1	
2	
3	
4	
5	Taste Sensitivity Predicts Political Ideology
6	
7	
8	
9 10	Authors:
11	
12	Benjamin C. Ruisch,* Department of Psychology, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14850, USA.
13	
14	Rajen A. Anderson, Department of Psychology, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14850, USA.
15	
16 17	Yoel Inbar, Department of Psychology, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON MIC IA4 Canada
1/ 10	David A Dirarma Department of Develology Cornell University Ithese NV 14950 USA
18 10	David A. Pizarro, Department of Psychology, Cornen University, Imaca, NY 14650, USA.
19 20	*Correspondence to: bcr44@corpell edu
20	conception denote to: <u>bert+e contentedu</u>
22	Abstract:
23	
24	Previous research has shown that political attitudes are highly heritable, but the proximal
25	physiological mechanisms that shape ideology remain largely unknown. Based on work
26	suggesting possible ideological differences in genes related to low level sensory processing we

suggesting possible ideological differences in genes related to low-level sensory processing, we
predicted that taste (i.e., gustatory) sensitivity would be associated with political ideology. In 4

studies (combined N = 1,610) we test this hypothesis and find robust support for this association.

In Studies 1-3, we find that sensitivity to the chemicals PROP and PTC – two well established

30 measures of taste sensitivity – are associated with greater political conservatism. In Study 4, we

31 find that fungiform papilla density, a proxy for taste bud density, also predicts greater

- 32 conservatism, and that this relationship is partially mediated by disgust sensitivity. This work
- 33 suggests that low-level physiological differences in sensory processing may shape an
- 34 individual's political attitudes.
- 35
- 36
- 37
- 38

Genetics play a significant role in determining a person's political orientation (1-2) – by 39 some estimates explaining 30-60% of the variance in political liberalism/conservatism (2). 40 However, the proximal mechanisms by which genetic differences are translated into political 41 attitudes and behaviors remain largely unknown. One intriguing possibility is that some of the 42 heritability of ideology may be due to genetic influences on low-level physiological mechanisms. 43 Parts of the genome related to gustation (taste) and olfaction (smell) systematically differ 44 between liberals and conservatives (3), suggesting that individual differences in sensory 45 processing might play a role in shaping political ideology. Two additional lines of research 46 converge to suggest possible associations between sensation – particularly taste – and political 47 ideology. First, individual differences in taste sensitivity are related to sensitivity to disgust (4), 48 an emotion focused in part on oral incorporation (5). Second, there is a robust association 49 between disgust sensitivity and political ideology, such that people who are more disgust 50 sensitive are more likely to hold conservative positions on certain political issues – particularly 51 those related to traditional sexuality (e.g., gay marriage, abortion; 6, 7). 52

This research led us to hypothesize that physiological differences in taste sensitivity would be associated with differences in political ideology, and that this association would be mediated by sensitivity to disgust. We tested these hypotheses in four studies (total N = 1,610) that assessed taste sensitivity using commercially available chemical test strips (Studies 1-3) as well as tongue fungiform papilla density (Study 4). All materials, data, syntax, and preregistration documentation are available at https://osf.io/fv436/.

In Study 1, we provided an initial test of the association between taste sensitivity and political conservatism. To do so, we assessed participants' level of taste sensitivity using a widely used measure of taste sensitivity: taste strips containing the chemical compound 6-npropyluracil (PROP, 8). PROP is a chemical that – depending on a person's genetically determined level of taste sensitivity – can be extremely bitter, completely tasteless, or anywhere in between (8, 9). Because sensitivity to PROP is associated with general taste sensitivity, it is an efficient method of assessing a person's overall level of taste sensitivity (8).

