

1 **Information content of cheek and lip colour in relation to the timing of ovulation in women**

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5

6 **Abstract**

7 Various animal species have evolved a sexual communication system with female displaying
8 and male discriminating information about the timing of ovulation through sexual signals. More
9 research is now investigating the potential ovulatory signalling function of female red skin
10 colour in human and non-human primates. However, to date it is still challenging to draft
11 satisfying hypotheses of the evolution and function of female red skin colour, due to
12 methodological discrepancies between human and non-human primate studies. The present
13 study used a within-individual design and objective methods to analyse the relationship
14 between fine-scale variation in cheek and lip colour (luminance and redness) and the estimated
15 day of ovulation in 15 cycling women. Lip, but not cheek, colour, appeared to contain
16 information about the timing of ovulation, with lips getting darker around the timing of
17 ovulation. This study adds to the growing evidence that female red skin colour may play a role
18 in sexual signalling in human and non-human primates but also underlines variation in trait
19 forms and functions at the species-level.

20

21 **Keywords:** Red skin colour, Information content, Ovulatory signalling, Lips, Humans, Primates

22 **Introduction**

23 Do females display visual information about their reproductive status that can modulate mate
24 attraction and mating strategies? This question is central to sexual selection theory. The number
25 of possible offspring by females is constrained by physiological factors such as menstrual
26 cyclicity, gestation and post-partum amenorrhea, and reproductive senescence. Reproduction is
27 usually more costly for females due to the production of larger gametes, extended maternal
28 care, and male monopolization [1,2]. Thus, in several species, females appear to have evolved
29 traits which are attractive to males and can act as probabilistic signals of ovulation to maximize
30 reproduction while balancing its associated costs. Across human and non-human primates
31 (hereafter, primates), there is evidence that male behaviour is modulated by female traits,
32 suggesting common evolutionary pathways and underlying mechanisms for sexual signalling
33 [3,4].

34 Among the different female traits, there is a growing interest in the potential role of red
35 skin colour in primate sexual communication. Intra-cycle variation in oestrogens induces
36 ovulation and also affects some chromatic (redness) and achromatic (luminance) parameters of
37 skin colour [5,6]. Circulating oestrogens bind to receptors in the skin, causing an increase in
38 blood flow and consequently a decrease in the perceived skin luminance (i.e., darkening of the
39 skin) [7,8]. Increase in blood flow can modulate the ratio of oxygenated/deoxygenated blood in
40 the skin vessels which may influence perceived redness. Primate studies provided evidence that
41 facial skin colour varies across the cycle in mandrills [9], informs about the probability of
42 ovulation in rhesus macaques [10,11], and simultaneously conceals ovulation and advertises
43 pregnancy in Japanese macaques [12,13]. Moreover, this colourful trait appears to be attractive
44 to males suggesting a role in mate attraction, at least in macaques [14].

45 Skin and lip colour also correlate with female attractiveness in human [15–18]. Skin
46 colour may thus be involved into human mate attraction, although the colour of the stimuli was

47 artificially manipulated in these studies which may impair the ecological validity of the results.
48 Studies of the potential signalling function of red skin colour in women yielded mixed results.
49 Oberzaucher et al. [19] described that cheeks were redder around ovulation compared to the
50 end of the cycle while Samson et al [20] did not replicate these findings. Recently, Burris et al.
51 [21] found no intra-cycle variation in cheek colour. Interpretation of these findings is
52 constrained by some methodological limitations. While most studies used photography to
53 analyse skin colour, which provides accurate measurements, they did not always correct
54 lighting conditions across photography sessions using colour standards that may have altered
55 measurements [22,23]. Human studies usually rely on a restricted data set to assess intra-cycle
56 difference: e.g. 2 samples from mid and late cycle, which underestimate or overestimate cycle
57 effects, with the exception of [21]. Finally, human studies often failed to confirm ovulation with
58 sex hormones profiles (with the exception of [21]) especially when studying perception of intra-
59 cycle variation. Taken together, these methodological limitations constrain our understanding
60 of the potential role of female red skin colour in sexual signalling in humans.

