

Language Access Differentially Alters Functional Connectivity During Emotion Perception Across Cultures

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11 Abstract

12 It is often assumed that the ability to recognize the emotions of others is reflexive and automatic,
13 driven only by observable facial muscle configurations. However, research suggests that accumulated
14 emotion concept knowledge shapes the way people perceive the emotional meaning of others' facial
15 muscle movements. Cultural upbringing can shape an individual's concept knowledge, such as
16 expectations about which facial muscle configurations convey anger, disgust, or sadness.
17 Additionally, growing evidence suggests that access to emotion category words, such as "anger,"
18 facilitates access to such emotion concept knowledge and in turn facilitates emotion perception. To
19 investigate the impact of cultural influence and emotion concept accessibility on emotion perception,
20 participants from two cultural groups (Chinese and White Americans) completed a functional
21 magnetic resonance imaging scanning session to assess functional connectivity amongst brain
22 regions during emotion perception. Across four blocks, participants were primed with either English
23 emotion category words ("anger," "disgust") or control text (XXXXXX) before viewing images of
24 White American actors posing facial muscle configurations that are stereotypical of anger and disgust
25 in the United States. We found that when primed with "disgust" versus control text prior to seeing
26 disgusted facial expressions, Chinese participants showed a significant decrease in functional
27 connectivity between a region associated with semantic retrieval (the inferior frontal gyrus) and
28 regions association with semantic processing, visual perception, and social cognition. Priming the
29 word "anger" did not impact functional connectivity for Chinese participants relative to control, and
30 priming neither "disgust" nor "anger" impacted functional connectivity for White American
31 participants. These findings provide preliminary evidence that emotion concept accessibility
32 differentially impacts perception based on participants' cultural background.

33

34 1 Introduction

35 Emotion perception—or understanding the emotional meaning of someone else’s facial, body, or
36 vocal behaviors—is crucial to social communication, drives social behavior, and facilitates the social
37 connection that is ultimately critical to human health and wellness (Atzil & Gendron, 2017; LoBue et
38 al., 2019; Milojevich et al., 2021; Telzer et al., 2014). Basic emotion theory classically posits that a
39 set of so-called universal emotions are perceived reflexively in others’ facial configurations based on
40 feature detection alone (Ekman & Friesen, 1971; Keltner et al., 2019; Scarantino & Griffiths, 2011).
41 Yet accumulating evidence suggests that emotion perception depends on conceptual knowledge about
42 emotion that is activated in the minds of perceivers (Barrett et al., 2019; Hassin et al., 2013;
43 Lindquist & Gendron, 2013). This conceptual knowledge is influenced by a person’s prior
44 experiences (e.g., Halberstadt et al., 2009), including their cultural background (Gendron et al., 2020;
45 Jack et al., 2016; Lindquist et al., 2022). Moreover, growing evidence suggests that immigrants’
46 exposure to a host culture influences their conceptual knowledge about emotions (Gendron et al.,
47 2020) that informs the experience of emotion (De Leersnyder, 2017) and the production of emotional
48 facial behaviors (Bjornsdottir & Rule, 2021). Thus, the purpose of this preliminary study was to
49 examine for the first time whether brain connectivity patterns during perception of emotional faces
50 are a product of two important sources of conceptual knowledge: emotion concept accessibility and
51 one’s cultural background. Specifically, we tested whether emotion words and participants’ cultural
52 background alter functional connectivity between regions implicated in semantic retrieval, visual
53 perception, and social cognition during emotion perception.

54 There is growing evidence that the availability and accessibility of emotion concept knowledge
55 significantly influences emotion perception (Barrett et al., 2011; Barrett, 2017, 2022; Lindquist,
56 MacCormack, et al., 2015; Lindquist & Gendron, 2013; Nook et al., 2017; Satpute & Lindquist,
57 2021). An emotion concept such as “disgust” represents a set of variable, situated instances (e.g.,
58 disgust when the cat pees on the bed vs. disgust at discovering you’ve eaten a bite of moldy food vs.
59 disgust about a counter-normative body piercing) that are grounded by modality-specific information
60 tied to the situations in which they occur (e.g., distinctive physiological patterns; Kreibig, 2010;
61 Siegel et al., 2018). According to constructionist models of emotion, emotion concept knowledge is
62 supported via domain-general processes such as abstraction, categorization, and language (Barrett,
63 2017; Lindquist et al., 2022; Satpute & Lindquist, 2019; see also Xu et al., 2021). Our theoretical
64 framework proposes that emotion category words such as “disgust” serve as placeholders for concept
65 knowledge by cohering together otherwise highly variable situated instances as members of the same
66 abstract category (e.g., Atzil & Gendron, 2017; Doyle & Lindquist, 2018; Hoemann et al., 2019;
67 Hoemann & Barrett, 2019; Wilson-Mendenhall et al., 2011).

68 Behavioral evidence is consistent with the hypothesis that emotion words support access to emotion
69 concept knowledge, and, in turn, alter the perception of facial muscle configurations (see Lindquist &
70 Gendron, 2013). First, access to emotion words can induce categorical perception for emotional
71 facial behaviors. For example, perceivers who learned to pair chimpanzee facial muscle movements
72 with nonsense words subsequently perceived categorical distinctions between facial behaviors that
73 varied dimensionally in their facial muscle configurations (Fugate et al., 2010). These novel category
74 representations can then shape future perceptions. For example, learning to pair novel facial muscle
75 configurations with a nonsense word caused participants to see a subsequent category exemplar
76 labeled with the same word as more like the learned facial configurations. This effect was
77 significantly reduced when novel facial muscle configurations were initially learned in the absence of
78 nonsense labels (Doyle & Lindquist, 2018). Second, accessibility to emotion words alters the speed
79 and quality of emotion perception. For example, temporarily impeding access to emotion category

80 words leads to slower and less accurate emotion perception when compared to trials on which
81 emotion category words are accessible to perceivers (Gendron et al., 2012; Lindquist et al., 2014). In
82 contrast, priming emotion words leads to faster perceptions that are biased towards category
83 prototypes when compared to trials in which faces are seen without an emotion word (Halberstadt et
84 al., 2009; Nook et al., 2015).

85 Meta-analyses of human neuroimaging research also show that emotion perception consistently
86 recruits neural regions associated with semantic processing (e.g., Lindquist et al., 2012; Sabatinelli et
87 al., 2011). In particular, in a meta-analysis assessing the impact of emotion words on emotional face
88 processing, Brooks et al. (2017) found that the mere presence of emotion words—such as “anger” or
89 “disgust”—in instructions or as response options in neuroimaging tasks, was associated with greater
90 activity in regions associated with semantic retrieval during subsequent exposure to emotionally
91 evocative stimuli. These findings suggest that the mere presence of emotion category words—as task
92 instructions or response options throughout a task—can serve to prime participants to access emotion
93 concept knowledge that, in turn, influences brain activation during the perception of emotional
94 stimuli (see also Koban et al., 2017). In contrast, during experimental tasks in which emotion words
95 were absent as compared to present, Brooks et al. (2017) found increased BOLD activation in
96 bilateral amygdala extending into the parahippocampal gyrus. These findings are consistent with the
97 hypothesis that words serve as a form of “context” for interpreting emotional faces (e.g., see
98 Lindquist & Gendron, 2013) insofar as amygdala activation has been associated with representing the
99 salience of uncertain stimuli (e.g., Cunningham & Brosch, 2012) and parahippocampal activation has
100 been associated with using context to make meaning of visual objects (Aminoff et al., 2013; Bohbot
101 et al., 2015). More broadly, these findings are consistent with work on “affect labeling,” showing that
102 access to emotion words reduces amygdala activity and the emotional impact of faces during emotion
103 perception (see Satpute & Lindquist, 2021 and Torre & Lieberman, 2018 for reviews).

