

From storytelling to Facebook. Content biases when retelling or sharing a story

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Abstract

Cultural evolution researchers use transmission chain experiments to investigate which content is more likely to survive when transmitted from one individual to another. These experiments resemble oral storytelling, where individuals need to understand, memorise, and reproduce the content. However, prominent contemporary forms of cultural transmission—think an online sharing—only involve the willingness to transmit the content. Here I present two fully preregistered online experiments that explicitly investigated the differences between these two modalities of transmission. The first experiment (N=1080) examined whether negative content, information eliciting disgust, and threat-related information were better transmitted than their neutral counterpart in a traditional transmission chain set-up. The second experiment (N=1200), used the same material, but participants were asked whether they would share or not the content in two conditions: in a large anonymous social network, or with their friends, in their favourite social network. Negative content was both better transmitted in transmission chain experiments and shared more than its neutral counterpart. Threat-related information was successful in transmission chain experiments but not when sharing, and, finally, information eliciting disgust was not advantaged in either. Overall, the results present a composite picture, suggesting that the interactions between the specific content and the medium of transmission are important and, possibly, that content biases are stronger when memorisation and reproduction are involved in the transmission—like in oral transmission—than when they are not—like in online sharing.

Keywords

Cultural transmission; cultural evolution; transmission chain experiments; cultural attraction; content biases; digital media.

1 Introduction

2 Evolutionary approaches to culture are used to shed light on contemporary cultural dynamics,
3 such as the evolution of programming languages (Valverde & Solé, 2015), the prevalence of certain
4 narrative techniques in films (Sobchuk & Tinitis, 2020), the diffusion of music sampling traditions
5 (Youngblood, 2019), or the cognitive underpinnings of vaccine hesitancy (Miton & Mercier, 2015).

6 The toolbox of cultural evolution researchers includes transmission chain experiments (Mesoudi &
7 Whiten, 2008). Transmission chains experiments are a laboratory analogous of the broken telephone
8 game: in a typical set-up, a first participant is presented with a piece of information, often a short
9 story, and is asked to repeat the story to a second participant, which, in turn, will repeat it to
10 a third, and so on, until the last member of the chain. In this way, it is possible to track the
11 transformations that the story undergoes, which new details are added and, mostly, which details
12 are lost or survive through the chain.

13 Transmission chain experiments often highlight the presence of cognitive biases (Stubbersfield et al.,
14 2017) or cognitive factors of attraction (Scott-Phillips et al., 2018): certain types of information,
15 possibly because of general evolved cognitive preferences, are more appealing or memorable and
16 tend to be retained and transmitted with more success than others (Sperber & Hirschfeld, 2004).
17 As an illustration, when presented with a story containing both positive and negative elements,
18 participants tended to remember and transmit preferentially negative elements, suggesting a bias
19 towards negative information (Bebbington et al., 2017).

20 The same cognitive preferences that influence loss and retention in transmission chain experiments
21 are likely to have an aggregate effect on population-level, real-life, cultural dynamics. The cultural
22 success of a maladaptive practice such as bloodletting, for example, has been linked to its cognitive
23 attractiveness, and transmission chain experiments showed that, when presented with vignette stories
24 with bloodletting or with an alternative therapeutic practice, the bloodletting version tended to be
25 transmitted with more success (Miton et al., 2015). Cognitive biases highlighted in transmission
26 chain experiments have been explored in domains such as urban legends (Stubbersfield et al., 2017)
27 or online misinformation (Acerbi, 2019b). A negative bias may contribute to explain a decrease in
28 positive emotionality in English language song lyrics in the last 50 years (Brand et al., 2019) or in

29 Anglophone literary fiction in the last two centuries (Morin & Acerbi, 2017).

30 However, the extension from transmission chain experiments to real-life cultural dynamics is not
31 free from issues. If we zoom into the process of cultural transmission, the usual transmission chain
32 set-up resembles oral transmission, where individuals need to pay attention to the information
33 they are exposed to, understand it, memorise it, and then reproduce it to other individuals with
34 communicative intent. (A difference, with respect to oral transmission, is instead that, in the
35 experiments, individuals generally do not choose whether to transmit a piece of information or not.)
36 This contrasts with many instances of real-life cultural transmission. In the cases of music and
37 literature mentioned above, usually individuals do not need to memorise the content they intend to
38 transmit, and intentional modifications are often constitutive part of the process. Even starker is
39 the contrast with digitally-mediated transmission, a prominent contemporary example. An online
40 sharing does not require memorisation or reproduction and, in fact, not necessarily understanding,
41 but only the willingness to transmit the content (Acerbi, 2019a).