Participants (N = 320) from a large introductory psychology course at Cornell University 66 were asked to place a PROP taste strip on their tongues for 30 seconds, and to rate the bitterness 67 of the strip on two 100-point quasi-logarithmic scales (10), which asked participants to compare 68 the taste sensation from the taste strips to other sensory experiences (the first scale asked about 69 auditory sensations, and the second about sensation more generally; see SI). These scales have 70 71 previously been shown to accurately identify between-subjects differences in taste sensitivity (10). Participants were also asked to indicate their general political orientation and their social 72 and cultural liberalism/conservatism on 7-point Likert-type scales ranging from "extremely 73 liberal" to "extremely conservative." 74

As predicted, participants reporting greater bitterness from the taste strip (i.e., those with higher taste sensitivity) self-identified as more politically conservative, both on the general political orientation measure ($\beta = .14$, t(318) = 2.46, p = .01), as well as on the measure of social and cultural conservatism ($\beta = .15$, t(318) = 2.73, p = .007). These results provided initial support for the hypothesized association between taste sensitivity and political ideology.

80 We next conducted a preregistered conceptual replication of this study, using a different 81 measure of taste sensitivity and a more diverse sample of participants (N = 400) collected from a 82 student and community center on Cornell University's campus. In this study, we asked 83 participants to rate the bitterness of taste strips containing the chemical compound

84 phenylthiocarbamide (PTC), another widely used index of general taste sensitivity (8). After

tasting the test strip, participants rated the intensity of the flavor that they experienced using the
same general intensity scale from Study 1. Participants then reported their political orientation
using the same scales from Study 1. Additionally, because both age and sex have previously
been shown to relate to taste sensitivity (8, 11), we asked participants to provide this information
in order to test whether these factors explained the observed association between taste sensitivity
and political conservatism.

Replicating the results of Study 1, we found that greater taste sensitivity – this time as 91 indicated by the intensity of bitterness experienced from the PTC strip - was associated with 92 greater general political conservatism ($\beta = .19$, t(396) = 3.80, p < .001) and greater social and 93 cultural conservatism ($\beta = .19$, t(396) = 3.80, p < .001). This association remained significant 94 (and in fact became slightly stronger) when controlling for participants' age and sex (general 95 conservatism: $\beta = .21$, t(390) = 4.16, p < .001; social/cultural conservatism: $\beta = .21$, t(390) =96 4.18, p < .001), providing further evidence of an association between taste sensitivity and 97 political conservatism. 98

In Study 3, we sought to extend these findings by moving to an issue-based measure of 99 political conservatism, in which we asked participants to indicate their attitudes on 12 political 100 issues, such as abortion, welfare, and restricting immigration (adapted from 12). We included 101 this scale in order to determine whether taste sensitivity is associated with individuals' positions 102 on specific political issues (and if so, which ones), or whether this association held only for 103 104 overall ideological self-identification. Based on previous research on disgust sensitivity and political ideology (6, 7), we predicted that taste sensitivity would be most closely correlated with 105 political issues related to traditional sexuality (e.g., LGBT rights, pornography, abortion). For 106 this study, we also collected a more demographically and ideologically diverse sample (N = 406) 107 recruited from two nearby shopping malls. Participants were given a PROP test strip and were 108 asked to rate the intensity of the bitterness on the same general sensation scale used in Studies 1 109 and 2. They then answered questions about their political attitudes, age, and sex. 110

In this study, the association between taste sensitivity and self-reported political 111 conservatism failed to reach statistical significance, although it was directionally consistent with 112 our previous studies, with greater taste sensitivity being associated with greater political 113 conservatism ($\beta = .07, t(399) = 1.45, p = .15$; social conservatism: $\beta = .06, t(395) = 1.19, p = 1.19$ 114 .23).* Additionally, we found that taste sensitivity significantly predicted greater conservatism on 115 the issue-based ideology scale ($\beta = .11, t(390) = 2.27, p = .02$). Interestingly, contrary to our 116 117 predictions, this relationship was weaker for issues related to traditional sexuality ($\beta = .04$, t(390)) = .70, p = .48), and was stronger for other political issues (e.g., those related to immigration, gun 118 ownership, and welfare benefits; $\beta = .15$, t(390) = 3.05, p = .002). 119

120 A meta-analysis of these studies (described below) revealed that although the association 121 between taste sensitivity and self-reported ideology failed to reach statistical significance in this 122 study, the size of this effect did not significantly differ from those obtained in our other studies 123 (test of heterogeneity of effect sizes: Q(7) = 8.0, p = 0.33; test of moderation: Q(1) = 3.31, p =124 0.07). This suggests that the somewhat smaller effect size observed in this study is likely due to 125 random variation between samples (13), rather than to a meaningful difference between these