104 Importantly, emotion categories and the conceptual knowledge they afford differ across cultures
105 (Gendron et al., 2012; Kitayama, Mesquita, et al., 2006; see also Mesquita et al., 2017). Even
106 emotion words considered to be translational equivalents with English emotion categories, such as
107 anger, fear, and happiness, vary significantly in meaning across languages spanning the globe
108 (Jackson et al., 2019). Cross-linguistic variation in emotion category meaning may exist because
109 different cultural groups developed slightly different meanings around common emotionally
110 evocative situations (Gendron et al., 2020; Lindquist et al., 2022; Uchida et al., 2022; see also Uchida
111 et al., 2020 and Q. Wang, 2021). Indeed, different cultural groups associate the same emotion
112 category word, such as “disgust,” with different facial configurations (Fang et al., 2018; Jack et al.,
113 2016) and participants from different cultural backgrounds produce different facial muscle
114 movements for the same emotion category (both during spontaneous experience and when explicitly
115 posing those emotion categories; Fang et al., 2022). Furthermore, the neural representation of
116 emotional facial expressions reflects cross-cultural differences in emotion concept knowledge
117 between individuals from Japan versus the United States (Brooks et al., 2019).

118 More generally, there appear to be culture-based differences in how the brain represents emotional
119 facial behaviors. For instance, past research shows that whereas White participants residing in Japan
120 showed increased activity in the amygdala to White faces posing fearful expressions, Japanese
121 participants residing in Japan showed increased activity in the inferior frontal gyrus (Moriguchi et al.,
122 2005). Relatedly, White American participants residing in the United States and Japanese participants
123 residing in Japan showed greater activity in the amygdala to fearful expressions posed by members of
124 their own culture (Chiao et al., 2008). Collectively, these findings suggest that the presence of
125 emotion words and the cultural background of individuals may interact to predict the neural

126 representation of emotion perception. No study to our knowledge, however, has specifically
127 addressed this question. Moreover, past research has examined functional activation magnitude in
128 brain regions, but brain regions do not activate in isolation—brain regions work together as
129 functional neuronal assemblies (e.g., see Pessoa, 2023).

130 The present study thus tested for the first time whether priming emotion words such as “disgust”
131 alters functional connectivity during emotion perception in Chinese and White American participants
132 residing in the United States. We specifically recruited Chinese individuals who were born and raised
133 in mainland China but now reside in the United States, and non-Hispanic White American
134 individuals who were born and raised in the United States. Participants viewed facial muscle
135 configurations posed by White actors that are stereotypical of the English language emotion
136 categories anger and disgust while undergoing fMRI. Faces portraying behaviors stereotypical of
137 anger and disgust in the United States were used because these emotion categories are both perceived
138 to be associated with unpleasant and highly aroused affective states, and share in the activation of
139 multiple facial muscle groups (see Nook et al., 2015 for a discussion). Emotion concept knowledge
140 may be especially important to the understanding of emotional facial portrayals in such contexts
141 where the portrayals do not differ in valence or arousal (see Lindquist et al., 2016, Shablack &
142 Lindquist, 2019, and Widen, 2013 for discussions). Choosing faces with similar muscular activation
143 also allowed us to ensure that brain differences were not merely a product of differences in statistical
144 regularities present in the stimuli.

145 Across four counterbalanced blocks, posed expressions of anger and disgust were either preceded by
146 the relevant English emotion category word or non-emotional, non-word control text (i.e.,
147 “XXXXXX”). English language emotion categories and associated posed facial behaviors were used
148 with the expectation that English emotion words would differentially impact the emotion perception
149 of Chinese participants, who in the absence of priming, might have relatively less automatic
150 accessibility to English language emotion concept knowledge, including the specific facial muscle
151 configurations stereotypically associated with those categories in a United States context (see Fang et
152 al., 2018). Moreover, White actors were used to mimic the majority racial and ethnic identities in the
153 United States broadly, and the local context (the Southeast), specifically. All target actors were self-
154 identified females; we used all female faces since these poses had the highest normed perceiver
155 agreement for the emotion category depicted in the database we used.

156 Following on the meta-analytic findings of Brooks et al. (2017), we assessed whether the mere
157 presence of emotion category words preceding perception of posed emotional facial behaviors would
158 impact functional connectivity between the left inferior frontal gyrus (IFG) and bilateral amygdala, as
159 well as connectivity of those regions with 70 other regions linked meta-analytically to semantic
160 processing (e.g., Binder & Desai, 2011; Price, 2012), emotion perception (e.g., Lamm et al., 2011;
161 Sabatinelli et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2012) and social cognition (e.g., Pintos Lobo et al., 2023; Van
162 Overwalle, 2009). Analyses were corrected for multiple comparisons using the false discovery rate.

163 According to some accounts of emotion perception (e.g., see Ekman & Cordaro, 2011), the mere
164 presence of an emotion category label would have no effect on functional connectivity, nor should it
165 interact with the cultural background of a perceiver to influence perception of so-called universal
166 facial expressions of emotion. On the other hand, constructionist accounts of emotion suggest that a
167 word naming an emotion concept activates a cache of conceptual knowledge about the types of
168 instances that populate that category (e.g., see Barrett, 2006). Even if category words such as “anger”
169 and “disgust” have direct translations in other languages, they are likely associated with different
170 facial muscle movements across people from different cultural backgrounds (e.g., Jack et al. 2016).

171 We thus hypothesized that priming English language emotion categories might differentially impact
172 functional connectivity while Chinese participants raised in China versus White American
173 participants raised in the United States perceived emotional faces. We hypothesized that access to
174 English emotion category words might have a larger impact on functional connectivity in the brains
175 of Chinese participants, since these participants might be less familiar with or have less automatic
176 accessibility to English language emotion concept knowledge. We did not have specific hypotheses
177 regarding the impact of labels on perception of specific emotion categories.

178 **2 Methods**

179 **2.1 Participants**

180 Fifty-one young adults consented to the overall study, but only 45 participated due to time
181 constraints. All participants were right-handed and denied any history of neurological or psychiatric
182 disease. Participants consented to the study as approved by the UNC Institutional Review Board and
183 were compensated \$50 for their involvement. Four participants were excluded due to head motion
184 exceeding 2 mm. Four additional participants were unable to complete the scanning session in the
185 time allotted due to experimental errors. One other participant requested to leave the scanner mid-
186 scan due to claustrophobia. Thus the final count of participants in this study was 36, comprising 15
187 Chinese participants ($M_{\text{age}} = 20.4 \pm 2.2$; 9 self-identified females) and 21 White American
188 participants ($M_{\text{age}} = 22.3 \pm 3.4$; 10 self-identified females). No age differences were observed
189 between self-identified female and male participants ($b = -1.54$, $SE = 0.96$, $t = -1.61$, $p = .118$),
190 cultural groups ($b = -1.71$, $SE = 0.96$, $t = -1.78$, $p = .085$), and self-identified male and female
191 participants within cultural groups ($F_{(1, 32)} = 2.69$, $p = .111$).

192 White American participants were born and raised in the United States by primarily monolingual
193 English-speaking non-Hispanic White American-born parents, and all denied ever residing outside of
194 the United States. In contrast, Chinese participants were born and raised in provinces of mainland
195 China excluding areas with significant Western influence, such as Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan.
196 These participants were raised by primarily monolingual Mandarin-speaking Chinese-born parents,
197 and all denied ever residing outside their provinces prior to arriving in the United States as adults. In
198 addition, given that Chinese participants had resided in the United States for an average of less than
199 20 months ($M_{\text{months}} = 18.4 \pm 15.1$), they were required to undergo the Test of English as a Foreign
200 Language (TOEFL; Educational Testing Service) to assess their proficiency in English
201 communication. All Chinese participants demonstrated the highest level of proficiency in reading,
202 listening, speaking, and writing in English ($M_{\text{TOEFL}} = 107.6$; range = 102-112). No significant
203 differences were observed between self-identified Chinese female and male participants in terms of
204 their duration of stay in the United States ($F_{(1, 13)} = 0.02$, $p = .879$) or TOEFL scores ($F_{(1, 13)} = 0.34$, p
205 = .572).

