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**And I'm feeling good: effect of emotional sweat and
perfume on others' physiology, verbal responses and
creativity.**

Stéphane Richard Ortegón^{1,2}, Arnaud Fournel¹, Olivia Carlos², Keith Kawabata Duncan³,
Kazue Hirabayashi³, Keiko Tagai³, Anne Abriat⁴, Moustafa Bensafi¹, Bénédicte Race²,
Camille Ferdenzi¹

¹ Lyon Neuroscience Research Center, CNRS UMR5292, INSERM U1028, University
Claude Bernard Lyon 1, CH Le Vinatier, Bât. 462 Neurocampus, 95 boulevard Pinel, 69675
Bron Cedex, France

² Shiseido Europe Innovation Center, avenue du Général de Gaulle, 45150 Ormes, France

³ Shiseido Global Innovation Center, 1-2-11 Takashima, Nishi-ku, Yokohama-shi, Kanagawa,
220-0011, Japan

⁴ The Smell and Taste Lab, rue Cramer 6, Geneva 1202, Switzerland

Correspondence to be sent to: Camille Ferdenzi, Lyon Neuroscience Research Center, CNRS
UMR5292, INSERM U1028, University Claude Bernard Lyon 1, CH Le Vinatier, Bât. 462
Neurocampus, 95 boulevard Pinel, 69675 Bron Cedex, France, camille.ferdenzi@cnrs.fr

Abstract:

Emotions can be communicated in social contexts through chemosignals contained in human body odors. The transmission of positive emotions via these signals has received little interest in past research focused mainly on negative emotional transmission. Furthermore, how the use of perfumed products might modulate this transmission remains poorly understood. To investigate human positive chemical communication we explored the autonomic, verbal, and behavioral responses of receivers exposed to body odors of donors having undergone a within-subjects positive or neutral mood induction procedure. These responses were compared with those obtained after exposure to the same body odors with added fragrance. Our findings suggest that positive emotions can be transmitted through body odor. They not only induced modifications at the physiological (heart rate), and verbal levels (perceived intensity and familiarity) but also at the behavioral level, with an improved performance on creativity tasks. Perfume did not modulate the physiological effects and had a synergistic effect on the positive body odor ratings (increased perceived differences between the neutral and positive body odor).

Keywords: Chemical communication, positive emotions, body odor, perfume, emotional contagion

1. Introduction

A growing body of evidence suggests that there is a communication of social information in humans via cues contained in their biological odors (i.e., chemical communication). This has been observed for information such as gender (Penn et al., 2007), age (Mitro et al., 2012), health (Olsson et al., 2014), or even sexual arousal (Wisman and Shrira, 2020). Information about emotional states can also be transmitted via this medium. For example, presenting the odor of stress collected on “donors” during first-time skydiving (Mujica-Parodi et al., 2009) and during academic examinations (Pause, 2004) elicits stress-like responses in the “receivers” (e.g., amygdalin activation, facilitated subliminal perception of angry facial expressions).

However, the question of whether the transmission of positive emotional states is also possible has rarely been explored. Indeed positive affect has traditionally been neglected in psychological studies (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), perhaps because positive emotions are believed to be less differentiated, more idiosyncratic, and more difficult to elicit in laboratory settings. In addition, while negative emotions have an adaptive function for survival by modulating responses to threats, positive emotions are not likely to have such direct vital consequences (Pratto and John, 1991). Yet, the impact of positive emotions on health and cognition is major: for example, happier people have more stable marriages, stronger immune systems and are more creative (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). The field of human chemical communication is no exception to this general trend, with the most studied emotion being negative ones (see de Groot and Smeets (2017) for a meta-analysis highlighting the capacity of humans to communicate fear, stress, and anxiety via body odor).

Only very few studies have explored “happy” sweat. In the first study, Chen & Haviland-Jones (2000) found that participants could discriminate happy sweat from fear sweat and from blanks at an above-chance rate. Zhou & Chen (2009) found that ambiguous facial expressions

(morphed face between happy and fearful) were rated as more fearful when exposed to the fear sweat, while happy sweat had no effect. They also showed that receivers could discriminate happy sweat from neutral control sweat, but that they were less accurate at doing so than when discriminating fear sweat from the control (Zhou & Chen, 2011). Finally, de Groot and colleagues (2015) found that exposure to happy sweat elicited happier facial expressions and a more global processing style, when compared with fearful sweat. This was the first study investigating not only the transmission of positive emotional information to receivers, but also the replication of the donor state in the receiver (i.e., emotional contagion; Hatfield et al., 1993), a process that would favor communication between two individuals by achieving internal state synchronization (Semin, 2007). Indeed, more global processing style has been robustly linked with positive affect (Ashby et al., 1999; Bolte et al., 2003; Isen et al., 1985, 1987). In sum, evidence of chemical communication of positive emotions remains scarce and approaches poorly comparable (explicit vs. implicit).

Furthermore, the fact that in ecological situations body odors are rarely found alone (Allen et al., 2019) has never been considered before in emotional chemical communication studies. Body odors are an integral part of the sensory image we send to others, impacting our social interactions such as in mate choice (Franzoi and Herzog, 1987; Sergeant et al., 2005). Trying to “control” these endogenous odors with exogenous ones has taken place almost universally since antiquity, with the use of fragrances, deodorant, or soaps. Fragrances could be chosen to complement our natural body odor and genetics (Lenochová et al., 2012; Milinski and Wedekind, 2001), and our individual preferences could be the result of a culture-gene coevolution (Havlíček and Roberts, 2013), enhancing some biologically evolved preferred traits. This is particularly relevant for the studies of positive emotions because perfumes are chosen by their wearers to generate positive feelings in themselves and in surrounding people. Perfumes could then act in synergy with endogenous odors to produce such states. However,

some studies have also found that perfume addition alters negatively (although does not suppress) the perception of some traits advertised in body odors (Sorokowska et al., 2016). The cultural practice of wearing perfume could thus also have disrupting effects on biologically evolved signals. In sum, the combination between endogenous body odor and an exogenous fragrance may either have a synergic effect or a disruptive one, by either enhancing relevant characteristics of body odor, or by masking or altering them. Because humans usually emit a combination of biological and artificial odors, investigating their interaction is necessary to fully understand chemical communication.

