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Supplemental Materials

Several effects in the present data surprised us. First, Black criminals were perceived as more trustworthy than White criminals in Study 1 (both in the main stimuli and in the additional control stimuli described in Footnote 1: [M_{Black} = 3.31, SD = .52, M_{White} = 2.93, SD = .50; $t(740) = 9.81$, $p < .001$, 95% CI of difference = .30, .45]). Previous research and lay stereotypes would anticipate the reverse effect (e.g., Devine, 1989; Stanley, Sokol-Hessner, Banaji, & Phelps, 2011). Although this incidental finding is orthogonal to the present research and its goals, we thought it important to explore further so as to determine whether the stimuli used in Study 1 might be confounded by an unknown external variable.

First, we collected another set of trustworthiness ratings of all 742 targets wherein participants saw only either White or Black targets. These ratings replicated the effects reported in the text. Furthermore, Black targets (M = 3.34, SD = 0.53) were again rated as more trustworthy than White targets (M = 2.92, SD = 0.50), $t(740) = 10.80$, $p < .01$, 95% CI of difference [.34, .49]. Thus, the differences between White and Black targets do not seem to be due to a contrast effect or potential demand characteristics whereby participants rated Black men as more trustworthy to avoid appearing prejudiced.

Next, we assessed how race impacts trustworthiness judgments using two other stimulus sets. To account for the criminal context in which the photos were taken, we first compared mugshot and non-mugshot photos of Black celebrities to similar pairs of White photos used by Rule, Krendl, Ivcevic, and Ambady (2013). Black targets (M = 4.23, SD = 1.17) were again rated as more trustworthy than White targets (M = 3.94, SD = 1.00), $F(1,78) = 14.36$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_{partial} = .16$. This difference was larger for non-mugshots, $F_{Interaction}(1,78) = 4.91$, $p = .03$, $\eta^2_{partial} = .06$. Second, we compared trustworthiness ratings of the 73 male faces (37 Black, 36 White) from the

Chicago Face Database (Ma, Correll, & Wittenbrink, 2014). Black targets (M = 3.54, SD = 0.36) were rated as more trustworthy than White targets (M = 3.28, SD = 0.34) in the norming data provided with the database, $t(71) = 3.24$, $p = .002$, 95% CI of difference [0.10, 0.43]. Thus, even photos outside of a criminal context collected by an independent group of researchers sampling different participants showed the same counterintuitive finding that Black men are sometimes perceived as more trustworthy than White men. This surprising difference is interesting and merits future research. More important, these additional investigations help to assure that the stimuli in Study 1 are not unrepresentative or unique to the context of criminal photos.

Another surprise was that our data did not show consistent significant effects of Afrocentricity on sentencing. Previous work reported that Afrocentricity positively predicted sentence length in the Florida prison system regardless of race (Blair, Judd, & Chapleau, 2004) and that Black convicts' phenotypic stereotypicality predicted death sentences in Pennsylvania (Eberhardt, Davies, Purdie-Vaughns, & Johnson, 2006). Here, Afrocentricity (which we consider synonymous with race-phenotypic stereotypicality in Blacks) *negatively* predicted the death sentence in Study 1, B = -.15, SE = .08, p =.04, odds ratio = 0.86, 95% CI for odds ratio [0.74, 0.99]. In Study 2, Afrocentricity did not significantly predict sentencing, B = .07, SE = .31, $p >$ .8, odds ratio = 1.07, 95% CI for odds ratio [0.59, 1.95].

One explanation may be that our targets differed in important ways from those used in previous studies. Eberhardt et al. (2006) did not report mean levels of Afrocentricity/stereotypicality. However, targets in the current Study 2 were more polarized in Afrocentricity than those reported by Blair et al. (2004). In other words, the White targets in Study 1 were rated lower in Afrocentricity than those in Blair et al.'s study, whereas our Black targets were rated higher in Afrocentricity than those in Blair et al.'s study. This may have

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occurred because we grayscaled the faces in our work, resulting in less within-race variability in skin tone. As noted in the text, we did this to remove incidental cues from prisoners' uniforms about their sentence status and to control for differences in lighting between the stimuli (as is standard in many studies of face perception). However, removing color information allowed us to highlight the influence of facial information that is independent of skin tone, as both structure and skin tone can alter perceivers' affective reactions to faces (Hagiwara, Kashy, & Cesario, 2012). Diminishing the salience of skin-tone cues may have therefore also weakened the effects of Afrocentricity, as skin tone is a major component of racial phenotypicality (Maddox, 2004). It is also possible that cues to Afrocentricity cued positivity through resemblance to happy expressions, consistent with research based on connectionist modeling of the objective link between race and emotional expression (Zebrowitz, Kikuchi, & Fellous, 2010).

Thus, we do not believe that the current data challenge the existing research on Afrocentricity and sentencing. Rather, we think it plausible that both racial phenotypicality and other facial features (such as those signalling trustworthiness), may each act to influence sentencing somewhat orthogonally. Moreover, because we intentionally collected an equal number of White and Black targets in each sentence category, we are not equipped to investigate racial disparities in sentencing. Future research would benefit from exploring these issues further.

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