Spatio-temporal dynamics of face perception

Muukkonen, I.*[1], Ölander, K.[1], Numminen, J.[2], & Salmela, V.R.[1,3]

[1]Department of Psychology and Logopedics, University of Helsinki, Finland

[2]Helsinki Medical Imaging Centre at Töölö Hospital, Helsinki University Hospital, Finland

[3]Ami centre, Aalto Neuroimaging, Aalto University, Finland

*Corresponding author: ilkka.muukkonen@helsinki.fi

Abstract

Temporal and spatial neural processing of faces have been investigated rigorously, but few studies have unified these dimensions to reveal the spatio-temporal dynamics postulated by the models of face processing. We used support vector machine decoding and representational similarity analysis to combine information from different locations (fMRI), timepoints (EEG), and theoretical models. By correlating information matrices derived from pair-wise decodings of neural responses to different facial expressions (neutral, happy, fearful, angry), we found early EEG timepoints (starting around 130 ms) to match fMRI data from early visual cortex (EVC), and later timepoints (starting around 190ms) to match data from occipital and fusiform face areas (OFA/FFA) and posterior superior temporal sulcus (pSTS). The later correlations were higher in left than right hemisphere. According to model comparisons, the EEG classifications were based more on low-level visual features than expression intensities or categories. In fMRI, the model comparisons revealed change along the processing hierarchy, from low-level visual feature coding in EVC to coding of intensity of expressions in the right pSTS. The results highlight the importance of a multimodal approach for understanding functional roles of different brain regions in face processing.

Keywords: *EEG, fMRI, RSA, face expression, decoding, face perception*

1 Introduction

Faces contain information on different socially important categories, such as identity and the emotional state of an individual. Behaviorally, we excel at dividing these different sources of information, and can easily identify a person just from their face despite changes in expressions or viewpoints. Indeed, the processing of faces has been suggested to be 'special' (Richler & Gauthier, 2014), and to be processed more holistically than other visual stimuli (Shen & Palmeri, 2015; Tanaka & Simonyi, 2016; but see also Gold, Mundy, & Tjan, 2012). Newborns recognize their mother's face (Bushnell, 2001; Bushnell, Sai, & Mullin, 1989) despite their still crude visual skills (Dobson & Teller, 1978), prenatal children focus more on face-shaped than non-face-shaped objects (Reid et al., 2017) and inversion distorts face recognition more than recognition of other objects (Taubert, Apthorp, Aagten-Murphy, & Alais, 2011; Valentine, 1988; Yin, 1969). Thus, faces provide an excellent case for studying how our brain processes nuanced multidimensional information, in which the change of one dimension (e.g. expression) must be separated from the changes of another dimension (e.g. identity).

Several models explaining the neural processing of faces have been suggested (Duchaine & Yovel, 2015; Haxby, Hoffman, & Gobbini, 2000). One main feature in the models is the separation of the processing of changeable and invariant aspects. Changeable aspects, (or motion: Bernstein & Yovel, 2015) such as expressions, are mainly processed in a dorsal stream, especially in superior temporal sulcus (STS; Greening, Mitchell, & Smith, 2018; Said, Haxby, & Todorov, 2011; Zhang et al., 2016), while invariant aspects, such as identity, are processed in a ventral stream from part-based processing in occipital face area (OFA; Atkinson & Adolphs, 2011; Henriksson, Mur, & Kriegeskorte, 2015; Pitcher, Walsh, & Duchaine, 2011), to fusiform face area (FFA; Anzellotti, Fairhall, & Caramazza, 2014; Carlin & Kriegeskorte, 2017; Dobs, Schultz, Bülthoff, & Gardner, 2018; Kanwisher & Yovel, 2006), and finally to highest-level, viewpoint invariant processing in ventral anterior temporal lobe (vATL; Anzellotti & Caramazza, 2016; Anzellotti et al., 2014; Collins & Olson, 2015; Kriegeskorte, Formisano, Sorger, & Goebel, 2007). Hierarchical processing is supported by single-cell recordings from macaques that have found viewpoint-specific coding of face identities in middle lateral and middle fungus, mirror-symmetrical processing in anterior lateral patch, and finally almost viewpoint-invariant identity representations in the anterior medial patch (Chang & Tsao, 2017; Freiwald & Tsao, 2010).

Said and colleagues (2010) found that in STS, the neural activity patterns elicited by video clips of expressions were similar to behavioral similarity ratings of the expressions, suggesting the processing of changeable features in STS. The processing of STS has also been studied by contrasting different (full) expressions to each other or to neutral faces. Specifically, Greening and colleagues (2018) showed significant cross-classification of happy and neutral faces from

other expressions when training with eyes and testing on faces with eyes excluded, and vice versa. However, they found no significant cross-classification of fearful, angry, and disgusted faces. The STS thus seems to be especially sensitive to differences between expressional and neutral faces (Greening et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2016).

Temporally, the processing of faces starts around 90 ms (Dima, Perry, Messaritaki, Zhang, & Singh, 2018; Sugase, Yamane, Ueno, & Kawano, 1999), perhaps already somewhat sensitive to differences in expression (Dima et al., 2018; Müller-Bardorff et al., 2018). Most robust evidence for separating faces from other objects is found in the N170-component (at ~170 ms; for a review, see Rossion & Jacques, 2011), also sensitive to some expressions (Hinojosa, Mercado, & Carretié, 2015). Coding of identities is usually found later. Although earliest results are found from ~100 ms onwards (Ambrus, Kaiser, Cichy, & Kovács, 2019; Vida, Nestor, Plaut, & Behrmann, 2017), higher-level identity representations surpassing low-level visual information (Vida et al., 2017), as well as sensitivity to familiar faces (Schweinberger & Neumann, 2016), are found later, at around 250 ms, and differentiation of same sex identities only after 400 ms (Ambrus et al., 2019).

Although quite much is known about the face specific brain regions and temporal time course of face processing, a challenge still exists regarding how to combine spatial and temporal information. One possibility is to compare response magnitudes within different imaging methods. In a simultaneous EEG-fMRI study, face selectivity (response magnitude between faces and images of chairs) in fMRI was found to correlate with earlier EEG timepoints in OFA than in FFA and STS (Sadeh, Podlipsky, Zhdanov, & Yovel, 2010). Another possibility to combine different imaging methods is to use multivariate analysis methods (Edelman, Grill-Spector, Kushnir, & Malach, 1998; Haxby et al., 2001; Kriegeskorte, Mur, & Bandettini, 2008), such as stimulus reconstruction, classification/decoding and representational similarity analysis (RSA; Kriegeskorte et al., 2008), which can capture more nuanced information structures than univariate methods. In RSA, the data is projected to a geometrical space – representational dissimilarity matrix (RDM) – that highlights the relative differences between responses, not the response amplitudes per se. As these RDMs are indifferent to the type of data that they are derived from, the RDM from for example a certain timepoint in EEG can be compared to the RDMs from a certain cluster of voxels in fMRI; thus combining the good temporal accuracy of M/EEG with the good spatial accuracy of fMRI. This approach has been used in studying audiovisual attention networks (Salmela, Salo, Salmi, & Alho, 2018), visual object categorization (Cichy & Pantazis, 2017; Cichy et al., 2014, 2016), and differences between neural responses to tasks and images (Hebart, Bankson, Harel, Baker, & Cichy, 2018). These studies showed that, within the first few hundred milliseconds, processing of visual object categories spreads from early visual areas (V1) to lateral occipital complex (LOC; Cichy et al., 2016; Kietzmann et al., 2019). In the current study, we apply this method to study

the processing of faces.

