

1 **Aesthetic Appreciation and Spanish Art: Insights from Eye-Tracking**

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7 8 **Abstract**

9 Eye-tracking – the process of capturing and measuring human eye movement – is becoming an
10 increasingly prevalent tool in the cultural heritage sector to understand visual processing and
11 audience behaviours. Yet most applications to date have focused on individual artworks and
12 distinctions between representative/non-representative topics, with little prior work on the effects of
13 differing written interpretations on the visual exploration of collections of artworks, particularly with
14 devotional themes. This paper reports on an eye-tracking study that explored responses to the unique
15 collection of Francisco de Zurbarán paintings in County Durham. Using eye-tracking technology in a
16 laboratory setting, we evaluated the viewing behaviour of three participant groups to determine
17 whether the accompanying written context influences how digital reproductions are experienced. In
18 addition to demonstrating statistically significant variations in aesthetic appreciation, the experiments
19 showed that the gaze can be redirected towards areas of conceptual significance. Most importantly,
20 we were able to challenge the assumption that viewers always look at faces (Bindemann et al., 2005).
21 Our findings make an important new contribution to the scholarly understanding of how audiences
22 view, appreciate, and understand artworks, and to museum and heritage practices relevant to the
23 display of art.

25 Introduction

26 How do people look at and experience artworks? On which elements do they focus? Do labels have
27 an impact on the gaze? The experience of viewing art is complex, involving issues of perception,
28 attention, memory, decision-making, affect, and emotion. Thus, knowledge of the time that users take
29 and how they explore artefacts visually can provide information about user perceptions of relevance,
30 interest, and aesthetic appeal.

31 This paper describes a collaborative project focusing on a unique collection of paintings produced by
32 the Spanish artist, Francisco de Zurbarán (1598–1664). The cycle of *Jacob and his Twelve Sons*, which
33 has been displayed in the Long Dining Room at Auckland Castle since 1756, is the only UK example of
34 a continental collection preserved *in situ* in purpose-built surroundings. Towering over the heads of
35 visitors, looking down imposingly upon them, the paintings have for centuries formulated an
36 impression of monumentality, imposing the lessons of biblical history on the historical present. Of
37 particular note is the strategic positioning of *Jacob* at the head over the table, where his identity would
38 have merged in the mind of the observer with that of the Archbishop seated immediately beneath.
39 Since some critics have also postulated a connection between Bishop Richard Trevor (1701–71), who
40 acquired the artworks at auction, and his personal interest in promoting issues of religious tolerance,
41 notably the repeal of the so-called Jew Bill of 1753, the paintings have also been noted for their implied
42 political and ideological dimensions. The functional organization of the Long Room differs significantly
43 in this sense from a contemporary gallery space, where artworks are more commonly presented to
44 audiences in terms of their historical significance, artistic achievement, or aesthetic appeal.

45 While studies of the psychology of art have focused on individual compositions and distinctions
46 between representative/non-representative approaches, no research has been undertaken on the
47 aesthetic appreciation of thematically unified collections produced by the same artist or of the
48 sequential elaboration of devotional themes, notably in the context of Counter-Reformation art,

49 where the practice of producing collections of designated groupings such as apostles or virgin martyrs
50 was commonplace, particularly in Spain.

51 In this paper, we report upon the insights eye-tracking techniques have provided into the unconscious
52 processes of viewing. Since the purpose of the study was to assess the effects of different written
53 interpretations on visual exploration, the paper reports on the study and discusses the potential
54 impact of the techniques used on our understanding both of visual behaviours and museum/gallery
55 practice. The project unites research strengths in Spanish art, experimental psychology, digital
56 humanities, and museum/gallery studies to explore aesthetic reactions to digital representations of
57 Zurbarán's paintings along with the significance of the collection as a whole.

58

59 **Eye-tracking and Art**

60 Our experience of art is a product of the interaction of several cognitive and affective processes, the
61 first of which is a visual scan. When viewing an artwork, observers gather information through a series
62 of fixations, interspersed by rapid eye movements known as saccades. The direction of saccades is
63 determined by an interaction between the goals of the observer and the physical properties of the
64 different elements of the scene (for example, colour, texture, brightness, and so on). Importantly,
65 studying eye movements offers an insight, based on quantitative data, that does not depend on the
66 beliefs, memories, or subjective impressions of participants. It has been widely used in Human
67 Computer Interaction studies, where quantitative data is necessary to complement qualitative
68 methods such as think-aloud protocols (Bergstrom & Schall, 2014). Previous eye-tracking research has
69 highlighted the potential to transform how we understand visual processing in the arts (Bindemann
70 et al., 2005; Massaro et al., 2012; Brieber et al., 2014), while also offering a direct way of studying
71 museum/gallery visits (Milekic, 2010; Heidenreich & Turano, 2011; Filippini Fantoni et al., 2013;
72 Walker et al., 2017).

73 Most recent research on the psychology of art has focused on secular and/or abstract rather than
74 devotional and/or representational subjects, while the significance of conceptually unified collections
75 has not, to date, been explored. The majority of eye-tracking studies have been conducted in the
76 laboratory, using images of paintings on a digital screen. Even if this method provides full control over
77 properties such as size, colour, and light, the task of the viewer and the eye-tracking methodology
78 produce an experience that differs significantly from a gallery/museum visit. Several studies show that
79 context can influence the overall aesthetic experience of artworks (Brieber et al., 2014; Blandford,
80 Furniss, & Makri, 2016; Carbon, 2017). Rogers (2012, 73), discusses how studies conducted in a
81 museum/gallery setting show how people come to understand and appropriate technologies in their
82 own terms and for their own situated purposes. Studies of the link between art and aesthetic pleasure
83 identify two different types of experience: viewers may enjoy art because it makes them feel happy,
84 or because acquiring information about the artwork gives them intellectual satisfaction. Thus, a viewer
85 may be pleased to learn that a painting is from Picasso's blue period, even if its subject feels
86 intrinsically melancholy (Leder, Carbon, & Ripsas, 2006; Melcher & Bacci, 2013) . This article
87 summarizes a controlled laboratory study. The next stage will be to evaluate differences between
88 digital reproductions and physical artworks in museum/gallery settings, producing an understanding
89 both of the distinctiveness of Spanish painting and how contemporary audiences can be encouraged
90 to approach it.

91

92 **Spanish Art in County Durham – Zurbarán**

93 The cycle of *Jacob and his Twelve Sons* has been displayed at Auckland Castle since 1756, when it was
94 brought to County Durham by Bishop Richard Trevor, who acquired it at auction (Pemán 1948; Finaldi
95 1994; McManners 2010; Baron & Beresford 2014). It has subsequently been studied on several
96 occasions, and in the absence of commission documentation, the most romantic theory of origin holds
97 that the works were seized by corsairs on the high seas and sold for profit. Each depicted on a separate

98 canvas and set against a low horizon, the thirteen figures make a powerful impression on the observer.
99 Envisioned as distinctive individuals who do not interact or relate to one another physically or
100 psychologically, they present a full spectrum of ages and social types, from a weather-beaten sailor to
101 a king attired in magnificent royal regalia. Exploiting their arresting monumentality, Bishop Trevor
102 refurnished and extended the Long Dining Room in their honour, positioning their feet at head height
103 so they could tower imposingly over the observer. His only regret was that, since the paintings were
104 individually priced, he was outbid for the final painting (the *Benjamin*, now at Grimsthorpe Castle,
105 Peterborough), opting instead to complete the series with a copy by Arthur Pond (1705–58).

106 This study describes an application of eye-tracking technology to investigate the Zurbarán collection.
107 It focuses on how audiences look at Spanish paintings, how aesthetic experience is evaluated, and
108 whether audiences can be encouraged to approach art differently. As the first stage of a more
109 extensive investigation of the extensive Spanish collections of County Durham, the study provides
110 fresh insights into the potential of eye-tracking to transform how we understand visual processing in
111 arts and cultures. It also analyses the factors important to a museum/gallery visit, and especially, the
112 effect of label content on visual behaviour.

