- Too Beautiful to be Fake: Attractive Faces are Less Likely to be Judged as

  Artificially Generated
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23 Abstract

Distinguishing between artificial stimuli (e.g., computer-generated faces) and reality has 24 become increasingly difficult given technological advances. However, the factors that drive 25 our beliefs regarding the nature of ambiguous stimuli remain largely unknown. In this 26 study, 150 participants rated 109 pictures of faces on 4 characteristics (attractiveness, 27 beauty, trustworthiness, familiarity). The stimuli were then presented again with the new 28 information that a number of them were AI-generated, and participants had to rate each 29 image according to whether they believed them to be real or fake. Strikingly, despite all images being pictures of real faces from the same database, most participants rated a large 31 amount of them as "fake". Moreover, our results suggest a gender-dependent role of 32 attractiveness on reality judgments, with faces rated as more attractive being classified as more real. We also report links between reality beliefs tendencies and dispositional traits such as narcissism and paranoid ideation. 35

36 Keywords: attractiveness, simulation monitoring, fiction, deep fakes, sense of reality

# Too Beautiful to be Fake: Attractive Faces are Less Likely to be Judged as Artificially Generated

For the first time in human history, technology has enabled the creation of
near-perfect simulations indistinguishable from reality. These artificial, yet realistic
constructs permeate all areas of life through immersive works of fiction, deep fakes (real-like
images and videos generated by deep learning algorithms), virtual and augmented reality
(VR and AR), artificial beings (artificial intelligence "bots" with or without a physical
form), fake news and skewed narratives, of which ground truth is often hard to access
(Nightingale & Farid, 2022). Such developments not only carry important consequences for
the technological and entertainment sectors, but also for security and politics - for instance
if used for propaganda and disinformation, recruitment into malevolent organizations, or
religious indoctrination (Pantserev, 2020). This issue is central to what has been coined
the "post-truth era" (Lewandowsky et al., 2017), in which the distinction (and lack
thereof) between authentic and simulated objects will play a critical role.

While not all simulations have achieved perfect realism (e.g., Computer Generated Images - CGI in movies often lack certain key details that makes them visually distinct from real images, McDonnell & Breidt, 2010), it is fair to assume that these technical limitations will become negligible in the near future, particularly in the field of face generation (Moshel et al., 2022; Nightingale & Farid, 2022; Tucciarelli et al., 2020). Such performance, however, leads to a new question: if real and fake stimuli cannot be distinguished based on their objective characteristics, how can we make judgements regarding their nature?

Literature shows that the context surrounding a stimulus often plays an important role in the assessment of its reality (a process henceforth referred to as *simulation* monitoring, Makowski, 2018; Makowski, Sperduti, et al., 2019). With the extensive search and processing of cues within ambiguous stimuli being an increasingly complex and

cognitively effortful strategy (Michael & Sanson, 2021; Susmann et al., 2021), people tend to draw on peripheral contextual cues (**Figure 1**), such as the source of the stimulus (e.g., in what journal has information been published), and its credibility, authority and expertise, to help facilitate their evaluation (Michael & Sanson, 2021; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Susmann et al., 2021). However, the automization and decontextualization of information allowed by online social media (where text snippets or video excerpts are mass-shared with little context) makes this task increasingly difficult (Berghel, 2018; Y. Chen et al., 2015). In the absence of clear contextual information, what drives our beliefs of reality?

Evidence suggests that inter-individual characteristics play a crucial role in simulation monitoring, with factors such as cognitive style, prior beliefs, and personality traits (Bryanov & Vziatysheva, 2021; Ecker et al., 2022; Sindermann et al., 2020). For instance, individuals with stronger analytical reasoning have been found to better discriminate real from fake stimuli (Pehlivanoglu et al., 2021; Pennycook & Rand, 2019), and prior knowledge or beliefs about the stimulus influences one's perception of it by biasing the attention deployment towards information that is in line with one's expectations (Britt et al., 2019). Furthermore, dispositional traits, such as high levels of narcissism and low levels of openness and conscientiousness, have been associated with greater susceptibility to fake news (Piksa et al., 2022; Sindermann et al., 2020).