42 It is then a critical question how we can generalise the results of transmission chain experiments to
43 real-life cultural domains, or, more broadly, whether and how the details of the process of cultural
44 transmission influence the content that is more likely to spread. Within cultural evolution research,
45 the experiments described in Eriksson & Coultas (2014) are the first transmission chains that
46 explicitly distinguished three separate phases of transmission: choose-to-receive (do participants
47 want to read a story or not?), encode-and-retrieve (the standard transmission chain procedure) and,
48 finally, choose-to-transmit (do participants want to transmit the story they read or not?). The
49 results showed that the content the experiments were focusing on, that is, content eliciting disgust,
50 was more successful in all three phases. Stubbersfield et al. (2015) compared the performance of
51 social information and survival information in the same three phases of transmission, showing that
52 social information was advantaged over survival information only in the encode-and-retrieve phase,
53 but not in the other two. van Leeuwen et al. (2018) focused on the choose-to-transmit phase, finding
54 limited support both for a negative bias and for an advantage of information eliciting emotions
55 in general. Finally, Stubbersfield et al. (2018) used a modified transmission chain set-up, where
56 participants did not need to recall the story, but were invited to modify it to make it more appealing
57 to the successive readers.

58 The experiments presented here aimed at comparing explicitly the same material in a standard
59 transmission chain experiment, involving only the encode-and-retrieve phase, with a modality
60 of transmission inspired by online sharing, involving only the choose-to-transmit phase. The
61 experiments investigated three specific content biases that were found successful in previous research:
62 negative content (Bebbington et al., 2017), information eliciting disgust (Eriksson & Coultas, 2014)
63 and threat-related information (Blaine & Boyer, 2018).

64 The first experiment reproduced an online version of the standard transmission chain setup. For
65 each content bias, I compared the proportion of information successfully transmitted in two chains:
66 one with a version of the story containing the attractive information, and one without. In the
67 second experiment, other participants were instead asked whether they would have shared the
68 same story (either in the attractive or neutral version) in two conditions: with their friends in
69 their favourite social media, or anonymously in a large social media. These two conditions capture
70 the important difference between anonymous and non-anonymous online behaviour (Bernstein et
71 al., 2011). The kind of information shared online, and their tone, are influenced by whether they
72 are shared anonymously or not (Correa et al., 2015). Many reasons can determine this difference,
73 including that anonymous sharing does not affect the reputation of the individuals involved (Boyer,
74 2018).

75 The results showed that negative content and threat-related information were, as predicted, favoured
76 in the standard transmission chain setup, but not, surprisingly, information eliciting disgust.
77 Negative information was also favoured when participants were asked to share it (both when
78 sharing with friends and in the anonymous condition), but threat-related information was not.
79 Information eliciting disgust, finally, was not favoured in the sharing experiment, consistently with
80 the transmission chain outcome.

81 **Materials and methods**

82 The analyses of both experiment 1 and experiment 2 are conducted on data pulled together from
83 two repetitions of the same pre-registered experiments. In Supplementary Information I detail
84 the reasons for this choice, and I present separately the results of the originals and the (exact)

85 replications.

86 **Experiment 1**

87 For the first experiment, 1080 participants from UK were recruited online through *Prolific* (651
88 females, 420 males, 8 others, 1 prefer not to say, $M_{age} = 36.2, SD = 12.6$). Participants were
89 pre-screened for being more than 18 years old, for reporting English as their first language, and for
90 using a tablet or a computer desktop (not a mobile phone). Each participant was paid 0.48£, or
91 9.60£/hour for an estimated completion time of 3 minutes.