113 **Method**

114 The study sought to determine whether the accompanying written context, provided by
115 museum/gallery labels, influences how digital artworks are experienced. We investigated whether
116 contextual information impacts on where participants first look (first fixation), if gallery labels
117 influence the time participants choose to view artworks, and especially, whether they influence
118 aesthetic appreciation. Previous research signals the importance of considering the impact of viewing
119 time on art perception (Smith & Smith, 2001; Carbon, 2017). We expected viewing time for artworks
120 and corresponding labels to be predicted by the subjective experiences of participants, artwork
121 related features, and contextual factors. Accordingly, we measured viewing time, fixation, and

122 saccades for each artwork and corresponding label using fixed eye-tracking technology (Tobii TX300)
123 in a laboratory setting.¹

124 *Participants*

125 Experiments took place at Durham University in June 2016. Forty-six students (15 males, aged 18–24,
126 median 19.5) were recruited by posters displayed in locations around the University and from the
127 Department of Psychology Participant Pool. This dual approach attracted volunteers from the Faculty
128 of Arts and Humanities (mainly students studying degrees in Modern Languages and Cultures) as well
129 from Psychology and other Social Science subjects. Curiously, despite the obvious relevance of the
130 paintings to students studying Theology, no volunteers were recruited from that Department. All
131 volunteers reported that they had normal or corrected vision and gave informed consent for the
132 experiments. They had received no formal training and had no qualifications in Art History. They had
133 also not previously visited Auckland Castle in order to make *in situ* inspections of the paintings.
134 Volunteers from Psychology received course credit, while the remainder were paid £4/hr. The study
135 was approved by the relevant Research Ethics Committee.

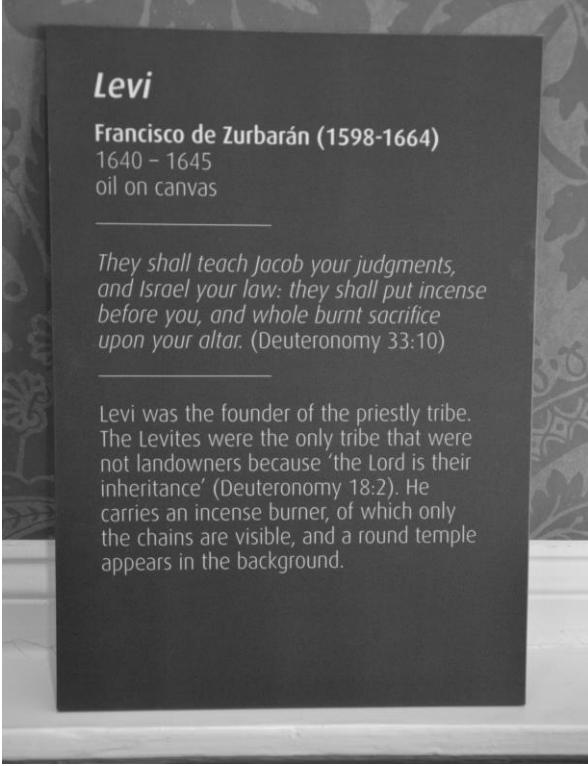
136 *Stimuli and Apparatus*

137 One third of participants were randomly assigned to the Museum Context group (nMC =16), which
138 inspected digital images in conjunction with the contextualizing labels currently in use. These rely on
139 relating individual compositions to the words of Jacob in Genesis 49, where he addresses each son in
140 turn, often referring to the symbolic attributes used by Zurbarán in translating their experiences into
141 pictorial form. One third of volunteers were assigned to the Aesthetic Context group (nAC = 15), which
142 received labels foregrounding issues of aesthetic/interpretive interest, and the final third to the
143 Attribution Only Context group (nAOC = 15), which received data outlining title, name and date of
144 artist, date of composition, and nature of medium (for example, “oil on canvas”).

¹ <http://www.tobii.com/product-listing/tobii-pro-tx300/>

145 *Contextualizing information*

146 Previous research has shown that visitor interest in museum/gallery artefacts is generally diminished
 147 by labels that are “too wordy, too worthy or too woolly to do their job of communicating” (Mileham,
 148 2006, 18). Thus, textual interpretation must synthesize and distribute information into smaller, more
 149 readable components. The existing labels, provided to the Museum Context group (MC), were written
 150 by the Church Commissioners prior to the establishment of the Auckland Castle Trust (see fig. 1).
 151 Conversely, labels for the Aesthetic Context group (AC) were produced by the authors on the basis of
 152 expertise in Spanish art and museum/gallery audience engagement. Their purpose was to provide
 153 participants with interpretive information, prioritizing aesthetic rather than theological considerations
 154 (see fig. 1).

	<p><i>'Levi'</i></p> <p><i>Standing with his back to the viewer and his head turned, Levi carries an incense burner by a golden chain. He is dressed in deep blue robes trimmed with tassels and golden embroidery, sporting a jewelled turban and a pair of boots luxuriously encrusted with pearls. In the background a small circular temple offers a timely reminder of his vocation as a Jewish priest.</i></p>
<p>MC label for <i>Levi</i></p>	<p>AC label for <i>Levi</i></p>

155

156 *Fig. 1: Example of MC and AC labels for 'Levi'*

157 High-resolution digital reproductions of the 12 Zurbarán originals and Pond copy were presented in
158 the same sequence for all participants (see fig. 2) on a 23" monitor with a refresh rate of 60Hz. The
159 experiment was programmed using Tobii studio software. Manual responses were recorded with a
160 mouse click, and eye-movements, with a Tobii TX300 eye-tracker sampling at 300Hz.



161
162 *Fig. 2: 'Jacob and his Sons' as stimulus material. Francisco de Zurbarán (1598–1664), Jacob and his*
163 *Twelve Sons, c. 1640–45, oil on canvas, Auckland Castle.*

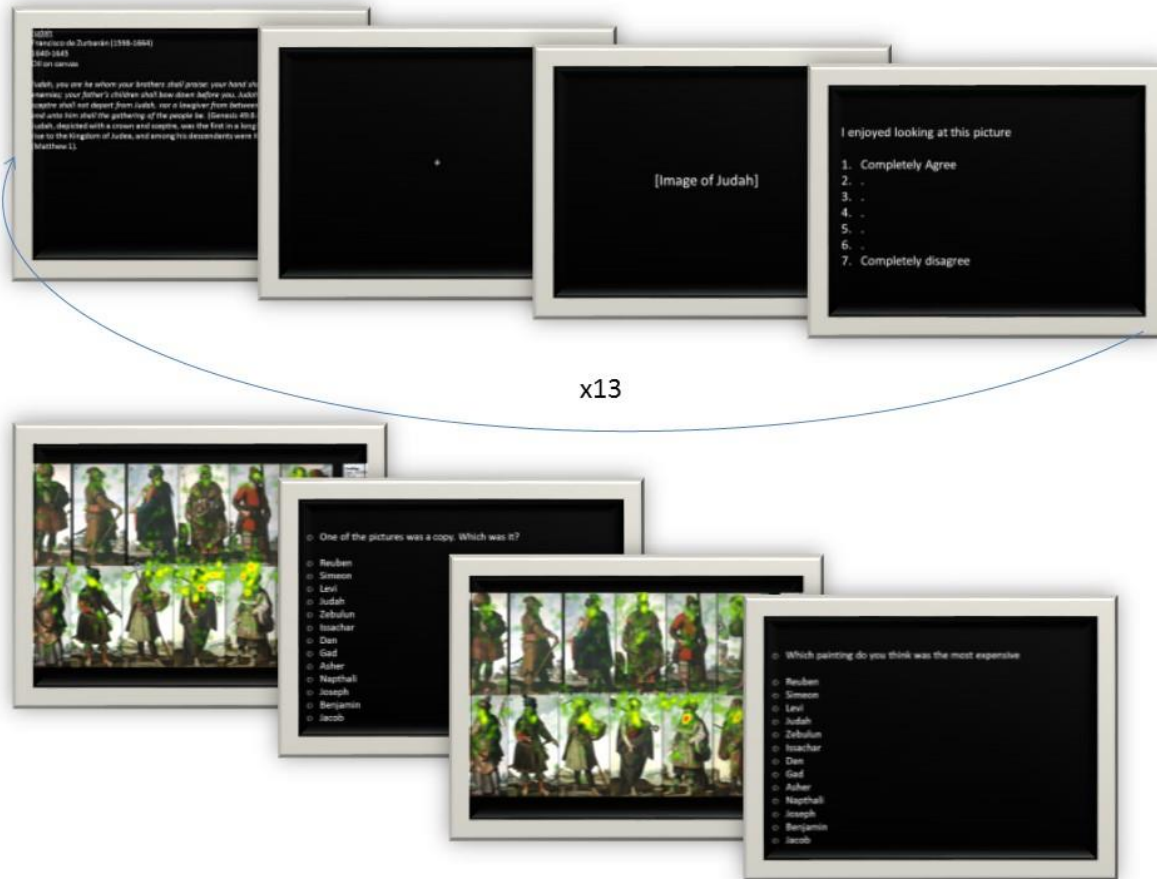
164 © Auckland Castle Trust / Zurbarán Trust.

