



**A comparison between preference judgments of curvature
and sharpness in architectural façades**

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Façades	A	B	C	D
A	-	21	22	21
B	3	-	19	17
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D	3	7	18	-

Table 1. The table reports the dominance matrix for the paired-comparison task.

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3 1 **A comparison between preference judgments of curvature and**
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5 2 **sharpness in architectural façades**
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11 4 Word count: 5.976 (including bibliography: 7.547)
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For Review Only

6 **A comparison between preference judgments of curvature and** 7 **sharpness in architectural façades**

8 Can curvature drive preference for architectural façades and their perceived
9 familiarity, complexity, stability or approachability? In this study we aimed to
10 investigate if the well-known preference for curvature can be extended to the
11 architectural domain. We generated four different versions of the same reference
12 building, varying only the amount of curvature of the façade. Twenty-four
13 participants 1) made a preference forced-choice task between pairs of stimuli; 2)
14 ranked all stimuli from the most to the least preferred; 3) evaluated each stimulus
15 on different psychological variables. Multidimensional scaling on forced choices
16 showed that the curved façade was the most preferred. Multidimensional
17 unfolding on the ranking task showed that the majority expressed higher
18 preferences for the curved facades compared to sharp-angled and rectilinear ones.
19 Ratings on different psychological variables gave supporting evidence for
20 curvature significantly influencing liking and approaching judgments. We then
21 processed the stimuli with a dynamical model of the visual cortex and a model
22 that characterises discomfort in terms of adherence to the statistics of natural
23 images. Results from these image analyses matched behavioural data. We discuss
24 the implications of the findings on our understanding of human preferences,
25 which are intrinsically dynamic and influenced by context and experience.

26 Keywords: architectural façades; curvature; aesthetics; visual comfort; image
27 analysis

28 **Introduction**

29 Architects frame space, design geometries and study buildings' proportions to convey
30 ideas and emotionally engage the visitor. The 20th century unbuilt project of the Italian
31 architects P. Lingeri and G. Terragni (1938), the Danteum, is a striking example of a
32 building planned to have no other function except to tell the story of Dante's Divine
33 Comedy (Figure 1). The idea that the structure and shape of the environment we live in
34 can influence our social behaviour and our affective state can be traced up to Vitruvius
35 (15 B.C.). Principles of *utilitas* (functionality), *firmitas* (stability) and *venustas*

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3 36 (aesthetics) influenced the most prominent architects and artists of Italian Renaissance:
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5 37 Alberti, Palladio, Brunelleschi, Borromini, Bramante and Leonardo da Vinci. Vitruvian
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7 38 terms like order, proportion and symmetry are still a reference point for experts
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9
10 39 nowadays. For example, in the Design Quality Indicator (DQI; Gann, Salyer & Whyte,
11
12 40 2003) authors started directly from the three old Vitruvian principles to develop the
13
14 41 three modern concepts of: function, build-quality and impact.



25
26 43 Figure 1. From left to right: perspective of the Hell, the Purgatoire and the Heaven
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28 44 rooms of the Danteum's project by P. Lingeri, G. Terragni (1938, Archivio Pietro
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30 45 Lingeri, Milano). Retrieved from:
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32 46 <http://www.fupress.net/index.php/oi/article/viewFile/19687/18808>
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35
36 47 In the contemporary era, we can outline two main trends characterising architecture
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38 48 design: 1) the 'modernist' approach, inspired by the creed 'form ever follows function'
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40 49 (Sullivan, 1896) that prioritises the function of a building over its aesthetics; and 2) the
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42 50 'human-centred design' approach, characterised by the effort to capture and potentially
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44 51 predict the impact of architecture and urban design on human behaviour (Shaftoe 2008;
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46 52 Gutman 2009; Zhang & Dong, 2009). Since the 70's, approaches like organic
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48 53 architecture (Wright, 1958; Hildebrand, 1991, 1999), bio-architecture (Aguilar, 2003)
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50 54 and biomimicry (Gendall, 2009) started to flourish, combining the use of sustainable
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52 55 resources to basic configurations developed from existing natural shapes and promoting
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54 56 the buildings' integration in nature. Theoretical frameworks interpreting environmental
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56 57 preference for landscapes and built environments (Appleton, 1992, 1996; Hildebrand,
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3 58 1991) stressed the potential positive impact that particular combinations of shapes might
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5 59 have on users' emotional experience of space (Lidwell et al. 2010; Lippmann 2010).
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8 60 The main aim of this study is to investigate the role of geometry in the architecture
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10 61 domain, with a particular focus on the influence of curvature in driving human's
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12 62 preferences. We will outline key findings from literature to create a theoretical context
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14 63 for relevant issues that can be extended to the field of architectural design and urban
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16 64 planning.

65 ***The curvature effect***

66 In psychology, the 'curvature effect' is a well-known and consistent
67 phenomenon (Bar & Neta, 2006, 2007; Silvia & Barona, 2009; Leder et al., 2011;
68 Palumbo et al., 2015; Bertamini et al., 2016; Vartanian et al., 2013, 2015), yet still not
69 well understood.

70 In their classical studies, Bar and Neta (2006, 2007) showed that objects and
71 abstract shapes were preferred in their curved version compared to the sharp-angled one
72 and a significantly greater activation of the amygdala for the sharp-angled objects
73 compared to their curved version (Bar & Neta, 2007). Due to the neutral valence of their
74 stimuli, the authors interpreted the amygdala activation as threat-related, suggesting that
75 sharp-angled contours convey a sense of threat *per se* and that preference for curvature
76 is a by-product of disliking sharpness (Bar & Neta, 2007). However, this interpretation
77 has been challenged by other studies using different methodologies, addressing implicit
78 associations and approach/avoidance responses to curvature (Palumbo et al., 2015). In
79 their second experiment, Palumbo et al. (2015) showed that participants were faster and
80 more accurate when the task was to move a human-stick figure towards curved shapes,
81 but there was no difference in the RTs when the task was to approach or avoid sharp-

