# Adolescents but not older women misjudge intelligence from faces and do not consider intelligent-looking men attractive

# Markku Milonoff<sup>1</sup> & Petri Nummi<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1)</sup> Lukonmäentie 110, FI-37600 Valkeakoski, Finland (corresponding author's e-mail: markku. milonoff@pp.inet.fi)

<sup>2)</sup> Department of Forest Sciences, P.O. Box 27, FI-00014 University of Helsinki, Finland

Received 7 Feb. 2011, final version received 13 Feb. 2012, accepted 22 Mar. 2012

Milonoff, M. & Nummi, P. 2012: Adolescents but not older women misjudge intelligence from faces and do not consider intelligent-looking men attractive. — *Ann. Zool. Fennici* 49: 378–384.

During human evolution, finding an intelligent mate could have resulted in more highquality offspring via better access to resources or via "good genes". Considering that the choice of a mate is an important issue, one would expect that intelligence could be accurately judged by human observers at the beginning of sexual maturity when women of primitive tribes generally establish pair bonds. Male facial photographs and IQs were used to study how well adolescent versus older women can judge intelligence from a picture. There was no correlation between men's IQ and the perceived intelligence rankings given by female adolescent judges, nor did these judges perceive men of higher IQ as more attractive. Interestingly, however, there was a significant correlation between the measured IQ and the intelligence ranking by older female respondents. The ability to readily judge intelligence seems to be learned, or it matures later. As surprising as the inability of adolescent women to correctly evaluate intelligence is, it in any case may partly explain why they did not find intelligent men attractive: they could not estimate whether they were intelligent or not. Evaluation of human intelligence could, indeed, represent a case where it can be worthwhile for young or inexperienced individuals to copy more experienced ones, at least in cases where only limited information exist.

## Introduction

The fast evolution of human intelligence suggests that it has been under strong selection pressures and intelligence should have been also one of the primary mate choice criteria of our ancestors (Roth & Dicke 2005, Miller & Penke 2007). It is still associated with success in a wide variety of circumstances (Kuncel *et al.* 2004), and it predicts very well the future socioeconomic success of an individual (Buss 2003). Choosing an intelligent mate can be expected to result in producing more high-quality offspring via better access to resources and/or via "good genes" (Prokosch *et al.* 2009 and references therein). Intelligence belongs to the most desirable traits of mates (e.g. Shackelford *et al.* 2005, Furnham 2009), and it has even been argued that humans have evolved to prefer intelligence in a potential mate (Miller & Todd 1998, Miller 2000). In a primitive society of hunter-gatherers, women value intelligence more than men (Marlowe 2004). In long-term relationships, women continuously rate intelligence highly (Li *et al.* 2002), and in some studies it has also been shown to be a preferred short-term mate trait (Buunk *et al.* 2002, Li & Kenrick 2006, Prokosch *et al.* 2009, but *see* Gangestad *et al.* 2007, 2010).

As intelligence is an important mate choice criterion, one would expect humans to be accurate at judging the intelligence of their potential mating candidates. Indeed, many studies have shown that respondents can judge strangers' intelligence rather well from many kinds of verbal and nonverbal cues (Zebrowitz et al. 2002, Prokosch et al. 2009). Even a brief exposure to photographs of men's faces has been enough for women to arrange potential mating candidates in an actual intelligence order (based on intelligence tests, see meta-analysis in Zebrowitz et al. 2002). A ready detection of intelligence from minor cues may have been important in short-term relationships where ancestral women have sought "good genes" for their offspring outside their regular partnership or at the early stage of relationship, when they have had to decide which candidate they would choose/reject without sufficient information on the candidates. Although many studies have shown that attractiveness is correlated with perceived intelligence (Langlois et al. 2000, Zebrowitz et al. 2002), perceived intelligence has often correlated only weakly with actual intelligence (e.g. Prokosch et al. 2009) and some studies have failed to find a linkage between rated and measured intelligence (see Zebrowitz et al. 2002, Zebrowitz & Rhodes 2004 for different results in upper and lower half of attractiveness distribution). This may not be a surprise, because speedy evaluation of intelligence as such is probably a difficult task and, in addition, men can often manage an impression of intelligence (Murphy 2007).