206 **2.2 Practice Task**

207 All participants underwent two practice runs of the fMRI task outside the scanner on a laptop
208 computer. These practice runs were identical to the actual fMRI task with the exception of the
209 emotion labels and posed emotional facial portrayals that were used; we opted to use the category
210 “sadness” so as not to impact participants’ perceptual representation of posed angry and disgusted
211 faces prior to seeing them in the scanner. The first practice corresponded to the emotion-word label
212 condition and participants saw the word “Sadness”, after which they passively viewed images of
213 actors portraying facial muscle configurations stereotypical of sadness in the United States. The

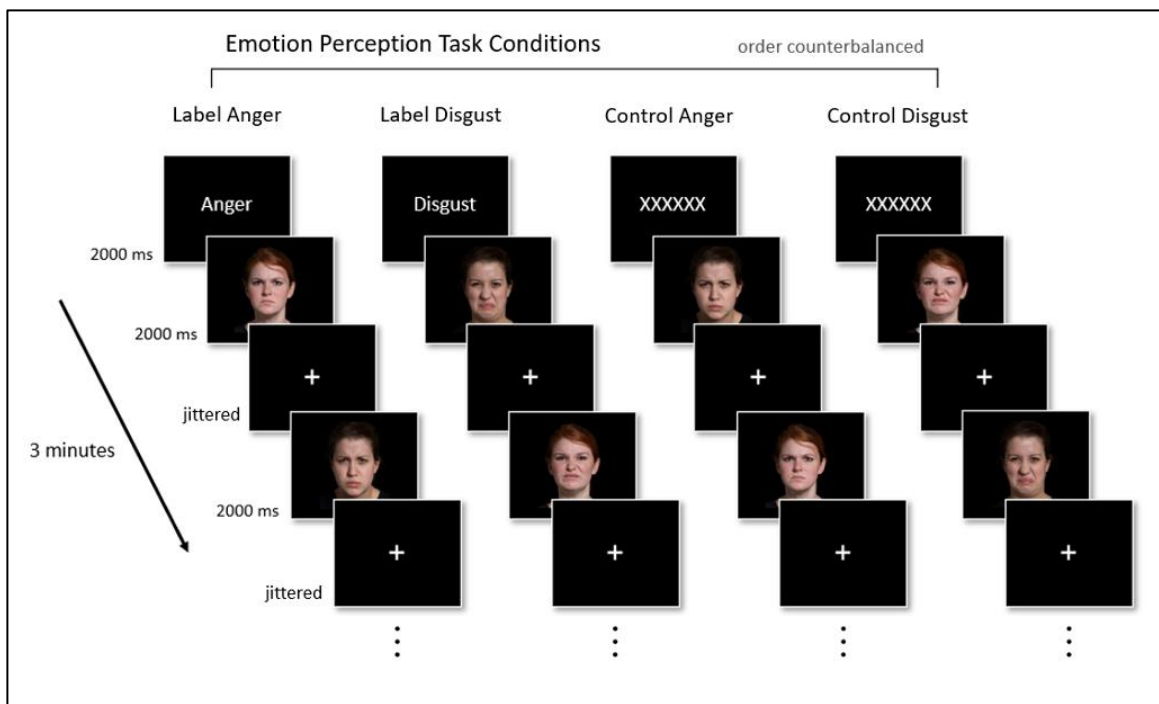
214 second practice run corresponded to the control condition. This practice run was exactly like the first
215 but the emotion label was replaced with a control text with no semantic meaning: “XXXXXX”.

216 2.3 Study Design

217 Participants underwent four 3-minute fMRI runs in a 2 (Emotion: Anger vs. Disgust) x 2 (Label:
218 Emotion Label vs. Control Text) block design. In two of the four runs, participants saw one emotion-
219 word label (“Anger” in one run, “Disgust” in the other) prior to the start of the run. In the other two
220 runs, the emotion word was replaced with a Control Text (“XXXXXX”). In both the Label and
221 Control Text conditions, text was only shown once at the start of each fMRI run for 2000 ms in order
222 for the priming effect to remain subtle. Following the Label or Control Text, participants passively
223 viewed images of actors portraying facial muscle configurations stereotypical of anger or disgust in
224 the United States. We assessed passive viewing because we were interested in whether the mere
225 presence of the emotion word label impacted activation in regions involved in semantic retrieval,
226 even when participants were not explicitly asked to render a category judgment about the face at any
227 point in time during the task. In each block, 40 faces were presented per block for 2000 ms each.
228 Fixation crosses served as interstimulus intervals (ISIs) and remained on-screen for a jittered amount
229 of time (2000-8000 ms). Because we were interested only in conditions in which an emotion word
230 was congruent with the pictured facial muscle configurations, facial configurations stereotypical of
231 anger were only shown in the “Anger” run [Label Anger] and in one “XXXXXX” run [Control
232 Anger]. Similarly, facial configurations stereotypical of disgust were only shown in the “Disgust” run
233 [Label Disgust] and one “XXXXXX” run [Control Disgust]. The four runs were counterbalanced and
234 faces were presented in a random order within each block. Figure 1 illustrates the fMRI paradigm.

235 **Figure 1**

236 *Experimental Paradigm*



237

238 *Note.* Participants completed four 3-minute fMRI runs in a 2 x 2 block design (Face Expression
239 [Anger, Disgust] x Prime Condition [Emotion Label, Control Text]). Priming (i.e., the presentation of
240 either an emotion concept or a string of Xs) occurred once for 2000 ms at the start of every run.
241 Participants then passively viewed 40 faces, each shown for 2000 ms, displaying either anger or
242 disgust; faces corresponding to anger or disgust only appeared in their respective labeled run or
243 control run. Jittered fixation crosses (2000-8000 ms) were used as interstimulus intervals. The
244 IASLab Face Set Release Agreement permits the display of only two specific actors when
245 showcasing examples from the stimulus set in publications (i.e., the actors shown in this figure). In
246 the present study, however, we used stimuli from 10 actors.

247 **2.4 Stimuli**

248 Face stimuli were taken from the NimStim Face set (Tottenham et al., 2009) and the IASLab Face set
249 (www.affective-science.org). We selected 10 different faces expressing sadness from the NimStim
250 Face set to be shown during the practice task. Face stimuli shown in the fMRI emotion perception
251 task were collected from separate data sets in order to control for potential priming effects prior to
252 scanning. For the fMRI emotion perception task, we used the IASLab Face set to select 10 images of
253 actors portraying facial muscle configurations stereotypical of anger and 10 images of the same actor
254 portraying facial muscle configurations stereotypical of disgust. As a result, the two emotion
255 conditions presented repeated instances of the same actor from the IASLab Face set. All images
256 depicted White women expressing emotions with a closed mouth to reduce the additional impact of
257 race and gender on emotional face representations and, more practically, because White women's
258 posed facial behaviors had the highest normed inter-rater agreement for the intended emotion
259 category in the database we used.

260 **2.5 fMRI Data Acquisition**

261 We used a 3 Tesla Siemens PRISMA whole-body scanner to acquire structural images and fMRI
262 data. The first structural image was a T1*magnetization-prepared rapid-acquisition gradient echo:
263 slice thickness = 0.8 mm; 208 slices; repetition time (TR) = 2400 ms; echo time (TE) = 2.22 ms;
264 matrix = 320 x 320; field of view (FOV) = 256 mm; voxel size = 0.8 x 0.8 x 0.8 mm³; sagittal plane.
265 The second structural image was a T2*-weighted, matched-bandwidth, high resolution, anatomical
266 scan: slice thickness = 3 mm; 38 slices; TR = 5700 ms; TE = 65 ms; matrix = 192 x 192; FOV = 230
267 mm; voxel size = 1.2 x 1.2 x 3.0 mm³. The functional images were T2*-weighted echo-planar
268 images: 37 slices; slice thickness = 3 mm; TR = 2000 ms; TE = 25 ms; matrix = 92 x 92; FOV = 230
269 mm; voxel size = 2.5 x 2.5 x 3.0 mm³.