In this study, the primary aim was to test whether positive emotions can be communicated through chemicals emitted by the body and whether it could take the form of emotional contagion. The secondary aim was to investigate to what extent the addition of perfume can modulate this. We collected sweat from male donors twice, once during a positive and once during a neutral Mood Induction Procedure (MIP), and we presented them to female receivers. Although other studies included both a positive and a negative emotional condition (Chen and Haviland-Jones, 2000; de Groot et al., 2015; Zhou and Chen, 2009), we deliberately chose not to include a negative one in our design. Indeed, we wanted to avoid a potential contrast effect, where the processing of the negative stimuli would be prioritized over the processing of the positive one (negativity bias) and would thus prevent us from observing an effect of the positive condition. Receivers' responses were then monitored at three levels: verbal descriptions, peripheral nervous systems' responses, and performances in behavioral tasks. We hypothesized that the influence of emotional body odors is more likely to remain below the level of consciousness, and should be measurable on physiological and/or behavioral responses as shown in previous studies (Ferdenzi et al., 2016; Li et al., 2007). At the behavioral level, we indirectly tested the transmission of positive emotions by using creative problem-solving and divergent thinking tasks. According to the "broaden-and-build" theory (Fredrickson, 1998),

positive emotions are expected to increase attentional scope and to allow greater flexibility of thoughts. We hypothesized first that receivers' autonomic nervous system responses should differ in response to the positive versus the neutral odor, indicating a change in their emotional state (exploratory approach; see Kreibitz, 2010, for the difficulty to establish a prediction). Second, we hypothesized that if emotional contagion occurred, receivers should be more efficient in creative tasks after smelling the positive body odor than the neutral one. Third, we expected that positive body odors would elicit higher positive verbal ratings (pleasantness, well-being) and stronger and longer sniffs (Mainland and Sobel, 2006), although it may very well not be the case because being produced in pleasant circumstances does not necessarily imply that a stimulus yields or possesses pleasant qualities in itself (see also de Groot et al., 2015, for an absence of pleasantness difference across conditions). Lastly, the literature on perfume effects is lacking in the field of chemical communication of emotions and our study thus remains exploratory on this question: perfume could either have no effect on chemical communication, erase it (by masking chemical cues), or enhance it due to a synergy between two emotionally positive messages.

2. Materials and Methods

Odor donor part

Participants. Donors were 21 males (Mean \pm Standard Deviation: 21.5 ± 2.7 years of age), who declared being heterosexual, of European descent, and non-smokers. Male donors were preferred over female donors because they have larger apocrine glands (Doty et al., 1978) and might thus have the potential to produce more emotion-related chemicals. Sexual orientation and ethnicity were controlled because these parameters have been shown to influence body odor

perception (Martin et al., 2010; Martins et al., 2005; Prokop-Prigge et al., 2016). All participants (donors and receivers hereafter) provided written informed consent prior to participation and received monetary compensation. This research was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the local Lyon Sud-Est II ethical review board (March 6, 2014).

Mood Induction Procedure. All donors attended two emotion induction sessions (within-subjects design), a positive and a neutral one in random order, one day apart. During each induction session, after having been equipped for body odor collection, donors entered a separate room where the experiment was conducted. Induction was performed using short film clips assembled to provide a 30-minute sequence for each condition (for further details, see Supplementary Methods). Donors seated and watched the videos after the experimenters left the room. For the positive condition, donors were seated in groups of 3 which is believed to increase positive emotions thanks to the interaction and sharing of feelings (as seen in de Groot et al., 2015). They were also given a personalized present (perfume and chocolates) before the induction started (Isen et al., 1987). In the neutral condition, the same donors were seated alone in the room and did not receive any present. To measure the emotional response of the donors during the MIP, we asked them after each excerpt to rate how amused, afraid, happy, sad, surprised, disgusted, angry, neutral and calm they felt during the clips using a paper-and-pencil 10-cm continuous scale from 0 (not at all) to 10 (extremely). Ratings were recorded in centimeters to the nearest 0.1 cm.

Body odor collection. From two days before the first odor collection, donors followed a protocol to prevent odor contamination (details can be found in Supplementary Methods). On

collection days, donors had to take a shower just before coming to the laboratory. Experimenters used odorless tape (Urgopore microporousTM, Urgo) to attach 10x10cm sterile cotton gauze pads (Sylamed) under each donor's armpit, while wearing nitrile gloves. Donors were then asked to put on a cotton t-shirt (Decathlon, previously washed with a non-perfumed detergent) instead of their personal clothes to prevent odor contamination. At the end of the emotion induction procedure, pads were removed, cut into 1×3cm strips taken from the central area of the pads, placed in aluminum foil and then in one ziplock bag per donor and per emotion condition (positive/neutral), before being stored at -32°C.

Sample selection for odor presentation. A selection of the samples was carried out before conducting the following step (presentation to the receivers) based on the emotional ratings provided by the donors after the video clips (see Mood Induction Procedure). As we noticed that emotional induction was not equally efficient in all donors (i.e., average happiness ratings collected during the positive MIP ranged from 2.7 to 9.4 on a scale from 1 to 10), we selected only the body odor samples of the donors who were best responsive to the MIP, to maximize our chances of presenting a chemosignal of positive emotion. Eight individuals fitted the selection criteria of i) average happiness ratings > 5 in the positive MIP and ii) average happiness ratings ≤ 5 in the neutral MIP, and were thus selected. The samples of the remaining ones were not used in the following step of the experiment. Importantly, the fact that body odor samples were limited in quantity and not re-usable (due their instability) constrained the number of receivers that we were able to include in the study.