We used RSA to compare neural representations of faces from EEG and fMRI to reveal the spatio-temporal dynamics of face processing (Figure 1). We compared representational dissimilarity matrixes (RDMs) – based on pair-wise SVM-decodings– derived from different time points in the EEG data and from searchlight voxels in the fMRI data. Our stimuli were faces of different identities (2 males, 2 females, 12 morphed identities) and different expressions, which varied both in their category (neutral, happy, fearful, and angry) and intensity (full intensity and morphed ½ intensity). We also compared the data to models representing either expression category, expression intensity, or low-level visual features, allowing us to look for possibly different neural codes in different parts and at different times in the brain. While several studies have looked for neural representations of different expression categories, and a few expression intensities (Surguladze et al., 2003; Winston, O'Doherty, & Dolan, 2003), our study provides a novel way to compare whether expression categories and intensities have different representations in the brain. Especially, several studies have found STS to separate especially neutral faces from expressions (Greening et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2016). By including morphed expressions, our study design provides an opportunity to look more closely at whether these results were due to expression intensity coding in the STS.

2 Methods

2.1 Participants

A total of 18 volunteers were recruited to participate in the study. One participant dropped out before completing the first part. Thus, 17 people (7 males, mean age = 24, SD = 3.4) completed the study. All participants were right-handed, had normal or corrected to normal vision and had no (self-reported) diagnosed difficulties in recognizing faces (e.g. prosopagnosia). They were recruited through the students' mailing list of the Faculty of Behavioural Sciences at the University of Helsinki, and they received monetary compensation for the participation.

2.2 Ethics

The present study was conducted in accordance with the declaration of Helsinki and was reviewed and approved by Ethics Review Board in the Humanities and Social and Behavioural Sciences of the University of Helsinki. All participants gave informed consent and were screened to be suitable for fMRI-scanning with the standard procedure of the AMI-centre of Aalto University.

2.3 Stimuli

The stimuli consisted of 112 full-colour images of faces. The root-mean-square contrast was 0.2, and width and height were approximately 8° and 11°, respectively. The images contained four identities (2 females, 2 males) from the Faces database (Ebner, Riediger, & Lindenberger, 2010), and four different expressions from each identity (neutral, angry, happy and fearful). These original images (4 expressions from 4 identities) were first preprocessed with Corel Paintshop Pro X7. The images were 1) straightened horizontally, using the centres of the eyes as a reference line; 2) resized to have the same interocular distance; and 3) centred in a way that the centres of the eyes in each face image were approximately in the same spot. This was done to control for irrelevant visual variability in the pictures, for example size or tilt of the face, and to improve face morphing.

After the preprocessing of the original faces, they were morphed with FantaMorph (version 5.4.6). Each original identity having a certain expression were morphed to every other identity with the same expression. From these morph dimensions, two morphed images, 1/3 of identity X and 2/3 of identity Y, and vice versa, were used in the study. As result, there were 12 morphed "identities" in addition to the original four identities. Both the original 4 and the morphed 12 identities were then morphed (within an identity) from neutral to the three other expressions, and the 50 % morphs were used in the study (Figure 1A). Thus, the total stimuli contained 112 images in a 16 identities (4 original, 12 morphed) x 7 expressions (neutral, 3 original-100%, 3 morphed-50%) design.

2.4 Study design

The study contained two parts, fMRI-measurement and EEG-measurement, which were conducted on different days. Nine of the participants completed first the fMRI part, and eight completed first the EEG part. The time between the measurements was 1 – 40 days for the different participants. Both sessions lasted approximately 1.5 hours, including preparation.

The primary task and stimuli were identical in both measurements. Participants saw a face on a screen (500 ms), and they were instructed to answer, by pressing one of two buttons, whether the face on the screen was a female or a male. The gender identification task was used in order to ensure participants' attentional focus on the faces, and it was not trivial, since half of our stimuli were morphs between genders. The inter stimulus interval was 2500 ms. The study was divided in three runs. Each stimuli was shown twice in each run, once (in random order) before a 30 sec rest period and a second

time (in random order) after the rest period. In total, each run contained 224 trials and the duration of each run was approximately 12 minutes. Between the runs the participants were contacted through microphone and were given a rest period if necessary.

The fMRI-measurement began with an anatomical scan (6 min) and ended with a functional face area localizer run. In the localizer scan, intact faces, phase scrambled faces, and checkerboard stimuli were shown while the participant were instructed to fixate at the centre of the screen. In the EEG-measurement, video clips of facial expressions were shown at the end of the experiment. The results of these are not, however, discussed here.

Figure 1. *Examples of stimuli and data analysis. A) Both expressions and identities were morphed. Original images from 4 identities with 4 expressions (neutral, happy, fearful, and angry) were morphed between the identities (two middle rows; photos not shown due to copyright restrictions) and between neutral and other expressions (second and fourth column). The example identities are samples from the Faces database (Ebner et al., 2010; https://faces.mpdl.mpg.de/imeji/), different identities were used in the experiment. B) Study design for expression analyses. Each pair of (morphed) expressions from every (morphed) identity were classified with SVM, separately in EEG and in fMRI. From these pairwise decoding accuracies, a representational dissimilarity matrix (RDM) was created for each EEG timepoint and each fMRI voxel. These were then correlated to each other, as well as to models.*

2.5 Acquisition and preprocessing of EEG

EEG data were recorded using a 64-channel cap and 6 additional electrodes (mastoids, HEOGs from both eyes and two VEOGs from the left eye) with Biosemi Actiview. EEG data were sampled at 1024 Hz and referenced online to Common Mode Sense (CMS) electrode at PO1.

EEG preprocessing was performed with EEGLAB v13.6.5b running in Matlab R2018a. The data were first downsampled to 200Hz, and bandpass-filtered between 0.1 – 81 Hz (- 6db cutoff points, acausal filter). Line noise was removed with the Cleanline-plugin (Mullen, 2012) and bad channels detected and removed with clean_rawdata v0.31-plugin (Kothe, 2013). The data were then re-referenced to the average of the 64 cap electrodes, the removed channels were interpolated and all the non-cap electrodes were removed. Epochs of -300 – 1000 ms from stimuli onset were created, and epochs with the same stimuli were averaged. No baseline correction was applied. Thus, a four dimensional EEG-data-matrix was created, the dimensions being the 17 participants, 112 different stimuli types, 64 channels and 260 timepoints (5 ms each). The 260 timepoints were later collapsed in the decoding analyses into final 130 timepoints of 10 ms each (see *2.7. Decoding*).