165

166 *Procedure*

167 Participants viewed the display with their head supported by a chinrest at a distance of 50cm. The
168 experiment began with a 5-point calibration. Participants were presented with the context and given
169 10 seconds to read the text, but could press the SPACE bar on the keyboard if ready to view the image
170 before the time had elapsed. After 10s/SPACE, contextual information was replaced by a fixation
171 point. After 1500ms the fixation point was replaced by a digital reproduction of each of the 13

172 paintings. Participants were given 10s to view the painting and again told to press the SPACE bar if
173 ready to proceed. On pressing the SPACE bar, they were presented with a Likert scale from 1–7 on
174 which they were asked to rate their agreement with the statement “I enjoyed looking at this painting”
175 by clicking a button (1 = completely agree / 7 = completely disagree). The next trial began with a new
176 piece of contextual information. Each participant completed 13 trials (1 for each image), with paintings
177 numbered 1–13 and displayed in this sequence for all participants. After completing the thirteenth
178 trial they were presented with an array containing thumbnails of all 13 images and the question “One
179 of these paintings is a copy. Which is it?” They were given 10s to explore the array, but could progress
180 to the next response screen by pressing the SPACE bar. On the response page they clicked on the
181 name of the painting they believed to be the copy. Participants were then presented with the array of
182 13 thumbnails with the question “Which of these paintings did you think was the most expensive?”
183 They again had 10s exploration time, and when they had decided, they pressed SPACE, indicating their
184 choice by clicking the relevant name. Fig. 3 illustrates this procedure. After completing the eye-
185 tracking experiment, participants were asked to rank the paintings in order of preference.



186

187 *Fig. 3: Illustration of the procedure during the experiment (the calibration phase is not shown)*

188 **Results**

189 We filtered the eye-tracking data to exclude trials where blinks and loss of gaze tracking reduced data
 190 quality. This resulted in the rejection of >50% of trials in 5 participants. These participants were
 191 excluded from the analysis of the eye-movement, leaving a sample size of 41: Museum Context
 192 (MC=14), Aesthetic Context (AC=13), and Attribution Only Context (AOC=14). The data for the full 46
 193 participants were included in the analysis of the questions about aesthetic appreciation, identifying
 194 the copy and estimation of value.

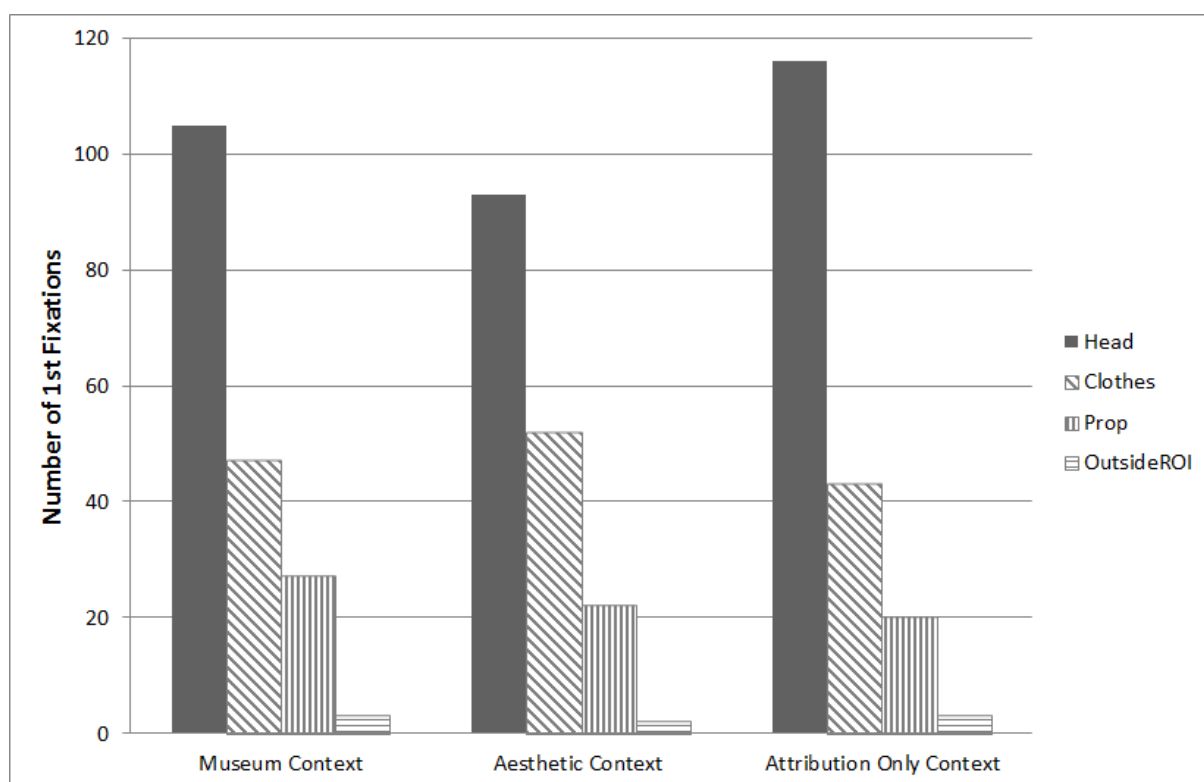
195 *Regions of Interest*

196 Previous research has shown that when paintings depict a human being, the viewer's gaze is focused
 197 predominantly on the human figure, independently of contextual elements also depicted in the image.

198 In particular, attention is given to the face, which plays a fundamental role in aesthetic judgement (Ro,
199 Friggel, & Lavie, 2007; Massaro et al., 2012; Villani et al., 2015). Three key regions of interest (ROI)
200 were therefore identified: the head, the clothes, and the props (elements of symbolic importance such
201 as Judah’s lion or Reuben’s pillar). Saccades and fixations were identified offline in Tobii Studio using
202 the default algorithm (onset criterion of 70 degrees/second and a minimum dwell time of 80ms). The
203 key variables of interest for each ROI were (1) frequency of first fixation, (2) time to first fixation, and
204 (3) total fixation duration.

205 *Location of First Fixation*

206 We first looked at the landing position of the first saccadic eye-movement. Fig. 4 shows the proportion
207 of first fixations in the head, clothes, and prop ROIs or a location outside. The pattern is similar in all
208 three context conditions, with the majority of first fixations on the face, fewer on the clothes, and
209 fewest on the prop. Almost none fell outside.

