

1 **Did Einstein really say that? Testing content versus context in the cultural**
2 **selection of quotations**

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1 **Did Einstein really say that? Testing content versus context in the cultural** 2 **selection of quotations**

4 **Abstract**

5 We experimentally investigated the influence of context-based biases, such as
6 prestige and popularity, on the preferences for quotations. Participants were presented
7 with random quotes associated to famous or unknown authors (experiment one), or
8 with random quotes presented as popular, i.e. chosen by many previous participants,
9 or unpopular (experiment two). To exclude effects related to the content of the
10 quotations, all participants were subsequently presented with the same quotations,
11 again associated to famous and unknown authors (experiment three), or presented as
12 popular or unpopular (experiment four). Overall, our results showed that context-
13 based biases had no (in case of prestige and conformity), or limited (in case of
14 popularity), effect in determining participants' choices. Quotations preferred for their
15 content were preferred in general, despite the contextual cues to which they were
16 associated. We conclude discussing how our results fit with the well-known
17 phenomenon of the spread and success (especially digital) of misattributed quotations,
18 and we draw some more general implications for cultural evolution research.

20 **Keywords**

21 Cultural evolution, cultural transmission, context-based biases, content-based
22 biases, quotations.

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26 Introduction

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28 Humans depend on social learning to acquire information and behaviours that
29 would be otherwise difficult for individuals to learn by themselves. Theoretical
30 models have shown that to be effective, however, social learning needs to be selective
31 (Laland, 2004). How do we choose which ideas, beliefs and practices to adopt among
32 the myriad of options that are available?

33 Research in cultural evolution suggests we use an inventory of simple
34 heuristics, often referred to as “social learning strategies” or “cultural transmission
35 biases”, to assist our decision in respect to what, when, or from whom to copy (Boyd
36 & Richerson, 1985; Mesoudi, 2011b). An important distinction in this inventory is
37 made between “context-based biases” and “content-based biases” (Boyd & Richerson,
38 1985).

39 This distinction is critical because context-based biases are independent from
40 the actual properties of the ideas or practices, whereas content-based biases, as the
41 label suggests, refer to intrinsic characteristics of the cultural traits themselves.
42 Examples of context-based biases are “copy prestigious individuals” (Henrich & Gil-
43 White, 2001), “copy the majority” (Henrich & Boyd, 1998) or “copy when
44 uncertain”(Wood et al., 2016). In all cases there is no need for the individual to
45 directly evaluate the features of the trait to copy. If the majority is doing A in place of
46 B, then one should copy A, no matter what A is.

47 Examples of content-based biases are instead “copy traits that carry survival
48 information” (Stubbersfield, Tehrani, & Flynn, 2015) or “copy traits that elicit
49 emotional reactions – amusement, for example” (Stubbersfield, Tehrani, & Flynn,

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2017). Here the features of traits matter. Is A carrying more survival information than B?

A growing corpus of experimental studies in cultural evolution broadly supports the sketch presented above. In the case of context biases, convincing indications of, for example, the preferential copying of individual that are considered prestigious (prestige bias), have been found in laboratory (Atkisson, O'Brien, & Mesoudi, 2012; Chudek, Heller, Birch, & Henrich, 2012) as well as in ethnographic settings (Henrich & Broesch, 2011). Other experiments showed that a similar heuristic ("copy successful individuals") was used by participants to decide from whom to copy from (Mesoudi, 2011a). The empirical evidence for conformity is more scattered, but a disproportionate tendency to copy the majority (i.e. copying with a probability higher than the proportion of the majority itself, as conformity is defined in cultural evolution theory) has been found in experimental settings as well (Efferson, Lalive, Richerson, McElreath, & Label, 2008; Morgan, Rendell, Ehn, Hoppitt, & Laland, 2012; Morgan, Laland, & Harris, 2015).

Content biases have also been studied, mainly using the transmission chain (or "serial reproduction") technique (Bartlett, 1932). In these experiments, a short piece of narrative is iteratively transmitted from one participant to another. It has been found that some types of content are better remembered and repeated than others, conferring them a selective cultural advantage. In addition to the previously mentioned biases for survival-relevant information and emotional content, other content-based biases that have been studied in cultural evolution are, for example, a bias for social information (Mesoudi, Whiten, & Dunbar, 2006), a bias for minimally counterintuitive concepts – i.e. concepts that fit our intuitive cognitive expectations but with few exceptions, such as superheroes, gods, etc. (Barrett & Nyhof, 2001), or a

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75 bias for negatively marked information (Bebbington, MacLeod, Ellison, & Fay,
76 2016).

77 One important, but hitherto largely unexplored, question concerns the relative
78 importance of context versus content biases. What if the majority prefers A, but B
79 carries, say, more social information than A? In what follows, we present an
80 experiment that addresses this question. We used a sample of relatively famous quotes
81 (such as, for example, “It is better to have loved and lost, than never to have loved at
82 all”), and we presented them to participants. We randomly associated some of the
83 quotes to famous authors, and others to unknown names. In a subsequent experiment
84 we associated, again randomly, some of the quotes to a previous majority of people
85 that preferred them, and others to a minority. We checked whether participants were
86 inclined to prefer quotes associated to famous people, and quotes they were told were
87 preferred by the majority.