270 **2.6 fMRI Data Preprocessing**

271 fMRI data were preprocessed using SPM12 (Wellcome Trust Centre for Neuroimaging at UCL,
272 London, UK), implemented in MATLAB 2018a (Mathworks Inc., Natick, MA). Volumes were slice-
273 time corrected, realigned to the mean volume to correct for head motion, normalized, and warped
274 into the standard stereotactic space defined by the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI, 2 mm). We
275 processed image artifacts originating from head movement using the ART- based scrubbing
276 procedure as an artifact removal tool (Nieto-Castanon, 2020). Signal contributions from the white
277 matter, cerebrospinal fluid, linear BOLD signal trends within each session, and micro-head
278 movements (12 parameter estimates: 3 translation, 3 rotation, and their associated first-order
279 derivatives) were regressed out of the data. Lastly, the fMRI data were band-pass filtered (0.008–0.09
280 Hz) and functional images were spatially smoothed using a Gaussian filter kernel (full width at half-
281 maximum = 8 mm) for subsequent ROI-to-ROI analyses.

282 2.7 Generalized Psychophysiological Interaction (gPPI) Analysis

283 Functional connectivity was analyzed with the CONN toolbox (version 18b; Whitfield-Gabrieli &
284 Nieto-Castanon, 2012) in MATLAB R2018a (Mathworks Inc., Natick, MA) using gPPI. The seeds of
285 interest were bilateral amygdala and left IFG; meta-analytically, the left IFG shows consistent
286 activation across fMRI studies on emotion perception when emotion concepts, relative to control
287 concepts (i.e., gender concepts), are present in the fMRI task as instructions or response options
288 (Brooks et al., 2017). These findings were taken as evidence by Brooks et al. (2017) that emotion
289 perception requires relatively greater access to semantic knowledge than gender perception. In
290 contrast, bilateral amygdala shows consistent activation for the inverse contrast across fMRI studies
291 on emotion perception (Brooks et al., 2017). These findings were taken as evidence by Brooks et al.
292 (2017) that in the absence of emotion category words, emotional facial expressions are more
293 ambiguous in meaning.

294 We used the Schaefer atlas to identify a parcellation for the left IFG seed using peak coordinates
295 from Brooks et al. (2017). We chose the Schaefer atlas for its ability to provide homogeneous and
296 neurobiologically meaningful features of brain organization based on a multiresolution parcellation
297 generated from using both task-fMRI and resting-state fMRI data across diverse acquisition protocols
298 (Schaefer et al., 2018). Because the Schaefer atlas lacks subcortical parcellations, bilateral amygdala
299 seeds were constructed using peak coordinates of amygdala activation from our meta-analysis on the
300 brain basis of emotion (see Lindquist et al., 2012, Table S3). ROIs were constructed as 6 mm spheres
301 using the MarsBarR toolbox for SPM (Brett et al., 2011) centered at the peak coordinates.

302 Target regions were selected via the CONN toolbox, which uses both the Harvard-Oxford atlas and
303 AAL atlas (Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2002) for cortical and cerebellar parcellations. We specifically
304 were interested in regions that, meta-analytically, show consistent activation during semantic
305 retrieval (e.g., Binder & Desai, 2011; Price, 2012), social cognition (e.g., Pintos Lobo et al., 2023;
306 Van Overwalle, 2009), and emotion perception (e.g., Lamm et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2012;
307 Sabatinelli et al., 2011). Target regions, in no particular order, spanned superior frontal gyrus
308 (bilateral), middle frontal gyrus (bilateral), right inferior frontal gyrus (pars triangularis and
309 opercularis), temporal poles, superior temporal gyrus (bilateral), middle temporal gyrus (bilateral),
310 superior parietal lobule (bilateral), supramarginal gyrus (bilateral), angular gyrus (bilateral), medial
311 prefrontal cortex, anterior cingulate gyrus (bilateral), anterior insula (bilateral), precuneus (bilateral),
312 parahippocampal gyrus (bilateral), lingual gyrus (bilateral), fusiform gyrus (bilateral), and the
313 cerebellum (crux and vermis). Many of these regions are additionally activated during studies of
314 emotion in general (Kober et al., 2008; Lindquist et al., 2012) and emotion perception, in particular
315 (Fusar-Poli et al., 2009).

316 First-level ROI-to-ROI gPPI analysis was then implemented in CONN to examine how emotion
317 labels (anger, disgust) and control labels (XXXXXX) modulate functional connectivity during
318 emotion perception between seed and target regions. A gPPI analysis computes how functional
319 association strength between a seed region (e.g., IFG) and a target region (e.g., precuneus) covaries
320 with an external or experimental factor, such as task conditions. In CONN, gPPI analysis involves
321 computation of separate multiple regression models for each target region BOLD timeseries; this
322 involves a) all of the selected task effects convolved with a canonical hemodynamic response
323 function (psychological term), b) seed ROI BOLD timeseries (physiological term), and c) the
324 interaction term specified as the product of a) and b) (PPI term). Second-level analyses were then
325 performed to control for multiple comparisons at the level of seeds using parametric statistics based
326 on Gaussian Random Field Theory (Worsley et al., 1998). Cultural group was used as a covariate in

327 the second-level analysis, with a contrast of *Chinese > White American* set for each of the seed
328 regions for differences between task conditions, that is, *Anger Label > Anger Control* and *Disgust*
329 *Label > Disgust Control*. We used the false discovery rate (FDR) method for correction for multiple
330 comparisons ($p < 0.05$, two-tailed) (Genovese et al., 2002).

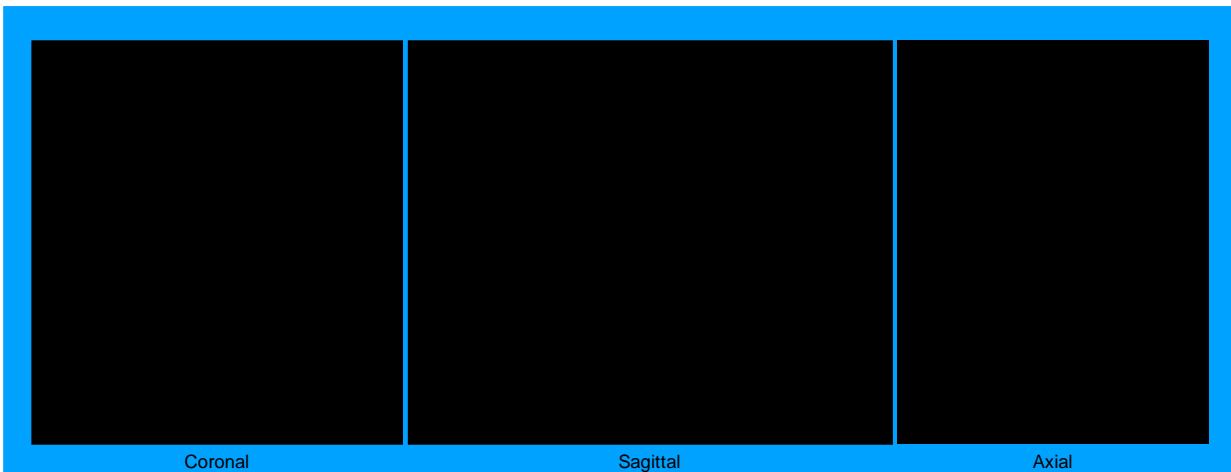
331 3 Results

332 We found no significant difference in functional connectivity between seed regions (bilateral
333 amygdala and left IFG) and target regions during the anger label condition relative to the anger
334 control label condition. Moreover, there were no differences between cultural groups in functional
335 connectivity for the anger conditions.

336 We did, however, observe significant differences in functional connectivity between left IFG and
337 target regions in the *Disgust Label > Control Label* for Chinese compared to White American
338 participants (Figure 2). Specifically, we found that functional connectivity between the left IFG and
339 regions implicated in visual face perception (bilateral lingual gyrus), mentalizing (vermis IX), and
340 semantic representation (middle temporal gyrus) decreased in the emotion label condition relative to
341 the control label condition for Chinese participants only ($F_{(8,27)} = 2.58$, $p = .031$; $p < .05$, two-sided
342 FDR seed-level correction) (Figure 3).