2.6 Acquisition and preprocessing of fMRI

FMRI were recorded using a 3T MAGNETOM Skyra scanner (Siemens Healthcare, Erlangen, Germany) at the AMI-Centre of Aalto University School of Science. A 30-channel head coil was used. The functional echo planar images (EPI) were acquired with an imaging area consisting of 43 contiguous slices (TR 2.4 s, TE 32 ms, voxel matrix 64 · 64, field of view 20 cm, slice thickness 3.0 mm). Three functional runs of 275 volumes (including 4 initial dummy volumes) were measured, each lasting approximately 12 minutes. In preprocessing, slice timing and motion correction (but no smoothing) were applied, and all images were co-registered to T1 anatomical image (MPRAGE). Finally, images from each subject were normalized to the standardized MNI head space. The fMRI data was modelled with event-related GLM analysis containing separate regressors for each stimulus type (112 in total), and 6 nuisance regressors for motion. As a result, there were 112 (stimuli) x 3 (runs) whole-brain beta images for each subject. fMRI analyses were conducted with SPM12 toolbox for Matlab.

2.7 Decoding

We used leave-one out support vector machine (SVM; Cortes & Vapnik, 1995) decoding with the non-decoded stimulus dimension (expression or identity) as exemplars, and voxels/EEG-channels as features. A pairwise decoding analysis was conducted between each possible (morphed) expression/identity pair (e.g. ½ morphed happy vs. neutral), resulting in 21 (number of cells in the lower triangle of 7x7 RDM: 6+5+4+3+2+1) and 120 (number of cells in the lower triangle of

16x16 RDM: 15+14…+1) pairwise decoding analyses for expressions and identities, respectively. The data were divided into training and test sets, leaving either one of the non-decoded stimulus categories (e.g. one expression when decoding identities) out (EEG), or one run out (fMRI), and repeated until every category/run were used as the test set. In EEG, expression decoding analyses were repeated 16 times (leaving one identity out at a time) and identity decoding analyses 7 times (leaving one expression out at a time). Thus, expression decodings contained 15+15 exemplars in the training set and 1+1 in the test set, and identity decodings contained 6+6 exemplars in the training set and 1+1 in the test set.

In fMRI, we divided the data between runs, using two runs for the training and the remaining run as the test set. The decodings were repeated three times, using each run as a test set. Thus, there were 32+32 (16 identities x 2 runs) or 14+14 (7 expressions x 2 runs) exemplars in training sets and 16+16 or 7+7 exemplars in the test sets for each expression and identity analyses, respectively. All decoding analyses were performed separately within each subject.

Decoding analyses of the fMRI data were conducted with The Decoding Toolbox (TDT; Hebart, Görgen, & Haynes, 2015), using beta-images from the first-level GLM in a normalized MNI head space. We used searchlight-based (Kriegeskorte, Goebel, & Bandettini, 2006) decoding with a radius of 10 mm, and with default settings of TDT, with L2-norm SVM running in LIBSVM (Chang & Lin, 2011). For EEG-data, we used DDTBOX (Bode, Feuerriegel, Bennett, & Alday, 2018) to decode ERPs (event related potentials) averaged over 6 repeated trials (Grootswagers, Wardle, & Carlson, 2017; Isik, Meyers, Leibo, & Poggio, 2014). We used spatiotemporal decoding with 2 consecutive timepoints, resulting in non-overlapping windows of 10 ms, and all 64 channels, resulting in 2*64 = 128 features. Otherwise, default settings of DDTBOX were used, with C-SVM with a regularizing parameter C = 1 running in LIBSVM. All decoding analyses were run in Matlab 2018a. After decoding, the results within each pairwise decoding condition were smoothed with FWHM of 3 voxels in fMRI, and with 3 timepoint (30 ms) moving average in EEG.

2.8 Representational similarity analysis

Representational similarity analysis was used to compare the information representations of expressions in fMRI, EEG and models (Figure 1B). A representational dissimilarity matrix (RDM) was calculated for each voxel in fMRI (searchlight analysis) and for each timepoint in EEG. The RDMs were calculated separately for each subject, except in the EEG-fMRI-analysis, where the fMRI (but not the EEG) RDMs were averaged over subjects. Each cell *ij* in the RDMs was the decoding accuracy between the two stimuli types of row *i* and column *j*. Three model RDMs were created as follows. First, *Low-level Model* RDM was built based on filtering all face stimuli with a bank of Gabor filters. Each stimulus image was filtered with 36 filters; using 6 different spatial scales at 6 different orientations. The centre spatial

frequency of the filter was varied from 4 to 24 cycles/face width. The spatial frequency bandwidth of the filters was one octave and the orientation bandwidth was 30 degrees. To construct the RDM for expressions, the filter outputs for different identities were first averaged, and then correlated with each other and subtracted from one, resulting in the 7x7 expression dissimilarity matrix. In the second model (*Intensity Model*), no differences between different expression categories were assumed; only differences between neutral, half morphs and expressions with full intensities were modelled, with dissimilarity values between neutral and full expressions being 1, between half morphs and neutral/full expressions 0.5, and within each category, 0. Third, *Category Model* represented categorical processing of emotions, with the intermediate and full expressions assumed to be similar, with dissimilarity values between all expressions (irrespective of morph level) being 1, and within expressions 0. The three models were not orthogonal, with Spearman correlations of low-level model with intensity and category models being -.13 and .36, respectively, and with intensity and category model -.11.

The lower triangles of these RDMs were then correlated (Spearman) between fMRI and EEG, fMRI and models, as well as between EEG and models. This was done separately for each fMRI voxel and each EEG timepoint, and separately for each subject, except for the fMRI-EEG correlations where the subject-averaged fMRI-RDM was used to reduce noise.

2.9 Regions of interest

To further compare and visualize the fMRI-EEG and fMRI-model –correlations, we performed Region of Interest (ROI)-analyses for eight selected areas from the BALSA parcellation map (Glasser et al., 2016): V1, fusiform (face) area (FFC in BALSA), lateral occipital (face) area (LO1 in BALSA), and posterior superior temporal sulcus (pSTS; TPOJ2 in BALSA), all from both hemispheres. In BALSA, the areas are defined multimodally, based on both their anatomical and functional characteristics. The areas were selected based on their known role in face processing (Duchaine & Yovel, 2015), and the results in the 'Total information' –analyses of average face expression processing (see below). From each ROI, five voxels having the highest total information (averaged over subjects, see *2.10. Statistical analysis*) across all 21 expression pairwise comparisons were selected, and the RDMs from each voxel were averaged for analysis. Thus, the selected ROIs represent the best information available in a given area and were selected post-hoc. As searchlight analysis was used in pair-wise decodings, these five voxels contain information from the surrounding voxels as well.