88 Quotes are a useful test case, as they are relatively discrete units of cultural
89 information that can be promptly evaluated for their content by participants, and, in
90 the same time, are easily associated with contextual features. Context is important
91 because quotes are usually credited to famous people, and they are commonly
92 misattributed. The quote “The definition of insanity is doing the same thing over and
93 over again and expecting a different result”, for example, is often incorrectly
94 attributed to Albert Einstein. However, the earliest exact match of the quote appears
95 in a Narcotics Anonymous information pamphlet in 1981, some 25 years after
96 Einstein’s death¹. The fact that most people attribute the quote to Einstein rather than
97 its true source is suggestive of the value added by fame to the “quotability” of a
98 phrase. On the other side, content is important because there must be something

¹ <http://quoteinvestigator.com/2017/03/23/same/>

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99 particularly appealing about the specific message in a quote – we don’t just quote
100 anything and everything that a famous person has said. A recent study by Lerique and
101 Roth (2017), for example, provides intriguing evidence for content-biased
102 transmission in quotations, showing that quotes copied from one website to another
103 tended to be transformed according to predictable rules, for example replacing
104 difficult words with simpler synonyms.

105 In the experiments, we address the following questions:

106 1) Does being associated to a famous author influence whether a quote is more
107 liked? In addition: does the domain of the quote modulate this influence? Our
108 hypothesis was that the influence of the association of a prestigious author with a
109 quote would have been stronger when the author was known as an “expert” of the
110 quote’s domain (hence the topic “Science” and “Literature” associated with famous
111 scientists and writers), less strong when the domain of the quote was “Money” or
112 “Success” (for which *any* famous author could know more than the average people,
113 without being experts in the domain), and finally even less for domains, such as
114 “Love” and “Friendship”, that could be intuitively considered common knowledge.

115 2) Does the popularity of a quote influence whether people like the quote? We
116 tested here two different hypotheses. The first one is that people would be conformist
117 in the technical sense defined above, i.e. that they would disproportionately (with a
118 probability higher than the popularity of the quote itself) prefer a popular quote. The
119 second – weaker – hypothesis is that popular quote would simply be more preferred
120 than unpopular one. In addition: does the domain of the quote modulate this
121 influence? We reasoned that people might attend more to popularity in domains that
122 do not require expert knowledge, such as “Love” and “Friendship” than ones like
123 “Science” and “Literature”, or “Money” and “Success”, where common knowledge

124 might be an unreliable guide to the usefulness of the information contained in the
125 quote.

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127 **General methods**

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129 We carried out four experiments. In the first two experiments (experiment one
130 and two), randomly extracted pairs of quotes of the same domain were assigned to
131 participants. In experiment one famous and unknown author were assigned to the
132 quotes, while in experiment two one quote was presented as “popular” and one was
133 not. Participants were asked to choose the quote they preferred in the pair.

134 In the other two experiments (experiment three and four) all participants were
135 presented with the same quotes. The quotes were associated alternatively with famous
136 or unknown authors (experiment three) or were presented as popular or unpopular
137 (experiment four). Participants were asked to rate how much they liked each quote.

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139 *Selection of quotes*

140 We selected from the website <http://www.quotationspage.com> 10 quotes for
141 each of these six topics: “love”, “friendship”, “money”, “success”, “science”, and
142 “literature”. We chose quotes that were, according to our judgment, not particularly
143 recognizable, so that assigning to them an unknown – or wrong – author would not jar
144 with participants’ prior knowledge about sources. We also chose 4 quotes to use as a
145 “distractor”, and two quotes to use as a “control” (see below). All quotes were a
146 single sentence statement, to avoid any bias related to length. The list of the 66 quotes
147 used in the experiment is provided in Supplementary Material (quotations.pdf).

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149 ***Content only evaluation***

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2 150 We recruited 200 participants through crowdflower.com. Each participant was
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5 151 paid 1.00\$ to carry out the task, which took between two and three minutes to
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7 152 complete (143 seconds on average). After completing the task, the participants were
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9 153 debriefed about the aims of the experiment and given the option to withdraw their
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11 154 data. None of the participants chose this option. Participants were also informed that
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13 155 some quotes in the experiment were misattributed and provided a link to the website
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15 156 where the quotes (and authentic sources) were sourced from. We followed this
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17 157 procedure for all the experiments described below. The University of Bristol granted
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19 158 the ethical approval for the experiment.
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24 159 Participants were asked to help us to “Choose the most inspirational quote” and
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26 160 presented a questionnaire with seven questions. Each of the seven questions included
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28 161 a pair of quotes, and the participant was asked to choose the one s/he preferred
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30 162 between the two - see screenshot in Supplementary Material (screen1.pdf). Six
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32 163 questions concerned the six topics above. Each question presented two quotes
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34 164 randomly selected in each topic. One “Control” question always presented the same
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36 165 two quotes (randomly associated to a famous and to an unknown author). One of the
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38 166 quotes was meaningless (“The it then said it to the boring good morning”), and the
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40 167 participants preferring this quote were excluded from the analysis. Finally, the order
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42 168 of presentation of the quotes was randomized for each participant.
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48 169 We collected data from 174 valid participants (26 being excluded because of the
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50 170 wrong answer in the “control” question). Each of the 60 quotes was presented on
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52 171 average 34.8 times (SD=5.0, max=46, min=24).
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58 173 ***Selection of “famous” authors***
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174 We first extracted names to use as “famous” authors from the Pantheon 1.0
175 dataset (Yu, Ronen, Hu, Lu, & Hidalgo, 2016; available online at:
176 pantheon.media.mit.edu). We considered names from the category “people”, with any
177 place of birth, and born between 1800 and 2010. We extracted 20 names from the
178 Pantheon domain “All” (including personalities from all domains), 10 from the
179 domain “Humanities”, and 10 from the domain “Science & Technology”. We
180 excluded, in order to avoid biases, women (only Marie Curie, in the “Science &
181 Technology” domain, and Marilyn Monroe, in the “All” domain, were found) and
182 possibly controversial political figures from the “all” domain (Karl Marx, Adolf
183 Hitler, Che Guevara, Joseph Stalin, Vladimir Lenin, Benito Mussolini, and Mao
184 Zedong). We obtained a total of 30 different famous names (as 10 famous authors
185 were repeated in different domains, for example Albert Einstein was present both in
186 the “All” and in the “Science & Technology” domain).