Receiver part

Participants. Receivers were females who declared being heterosexual, of European descent, non-smokers, and using hormonal contraception. They reported not suffering from any psychological, cardiac, respiratory or olfactory diseases. Female receivers were preferred over male receivers because they have a better sense of smell and greater sensitivity to chemosignals of emotion (Brand and Millot, 2001; de Groot et al., 2014). Sexual orientation and ethnicity were controlled for the same reasons as in donors, and hormonal contraception was also added to limit olfactory variations due to menstrual cycle in spontaneously ovulating women (Navarrete-Palacios et al., 2003). A total of 64 women took part (mean age \pm SD: 21.6 \pm 2.6 years old), either in both the physiological and behavioral tasks (N=16 of them) or only in the behavioral task (N=48 of them) (see distribution in Figure 1). Physiological responses were recorded separately from the behavioral responses, because for physiological recordings participants need to be motionless and calm to collect reliable measurements, which was not the case during the creativity tasks where they were standing and/or moving freely. Both groups did verbal evaluations of the odors they were exposed to either during the physiology session (5 odors) or during the behavioral session (1 odor). Note that some data were lost due to technical problems (see details in Figure 1).

Olfactory stimuli. In the physiological recording session, all receivers were presented with 5 odor stimuli: body odors sampled during the positive and neutral MIP with or without perfume added, and perfume alone. The stimuli were presented 3 times each, in 3 blocks comprising the 5 stimuli in a pseudo-randomized order (interleaved with a clean air condition, never in first or last position, to limit olfactory fatigue). These 3 blocks were presented alternatively with blocks of other types of odors (non-body origin), used for another purpose and not analyzed here.

In the behavioral tasks, receivers were exposed either to positive body odor samples, neutral body odor samples, to the odor of leather (Firmenich SA) chosen because of its *a priori* perceptual similarities with human odor or clean air. As a between-subject design was used for the behavioral tasks, the number of different conditions to compare was limited. We therefore decided to include only the conditions related with our main hypothesis (positive versus neutral body odor) and controls, not those related with our secondary question (effect of perfume). With the control odor of leather, we wanted to explore if the mere presence of an odor resembling human body odors could impact creativity performances. We did not do so in the physiological recordings, since the number of conditions was high and it is already known that the presence of an odor influences physiological parameters.

Preparation of the body odor samples was performed by putting the frozen 1×3cm sweat pad strips obtained in donors at room temperature one hour before the start of the receivers' session. To reduce the effects of interindividual variability, four strips from four different randomly selected donors, combining left or right armpits chosen at random (see Ferdenzi et al., 2009), were placed into a U-shaped Pyrex® tube (VS technologies, France; volume: 10 ml; length: 50 mm; external diameter: 14 mm). Each positive composite body odor and neutral composite body odor was prepared twice, to allow the addition of 2 drops of a male perfume in one of the two samples. The perfume (concentrate of commercially available fine fragrance diluted in Dipropylene-glycol, 10% concentration) was chosen among other perfumes because it received the highest scores of pleasantness in a preliminary test (N=24, 16 women). The “perfume alone” stimulus was obtained by putting 2 drops of the same perfume in a U-tube containing 4 clean 1×3cm strips of gaze. The leather and clean air conditions were obtained by placing 2 mL solution (leather diluted in Dipropylene-glycol, 20% concentration, or Dipropylene-glycol alone from Sigma–Aldrich for the clean air condition) in U-tubes containing scentless polypropylene fabric (twice 1×6 cm; 3M®, Valley, NE, USA). Olfactory stimuli were diffused

at an airflow of 1.5 L/min using a computer-controlled olfactometer with time-controlled stimulus onset, and were delivered to the participant's nose through a nasal cannula.

Physiological recordings. Heart rate and skin conductance from 16 of the 64 receivers were measured with Equivital EQ02+ Lifemonitor system (Equivital, Cambridge, UK), and amplified by a Dual Bio Amp from AD instruments (Dunedin, New Zealand). The acquisition software was Labchart v8.1.5 (AD instruments, Dunedin, New Zealand). Signals were analyzed in a range of 10-seconds pre- and 10 seconds post-stimulus for the heart rate (as in Delplanque et al., 2009) and 10-second post stimulus for the skin conductance (to get only the event-related responses occurring within a few seconds after the stimulus and not the non-specific ones; Jacquot et al. (2018); Dawson et al. (2007)). High-pass, low-pass filters were added along with smoothing algorithms to eliminate artifacts. A local mean of the points during these 10-second windows was calculated using python scripts developed in-house. For *heart rate*, the mean values of the frequency were computed. For *skin conductance*, responses were detected using the algorithm described in Kim et al. (2004) and then counted in the 10s-post-stimulus window. The basic response basic peak was also measured, as the maximal value of the signal during the very same window. Sniffing behavior of the receivers was also recorded (as in Ferdenzi et al., 2014, 2015) This was performed by means of a nasal cannula positioned in both nostrils and connected to an airflow sensor (AWM720, Honeywell, France). This system was developed in-house to allow us i) to synchronize odor delivery with the participants' respiration, and ii) to record sniffing behavior. The sniffing signal was amplified and digitally recorded at 256 Hz using LabVIEW software®. The maximum airflow (highest point), the area under the airflow curve (volume inspired) and the duration of the sniff (time between the inhalation starting point and the point where the flow returned to zero) were computed for the first sniff following odor presentation.

Behavioral tests: creativity and problem-solving. Almost all receivers took part in two behavioral tasks. The first task was the *Guilford's Alternate Uses Task* (Guilford, 1967). In this test, the participants are asked to list as many non-obvious uses as possible for common objects in a limited time and their answers are given scores in terms of fluency, originality, elaboration, and flexibility (for details about scoring and examples, see Supplementary Method). Here, receivers were given 2 minutes per object, which were: *brick, barrel, pencil, shoe, car tire, hanger*. The second task was *Duncker's Candle Problem* (Duncker, 1945). The receivers were brought in front of a table where they could find a box of tacks, a candle, and a box of matches. They were asked to find a way to affix the candle to the wall with the available objects (on a corkboard) in such a way that it would burn without dripping wax on the table or on the floor. The analyzed variable was solving time. The problem was considered as solved if the receivers emptied the book of matches, used the tacks to nail the box to the corkboard and made the candle stand inside the empty box. They were given 10 minutes to solve this problem and the time they spent to find the solution was scored in seconds. The participants who did not find the solution in the maximum allocated time were not taken into account in the time analysis.