2.10 Statistical analyses

To calculate a measure for the total amount of information of expressions and of identities ('Total information') in the

brain, we took the within-subject averages of all the pairwise expression decodings, and of all the pairwise identity decodings, in each timepoint in EEG, and in each voxel in fMRI. To compare different expressions ('Expression analyses'), the pairwise decodings of 100% expression (happy, fearful and angry) versus neutral faces were analysed in EEG and in fMRI. For the EEG-fMRI, model-EEG, and model-fMRI analyses, RDMs from each voxel in fMRI, each timepoint in EEG, and models, were correlated (EEG-fMRI) or partial-correlated (model-analyses, controlling for other models) using Spearman correlation. For the ROI-analyses, exactly same analyses were performed, but instead of all voxels, using the average of 5 voxels from selected areas. All statistical significance thresholds were defined by (cluster-based) sign-shuffling permutation tests. In the tests, the decoding accuracies (minus chance level of 50%) or (partial) correlations from each subject were multiplied randomly either by 1 or -1. This was repeated 5000 times, and from each permutation the maximum (cluster) statistic was taken to create a null distribution, FWE-corrected for multiple testing (Nichols & Holmes, 2001). One-sided p<.05 significance threshold was defined as being the top 5% values of the distribution. In EEG, cluster-defining timepoint threshold was p<.05 (one-sided), and the cluster statistic used was the sum of t-values within each temporal cluster (Maris & Oostenveld, 2007). In fMRI, we used cluster-defining voxel threshold of pseudo-t>3.0, and the cluster statistic used was cluster size (amount of voxels). Furthermore, we used variance smoothing of 6 mm FWHM as suggested by Nichols and Holmes (2001). In EEG-fMRI –analyses, above defined cluster analysis were conducted within each timepoint separately. In ROI-model correlations, the statistic used was partial correlations, and no correction for multiple ROIs were applied. All fMRI statistical analyses were conducted with SnPM-toolbox for SPM.

2.9 Data and code availability

Data and code are available upon request.

3 Results

3.1 Overall information related to facial expressions and identities

To investigate the processing of facial expression and identities, we showed participants a total of 112 face images in which both emotional expression (neutral, 50% and 100% happy, fearful and angry) and facial identity (4 original identities, 12 identity-morphs (33/67%)) varied dimensionally (Figure 1A). In order to reveal information related to expressions and identities, we used support vector machine (SVM) decoding to produce pairwise classification accuracies between all stimuli pairs. This was done separately for each voxel in fMRI with searchlight analysis (Kriegeskorte et al., 2006), and for each timepoint in EEG (Figure 1B).

To calculate a measure of overall expression processing, we took the mean of all pairwise expression decoding accuracies ('Total information'). In fMRI, this resulted in a large cluster containing the early visual cortex (EVC), occipital face area (OFA), right fusiform face area (FFA) and right posterior superior temporal sulcus (pSTS; Figure 2A). This was in concordance with earlier studies, that have shown facial expression processing to be right-lateralized, and occur in the STS, FFA, OFA and EVC (for a review, see Duchaine & Yovel, 2015). The EEG results revealed statistically significant coding of expressions to start at ~120 ms after stimulus onset, and continue until ~750 ms (Figure 2B) with highest peak at 270 ms (mean decoding accuracy 54.8%). Previous studies using decoding in MEG, (Dima et al., 2018) and single-cell recordings in monkeys (Sugase et al., 1999) have also found face expression coding to start at ~100 ms.

For face identities, we performed similar analyses. Our analyses suggested that the motor responses of the task of gender identification were obscuring the identity results, showing for example significant decoding accuracies in the left motor cortex (Figure 2A, 'All identities'). To account for this, we performed analyses using only the within-gender identity pairs in which participants answered correctly (using the same finger) over 90% of the trials ('Selected identities'). Only 17/120 comparison pairs fulfilled the criteria. The results showed significant clusters in the left temporo-parietal junction and anterior STS, but not in face identity specific regions in ventral temporal or occipital cortices (Figure 2A), or at any timepoint in EEG. Thus, as no expected face patches appeared significant, no further analyses for facial identities were performed.

3.2 Different temporal and spatial responses to different facial expressions

To compare different expressions, we examined the classifications of neutral expression compared separately to (100%) happy, fearful, and angry faces. Happy faces were significantly classified from early visual cortex in fMRI (Figure 2B), with highest peak in EEG at 140 ms (57.5%; Figure 2D), while angry faces peaked later, at 220 ms and 350 ms (57.4% and 57.5%, respectively; Figure 2D), and were classified both from V1 and from a more anterior cluster near right pSTS and FFA (Figure 2B). Fearful faces fell in between in the EEG with a highest peak at 180 ms (58.6%), while no significant clusters in fMRI was found. To statistically test temporal differences in the three expressions, we compared the latencies of the highest decoding accuracies of each expression from each subject between 50 – 250 ms (Wilcoxon's signed rank test). Decoding accuracy of happy faces peaked significantly earlier than both fearful (p=.021) and angry (p=.005) faces, while no statistically significant difference was found between fearful and angry expressions (p=.36). Furthermore, while happy and fearful faces were significantly classified only in a relatively short (<100 ms) time window, the classification of angry faces remained significant for 220 ms (Figure 2D).

Figure 2. *Means of pairwise decoding accuracies of expressions and identities. A) In fMRI, a large cluster for expression classifications was found in bilateral occipital cortex and right temporal lobe, including OFA, FFA and pSTS. Identity results were possibly obscured by the task and motor responses (middle column, 'All identities'). Identities with similar responses (rightmost column, 'Selected identities') revealed no clusters in expected face regions. B) When different expressions were analyzed separately, we found significant coding of happy (vs. neutral) expressions in EVC, and angry faces in EVC, right pSTS and right FFA. No significant clusters for fear were found. fMRI cluster-forming threshold pseudo-t>3 (variance-smoothed), cluster-level p(FWE)<.05. C) Average decoding accuracies in EEG. D) In EEG, the decoding accuracies for different expressions peaked between 130 – 200 ms after stimulus onset. Dots in EEG mark significant timepoints (cluster weight analysis, cluster-forming threshold p<.05, one-sided; FWE-corrected), and dotted lines depict SEMs.*

3.3. Combined EEG-fMRI reveals spatiotemporal pattern of face processing

We used representational similarity analysis (Kriegeskorte et al., 2008) to compare the information structures related to the processing of facial expressions in fMRI and EEG. We correlated representational dissimilarity matrixes (RDMs) from each voxel in fMRI and each timepoint in EEG. Each cell of the RDMs was the decoding accuracy between two stimuli in a certain voxel or at certain timepoint. We found that information in EEG correlated significantly with early visual cortex from 130 ms onwards (Figure 3). At 190 – 250 ms, significant correlations were found in parietal areas, the EVC as well as in left FFA, OFA and part of left STS. The correlations in EVC were similar in left and right hemispheres, but the correlations in higher-level visual areas were more pronounces in left than right hemisphere. These results are consistent with temporal progress of information processing from posterior to more anterior sites in visual object categorization (Cichy et al., 2016).