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3 82 angled shapes. The authors conclude that curvature might be preferred for its intrinsic
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5 83 aesthetically pleasing properties, but also be influenced by the emotional valence of
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7 84 positive, safe and female concepts shown to be implicitly associated with curved shapes
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10 85 –as they showed in the first experiment (Palumbo et al., 2015).
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13 86 In the extensive review on the theme, Gómez-Puerto, Munar and Nadal (2016)
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15 87 identify two main approaches that shaped the research of the past two centuries:
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18 88 1) the first one, focusing on the physical properties and the perceptual
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20 89 mechanisms involved in preference for curvature, explaining the phenomenon
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22 90 from a sensorimotor-based or a valuation-based perspective;
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24 91 2) and the other oriented towards the investigation of the origins and the possible
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26 92 function of this preference, divided between culturally influenced or biologically
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28 93 determined explanations.
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32 94 Moreover, research has shown that preference for curvature can be mediated by
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34 95 the emotional valence of the stimuli (Leder at al., 2011), participants' expertise (Silvia
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36 96 and Barona, 2009) and cultural context or aesthetic *Zeitgeist* (Leder & Carbon, 2005;
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38 97 Carbon, 2010). Hess and colleagues (2013) showed that abstract sharp-angled shapes
39
40 98 could also modulate perceived aggressiveness of a face as well as our social behaviour.
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42 99 While assembling a puzzle, participants tended to judge the resulting faces as more
43
44 100 aggressive if the puzzle was made by sharp-angled compared to curved elements. In the
45
46 101 second experiment they showed that participants were more likely to make an
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48 102 aggressive decision in a role-playing trust game if sharp-angled shapes compared to
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50 103 curve shapes decorate the experimental setting. Gómez-Puerto et al. (2016) conclude
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52 104 that there is enough evidence in the field to support preference for curvature as being
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54 105 both the result of a learnt process as well as an evolved one.
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3 106 ***Preference for curvature in architecture: what do we know so far?***
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6 107 Experimental research reported contrasting results also when using architecture images.
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8 108 In the fMRI studies conducted by Vartanian and colleagues (2013, 2015), participants
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10 109 looked at images of architectural interiors and then judged them on different
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12 110 psychological variables. The study reported that curved interiors were more likely to be
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14 111 perceived as beautiful compared to rectilinear ones, but the geometry was not a critical
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16 112 factor for approachability decisions. Neuroanatomical results showed that looking at
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18 113 curved spaces activated the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) exclusively, a brain region
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20 114 which is known to be linked to reward and being a core circuit for aesthetic processing.
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22 115 In contrast, rectilinear interiors did not show a significant amygdala activation, as
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24 116 previously found by Bar and Neta (2007). The authors put forward the hypothesis that,
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26 117 in architecture, sharp-angled contours may have lost their threatening valence, as an
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28 118 effect of mere exposure (Marks & Dar, 2000; Zajonc, 2001).
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30 119 If we exclude the studies by Vartanian et al. (2013, 2015), there is a very limited
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32 120 number of researches that explicitly controlled for the amount of curvature/sharpness of
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34 121 the stimuli involved, especially when representing an artificial environment. Leder and
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36 122 Carbon (2005) tried to isolate the cultural influence on preference for curvature using a
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38 123 series of sketches inspired by actual car design, manipulating their complexity,
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40 124 innovativeness and amount of curvature. Their findings confirmed the role of curvature
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42 125 in significantly influencing attractiveness ratings, with a relatively small impact of
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44 126 participants' design knowledge. In another study on car design, Carbon (2010) provided
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46 127 empirical evidence for the dynamic nature of this preference by explicitly instructing
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48 128 participants about the cultural context and historical design trends (*Zeitgeist* effect).
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50 129 After adaptation to futuristic car design, perceived innovativeness became a better
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52 130 predictor for participants' liking judgments compared to curvature (Carbon, 2010).
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3 131 Research in environmental psychology has not provided conclusive results about the
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5 132 importance of geometry in architecture either. In the meta-analysis conducted by Dosen
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7 133 & Ostwald (2016) only five out of the thirty-four analysed studies directly manipulated
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9 134 the geometry of the space, using environments' computational simulations.

13 135 In a recent study, Shemesh et al. (2016) validated a new methodology
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15 136 combining psychological and neurophysiological measures (EEG) with Virtual Reality
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17 137 (VR) in order to capture in a more controlled way the dimension of spatial interaction
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19 138 with the environment. This is one of the very first studies, to the best of our knowledge,
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21 139 directly controlling for the global geometry and the symmetry of the architectural space
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23 140 presented in the experiment. They created four types of virtual environments,
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25 141 controlling for curvature and symmetry. They analysed the EEG data using a two-steps
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27 142 manifold learning technique: the first step identified the EEG channels relevant for
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29 143 geometry processing (Lederman & Talmon, 2015); while the second step analysed the
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31 144 activity of those selected channels (Talmon et al. 2015). The study showed encouraging
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33 145 results for differentiating brain activity in response to the different geometries. The
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35 146 authors found that curvature, but not symmetry, had a significant impact on VR users'
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37 147 preference overall, with a significant effect of participants' design expertise: non-
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39 148 experts rated curved spaces as more interesting compared to experts.

46 149 It is important to point out how previous research showed contrasting results on
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48 150 the role of expertise in modulating preference for curvature: Silvia and Barona (2009)
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50 151 reported a significant interaction between expertise and curvature: in the first
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52 152 experiment with simple polygons the effect was stronger for novices; while in the
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54 153 second experiment, that used more complex shapes, experts showed a greater preference
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56 154 for curvature. Mass et. al. (2000) reported that architectural façades judged as beautiful
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58 155 were also perceived as intimidating by lay people (Maass et al., 2000), and Cotter et al.

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3 156 (2017) showed how preference for curvature is linked with art expertise and openness to
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5 157 experience personality trait.
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9 158 ***What can we learn from image analysis?***
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12 159 One of the key arguments used by the biologically determined explanations is
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14 160 that curved lines are more occurring in nature. From this assumption derives that sharp-
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16 161 angled shapes are perceived as threatening because they are difficult to find in organic
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18 162 environments (Gómez-Puerto et al., 2016). We know that natural images, namely
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20 163 images of natural scenes, have special statistical properties, and that these properties can
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22 164 be processed more efficiently by the human visual system (Field, 1987; Geisler 2007).
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24 165 Based on these characteristics, Penacchio and Wilkins (2015) developed an algorithm
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26 166 that robustly predicts visual discomfort in terms of adherence to the statistics of natural
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28 167 images: the more an image deviates from the statistics of natural images, the more likely
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30 168 it is to be judged as uncomfortable to look at. Repetitive patterns such as high contrast
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32 169 gratings, whose image statistics strongly deviate from the statistics of natural images,
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34 170 are particularly uncomfortable to look at, especially if the spatial frequencies involved
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36 171 correspond to those best perceived by the human visual system (Fernandez & Wilkins,
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38 172 2008; Juricevic, Land, Wilkins, & Webster, 2010; Penacchio & Wilkins, 2015).
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40 173 Computational models suggest that detrimental patterns and images with unnatural
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42 174 statistics are processed less efficiently by the brain as they cause a denser response
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44 175 (more neurons firing at the same time) in the visual system (Hibbard & O'Hare, 2014;
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46 176 Penacchio et al., 2016), which can be at the origin of visual discomfort. Le et al. (2016)
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48 177 reported that images of urban scenes with statistical properties that deviate from the
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50 178 typical statistical properties of natural scenes were associated with a higher
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52 179 haemodynamic response in the visual cortex. They also found that judgments of visual
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54 180 discomfort from real scenes were matched to judgments from images of these scenes,
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3 181 suggesting that this measure could be integrated into the design practice of urban scenes
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5 182 to avoid constructions with detrimental consequences for brain metabolism, and also for
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7 183 health and wellbeing.
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11 184 Literature offers useful insights about curved shapes driving our preferences for
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13 185 built environments and objects surrounding us, but also highlights the need to
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15 186 investigate the role played by individual differences (e.g.: personality traits) and explicit
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17 187 knowledge (e.g.: expertise) in modulating this effect. We can highlight four limits of the
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19 188 body of research reported so far, relevant when trying to generalise these findings to the
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21 189 architecture domain:
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26 190 (1) most of research used very simple or abstract stimuli;
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28 191 (2) often the stimuli are presented on computer screens, making difficult to
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30 192 generalise results to real spatial interaction with architectural geometries;
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32 193 (3) the studies measured primarily liking judgments;
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34 194 (4) there are technical issues in the control for global and local amount of curvature
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36 195 introduced in more complex stimuli, especially when representing architectural
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38 196 spaces, as usually researchers in psychology do not have expertise on 3D
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40 197 modelling.
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45 198 We suggest that those limits can be addressed directly engaging in a dialog with
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47 199 professional architects, defining research questions relevant for both psychological
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49 200 science and architecture design. Collaborating with experts in architecture allows to
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51 201 create stimuli more ecologically valid and to have a better control the geometry of the
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53 202 built space, rather than trying to match or modify pictures of already existing buildings.
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55 203 We believe that a multidisciplinary approach is needed when studying complex
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57 204 phenomena like the curvature effect, to explain its multiple aspects and implications.
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3 205 Starting from those preliminary considerations, in the present study we wanted to test
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5 206 the robustness of the ‘curvature effect’ not only exploring judgements of façades as
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7 207 isolated stimuli, but also directly comparing different versions of the same building
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9 208 (controlling for local and global features). We collected preferences with three different
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11 209 methods: a forced-choice task, ratings on a series of psychological variables for each
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13 210 façade and a classification task.
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18 211 **Material and Methods**