92 For each type of content bias (negative, disgust, threat), 120 independent chains of transmission
93 were run, each including three participants. Three iterations are standard in transmission chain
94 experiments and it is considered sufficient to reveal the effect of content biases (see e.g. Stubbersfield
95 et al. (2015)). 60 chains involved the content where the content bias was present, or attractive
96 content, and 60 involved the content where it was not, or neutral content.

97 Each story was a short text of five or six sentences. Attractive and neutral contents were represented
98 by the same story, with only one detail changed. For content eliciting disgust, for example, the
99 story involved an outbreak of an infectious disease in the fictional Saint Rika hospital in the US,
100 which was the largest in the last 25 years, and of which 500 cases were identified. In the attractive
101 version, it was reported the information that “the likely source of the outbreak is contact with
102 contaminated faeces in the hospital’s toilets,” while in the neutral was written that the disease could
103 “be transmitted when a person touches another one.” For all three stories, both the attractive and
104 neutral variant can be found at: <https://osf.io/5yh4u/>.

105 For each chain of transmission, the first participant read the original text and, when ready, they
106 were asked, on a new screen, “to rewrite the story as they were retelling it to a friend.” The text
107 generated was then provided to the second participant, and the procedure repeated by passing the
108 text to the third and last participant. The experiment was realised with the software *Qualtrics*.

109 The text produced by the participants at each step of the chain was analysed by two coders (the
110 author and an independent coder unaware of the experimental procedure and of the predictions)
111 for half of the chains, and by one coder (the author) for the other half. The coding consisted

112 in determining the presence or absence of basic information from the original story. For content
113 eliciting disgust, for example, were considered (i) the name of the disease, (ii) that the story took
114 place in the US, (iii) in a hospital, (iv) the name of the hospital, (v) that the outbreak was the
115 largest in X (any number of) years, (vi) the correct number of years, (vii) that X (any number of)
116 cases were identified, (viii) the correct number of cases, and (ix) the likely source of the outbreak (or
117 the mean of transmission, for the neutral variant). Between nine and eleven pieces of information
118 were considered for each variant for the three content biases. Complete lists can be found at:
119 <https://osf.io/5yh4u/>.

120 Empty texts or texts clearly not related to the task (e.g. participants writing “I could not read
121 the story”) were excluded, and participants were replaced. For each of the three content biases,
122 the output, consisting in the proportion of information transmitted at each step of the chain,
123 was analysed using generalised linear mixed models, with the position in the chain and content
124 (attractive/neutral) as fixed effects, and each chain ID and repetition (original/replication) as
125 random effect. The analysis was performed with the software R, using the lme4 package (Bates et al.,
126 2015). The prediction was that, for each content bias, the attractive content would be transmitted
127 better than its neutral counterpart.

128 **Experiment 2**

129 The second experiment involved 1200 participants from UK, recruited online through *Prolific*,
130 600 participants for condition 1 (414 females, 184 males, 1 others, 1 prefer not to say, $M_{age} =$
131 $35.82, SD = 11.4$), and 600 participants for condition 2 (415 females, 180 males, 3 others, 2 prefer
132 not to say, $M_{age} = 34.58, SD = 11.4$). Participants were pre-screened for being more than 18 years
133 old and for reporting English as their first language (the usage of a mobile phone was allowed in
134 this case, as participants did not have to produce written text). Each participant was paid 0.73£,
135 or 8.76£/hour for an estimated completion time of 5 minutes.

136 Experiment 2 used exactly the same material used as seeds for the transmission chains of experiment
137 1. In this case, however, the three texts, one for each content bias, were presented to each participant,
138 in random order. For each content bias, again randomly, either the attractive or the neutral version
139 was presented. In condition 1 (“anonymous”), for each text, participants were asked if they would

140 share the story “anonymously, in a large social network, such as Reddit.” In condition 2 (“sharing
141 with friends”), the participant was asked if they would share the story “with your friends in your
142 favourite social media.” The experiment was also realised with the software *Qualtrics*.