187 We tested if famous names were indeed recognised as such by participants,
188 contrasting them with a sample of 30 randomly generated male names (“Unknown”
189 sample) that was then used for the experiments. The list of famous and unknown
190 names is provided in Supplementary Material (authors.pdf). Data were collected from
191 100 participants recruited through crowdflower.com. Each participant was paid 0.40\$
192 to complete the task. The task took approximate one minute to complete (62 seconds
193 on average). Participants were asked to help us to “Rate how famous (well-known)
194 contemporary or past celebrities are”. Each participant was presented with four
195 names, chosen at random in each category (“All”, “Science and Technology”,
196 “Humanities”, “Unknown”). Each name was presented with a multiple-choice
197 question (“How famous do you think he is?” with possible answers: “very famous”,
198 “famous”, “a little famous”, “not famous at all”).

199 There was a significant difference in the rating of unknown and famous names
200 in all three categories, demonstrating that participants recognized as famous the
201 names we extracted from the Pantheon dataset, and not the random names. Small
202 variations were present in different domains (for example, the names from the
203 “Science & Technology” domain were known slightly better than the names from the
204 “Humanities” domain), but all the differences with the unknown names were
205 significant at the same level (Wilcoxon signed-rank test, all $p < 0.0001$, all $N = 100$, see
206 also Supplementary Material – additional_stats_info.pdf, Table 1 SM),

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208 **Experiment one: famous versus unknown authors**

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210 *Methods*

211 We recruited 200 participants through crowdflower.com. Each participant was
212 paid 1.30\$ to complete the task (average task duration: 152 seconds). As above,
213 subjects were asked to help us to “Choose the most inspirational quote” and presented
214 a questionnaire with nine questions. Each of the nine questions included a pair of
215 quotes, and the participant was asked to choose the one s/he preferred between the
216 two. Table 1 shows how quotes and authors were assigned to participants. For each
217 topic, two random quotes were selected, and authors from the samples described in
218 Table 1 were also randomly extracted.

219 Two questions – not used in the analysis – included two random quotes both
220 associated to famous or unknown names, respectively. The rationale for including
221 these two “Distractors” was to avoid participants realizing the hypothesis that we
222 were testing (which may have been obvious if all the questions pitted a quote by one
223 famous and one by an unknown author). Finally, the order of presentation of the

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224 quotes, as well as the order of the authors inside each questions, was randomized for
225 each participant.

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Table 1 here

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229 ***Results***

230 We excluded 39 participants due to preferring the meaningless quote in the
231 control question, remaining with 161 valid participants. We calculated, for each of the
232 possible 60 quotes, how many times a quote was preferred when associated to a
233 famous author (hence “opposing” a quote of the same topic, associated to an unknown
234 author), and how many times it was preferred when associated to an unknown author.
235 Each quote was presented on average 32.2 times overall to the 161 valid participants
236 (SD=5.1, max=48, min=24). We performed, for the three separate categories of topics
237 (“Love/Friendship”, “Money/Success”, “Science/Literature”), three separate
238 Wilcoxon signed-ranked tests, comparing the success rate of quotes associated to
239 famous and to unknown authors. All tests gave non-significant results (Wilcoxon
240 signed-rank test, $p=0.11$, $p=0.42$, $p=0.20$, all $N=20$, see also Supplementary Material
241 – additional_stats_info.pdf, Table 2 SM), indicating that participants did not preferred
242 a quote when it was associated with a famous authors more than when it was
243 associated to an unknown author (see Figure 1).

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Figure 1 here

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247 To test the effect of the content, we used the results provided in the “Content
248 only Evaluation” (see above) as one of the predictors of two linear models. The first

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249 linear model included, as a response, the success rate of quotes in experiment one
250 (famous versus unknown authors), and, as the other predictor, the proportion of times
251 the quote was associated to a famous author in experiment one. The model was
252 overall significant ($p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.36$), and showed that the proportion of wins in
253 “Content only Evaluation” ($p < 0.001$, $t = 5.69$), but not the proportion of times the
254 quote was associated to a famous author in experiment one ($p = 0.66$, $t = -0.44$)
255 explained the success in experiment one (see also Figure 2). In other words,
256 participants evaluated the content of the quotes, but not the fact that they were
257 associated to a famous author, to choose among them in the “famous versus unknown
258 authors” experiment.