61 To determine if women display a colourful trait that may play a role in ovulatory
62 signalling, there is a fundamental need for studies of the relationship between fine-scale
63 variation in trait expression and the probability of ovulation. Such studies would benefit from
64 objective and quantitative methods, inspired by primate studies, using standardized
65 photography, regular biological sampling, and hormonal estimation of the ovulation date [23–
66 26]. Following this premise, this study aims at investigating whether cheek and lip colour
67 contain information about intra-cycle variation in the probability of ovulation in women. If
68 cheek or lip colour is related to the timing of ovulation within a cycle, I predict that cheeks or
69 lips will be darker/redder around this timing.

70 **Methods**

71 **Ethic statement**

72 This study was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of Kyoto University
73 Primate Research Institute (KUPRI, project number 2017-13). All participants signed a written
74 agreement concerning their participation in the study, confidentiality, and the use of their
75 photographs for research purposes and illustrations. Participants received a financial
76 compensation in return for their participation (5,000 JPY ~ 45 USD).

77

78 **Participants**

79 In total, 18 women participated in the study (mean age = $28.3 \pm \text{SD } 4.3$ years, “Asian” = 11,
80 “Caucasian” = 7, additional information on the supplementary material). All participants were
81 naturally cycling and not taking hormonal contraceptives for at least 3 months. I collected
82 digital photographs and saliva samples every two days, excluding weekends and national
83 holidays, for the duration of one complete menstrual cycle (i.e., from the beginning of their
84 menstruations until the next ones) between September and June 2018-19, to limit the effect of
85 tanning. Sampling occurred at a fixed time of the day for each participant to control for possible
86 diurnal variation in sex hormones concentration [27]. I collected a total of 204 photographs and
87 saliva samples (mean per participant = $11.3 \pm \text{SD } 1.5$, range = 8-13).

88

89 **Assessment of cheek and lip colour**

90 Participants removed face and lip make-up a minimum of 30 min before sampling. A single
91 female experimenter (LR) photographed the participants, as the sex of the photographer can
92 influence participant facial temperature and potentially skin colour [28]. Sampling was
93 conducted in a unique location, i.e., an office room with closed curtains, ceiling lights turned
94 on, and a constant 24°C temperature. Participants sat in front of a beige background and

95 adopted a neutral expression. The camera was placed 2m from the participant's chair and held at
96 the same height of the participant's face. The experimenter used a Nikon 5000D camera with a
97 12.3 megapixel CMOS sensor and a Nikon AF-S NIKKOR 18-55mm f/3.5-5.6G lens.
98 Photographs were collected in NEF format, i.e., Nikon's RAW, with the flash disabled, the
99 shutter speed and aperture size determined automatically by the camera, and a 55mm focal to
100 limit distortion [29]. The experimenter manually set the white balance using a X-Rite White
101 Balance Card (GretagMacbeth ColorChecker) and a Gretag X-Rite Color Checker (colour
102 standards). This technique standardizes photographs such that colour measurements are
103 comparable across all photographs [23–25]. Photographs were converted to uncompressed 16-
104 bit TIFF files. Cheek colour was measured from a pair of points located on the area described
105 in [21]. Lip colour was measured from the whole lip skin (supplementary material, Figure S1).
106 CIELAB values were extracted using Colourworker software (Chrometics Ltd. available at:
107 <http://www.colourworker.com/>) which provided luminance (L^*) and red-green ratio (a^* ,
108 hereafter redness) values calculated from the estimated reflectance spectrum according to the
109 standard CIE (Commission Internationale de l'Éclairage) equations [30].

110

111 **Determination of the estimated ovulation**

112 Participants followed the sampling guideline recommended by Salimetrics (Salimetrics, LLC,
113 USA). Samples were collected during the photo session, labelled and stored within 15 min at -
114 80°C until analyses at KUPRI. Saliva samples were analysed for oestradiol (17β -estradiol) and
115 progesterone (4-pregnenone-3,20-dione) using Salimetrics enzyme immunoassays kits. The
116 oestradiol assay had a sensitivity of 0.1 pg/ml with an intra-assay coefficient of variation (CV)
117 of 6.2 % and inter-assay CV of 10.8 %. The progesterone assay had a sensitivity of 5 pg/ml
118 with an intra-assay CV of 6.6 % and inter-assay CV of 9.7 %.