126 studies. (Although it is common in the scientific literature to include only significant results (14),

^{*} When controlling for age and gender, the association between taste sensitivity and issue-based conservatism remained statistically significant ($\beta = .16$, t(379) = 3.15, p = .002), the association with general political conservatism became significant ($\beta = .11$, t(390) = 2.23, p = .03), and the association with social/cultural conservatism became marginally significant ($\beta = .1$, t(386) = 1.91, p = .057).

we nonetheless report this study here in order to increase transparency in our research (13) and to
provide a more accurate estimate of the true size of this effect (15)). Further, the significant
association that we observed in this study between taste sensitivity and our issue-based measure
of political ideology provides additional convergent evidence for our hypothesis that taste
sensitivity is related to political conservatism.

Taken together, Studies 1-3 provided support for the hypothesized association between 132 taste sensitivity and political orientation using the most established methods of measuring taste 133 sensitivity, assessing participants' taste perceptions of the compounds PROP and PTC. Next, we 134 sought to assess taste sensitivity with a more objective measure that did not rely on participants' 135 self-reported taste experiences. To do so, in this study we used a direct physiological measure of 136 taste sensitivity. Additionally, we included a measure of disgust sensitivity in order to assess 137 whether disgust sensitivity mediated the relationship between taste sensitivity and political 138 orientation. Finally, we included a wider range of demographic questions (e.g., race/ethnicity, 139 income) to rule out the possibility that these factors might account for the observed association. 140

In this study, we measured taste sensitivity by assessing the density of fungiform papillae on participants' tongues. Fungiform papillae are small mushroom-shaped structures on the surface of the tongue that are the primary location of taste receptors (16). Greater fungiform papilla density indicates greater taste receptor density and higher taste sensitivity (16, 17). Importantly, because fungiform papillae can be directly observed, they provide a more objective means of assessing of taste sensitivity (16-18).

Participants (N = 484) were recruited from a student and community center on Cornell 147 University's campus, and consisted of students, faculty, staff, and community members of 148 diverse demographic backgrounds. In order to assess fungiform papilla density, we used a well-149 established staining procedure (18) in which participants' tongues are dyed with blue food 150 coloring (which allows fungiform papilla density to be more easily observed) and photographed 151 with a high-resolution camera. Participants then completed a set of demographic questions, a 152 measure of disgust sensitivity (19, 20), and the two items assessing political orientation used in 153 the previous studies. Trained research assistants provided three separate assessments of papilla 154 density from the photographs. These assessments were highly reliable (ICC(2,3) = .87), and were 155 therefore averaged into a single index of papilla density. 156

As predicted, we found that greater taste sensitivity – this time as measured by higher 157 fungiform papilla density – predicted greater social/cultural conservatism ($\beta = .15$, t(473) = 3.35, 158 159 p < .001), and marginally predicted greater general political conservatism ($\beta = .08$, t(473) = 1.8, p = .07). These patterns did not meaningfully change when controlling for demographic factors 160 such as age, gender, and race/ethnicity (social/cultural conservatism: $\beta = .14$, t(458) = 3.04, p =161 .003; general conservatism: $\beta = .08$, t(458) = 1.80, p = .07). As predicted, we also found that 162 disgust sensitivity significantly mediated the relationship between papilla density and social 163 conservatism (10,000 bootstrapped samples, indirect effect 95% CI[.02,.07]), suggesting that this 164 165 relationship is at least partially explained by the association between taste sensitivity and disgust sensitivity. 166

Following recent best-practices recommendations (13, 21), we conducted an internal, "within-paper" meta-analysis to determine the average effect size of the taste sensitivityconservatism relationship. We used a random-effects model to better extrapolate these effects beyond the current studies and to the general population (22). Because we had a nested structure, with measures of both general and social conservatism collected from the same participants, we fit a multi-level meta-analysis model (see 23), specifying nested random effects for study and