343 Figure 2

344 *Connectivity Between Left IFG and Target Regions*



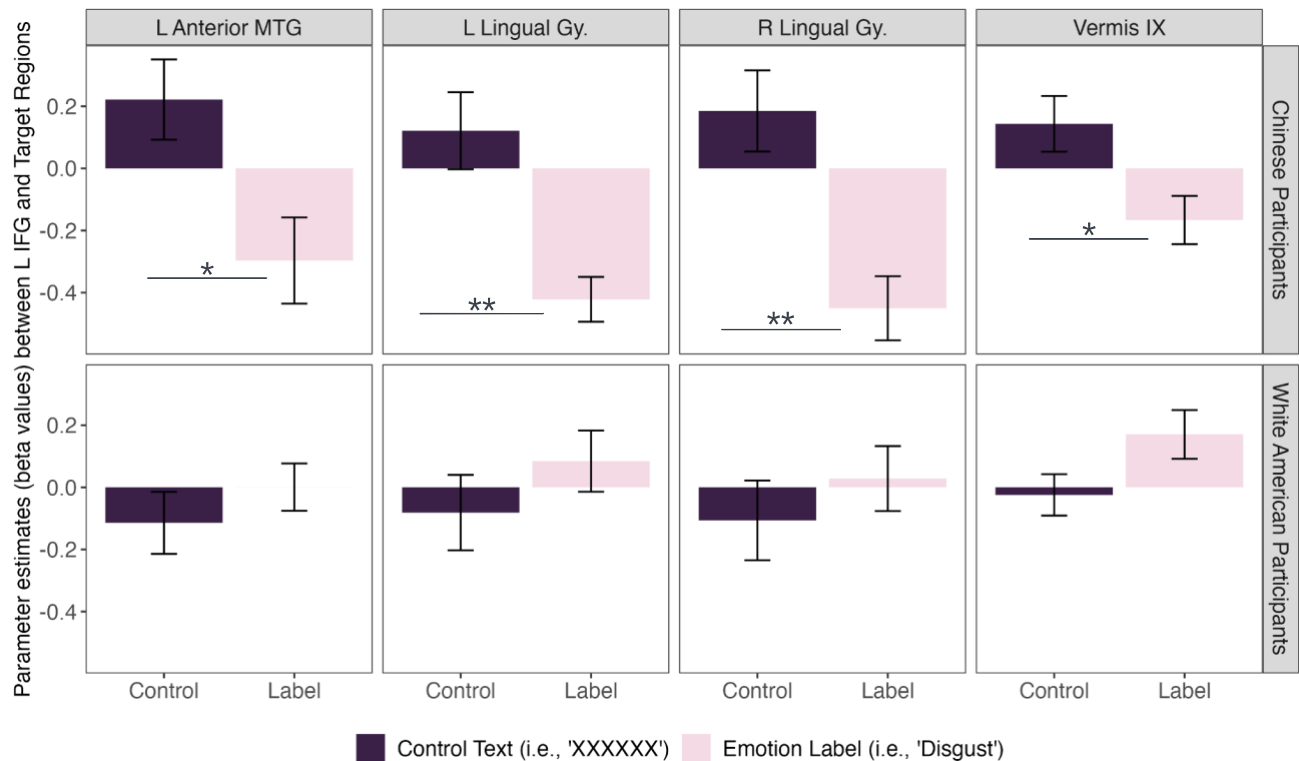
345

346 *Note.* Functional connectivity analyses involved seed regions (3) and target regions (70); these
347 analyses were corrected for multiple comparisons using the false discovery rate (seed-level FDR-
348 corrected $p < .05$). Results showed significant differences in functional connectivity between the left
349 inferior frontal gyrus (IFG; a seed region) and several target regions (Bi. Lingual = bilateral lingual
350 gyri; aMTG = left anterior middle temporal gyrus; Vermis IX = cerebellar vermis 9) during disgust
351 label vs. control label in Chinese participants compared to White American participants.

352

353 **Figure 3**

354 *Connectivity Differences Between Cultural Groups During Disgust Perception*



355

356 *Note.* Chinese participants (top row) showed significant functional connectivity between the left
 357 inferior frontal gyrus (L IFG) and left anterior middle temporal gyrus ($t_{(34)} = -3.53$), bilateral lingual
 358 gyri (left: $t_{(34)} = -4.23$; right: $t_{(34)} = -4.81$), and cerebellum (i.e., vermis IX; $t_{(34)} = -3.33$) during disgust
 359 perception when primed with an emotion label (i.e., “disgust”; gray hue) compared to control text
 360 (i.e., “XXXXXX”; green hue). In contrast, there was insufficient evidence to conclude that White
 361 American participants (bottom row) showed a significant difference in functional connectivity
 362 between prime conditions for disgust perception. Asterisks: * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$.

363 We found no significant difference in functional connectivity between bilateral amygdala and any
 364 target regions between conditions or cultural backgrounds.

365 **4 Discussion**

366 How culture plays a role in the neural representation of emotion perception—and whether language
 367 interacts with culture in this process—is a question of enduring interest in affective neuroscience. Yet
 368 very little research has explicitly examined this topic. This preliminary study of 36 participants from
 369 the United States and mainland China is one of the first to explicitly examine how access to emotion
 370 concept knowledge interacts with a person’s culture of origin to impact the neural representation of
 371 emotional faces. We based our study on Brooks et al. (2017)’s meta-analysis examining the effect of
 372 emotion word priming on the neural representation of emotion perception. The studies represented in
 373 Brooks et al. (2017) did not explicitly manipulate the presence or absence of emotion category words
 374 in experimental tasks, but, when meta-analyzed, showed that emotion category word accessibility
 375 nonetheless influenced the neural representation of emotional stimuli. To follow up on this work, we
 376 explicitly primed participants from different cultural backgrounds with English language emotion

377 category word labels (or non-word controls) before emotion perception. We predicted that priming
378 emotion words might especially influence functional connectivity for participants of Chinese descent
379 living in the United States because labels would help them access emotion concept knowledge
380 consistent with their English-speaking host culture. We focused on seed regions of interest observed
381 in Brooks et al. (2017): the left IFG and bilateral amygdala. We found that culture exerted an effect
382 on the functional connectivity between IFG and regions implicated in visual perception, semantic
383 representation, and social cognition for Chinese participants only, and only when the word “disgust”
384 was primed prior to perceiving White actors’ faces portraying disgust. This finding suggests that both
385 culture and access to emotion category words may influence how the brain represents emotional
386 facial behaviors during emotion perception. These findings converge with other growing behavioral
387 (Barrett, 2006; Gendron et al., 2012; Lindquist, MacCormack, et al., 2015; Lindquist, Satpute, et al.,
388 2015; Lindquist & Gendron, 2013; Nook et al., 2015; Satpute & Lindquist, 2021) and neural (Brooks
389 et al., 2017, 2019; Brooks & Freeman, 2018) evidence that conceptual knowledge in the mind of
390 perceivers plays an important role in emotion perception. They also add to a relatively small cultural
391 neuroscience literature examining cross-cultural differences in emotion perception.

392 **4.1 Cultural Influences on Emotion Perception**

393 The effects of culture on emotion perception found in the present study help to inform the current
394 literature on cultural neuroscience (see Han & Ma, 2014; Shkurko, 2020). Our finding that priming
395 the word “disgust” influenced functional connectivity for Chinese participants, but not White
396 American participants, suggests that access to emotion words had a differential effect for people from
397 different cultural backgrounds. It may be that White American participants’ functional connectivity
398 during emotion perception did not differ as a product of whether a word did or did not precede the
399 perception of posed facial emotional behaviors because emotion concept knowledge associated with
400 English emotion words is more chronically accessible for White Americans who speak English than
401 Chinese from mainland China who are recent immigrants to the United States.