119 The onset of the luteal phase was defined as the sample with a progesterone
120 concentration at least 2 standard deviations greater than the mean of the 2-3 preceding baseline
121 values [26]. Ovulation was considered to have occurred when a mid-cycle peak of oestradiol
122 was detected around the onset of the luteal phase. Because sampling occurred every 2-3 days,
123 I considered the day of peak oestradiol as the most likely day of ovulation and labelled it as *day*
124 *0*. The day directly preceding the estimated ovulation day was labelled as *day -1*, the day
125 directly following it as *day +1*, and so on. Ovulation could not be determined (i.e., abnormal
126 hormone variations) for 3 out of the 18 participants.

127

128 **Statistical analyses**

129 I used photographs of 15 participants showing ovulatory cycles to analyse intra-cycle variation
130 in cheek and lip luminance and redness (N = 165 photographs, mean per participant = $11.0 \pm$
131 SD 1.4, range = 8-13).

132 This study tests for a possible quadratic effect of the days relative to ovulation on cheek
133 and lip colour: higher effect toward the estimated ovulation and lower effect toward the
134 beginning and end of the cycle. I thus constructed general linear mixed-effects models (LMMs)
135 for cheek and lip colour (luminance and redness respectively) which included the linear (DAY)
136 and quadratic (DAY²) effects of the days relative to the estimated ovulation as fixed effects,
137 and fitted by maximum likelihood using lme4 [31] and lmerTest [32] packages in R version
138 3.6.0 [33]. Inspection of the cumulative distribution functions revealed good fits to the normal
139 distribution for luminance and to the lognormal distribution for redness. Prior to modelling, the
140 days relative to the estimated ovulation were standardized to mean = 0 and SD = 1 to improve
141 model performance and interpretability [34]. On one hand, we can expect that the relationship
142 between the timing of ovulation and colour would be similar across participants; I thus
143 constructed random intercept models (RIM) with random intercepts for participant identity. On

144 the other hand, this relationship may vary between participants; I thus constructed uncorrelated
145 random slope models (RSM) with random slopes for the linear and quadratic terms. I also
146 constructed the respective RIM and RSM null models in which the predictor variables were
147 removed but the random effect structure was maintained. This resulted in 4 candidate models
148 for each colour/skin combination: RIM-full, RIM-null, RSM-full, and RSM-null. I ensured that
149 all relevant model assumptions were met by visually inspecting histograms of the residuals and
150 plots of residuals against fitted values. I used an information-theory approach to objectively
151 compare and rank the 4 candidate models in terms of how well they fitted the existing data thus
152 assessing the likelihood that one or more models among the candidates is/are best supported by
153 the data [35,36]. I used the function `model.sel` of the MuMIn package [37] to rank models based
154 on the Akaike's information criterion corrected for small sample size (AICc values). I reported
155 the weight of the models which indicates to what extent one candidate model is more likely
156 than another to provide a reasonable explanation of the variance in the data. I extracted weighted
157 parameter estimates (β), standard errors (s.e.), and 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs) of
158 model intercepts and predictors from conditional averaging of the 4 candidate models (function
159 `model.avg`).

160

161 **Results**

162 RIMs generally performed better than their respective RSMs (Table 1). Concerning cheek
163 colour, the RIM-null for luminance had a weight of 0.75, while the RIM-full for redness had a
164 weight of 0.51 (vs. 0.37 for its RIM-null), suggesting some weak evidence for variation in cheek
165 redness only (Table 1). Concerning lip colour, the RIM-full for luminance had a weight of 0.53
166 (vs. 0.31 for RIM-null) and the RIM-null for redness had a weight of 0.50 (vs. 0.37 for its RIM-
167 null), suggesting some weak evidence for variation in lip luminance only (Table 1). The timing
168 of ovulation explained little to none of the variance in cheek redness (Table 2, Figure 1). Lip

169 luminance varied according to the timing of ovulation with lips being darker around ovulation
 170 ($\beta = 0.21 \pm 0.09$ s.e., 95% CI = 0.03; 0.39, Table 2, Figure 2).