143 The output for each content bias, consisting of the decision of sharing or not, was analysed using
144 generalised linear mixed models (binomial) with content (attractive/neutral) as fixed effect and
145 order of presentation and repetition (original/replication) as random effect. As for experiment 1,
146 the analysis was performed with the software R, using the lme4 package (Bates et al., 2015). In
147 this case, there was no specific prediction, but the research question was whether in each condition
148 (anonymous/sharing with friends), and for each content bias, the attractive content was shared more
149 than the neutral content.

150 Ethics approval for the study was granted by the College of Health, Medicine and Life Sciences
151 Research Ethics Committee of Brunel University London (ref: 24117-MHR-Sep/2020-27910-2). The
152 two experiments were fully preregistered at <https://osf.io/wf7pd>. All data and code to reproduce
153 the analysis and the figures presented here can be found at <https://osf.io/5yh4u/>.

154 Results

155 Overall, for experiment 1, inter-coder agreement was high (94% probability of agreement, Cohen’s $\kappa =$
156 0.879). As expected, the proportion of content retained and transmitted decreased in all transmission
157 chains (see Figure 1). The attractive content was better transmitted than the neutral content,
158 confirming the predictions, for negative information ($\beta = 0.126, SE = 0.027, t(58) = 4.765, p <$
159 0.001) and threat-related information ($\beta = 0.098, SE = 0.024, t(58) = 4.093, p < 0.001$), but there
160 was no difference for information eliciting disgust ($\beta = 0.040, SE = 0.030, t(58) = 1.329, p = 0.189$).

161 In experiment 2, the attractive content was shared more than the neutral counterpart for only
162 one content-bias, i.e. negative content, both in the anonymous ($\beta = 0.644, SE = 0.191, z(296) =$
163 3.377, $p < 0.001$) and in the “sharing with friends” condition ($\beta = 0.607, SE = 0.236, z(296) =$
164 2.575, $p = 0.010$).

165 The difference was also significant for information eliciting disgust in the anonymous condition,
166 but in the unexpected direction, with neutral content shared more than attractive content ($\beta =$

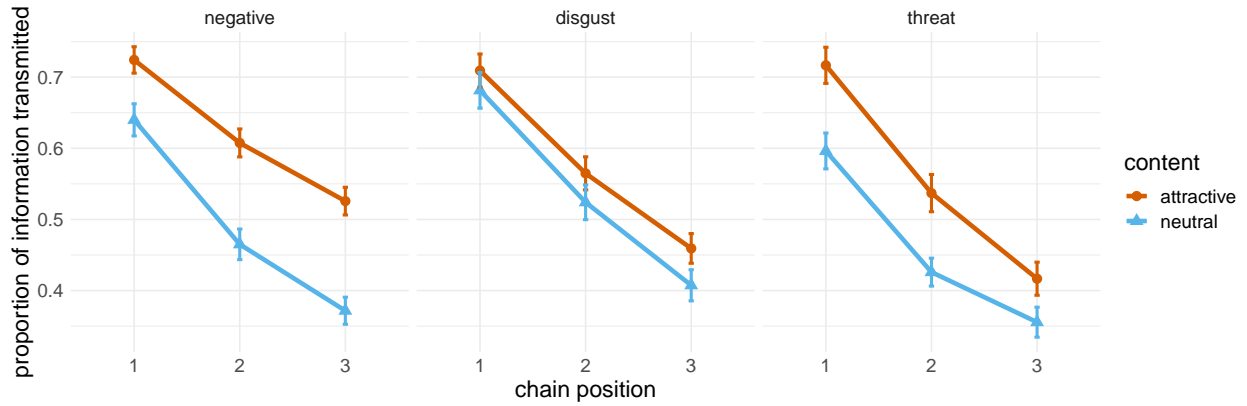


Figure 1: Proportion of information transmitted for the three content biases in the transmission chain set-up of Experiment 1. Points indicate the means, and error bars indicate standard errors.

167 $-0.370, SE = 0.185, z(296) = -1.994, p = 0.046$), while no significant difference was found in the
 168 “sharing with friends” condition ($\beta = -0.061, SE = 0.208, z(296) = -0.294, p = 0.769$).

169 Finally, no effect was found for threat-related information either in the anonymous
 170 ($\beta = 0.231, SE = 0.186, z(296) = 1.247, p = 0.213$) or “sharing with friends”
 171 ($\beta = 0.165, SE = 0.209, z(296) = 0.792, p = 0.428$).