Verbal measures. At the end of the experiment (after the creativity tasks), the female receivers were asked to evaluate odors on 9-point Likert scales (1 = not at all, 9 = extremely) for how intense, pleasant and familiar they were, and for the extent to which they caused well-being. These evaluations were required for the single odor receivers were exposed to during the behavioral tasks (i.e., either the positive body odor, the neutral body odor, leather or clean air). The 16 participants who underwent the physiological recording were asked to rate the five odors

they were exposed to (i.e., the positive body odor with and without perfume, the neutral body odor with and without perfume, perfume alone) and clean air.

Procedure. The physiological recording session took part first (before the creativity tasks, for the 16 participants who took part in both types of tasks). The receivers were equipped with the measurement sensors and the nasal cannula and were seated in a comfortable chair in a quiet and well-ventilated room with standardized conditions of light (no windows) and temperature. They were also given white noise, sound-cancelling headphones. The experiment started with 2 minutes of rest to provide a baseline, then the first odor was sent with the olfactometer for 5 seconds, on an expiration to ensure that it would enter the nostrils at the beginning of the next inspiration. The next 60 seconds were odorless to return to the baseline and to avoid olfactory adaptation. Then, the next odor was sent and so on (in a pseudo-randomized order) until all odors were sent (first block out of three). After a 5-minute break, the behavioral tasks started. In the behavioral tasks, the odor condition was attributed randomly, the receivers being blind with regards to the nature of the odor. During the whole duration of the behavioral session, the odor (or clean air) was sent to the receivers' noses by the olfactometer through a nasal cannula, for 5 seconds every 30 seconds. Finally, the receivers rated the odor(s) on verbal scales and were thanked for their participation after a small brief about the purpose of the experiment.

Data analysis

Preparation of the data. The receivers' physiological variables that we analyzed were: i) Mean heart rate difference between the 10-second post-stimulus and the 10-second pre-stimulus windows (beats per minute, post- minus pre-), ii) Log-transformed characteristics of the first

sniff during odor presentation, namely sniff volume (area under the curve AUC, arbitrary unit) and sniff duration in seconds (between inhalation starting point and the point where the sniff's flow returned to zero), iii) Characteristics of the skin conductance response, namely the log-transformed SC basic peak (in μS , maximum value of the signal during the 10-s post-stimulus window minus value of the signal at stimulus onset), and number of SC responses (during the 10-s post-stimulus window). The odor ratings of intensity, pleasantness, familiarity and well-being collected after stimulus presentation were used as such. Finally, we analyzed the receivers' performances in the creativity tasks, represented by Alternate Uses Task (AUT) scores of fluency, originality, elaboration and flexibility (see Behavioral tests section) and time to solve the Candle Problem (in sec). The AUT scores were attributed in a double-blind fashion by two independent judges. The scores of both judges on each variable were highly correlated ($r = 0.70$ to 0.98), and thus averaged.

There were missing data described as follows. Due to backup issues, 1 block (repetition) out of 3 was lost for 2 receivers (2 out of 48 blocks in total, 4.17%) for the physiological recordings. Due to technical issues, the responses of 4 out of 64 participants were lost for the behavioral tasks, and of 3 out of 48 participants for the odor ratings by the subgroup who only did the behavioral tasks (see Figure 1).

Statistical analyses. The physiological variables and verbal ratings made during the physiology session have been analyzed with linear mixed-effects models, using the *lme4* package (Bates et al., 2015) in R (R Core Team 2019, RStudio version 3.6.1). Fixed factors were Condition (Positive/Neutral body odor) and Perfume (With/Without). Subject was used as a random factor. Repetition was also included as a random factor but not retained since it did not significantly improve the models. Model selection was used to select the best models, using the

anova function. Visual inspection of residual plots did not reveal any obvious deviations from homoscedasticity or normality. P-values were obtained using Kenward–Roger approximation in the *anova* function of *lmerTest* package in R (Kuznetsova et al., 2017) and non-significant interactions were removed to keep only the best model including the main effects. Post-hoc contrasts were performed using the *multcomp* function of the *emmeans* package in R (Lenth et al., 2020).

The number of SC responses was analyzed with three Chi-square tests to evaluate the effect of Condition and Perfume (for all trials together, and for trials with and without Perfume separately). Because the size of some cells of the contingency table was < 5 , a Yates' correction was applied.

For both creativity tasks, we conducted one-tailed t-tests because a clear *a priori* hypothesis was postulated before data collection: smelling positive body odors is expected to increase positive affect and thereby creativity (Isen et al., 1987), compared with smelling neutral body odors. Our target comparison being the positive versus neutral conditions comparison, preliminary analysis comparing performances in presence of the neutral body odor (N=16) with those in the non-targeted conditions was conducted and revealed no significant differences: neither between neutral body odor and clean air (N=14 - AUT Fluency: $p=0.328$; AUT Originality: $p=0.412$; AUT Elaboration: $p=0.910$; AUT Flexibility: $p=0.439$; Candle Problem: $p=0.144$) nor between neutral body odor and leather (N=14 - AUT Fluency: $p=0.580$; AUT Originality: $p=0.297$; AUT Elaboration: $p=0.510$; AUT Flexibility: $p=0.443$; Candle Problem: $p=0.117$). Consequently, in the results section we focus only on the target comparison between positive (N=16) and neutral body odor (N=16). A chi-squared test was also conducted to compare the frequency of succeeded versus failed attempts during the Candle Problem in the positive versus the neutral condition.

Finally, the odor ratings made after the behavioral tasks (1 odor per participant) were analyzed using Kruskal-Wallis tests. It must be noted that the neutral body odor did not differ from leather or clean air on ratings of familiarity, pleasantness and well-being (all p s >0.05). Only leather intensity was rated higher than all the other odors ($X^2(3)=22.939$, $p<0.001$).