Beyond stimulus- and individual-related characteristics, evidence suggests that the interaction between the two (i.e., the subjective reaction associated with the experience of a given stimulus), contributes to simulation monitoring decisions. For instance, the intensity of experienced emotions have been shown to increase one's sense of presence - the extent to which one feels like "being there", as if the object of experience was real - when engaged in a fictional movie or a VR environment (Makowski et al., 2017; Sanchez-Vives & Slater, 2005). Conversely, beliefs that emotional stimuli were fake (e.g., that emotional

## **Determinants of Simulation Monitoring**

### « Is this information real or fake? »

« Real » = genuine, authentic « Fake » = artifical, simulated, deceptive

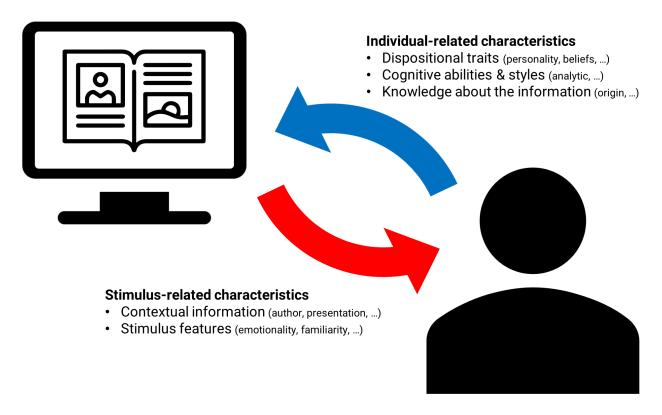


Figure 1. The decision to believe that an ambiguous stimulus (of any form, e.g., images, text, videos, environments, ...) is real or fake depends of individual characteristics (e.g., personality and cognitive styles), stimulus-related features (context, emotionality), and their interaction, which can manifest for instance in our bodily reaction.

- scenes were not authentic but instead involved actors and movie makeup) were found to
- result in emotion down-regulation (Makowski, Sperduti, et al., 2019; Sperduti et al., 2017).
- In line with these findings, studies on susceptibility to fake news have also found
- 93 heightened stimulus emotionality to be associated with greater belief (Bago et al., 2022;
- Martel et al., 2020). Additionally, other factors, such as the stimuli's perceived
- self-relevance (Goldstein, 2009; Sperduti et al., 2016), as well as familiarity (Begg et al.,
- 96 1992), could also play a role in guiding our appraisal of a stimulus.
  - AI-generated images of faces, due to their popularity as a target of CGI technology

and to the possibility of experimentally manipulating facial features, are increasingly used to study face processing in relationship with saliency or emotions, as well as to other important components of face evaluation, such as trustworthiness or attractiveness (Balas 100 & Pacella, 2017; Calbi et al., 2017; Sobieraj & Krämer, 2014; Tsikandilakis et al., 2019). 101 Interestingly, artificially created faces rated as more attractive (by an independent group of 102 raters) were perceived as less real (Tucciarelli et al., 2020). Conversely, Liefooghe et al. 103 (2022) reports that attractiveness ratings were significantly lower when participants who 104 were told that the faces were AI-generated were compared to those who had no prior 105 knowledge. Whereas this line of evidence suggests that reality beliefs have an effect on face 106 attractiveness ratings, the opposite question - whether attractiveness could drive 107 simulation monitoring - has received little attention to date. 108

This study primarily aims at exploring the effect of facial attractiveness on simulation 109 monitoring, i.e., on the beliefs that an image is real or artificially generated. Based on the 110 embodied reality theory (outlined in Makowski, 2018; Makowski, Sperduti, et al., 2019), 111 which suggests that salient and emotional stimuli are perceived to be more real, we 112 hypothesize a quadratic relationship between perceived realness and attractiveness: faces 113 rated as highly attractive or unattractive will more likely be believed to be real. We expect 114 a similar relationship with trustworthiness ratings given its well-established link with 115 attractiveness (Bartosik et al., 2021; Garrido & Prada, 2017; Liefooghe et al., 2022; Little 116 et al., 2011), and a positive relationship with familiarity (as more familiar faces would appear as more salient, self-relevant and anchored in reality). Additionally, we will further 118 explore the link shared by dispositional traits, such as personality and attitude towards AI, 119 with simulation monitoring tendencies. This study aims beyond the investigation of the 120 discriminative accuracy between "true" photos and "true" artificially-generated images, 121 focusing on the beliefs that a stimulus is real or fake, independently of its true nature.