259
260 **Figure 2 here**

261 262 **Experiment two: popular versus unpopular quotes**

263 264 *Methods*

265 The structure of experiment two was analogous to experiment one, but instead
266 of authors, quotes were associated with a popularity score (“N people already chose
267 this quote”). Using the same arrangement of Table 1, the quote associated to a
268 “Famous” author was now a “Popular” quote, while the quote associated to an
269 “Unknown” author was, in experiment two, an “Unpopular” quote. All quotes and
270 their order were randomized again for experiment two. The numbers of people that
271 already chose “Popular” and “Unpopular” quotes were randomly generated with the
272 constraint that, for each question, unpopular quotes were assigned a random number
273 of people that already chose them between 100 and 1000, and popular quotes were

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274 presented as chosen approximately by three times more people than unpopular ones.

275 Following the logic of experiment one, the two quotes in the Distractors were

276 presented as chosen approximately by the same number of people. As in experiment

277 one, we recruited 200 participants through crowdflower.com. Each participant was

278 paid 1.30\$ to complete the task (average task duration: 146 seconds).

279

280 **Results**

281 We analysed the answers from 165 participants (35 were excluded). Each of the

282 60 quotes was presented on average 33.0 times (SD=4.6, max=46, min=21). We first

283 checked if participants showed any conformist tendency. A visual inspection of the

284 data (see Figure 3) clearly shows that this was not the case. To show a

285 *disproportionate* tendency to prefer popular quotes, participants should have preferred

286 them with a probability higher than the frequency they were presented (3/4 of the total

287 presumed preferences, see Methods above). Similarly, unpopular quotes should have

288 been preferred with a probability lower than the frequency presented. In Figure 3, the

289 shaded area of the plots represents these hypothetical outcomes.

290

291 **Figure 3 here**

292

293 In the subsequent analysis we focused on whether popularity still had some

294 effect on participants' evaluations, even if it was not "conformist" in the technical

295 sense examined above. The same analysis of experiment one was conducted for

296 experiment two (popular versus unpopular quotes). Three Wilcoxon signed-ranked

297 tests gave here a significant difference between the proportions of wins of "popular"

298 versus "unpopular" quotes (Wilcoxon signed-rank test, all $p < 0.001$, all $N=20$, see

299 also Supplementary Material – additional_stats_info.pdf, Table 3 SM), indicating that
300 participants preferred “popular” quotes (see Figure 4). As we did not have specific
301 hypotheses on the role of topic domains for popularity, we did not analyse possible
302 differences in the results between the three categories of topics.

303

304 **Figure 4 here**

305

306 According to the same logic applied to experiment one, we ran a linear model,
307 in which the response variable was the success rate of quotes in experiment two
308 (popular versus unpopular quotes), and two predictors were used: the proportion of
309 wins in the “Content only evaluation” test and the proportion of times the quote was
310 “popular” in experiment two. The model was again overall significant ($p < 0.001$,
311 $R^2 = 0.47$), but, differently from experiment one, showed that both the proportion of
312 wins in experiment the “Content only evaluation” test ($p < 0.001$, $t = 6.28$), and, to a
313 lesser degree, the proportion of times the quote was popular in experiment two
314 ($p < 0.005$, $t = 3.37$) explained the success in experiment two (see also Figure 5).

315

316 **Figure 5 here**

317

318 **Experiment three: Single quotes and fame**

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320 ***Methods***

321 To avoid any effect of the content of quotes, we ran a second series of
322 experiments, in which all participants were presented with the same quotes, and the
323 only variation was the fact that they were associated with Famous or Unknown

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324 authors (Experiment three) or were considered Popular or Unpopular (Experiment
325 four)

326 For experiment three we recruited 200 participants through crowdflower.com.

327 Each participant was paid 0.70\$ to complete the task (average task duration: 148

328 seconds). Participants were again asked to help us to “Choose the most inspirational

329 quote”, presented a questionnaire with seven quotes, and informed of the experiment

330 after completing the task, as described above. Each quote was presented with a

331 multiple-choice question (“How good do you think this quote is?” with possible

332 answers: “very good”, “good”, “average”, “not particularly good”).

333 All participants were assigned the same seven quotes, six for each of the

334 possible topics, plus the same “Control” quote described above (see all quotes in

335 Table 2). The data of participants that answered that the meaningless control quote

336 was “very good”, “good”, or “average” were discarded. For each of the quotes, half of

337 the participants were randomly assigned a famous author (from the sample “All”, or

338 from the sample “Science and Technology” for the topic “Science”, and from the

339 sample “Humanities” for the topic “Literature”, analogously to experiment 1), and the

340 other half of participants was assigned a name from the “Unknown” sample. The

341 order of presentation of the quotes was finally randomised.

342

343 **Table 2 here**

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345 ***Results***

346 We discarded 10 participants that evaluated positively the control quote,

347 remaining with 190 valid subjects. For each topic, we compared the evaluations of the

348 quote associated with the famous author with the evaluations of the quote associated

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349 with the unknown name. While the former were indeed higher (see Figure 6, upper
350 panel), the differences were not significant (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, all $p > 0.05$, see
351 also Supplementary Material – additional_stats_info.pdf, Table 4 SM), consistently
352 with the results of experiment one.

