis 3) influenced the group emotion amplification effect. This not only reduced the number of comparisons but also allowed testing for interaction effects between the two variables. For our dependent variable, we 195 created difference scores between participants' estimates of average group emotion and the 196 actual average group emotion; positive scores indicated an amplification effect. We then 197 performed a repeated-measures mixed model analysis where facial quantity, facial 198 emotional value, and their interaction predicted the degree of difference between estimated 199 and actual average emotions. Similar to the previous analysis, we included random 200 intercepts for facial identity and participant. 201

The results were consistent with our second hypothesis: facial quantity significantly predicted an increase in the amplification effect, with b = 0.42, 95% CI = [0.21, 0.64], SE

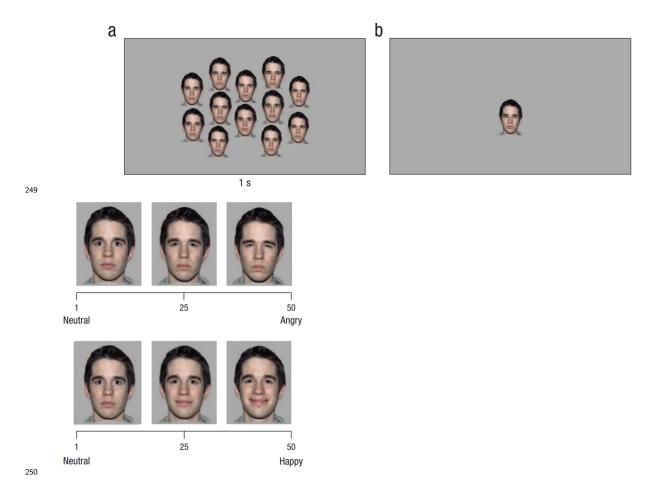
 $_{204} = 0.03$, $_{1}(7233) = 3.86$, $_{1}(7233) = 3.86$, $_{2}(723) = 3.86$, $_{2}(7233) = 3.86$, $_{2}(7233) = 3.86$, $_{2}(7233) = 3.86$, $_{2}(7233) = 3.86$, $_{2}(7233) = 3.86$, $_{2}(7233) = 3.86$, $_{2}(7233) = 3.86$, $_{2}(7233) = 3.86$, $_{2}(7233) =$

In summary, participants' estimations of facial ensembles' emotions were stronger 210 than the actual emotions, and the amplification effect increased with the size of the 211 ensemble, with a stronger effect for negative emotions compared to positive emotions. 212 However, it is important to note that the third effect was relatively weak, consistent with mixed results in the relevant literature. What mechanisms contribute to our amplification 214 effect? Could it be due to participants not having enough time for more than one or two 215 fixations, resulting in a weakened effect that would diminish if they had more time? One 216 possibility is that increasing exposure time would allow participants to view more faces, 217 providing them with a larger sample to estimate the mean and potentially reducing or 218 eliminating the amplification effect. However, another possibility is that increasing 219 exposure time would allow more time to fixate on stronger facial expressions, thereby 220 increasing the magnitude of the amplification effect. We were fortunate that the code was 221 able to produce results consistent with those of the original authors. However, during the 222 process of replication, we still encountered many aspects that could not be perfectly 223 reproduced. There may be bugs in the code, unclean data preprocessing, lack of 224 visualizations resulting in poor readability, and so on. This highlights the importance of 225 advancing open science, where we can learn from the knowledge of others and also identify 226 minor flaws in their research, prompting researchers to make improvements. This plays a 227 crucial role in promoting the overall healthy development of science. 228

229 References

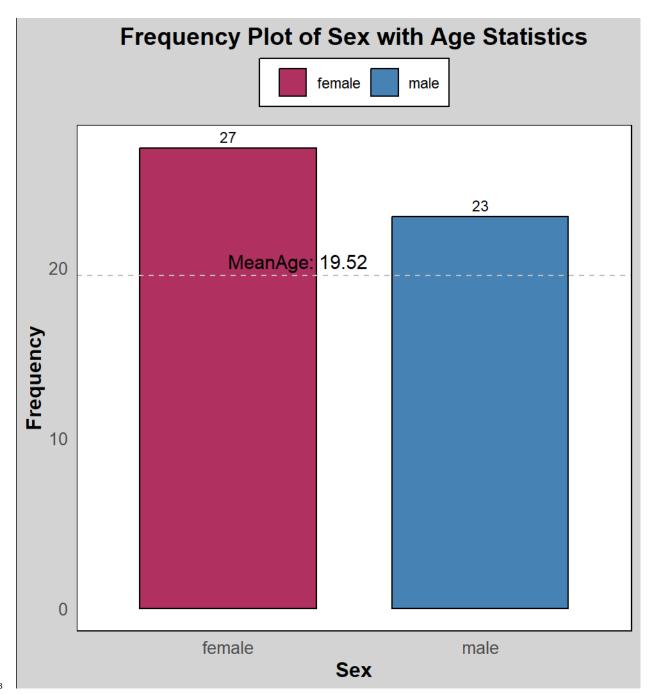
```
Alvarez, G. A. (2011). Representing multiple objects as an ensemble enhances visual
230
   cognition. Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 15(3), 122–131.
231
   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2011.01.003 Eimer, M., & Holmes, A. (2007). Event-related
232
   brain potential correlates of emotional face processing. Neuropsychologia, 45(1), 15–31.
233
   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsycholo gia.2006.04.022 Kanaya, S., Hayashi, M. J., &
234
   Whitney, D. (2018). Exaggerated groups: Amplification in ensemble coding of temporal
235
   and spatial features. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 285(1879),
236
   Article 20172770. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2017.2770 Pessoa, L., McKenna, M.,
237
   Gutierrez, E., & Ungerleider, L. G. (2002). Neural processing of emotional faces requires
238
   attention. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA, 99(17), 11458–11463.
   https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.172403899 Sweeny, T. D., Haroz, S., & Whitney, D. (2013).
   Perceiving group behavior: Sensitive ensemble coding mechanisms for biological motion of
241
   human crowds. Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance,
242
   39(2), 329–337. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0028712 Whitney, D., Haberman, J., & Sweeny,
243
   T. D. (2014). From textures to crowds: Multiple levels of summary statistical perception.
244
   In J. S. Werner & L. M. Chalupa (Eds.), The new visual neurosciences (pp. 695–709). MIT
245
   Press. Whitney, D., & Yamanashi Leib, A. (2018). Ensemble perception. Annual Review
246
   of Psychology, 69(1), 105–129. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-010416-044232
247
```