- 173 measure type (general vs. social conservatism). The average effect size across these studies was
- $\beta = .13$ (se = .026, z = 4.87, p = .000001, Fig. 1), and the 95% confidence interval for the true
- effect size was $\beta = .08$ -.18. We also computed separate average effect sizes for general
- 176 conservatism and social conservatism. Both analyses yielded similar estimates (general
- 177 conservatism: $\beta = .12$ (se = .029, z = 4.12, p < .0001, 95% CI[.06, .18]); social conservatism: $\beta = .12$
- 178 .14 (se = .028, z = 5.01, p < .0001, 95% CI[.08, .19])). Cochran's Q-test was not significant (p = 22) suggesting that our effect circle super relative here.
- 179 .33), suggesting that our effect sizes were relatively homogenous.



180 181

Fig. 1 | Forest plot illustrating the relationship between taste sensitivity and both general and social conservatism, Studies 1-4.

184

Across four studies using diverse methodologies, we found consistent evidence for an association between taste sensitivity and political orientation, such that individuals higher in taste sensitivity were more politically conservative than those lower in taste sensitivity (Figs. 1 & 2). We also found evidence (Study 4) that this association is at least partially explained by the link between heightened taste sensitivity and heightened sensitivity to disgust.

Although the participant samples in these studies were localized to a relatively small geographic area, they were nonetheless diverse in their relevant demographic characteristics

(e.g., spanning an age range of 73 years and with up to 49% of the sample identifying as non-192

- White (Study 4)). The observed relationship between taste sensitivity and political conservatism 193
- was not reliably moderated by age, gender, or race/ethnicity, indicating that the taste-ideology 194
- link emerges to an equal degree across these major demographic subgroups. These findings, as 195 well as the fact that both the taste-disgust and disgust-conservatism links have been observed by
- 196 other research groups (e.g., 4, 24, 25), have strong theoretical support (5, 26, 27), and (in the case 197
- of the disgust-conservatism association) have been observed across different cultures (25, 28), 198
- lead us to conclude that the observed association between taste sensitivity and ideology is likely 199
- to generalize beyond the samples examined here. However, future research should seek to 200
- establish the breadth of this effect and to further examine the psychological mechanism(s) that 201 202 underlie it.

Although the correlational nature of these data does not allow us to speak to the causal 203 direction of this relationship, given that both PTC/PROP sensitivity and fungiform papilla 204 density are largely genetically determined (9, 29), this research suggests that individual 205 differences in taste sensitivity may serve as a biological predisposition that can lead an individual 206

towards adopting one political ideology over another. More broadly, this work constitutes, to our 207

- knowledge, the first evidence of an association between low-level physiological differences in 208
- sensory sensitivity and complex attitudinal and belief systems, and suggests a possible biological 209
- mechanism that may underlie the high heritability of ideological beliefs documented in previous 210 research.
- 211
- 212
- 213 214

215 Methods

216

217 A description of the procedure for each study is below. The online supplementary information

contains a full list of all measures. All of our studies were approved by Cornell University's

institutional review board, and all subjects provided informed consent. Data were analyzed with
 R 3.5.1 and SPSS 20.0.

221

Study 1: At the end of the class period, the instructor of the course briefly explained the content 222 of the study to students ($N \sim 600$). They were asked to remain in their seats if they wished to 223 participate, and were told that they were free to leave if they did not wish to take part. Research 224 assistants distributed survey packets and taste strips to all students who remained in their seats. 225 Students were told that if they did not wish to take part after receiving the survey packet, they 226 could simply dispose of the materials. After completing the survey, students deposited the survey 227 packets into designated containers on their way out of the class. The correlation between our two 228 taste sensitivity scales was high (r = .83), so we averaged them into a single index of taste 229 sensitivity. 230

231

Study 2: Research assistants set up a table in a student and community center on campus and 232 invited passersby to participate in the study in exchange for a piece of chocolate. After tasting 233 the test strip – but before rating its intensity – participants were first asked to rate the flavor of 234 the strip, with the following response options: no flavor, bitter, salty, sour, or sweet (this question 235 was not included in Study 1). Past research has shown that people typically experience the flavor 236 of PTC to be bitter (8). However, because other work has shown that people often are unable to 237 distinguish between bitter and sour flavors (30), we accepted responses of "sour" as well. All 238 other responses (no flavor, sweet, and salty) were interpreted as indicating a lack of ability to 239 taste PTC, and were coded as "0" for the intensity measure, as specified in our preregistered 240 analysis plan. 241