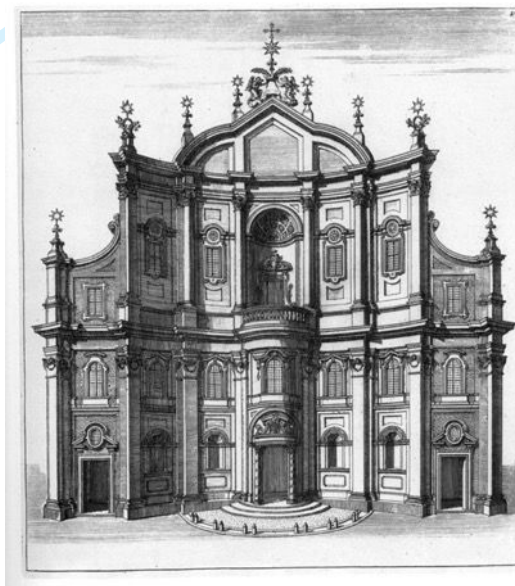
20 212 *Participants*

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24 213 Twenty-four female participants gave informed consent before taking part in the
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26 214 experiment. All were volunteers and were recruited from the student population of the
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28 215 School of Education of University of Roma Tre. All had normal or corrected-to-normal
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30 216 vision. The experiment was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki
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32 217 (2008). Preference for curvature has been shown not to be subjected by gender
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34 218 differences (Frantz & Miranda, 1975; Jadvá et al., 2010; Palumbo et al., 2015), so we
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36 219 have evidence to support the fact that having a sample made of all women will not bias
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38 220 our data.
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44 221 *Stimuli*

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47 222 We adopted a similar approach to Leder and Carbon (2005) and controlled for both
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49 223 global and local features of our stimuli, gradually increasing the amount of curvature
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51 224 introduced in the architectural façade. Knowing that positive emotional valence
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53 225 modulates the preference for curved objects (Leder et al., 2011), we wanted to control
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55 226 the affective valence associated with the architectural style of our stimuli. Previous
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57 227 studies (Mastandrea, Bartoli & Carrus, 2010; Chirumbolo, Brizi et al., 2014;
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3 228 Mastandrea, & Maricchiolo, 2014) showed that lay people find easier to implicitly
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5 229 associate figurative art, classical architecture and design objects to positive concepts
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8 230 compared to abstract art and modern architecture. We choose as reference building the
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10 231 Oratorio dei Filippini (Oratory of Saint Phillip Neri, 1637-1650) by Francesco
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12 232 Borromini (Figure 2), one of the most representative architects of the Baroque style,
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14 233 close to the classical buildings used in previous research investigating affective valence
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17 234 of architecture design (Mastandrea, Bartoli & Carrus, 2010).



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40 236 Figure 2. Engraving of the façade of Francesco Borromini's Oratorio dei Filippini by
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42 237 Domenico Barrière (1658). Retrieved from:
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45 238 https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Borromini_Drawing_01.jpg

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48 239 Following the terminology guidelines proposed by Gómez-Puerto, Munar and
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50 240 Nadal (2016), we will refer to the characteristics of our stimuli as curved and sharp-
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52 241 angled. We availed ourselves of the expertise of the architect S. Lamaddalena to create
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54 242 the stimuli for this study, using the professional software application AutoCAD (version
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56 243 2.0, 2015). Together with her, we defined the architectural features to manipulate in the
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59 244 stimuli as follows:

- 245 1. global: the overall shape and outline of the façade;
- 246 2. local: windows, columns and other decorative elements on the façade.

247 The final stimuli developed from these concepts consisted of four simplified 2D
248 models of the reference building, whose global and local architecture features varied
249 reflecting the following characteristics:

- 250 • A, curved;
- 251 • B, mixed;
- 252 • C, rectilinear;
- 253 • D, sharp-angled.

254 All religious references in the façades were removed, to avoid interactions with
255 participants' religious affiliation.

256 One of the main predictions deriving from Berlyne's classical work on aesthetic
257 experience, is that people tend to prefer medium levels of complexity (Berlyne, 1970),
258 and we know from previous findings that sharp-angled shapes are judged as more
259 complex compared to curved ones (Bertamini et al., 2016). Taking in account those
260 evidences, we hypothesised the mixed façade (B) to be judged as having a medium level
261 of complexity and, consequently, to be preferred over the other versions –being also the
262 closest to the original design of the reference building. Bertamini et al. (2016) found
263 that preference for patterns of simple lines was higher for the curved version, followed
264 by rectilinear and sharp-angled. The rectilinear façade (C) was created as a control
265 condition, in the attempt to replicate the findings by Bertamini et al. (2016) in the
266 architecture domain.

Curvature and sharpness in architectural façades



267

268 Figure 3. The four architectural façades we used in our study. In alphabetical order:
269 curved (A), mixed (B), rectilinear (C) and sharp-angled (D) version.

270

271 **Procedure**

272 In order to simulate a more ecological situation, we presented the images of
273 architectural façades on a big projection screen rather than on a small computer
274 monitor. The experimental apparatus consisted of a 150 cm x 170 cm projection screen
275 in a darkened classroom. All participants were seated at approximately 250 cm from the
276 screen. Stimuli were presented using an Epson Eh - tw5650 projector (2.500 lumen, full
277 HD, contrast at 60.000:1) and occupied 176° of visual angle. During the experiment

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3 278 participants were not allowed to talk with each other and two researchers supervised the
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5 279 room to guarantee the tasks to be performed accurately and independently.
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9 280 Being aware of the conflicting results reported on expertise in preference for
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11 281 curvature (Silvia & Barona, 2009), we decided to control for expertise even if people in
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13 282 our sample did not have any formal training in art. According to the model of aesthetic
14
15 283 appreciation outlined by Leder et al. (2004), we know that art interest plays an
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17 284 important role in aesthetic appreciation. Before starting the experimental session, we
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19 285 asked participants to self-assess their level of art interest on a five-point Likert scale
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21 286 (where 5 = “Very much” and 1 = “Not at all”)¹, as a way of quantifying expertise
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23 287 among non-experts.
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28 288 The current study consisted of three experimental blocks. Each block was
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30 289 associated with a customised printed grid, as described below in more detail. The main
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32 290 aim of our procedure was to test if preference for curvature is task-independent.
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35 291 The first block consisted of a two-alternatives forced choice task. We presented
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37 292 for 3 seconds each of all the possible six combinations of the four façades, without
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39 293 repetitions: AB; CD; BC; AD; CA; DB. Each façade was presented three times in total
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41 294 and the order was counterbalanced, to make sure that each version appeared at least
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43 295 once on the left-hand side of the projection screen. After the stimuli disappeared the
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45 296 screen was blanked, and participants were asked to record their preferred façade on a
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47 297 printed grid. The grid consisted of six rows, one for each repetition, and were divided
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49 298 into two cells. If participants preferred façade presented on the left-hand side of the
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51 299 screen, they were asked to tick the left cell on the printed grid; if they preferred the
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53 300 façade on the right-hand side, to tick the right cell.
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58 301 During the second block, participants performed a multiple rating task. They
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60 302 were asked to rate each façade using a five-point Likert scale (where 1 = “not at all”, 2