3. Results

Physiological responses

After smelling the positive body odor, receivers had a decrease in mean heart rate (Mean \pm Standard Deviation: -0.957 ± 2.85) which was not found after smelling the neutral body odor (-0.050 ± 2.81 ; Figure 2), as shown by a significant effect of the Condition (Positive vs. Neutral: $p<0.05$; 95% confidence interval (CI) = $[-1.67, -0.14]$; Table 1). The log transformed Skin Conductance (SC) basic peak was not found to be modulated by Condition (Positive: -0.860 ± 0.80 ; Neutral: -0.916 ± 0.78 ; $p>0.05$, Table 1) or Perfume (With: -0.849 ± 0.79 ; Without: -0.949 ± 0.78 ; $p>0.05$, Table 1). Neither was the number of SC responses (total neutral: $N=61/27/4/0$ for 0/1/2/3 responses respectively; and total positive $N=60/18/12/2$; $X^2(3)=7.808$, $p>0.05$) even when analyses of only trials with perfume ($X^2(3)=5.303$, $p>0.05$) and without perfume ($X^2(3)=3.302$, $p>0.05$) were conducted. Regarding the olfactomotor responses, larger sniff volumes and longer sniff durations were found when body odors were presented with perfume (log-transformed Volume: With perfume -0.35 ± 0.33 and Without -0.44 ± 0.30 ; $p=0.002$; 95% CI = $[0.03; 0.13]$; log-transformed Duration: With 0.27 ± 0.20 and Without 0.20 ± 0.14 ; $p<0.001$; 95% CI = $[0.04; 0.11]$; Table 1), which is usually observed with more pleasant odors.

When asked to explicitly evaluate the stimuli they were exposed to during the physiological recordings, the participants rated the positive body odors as more intense than the neutral body odors (Positive: 4.09 ± 2.59 , Neutral: 3.16 ± 2.11 ; Main effect of Condition: $p < 0.05$, 95% CI = [0.29; 1.58]; Table 2). The Condition \times Perfume interaction was also significant ($p < 0.05$, Table 2) because positive body odors were rated as more intense only when combined with perfume (Figure 3). They were also rated as more familiar (Positive: 4.5 ± 2.63 ; Neutral: 3.47 ± 2.17 ; Main effect of Perfume: $p < 0.05$; 95% CI = [0.14; 1.92], Table 2; Figure 3). Finally, when the stimuli were presented with perfume, they were perceived as more pleasant (With perfume: 4.91 ± 1.78 ; Without perfume: 3.50 ± 2.20 ; $p = 0.002$; 95% CI = [0.57, 2.25]; Table 2), more intense (With: 5.53 ± 1.83 ; Without: 1.72 ± 0.89 ; $p < 0.001$; 95% CI = [3.17, 4.46]; Table 2), more familiar (With: 5.25 ± 2.13 ; Without: 2.72 ± 2.08 ; $p < 0.001$, 95% CI = [1.64, 3.42]; Table 2), and tended to elicit higher levels of well-being (With: 4.46 ± 1.74 ; Without: 3.67 ± 2.22 ; $p = 0.06$; 95% CI [0.04, 1.67]; Table 2).

Behavioral responses

Receivers' responses in both behavioral tasks revealed consistent results. In the first task, the Alternate Uses Task, the group exposed to positive body odors found significantly more alternative uses (higher Fluency) than the group receiving the neutral body odor (Positive: 24.37 ± 10.87 words, Neutral: 16.50 ± 5.83 , $t(30) = 2.553$, $p = 0.008$, 95% CI = [1.58, 14.17]; Figure 4A). They also displayed higher Flexibility, i.e. they used more varied categories of uses (Positive: 3.33 ± 1.23 categories, Neutral: 2.54 ± 0.78 , $t(30) = 2.152$, $p = 0.018$; 95% CI = [0.04, 1.53]; Figure 4B). Both groups did not differ on the Originality ($t(30) = 1.290$, $p = 0.103$; 95% CI = [-0.06, 0.27]) or Elaboration ($t(30) = 0.651$, $p = 0.260$; 95% CI = [-0.27, 0.14]) of their responses. In the second task, participants had to solve The Candle Problem in a limited time.

Out of 16 participants in each group, 9 found the solution in the allowed time in the neutral condition (7 failed) and 7 in the positive condition (9 failed). This difference between the two observed frequencies was not significant ($X^2(1)=0.125$, $p=0.724$). Among those who did find the solution, those who were exposed to the positive body odor found the solution faster than those who smelled the neutral one (Positive: 230.43 ± 144.75 seconds, Neutral: 389.67 ± 177.22 ; $t(13.94)=1.978$, $p=0.037$; 95% CI = [-332.01, 13.53]; Figure 4C). Let us recall that the effect of perfume was not investigated in these tasks.

When asked about their explicit evaluation of the odor they had just been exposed to, no differences were found between the positive and the neutral body odor regarding intensity, familiarity, pleasantness and well-being (all p s >0.05).

4. Discussion

The aim of this research was to explore whether positive emotions could be communicated between humans through body odors and if this transmission could take the form of an emotional contagion between an emitter and a receiver. We also explored for the first time whether perfume could modulate emotional contagion, since ecologically speaking body odors are uncommonly found alone. We showed that exposure to chemosignals of positive affect collected in donors impacted receivers' responses, in line with our hypotheses and previous work (Chen and Haviland-Jones, 2000; de Groot et al., 2015). Moreover, there was concordant evidence that positive affect may transfer from one individual to another through this route (emotional contagion, Hatfield et al., 1993), since we recorded increased performances in two different creativity tasks in presence of the positive body odor. Indeed, it has been extensively documented that performance on those tasks is affect-dependent and facilitated if one is experiencing positive affect (Isen et al., 1985, 1987). Finally, perfume increased stimuli

pleasantness and had a synergic effect by revealing differences in perceived intensity between positive and neutral body odors that did not reach conscious perception in the absence of perfume.