In previous studies, female respondents who assessed the intelligence of target men were approximately 20 years old or older, mainly college or university students (Langlois *et al.* 2000, Zebrowitz *et al.* 2002, Zebrowits & Rhodes 2004, Prokosch *et al.* 2009). Our female ancestors, however, probably implemented mate choice at a younger age (Buss 2003, Quinlan &

Quinlan 2007). Because accurate assessing of intelligence is difficult, it may require practice and experience. Recently, it was also discovered that general face-learning ability improves until just after the age of 30 (Germine et al. 2010). In this study, we examine for the first time whether young women who have just reached their sexual maturity can judge the intelligence of men correctly by looking at their facial photos. We also compare their skills to identify intelligence to the skills of older women. Furthermore, to examine if young women are more talented assessors than men, we conducted the same test for men of a similar age. We also determined whether adolescent female respondents consider men who appear intelligent and men who are measured to be intelligent attractive.

#### Material and methods

Nine men (aged 20–28 years, mean = 21.6, strangers to the respondents) were originally photographed sitting behind a table with two attractive women next to them (*see* Milonoff *et al.* 2007). The men were recruited for research purposes from the friends of the author's children and represented the same ethnicity as respondents of the study (Finns). A test series of photos ( $35 \times 45$ mm) was produced from these original photos by using an image processing program (Adobe Photoshop CS2). The background was removed and only the man's face was shown in the photos (Fig 1).

The same test series of photos was presented to three different, randomly selected groups of students from Valkeakoski Senior Secondary School (all male students and female students randomly divided into two groups), aged 16-18 years. A group of male respondents (n = 84,mean = 17.3 years) and a group of female respondents (n = 58, mean = 17.4 years) were requested to rank the men in the photos according to their intelligence (1 = the most intelligent, 9 = the least intelligent). Another group of female respondents (n = 56, mean = 17.6 years) was requested to rank the men in the photos according to their attractiveness (1 = the most)attractive, 9 = the least attractive). The photos were also presented to a group of older women



Fig. 1. A part of the test series of photos.

**Fig. 2.** Intelligence and attractiveness ranks of the men in the photos. (**A**) Intelligence ranks by adolescent male respondents (n = 84). (**B**) Intelligence ranks by adolescent female respondents (n = 58). (**C**) Attractiveness ranks by adolescent female respondents (n = 56). (**D**) Intelligence ranks by older female respondents (n = 14).

(n = 14, mean = 37.3 years, personnel of the school and their friends) and they were requested to rank the men according to their intelligence.

Culture Fair Intelligence Test Scale 3 (IPAT 1973) was used to measure the intelligence quotient (IQ) of the males in the photos (mean = 108). The test was performed according to the test manual (IPAT 1973). We were unable to arrange the test for one of the men.

Kendall's *W*-test (coefficient of concordance) was used to test the concordance of respondent opinions within groups as well as between groups. Spearman's rank correlation was used to test correlations between the means of different respondent groups.

All participants knew that they were engaging in a research study and they gave their approval. They were not compensated and the test was carried out during a school's theme day.

## Results

The different age of target men could have affected the results, but none of the ranks correlated with the age of the men (p > 0.56). There were clear differences between average ranks of men in the photos (Fig. 2). The intelligence rankings of male respondents and female respondents in both age groups were notably unanimous (Table 1). Adolescent women were also highly unanimous in judging the attractiveness of the men in the photos. The intelligence ranking of adolescent men and adolescent women was concordant but there was no concordance between the rankings of adolescent women and older women (Table 2). The ranking of intelligence and attractiveness made by adolescent women was concordant but inverse; on average, men who were considered intelligent were not considered attractive (*see* also the correlations in Table 3).

There was a positive correlation between the mean intelligence ranking of adolescent men and women respondents (Table 3). The correlations between the intelligence ranking and attractiveness ranking of adolescent respondents were negative (men who were considered intelligent were not considered attractive), and the correlations between intelligence and attractiveness ranking made by adolescent women were statistically significant. There was no correlation between the rankings of adolescent respondents and the intelligence ranking of older women.