353

354 **Experiment four: Single quotes and popularity**

355

356 *Methods*

357 As above, we kept the same structure of experiment three, and we replaced
358 “Famous” and “Unknown” authors with “Popular” and “Unpopular” quotes (“N
359 people think this is a good quote”). The number of people that already chose
360 “Popular” and “Unpopular” quotes were generated by selecting a random number
361 between 100 and 1000 for each participant and by multiplying this number by 0.75 for
362 popular quotes and by 0.25 for unpopular ones (adding randomness). In this way we
363 kept the approximate ratio 1/3 between people who chose popular and unpopular
364 quotes present in Experiment two. As in experiment three, we recruited 200
365 participants through crowdflower.com. Each participant was paid 0.70\$ to complete
366 the task (average task duration: 154 seconds).

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368

369 *Results*

370 We retained the answers of 198 participants, and compared the evaluations of
371 the quote presented as “popular” versus the evaluations of the quote presented as
372 “unpopular”. As above, “popular” quotes were rated higher than the same quotes,
373 presented as “unpopular” (see Figure 6, lower panel). The difference was significant

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374 for two topics, “Friendship” (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, $p < 0.005$) and “Science”
375 (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, $p < 0.05$) and not significant for the others (see also
376 Supplementary Material – additional_stats_info.pdf, Table 5 SM),

377

378 **Figure 6 here**

379

380 **Discussion**

381

382 Our experiments gave some indication, contrary to our expectations, that
383 context-based cultural transmission biases had less effect than the actual content in
384 determining how participants evaluated the material presented. The first experiment
385 showed that the fact that a quote was associated or not to a famous author was not
386 important in determining whether it was preferred or not. The second experiment
387 showed both that our participants were not conformist – in the technical sense defined
388 in cultural evolution, i.e. having a *disproportionate* tendency to copy the majority –
389 and that, while the perceived popularity of a quote had an effect on their choices, this
390 effect was relatively small in respect to the effect of the content of the quote itself.
391 Finally, experiments three and four showed that, when controlling for the content by
392 presenting the same quote to participants, popularity and prestige had, again, a limited
393 effect. We found two significant differences in experiment four, showing that
394 participants preferred consistently the popular quote in the domains of “Friendship”
395 and “Science”. However, the effect was present in only two of six domains, and we
396 did not have theoretical reasons to expect that “Friendship” and “Science” would
397 show a bigger influence of a popularity bias. We tentatively interpret these two

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398 significant results only suggesting, consistently with the results of experiment two,
399 that *some* effect of popularity was present, more than in the case of fame/prestige.

400 These results may seem surprising, given the apparently common tendency for
401 people to misattribute quotes to famous people (recall our earlier example of quoting
402 Einstein, rather than Narcotics Anonymous, on the relationship between repetition
403 and insanity). While, at first sight, this phenomenon would seem to exemplify prestige
404 bias, our results suggest that other explanations should be considered. For example, it
405 could be that people remember the content better than who said it, so when they re-
406 tell or “share” the quote they could make errors in attribution. The aggregation of
407 these errors is likely to lead to more quotes being misattributed to famous people
408 simply because they are better known (so Einstein is bound to pick up more
409 accidental misattributions than, say, Bohr, simply because fewer people would know
410 or remember who Bohr was). According to this interpretation, the success of
411 quotations would not be the result of being misattributed to famous authors. On the
412 contrary, misattributions would be the result of the wide diffusion of “good”
413 quotations.

414 On a more general level, we may ask how the results of our experiments can
415 contribute to the broad field of cultural evolution. There are two important features of
416 the experiment that need to be considered to evaluate the scope of our results. First,
417 no expertise was required to choose between the alternatives. A basic tenet of cultural
418 evolution theory is that social information is valuable when individual information is
419 costly and/or difficult to obtain (“costly information hypothesis” in Boyd &
420 Richerson, 1985). This was clearly not the case in our scenario, so that it is likely this
421 may explain why participants did not consider the social cues that were provided with
422 the quotes (for recent experiments showing the relationship between task difficulty

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423 and (under)use of social information see e.g. Acerbi, Tennie, & Mesoudi, 2016;
424 Morgan et al., 2012)

425 The second important feature however was that the choice was, for the
426 participants, completely cost-free. In this case, previous studies indicate that context-
427 based biases are expected to have an important role. To limit to examples that directly
428 refer to cultural evolution theory, Coultas (2004) found that university students were
429 influenced by the majority (but not conformist) about seemingly irrelevant choices
430 such as writing a date analogically (“2 February 2017”) or numerically (“2/2/2017”),
431 or covering or not the keyboard of the public computer they used. Claidière et al.
432 (2014) showed that the visitors of a zoo, given the opportunity to answer to questions
433 on a card in exchange of a small prize, wrote (or drew) their contribution according to
434 what they perceived others visitors did previously. One of the illustrations of prestige-
435 based bias used in cultural evolution, that is, the influence of stars like Michael Jordan
436 in advertisement (Boyd, Richerson, & Henrich, 2011), involves a “task” (choosing the
437 underwear’s brand) that is cost-free and does not require expertise, hence it is quite
438 similar to our scenario. Future studies should systematically test how the variation on
439 the two axes of task difficulty and task importance may influence the usage of
440 context-based transmission biases and social cues in general.