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3 303 = “slightly”, 3= “somewhat”, 4 = “moderately” and 5= “very much”¹). The façades
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5 304 were presented on screen one at the time and were identified by a letter previously
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7 305 assigned by the researchers, as illustrated in Figure 3. Participants were asked to collect
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9 306 ratings on a customised printed grid for five psychological dimensions: liking,
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11 307 familiarity, complexity, stability and approach². Participants performed the liking
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13 308 ratings first, to assure that liking would not be affected by the other measures.
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17 309 Finally, in the third block participants had to perform a rating task. The four
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19 310 façades were presented all at the same time on screen, arranged as shown in Figure 3.
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21 311 Each stimulus was identified by the same letter as the one used in the second. The
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23 312 customised grid consisted of four squares, arranged in a row. Participants had to fill the
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25 313 squares with the letters identifying each stimulus, arranging the façades from the most
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27 314 (=1) to the least (=4) preferred.
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31 315 **Data analysis and Results**

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34 316 Due to the nature of our procedure, we report the results from the three different
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36 317 experimental blocks separately.
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40 318 *First block: two-alternatives forced choice*

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43 319 The results of the two-alternatives forced choice experiment are summarized in the
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45 320 dominance matrix reported in Table 1: each positive entry represents the number of
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51 ¹ Original items in Italian were: 1 = “per niente”, 2 = “poco”, 3= “abbastanza”, 4 = “molto” and
52
53 5= “moltissimo”

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55 ² Original items in Italian were: “Quanto ti piace questo edificio?” “Quanto ti è familiare questo
56
57 edificio?”; “Quanto è complesso questo edificio?”; “Quanto è stabile questo edificio?”;
58
59 “Quanto questo edificio ti invita ad entrare?”.
60

321 times the row façade was preferred to the column façade, and main diagonal elements
 322 are conventionally set to zero. All the corresponding off-diagonal elements satisfy a
 323 constant sum property (e.g.: all pairs of corresponding entries (i,j) and (j,i) sum up to
 324 24), resulting in the sum of row and column totals for each façade being also constant.
 325 Thanks to this way of representing data, we can easily obtain the façades preference
 326 order by the row totals of the dominance matrix, that is –from the most to the less
 327 preferred:

- 328 • A (curved);
- 329 • B (mixed);
- 330 • D (sharp-angled);
- 331 • C (rectilinear).

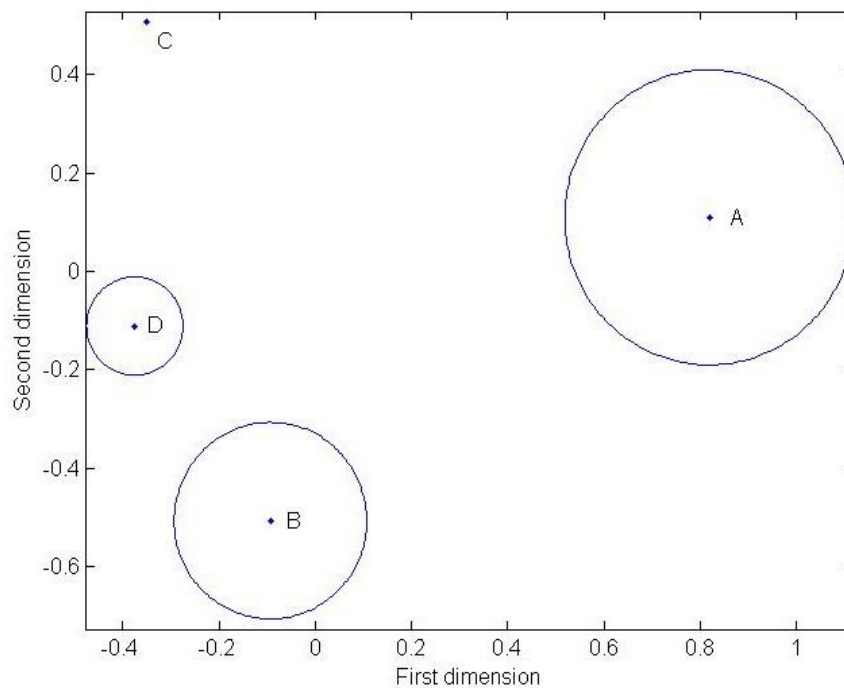
332 A second consequence of the previous properties is that symmetry is not
 333 interesting in this matrix, but it is worthwhile to focalize on the skew-symmetric
 334 information. The skew-symmetry of each pair of façades is the difference of the
 335 corresponding frequency in the matrix by the value 12, which in our experiment
 336 corresponds to the situation of equilibrium (12 subjects prefer one façade and other 12
 337 subjects prefer the other one).

Façades	A	B	C	D
A	-	21	22	21
B	3	-	19	17
C	2	5	-	6
D	3	7	18	-

338 Table 1. The table reports the dominance matrix for the paired-comparison task.

1
2
3 339 The skew-symmetric component of a dominance matrix can be depicted by a
4
5 340 method of asymmetric multidimensional scaling proposed by Bove (2011, 2012), which
6
7 341 adapted the idea originally proposed by Okada & Imaizumi (1987) for asymmetric
8
9 342 proximities to skew-symmetric data. This method represents the architectural façades as
10
11 343 points in a two-dimensions diagram. Both the façade preference orders and the
12
13 344 imbalances are represented: the former as circles with different radii (larger circles
14
15 345 correspond to higher ranks of preference), the latter as the distances between points
16
17 346 (larger distances correspond to lower equilibrium). Results are shown in Figure 4.

18
19
20
21
22 347 The size of the circles shows the overall preference order: A, B, D, C. Façade A
23
24 348 is the most preferred and is liked equally more than B, C and D. Façades B and D have
25
26 349 the smallest imbalance between each other, so they are represented as closer on the
27
28 350 plane. Façade C is the last on the preference order with no ray. It is dominated by all the
29
30 351 other façades, but much more by A and B that are positioned further away from it.