#### Methods

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experiment code, raw data, analysis script with complementary figures and analyses, 125 preregistration, etc.) is available at https://github.com/RealityBending/FakeFace. 126 **Procedure.** In the first part of the study, participants answered a series of 127 personality questionnaires, including the Mini-IPIP6 (24 items, Sibley et al., 2011) 128 measuring 6 personality traits, the SIAS-6 and the SPS-6 (6 items each, Peters et al., 129 2012) assessing social anxiety levels, the FFNI-BF (30 items, Jauk et al., 2022) measuring 130 9 facets of narcissism; the R-GPTS (18 items, Freeman et al., 2021) measuring 2 131 dimensions related to paranoid thinking; and the IUS-12 (12 items, Carleton et al., 2007) 132 measuring intolerance to uncertainty. Self-rated attractiveness was also assessed using 2 133 items - one measuring general attractiveness ("How attractive would you say you are?", 134 Marcinkowska et al. (2021)) and the other measuring physical attractiveness ("How would 135 you rate your own physical attractiveness relative to the average", Spielmann et al. 136 (2020)). Finally, we devised 5 items pertaining to expectations about AI-generated image 137 technology ("I think current Artificial Intelligence algorithms can generate very realistic 138 images"). To lower their saliency and the possibility of it priming the subjects about the task, we mixed these items with 5 items from the general attitudes towards AI scale (GAAIS, Schepman & Rodway, 2020). This scale was presented after the social anxiety questionnaires. 3 attention check questions were also embedded in the surveys.

In line with open-science standards, all the material (stimuli generation code,

In the second part of this study, 109 images of neutral-expression faces from the validated American Multiracial Face Database (AMFD, (J. M. Chen et al., 2021)) were presented to the participants for 500ms each, in a randomized order, following a fixation cross display (750 ms). After each stimulus presentation, ratings of *Trustworthiness* ("I find this person trustworthy") and *Familiarity* ("This person reminds me of someone I know") were collected using visual analog scales. Notably, as facial attractiveness is a

multidimensional construct, encompassing evolutionary, sociocultural, biological as well as cognitive aspects (Han et al., 2018; Rhodes et al., 2006), we assessed attractiveness using 2 visual analog scales, measuring general *Attractiveness* ("I find this person attractive") and physical *Beauty* ("This face is good-looking").

In the last part of the study, participants were informed that about half of the images previously seen were AI-generated (the instructions used a cover story which mentioned that the research was aimed at validating a new face generation algorithm). The same set of stimuli was displayed again for 500 ms in a new randomized order. This time, after each display, participants were asked to express their belief regarding the nature of the stimulus using a visual analog scale (with *Fake* and *Real* as the two extremes). The study was implemented using *jsPsych* (De Leeuw, 2015), and the exact instructions are available in the experiment code.

Participants. One hundred and fifty participants were recruited via *Prolific*, a crowd-sourcing platform recognized for providing high quality data (Peer et al., 2022). The only inclusion criterion was a fluent proficiency in English to ensure that the experiment instructions would be well-understood. Participants were incentivised with a reward of about £7.5 for completing the study, which took about 45 minutes to finish. Demographic variables (age, gender, sexual orientation, education and ethnicity) were self-reported on a voluntary basis.

We excluded 5 participants that either failed 2 (>= 66%) or more attention check questions, took an implausibly short time to finish the questionnaires or had incomplete responses. The final sample included 145 participants (Mean age = 28.3, SD = 9.0, range: [19, 66]; Sex: 48.3% females, 51.0% males, 0.7% others).

Data Analysis. The real-fake ratings (measured originally on a [-1, 1] analog scale)
were converted into two scores, corresponding to two conceptually distinct mechanisms:
the dichotomous *belief* (real or fake, derived based on the sign of the rating) and the

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confidence (the rating's absolute value) associated with that belief. The former was
analyzed using logistic mixed models (with the participants and images entered as random
factors), which modelled the probability of assigning a face to the real (>= 0) as opposed
to fake (< 0). The latter, as well as the other face ratings (attractiveness, beauty,
trustworthiness and familiarity), was modelled using beta regressions (suited for outcome
variables expressed in percentages).

We started by investigating the effect of the procedure and instructions to check
whether the stimuli (which were all images of real faces) were judged as fake in sufficient
proportion to warrant their analysis. Additionally, we assessed the effect of the re-exposure
delay, i.e., the time between the first presentation of the image (corresponding to the face
ratings) and the second presentation (for the real-fake rating).