441 Our results contribute to a growing body of works that found contrasting results
442 on the effects of context-based biases. For example, Salganik, Dodds, & Watts (2006)
443 produced results very similar to our study. Salganik et al. (2006) created an “artificial
444 market” where individuals could download previously unknown songs and, in the
445 “social-influence” condition, see how many times the songs have been previously
446 downloaded. While the study is often cited to support the importance of the influence
447 of popularity on individual choices, Salganik et al. (2006) found that there was a

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448 strong correlation between the success of songs in the “social influence” condition
449 and in the control condition, where individuals did not have contextual cues of
450 popularity, mirroring what happened in our experiments. Notice that, also in this case,
451 the choice (downloading or not a song) was low-cost and did not require previous
452 experience. Similarly, Priestley & Mesoudi (2015) studying the behaviour of users of
453 the aggregator website Reddit.com, found that social influence (users are more likely
454 to up-vote content that others have previously up-voted) had a smaller effect than
455 expected.

456 Establishing the relative importance of context and content biases, for cultural
457 evolutionary studies, is a task that goes beyond the mere need for terminological
458 precision. Context-based biases are relatively simple, domain-general, heuristics. If
459 they are the main driving force of cultural evolution, cultural evolution studies should
460 mainly focus on population-level dynamics. Modelling strategies, or theoretical
461 approaches, in which the cognitive properties of human individuals are only
462 minimally sketched will do the job. On the contrary, content-based biases depend on
463 domain-specific cognitive aspects, and, if the success of practices and ideas depend
464 mostly on those, cultural evolutionists need to pay particular attention to the subtleties
465 of human cognition.

466

467 **Acknowledgements**

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573 **Figures captions**

574

575 **Figure 1: Comparison of quotes' proportion of wins across the three topic**
576 **groups in experiment one (Famous versus Unknown authors).** Boxplots show
577 medians and interquartile ranges, with whiskers extending to 1.5*IQR.

578

579 **Figure 2: Fame and content versus quotes' success.** Left panel: Linear regression
580 of the proportion of times a quote was associated with a famous author in experiment
581 one versus the proportion of wins in experiment one. The shaded area shows the 95%
582 confidence interval. Right panel: Linear regression of the proportion of wins in
583 experiment "Content only Evaluation" versus the proportion of wins in experiment
584 one. The shaded area shows the 95% confidence interval.

585

586 **Figure 3: Average proportion of wins across the three topic groups in**
587 **experiment two (Popular versus unpopular quotes) versus the frequency they**
588 **were presented to subjects.** Bars represented standard deviations of the data. The
589 shades areas of the plots show where data points would have been expected, if
590 participants had shown a conformist tendency.

591

592 **Figure 4: Comparison of quotes' proportion of wins across the three topic**
593 **groups in experiment two (Popular versus unpopular quotes).** Boxplots show
594 medians and interquartile ranges, with whiskers extending to 1.5*IQR.

595

596 **Figure 5: Popularity and content versus quotes' success.** Left panel: Linear
597 regression of the proportion of times a quote was presented as "popular" in

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598 experiment two versus the proportion of wins in experiment two. The shaded area
599 shows the 95% confidence interval. Right panel: Linear regression of the proportion
600 of wins in the “Content only evaluation” test versus the proportion of wins in
601 experiment two. The shaded area shows the 95% confidence interval.
602

Figure 6: Comparison of quotes’ success across the six topics in experiment three and four. Upper panel: Percentage of success calculated as CLES (“common language effect size” McGraw & Wong, 1992; i.e. how many times, given all possible pairings, the quote in one condition was evaluated higher than the same quote in the other condition) across topics in experiment three (Single quotes and fame). Notice the sum for each topic is not 100, as a proportion of pairings resulted in ties. Lower panel: Percentage of success calculated as CLES across topics in experiment four (Single quotes and popularity).

TOPIC	AUTHOR 1	AUTHOR 2
Love	Famous “All”	“Unknown”
Friendship	Famous “All”	“Unknown”
Money	Famous “All”	“Unknown”
Success	Famous “All”	“Unknown”
Science	Famous “Science and Technology”	“Unknown”
Literature	Famous “Humanities”	“Unknown”
Distractor 1	“Unknown”	“Unknown”
Distractor 2	Famous “All”	Famous “All”
Control	Famous “All”	“Unknown”

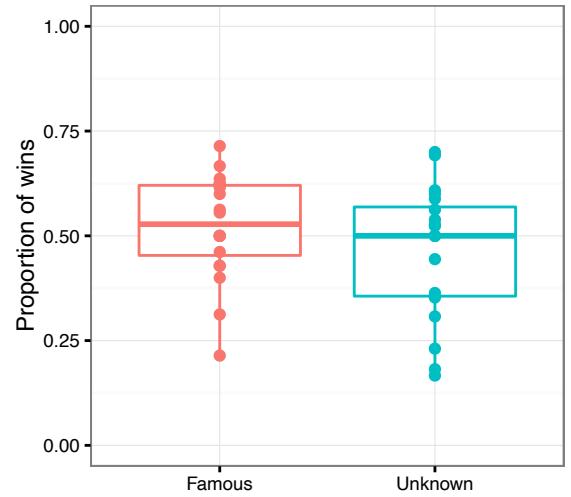
Table 1: How quotes and authors were presented to participants in experiment one.