After indicating the flavor that they experienced from the test strip, participants rated the intensity of that flavor. In addition to the questions about political orientation, age, and gender, participants also answered several questions regarding their food preferences. As specified in the preregistration documentation, however, the results of these questions were not analyzed in relation to the current research question.

247

248 Study 3: Research assistants set up a table at two shopping malls in the northeastern United States and invited passersby to participate in the study in exchange for a piece of chocolate. As in 249 Study 2, participants rated the flavor of the strip before rating its intensity. As before, we coded 250 responses of "no flavor," "salty," and "sweet" as "0" for the intensity measure. The content and 251 format of the issue-based ideology scale was adapted from Everett, 2013 (12). However, we 252 replaced some of the specific issues in order to include a wider range of issues relating to 253 254 (non)traditional sexuality. For each of the 12 issues, participants rated the degree to which they felt positively or negatively towards the topic, on an 11-point Likert-type scale ranging from "-5 255 Extremely Negative" to "+5 Extremely Positive," with the midpoint rated "0 Neutral." The 256 issues designated as relating to traditional sexuality were: the family unit, traditional marriage, 257 LGBT rights (reverse-scored), abortion rights (reverse-scored), and pornography (reverse-258 scored). The issues designated as non-sexuality-relevant were: lowering corporate taxes, 259

reducing immigration, gun ownership, limited government, religion, traditional values, andwelfare benefits (reverse-scored).

262

Study 4: Research assistants set up a table in a student and community center on campus and 263 invited passersby to participate in the study in exchange for a piece of chocolate. Participants 264 were first provided a vial of blue food coloring and a cotton swab with which they dyed the 265 anterior (i.e., front) portion of their tongues. Participants were then given a round plastic hole 266 reinforcement label (1/4" diameter) and were instructed to place the ring near the tip of their 267 tongue, just to the left of center (see 18 for detail). A research assistant then photographed each 268 participant's tongue using a high-resolution camera. Fungiform papilla density (defined as the 269 number of papillae within the area demarcated by the white plastic ring; 31) was later assessed 270 by trained research assistants. 271

After the papilla assessment procedure, participants tasted a Life Savers Pep-O-Mint® 272 and rated the degree of sweetness and the "cooling rush" that they experienced from the mint (an 273 exploratory taste sensitivity measure). Participants then completed the short-form, 5-item 274 contamination subscale of the revised Disgust Scale (DS-R; 19, 20), which served as our 275 measure of disgust sensitivity. Additionally, participants completed the 6-item Traditionalism 276 subscale of the Authoritarianism-Conservatism-Traditionalism Scale (32) and answered 277 questions assessing their political orientation, age, gender, ethnicity, economic political 278 279 orientation, political party identification, political engagement, political news watching frequency, income, religion, religiosity, and place of birth. 280

281

Sample: In order to conduct a more conservative test of our hypotheses, we did not exclude any
 participants from our analyses. However, there were some participants who did not provide
 complete data for our independent and dependent variables, and who therefore could not be
 included in analyses.

Although we sought only to recruit participants aged 18 or older, a number of participants under 18 also participated in the study (3% of the total sample, N = 53). Because we had permission from the Cornell Institutional Review Board to recruit participants under 18, we include the data from these participants in our analyses. However, our results do not meaningfully change if these participants are excluded from analyses.