352

353 Figure 4. Asymmetric multidimensional scaling representation for data in Table 1.

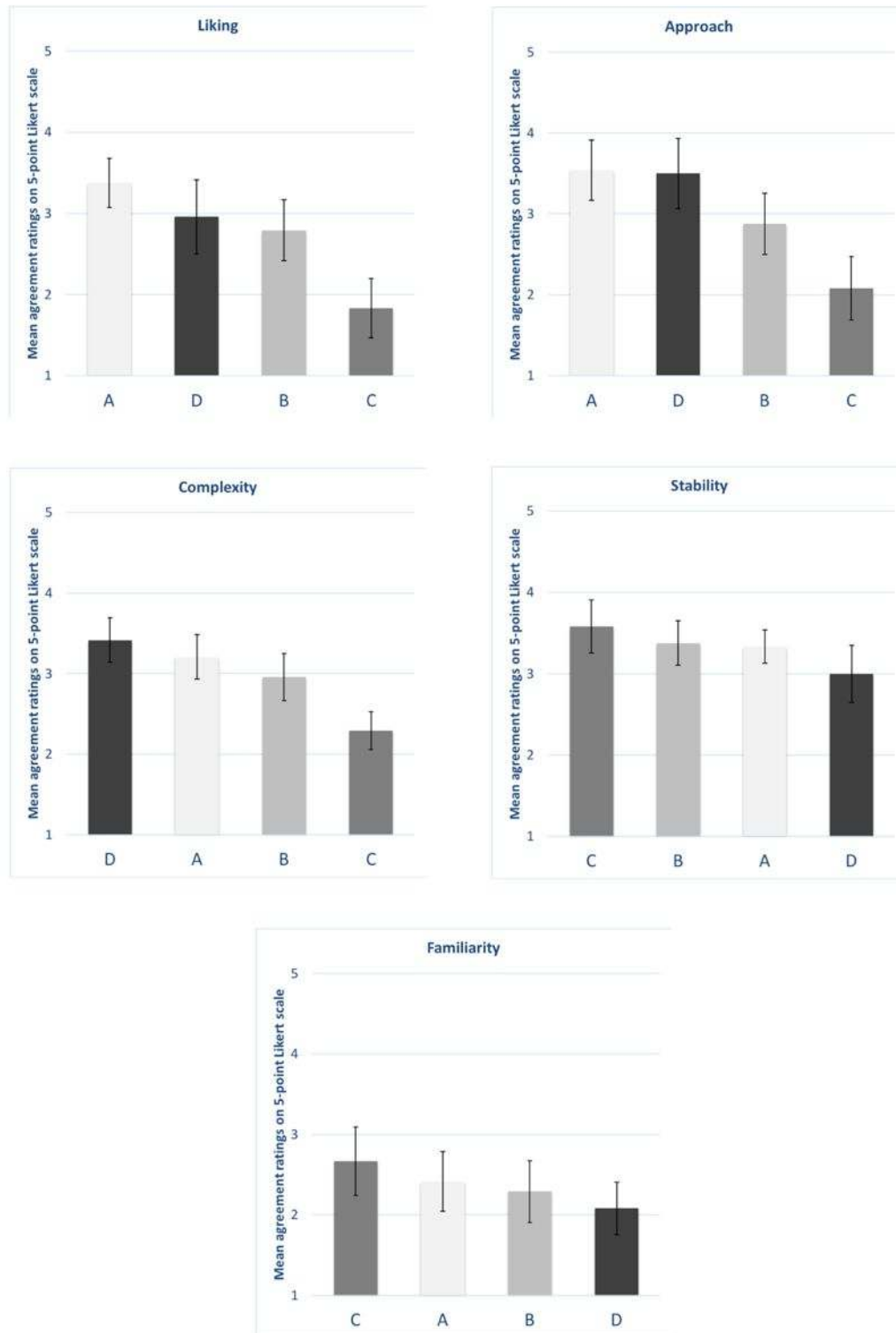
1
2
3 354 ***Second block: multiple rating tasks***
4

5
6 355 Five one-way repeated measure ANOVAs were conducted on rating values for each of
7
8 356 the five psychological variables we measured (liking, approach, complexity, stability
9
10 357 and familiarity), with façade version (A, B, C and D) as independent variable. There
11
12 358 was no significant difference for familiarity ratings ($F(3,69) = 2.375, p = .078$ NS),
13
14 359 suggesting that the simple design of our stimuli did not interfere with the perceived
15
16 360 familiarity of the architectural style of the façades. All the other psychological
17
18 361 dimensions had a statistically significant main effect: liking ($F(3,69) = 13.077, p = .000$),
19
20 362 approach ($F(3,69) = 12.375, p = .000$), complexity ($F(3,69) = 13.162, p = .000$) and
21
22 363 stability ($F(3,69) = 3.060, p = .034$).
23
24
25

26 364 Post hoc tests using the Bonferroni correction revealed that liking (1.8 ± 0.35),
27
28 365 approach (2.08 ± 0.37) and complexity (2.3 ± 0.22) mean ratings for the rectilinear
29
30 366 façade –C— were statistically significantly lower than mean ratings for the other
31
32 367 façades ($p < .05$). It is relevant to report the façades' rating order for each of the
33
34 368 measured variables, from the most to the least rated:
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- 39 369 • A, D, B, C for liking and approach;
40
41 370 • D, A, B, C for complexity;
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43
44 371 • C, B, A, D for stability.
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Curvature and sharpness in architectural façades



372

373 Figure 5. The graphs show the average score obtained by each building across the five
 374 variables. From top to bottom, left to right: liking, approach, complexity, stability and
 375 familiarity –bottom middle—. Error bars represent confidence intervals.

1
2
3 376 ***Third block: ranking task***
4

5
6 377 The analysis of the frequencies we collected for the ranking task confirmed the
7
8 378 preference order showed in the two-alternatives forced choice task as the ranking order
9
10 379 was A, B, D and C. Table 2 reports the number of times each façade (row) was chosen
11
12 380 in an order position (column) by participants.
13
14

	First	Second	Third	Fourth
A	15	5	3	1
B	5	13	6	0
C	1	0	2	21
D	3	6	13	2

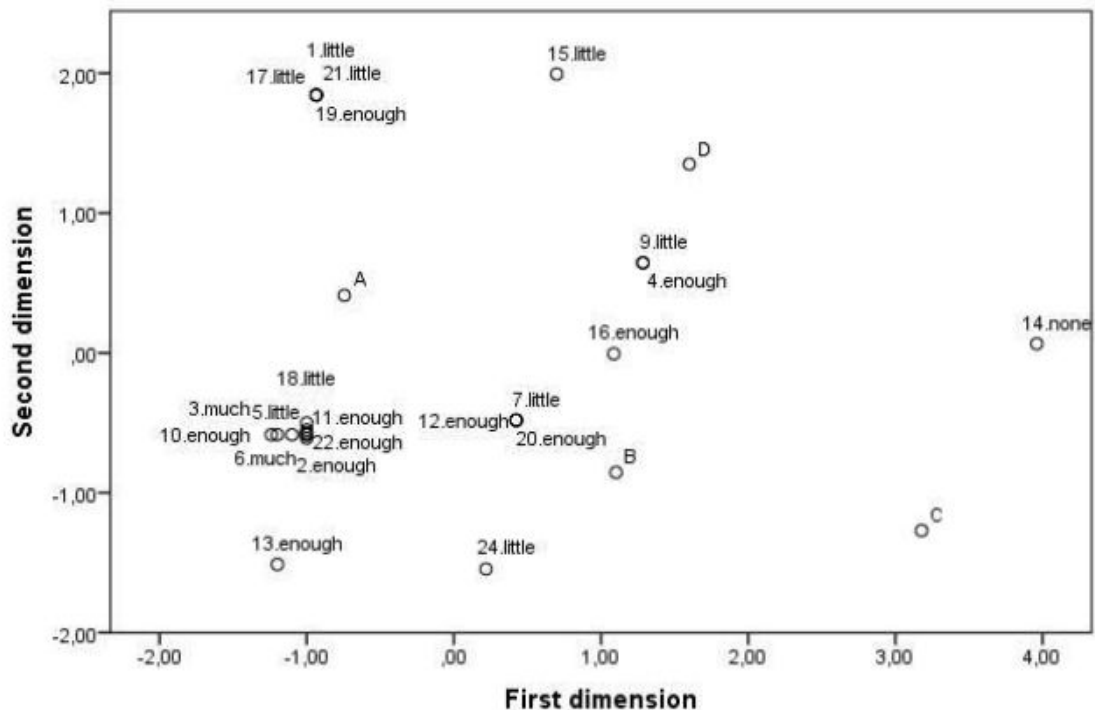
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25
26 381 Table 2. The table reports the frequencies of order choices in the ranking task.
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28 382

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30 383 Besides, we analysed the (24×4) preference data matrix with multidimensional
31
32 384 unfolding technique (Borg & Groenen, 2005) to explore possible relationships between
33
34 385 subjects and façades. The results from this analysis are shown in Figure 6, where
35
36 386 numbers represent the subjects and letters represent the façades.
37
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39
40 387 According to the properties of the unfolding representation, the subjects tend to
41
42 388 be closer to the façades for which they expressed a higher rank in the task. Overall,
43
44 389 façade A – curved – and to a less extent façade B – mixed – are the two main buildings
45
46 390 around which the gather majority of the subjects is placed, including the one with the
47
48 391 highest self-reported artistic interest. Subjects 4, 9 and 15 preferred façade D, but their
49
50 392 artistic interest rank was of 2, corresponding to a medium-low level. Only one subject
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52 393 (subject 14) preferred façade C, but had also the lowest level of artistic interest,
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54 394 corresponding to no artistic interest at all.
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397 Figure 6. Multidimensional unfolding representation for rank order scores (Subject
 398 artistic interest level labels: none, little, enough, much).