402 Although we made no predictions about whether specific emotion categories would show differential
403 functional connectivity between the experimental conditions under study, our results are interesting
404 in light of evidence that disgust is expressed (Fang et al., 2022) and perceived (Fang et al., 2018) as
405 less distinctive than anger in Chinese versus White European participants. Moreover, translations of
406 the English category “disgust” do not exist in traditional Daoist, Buddhist, or Confucian Chinese
407 texts (Russell & Yik, 1996), suggesting that the category might have been traditionally less central to
408 Chinese culture than to cultural groups descending from Western Europe.

409 Our findings suggest that in the absence of explicit access to the English emotion word “disgust,”
410 Chinese participants were processing facial behaviors associated with the category disgust differently
411 than when they had access to the word. Past research associates lingual gyrus activation with face
412 perception (Watson et al., 2016), middle temporal gyrus activation with categorization and semantics
413 (Buckley et al., 1997; Visser et al., 2012), and the vermis 9 of the cerebellum with mentalizing (Van
414 Overwalle et al., 2020). Thus, although speculative, these findings may suggest that providing
415 Chinese participants with the English label “disgust” reduced their need to engage in elaborative
416 meaning making of the disgusted facial behaviors posed by White American actors by drawing on
417 visual information processing, semantic retrieval, and social cognition. In contrast, priming access to
418 the relevant English category may have allowed Chinese participants to easily access the English
419 concept of “disgust” to resolve the meaning of White American’s facial behaviors. It is possible that
420 we did not find this effect for posed angry faces because the facial behaviors associated with anger in
421 the United States are either more like those associated with anger in China, or because Chinese

422 participants living in the United States are merely more familiar with facial behaviors associated with
423 anger in the United States. Future research should thus examine how familiarity with the facial
424 behaviors prototypically associated with certain emotion categories in the host culture and a
425 participant's degree of acculturation impact these findings.

426 **4.2 Limitations and Future Directions**

427 To our knowledge, this is the first study to test hypotheses about the impact of language on functional
428 connectivity during emotion perception. Our findings should thus be viewed as preliminary evidence
429 and a concept proof that language and culture may together influence the neural representation of
430 emotion perception. The current study was limited in multiple ways that should be improved upon in
431 future research. First, there are limitations of our design that should be noted. Priming conditions
432 were explicit, albeit subtle and fleeting; participants were not given expectations for the relevance of
433 the words, and they only viewed them for 2 seconds before seeing a number of same-category faces.
434 This allowed us to test whether mere exposure to category information changed subsequent
435 processing of faces, even when there was no goal to explicitly categorize those faces.

436 We chose non-words (XXXXX) as our control condition rather than using control words with
437 semantic meaning to most closely mimic Brooks et al. (2017)'s meta-analysis in which the presence
438 of emotion words was compared to the absence of emotion words. Including controls with semantic
439 meaning also could have biased perception in unknown ways. Fortunately, the fact that we found
440 effects specific to disgust in Chinese participants suggests that our findings are not just due to the
441 effect of viewing any word versus non-words.

442 We also assessed passive viewing as opposed to including an active task because we were interested
443 in whether the mere presence of the emotion word label impacted activation in regions involved in
444 semantic retrieval, visual perception, and social cognition, even when participants were not explicitly
445 asked to render a category judgment about the face. This meant that we could not ensure that
446 participants were actively categorizing the faces as emotional, but it also rules out that our findings
447 are merely due to task demands for explicit categorization. Our design was thus, in many ways, a
448 subtle and conservative test of our hypotheses. The fact that there was an effect of any of the labels—
449 especially on Chinese participants' brain connectivity—during perception of disgust is suggestive
450 that the prime was sufficient to alter subsequent processing of the faces. Again, the fact that we found
451 connectivity differences between the label and control condition when viewing disgust faces suggests
452 that participants were likely paying attention to these faces, but future research should replicate these
453 findings with a range of passive and active conditions.

454 Second, there are limitations associated with our sample. While our sample size aligns with those of
455 many cultural neuroscience studies (e.g., Adams et al., 2010; Cheon et al., 2011; de Greck et al.,
456 2012; Freeman et al., 2009; Immordino-Yang et al., 2014; Park et al., 2017; Qu & Telzer, 2017), it is
457 modest compared to broader neuroimaging standards. Consequently, this may have reduced our
458 ability to detect subtle effects, especially at the whole-brain level given the strict statistical thresholds
459 inherent to neuroimaging (see Chen et al., 2020, for a discussion). The absence of significant effects
460 in our functional activation results further underscores this limitation (see Supplementary Materials).
461 Nevertheless, it is important to note that these null findings—from both functional activation and
462 connectivity results—should not be interpreted as definitive evidence against certain effects. A larger
463 sample may yield different insights. As noted earlier, many cultural neuroscience studies with similar
464 sample sizes have been replicated and validated through systematic literature reviews (e.g., see Han
465 & Ma, 2014; Shkurko, 2020). Central to our study are the significant effects highlighting the role of

466 culture and concept accessibility on functional connectivity during emotion perception, whose
467 corresponding hypotheses are grounded in meta-analyses of the affective neuroscience literature
468 (e.g., Brooks et al., 2017; Lindquist et al., 2012; Sabatinelli et al., 2011). Our findings provide
469 preliminary evidence supporting the notion that the neural underpinnings of emotion perception are
470 contingent on the mind of the perceiver. Future research, employing larger samples, will need to
471 investigate and assess the consistency of these effects.

472 Moreover, we selected our sample to be prototypical of the East-West paradigm commonly used in
473 cross-cultural psychology studies of emotion (e.g., see Mesquita et al., 2017). Yet there are
474 limitations associated with these two-culture comparisons. Future studies interested in similar effects
475 of emotion-word labels and culture may find it informative to utilize continuous and multiple discrete
476 measures of culture. We also sampled individuals of Chinese descent who were living in the United
477 States, which meant they were not completely naïve to White American facial emotional expressions.
478 These individuals might also be different from Chinese individuals who have not moved to the
479 United States on a number of dimensions including personality (Kitayama, Ishii, et al., 2006) or
480 levels of acculturation to US emotional norms (see Zhou et al., 2021). By selecting participants from
481 a wider pool of Chinese with greater variation in time spent in the US, future research could also
482 specifically examine the effects of acculturation. There is evidence that emotion concept
483 understanding (Jackson et al., 2019), facial expressions (Niedenthal et al., 2019), and patterning of
484 emotional experiences (De Leersnyder, 2017), may evolve as a product of cross-cultural contact.
485 Potential future studies may also benefit from incorporating additional conditions such that there are
486 same-race stimuli present for each cultural group and there are labels used in each participant's
487 primary language. Such a paradigm could reveal inter-group biases as well as an additional benefit of
488 labels from participants' primary versus secondary language (e.g., see El-Dakhs & Altarriba, 2018).

489 **4.3 Conclusion**

490 Our findings add to growing evidence that conceptual knowledge activated in the minds of perceivers
491 influences emotion perception. We provide preliminary evidence that brain representations of
492 emotional facial expressions are influenced by two important sources of conceptual knowledge: a
493 person's access to emotion category words and their cultural background. We assessed the neural
494 processes involved in emotion perception in a sample of Chinese and White American participants
495 living in the United States. Our findings that functional connectivity associated with emotion
496 perception differs as a product of cultural background and access to the host culture's emotion
497 concepts are especially relevant in a rapidly globalizing society in which individuals from different
498 cultural groups live in the same context.

499 **5 Conflict of Interest**

500 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
501 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

502 **6 Author Contributions**

503 Author contributions: **Joseph Leshin**: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Supervision,
504 Data curation, Software, Formal analysis, Visualization, Writing-original draft preparation, Writing-
505 review & editing. **Maleah J. Carter**: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Software,
506 Formal analysis, Visualization, Writing-original draft preparation, Writing-review & editing.
507 **Cameron M. Doyle**: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Supervision, Data curation,
508 Software, Formal analysis. **Kristen A. Lindquist**: Conceptualization, Funding acquisition,

509 Methodology, Resources, Writing-original draft preparation, Writing-review & editing, Supervision,
510 Project Administration.