TOPIC	QUOTE
Love	It is better to have loved and lost, then never to have loved at all
Friendship	The meeting of two personalities is like the contact of two chemical substances: if there is any reaction, both are transformed
Money	One of the greatest disservices you can do to a man is to lend him money that he can't pay back
Success	If you can break down those walls you've spent so many years building to protect yourself, you can achieve anything
Science	Science may set limits to knowledge, but should not set limits to imagination
Literature	The man who does not read good books has no advantage over the man who can not read them
Control	The it then said it too the boring good morning

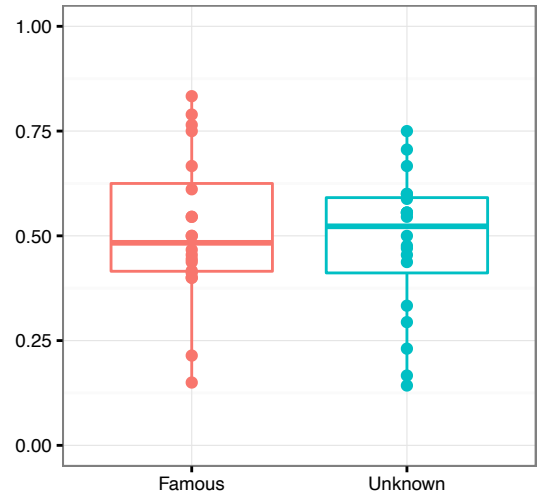
Table 2: Quotes used in experiments three and four.

Figure 1

Love/Friendship



Money/Success



[Click here to download Figure 1.pdf](#)