291

292 Statistical Analysis: We used linear regression to test our primary hypothesis that taste sensitivity would be associated with greater general and social political conservatism. For all analyses, we 293 entered taste sensitivity as the independent variable and political conservatism as the dependent 294 variable.[†] We considered our hypothesis to be supported if the relationship was positive (such 295 that greater taste sensitivity was associated with greater political conservatism) and significant at 296 p < .05. To test whether disgust sensitivity mediated the relationship between papilla density and 297 social conservatism (Study 4), we used Andrew Hayes' PROCESS Macro for SPSS (33). The 298 95% confidence interval of the indirect effect did not include 0, indicating significant mediation. 299 300

- 301
- 302

[†] In a few instances, participants wrote in a value for their political orientation that was not explicitly listed on the scale (e.g., writing in "2.5" on the political orientation scale). We used the exact number provided by participants in our analyses. However, our results do not meaningfully change if these participants are excluded from analyses.



References:

326	1. Funk, C. L., Smith, K. B., Alford, J. R., Hibbing, M. V., Eaton. N. R., et al. Genetic and
327	environmental transmission of political orientations. Polit. Psychol. 34, 805-819 (2013).
328	2. Hatemi, P. K., Medland, S. E., Klemmensen, R., Oskarsson, S., Littvay, L., et al. Genetic
329	influences on political ideologies: Twin analyses of 19 measures of political ideologies
330	from five democracies and genome-wide findings from three populations. Behav. Genet.
331	44 , 282-294 (2014).
332	3. Hatemi, P. K., Gillespie, N. A., Eaves, L. J., Maher, B. S., Webb, B. T., et al. A genome-wide
333	analysis of liberal and conservative political attitudes. J. Polit. 73, 271-285 (2011).
334	4. Herz, R. S. PROP taste sensitivity is related to visceral but not moral disgust. Chemosens.
335	Percept. 4, 72-79 (2011).
336	5. Rozin, P., Millman, L. & Nemeroff, C. Operation of the laws of sympathetic magic in disgust
337	and other domains. J. Pers. Soc. Psychol. 50, 703-712 (1986).
338	6. Inbar, Y., Pizarro, D.A. & Bloom, P. Conservatives are more easily disgusted than liberals.
339	Cognition Emotion 23, 714-725 (2009).
340	7. Smith, K. B., Oxley, D., Hibbing, M. V., Alford, J. R. & Hibbing, J. R. Disgust sensitivity and
341	the neurophysiology of left-right political orientations. <i>PloS one</i> 6 , e25552 (2011).
342	8. Bartoshuk, L. M., Duffy, V. B. & Miller, I. J. PTC/PROP tasting: anatomy, psychophysics,
343	and sex effects. Physiol. Behav. 56, 1165-1171 (1994).
344	9. Barbarossa I. T., Melis, M., Mattes, M. Z., Calò, C., Muroni, P., et al. The gustin (CA6) gene
345	polymorphism, rs2274333 (A/G), is associated with fungiform papilla density, whereas
346	PROP bitterness is mostly due to TAS2R38 in an ethnically-mixed population. <i>Physiol</i> .
347	<i>Behav.</i> 138 , 6-12 (2015).

348	10. Bartoshuk, L. M., Duffy, V. B., Fast, K., Green, B. G., Prutkin, J. & Snyder, D. J. Labeled
349	scales (eg, category, Likert, VAS) and invalid across-group comparisons: what we have
350	learned from genetic variation in taste. Food Quality and Preference 14, 125-138 (2003).
351	11. Mojet, J., Christ-Hazelhof, E. & Heidema, J. Taste perception with age: generic or specific
352	losses in threshold sensitivity to the five basic tastes?. Chem. Senses 26, 845-860 (2001).
353	12. Everett, J. A. The 12 item social and economic conservatism scale (SECS). PLoS One 8,
354	e82131 (2013).
355	13. Lakens, D. & Etz, A. J. Too true to be bad: When sets of studies with significant and
356	nonsignificant findings are probably true. Soc. Psychol. Pers. Sci., 8, 875-881 (2017).
357	14. Fanelli, D. "Positive" results increase down the hierarchy of the sciences. PLoS One, 5,
358	e10068 (2010).
359	15. Braver, S. L., Thoemmes, F. J. & Rosenthal, R. Continuously cumulating meta-analysis and
360	replicability. Perspectives Psychol. Sci., 9, 333-342 (2014).
361	16. Miller Jr., I. J. Variation in human fungiform taste bud densities among regions and subjects.
362	Anat. Rec. 216, 474-482 (1986).
363	17. Zuniga, J. R., Davis, S. H., Englehardt, R. A., Miller Jr, I. J., Schiffrman, S. S., et al. Taste
364	performance on the anterior human tongue varies with fungiform taste bud density. Chem.
365	Senses 18, 449-460 (1993).
366	18. Shahbake, M., Hutchinson, I., Laing, D. G. & Jinks, A. L. Rapid quantitative assessment of
367	fungiform papillae density in the human tongue. Brain Res. 1052, 196-201 (2005).
368	19. Haidt, J., McCauley, C. & Rozin, P. Individual differences in sensitivity to disgust: A scale
369	sampling seven domains of disgust elicitors. Pers. Indiv. Differ. 16, 701-713 (1994).