At the physiological level, heart rate was modulated by the positive body odors compared with the neutral ones. There was a deceleration of the mean heart rate after participants smelled the positive body odor: such a decrease has been reported before with odors considered as pleasant (Alaoui-Ismaili et al., 1997; Bensafi, 2002). This may be related to the positive valence of the odor, even though it did not reach awareness since the positive odor did not receive higher pleasantness ratings. Heart rate deceleration has also been linked before to positive emotional states, through the measure of vagal tone. Vagal tone is a core component of the parasympathetic nervous system activity (Porges, 1995); it decreases heart rate and predicts increases in positive emotions (Kok & Fredrickson, 2010). Reciprocally, increases in positive emotions predict heightened vagal tone (Kok & Fredrickson, 2010). This provides support to the fact that positive emotions have a role in countering the deleterious effects of negative emotions (e.g., increased blood pressure and heart rate in response to stressors) by acting as a brake and by allowing the organism to return to a physiological baseline (Steptoe et al., 2005; see also the “undo” effect of positive emotions: Fredrickson, 1998). The fact that most participants (97%) reported not to smelling anything when presented with body odors alone and that no perceived differences were found in the “without perfume” condition (they were forced to provide ratings anyway) suggests that chemosignals of positive affect may alter physiology and cognition at a subliminal level. This is consistent with previous studies on human chemical communication, where body odors are consistently rated as very low in intensity, if not perceived at all (Mujica-Parodi et al., 2009) and have subliminal effects on perception and behavior.

Most importantly, when using creativity-related tasks as an indirect measure of positive affect transfer, we showed that the group smelling the positive body odor was significantly more efficient in these tasks than the neutral odor group. They had higher fluency and higher flexibility scores in the AUT and found the solution to the Candle problem more quickly. Note that for the AUT, originality and elaboration scores remained unaffected by Condition, probably due to the time constraints, which can have detrimental effects on creativity (Amabile, 1979). Also, participants in the positive group did not find the solution to the Candle problem more often than the control group (perhaps because the allowed time –fixed for experimental reasons- might not have been sufficient to discriminate between them) but when they did find a solution, they were significantly faster. This has been observed before: after a positive emotional induction, medical students do not solve medical problems more often than the control group, but they do it faster and put more effort into solving them (Isen et al., 1991). Taken together, the physiological and behavioral results are consistent and suggest that emotional contagion may have occurred at two levels in the experimental setting, even though the design only provides indirect evidence of it. Respectively at the physiological and behavioral levels, low heart rate (Ekman et al., 1983) and better performances at creative problem-solving tasks (Isen et al., 1987) have been linked with experiencing happiness or positive affect. This is the first time an effect on creativity has been shown in receivers exposed to emotional body odors.

Regarding the role of fragrance that we tested only on ratings and physiological responses (not behavior), we found that adding perfume to body odors did not interfere with heart rate and skin conductance responses, but that it had a synergic effect with the positive emotion at the perceptual level. Indeed, perfume increased positive body odor intensity compared to the neutral body odor, while both odors were perceptually similar (and mostly not consciously perceived at all) when presented unperfumed. This suggests – for the first time in the context

of emotional communication – that fragrance use may not be detrimental to chemical communication within human social networks, in accordance with previous findings on discrimination between individuals (Allen et al., 2015). This points out to the fact that, even if the olfactory background changes, the emotional chemosignals contained in body odors may have such a relevance that they still remain effective. Additionally, our results show that perfume could even, in some cases, facilitate the perception of some characteristics inherent to the emotional body odor (at least with the particular perfume and concentration we used). This facilitating effect could be specific to the communication of positive states. Here, body odors received higher positive ratings (pleasantness, and a tendency for well-being) when mixed with perfume, which was corroborated by a more intense sniffing behavior (sniff duration and volume) than without perfume: therefore, the synergic effect we found might only take place if the intrinsic qualities of the exogenous (perfume) and endogenous (body) odors are consistent, allowing an easier discrimination by repetition of coherent information without redundancy. In the future, whether such a perceptual synergy would influence the behavioral outcomes we found in creativity tasks should be tested.

To conclude, this study constitutes a significant step forward in understanding the chemical communication of positive emotions in humans and on its modulation by exogenous fragrances. We provided evidence in favor of the presence of chemosignals of positive emotions in human body odor, of the modulation of receivers' physiology and behavior in response to these chemosignals and of a likely replication of the positive emotional state in the receivers. Future research is needed to confirm these conclusions. For example, because of technical constraints our study had to be conducted in a single-blind fashion: although maximum precautions were taken to prevent observer-expectancy, a double-blind design is recommended in the future. In addition, as an initial approach of the question, we limited our study to female receivers responding to male odors of about the same age. Investigating other combinations of sex (and

age) characteristics would provide a more ecologically valid picture. Sample sizes were quite small in our study, and future investigations should enhance statistical power by using larger sample sizes. Regarding perfume, investigating its effects on negative emotion communication could be useful, especially in situations where disruption of such a communication could be beneficial (e.g., stress contagion during exams or in confined situations, etc.). Finally, future research could extend the investigation in social situations closer to real contexts, in which olfactory signals co-occur with other sensory stimuli and in which multisensorial integration takes place. While negative emotional contagion serves the adaptive function of alerting conspecifics about dangerous situations, positive emotional contagion also has adaptive advantages: it allows communities to build social interaction, inciting them to explore new approaches about situations and ideas, and promoting global communication. Sharing positive emotions helps us build resources and contributes to defining us as a social species.

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Figure legends

Figure 1: Summary of the experimental procedure. Participants (N=64) either took part in the physiological recordings followed by the behavioral creativity tasks and the verbal evaluations of odors, or only did the behavioral tasks followed by the verbal evaluations. BO: Body Odor. The data of 4 (*) and 3 (**) participants was lost due to technical issues (Ns on the figure do not include these participants).

Figure 2: Female receivers' autonomic responses during the presentation of male body odors collected during Positive and Negative mood induction (N=16). Boxplot of mean heart rate change between the 10 second post-stimulus and the 10 second pre-stimulus window, in beats per minute (Bpm) for the neutral and positive condition (*: $p < 0.05$, see statistics in Table 1).