The determinants of reality beliefs were modelled separately for attractiveness, 186 beauty, trustworthiness, and familiarity, using second order raw polynomials coefficients to 187 allow for possible quadratic relationships (Figure 2). Aside from attractiveness 188 (conceptualized as a general construct), models for beauty, trustworthiness and familiarity 189 were adjusted for the two remaining variables mutatis mutandis. We took into account 190 the gender of participants and stimuli by retaining the stimuli that were aligned with the 191 participants' sexual preference (e.g., female faces for homosexual females, male faces for 192 heterosexual females, and both for bisexual participants), and modeling the interaction 193 with the participants' gender. For the attractiveness and beauty models, we then added 194 the interaction with the reported self-attractiveness (the average of the two questions 195 pertaining to it) to investigate its potential modulatory effect. Finally, we investigated the 196 inter-individual correlates of simulation monitoring with similar models (but this time, for 197 all items regardless of the participant's gender or sexual orientation) for each questionnaire, 198 with all of the subscales as orthogonal predictors. 199

The analysis was carried out using R 4.2 (R Core Team, 2022), the tidyverse

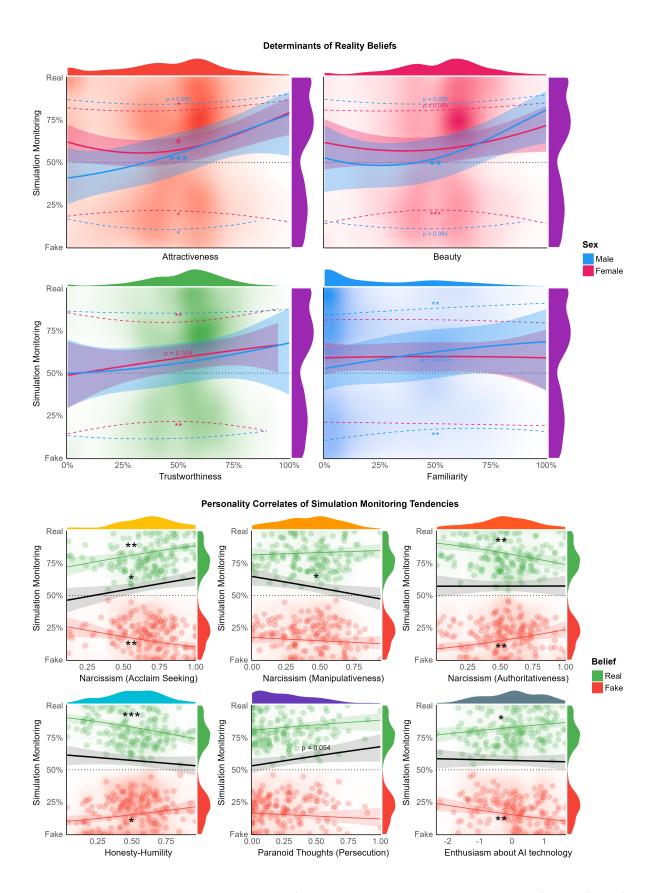


Figure 2. Top part shows the effect of face ratings on 1) the probability of judging a face as real vs. fake (solid line) and 2) on the confidence associated with that judgement (dashed lines) depending on the sex. Bottom part shows the effect of personality traits on the belief (black line) and the confidence associated with it (colored lines). The points are the average per participant confidence for both types of judgements. Stars indicate significance (p < .001\*\*\*, p < .01\*\*, p < .05\*)

(Wickham et al., 2019), and the *easystats* collection of packages (Lüdecke et al., 2021, 2019, 2020; Makowski et al., 2020; Makowski, Ben-Shachar, et al., 2019). As all the details, scripts and complimentary analyses are open-access, we will focus in the manuscript on findings that are highly statistically significant (p < .01).

#### 205 Results

Manipulation Check. Only one image file yielded a strong simulation monitoring 206 bias (> 85%), being classified as fake by 88.7% of participants. This image was removed 207 from further analysis, leaving 108 trials per participant. On average, across participants, 208 44% of images (95%~CI [0.12, 0.64]) were judged as fake and 56% of images (95%~CI [0.36, 209 0.84) as real. An intercept-only model with the participants and images as random factors 210 showed that the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC), which can be interpreted as the 211 proportion of variance explained by the random factors, was of 9.0% for the participants 212 and 9.6% for the stimuli. 213

While the delay of stimulus re-exposure stimulus did not have a significant effect on participants' beliefs of reality (OR = 1.00, 95% CI = [0.99, 1.00]), judgement confidence was found to be negatively associated with re-exposure delay when the faces were judged as real ( $\beta = -0.006, 95\%$  CI = [-0.1, 0.002], p = .004)