399 *Results from Image analysis*

400 We used a model developed in Penacchio and Wilkins (2015) to analyse the stimuli.

401 According to Fourier analysis, images can be decomposed into a sum of waves with

402 different orientations, amplitudes and wavelengths –or spatial frequency. The amplitude

403 of these waves as a function of spatial frequency is called the amplitude spectrum of an

404 image. Natural images consistently have a very specific relationship between amplitude

405 and spatial frequency: amplitude is proportional to the inverse of spatial frequency, a

406 property often referred to as $1/f$, where f stands for spatial frequency. This means that

407 low frequencies have much more energy (or contrast) than high frequencies in natural

408 images and that the fall-off statistically obeys the $1/f$ rule. The model we used

409 essentially computes the extent to which an image amplitude spectrum departs from $1/f$.

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3 410 The model can also take into account anisotropy, the excess of energy that horizontal
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5 411 and vertical frequencies have in natural scenes and to which the visual system has
6
7 412 adapted across evolution. Finally, when comparing the amplitude spectrum of an image
8
9 413 to the typical amplitude spectrum of natural images, the model can give more weight to
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11 414 the spatial frequencies the human visual system is most sensitive to, namely frequencies
12
13 415 around three cycles per degree (Campbell, 1968). Given an image, the model therefore
14
15 416 provides a single number, called residual, that measures the extent to which the image
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17 417 deviates from the natural spectrum of natural images for a visual system differentially
18
19 418 sensitive to some spatial frequencies. The lower the residual, the more similar to natural
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21 419 images the stimulus is. The model based on fundamental principles in efficient coding is
22
23 420 a good predictor of visual discomfort (Penacchio & Wilkins, 2015).

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29 421 The four different versions of the model (depending on whether anisotropy and
30
31 422 the human sensitivity to different spatial frequencies are taken in to account) gave the
32
33 423 same order of departure from natural images (i.e., the same order for the residuals): A
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35 424 (4.4), B (6), D (7.4), C (9). (The numbers reported here correspond to the residuals for
36
37 425 the most general version of the model, see Penacchio and Wilkins, 2015.) The same
38
39 426 order was also predicted by a mathematical model of the cortex. We processed the
40
41 427 images with a mechanistic neurodynamical model of the visual cortex that includes the
42
43 428 fundamental machinery underlying contextual modulation, namely excitatory and
44
45 429 inhibitory neurons sensitive to different orientations as found in the primary visual
46
47 430 cortex and lateral connections between them (Zhaoping Li 2002, Penacchio et al. 2013).
48
49 431 The activity of this mechanistic model, which has been shown to encode comfortable
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51 432 images with a sparse activity (requiring only few neurons to fire strongly at the same
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53 433 time, as the visual cortex does in the presence of natural images) and uncomfortable
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55 434 images with a dense activity (Penacchio et al. 2016), ranked A, B, D and C, in

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3 435 conformity with the model based on Fourier analysis, and in line with a general theory
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5 436 of aesthetics based on the sensory coding of natural stimuli (Redies, 2007) and in line
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7 437 with the behavioural data.
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10 11 438 **Discussion**

12
13 439 Our findings confirmed that curvature influenced preferences also for the stimuli
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15 440 representing architectural façades created for this study. Multidimensional scaling and
16
17 441 unfolding provided graphical representations to easily detect preference order, size of
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19 442 asymmetry and relationships between subjects and stimuli (Maydeu-Olivares &
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21 443 Bockenholt, 2009; Piccolo, 2006). When participants directly compared different
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23 444 versions of the same building, the curved façade was the most preferred, followed by
24
25 445 the mixed, sharp-angled and rectilinear, both in the two-alternatives forced choice
26
27 446 (2AFC) and the ranking task. In both cases, the rectilinear stimulus was the least
28
29 447 preferred and not the sharp-angled stimulus, as found in the previous study by
30
31 448 Bertamini et al. (2016), that used patterns of simple lines. It is important to report that
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33 449 previous findings showed that different exposure time can modulate the curvature effect
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35 450 (Bar and Neta, 2006, 2007; Bertamini & Palumbo, 2016, Munar et al., 2015). The focus
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37 451 of the present study was to replicate those previous findings in the architecture domain.
38
39 452 The aim for future research is to include different exposure time, to investigate the
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41 453 critical time span in which curvature has a significant effect in driving aesthetic
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43 454 preference, in modulating affective or emotional state and in influencing social
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45 455 behaviour.
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52 456 The four architectural façades generated for this study were processed with the
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54 457 model described above (Penacchio and Wilkins, 2015) and with a dynamical model of
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56 458 the visual cortex (Penacchio, Otazu & Dempere-Marco, 2013, Penacchio et al. 2016).
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58 459 The order of stimuli preference was related in both models and matched to the
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3 460 behavioural data collected in this study and previous findings (Redies, 2007; Penacchio
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5 461 and Wilkins, 2015).

6
7 462 The hypothesis that preference for curvature derives from the optimal
8
9 463 stimulation of the visual system might by itself explain this effect (Gómez-Puerto et al.
10
11 464 2016). We suggest creating a link between the statistical properties of natural scenes
12
13 465 and that preference for curvature might have evolved from human interaction with
14
15 466 natural environments. In support of this hypothesis, we report the interesting
16
17 467 experimental investigation on the *Snake Detection Hypothesis* conducted by LoBue
18
19 468 (2014). The author suggested that faster snake detection might not necessarily be due to
20
21 469 perceiving threat but, more easily, to the basic perceptual mechanisms involved in
22
23 470 detecting the curvilinear shape of those animals. Results from this study showed that
24
25 471 participants were faster in detecting simple curvilinear shapes – so called snake-like
26
27 472 stimuli— compared to their rectilinear counterpart, even in the absence of any threat-
28
29 473 related information (LoBue, 2014). Our results seem to suggest that the image analysis
30
31 474 approach used in the current study could be a valid way of quantifying curvature, which
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33 475 seems to be connected with predicted levels of image discomfort. We hope to better
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35 476 validate this methodology in future research, processing a richer set of stimuli and
36
37 477 architectural styles, to investigate this link and its interaction with culture and expertise.