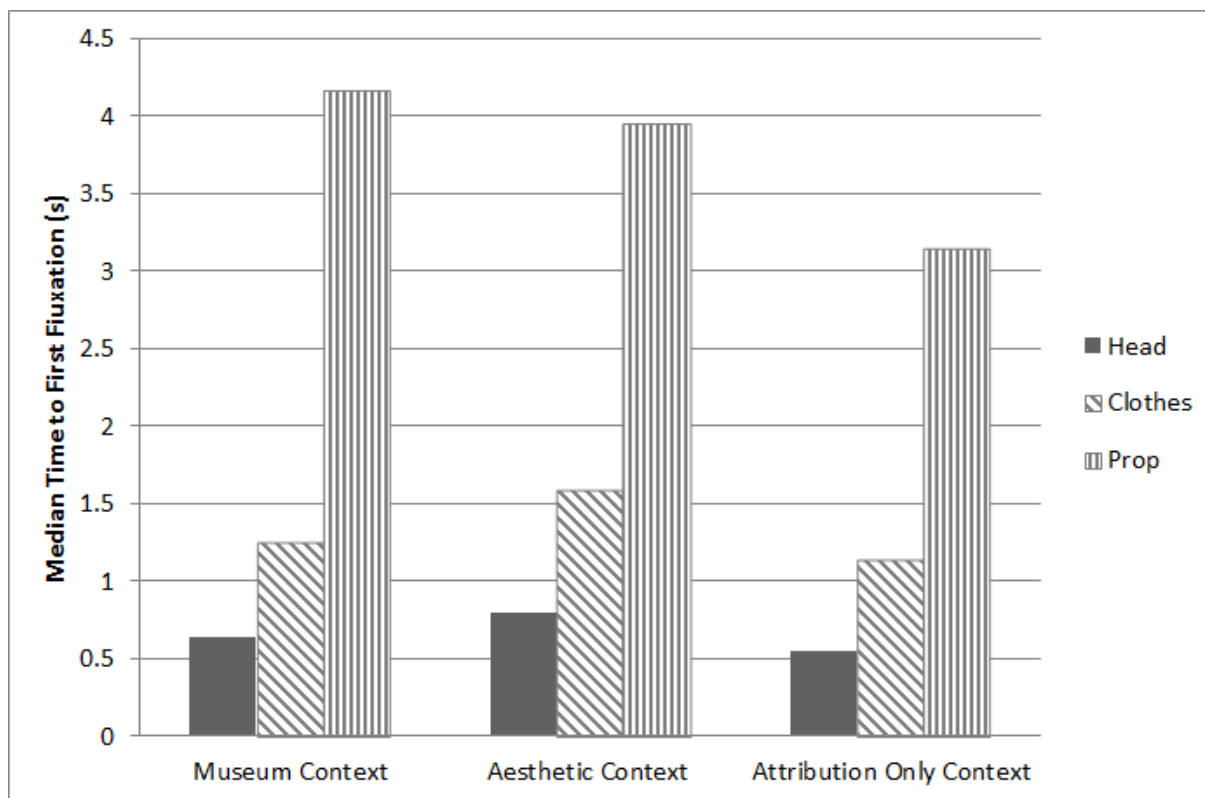


210

211 *Fig. 4: Probability of the first fixations landing in the different ROIs*

212 *Time to First Fixation*

213 We then examined the median time to first fixation for each of the ROIs. For this analysis we used
214 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and t-tests to examine whether the manipulation of context led to
215 statistically significant changes in eye-movement behaviour. Times are expressed as milliseconds (ms). By
216 convention, p (probability) values of less than 0.05 are considered “significant”, and allow us to reject
217 the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the groups. Figure 5 shows that participants
218 were slowest to fixate on the prop in all conditions. There is also a suggestion that participants fixated
219 the head faster than the clothes in the MC and AOC groups, but not in the AC group. Repeated
220 measures ANOVA revealed a main effect of ROI ($F_{(2)}=23, p<0.05$) such that time to first fixation on the
221 head occurred significantly earlier than first fixation on the clothes (657ms vs 1318ms; $t_{(40)} = 2.4, p$
222 <0.05) and prop (657ms vs 3652ms; $t_{(40)} = 6.2, p <0.05$). The first fixation on the clothes also occurred
223 significantly earlier than the first fixation on the prop (1318 vs 3652; $t_{(40)} = 4.2, p <0.05$). There were
224 no other main effects or interactions.



225

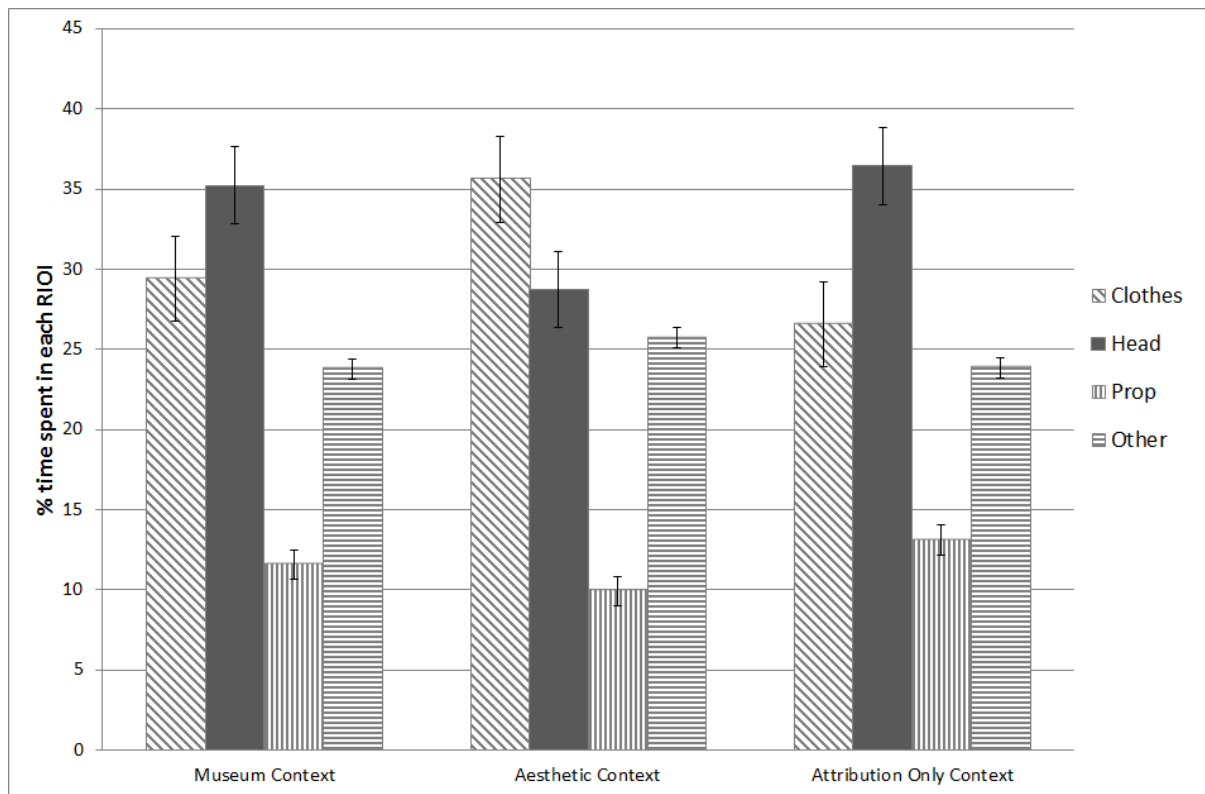
226 *Fig. 5: Median time of the first fixations landing in the different ROIs*

227

228 *Total Fixation Duration*

229 ROIs are of different sizes and shapes in the thirteen paintings. We therefore normalized fixation
230 durations by calculating the percentage of total exploration time spent in each ROI for each painting.
231 We then took the median value for each condition for each participant. These values were subject to
232 a 3 x 3 mixed ANOVA with a within-subjects factor of ROI (head, clothes, prop) and a between-subjects
233 factor of Context (MC, AC, and AOC). The analysis revealed a significant main effect of ROI ($F(2) = 94$,
234 $p < 0.05$) and an ROI x Context interaction ($F_{(2,4)} = 3.14$, $p < 0.05$). Fig. 6 suggests the interaction is caused
235 by significant changes in the proportion of time spent in the head and clothes ROIs in the AC group
236 compared to the MC and AOC groups. One-way ANOVAs confirm these impressions, revealing a
237 significant effect of Context on the proportion of time spent in the head ROI ($F_{(2,40)} = 3.43$, $p < 0.05$) and
238 the clothes ROI ($F_{(2,40)} = 3.36$, $p < 0.05$).

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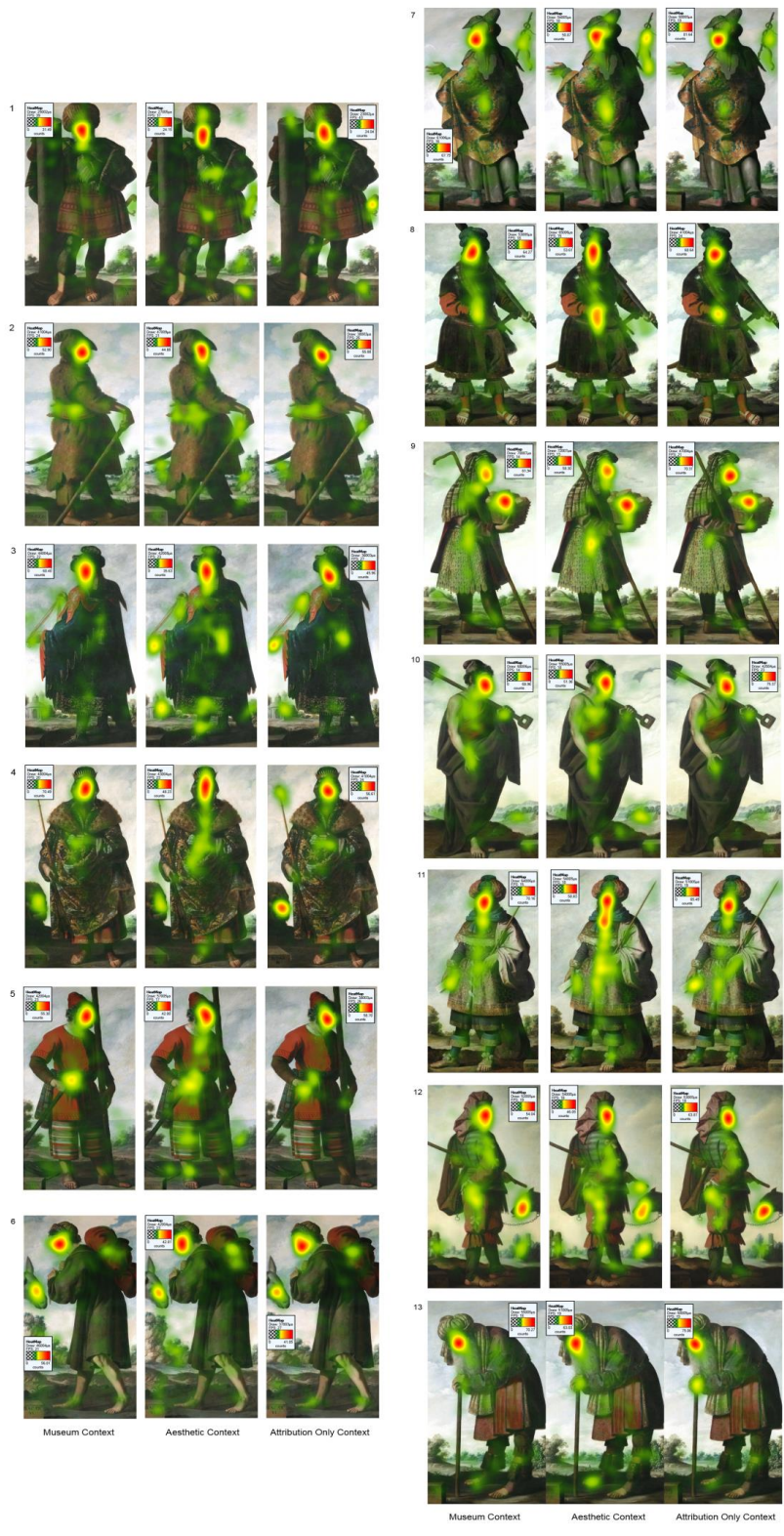