Moreover, there was no correlation between measured IQ and the intelligence ranking of adolescent respondents (Table 3 and Fig. 3). Target men with a higher IQ were not assessed as intelligent, although the correlation of women respondents clearly pointed in that direction. A higher IQ did not mean judged attractiveness. Interestingly, the measured IQ and the intelligence ranking of older female respondents were significantly correlated.

Table 1. Kendall's W-test of the unanimity of re	spondents.
--	------------

	Men	Adolesc	Older women	
	Intelligence	Intelligence	Attractiveness	Intelligence
W	0.087	0.089	0.131	0.333
$\chi^2$ .	58.557	41.181	58.776	37.295
df	8	8	8	8
р	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
n	84	58	56	14

Table 2. Kendall's W-test of the unanimity of respondent groups.

	Intelligence-adolescent men vs. intelligence-adolescent women	Intelligence-adolescent women vs. attractiveness-adolescent women	Intelligence-adolescent women vs. intelligence-older women
W,	0.071	-0.091	-0.012
Ζ°	14.093	-14.724	-0.938
df	8	8	8
р	< 0.001	< 0.001	ns
n	84, 58	58, 56	58, 14

**Table 3.** Spearman's correlation coefficient ( $r_s$ ) for pairwise comparisons of intelligence ranks, attractiveness ranks and IQ (Cattell & Cattell Culture fair intelligence test scale 3). Negative relation between actual and perceived intelligence indicates more accuracy in perception of actual IQ.

Attractiveness rank: Intelligence rank: adolescent women older women IQ	Attractiveness rank: adolescent women		nk: nen	gence rai	Intellige adolesc	nk: en	ence rar scent me	Intellig adoles	
$r_{\rm s}$ p n $r_{\rm s}$ p n $r_{\rm s}$	p	rs	n	p	r <sub>s</sub>	n	р	r <sub>s</sub>	
									Intelligence rank
								1	adolescent men
					1	9	0.030	0.717	adolescent women
									Attractiveness rank
1		1	9	7 0.030	-0.717	9	0.088	-0.600	adolescent women
									Intelligence rank
-0.067 0.865 9 1	0.865	-0.067	9	1.000	0	9	0.898	-0.050	older women
0.084 0.844 8 -0.731 0.040 8 1	0.844	0.084	8	0.453	-0.311	8	0.910	-0.048	IQ
r <sub>s</sub> p n r <sub>s</sub> p n 1 -0.067 0.865 9 1 0.084 0.844 8 -0.731 0.040 8	р 67 0.865 34 0.844	r <sub>s</sub> 1 -0.067 0.084	n 9 9 8	<i>p</i> 7 0.030 1.000 1 0.453	r <sub>s</sub> 1 -0.717 0 -0.311	n 9 9 9 8	<i>p</i> 0.030 0.088 0.898 0.910	r <sub>s</sub> 1 0.717 -0.600 -0.050 -0.048	Intelligence rank adolescent men adolescent women Attractiveness rank adolescent women Intelligence rank older women IQ



Fig. 3. Relationships between mean intelligence ranks, attractiveness ranks and IQ of the men in the photo (n = 8). Negative relation between actual and perceived intelligence indicates more accuracy in perception of actual IQ.

#### Discussion

Many studies have shown that women can judge intelligence from the photographs of men's face (Zebrowitz et al. 2002). Concordantly, in our study older women judge intelligence correctly, but adolescent women were not able to do this accurately. Our main respondent group, 16-18-year-old women, were younger than the respondents of the earlier studies. As accurate assessing of intelligence may require practice and experience, the negative result can be explained by age difference. Adolescent men respondents were as good, i.e. as poor, evaluators as women of their age, which means that women do not have sex-linked innate abilities for assessing intelligence from men's face. Similarly, Germine et al. (2011) discovered that face-learning ability improves beyond the age of adolescence equally in both women and men. As older women can evaluate intelligence from men's face, the ability seems to be learned, or it matures later.

It has been shown that in non-human species young females copy the mate choice of older conspecifics (e.g. Dugatkin 1993), and dynamic models suggest that mate choice copying may evolve when young females are poor at discriminating what high-quality males look like and they have to learn to do it (Stöhr 1998). Evaluation of human intelligence could, indeed, represent a case where it can be worthwhile for young or inexperienced individuals to copy more experienced ones, at least in cases where only limited information exists. Even small age differences may have an effect. In mate choice copying, the choices of females under the age of 20 were not valued as much as the ratings of females who were a few years older (Vakirtzis & Roberts 2010).