- 20. Olatunji, B. O., Williams, N. L., Tolin, D. F., Sawchuck, C. N., Abramowitz, J. S. & Lohr, J.
- 371 M. The disgust scale: Item analysis, factor structure, and suggestions for refinement.

372 *Psychol. Assessment* **19**, 281-297 (2007).

- 21. McShane, B. B. & Böckenholt, U. Single-paper meta-analysis: Benefits for study summary,
- theory testing, and replicability. J. Consum. Res. 43, 1048-1063 (2017).
- 22. Hedges, L. V. & Vevea, J. L. Fixed-and random-effects models in meta-analysis. *Psychol. Meth.* 3, 486-504 (1998).
- 377 23. Konstantopoulos, S. Fixed effects and variance components estimation in three-level meta378 analysis. *Res. Synth. Meth.* 2, 61-76 (2011).
- 379 24. Herz, R. S. Verbal priming and taste sensitivity make moral transgressions gross. *Behav.* 380 *Neuro.*, **128**, 20 (2014).
- 25. Terrizzi Jr, J. A., Shook, N. J. & McDaniel, M. A. The behavioral immune system and social
 conservatism: A meta-analysis. *Evol. Human Behav.*, 34, 99-108 (2013).
- 26. Oaten, M., Stevenson, R. J. & Case, T. I. Disgust as a disease-avoidance
- 384 mechanism. *Psychol. Bull.*, **135**, 303 (2009).
- 27. Tybur, J. M., Inbar, Y., Güler, E. & Molho, C. Is the relationship between pathogen

avoidance and ideological conservatism explained by sexual strategies?. *Evol. Hum.*

- *Behav.*, **36**, 489-497 (2015).
- 28. Aarøe, L., Petersen, M. B. & Arceneaux, K. The behavioral immune system shapes political
- intuitions: Why and how individual differences in disgust sensitivity underlie opposition to
- immigration. Amer. Pol. Sci. Rev., **111**, 277-294 (2017).

391	29. Melis, M., Atzori, E., Cabras, S., Zonza, A., Calò, C. et al. The gustin (CA6) gene
392	polymorphism, rs2274333 (A/G), as a mechanistic link between PROP tasting and
393	fungiform taste papilla density and maintenance. PloS one 8, e74151 (2013).
394	30. Robinson J. O. The misuse of taste names by untrained observers. Brit. J. Psychol. 61, 375-
395	378 (1970).
396	31. Nuessle, T. M., Garneau, N. L., Sloan, M. M. & Santorico, S. A. Denver papillae protocol for
397	objective analysis of fungiform papillae. JOVE-J. Vis. Exp. 100 (2015).
398	32. Duckitt, J., Bizumic, B., Krauss, S. W. & Heled, E. A tripartite approach to right-wing
399	authoritarianism: The authoritarianism-conservatism-traditionalism model. Polit. Psychol.
400	31 , 685-715 (2010).
401	33. Hayes, H. A. PROCESS: A versatile computational tool for observed variable mediation,
402	moderation, and conditional process modeling [white paper] (2012). Retrieved from
403	http://www.afhayes.com/ public/process2012.pdf
404	
405	
400	Acknowledgements: This research was supported by an NSF Graduate Research Fellowship
408	(#1144153) to the first author.
409	
410	Competing interests: The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
/11	
412	
413	
414	
415	
416	
417	