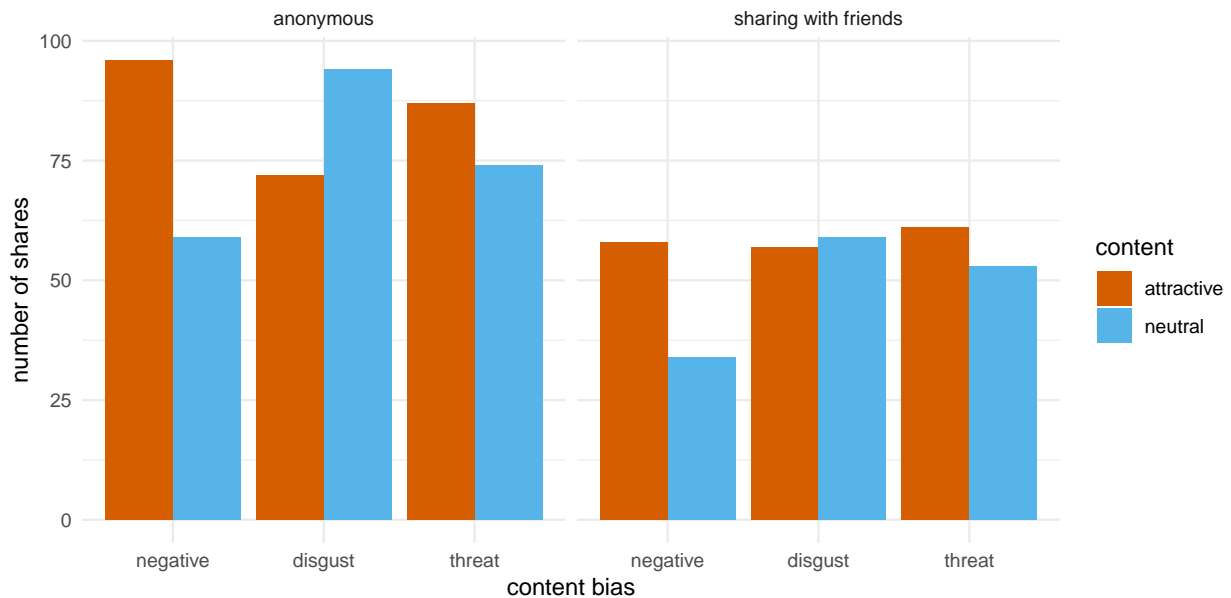


Figure 2: Number of shares for the two conditions of Experiment 2, for the three content biases.

172 Discussion

173 As mentioned, the results provided a somewhat composite picture. Comparing the outcomes of
174 experiment 1 (resembling oral transmission) and experiment 2 (resembling online sharing), they
175 were consistent for negative information and disgust-eliciting information, with the former being
176 advantaged, and the latter not, in both experiments. Threat-related information, instead, was
177 advantaged in transmission chain experiments, but not in the sharing condition.

178 The clearest result is the advantage of negative information both in standard transmission chains
179 and in the sharing experiments. This is in agreement with previous research that found a bias
180 toward negative sentiments in recall in transmission chain experiments (Bebbington et al., 2017),
181 or in acceptance of information (Fessler et al., 2014). A negativity bias is consistent with a
182 broad evolutionary logic that would advantage negative information in salience and memorability
183 (Baumeister et al., 2001), and it has been suggested that could influence as well the diffusion of
184 information online (Acerbi, 2019b; Bellovary et al., 2021; Melumad et al., 2021; Schöne et al.,
185 2021). On the other side, the present experiments compared a negative narrative with a neutral one,
186 without considering explicitly a positive condition. Other transmission chain experiments found
187 indeed an advantage for emotional content in general (Stubbersfield et al., 2017) and, as above,
188 emotional content, independently from the direction (positive or negative) has been found favouring
189 online diffusion of content (Berger & Milkman, 2012; Brady et al., 2017).