248 Appendix

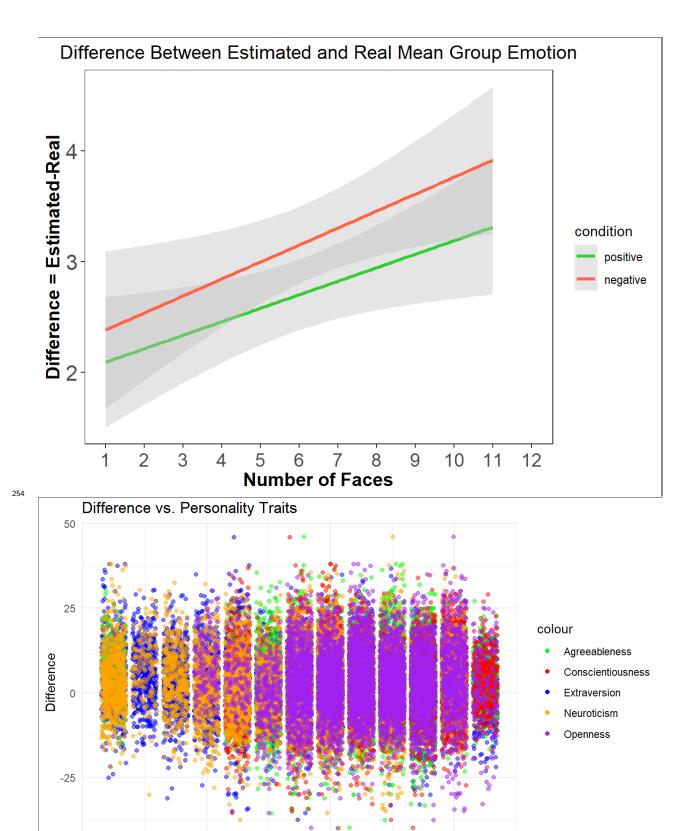


```
Linear mixed model fit by REML. t-tests use Satterthwaite's method ['lmerModLmerTest']
Formula: value ~ ratingType + (1 | id) + (1 | faceIdentity)
   Data: dif
REML criterion at convergence: 109866
Scaled residuals:
   Min 1Q Median
                           3Q
                                 Max
-2.8947 -0.7168 0.0023 0.6852 2.5487
Random effects:
                        Variance Std.Dev.
 Groups
             Name
 id
             (Intercept)
                         2.63
                                 1.621
 faceIdentity (Intercept)
                          0.84
                                 0.916
                        107.25
                                 10.356
 Residual
Number of obs: 14608, groups: id, 50; faceIdentity, 4
Fixed effects:
                                                                     Pr(>|t|)
0.00000013 ***
                                                 df t value
                        Estimate Std. Error
                          24.204
                                     0.527
                                              4.865
                                                      46.0
(Intercept)
ratingTypeEstimated Mean
                           2.874
                                     0.171 14553.558
                                                       16.8 < 0.0000000000000000 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Correlation of Fixed Effects:
           (Intr)
rtngTypEstM -0.163
> #混合线性模型对假设1进行检验,基于dif数据集,以value为响应变量,ratingtype为预测变量,id和faceidentity
[1] 0.04891
> # 计算回归模型"r"的R方值
> confint(r, level =.95)
Computing profile confidence intervals ...
                              2.5 % 97.5 %
.sig01
                             1.2980 2.045
                             0.4388 2.039
.sig02
.sigma
                            10.2380 10.476
(Intercept)
                            23.0742 25.333
ratingTypeEstimated Mean 2.5381 3.210
> # 计算模型"r"的95%的置信区间
```

251



253



Personality Traits

255