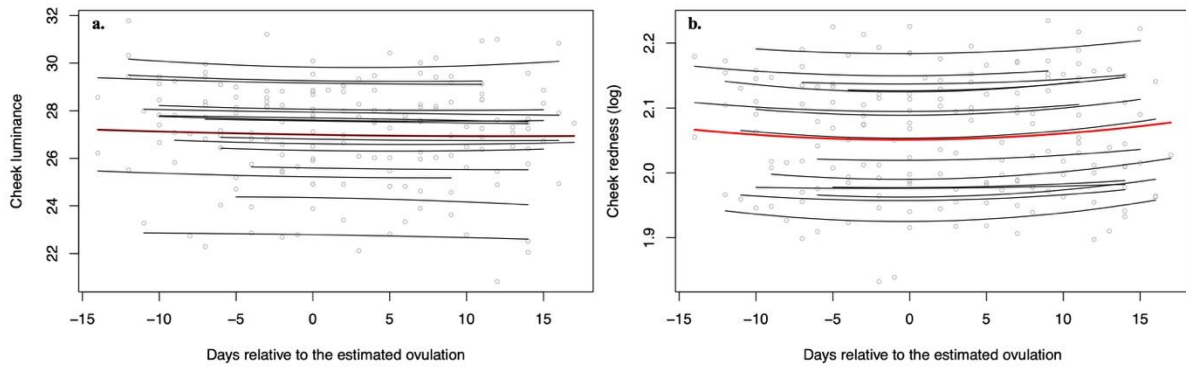
171
 172 **Table 1.** Characteristics of candidate models for cheek and lip redness and luminance. AICc:
 173 corrected Akaike's information criterion, weight: model probabilities

	logLik	AICc	weight		logLik	AICc	weight
<i>Cheek luminance</i>				<i>Cheek redness</i>			
RIM - null	-247.751	501.7	0.75	RIM - full	279.799	-549.2	0.51
RIM - full	-247.292	505.0	0.14	RIM - null	277.351	-548.6	0.37
RSM - null	-247.751	505.9	0.09	RSM - full	279.799	-544.9	0.06
RSM - full	-247.292	509.3	0.02	RSM - null	277.621	-544.9	0.06
<i>Lip luminance</i>				<i>Lip redness</i>			
RIM - full	-272.607	555.6	0.53	RIM-null	221.984	-437.8	0.60
RIM - null	-275.332	556.8	0.30	RIM-full	223.354	-436.3	0.29
RSM - null	-274.316	559.0	0.10	RSM-null	222.055	-433.7	0.08
RSM - full	-272.345	559.4	0.08	RSM-full	223.356	-432.0	0.03

174
 175 **Table 2.** Model averaged parameters estimates (β) \pm standard errors (s.e.) and confidence
 176 intervals (95% CIs) from conditional averaging of all candidate models. Result for which CI
 177 does not include zero are presented in bold.

	Intercept	DAY	DAY²
<i>Cheek luminance</i>	26.99 \pm 0.50 (26.01; 27.97)	-0.06 \pm 0.07 (-0.21; 0.08)	0.03 \pm 0.07 (-0.11; 0.17)
<i>Cheek redness</i>	2.05 \pm 0.02 (2.01; 2.10)	0.00 \pm 0.00 (-0.00; 0.01)	0.01 \pm 0.00 (-0.00; 0.01)
<i>Lip luminance</i>	20.77 \pm 0.32 (20.13; 21.40)	0.01 \pm 0.09 (-0.18; 0.19)	0.21 \pm 0.09 (0.03; 0.39)
<i>Lip redness</i>	2.20 \pm 0.03 (2.14; 2.27)	0.01 \pm 0.00 (-0.00; 0.01)	0.00 \pm 0.00 (-0.00; 0.01)

178
 179 **Figure 1.** Relationship between cheek (a) luminance and (b) redness and the days relative to
 180 the estimated ovulation. Raw data are presented as grey circle. The red line presents the global
 181 model prediction; the black lines show prediction for each participant.