**Determinants of Simulation Monitoring.** Attractiveness had a significant 218 positive and linear relationship  $(R_{marginal}^2=2.0\%)$  with the belief that a stimulus was real 219  $(\beta_{poly1}=16.57,\,95\%\ CI=[7.33,25.82],\,z=3.51,\,p<.001)$  for males, and a quadratic 220 relationship for females ( $\beta_{poly2} = 7.82, 95\%$  CI = [1.81, 13.84], z = 2.55, p = .011), with both non-attractive and attractive faces being judged as more real. Attractiveness was also found to have a significant positive and quadratic relationship with confidence in judging 223 faces both as real  $(\beta_{poly2} = 4.30, 95\% \ CI = [0.97, 7.64], z = 2.53, p = .011)$  and as fake 224  $(\beta_{poly2} = 5.23, 95\% \ CI = [0.86, 9.60], z = 2.35, p = .019)$  for females. For males, however, a 225 significant negative and quadratic relationship was found between attractiveness ratings 226

and belief confidence only for faces judged as fake ( $\beta_{poly2} = -9.92$ ,

95% CI = [-18.99, -0.86], z = -2.15, p = .032). There was no interaction with reported

self-attractiveness.

Beauty, adjusted for trustworthiness and familiarity, had a significant positive and linear relationship ( $R_{marginal}^2 = 2.0\%$ ) with the belief that a stimulus was real ( $\beta_{poly1} = 11.82, 95\%$  CI = [4.28, 20.21], z = 2.76, p = .006) for males only. No effect on confidence was found, aside from a quadratic relationship in females for faces judged as fake, suggesting that non-beautiful and highly beautiful faces were rated as fake with more confidence than average faces ( $\beta_{poly2} = 7.84, 95\%$  CI = [3.39, 12.29], z = 3.46, p < .001). There was no interaction with reported self-attractiveness.

Trustworthiness, adjusted for beauty and familiarity, had a predominantly positive and linear relationship ( $R_{marginal}^2 = 2.0\%$ ) with the belief that a stimulus was real ( $\beta_{poly1} = 6.44, 95\%$  CI = [-0.11, 13.00], z = 1.93, p = .0054) for females only. No effect on confidence was found for males, whereas a quadratic relationship was found for females for both faces judged as real ( $\beta_{poly2} = 6.14, 95\%$  CI = [2.13, 10.14], z = 3.00, p = .003) as well as fake ( $\beta_{poly2} = 6.12, 95\%$  CI = [1.49, 10.75], z = 2.59, p = .001), suggesting that non-trustworthy and highly trustworthy faces were rated with more confidence than average faces.

We did not find any significant relationships for familiarity adjusted for beauty and trustworthiness ( $R_{marginal}^2 = 2.0\%$ ). However, a significant positive and linear relationship was found between familiarity and the confidence judgements of rating faces as real ( $\beta_{poly1} = 9.98, 95\%$  CI = [3.83, 16.13], z = 3.18, p = .001) whereas a negative linear relationship was found with those judged as fake ( $\beta_{poly1} = -12.41$ , 95% CI = [-20.27, -4.54], z = -3.09, p = .002) for males only. This hence suggests that males more confidently judge faces as real with when they are familiar, and as fake when they are unfamiliar.

Inter-Individual Correlates of Simulation Monitoring. The models including
the personality traits suggested that *Honesty-Humility* had a significant negative
relationship with the confidence associated with real as well as fake judgements
( $\beta_{real} = -1.62, 95\% \ CI = [-2.55, -0.70], z = -3.43, p < .001; \beta_{fake} = -1.16,$ 95% CI = [-2.09, -0.23], z = -2.45, p = 0.014).

Significant positive associations were found between the probability of judging faces 258 as real and dimensions of narcissism such as Acclaim Seeking ( $\beta = 2.24$ , 259 95%  $CI = [1.17, 4.27], z = 2.44, p = .015), and Manipulativeness (<math>\beta = 0.47,$ 260 95% CI = [0.25, 0.87], z = -2.4, p = 0.017). Confidence judgements also shared significant 261 links with narcissism through various facets, such as a positive relationship between the 262 confidence for both real and fake judgements with Acclaim Seeking ( $\beta_{real} = 1.65$ , 263 95%  $CI = [0.59, 2.70], z = 3.07, p = .002; \beta_{fake} = 1.62, 95\% \ CI = [0.56, 2.68], z = 3.00, p = .002; \beta_{fake} = 1.62, p = .$ 264 p = .003), and a negative relationship with Authoritativeness ( $\beta_{real} = -1.57$ , 265 95%  $CI = [-2.58, -0.57], z = -3.08, p = .002; \beta_{fake} = -1.49, 95\% CI = [-2.50, -0.48],$ z = -2.89, p = .004).