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514 **8 Data Availability Statement**

515 Analyzed data for this study can be found at OSF:
516 https://osf.io/7wfej/?view_only=e2aa8a5c2a6f4d74a7355b31d8019156.

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803

Supplementary Material

Whole-brain and Regional Brain Activation Results

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805 **12 Background**

806 Emotion concept knowledge in the form of emotion words such as “anger” or “disgust” influences
807 emotion perception (Barrett, 2006; Lindquist et al., 2015; Lindquist & Gendron, 2013; Satpute &
808 Lindquist, 2021). During fMRI studies on emotion perception, the presence of emotion words in the
809 experimental context (e.g., in a forced-choice task) activates regions associated with semantic
810 processing, while the absence of these words activates regions associated with uncertainty (Brooks et
811 al., 2017). These brain activation patterns, consistent across various emotion perception tasks
812 (Brooks et al., 2017), suggest a neurobiological mechanism whereby retrieval of semantic
813 information (i.e., language to make meaning of a facial expression) reduces the ambiguity of the
814 sensory input by refining it as a specific emotion category (e.g., “an angry face”) (see Satpute &
815 Lindquist, 2019, 2021, for discussions; see also Betz et al., 2019).

816 To our knowledge, Brooks et al. (2017)’s meta-analytic findings that the presence of emotion words
817 in the experimental context influences neural responses associated with emotion perception have yet
818 to be tested experimentally. Hence, we sought to replicate and extend Brooks et al.’s findings by
819 testing the hypothesis that the neural basis of emotion perception depends in part on the accessibility
820 of emotion concept knowledge.

821 Thus we manipulated participants’ ($N = 36$) accessibility to emotion concept knowledge by priming
822 participants with either emotion words (“anger”, “disgust”) or control text (“XXXXXX”) prior to
823 viewing facial configurations of prototypical North American expressions of anger and disgust. We
824 also investigated the effect of participants’ cultural background (Chinese v. White American) on the
825 neural basis of emotion perception, given that a person’s cultural upbringing significantly shapes the
826 development of their emotion concept knowledge (Chiao, 2018; Gendron et al., 2020; Lindquist et
827 al., 2022). We tested our hypothesis using both functional activation and connectivity methods; this
828 supplement focuses on the activation results.

829 Please refer to the main text for details on the sampled participants and experimental design.

830 **13 Hypotheses and Analyses**

831 This supplement examines whether the presence of emotion words (“anger”, “disgust”) influences
832 neural responses (functional activation) associated with emotion perception and whether these effects
833 vary between cultural groups (Chinese v. White American). We hypothesized: (a) that English
834 emotion words might affect Chinese participants differently due to potentially lesser accessibility to
835 English emotion concepts, including associated facial configurations; (b) that emotion-word priming
836 would lead to increased activation in regions linked to semantic retrieval and processing (e.g., left
837 inferior frontal gyrus) compared to control-text priming; and (c) that control-text priming would lead
838 to increased activation in regions linked to uncertainty (e.g., bilateral amygdala) compared to
839 emotion-word priming.

840 We used a univariate whole-brain activation and a region-of-interest (ROI) approach to investigate
841 these hypotheses. ROIs and hypothesized effects are outlined in Supplementary Tables 1 and 2. We
842 held no specific predictions regarding how labels would affect perceptions of different emotions
843 across cultures.

844 Note that in the main text we focus on similar hypotheses but through a functional connectivity lens,
845 highlighting large-scale neural connections over isolated activation points. These methodological
846 divergences can yield different results.

847 Please refer to the main text for details on fMRI data acquisition and pre-processing.

848 **13.1 Whole-brain Analysis**

849 After data pre-processing, individual subject statistical maps were generated using a general linear
850 model (GLM), in which onsets and durations were defined based on the affective stimuli (face)
851 presentations. Two variables—Emotion Category (Anger, Disgust) and Prime Type (Emotion Label,
852 Control Text)—were explicitly modeled in the design matrix. The baseline condition consisted of the
853 jittered interval trials and was implicitly modeled.

854 A GLM subject-level model was created for each condition—[Label Anger], [Label Disgust],
855 [Control Anger], and [Control Disgust]—and for contrasts that examined neural responses associated
856 with: the impact of emotion labels on the perception of anger, [Label Anger v. Control Anger]; the
857 impact of emotion labels on the perception of disgust, [Label Disgust v. Control Disgust]; and the
858 impact of emotion labels on the perception of anger or disgust, [(Label Anger + Label Disgust) v.
859 (Control Anger + Control Disgust)]. These GLMs were subsequently included in a second-level
860 mixed-effects model, treating subjects as the random effect. Whole-brain results applied a threshold
861 of $p < .001$ (voxel-wise) and underwent FDR correction at $p < .05$.

862 **13.2 ROI Analysis**

863 Regional brain activation was investigated using ROIs created in FSLEyes (version 1.0.13). ROIs
864 were 6 mm spheres centered at the MNI coordinates in Supplementary Table 1. Mean parameter
865 estimates were extracted from these ROIs for each condition: [Label Anger], [Label Disgust],
866 [Control Anger], and [Control Disgust]. Subsequent reformatting transformed the parameter
867 estimates from wide-form to long-form to structurally represent the repeated-measure design of the
868 fMRI experiment. This latter step created a new factor—ROI—and a single outcome variable:
869 regional brain activation.

870 We then fit a single mixed-effects model. Regional brain activation was regressed on emotion
871 category, prime type, culture, ROI, and the interactions between these factors. Age and self-identified
872 (biological) sex were added as covariates. Within- and between-subject factors were treated as fixed
873 effects; individual subjects were treated as random effects. ANOVA was subsequently used to
874 examine the sequential decomposition of the contributions of the fixed-effects terms (Bates et al.,
875 2015).

876 Statistical analyses were carried out using R 4.2.2 (R Core Team, 2022) and *tidyr* (v1.2.0; Wickham
877 & Girlich, 2022), *dplyr* (v1.0.9; Wickham et al., 2022), *lmerTest* (v.3.1-3; Kuznetsova, 2017), and
878 *emmeans* (v1.7.4-1; Lenth, 2022) packages. The full reproducible code is available at OSF:
879 https://osf.io/7wfej/?view_only=e2aa8a5c2a6f4d74a7355b31d8019156.

880 **14 Results**

881 **14.1 Whole-brain Results**

882 Modeled conditions—[Label Anger], [Label Disgust], [Control Anger], [Control Disgust]—showed
883 significant activation at the whole-brain level (relative to baseline) in regions associated with face
884 perception, including bilateral fusiform gyrus and hippocampus (Supplementary Figure 1). No
885 significant activation emerged for the modeled contrasts.

886 **14.2 ROI Results**

887 Neither emotion category (anger, disgust) nor prime type (emotion label, control text) showed a
888 significant effect on regional brain activation during emotion perception. These factors also showed
889 no significant interaction with culture (Chinese v. White) nor ROI. Culture and ROI, however,
890 showed significant variation in regional brain activation during emotion perception. White American
891 participants showed significantly greater regional brain activation throughout the task than did
892 Chinese participants ($b = 0.17$, $SE = 0.06$, $t_{(32)} = 2.99$, $p = .005$), but participants overall showed
893 significantly greater activation throughout the task in the left inferior frontal gyrus and bilateral
894 amygdala than activation in other regions (Supplementary Figure 2).

895 **15 Discussion**

896 We found no support for our hypothesis that concept knowledge in the form of emotion words
897 influences emotion perception at the level of functional brain activation. These null effects are likely
898 due to power. Brooks et al. (2017) relied on a meta-analysis approach, aggregating results across
899 multiple studies and thus benefitting from increased statistical power. Our sample's size might
900 partially explain the divergence in findings, as our study might not have had sufficient power to
901 detect functional activation patterns as observed in Brooks et al. (2017).