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241 *Fig. 6. Percentage of time spent fixating in each ROI. Error bars show +/-1 standard error of the mean.*

242 When comparing first fixation data across the three participant groups (MC, AC, and AOC), the trend
243 (fig. 4) suggests that contextual labelling changes the proportion of participants fixating on the face.
244 The AC labels succeeded in dispersing the gaze more effectively than the current MC labels. In all
245 thirteen paintings, the visual behaviour of participants changed in response to the written
246 interpretation. This suggests that an AC labelling approach is more successful in stimulating and/or
247 training the gaze than one rooted in theological extrapolation.

248 To visualize the viewing patterns of participants, we generated separate heat maps for each painting
249 and each context group. The heat maps reflect which areas of each painting the participants fixated,
250 and takes the number of fixations and their duration into account. Areas fixated more frequently
251 and/or for a longer duration appear in red, scaling down to yellow and then green for regions fixated
252 less frequently and/or for shorter periods (fig. 7).



253

254 Figure 7: Heatmaps showing the distribution of gaze across each artwork in the three context
 255 conditions. The leftmost image shows the Museum context, the centre image shows the Aesthetic
 256 context, and the rightmost image shows the Attribution only context.

257

258 The results of the analysis of total fixation durations illustrate the tendency of participants to fixate
259 on the head ROI more frequently and/or for a longer duration in the MC and AOC groups compared
260 to the AC group. Overall, irrespective of the specifics of labelling information, participants intuitively
261 make contact with faces. This finding corroborates published research in experimental psychology and
262 art, which makes much of face recognition (Bindemann et al., 2005). Likewise, heat maps reveal that
263 the AC labels disperse the gaze of participants more effectively than those of the MC group. In all
264 thirteen paintings, participants fixated on a greater number of features, engaging in particular with
265 the lower sections of the paintings and the prop ROI. In some instances, notably *Issachar, Dan, Gad,*
266 and *Naphtali*, the developments were relatively slight and could potentially be dismissed as
267 insignificant. Yet in others, especially *Simeon, Levi, Zebulun,* and *Joseph*, participants demonstrated a
268 greater level of fixations across the paintings. This confirms that an aesthetic/interpretative approach
269 is more successful in stimulating and/or training the gaze than one that remains rooted in theological
270 extrapolation. For example, in the heat maps for *Levi*, some specific fixation points can be traced to
271 details mentioned in the AC label, cited above (fig. 1). Of particular note are four points of detail: (1)
272 “carries an incense burner by a golden chain”, (2) “robes trimmed with tassels and golden
273 embroidery”, (3) “a pair of boots luxuriously encrusted with pearls”, and (4) “a small circular temple
274 offers a timely reminder of his vocation as a Jewish priest”. These developments can be seen most
275 clearly when the heat maps are arranged in parallel (fig. 8):

276



Levi – Museum Context: Existing label



Levi – Aesthetic Context: Revised label

277

278 *Fig. 8: Heat map visualization of gaze behaviour: In the image on the left, which displays the effect of*
 279 *the MC label, the gaze is not widely distributed. Conversely, in the image on the right, the gaze has*
 280 *been redirected towards areas of aesthetic/interpretive interest.*

281 In contrast, heat maps for the AOC group demonstrate that the gaze lingers on areas which have either
 282 aroused curiosity or caused confusion. For example, the viewing patterns for *Judah* reveal that his lion
 283 produced a significant increment in interest, suggesting that participants were eager to obtain
 284 explanations for some of the more esoteric aspects of composition. Alternatively, interest could also
 285 be attributed to the fact that the lion has a face, which, although not human, functions nonetheless
 286 as an instinctive focus for audience recognition (Bindemann et al., 2005). The second significant
 287 finding is that Zurbarán’s method of identification (the names and Roman numerals painted as
 288 sculpted inscriptions on the stone blocks in the foreground) was ignored or overlooked by all three
 289 participant groups. Although volunteers who received the AC and AOC labels displayed some interest
 290 in relation to *Reuben* (fig. 9), the first of the sequence, their attention waned on inspecting subsequent
 291 paintings, where series information was evidently considered less important or interesting than more
 292 vibrant and vivid qualities such as the depiction of faces, props, and clothing. This finding questions

293 the effectiveness and relevance of Zurbarán’s numbering technique, revealing that contemporary
294 viewers have little interest in – or understanding of – the order in which the twelve sons are referred
295 to sequentially by their father in Genesis, and thus, by Zurbarán in his paintings. It also has implications
296 for work with mobile eye-tracking technology in gallery settings, questioning how, if not sequentially,
297 audiences should be encouraged to approach ordered cycles of paintings through the development
298 of contextualizing information. A particular issue in this respect is that, rather than enter the Long
299 Dining Room by immediately facing *Reuben*, the eldest son, the current entrance obliges viewers to
300 focus initially on the three final paintings in the series: *Naphtali*, *Joseph*, and *Benjamin*.

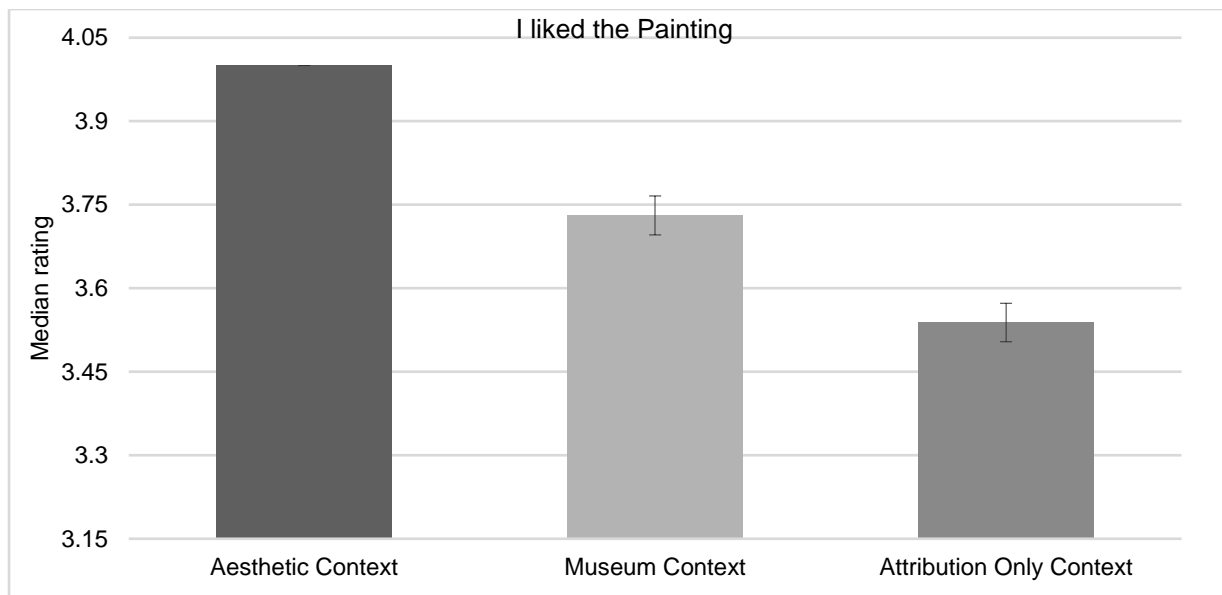


301
302 Fig 9: Heat map visualisation of gaze behaviour for *Ruben* (Left to right: Museum, Aesthetic, and
303 Attribution only contexts)