38
39 478 Results from individual ratings on liking, approachability, complexity, stability
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41 479 and familiarity showed a slightly different pattern and generated interesting insight.
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43 480 Both for liking and approachability the curved façade reported the highest ratings,
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45 481 followed by the sharp-angled version, which gained the second position over the mixed
46
47 482 façade compared to the ranking and forced-choice tasks. The sharp-angled façade was
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49 483 judged as being the most complex, while the rectilinear the most stable. Previous
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51 484 findings reported that curvature did not affect approach-avoidance decisions for
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3 485 architectural interiors (Vartanian et al., 2013, 2015), however this was not the case for
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5 486 our study. We advance three possible explanations for these findings:

7 487 1) people might judge exterior prospects in a different way compared to interior
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9 488 living spaces and a better understanding of the psychological variables involved in
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11 489 approach-avoidance decisions is needed, in order to revise classical explanations –like
12
13 490 perspective-refuge theory—and to stimulate interdisciplinary research;

16 491 2) the curved and the sharp-angled façades – those two showing the deepest gap
17
18 492 between the central part and the extremes lateral corners of the façade— might have
19
20 493 been perceived as physically projecting more towards the viewer compared to the other
21
22 494 two versions, increasing the perceived approachability of the building for curved and
23
24 495 sharp-angled version (see Fig. 2);

26 496 3) the rating order might have been influenced by the affective valence of the
27
28 497 global and local features manipulated in our stimuli, in agreement with previous
29
30 498 findings on aesthetics and on the meaning of rectangular shapes (McManus & Wu,
31
32 499 2013; Palumbo et al., 2015).

34 500 Results from this study present two main implications on future research:

36 501 (1) they provide empirical support for the hypothesis that preference for curvature
37
38 502 might be stronger if compared to rectilinear rather than to sharp-angled features
39
40 503 or stimuli presenting different amount of curvature;

42 504 (2) they shed light on the nature of human preferences, intrinsically dynamic and
43
44 505 influenced by context and experience.

46 506 We should be cautious to generalise our results as they are on a very small
47
48 507 sample of architectural stimuli, making hard to draw any more general conclusions.
49
50 508 Following an emerging approach in current research of controlling the aesthetic
51
52 509 qualities of stimuli (Leder & Carbon, 2005; Shemesh et al., 2016), future studies will

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3 510 aim to produce a more varied sample of architectural styles in order to investigate
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5 511 perceived approachability of interiors compared exteriors architectures, the role of
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7 512 buildings' function and cross-cultural differences, including measures like perceived
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9 513 innovativeness, interest (Carbon and Leder, 2005) or embodiment.

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11
12 514 It is not hard to imagine that negative aesthetic reactions might be voluntarily
13
14 515 induced by architects when designing buildings, using particular shapes and geometry.
15
16 516 The 'Jewish Museum Berlin' (1989-2001) designed by Daniel Libeskind is an example
17
18 517 of an architecture design that aims to induce a sense of fear, discomfort and dramatic
19
20 518 absence in the visitor rather than liking or positive feelings. Knowing the critical role
21
22 519 played by expertise in influencing curvature preference we suggest that architectural
23
24 520 design practice might benefit from collaborating with scientific research, to better
25
26 521 predict human perceptual as well as emotional reactions to the shape and geometry of
27
28 522 buildings, aiming to plan better cities.
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36 524 **Disclosure statement**

37
38 525 No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.
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41