Figure 3: Female receivers' verbal responses during the presentation of male body odors collected during Positive and Neutral mood induction (N=16). **A)** Boxplot of the intensity ratings (1-9) for neutral and positive body odors, without and with perfume (Condition×Perfume interaction: $p < 0.05$, see statistics in Table 1). **B)** Boxplot of the familiarity ratings for neutral and positive body odors, with and without perfume. *: $p < 0.05$, results of post-hoc contrasts between Positive and Negative Conditions.

Figure 4: Female receivers' behavioral responses in creativity tasks during the presentation of male body odors collected during either a Positive or a Neutral mood induction. **A)** Total number of words found per participant in the Alternate Uses Test in the presence of the positive and neutral body odors (N=16 per condition). **B)** Mean flexibility scores for the AUT in the presence of the positive and neutral body odors (N=16 per condition). **C)** Mean time to find the solution to the Candle problem, in seconds (in participants who successfully solved the problem: N=9 out of 16 for the neutral condition, N=7 out of 16 for the positive condition). Means \pm Standard Error of the Mean in all graphs.

Tables

Table 1. Physiological and olfactomotor responses as a function of Condition (Positive vs. Neutral body odor) and Perfume (With vs. Without). Results of the linear mixed models with Condition and Perfume as fixed factors and Subject as random factor (intercept). For all variables, the best model was $Variable \sim Condition + Perfume + (1|Subject)$, therefore the effect of the interaction was not tested (see Methods).

P-values < 0.05 are in bold

Variable	Main effects and interactions	Statistics	
Heart Rate	Condition	F(1,166.03)=5.496	p=0.020
	Perfume	F(1,166.03)=0.334	p=0.564
	Condition×Perfume	-	-
Skin Conductance basic peak	Condition	F(1,61.237)=0.044	P=0.835
	Perfume	F(1,60.352)=1.360	P=0.248
	Condition×Perfume	-	-
Sniff volume	Condition	F(1,166)=0.0004	P=0.984
	Perfume	F(1,166)=9.788	P=0.002
	Condition×Perfume	-	-
Sniff duration	Condition	F(1,166)=0.028	P=0.866
	Perfume	F(1,166)=21.090	P<0.001
	Condition×Perfume	-	-

Table 2. Odor ratings as a function of Condition (Positive vs. Neutral body odor) and Perfume (With vs. Without) (N=16). Results of the linear mixed models with Condition and Perfume as fixed factors and Subject as random factor (intercept). The effect of the interaction was tested only when the interaction was present in the best model (see Methods). P-values < 0.05 are in bold.

Variable	Main effects and interactions	Statistics	
Pleasantness	Condition	F(1,46)=0.454	P=0.504
	Perfume	F(1,46)=11.340	P=0.002
	Condition×Perfume	-	-
Well-being	Condition	F(1,46)=0.541	P=0.466
	Perfume	F(1,46)=3.657	P=0.062
	Condition×Perfume	-	-
Intensity	Condition	F(1,45)=8.508	P=0.005
	Perfume	F(1,45)=140.710	P<0.001
	Condition×Perfume	F(1,45)=5.445	P=0.024
Familiarity	Condition	F(1,45)=5.476	P=0.024
	Perfume	F(1,45)=32.992	P<0.001
	Condition×Perfume	-	-

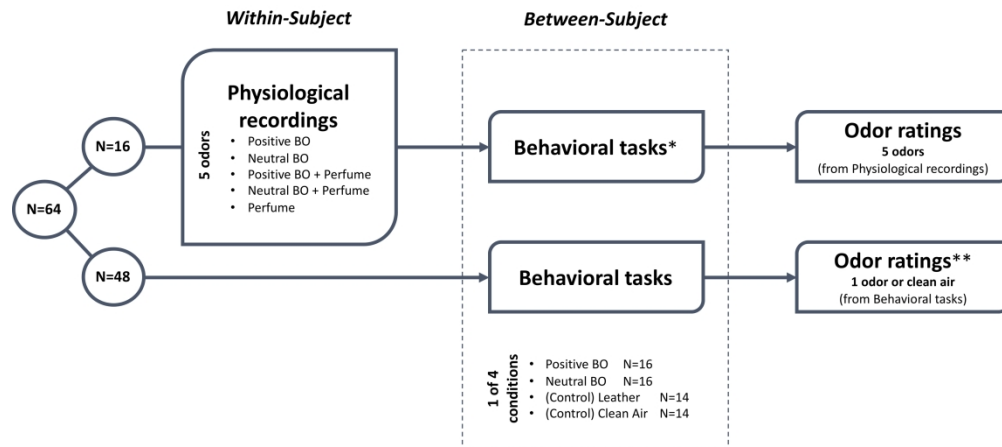


Figure1

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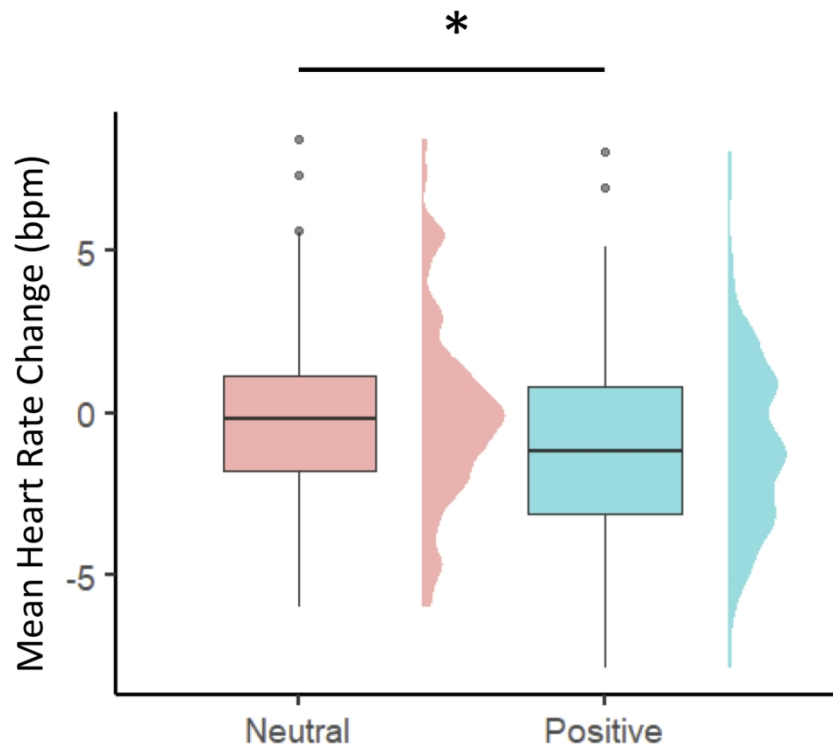