Figure 3. *EEG-fMRI RDM correlations. A) At each timepoint, from left to right: EEG RDM, correlation between EEG and fMRI RDMs in each voxel in left and right hemisphere. The fMRI RDMs are same in each timepoint. The flatmaps contain approximately the posterior half of the brain. Cluster analysis with cluster-forming threshold pseudo-t>3 (variance-smoothed), cluster-level p(FWE)<.05, each timepoint analysed separately. No significant clusters were found before 130 ms, and only sparsely after 250 ms. B) Labels for marked flatmap brain regions (from BALSA parcellation). C) Labels for RDM rows/columns.*

To further compare the information structures between fMRI and EEG, we calculated RDMs (Figure 4A) for the mean of five voxels having highest total information in different ROIs (Figure 4B), and correlated them to the EEG data. Similar

to the whole brain searchlight analysis, V1 had the highest correlation with the earliest timepoints (~120 – 250 ms), peaking around 150 ms (Figure 4C). Bilateral FFA, OFA and left pSTS all peaked later, around 240 ms. In right pSTS, no significant correlations were found. In left OFA, the correlations remained significant until 480 ms. The overall spatio-temporal structure found here was quite similar to that reported earlier in a face identity MEG-study (Vida et al., 2017), with accurate decodings at left V1 around 150 ms, and relatively higher decoding accuracy for right LO and right FG around 250 ms. In the whole brain analyses, the EEG-fMRI correlations were higher in left than right hemisphere. However, the RDMs of the selected ROIs suggest that right hemisphere contained more information than left hemisphere, since the overall decoding accuracies were higher in right than left hemisphere, especially in pSTS (Figure 4A). To ensure that the results were not due to selecting five most informative voxels, the ROI analyses were repeated with 10 and 50 most informative voxels. The results were similar except that with 50 voxels, right FFA did not correlate significantly with EEG.

Figure 4. *ROI-analysis. A) RDMs from selected ROIs. In top row, decoding accuracies. In bottom row, rank transformed RDMs (sorted according to their rank from lowest to highest) showing the relative weight of each decoding pair within each ROI. B) Locations of ROIs. Within every ROI (BALSA-area), 5 voxels that had highest total information over all decoding pairs were selected. Voxel locations shown in dark blue and the total area of their searchlight in yellow, orange and red. C) Correlations between each fMRI ROI and EEG from both hemispheres. Dots mark significant timepoints (cluster weight analysis, cluster-forming threshold p<.05, one-sided; FWE-corrected), and dotted lines depict SEMs.*

3.4. Models for expression processing

We compared our data with the three model RDMs (Figure 5A). Similarly to the EEG-fMRI –correlations, we correlated each voxel from fMRI (Figure 5B), and each timepoint from EEG (Figure 5C), with each of the models, using partial correlations controlling for the other models. The *Low-level Model* correlated with EVC in fMRI (Figure 5, top row), and with EEG between 110 – 290 ms. The *Intensity Model*, on the other hand, had the most pronounced correlation with an

area near right pSTS (Figure 5, middle row). In EEG, the intensity model did not correlate significantly at any timepoint (Figure 5C). This is in conjunction with the EEG-fMRI-analysis also finding no correlations with right STS and EEG. The *Category Model* did not correlate significantly with fMRI nor EEG data. Our results suggest that the classifications in EEG were mostly based on information about low-level visual features, and in fMRI the classifications were based on low-level features as well as expression intensities. As several studies have found right pSTS to be especially sensitive to differences between neutral and emotional faces (Greening et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2016), we calculated the model correlations with fMRI data without the neutral faces. The results were similar, showing that the model correlations were not driven only by separating neutral faces from emotional faces, but instead by the intensity of the expressions.

Figure 5. *Model analysis. A) RDMs for the three models. B) fMRI partial correlations with the models (no significant clusters for category model were found). Cluster analysis with cluster-forming threshold pseudo-t>3 (variance-smoothed), cluster-level p(FWE)<.05. C) Partial correlations of EEG and the models. Dots mark significant timepoints*

(cluster weight analysis, cluster-forming threshold p<.05, one-sided; FWE-corrected), and dotted lines depict SEMs.

Finally, we compared the models with the voxels with maximal information in each ROI. As seen in Figure 6, these results were mainly similar to the results of the whole brain correlations. The low-level model correlated with V1 and the intensity model with the right pSTS. While these results were consistent with the results of the whole brain model-searchlight, they also revealed the coding of intensities in right FFA, emotion category in right pSTS and left OFA, and low-level features in left FFA, not apparent in the whole brain results.

Figure 6. *Model-ROI partial correlations. Boxes indicate data from 25ᵗʰ to 75ᵗʰ percentiles, lines the medians, dots individual subjects, and asterisks mark significance (sign-shuffled p<.05, one-sided).*

4 Discussion

We investigated the processing of facial expressions and identities in the brain with EEG and fMRI. We used SVM pairwise decoding to measure the amount of information between each stimulus, and compared the information patterns in the fMRI voxels, EEG timepoints, and models by correlating dissimilarity matrices obtained with the different methods. Our results from EEG-fMRI-correlations showed spatio-temporal spreading of expression information from EVC at around 130 ms to left FFA, OFA and pSTS, which correlated with the EEG data from 190 ms onwards. Comparisons between models and the EEG data suggested that EEG contained more information about low-level visual features than expression intensities or categories. Comparisons between models and the fMRI data, however, suggested low-level visual feature-based processing in the early visual cortex and expression intensity-based processing in the right pSTS. Thus, our results suggest gradual change in the processing of facial information, from low-level visual features in EVC to facial feature analysis in the left inferior temporal areas and expression intensity analysis in the right pSTS.

For identity information, our results were likely compromised by the motoric task of responding to the gender of the shown face. However, as we used searchlight analyses in the fMRI data, limiting the information used in each decoding to a small set of voxels, the motoric activations from the parietal and frontal lobes should not dilute possible findings in the visual and face processing areas most important for the aim of our study. Nevertheless, no significant decoding of identity information was found from these areas, possibly due to the smaller variance of visual information between the identities than the expressions. In EEG, although we found processing of identities from 250 ms onwards, these results disappeared when we tried to control motor responses by selecting only a subset of the identity pairwise decodings. Thus, no further analyses or conclusions relating to the identity coding were made. It is worth noting that our decoding design required some invariance to expressions in the identity decodings. Some previous studies with invariance requirement to viewpoints (Guntupalli et al., 2017) and generalization across face halves (Anzellotti & Caramazza, 2016), have found identity coding in right inferior frontal and anterior temporal lobe, respectively, but not in FFA or OFA (although see Anzellotti, Fairhall, & Caramazza, 2014 for rotation-invariant decodings in OFA and FFA). However, as the area in the frontal cortex is harder to disentangle from the motor responses, and our fMRI signal was weak in the anterior temporal lobe, our results cannot weight in on the role of these areas in identity processing.