304 *Contextualizing Labels and Aesthetic Appreciation*

305 Contextual museum labelling significantly influences levels of aesthetic appreciation and how the gaze
306 can be trained and/or manipulated to engage with areas of interest that might otherwise be

307 overlooked. To evaluate how the different contextual museum labels affected enjoyment of the
308 paintings participants were asked to rate each artwork they had just viewed on a 7 point Likert scale,
309 posing the question "How much do you like this painting?" (1 = completely agree / 7 = completely
310 disagree). The higher the rating, the less the participant liked the artwork. Fig. 10 displays the means
311 of the median ratings in the three groups (MC, AC, and AOC), collapsed across paintings. Studies of
312 viewing art in a physical context suggest that acquiring new information is positively correlated with
313 intellectual mastery and enjoyment (Leder, Carbon, & Ripsas, 2006; Melcher & Bacci, 2013). Thus our
314 hypothesis was that if the viewers were given additional information about the painting, and thus
315 their attention could be drawn to different features, it could result in higher levels of interest and/or
316 aesthetic enjoyment. Yet the opposite appears to be true: AC labels led participants to look less at
317 faces (figure 6), which was associated with finding the experience less enjoyable (see figure 10). More
318 specifically, participants liked the paintings significantly more ($P=0.007$) in the AOC group, where they
319 had to form their own spontaneous judgements. The comparison between MC and AC labels showed
320 the same pattern but do did not reach statistical significance ($P=.08$). It therefore appears that there
321 is a contradiction between the emotional enjoyment of a painting and the cognitive effort of
322 identifying features mentioned in contextualizing information when digital surrogates are viewed. This
323 contradicts evidence from studies of physical art, so it is possible that the fact of digital reproduction
324 itself is significant. This topic will require further and more detailed scrutiny: it suggests that we should
325 not assume that the pleasure the viewer feels is equivalent, in a digital setting, to that in a physical
326 one. If these findings are replicated, they could have significant impact on museum/gallery practice,
327 but also for displaying digital surrogates of art works, for example on gallery websites.



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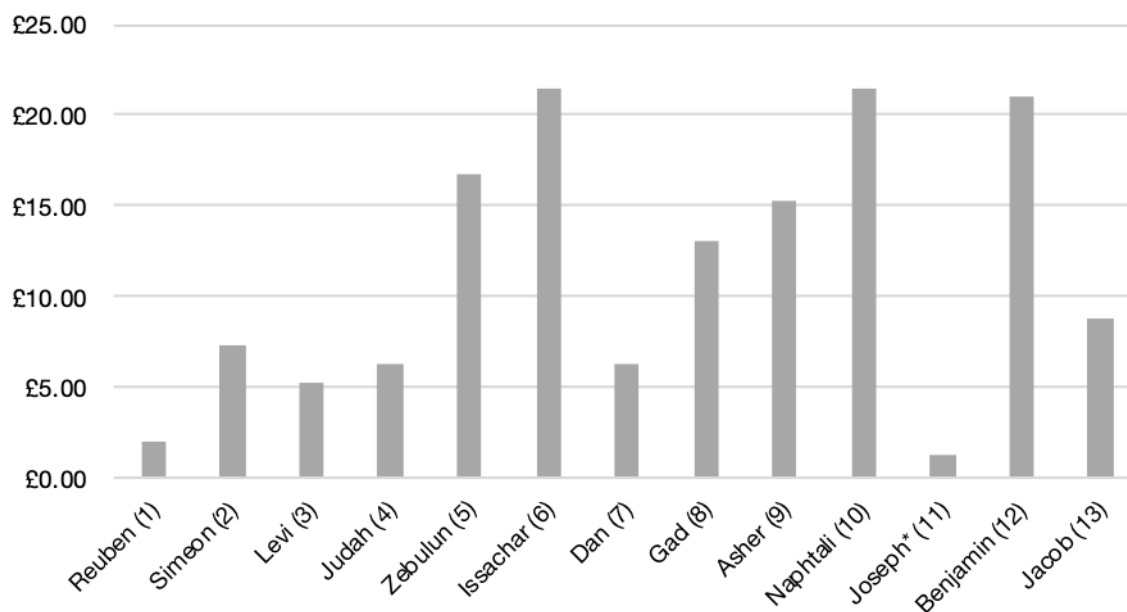
329 Fig. 10: Aesthetic appreciation rating of the artworks by group. Error Bars show +/-1 SEM

330 *Auction Prices and Estimation of Value*

331 This paper will also discuss a how participants identify and rank artworks in terms of authenticity and
 332 value. By ranking compositions, we will cross-reference attitudes with the prices paid by Bishop Trevor
 333 at auction in 1756, considering how aesthetic tastes have changed.

334 The Zurbarán paintings were acquired individually at auction. Bishop Richard Trevor’s receipt (see
 335 Finaldi 1994), which only partially follows the order of the series, itemizes prices for eleven of the
 336 thirteen paintings: *Jacob* (£8 15s), *Reuben* (£2 2s), *Simeon* (£7 7s), *Levi* (£5 5s), *Judah* (£6 6s), *Dan* (£6
 337 6s), *Naphtali* (£21 10s 6d), *Gad* (£13 2s 6d), *Asher* (£15 4s 6d), *Issachar* (£21 10s 6d), and *Zebulun* (£16
 338 16s). In addition to the auction costs (£124 5s), he paid £21 for the *Benjamin* copy, and £1 6s for
 339 relining *Joseph* (Fig. 11). Unfortunately, no separate receipt for the auction price of *Joseph* has
 340 survived.

341



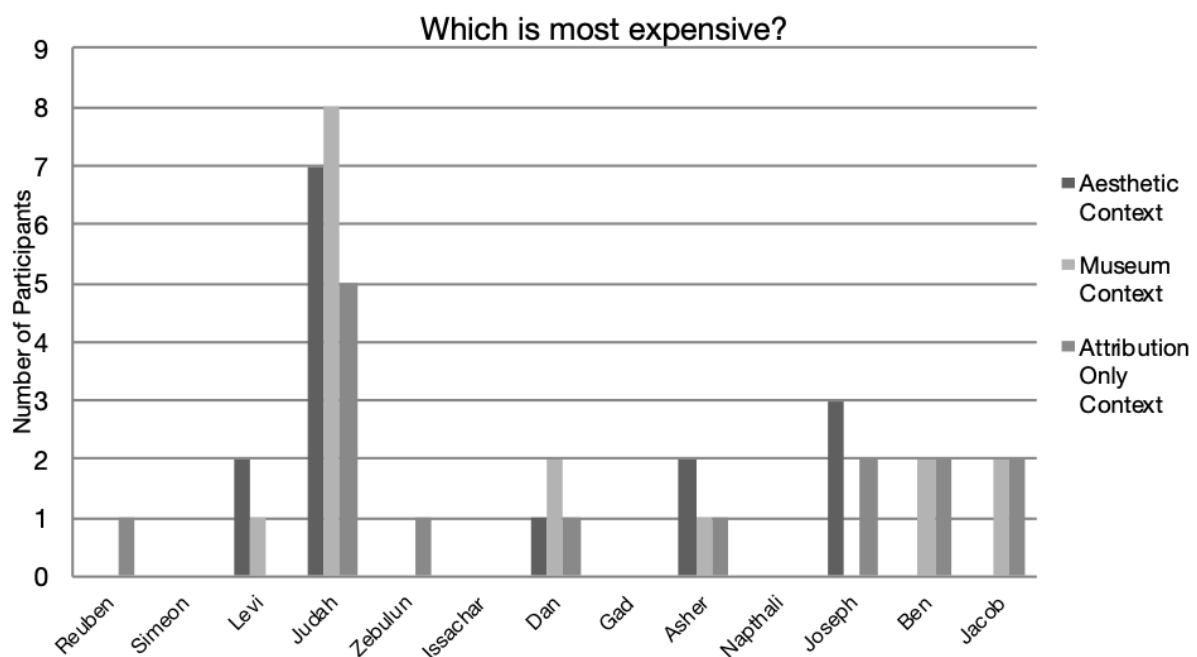
342

343 Fig. 11: Cost of paintings at the time of acquisition

344 In view of the pressures of the bidding process, the original price of the paintings cannot necessarily
 345 be regarded as an accurate measure of their financial value. It does, however, produce a ranking that
 346 can be cross-referenced with contemporary perceptions of economic value and aesthetic quality. We
 347 therefore asked participants which painting looked the most expensive, comparing their opinions both
 348 with the prices paid at auction and their own aesthetic judgements. We expected that this would
 349 provide information about the relationship between perceptions of value and aesthetic quality in both
 350 synchronic and diachronic terms.