A positive trend was found in the relationship between the *Persecutory Ideation* dimension of paranoid thinking and the belief that the faces were real ( $\beta = 1.87$ , 95% CI = [0.99, 3.54], z = 1.93, p = .054).

The Prospective Anxiety aspect of intolerance to uncertainty shared a negative trend in its association with confidence ratings ( $\beta_{real}=1.43,\,95\%$   $CI=[0.10,2.76],\,z=2.10,$   $p=.036;\,\beta_{fake}=-0.91,\,95\%$   $CI=[-1.93,0.11],\,z=-1.75,\,p=.081$ ). No significant effect was found for social anxiety.

Questions pertaining to the attitude towards AI were reduced to 3 dimensions through factor analysis, labelled AI-Enthusiasm (loaded by items expressing interest and excitement in AI development and applications), AI-Realness (loaded by items expressing positive opinions on the ability of AI to create realistic material), and AI-Danger (loaded by items expressing concerns on the unethical misuse of AI technology). However, only AI-Enthusiasm displayed a significant positive relationship with the confidence in both real and fake judgements ( $\beta_{real} = 0.21$ , 95% CI = [0.02, 0.40], z = 2.20, p = .028;  $\beta_{fake} = 0.31$ , 95% CI = [0.12, 0.50], z = -8.90, p < 0.001).

#### 283 Discussion

This study aimed at investigating the effect of facial ratings (attractiveness, beauty, 284 trustworthiness and familiarity) on simulation monitoring, i.e., on the belief that a stimulus 285 was artificially generated. The most striking result, in our opinion, is that despite all the 286 stimuli being real faces from the same database, all participants believed (to high degrees 287 of confidence) that a significant proportion of them were fake. This finding can be seen as 288 a testimony not only to the effectiveness of our instructions, but also to the current 289 expectations regarding CGI technology in the population, as well as to the volatility of our 290 sense of reality. It underlines the strong impact of prior expectations and information on 291 reality beliefs. In fact, stimuli-related and participant-related characteristics accounted 292 together for less than 20% of the beliefs variance, suggesting that a large part of it is 293 associated with other subjective processes. 294

Although attractiveness did not seem to be the primary drive underlying simulation 295 monitoring of face images, we do nonetheless report significant associations, with a different 296 pattern observed depending on the participant's gender. The quadratic relationship found 297 for female participants is aligned with our hypothesis that salient faces (i.e., rated as very attractive or very unattractive) are judged to be more real. The fact that this effect did not reach significance for beauty underlines that attractiveness judgement, and its role in 300 simulation monitoring, is a multidimensional construct that cannot be reduced to physical 301 facial attractiveness, in particular for women (Buunk et al., 2002; Qi & Ying, 2022). In 302 fact, when the given stimulus was rated very high or low on beauty, female participants 303

were more confident in their judgement of fake faces only, suggesting that physical beauty only partially explains the role attractiveness plays in simulation monitoring decisions.

Interestingly, we found a significant positive linear relationship in male participants 306 for both attractiveness and beauty on simulation monitoring that we could interpret under 307 an evolutionary lens. Specifically, males purportedly place more emphasis on facial attractiveness as a sign of reproductive potential, as compared with females, who tend to 309 value characteristics signaling resource acquisition capabilities (Buunk et al., 2002; Fink et 310 al., 2006; Qi & Ying, 2022). It is thus possible that the evolutionary weight associated with 311 attractiveness skewed men's perceived saliency towards attractive faces, rendering them significantly more salient than unattractive faces and in turn distorted the relationship 313 with simulation monitoring. However, future studies should test this saliency-based 314 hypothesis by measuring constructs closer to salience and its effects, for instance using 315 neuroimaging (Indovina & Macaluso, 2007; Lou et al., 2015) or physiological markers (e.g., 316 heart rate deceleration, Skora et al., 2022). 317