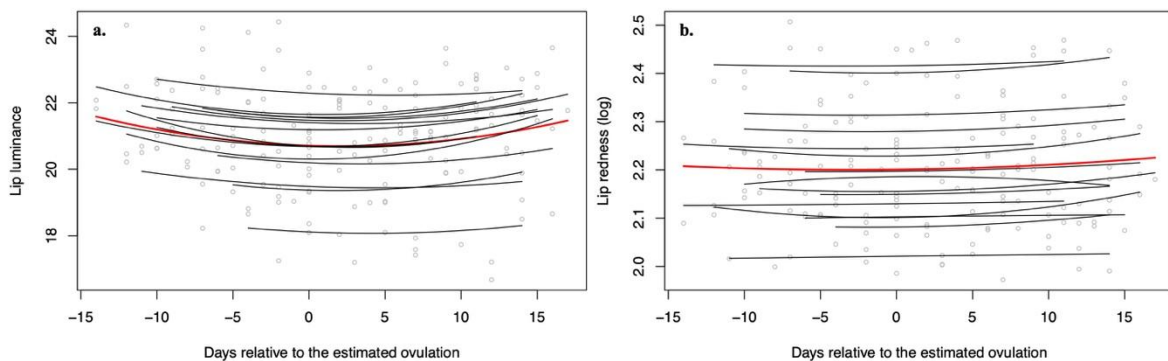
182

183

184 **Figure 2.** Relationship between lip (a) luminance and (b) redness and the days relative to the

185 estimated ovulation. Raw data are presented as grey circle. The red line presents the global

186 model prediction; the black lines show prediction for each participant.



187

188

189 Discussion

190 Using objective methods to analyse fine-scale and intra-individual changes in cheek and lips

191 colour according to the timing of ovulation, I found that lip luminance contains information

192 about the timing of ovulation in women. Cheek colour may not be related to the timing of

193 ovulation in agreement with a previous study [21].

194 Different facial features may respond differently to variation in the probability of

195 ovulation. Intra-cycle variation in colour may be less cryptic for the lip skin as a result of its

196 higher vascularization and the finer cellular layers [38] or due to tissue-specific differences in

197 oestrogen receptor expression or sensitivity. The latter has been already suggested to explain
198 the differential effect of cycle phase on facial and hindquarters colour in Japanese macaques
199 [13]. Further studies on tissue-specific expression and sensitivity of oestrogen receptors would
200 help to clarify this question. It is also possible that hormonal contraceptives have on-going and
201 long-term effect on red skin colour (e.g., female odours [39,40]), a question that I could not
202 assess in the present study and requires further investigation. Alternatively, colour changes in
203 the facial skin may be more condition-dependent and related to individual health thus masking
204 a potential cycle effect [15,16,41].

205 So, can lip colour act as an ovulatory signal? The present study suggest that lip colour
206 contains information about the timing of ovulation. To determine whether this information is
207 conveyed, further studies should assess men and women responses toward intra-cycle variation
208 in lip colour to determine whether these changes are perceptible. However, caution should be
209 used when designing such experiments. Studies should use an intra-individual design, i.e., using
210 individual pictures rather than pictures from different participants or composite stimuli, as the
211 differences in skin colour appeared to be relatively greater between than within participant in
212 the present study. Studies should also collect and test multiple samples per individual in order
213 to detect fine-scale variation, and confirm ovulation using hormonal data or ovulation detection
214 kit. Such experimental design should reduce the risk of over- or under-estimating a potential
215 cycle effect. However, whether variation in this trait is detectable under “optimal” conditions,
216 i.e., artificial environments and controlled settings, does not necessarily entail consequences on
217 human sexual communication and mate preferences since laboratory studies can have low
218 ecological validity. At best, studies on perception could provide further evidence that lip and/or
219 cheek colour has the potential to play a role in ovulatory signalling.

220 Humans may have inherited the biological bases for female red skin colour and sexual
221 signalling from a primate ancestor. Female red skin colour has been suggested to play a role

222 into the sexual communication of some primate species, i.e., signalling [9–11] or concealing
223 ovulation [13], advertising pregnancy [9,12]. The differences in red skin traits (face, lips, and
224 sexual skin) and signalling functions probably result from the different socio-environmental
225 constraints on mating across species. Concealing the reproductive status may have evolved in
226 species facing higher male monopolization or pair-bonding, lower intra-sexual competition, and
227 higher costs on signalling; while higher infanticide risks and intra-sexual competition, limited
228 mating opportunities, and lower costs on signalling may have favoured exaggerated or
229 multimodal signalling [42,43]. However, these proposed effects do not appear to fully explain
230 the inter-species differences observed in female red skin colour function, as species with similar
231 socio-ecology express traits that may be involved in either ovulatory signalling or concealing
232 (e.g. [11,13]). More studies using longitudinal and ecologically valid designs are needed to
233 better understand the possible evolutionary pathways and underlying mechanisms leading to
234 the evolution of female red skin colour in primate species including humans.

235
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242
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