902 We did, however, find that participants showed significantly greater activation throughout the task in
903 two particular regions relative to all other regions: the inferior frontal gyrus and amygdala. While
904 purely speculative, this might indicate that participants were both interpreting the affective facial
905 stimuli and reacting to the inherent saliency of faces as stimuli. In some cases, especially during the
906 control priming, the facial stimuli could have presented ambiguous emotional cues. These
907 significantly activated regions—the left inferior frontal gyrus and bilateral amygdala—and their
908 connectivity to the rest of the brain during emotion perception are the focus of the main text.

909

910 **16 Supplementary Tables**

911 *ROIs and Hypothesized Effects for Whole-brain and Regional Brain Activation*

Hypothesized Effects	H	ROI	x	y	z
Label > Control	R	Superior Temporal Gyrus	48	-18	1
	R	Middle Temporal Gyrus	57	-22	-9
	L	Inferior Frontal Gyrus	-32	6	-9
Control > Label	R	Amygdala	25	-9	-10
	L	Amygdala / Parahippocampal Gyrus	-25	-1	-16
	L	Parahippocampal Gyrus	-14	-13	-13

912 **Supplementary Table 1.** Hypotheses are based on Brooks et al. (2017). ROIs were sourced from
 913 Table 2 in Brooks et al. (2017), with x, y, and z representing the MNI coordinates used for their
 914 construction. H = Left (L), Right (R) cerebral hemisphere. Label = Emotion Label, Control = Control
 915 Text.

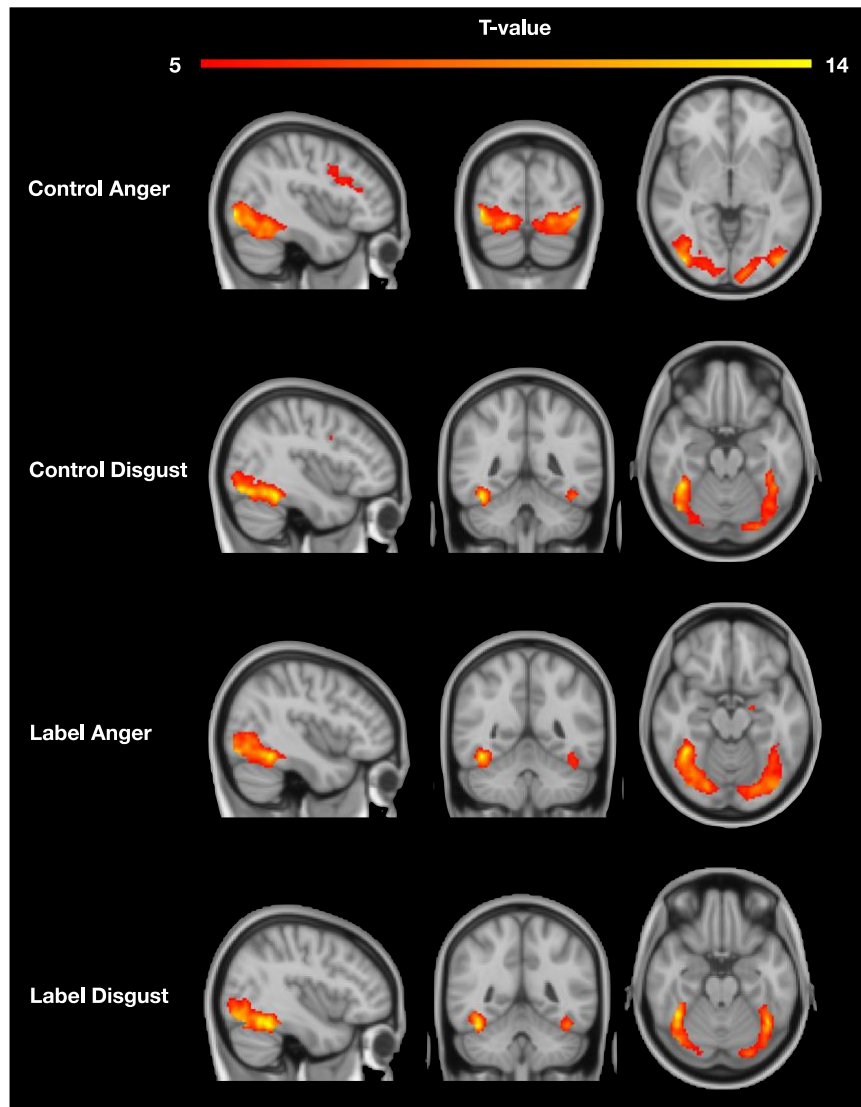
916

917 *Hypotheses for Regional Brain Activation Related to Culture*

Hypothesized Effects	H	ROI
(Label > Control) _{CA} >	R	Superior Temporal Gyrus
(Label > Control) _{WA}	R	Middle Temporal Gyrus
	L	Inferior Frontal Gyrus
(Control > Label) _{CA} >	R	Amygdala
(Control > Label) _{WA}	L	Amygdala / Parahippocampal Gyrus
	L	Parahippocampal Gyrus

918 **Supplementary Table 2.** H = Left (L), Right (R) cerebral hemisphere. Label = Emotion Label,
 919 Control = Control Text. CA = Chinese, WA = White American.

920

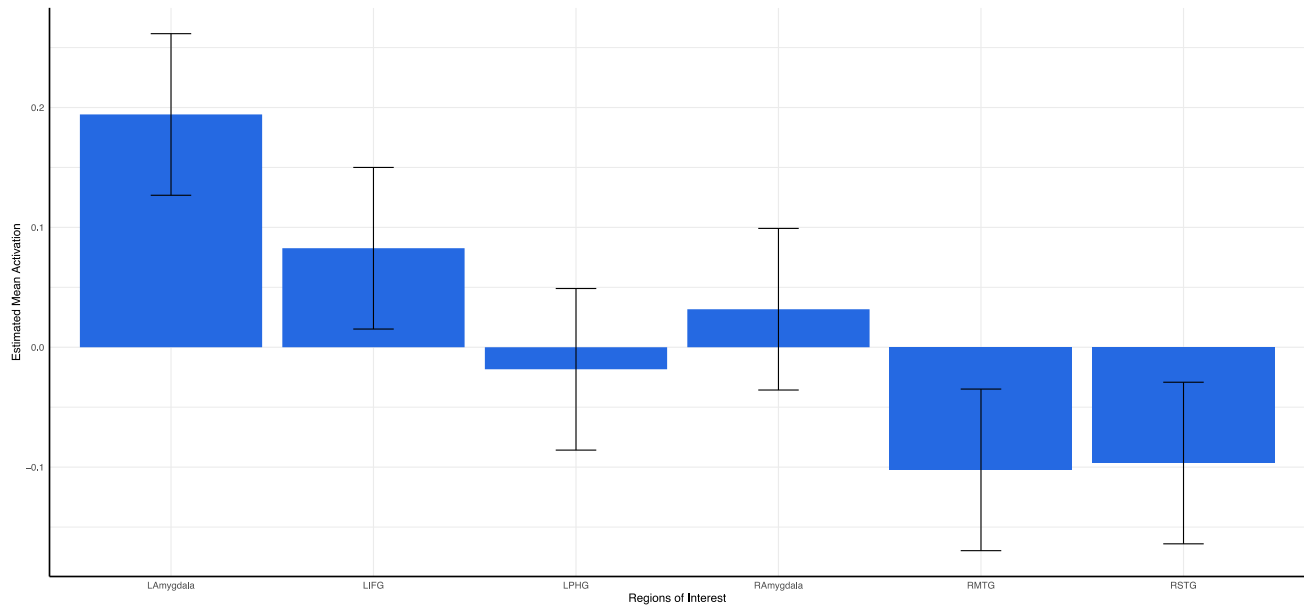


923
924 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Activation relative to baseline. Images centered at global maximum.

925

926

927 *Regional Brain Activation Results*



928

929 **Supplementary Figure 2.** Mean activation values across ROIs during emotion perception. Results
930 are averaged over the levels of emotion category, prime type, cultural groups, and self-identified sex.

931

932

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