Figure2

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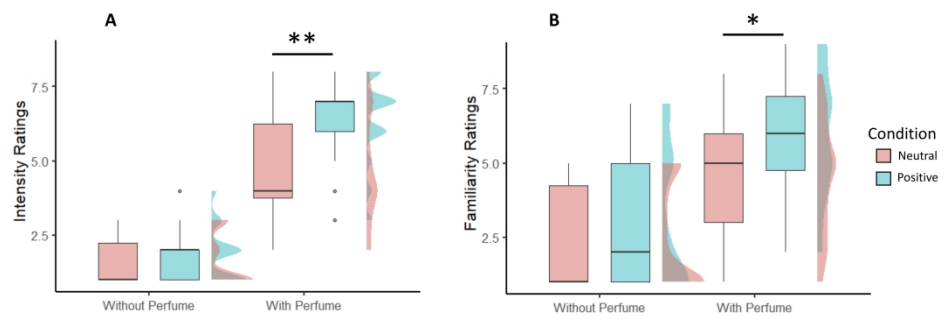


Figure3

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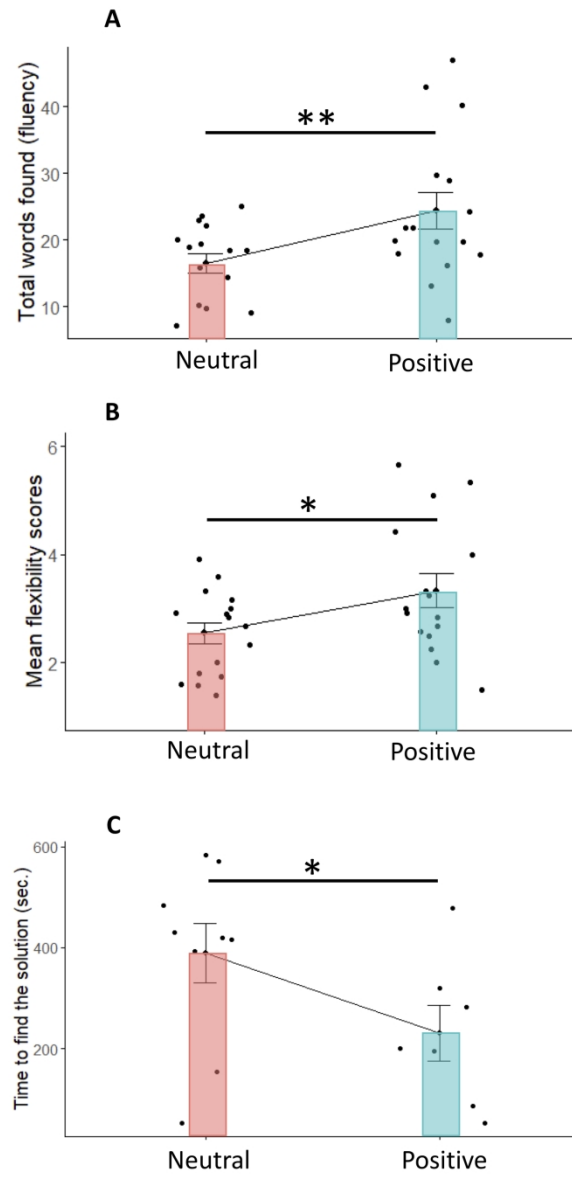


Figure4

142x276mm (300 x 300 DPI)

And I'm feeling good: effect of emotional sweat and perfume on others' physiology, verbal responses, and creativity.

Supplementary Methods

Stimuli for emotion induction

Positive emotion induction was performed using 11 film clips, including movie bloopers, humorous sketches, videos of happy babies, dancing crowds and altruistic videos (evaluated during a pilot session, N=9). These were chosen to induce a variety of positive emotions such as joy, happiness, gratitude, amusement or serenity. For the *neutral condition*, 10 clips were chosen with excerpts of chemistry classes, videos of people gardening and documentaries about geology and mussel farming. Documentaries have been used before in other studies to keep participants in a neutral emotional state, as they do not comport any vivid emotion but are interesting enough for the donors not to be bored (Frumin and Sobel, 2013). For each condition, the clips were assembled to provide a 30-minute sequence.

Body odor collection protocol

From two days before the first body odor collection and until the second odor collection, donors were asked to avoid eating food with strong odors (garlic, onions, asparagus, etc.), consuming alcohol and exercising too much. They were also asked to use only scent-free hygiene products (deodorant Sanex Zero™, and shampoo/soap Colgate-Palmolive) that the experimenter provided. Odor sampling during emotion induction was performed only in the

morning to limit the accumulation of other types of emotional sweat stemming from daily activities.

Alternate Uses Task Scoring

Receivers' fluency was computed as the mean number of alternative uses found per object for each receiver across the 6 objects. Originality was estimated by comparing each response to the total amount of responses for the same object, by all receivers. Responses that were found 5% of the time or less, were counted as unusual and attributed 1 point, responses that were found 1% or less of the time were counted as unique and were given 2 points. All the other responses (found >5%) were considered usual and given 0 points. Elaboration was obtained by giving 1 point to each element of detail the receivers included in their answer (e.g., for the word *car tire*: "protection" was given 0 points because it has no added precisions, as "a protection for cars during Formula 1 races" was given 2 points for the "for cars" and "during Formula 1 races" elements). Finally, flexibility was computed by classifying each response in general broader categories, and then counting for each subject the mean number of different categories given (e.g., for the word *brick*, "tie it to something so it sinks" and "use as a paperweight" are in the same category, i.e., weight).

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