Our results found a positive linear trend between trustworthiness and simulation 318 monitoring for females only. Given prior evidence that faces presented as 310 computer-generated were rated less trustworthy (Balas & Pacella, 2017; Hoogers, 2021; 320 Liefooghe et al., 2022), we expected such a linear association to be more clearly present for 321 both genders. One of the underlying mechanisms that possibly contributed to this 322 dimorphism could be the increased risk-taking aversion reported in females (explained 323 evolutionarily as a compromise to their reproductive potential, Van Den Akker et al., 2020), to which perceived facial trustworthiness relates (Hou & Liu, 2019). However, if that was the case, faces judged as highly untrustworthy should have appeared as even more 326 salient (representing an evolutionary threat), and hence be judged as more real, leading to 327 a quadratic relationship between trustworthiness and simulation monitoring instead. 328 Further studies are needed to investigate the causes of the increased simulation monitoring 329

sensitivity to trustworthiness in females.

Contrary to our hypothesis, familiarity was not found to be significantly related to 331 simulation monitoring decisions. Interestingly, there were significant linear relationships 332 between familiarity and confidence judgements for males only, where familiarity increased 333 the confidence of reality beliefs. This could be taken into perspective with previous studies, 334 which report females to be relatively superior at face recall and recognition (Lewin & 335 Herlitz, 2002; Mishra et al., 2019), displaying higher levels of facial memory (Sommer et 336 al., 2013) and exhibiting greater metacognitive awareness (Kaplan, 2012). Hence, it is possible that the confidence in evaluating faces are less malleable to external factors such as face familiarity for females. Indeed, metacognitive awareness has been associated with 339 overconfidence in making judgements (Klein et al., 2018; Mata et al., 2013). However, it 340 should be noted that this has not been corroborated by recent research, which found males 341 were significantly overconfident in face recall, regardless of their performance accuracy 342 (Bailey, 2021; Herbst, 2020). Furthermore, the present study's distribution of familiarity 343 ratings was strongly skewed, and only a low number of pictures was rated as highly 344 familiar. As such, future studies should clarify this point by experimentally manipulating 345 familiarity, for instance by modulating the amount of exposure to items before querying the simulation monitoring judgements.

Regarding the role of inter-individual characteristics in simulation monitoring tendencies, we found that participants with higher scores of honesty-humility, a trait related to an increased risk perception and aversion (Levidi et al., 2022; Weller & Thulin, 2012), displayed a lower confidence in their simulation monitoring judgements. Notably, greater narcissistic tendencies in dimensions such as acclaim seeking and manipulativeness was found to be associated with a higher number of faces judged as real. Indeed, this finding is in line with recent research suggesting that narcissists are more susceptible to fake news (Piksa et al., 2022; Sindermann et al., 2020), possibly because they were less

likely to engage in cognitive strategies such as reflective thinking (Ahadzadeh et al., 2021;
Littrell et al., 2020) and are more vigilant when attending to external stimuli (Carolan,
2017; Eddy, 2021; Grapsas et al., 2020). As such, individuals with greater narcissistic
tendencies could have perceived the face images as more salient, and engaged in less
analytical reasoning, leading to their increased perceptions of the faces being real.

Moreover, we put the significant positive links between narcissistic acclaim seeking 361 and confidence judgements in perspective with the negative correlation between 362 honesty-humility and narcissism (Hodson et al., 2018), thus confirming the evidence regarding the relationship between narcissistic grandiosity and over-confidence in decision-making (Brunell & Buelow, 2017; Campbell et al., 2004; Chatterjee & Pollock, 2017; O'Reilly & Hall, 2021). Although an inverse effect was found for the narcissistic facet of authoritativeness, we interpret this correlation as related to a higher response 367 assertiveness. Taken together, these results suggest that participants with low humility and 368 high recognition desires are more confident in their judgement regarding the real or fake 369 nature of ambiguous stimuli. Participants with opposite traits might perceive a higher risk 370 in the decision-making process and its potential consequences (e.g., being seen as bad at 371 the task at hand), resulting in more conservative confidence ratings. 372

Despite the ubiquity of AI, the literature pertaining to the influence of people's AI 373 attitudes on simulation monitoring is scarce. Contrary to our expectations, we did not find 374 evidence for the role of participants' expectations regarding the capabilities of AI 375 technology (in terms of the realism of its productions). Instead, we found only one's enthusiasm about AI technology to be related to an increased confidence in simulation 377 monitoring ratings. This could potentially be because participants with a highly positive attitude towards AI perceive themselves as having greater knowledge about AI and its 379 capabilities (Said et al., 2022), hence permitting themselves to be more confident in their 380 simulation monitoring decisions. This result is in line with reports that AI attitudes 381

interacts with people's perceived self-knowledge to influence their perception of the opportunities and risks accorded by AI applications (@ Said et al., 2022).