351 Two MC labels offer clear statements on pricing: “With *Naphtali*, this was Bishop Trevor’s most
 352 expensive purchase at just over £21” (*Issachar*) and “The artist charged him £21, almost as much as
 353 Trevor had paid for the most expensive original” (*Benjamin*). However, since none of the MC
 354 respondents identified *Issachar* or *Naphtali* as the most expensive, it is clear that this information did
 355 not influence their opinion. Their judgements were thus formed exclusively on individual aesthetic
 356 grounds.

357 Figures from the three groups (MC, AC, and AOC) show that not a single respondent regarded *Issachar*
 358 or *Naphtali* (both of which cost £21 10s 6d) as the most expensive. They can be grouped accordingly
 359 with *Simeon* and *Gad*, which were also rejected by all respondents. The eight other paintings received
 360 marginally more enthusiastic responses. *Reuben* and *Zebulun* were favoured by 1 respondent, *Levi* by
 361 3, *Dan*, *Asher*, *Benjamin*, and *Jacob* by 4, and *Joseph* by 5. Most striking, however, is that 43% of
 362 volunteers regarded *Judah* as the most expensive (fig. 12). Notably, when participants were asked to
 363 rank the paintings in order of preference *Jacob* emerged as the most preferred, followed by *Judah*,
 364 *Asher*, *Issachar*, *Joseph*, *Dan*, *Levi*, *Benjamin*, *Reuben*, *Zebulun*, *Naphtali*, *Gad*, and *Simeon*.



365
 366 Fig. 12: Participant estimation of artwork financial value

367 A comparison of the three data-sets does not otherwise reveal significant divergences, except that the
 368 absence of contextualizing information appears to make volunteers marginally less certain of their
 369 judgement. While participants in the MC group nominated 6 paintings, and the AC group nominated
 370 5, the AOC group spread their judgement over 8 paintings. This suggests that contextualizing
 371 information can have a significant impact on preempting and influencing impressions of financial
 372 value.

373 When participants scrutinized an image of the paintings arranged on a single screen (see fig. 13) heat
374 maps revealed that their views were formed almost exclusively in relation to engagement with faces
375 rather than garments or other aspects of composition. In almost every instance, no attention was paid
376 to the lower portions of the paintings, demonstrating that judgements of aesthetic appreciation and
377 financial value are formulated in the same way. Since this finding has not previously been discussed,
378 the question of how respondents form judgements in relation to abstract and/or non-representational
379 works that avoid the potential for face-bias is likely to yield further, more significant insights.



1



2



3

380

381 Fig. 13: Heat maps revealing how judgements of valuation and aesthetic appreciation fixate on the
 382 face. Panel 1 shows the Museum context, Panel 2 the Aesthetic Context, and Panel 3 shows the
 383 Attribution Only Context

384 Differences across the three data-sets are revealing. The gaze of AC group participants fixated almost
385 exclusively on *Judah* and *Joseph*. This correlates with appraisals of financial value, with 47% favouring
386 the former, and 20% the latter. Participants in the MC group fixated on a broader range, but
387 concentrated most attention on the same two paintings. In this instance, 50% selected *Judah*, but not
388 a single respondent selected *Joseph*, suggesting a process of cross-comparison followed by a conscious
389 decision to nominate the former in preference to the latter. The fixation patterns of AOC group
390 participants shifted considerably, with the emphasis of attention falling on *Joseph* and *Benjamin*.
391 Although in this instance *Judah* did not receive significant scrutiny, a third of respondents still thought
392 it was the most expensive.

393 The corollary is that volunteers appeared to experience a more robust psychological connection with
394 *Judah*. It was highly prized in aesthetic terms and participants regarded it as the most financially
395 valuable. Since the AOC group nominated it without subjecting it to detailed scrutiny, the logical
396 inference is that factors innate in the painting equate to impressions of financial value in the mind of
397 the contemporary observer. One explanation is the use of gold, which traditionally connotes wealth,
398 opulence, and social status. However, the symbolic trappings of kingship, notably crown and sceptre
399 may formulate an unconscious impression of monetary value. This seems compelling since the four
400 least highly regarded paintings (*Simeon*, *Issachar*, *Gad*, and *Naphtali*) depict figures dressed in
401 functional, rustic, or drab outdoor costumes. This interpretation is consistent with the psychology of
402 decision-making: there is considerable evidence that people utilize heuristics to reduce the cognitive
403 load of complex decision-making (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974), and such biases have been shown to
404 affect valuations of art. For example, the effort heuristic (Kruger et al., 2004) describes a propensity
405 to attribute greater worth if the viewer believes the artwork took more time to create. Although there
406 is little in the paintings to signal distinctions in value, it remains plausible that non-expert participants
407 derived cues from the visual “richness” of the painting (accepting implicit connotations of wealth and
408 status) as a heuristic. This enabled them to reduce the cognitive load of decision-making in relation to
409 a collection of unfamiliar and superficially similar paintings.

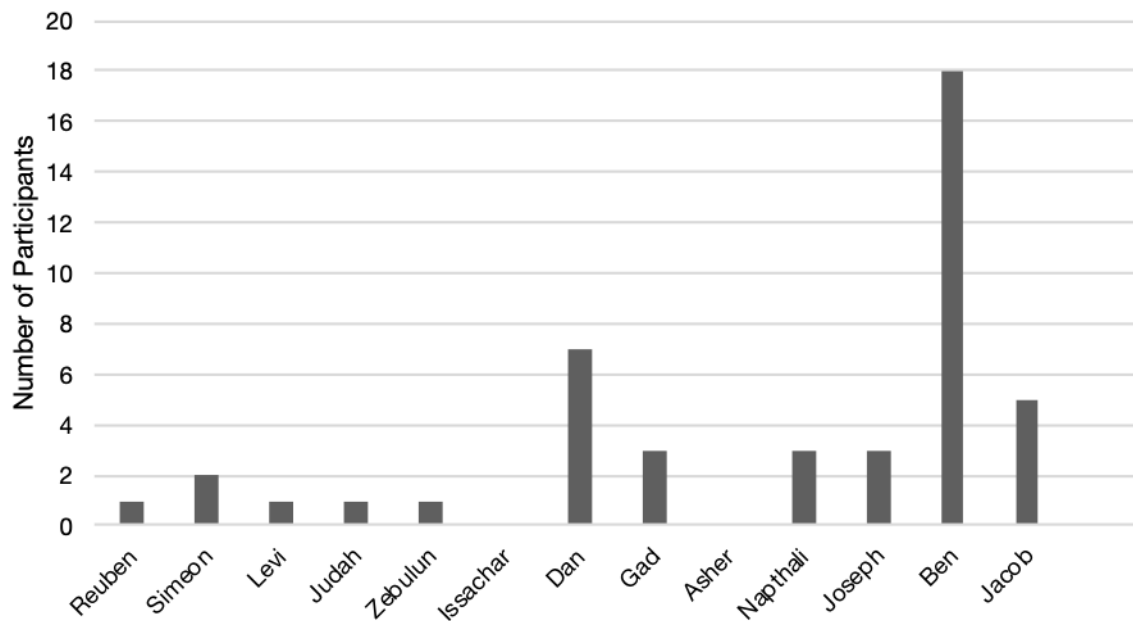
410 An additional consideration is the lion, which is appraised in folklore as the king of the beasts, and in
411 the Christian tradition, as a symbol of the resurrected Christ. Drawing on the medieval bestiary, which
412 avers that whelps are born dead but are after three days restored to life, the lion is a popular symbol
413 of liminality, positioned often at entrances and on doorknockers. Tamed, in this instance, by Judah's
414 authority, its presence intimates that the devout should bow before him, a factor translated
415 unconsciously into appraisals of financial worth.