Although our respondents were young, women from primitive tribes perform mate choice and establish pair bonds at that age (Quinlan & Quinlan 2007). In that sense the ability of adolescent women to assess men's intelligence is an evolutionary issue of importance. In fact, many or even most of our female ancestors have established their permanent pair bonds at that age. Furthermore, intelligence is thought to be a preferred trait for women, especially in longterm relationships, where both a mate's ability as a provider and his heritable quality are important (Buss & Schmitt 1993, Gangestad & Simpson 2000, Scheib 2001, Li et al. 2002). As surprising as the inability of adolescent women to correctly evaluate intelligence is, it may explain why they did not find intelligent men attractive: they could not consciously or probably even unconsciously estimate whether they were intelligent or not. This may be one reason why brain size (which correlates substantially with intelligence) has a low additive genetic coefficient of variation (Miller & Penke 2007) although traits under strong sexual selection tend to have high coefficients (Houle 1992, Pomiankowski & Möller 1995, *see* Gangestad *et al.* 2010 for other possible reasons).

However, our test arrangement is somewhat unrealistic since our female ancestors have often had more information about their potential mates, which has probably improved their ability to assess intelligence. Humans may be better in detecting intelligence when more information is presented (Borkenau & Liebler 1993, Reynolds & Glifford 2001). They may also have relied on the knowledge of more experienced persons, e.g. in arranged pair bonds or by copying the mate choice of older women. Nevertheless, in choices between mate candidates made at the early stage of a relationship or in brief short-term relationships, this limitation has been significant. If intelligence cannot be evaluated properly, mate choice must be based on other more readily identifiable characteristics (e.g. fluctuating asymmetry, masculinity and body characters). As these characteristics may not covary with intelligence or even have a negative association (see Gangestad et al. 2010 and references therein), the dismissal of intelligent or intelligent-looking men is understandable. Because mate choice of adolescent women has been common (Quinlan & Quinlan 2007), this inability to recognize highly advantageous traits may have affected the selection pressures and development of humans. If our adolescent female ancestors had been able to recognize bright mate candidates at a glance, the evolution of intelligence could have been even faster and the importance of other characteristics lesser.

#### Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the students of Valkeakoski Senior Secondary School for participating in the test and Esa Pienmunne, Juhani, Outi and Tuuli Nummi together with their friends for help in the arrangements of the test. For valuable comments we thank anonymous reviewers. Mark Shackleton kindly checked the language.