Our findings suggest - though with weak significance - a positive link between
paranoid ideation and the tendency to believe that the stimuli were real. Given previous
reports that people with higher levels of paranoia are more sensitive to cues of social threat
(Fornells-Ambrojo et al., 2015; Freeman et al., 2003; King & Dudley, 2017), it could thus
be possible that stronger paranoid traits was associated with a greater perception of faces
as salient and emotional, hence increasing their beliefs of its realness. This hypothesis, if
confirmed by future studies, would be in line with previous findings that persecutory
delusions are predicted by a greater sense of presence in a VR environment populated with
virtual characters (Freeman et al., 2005).

In contrast, intolerance to uncertainty, a trait related to aversion towards 393 unpredictable situations, was found to be negatively correlated to individuals' confidence in 394 real judgements (J. T.-H. Chen & Lovibond, 2016; Jensen et al., 2014). This is consistent 395 with previous reports that uncertainty intolerance correlates with under-confidence in 396 decision-making in ambiguous scenarios (Jensen et al., 2014; Wei, 2021). Interestingly, no 397 significant effect on individuals' perceptions of realness was observed despite uncertainty 398 intolerance being commonly associated with enhanced threat appraisal (J. T.-H. Chen & 399 Lovibond, 2016; Jensen et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2022). To this end, recent studies have 400 attempted to disentangle the perception of threat from the experience of negative affect in 401 ambiguous situations, conceptualising uncertainty intolerance as a response to unpredictability independent of threat altogether (Milne et al., 2019; Pepperdine et al., 2018). Taking this into perspective with the positive relations found between paranoid traits and beliefs of reality, future studies could clarify the role of threat appraisal on 405 simulation monitoring processes, and attempt to delineate the specific mechanisms 406 involved. 407

On a methodological level, although the order of presentation of the facial images was 408 randomized to reduce effects of adaptation, participants were more confident in their 409 judgements for faces perceived as real following a shorter re-exposure delay. This may be 410 because shorter re-exposure delays led to the faces being better remembered and appearing 411 more familiar than faces that were displayed after a longer delay, thereby triggering 412 self-referential and autobiographical memory processing during the repeated display 413 (Abraham & Von Cramon, 2009; Gobbini et al., 2013; Taylor et al., 2009). Indeed, this 414 finding is in line with studies that show an up-regulation of emotions when fictional stimuli 415 were associated with familiarity (Makowski et al., 2017; Sperduti et al., 2016), thus biasing 416 its salience and perceived realness. If that was the case, we would expect shorter 417 re-exposure delays to impact the decision bias as well towards reality, rather than simply 418 the confidence. Future studies should further investigate the modulatory effects of types and degrees of familiarity on perceived realness judgements.

Understanding the factors driving the reality beliefs pertaining to ambiguous stimuli 421 is becoming increasingly pertinent given the rapid technological advances. The aim of the 422 present study was to examine whether a subset of specific characteristics, in particular face 423 attractiveness, significantly influences our simulation monitoring decisions. We found faces 424 rated as attractive to be perceived as more real, with a possible sexual dimorphism 425 affecting the shape of the relationship. We also found that inter-individual traits, such as 426 narcissistic acclaim-seeking and manipulativeness, as well as persecutory ideation, were 427 related to a systematic bias towards beliefs that the stimuli were real or fake. 428

Regarding the possible study limitations, the current paradigm required participants
to judge the realness of faces they had prior exposure to (which was done to prevent reality
judgements to influence the other ratings). Although the effect of re-exposure delay was
negligible, the potential bias induced by face familiarity (as compared to judging
completely new items) cannot be discarded. Future studies could examine that by

441

incorporating novel face images or increasing the duration of the re-exposure delay. It has
to be noted that the magnitude of the effects found was relatively small, suggesting that
the facial features measured in the study were not the key determinants of simulation
monitoring. On top of exploring new potential mechanisms, future studies should include a
more thorough debriefing to try to capture what conscious strategies (if any) the
participants used (e.g., focusing on some features of the stimuli - like hair or eyes in the
case of faces, or based on a gut feeling).

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