Going deeper to our expression results, we first looked for the areas and timing of total information of the expressions. In EEG, expressions were decoded significantly between ~120 – 750 ms, replicating earlier findings of expression information starting roughly around 100 ms (Dima et al., 2018; Müller-Bardorff et al., 2018; Sugase et al., 1999). While there are multiple studies not finding as early an effect of expression processing (e.g., Blau, Maurer, Tottenham, & Mccandliss, 2007; Müller-Bardorff et al., 2016), this can be explained with the less sensitive methods mainly used in those studies. In fMRI, significant decoding was found, as expected, from early visual areas and the face processing areas in right fusiform gyrus (FFA), lateral occipital (OFA) and near posterior superior temporal sulcus (pSTS). For the separate expressions, happy faces were accurately classified in early visual areas and most pronouncedly at early time points (~140 ms), while information on angry faces was found, in addition to EVC, from a cluster near right pSTS and FFA, and mainly later in time (~200 – 350 ms). Fearful faces fell in between in EEG (~180 ms) and showed no significant clusters in fMRI. Besides these differences in peak latencies, the coding of angry faces remained statistically significant longer than other expressions, possibly showing the evolutionary importance of paying attention to angry faces, longer-lasting processing of eye than mouth information, or both.

We used representational similarity analysis to compare the information structure in EEG and in fMRI. One of our main findings was a spreading of information similarity from early visual cortex and early in time (120 – 150 ms) to more

anterior areas in left (ventral) temporal lobe and later in time (190 – 250 ms). The face models (Duchaine & Yovel, 2015; Haxby et al., 2000) postulate spatio-temporal progress during the processing of faces. However, as every non-invasive method (fMRI, M/EEG) has rather weak spatial or temporal resolution, few studies have been able to focus on both dimensions at once. Thus, while there is an exhaustive literature on both spatial areas of face processing from fMRI-studies, and temporal components found using M/EEG, the linkage between these results is much less understood. Our study takes a step into that direction, being the first to our knowledge using RSA in combining M/EEG and fMRI with face expressions. Interestingly, we found EEG-fMRI correlations mainly in the left hemisphere, which is less involved in face processing. We hypothesize this is due to our EEG data reflecting more lower level visual features, as shown in our model analyses. Our results suggest that lower level representations are more pronounced in the left hemisphere and higher level representations (hardly separable in our EEG data) in the right hemisphere. In ROI-analyses we similarly found early peak in fMRI-EEG correlations in V1, and later peak in OFA and FFA. Our time trajectories are similar to those reported in a MEG-study (Vida et al., 2017), which found first peaks for V1, OFA and FFA at around 150 ms and later peaks ~250 ms. Both in our and their results, information in V1 clearly dominated early in time, and later in time, the information from OFA and FFA was relatively higher, though mainly not surpassing correlations with V1.

We compared our data to three models depicting low-level visual information, emotional intensity, and emotion category information, while controlling for other models by using partial correlation. The low-level model matched with the information in the early visual cortex and EEG data from ~140 ms to 290 ms. Intensity model, on the other hand, correlated with right pSTS and not at all with EEG. The category model did not correlate with EEG or fMRI. As we found no EEG-fMRI correlations from right pSTS, these model correlations provide an explanation for that: right pSTS seemed to code emotional intensity with less sensitivity to the lower level features, and this coding was not separable in EEG data. Previous studies have shown STS to be especially sensitive for differences between neutral and emotional faces (Greening et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2016). Our results suggest that this is due to STS coding the expression intensity, and thus provides a more specific model for the role of pSTS in face processing. Srinivasan, Golomb, and Martinez (2016) found pSTS to be especially sensitive to action units in the face. As we did not model action units, future studies should disentangle whether the intensity and action unit coding reflect the same or different processes in pSTS.

It is worth underlining what the RDM correlations between EEG and fMRI measure exactly, and what the underlying assumptions are. In the EEG-fMRI analysis, whole brain EEG RDMs (that may contain multiple, spatially different sources) are compared to local fMRI RDMs (that contain information from temporally long period), and this might cause spurious correlations. However, our (as well as others) EEG-fMRI –correlation results are surprisingly systematic, and

follow, for example, the known processing hierarchy in visual cortex. Still, the EEG-fMRI correlations should be interpreted with caution. The RDM correlations are insensitive to the *amount* of information, and measure only the information structure, namely the *relative* information between the different expressions. This is contrary to the single-modality classifications, which show the amount of information, but not the relative information. Thus, it is entirely possible there to be an area in the brain having high decoding accuracy for all different expressions, but still not showing up in the model or EEG-fMRI correlations. One example of these inconsistencies in our data is the right FFA. While the fMRI decodings of angry faces were statistically significant in right but not left FFA, the EEG-fMRI analysis found left but not right FFA correlating with EEG at 250 ms, when the EEG RDM was defined mainly by accurate decodings of angry faces. This contradictory-seeming result could be explained by larger *amount* of information in right than left FFA, but *relatively* better decoding of angry than other expressions in left FFA. Furthermore, our model analyses suggest that the EEG contained mostly information related to low-level visual features, and therefore the EEG-fMRI correlations likely reflect mostly visual feature analyses related to processing of facial expression, explaining the higher correlations in left than right hemisphere. These examples also show how different methods (EEG, fMRI, models) complement each other.

In conclusion, we showed a glimpse of the spatio-temporal coding of face expressions in the brain. Starting from the early visual cortex, the processing spreads to OFA, FFA and pSTS around 200 ms. By comparing these to the unimodal results from EEG and fMRI, as well as model correlations, our results suggest that the processing of faces hierarchically changes from visual features in EVC to expression intensities in right pSTS. As slightly different results were obtained with EEG/fMRI decodings, EEG-fMRI/model correlations, our results highlight the importance of combining M/EEG and fMRI data and models in order to understand the spatio-temporal processing dynamics in the human brain.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by an Academy of Finland grant to VRS (grant number 298329).

Conflicting interests' statement

The authors declare no conflicting interests.

References

Ambrus, G. G., Kaiser, D., Cichy, R. M., & Kovács, G. (2019). The Neural Dynamics of Familiar Face Recognition.
    Cerebral Cortex. https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhz010

Anzellotti, S., & Caramazza, A. (2016). From Parts to Identity: Invariance and Sensitivity of Face Representations to Different Face Halves. *Cerebral Cortex*, 26(5), 1900–1909. http://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhu337

Anzellotti, S., Fairhall, S. L., & Caramazza, A. (2014). Decoding representations of face identity that are tolerant to rotation. *Cerebral Cortex*, 24(8), 1988-1995. http://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bht046

Atkinson, A. P., & Adolphs, R. (2011). The neuropsychology of face perception: beyond simple dissociations and functional selectivity. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B,* 366(1571), 1726–1738. http://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2010.0349*Cerebral Cortex*, 24(8), 1988–1995.