#### References

- Borkenau, P. & Liebler, A. 1993: Convergence of stranger ratings of personality and intelligence with self-ratings, partner ratings, and measured intelligence. – J. Pers. Soc. Psych. 65: 546–553.
- Buss, D. M. 2003: The evolution of desire. Strategies of human mating. – Basic Books, New York.
- Buss, D. M. & Schmitt, D. P. 1993: Sexual strategies theory: an evolutionary perspective on human mating. – *Psych. Rev.* 100: 204–232.
- Buunk, B. P., Dijkstra, P., Fetschenhauer, D. & Kenrick, D. T. 2002: Age and gender differences in male selection criteria for various involvement levels. – *Pers. Relat.* 9: 271–278.
- Dugatkin, L. A. & Godin, J.-C. 1993: Sexual selection and female copying: age-dependent effects. — *Behav. Ecol.* 4: 289–292.
- Furnham, A. 2009: Sex differences in mate selection preferences. Pers. Indiv. Diff. 47: 262–267.
- Gangestad, S. W. & Simpson, J. A. 2000: The evolution of human mating: trade-offs and strategic pluralism. — *Behav. Brain Sci.* 23: 573–644.
- Gangestad, S. W., Garver-Apgar, C. E., Simpson, J. A. & Cousins, A. J. 2007: Changes in women's mate preferences across the ovulatory cycle. — J. Pers. Soc. Psych. 92: 151–163.
- Gangestad, S. W., Tornhill, R. & Garver-Apgar, C. E. 2010: Men's facial masculinity predicts changes in their female partners' sexual interest across the ovulatory cycle, whereas men's intelligence does not. — *Evol. Human Behav.* 31: 412–424.
- Germine, L. T., Duchaine, B. & Nakayama, K. 2011: Where cognitive development and ageing meet: face learning ability peaks after age 30. – *Cognition* 118: 201–210.
- Houle, D. 1992: Comparative evolvability and variability of traits. — *Genetics* 130: 195–204.
- IPAT 1973: Measuring intelligence with the culture fair tests. Manual for scales 2 and 3. Institute for personality and ability testing. — Champaign, Illinois.
- Kuncel, N. R., Hezlett, S. A. & Ones, D. S. 2004: Academic performance, career potential, and job performance: can one construct predict them all? — J. Pers. Soc. Psych. 86: 148–161.
- Langlois, J. H., Kalakanis, L., Rubenstein, A. J., Larson, A., Hallam, M. & Smoot, M. 2000: Maxims or myths of beaty? A meta-analytic and theoretical review. — *Psych. Bull.* 126: 390–423.
- Li, N. P., Bailey, J. M., Kenrick, D. T. & Linsenmeier, J. A. W. 2002: The necessities and luxuries of male preferences: testing the tradeoffs. — J. Pers. Soc. Psych. 82: 947–955.
- Li, N. P. & Kenrick, D. T. 2006: Sex similarities and differences for short-term mates: what, whether and why. – J. Pers. Soc. Psych. 90: 468–489.
- Marlowe, F. W. 2004: Mate preferences among Hadza hunter-gatherers. Hum. Nat. 15: 365-376.
- Miller, G. F. & Penke, L. 2007: The evolution of human intelligence and the coefficient of additive genetic variance in brain size. — *Intelligence* 35: 97–114.

- Milonoff, M., Nummi, P., Nummi, O. & Pienmunne, E. 2007: Male friends, not female company, make a man more attractive. — Ann. Zool. Fennici 44: 348–354.
- Murphy, N. A. 2007: Appearing smart: the impression management of intelligence, Person perception accuracy, and behavior in social interaction. — *Pers. Soc. Psych. Bull.* 33: 325–339.
- Pomiankowski, A. & Møller, A. P. 1995: A resolution of the lek paradox. — *Proc. Soc. Lond. B* 260: 21–29.
- Prokosch, M. D., Coss, R. G., Scheib, J. E. & Shelley, A. B. 2009: Intelligence and mate choice: intelligent men are always appealing. — *Evol. Human Behav.* 30: 11–20.
- Quinlan, R. J. & Quinlan, M. B. 2007: Evolutionary ecology of human pair-bonds. — Cross-Cultural Research 41: 149–169.
- Reynolds, D. J. & Gifford, R. 2001: The sounds and sights of intelligence: a lens model channel analysis. — *Pers. Soc. Psych. Bull.* 27: 187–200.
- Roth, G. & Dicke, U. 2005: Evolution of the brain and intelligence. – *Trends Cogn. Sci.* 9: 250–257.

- Shackelford, T. D., Schmitt, D. P. & Buss, D. M. 2005: Universal dimensions of human mate preferences. Pers. Ind. Diff. 39: 447–458.
- Scheib, J. E. 2001: Context-specific mate choice criteria: women's trade-offs in the contexts of long-term and extra-pair mateships. — *Pers. Relat.* 8: 371–389.
- Stöhr, S. 1998: Evolution of mate choice copying: a dynamic model. — Anim. Behav. 55: 893–903.
- Vakirtzis, A. & Roberts, S. C. 2010: Mate quality bias: sex differences in humans. — Ann. Zool. Fennici 47: 149–157.
- Zebrowitz, L. A. & Rhodes, G. 2004: Sensitivity to "bad genes" and the anomalous face overgeneralization effect: Cue validity, cue utilization, and accuracy in judging intelligence and health. — J. Nonverbal Behav. 28: 167–185.
- Zebrowitz, L. A., Hall, J. A., Murphy, N. A. & Rhodes, G. 2002: Looking smart and looking good: facial cues to intelligence and their origins. — *Pers. Soc. Psych. Bull.* 28: 238–249.