416 The associations implicit in *Judah's* psychological impact are, however, traditional rather than
417 contemporary, and since they are not reflected by the prices paid at auction, it becomes necessary to
418 consider other factors. A significant consideration concerns whether participants were influenced by
419 the fact that *Judah* is the only painting to depict a figure facing forward while making eye contact.
420 Psychological research shows that direct gaze, even when depicted by a static photograph, is
421 associated with better memory for the face of the person with whom the mutual gaze was shared
422 (Mason et al., 2004). It also enhances the perception of emotions such as anger and joy (Adams &
423 Kleck, 2005) while increasing the ability of viewers to self-report their physiological responses to a
424 face accurately (Baltazar et al., 2014). These studies are consistent with the assumption that *Judah*
425 elicited a unique psychological response from observers, which may have translated into an
426 impression that it was of greater value.

427

428 *Detecting the Copy*

429 Since Bishop Trevor was outbid at auction, *Benjamin* is a copy by Arthur Pond. Basic attribution data
430 given to the three groups identified the painting as a copy. We wanted to test whether participants
431 could retain this information and identify the correct painting.

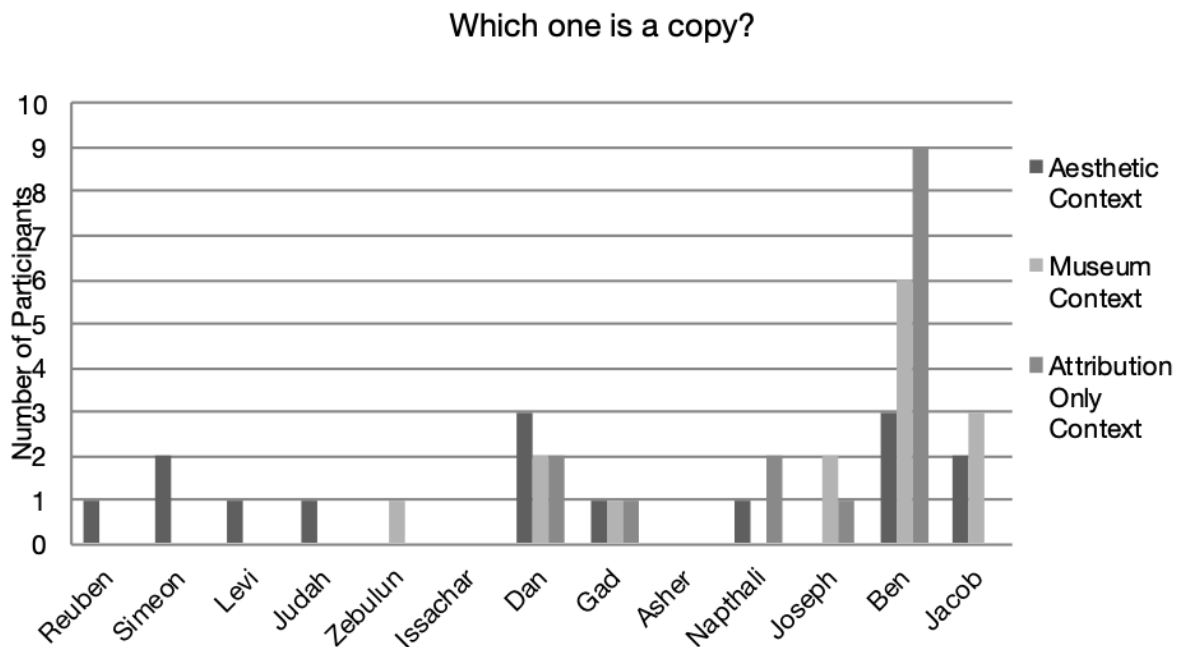


432

433 *Fig. 14: Graph showing which artwork participants considered to be a copy*

434 A global tabulation of results is surprising (fig. 14). Only 40% of respondents correctly identified
 435 *Benjamin* as a copy. Ten other paintings were identified as inauthentic, with only *Issachar* and *Asher*
 436 regarded as genuine. More surprisingly, AC group participants were largely unsuccessful at detecting
 437 the copy, despite the relevant information forming a crucial part of the accompanying interpretation
 438 (fig. 15). Participants in the AOC group fared considerably better, which may be attributable to the
 439 fact that working memory is limited to around 7 items, if participants are actively attempting to
 440 rehearse them (Miller, no date). This capacity is considerably reduced if participants simultaneously
 441 perform another task (for example see Baddeley, Thomson, & Buchanan 1975). In our study,
 442 contextual information exceeded the capacity of short-term memory in both the MC and AC groups,
 443 leading to forgetfulness and loss of information. However, in the AOC group there were only 5 pieces
 444 of information to retain, which is within the normal capacity of short-term memory. In this case,
 445 participants would have been more likely to encode the *Benjamin* attribution to Arthur Pond and recall
 446 the painting as inauthentic. Thus, the apparently paradoxical finding that participants given less
 447 information were more successful at advancing judgements of authenticity may be explained by a
 448 failure of short-term memory. Participants in the MC and AC groups may have been more likely to

449 forget attribution data when confronted by the demands of processing complex contextualizing
450 information.



451

452 Fig.15: Context group breakdown of which artwork the participants considered to be a copy

453

454 **Summary and Conclusions**

455 Previous studies of museum/gallery visitor behaviour have primarily investigated how people respond
456 behaviourally and cognitively to the design and layout of exhibits. However, they largely ignore the
457 behavioural responses at the 'exhibit-face' (vom Lehn & Heath, 2006) or the 'fat moment'² (Garfinkel,
458 1967) of visitors' action. However, this paper has shown that the use of eye-tracking techniques can
459 provide unprecedented insights into the unconscious viewing processes of the 'fat moment' of the
460 unique collection of Zurbarán paintings. The use of quantitative data from fixations advances scholarly
461 understanding of the process of viewing art. It provides a more robust picture of the process of viewing

² This is the moment when a visitor establishes an experience of an exhibit.

462 artworks, based on details of eye movement, than has previously been possible using self-reported
463 qualitative data, or observational studies.

464 For example, this study demonstrates that, due to the limits of working memory, users may struggle
465 to retain information about artworks, for example about value or authenticity, if provided with too
466 much detail. The impact of such a finding on gallery practice could be significant in terms of the volume
467 of contextual information that should be provided to visitors and the importance of repeating
468 information that users may require adequately to appreciate the artworks.

469 It also highlights statistically significant variations in levels of aesthetic appreciation, showing that
470 written interpretation can redirect the gaze towards areas of conceptual significance and away from
471 faces, thus challenging the assumption that face-bias traditionally plays a fundamental role in
472 aesthetic judgement. The consequences of this for aesthetic pleasure are, however, not
473 straightforward. Following the literature on studies of aesthetic appreciation of physical artworks, our
474 initial hypothesis was that users might find it interesting and therefore pleasant to be directed to look
475 at a wider range of features of the paintings. Yet the opposite proved true: they enjoyed the
476 experience less, if directed away from faces. Judgements of increased value were also negatively
477 correlated with pleasure.

478 Such findings represent a significant advance in our understanding of user behaviour when viewing
479 digital surrogates of physical objects or spaces and how this gives rise to emotional responses, an area
480 which is, as yet poorly understood. Recent studies suggest that different brain regions are activated
481 when, for example reading or writing in physical, as opposed to digital settings (Mangen & Velay, 2010;
482 Mangen, Walgermo, & Brønnick, 2013; Mueller & Oppenheimer, 2014). Users also appear to report
483 less emotional involvement with, or pleasure in, the use of digital surrogates and only experience
484 wonder or excitement when visiting physical cultural heritage sites (Cameron, 2007; Varnalis-Weigle,
485 2016). Our study found that in digital settings as opposed to physical ones, greater cognitive mastery

486 is not correlated with pleasure. This would, initially, appear to be consistent with this phenomenon.
487 However, the implications of our findings are more complex.

488 We are not aware of any previous studies that link identifiable features of digital surrogates to
489 aesthetic pleasure or enjoyment. However, our study shows that, if directed away from the face, a
490 viewer's pleasure in the digital work decreases. Thus, by implication, viewing a face in a digital image
491 *does* give rise to aesthetic pleasure. It becomes possible in this respect to identify a feature of a digital
492 surrogate that is correlated to pleasure. This is an entirely innovative finding, and one that must be
493 tested in further studies. We plan to do so by using digital images of still lives, landscapes, or images
494 containing animal faces, and to use mobile eye trackers to investigate emotional responses to art in
495 physical gallery settings in the next phase of our research. Nevertheless, for the first time, this study
496 has provided quantitative evidence of a feature of a digital surrogate that can be shown to give rise to
497 a positive emotional response, a topic about which no previous evidence exists. Our findings therefore
498 make an important new contribution to the scholarly understanding of how audiences view,
499 appreciate, and understand artworks, and to museum and heritage practices relevant to the display
500 of art.

501

502

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