Bernstein, M., & Yovel, G. (2015). Two neural pathways of face processing: A critical evaluation of current models. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, 55, 536–546. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2015.06.010

Blau, V. C., Maurer, U., Tottenham, N., & Mccandliss, B. D. (2007). The face-specific N170 component is modulated by emotional facial expression. *Behavioral and Brain Functions*, 13, 1–13. http://doi.org/10.1186/1744-9081-3-7

Bode, S., Feuerriegel, D., Bennett, D., & Alday, P. M. (2018). The Decision Decoding ToolBOX (DDTBOX) – A Multivariate Pattern Analysis Toolbox for Event-Related Potentials. *Neuroinformatics*, 1–16. http://doi.org/10.1007/s12021-018-9375-z

Bushnell, I. W. R. (2001). Mother's Face Recognition in Newborn Infants: Learning and Memory. *Infant and Child Development*, 10, 67–74. http://doi.org/10.1002/icd.248

Bushnell, I. W. R., Sai, F., & Mullin, J. T. (1989). Neonatal recognition of the mother's face. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 7(1), 3–15. http://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-835X.1989.tb00784.x

Carlin, J. D., & Kriegeskorte, N. (2017). Adjudicating between face-coding models with individual-face fMRI responses. *PLoS Computational Biology*, 13(7), 1–28. http://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1005604

Chang, C.-C., & Lin, C.-J. (2011). LIBSVM: A Library for Support Vector Machines. *ACM Transactions on Intelligent Systems and Technology*, 2(3), 1–27. http://doi.org/10.1145/1961189.1961199

Chang, L., & Tsao, D. Y. (2017). The Code for Facial Identity in the Primate. *Cell*, 169(6), 1013–1020.e14. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2017.05.011

Cichy, R. M., & Pantazis, D. (2017). Multivariate pattern analysis of MEG and EEG: A comparison of representational

structure in time and space. *NeuroImage*, 158, 441–454. http://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2017.07.023

Cichy, R. M., Pantazis, D., & Oliva, A. (2014). Resolving human object recognition in space and time. *Nature Neuroscience,* 17(3), 455-62. http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nn.3635

Cichy, R. M., Pantazis, D., & Oliva, A. (2016). Similarity-Based Fusion of MEG and fMRI Reveals Spatio-Temporal Dynamics in Human Cortex During Visual Object Recognition. *Cerebral Cortex*, 26(8), 3563–3579. http://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhw135

Collins, J. A., & Olson, I. R. (2015). Beyond the FFA: The Role of the Ventral Anterior Temporal Lobes in Face Processing. *Neuropsychologia*, 65–79. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2014.06.005.Beyond

Cortes, C., & Vapnik, V. (1995). Support-Vector Networks. *Machine Learning*, 20(3), 273–297. http://doi.org/10.1007/BF00994018

Dima, D. C., Perry, G., Messaritaki, E., Zhang, J., & Singh, K. D. (2018). Spatiotemporal dynamics in human visual cortex rapidly encode the emotional content of faces. *Human Brain Mapping*. http://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.24226

Dobs, K., Schultz, J., Bülthoff, I., & Gardner, J. L. (2018). Task-dependent enhancement of facial expression and identity representations in human cortex. *NeuroImage*, 172(July 2017), 689–702. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2018.02.013

Dobson, V., & Teller, D. Y. (1978). Visual acuity in human infants: A review and comparison of behavioral and electrophysiological studies. *Vision Research*, 18(11), 1469–1483. http://doi.org/10.1016/0042-6989(78)90001-9

Duchaine, B., & Yovel, G. (2015). A Revised Neural Framework for Face Processing. *Annual Review of Vision Science*, 1(1), 393–416. http://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-vision-082114-035518

Ebner, N. C., Riediger, M., & Lindenberger, U. (2010). FACES - A database of facial expressions in young, middle-aged, and older women and men: Development and validation. *Behavior Research Methods*, 42(1), 351–62. http://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.42.1.351

Edelman, S., Grill-Spector, K., Kushnir, T., & Malach, R. (1998). Toward direct visualization of the internal shape represetation space by fMRI. Psychobiology, 26(4), 309–321. https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/11.10.946

Freiwald, W. A., & Tsao, D. Y. (2010). Functional Compartmentalization and Viewpoint Generalization Within the Macaque Face-Processing System. Science, 330(5), 845–851. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1229223

Glasser, M. F., Coalson, T. S., Robinson, E. C., Hacker, C. D., Harwell, J., Yacoub, E., … Van Essen, D. C. (2016). A multi-modal parcellation of human cerebral cortex. *Nature*, 536(7615), 171–178. http://doi.org/10.1038/nature18933

Gold, J. M., Mundy, P. J., & Tjan, B. S. (2012). The Perception of a Face Is No More Than the Sum of Its Parts. *Psychological Science*, 23(4), 427–434. http://doi.org/10.1177/0956797611427407

Greening, S. G., Mitchell, D. G. V., & Smith, F. W. (2018). Spatially generalizable representations of facial expressions: Decoding across partial face samples. *Cortex*, 101, 31–43. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2017.11.016

Grootswagers, T., Wardle, S. G., & Carlson, T. A. (2017). Decoding Dynamic Brain Patterns from Evoked Responses: A Tutorial on Multivariate Pattern Analysis Applied to Time Series Neuroimaging Data. Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience, 29(4), 677–697. https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn

Guntupalli, J. S., Wheeler, K. G., & Gobbini, M. I. (2017). Disentangling the Representation of Identity from Head View Along the Human Face Processing Pathway. *Cerebral Cortex*, 27, 46–53. http://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhw344

Haxby, J. V., Hoffman, E. A., & Gobbini, M. I. (2000). The distributed human neural system for face perception. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 4(6), 223–233. http://doi.org/10.1016/S1364-6613(00)01482-0

Hebart, M. N., Bankson, B.B., Harel, A., Baker, C. I., & Cichyl, R. M. (2018). The representational dynamics of task and object processing in humans. *eLife*, 7, 1-21. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.32816

Hebart, M. N., Görgen, K., & Haynes, J.-D. (2015). The Decoding Toolbox (TDT): a versatile software package for multivariate analyses of functional imaging data. *Frontiers in Neuroinformatics*, 8, 88. http://doi.org/10.3389/fninf.2014.00088

Henriksson, L., Mur, M., & Kriegeskorte, N. (2015). Faciotopy-A face-feature map with face-like topology in the human occipital face area. *Cortex*, 72, 156–167. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2015.06.030

Hinojosa, J. A., Mercado, F., & Carretié, L. (2015). N170 sensitivity to facial expression: A meta-analysis. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*, 55, 498–509. http://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEUBIOREV.2015.06.002

Isik, L., Meyers, E. M., Leibo, J. Z., & Poggio, T. (2014). The dynamics of invariant object recognition in the human visual system. Journal of Neurophysiology, 111(1), 91–102. https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00394.2013

Kanwisher, N., & Yovel, G. (2006). The fusiform face area: a cortical region specialized for the perception of faces. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B*, 361(1476), 2109–28. http://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2006.1934

Kietzmann, T. C., Spoerer, C. J., Sörensen, L., Cichy, R. M., Hauk, O., & Kriegeskorte, N. (2019). Recurrence required to capture the dynamic computations of the human ventral visual stream. arXiv:1903.05946.