190 Surprisingly, content eliciting disgust was not transmitted or shared differently from its neutral
191 counterpart. In fact, in the anonymous sharing condition of experiment 2, the attractive content was
192 transmitted *less* than the corresponding neutral content. These results are at odds with evolutionary
193 reasoning about the salience of stimuli eliciting disgust (Curtis et al., 2004), and with transmission
194 chain experiments that found that narratives with disgusting elements were better remembered
195 and transmitted (Eriksson & Coultas, 2014). This result suggests that fine-grained details of the
196 transmission process may be important for the resulting cultural dynamic. For example, we may
197 be attracted by particular content, and perhaps remember it better, but we may not be willing to
198 share it (an obvious example is sex-related information (Berriche & Altay, 2020)). Similarly, subtle
199 cues in the experimental procedure may favour or not the repetition of sensitive material, like the

200 disgust-eliciting details, such as the perception of anonymity, whether participants think that their
201 text will be passed to others, and so on.

202 Threat-related content was the only content bias for which a difference between the transmission
203 chain experiments and the sharing experiments (in both conditions) was found, with the attractive
204 content being advantaged in the transmission chains but not in the sharing scenario.

205 The overall contrast between transmitting and sharing, with respect to content biases, is not
206 straightforward. A possible suggestion, worth exploring in future studies, is that the effect of content
207 biases is stronger when retelling a story than when sharing it. The attractive content was favoured
208 in two cases out of three in the transmission chain experiments (negative and threat-related content)
209 and two out of six possible combinations bias/condition in the sharing experiments (negative
210 content on both anonymous and sharing conditions). This difference is clearer when considering the
211 repetitions of the experiments (original and replication) separately (see Supplementary Information).
212 In this case, attractive content was advantaged four times out of six in the transmission chain
213 experiments and only in two out of twelve possible cases in the sharing experiments. This difference
214 would be consistent with the idea that cognitive factors related to memorisation and reproduction
215 influence the content biases, so that they would be stronger when the medium of transmission
216 requires these phases. More counterintuitively, it would suggest that online sharing may be *less*
217 content-biased than oral transmission.

218 Regarding the difference between anonymous and non-anonymous sharing, the effect of the attractive
219 content was not evident. In the case of negative content, the only one in which attractive content
220 was favoured, it was favoured in both conditions. The main difference was that sharing was, in
221 general, less common in the “sharing with friends” than in the “anonymous sharing” condition.
222 In the former, the total sharing was around two-third of the latter (322 versus 482). It is also
223 interesting to notice that the total amount of sharing was less than expected, as the total possible
224 occasions to share were 1,800 for each condition, so that participants shared less than 20% and 30%
225 of the times, respectively.

226 Some of these results may be explained by the limitations of the current study. First, participants
227 were not actually sharing content in social media (and, as a consequence, they were also not

228 anonymous or not), but they were simply asked *if* they would share that content. Even though
229 self-reported sharing intentions has been shown to be relatively good indicators of real online
230 sharing behaviour (Mosleh et al., 2020), subtle differences could change the outcomes presented
231 here. Second, small sharing advantages for a type of content could be amplified in real social media
232 by actual sharing. Individuals would then encounter more of the attractive versions, while here they
233 were presented at the same rate. A possible extension that addresses these shortcomings may be
234 represented by digital field experiments, such as having a bot posting attractive/neutral material
235 (of various contents) in real social media, and see how the posts are shared.

236 More generally, these experiments point to the importance of keeping into account the details of
237 the transmission process when considering which traits will be favoured by cultural evolution. If
238 content-biases such as the ones studied here can make a cultural trait appealing and memorable,
239 the decision of transmitting it can be detached from these qualities. The types of news that people
240 tend to read most are in general different from the types of news they share most (Bright, 2016).
241 Sharing can be motivated by various interests, including managing one’s reputation (Altay et al.,
242 2020) and signalling group membership (Osmundsen et al., 2021), that are not necessarily aligned
243 with the intrinsic attractiveness of a piece of information. Ultimately, cultural evolution has mostly
244 focused on consumers of cultural traits as a determinant of cultural success—what they want to
245 copy, from whom—while less attention has been given to the motivation of the transmitters or
246 producers (André et al., 2020). This may be a fruitful avenue for future studies.

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