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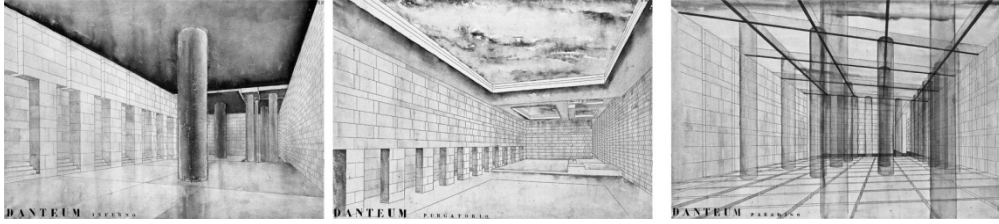
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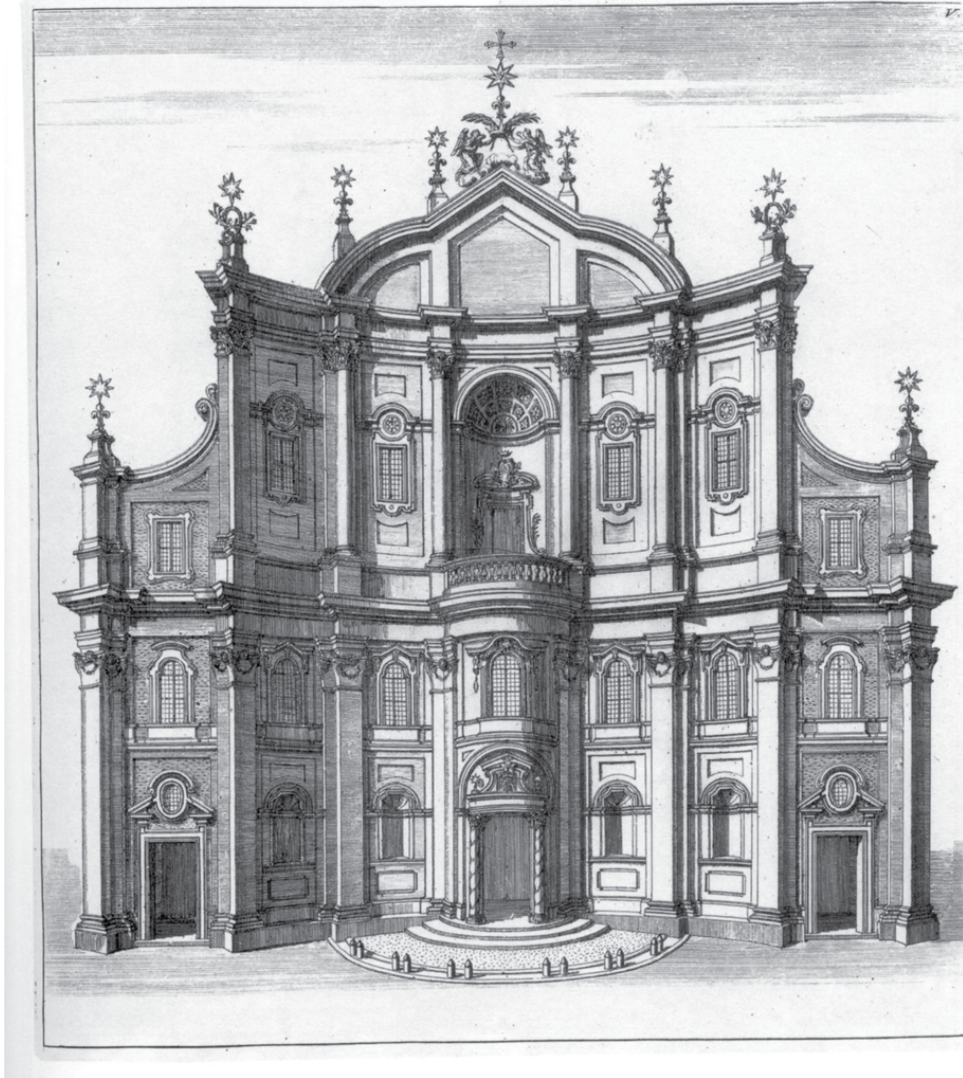
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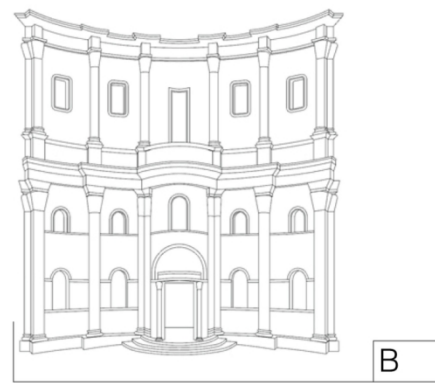
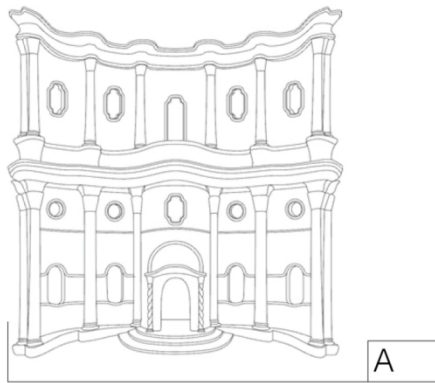
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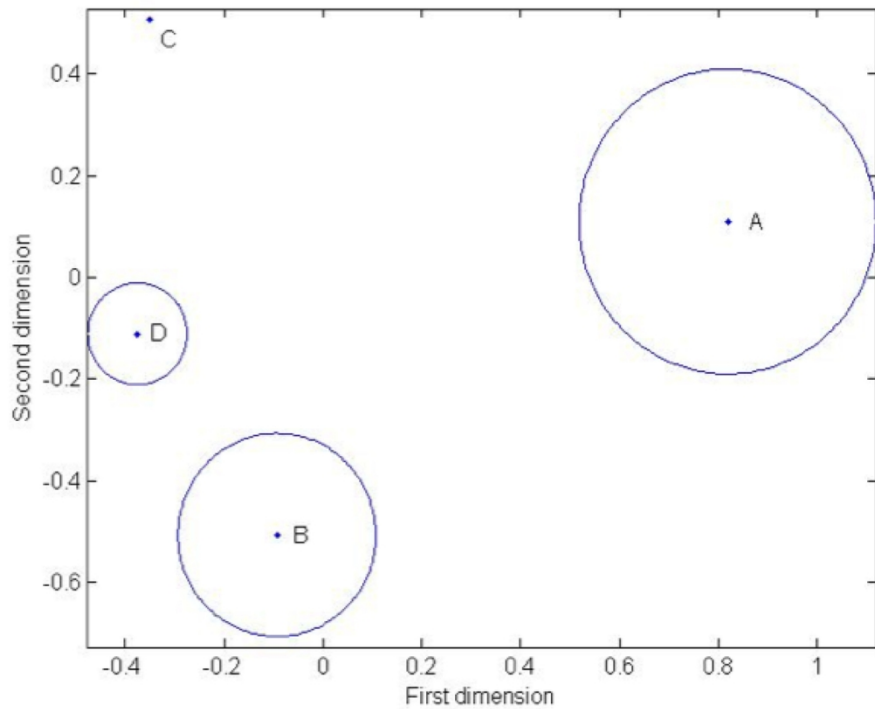
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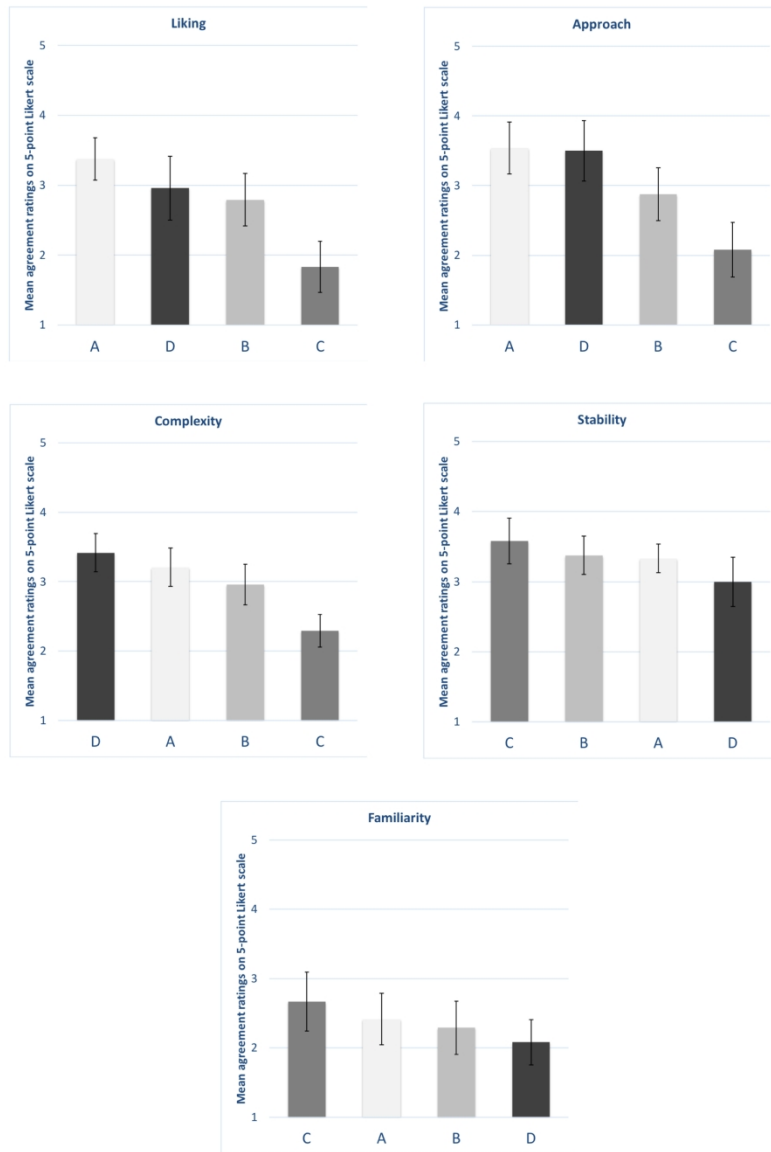


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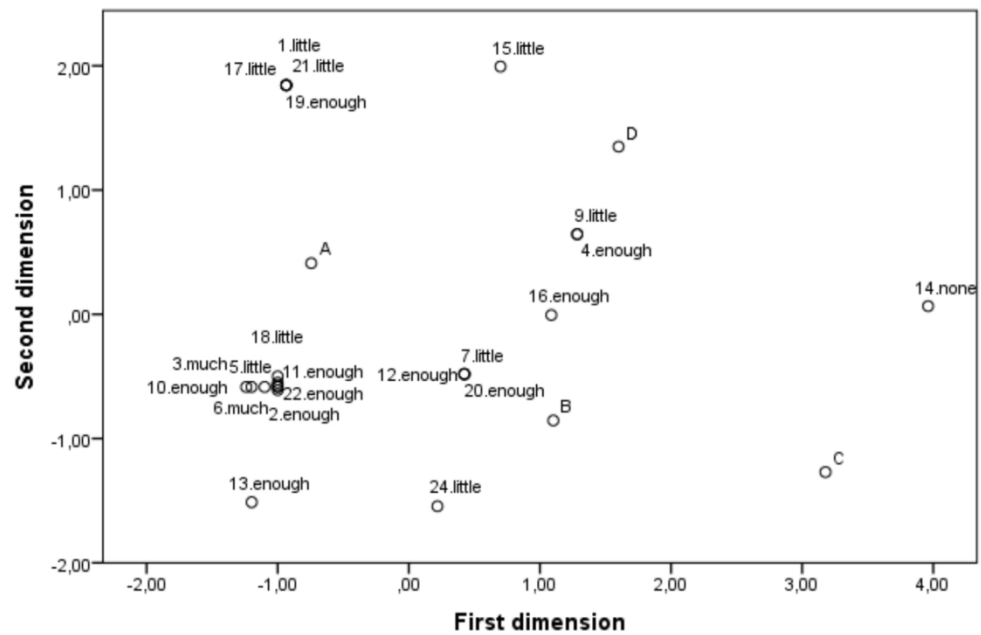
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