Kothe, C. (2013). The artifact subspace reconstruction method. http://sccn.ucsd.edu/eeglab/plugins/ASR.pdf

Kriegeskorte, N., Formisano, E., Sorger, B., & Goebel, R. (2007). Individual faces elicit distinct response patterns in human anterior temporal cortex. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 104(51), 20600–20605. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0705654104

Kriegeskorte, N., Goebel, R., & Bandettini, P. a. (2006). Information-based functional brain mapping. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 103(10), 3863–8. http://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0600244103

Kriegeskorte, N., Mur, M., & Bandettini, P. a. (2008). Representational similarity analysis - connecting the branches of systems neuroscience. *Frontiers in Systems Neuroscience*, 2, 4. http://doi.org/10.3389/neuro.06.004.2008

Maris, E., & Oostenveld, R. (2007). Nonparametric statistical testing of EEG- and MEG-data. Journal of Neuroscience Methods, 164(1), 177–190. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneumeth.2007.03.024

Mullen, T (2012). CleanLine EEGLAB plugin. San Diego, CA: Neuroimaging Informatics Toolsand Resources Clearinghouse (NITRC).

Müller-Bardorff, M., Bruchmann, M., Mothes-Lasch, M., Zwitserlood, P., Schlossmacher, I., Hofmann, D., Straube, T. (2018). Early brain responses to affective faces: A simultaneous EEG-fMRI study. *NeuroImage*, 178, 660–667. http://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2018.05.081

Müller-Bardorff, M., Schulz, C., Peterburs, J., Bruchmann, M., Mothes-Lasch, M., Miltner, W., & Straube, T. (2016). Effects of emotional intensity under perceptual load: An event-related potentials (ERPs) study. *Biological Psychology*, 117, 141–149. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsycho.2016.03.006

Nemrodov, D., Behrmann, M., Niemeier, M., Drobotenko, N., & Nestor, A. (2019). Multimodal evidence on shape and surface information in individual face processing. *NeuroImage*, 184, 813–825. http://doi.org/10.1101/299933

Nichols, T. E., & Holmes, A. P. (2001). Nonparametric permutation tests for functional neuroimaging: A primer with examples. Human Brain Mapping, 15, 1–25. https://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.1058

Pitcher, D., Walsh, V., & Duchaine, B. (2011). The role of the occipital face area in the cortical face perception network. *Experimental Brain Research*, 209(4), 481–493. http://doi.org/10.1007/s00221-011-2579-1

Reid, V. M., Dunn, K., Young, R. J., Amu, J., Donovan, T., & Reissland, N. (2017). The Human Fetus Preferentially Engages with Face-like Visual Stimuli. *Current Biology*, 27(12), 1825–1828. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2017.05.044

Richler, J. J., & Gauthier, I. (2014). A Meta-Analysis and Review of Holistic Face. *Psychological Bulletin,* 140(5), 1281–1302. http://doi.org/10.1037/a0037004.A

Rossion, B., & Jacques, C. (2011). The N170: understanding the time-course of face perception in the human brain. *The Oxford Handbook of ERP Components*, Oxford University Press. 115–142. http://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780195374148.013.0064

Sadeh, B., Podlipsky, I., Zhdanov, A., & Yovel, G. (2010). Event-related potential and functional MRI measures of face-selectivity are highly correlated: A simultaneous ERP-fMRI investigation. *Human Brain Mapping*, 31(10), 1490–1501. http://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.20952

Said, C. P., Haxby, J. V., & Todorov, A. (2011). Brain systems for assessing the affective value of faces. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London B*, 366(1571), 1660–1670. http://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2010.0351

Said, C. P., Moore, C. D., Engell, A. D., Todorov, A., & Haxby, J. V. (2010). Distributed representations of dynamic facial expressions in the superior temporal sulcus. Journal of Vision, 10(5), 11. https://doi.org/10.1167/10.5.11

Salmela, V., Salo, E., Salmi, J., & Alho, K. (2018). Spatiotemporal Dynamics of Attention Networks Revealed by

Representational Similarity Analysis of EEG and fMRI. *Cerebral Cortex*, 28(2), 549–560.
http://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhw389

Schweinberger, S. R., & Neumann, M. F. (2016). Repetition effects in human ERPs to faces. *Cortex*, 80, 141–153.
http://doi.org/10.1016/J.CORTEX.2015.11.001

Shen, J., & Palmeri, T. J. (2015). The Perception of a Face is Greater Than the Sum of Its Parts The perception of a face
is no more than the sum of its parts. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 22, 710–716. http://doi.org/10.3758/s13423-
014-0726-y

Srinivasan, R., Golomb, J. D., & Martinez, A. M. (2016). A Neural Basis of Facial Action Recognition in Humans.
Journal of Neuroscience, 36(16), 4434–4442. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1704-15.2016

Sugase, Y., Yamane, S., Ueno, S., & Kawano, K. (1999). Global and fine information coded by single neurons in the
temporal visual cortex. *Nature*, 400(6747), 869–873. http://doi.org/10.1038/23703

Surguladze, S. A., Brammer, M. J., Young, A. W., Andrew, C., Travis, M. J., Williams, S. C. R., & Phillips, M. L.
(2003). A preferential increase in the extrastriate response to signals of danger. NeuroImage, 19(4), 1317–1328.
https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-8119(03)00085-5

Tanaka, J. W., & Simonyi, D. (2016). The "parts and wholes" of face recognition: a review of the literature. *Quarterly
Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 218, 1–14. http://doi.org/10.1080/17470218.2016.1146780

Taubert, J., Apthorp, D., Aagten-Murphy, D., & Alais, D. (2011). The role of holistic processing in face perception:
Evidence from the face inversion effect. *Vision Research*, 51(11), 1273–1278.
http://doi.org/10.1016/j.visres.2011.04.002

Valentine, T. (1988). Upside-down faces: a review of the effect of inversion upon face recognition. *British Journal of
Psychology*, 79(4), 471–491. http://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8295.1988.tb02747.x

Vida, M. D., Nestor, A., Plaut, D. C., & Behrmann, M. (2017). Spatiotemporal dynamics of similarity-based neural
representations of facial identity. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of
America*, 114(2), 388–393. http://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1614763114

Winston, J. S., O'Doherty, J., & Dolan, R. J. (2003). Common and distinct neural responses during direct and incidental

processing of multiple facial emotions. NeuroImage, 20(1), 84–97. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-8119(03)00303-3

Yin, R. K. (1969). Looking at upside-down faces. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 81(1), 141–145. http://doi.org/10.1037/h0027474

Zhang, H., Japee, S., Nolan, R., Chu, C., Liu, N., & Ungerleider, L. G. (2016). Face-selective regions differ in their ability to classify facial expressions. *NeuroImage*, 130, 77–90. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2016.01.045