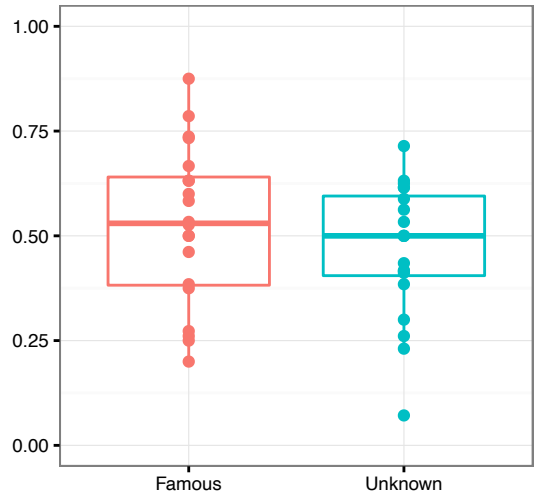


Figure 2

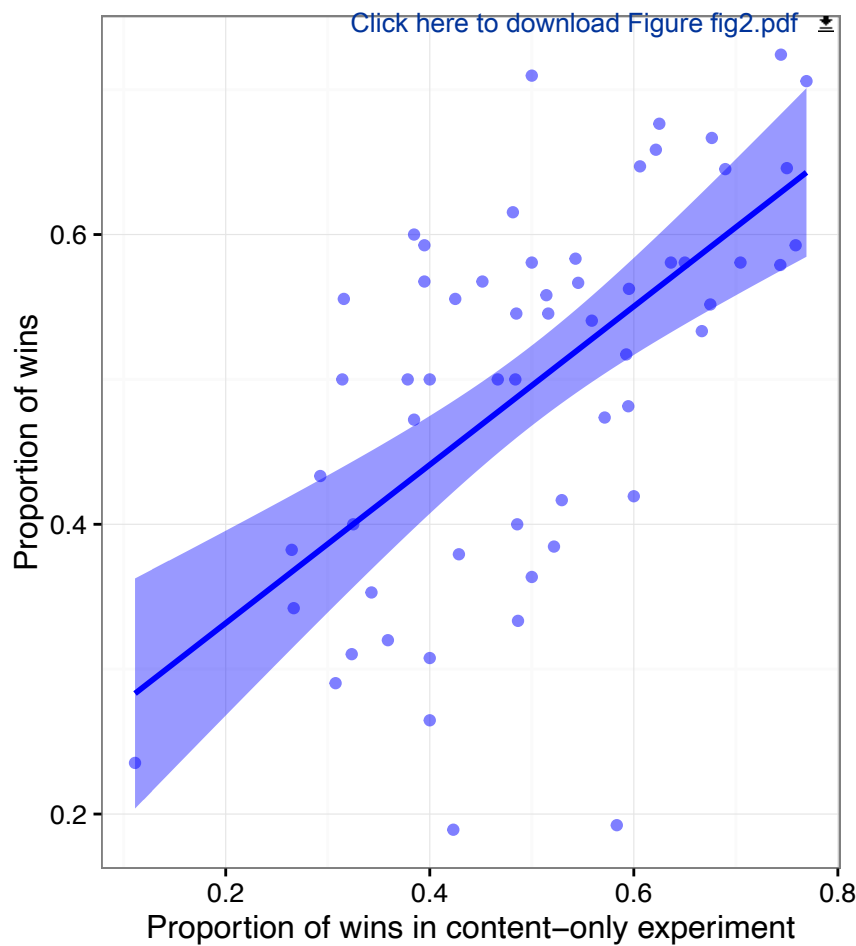
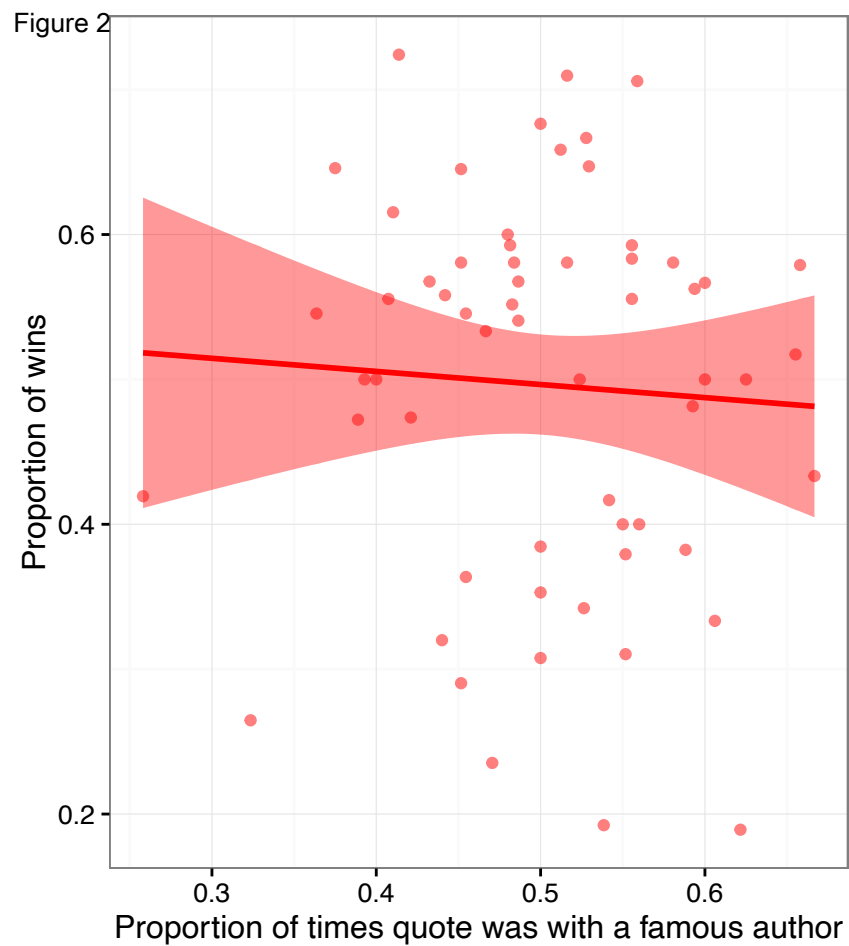
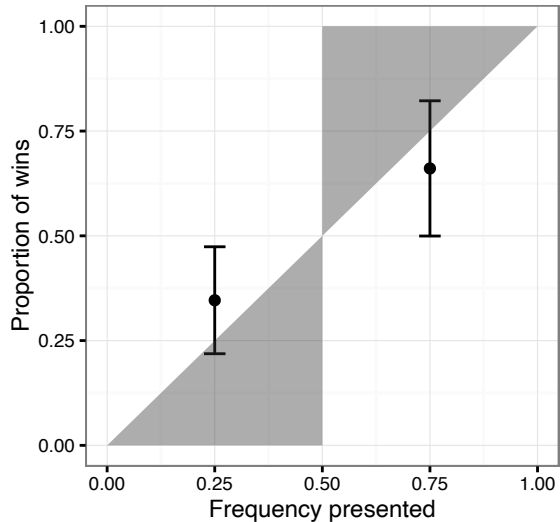


Figure 3

Love/Friendship



Money/Success

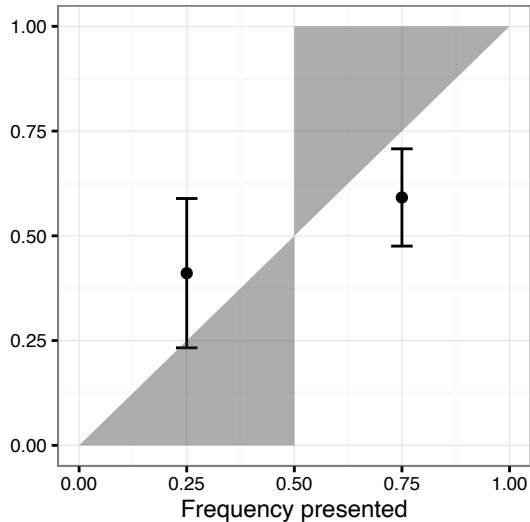
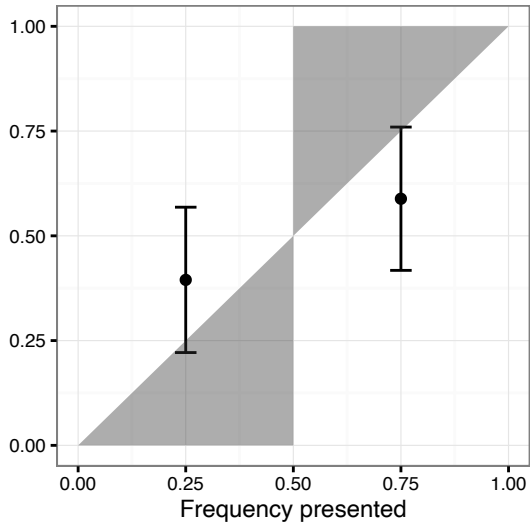
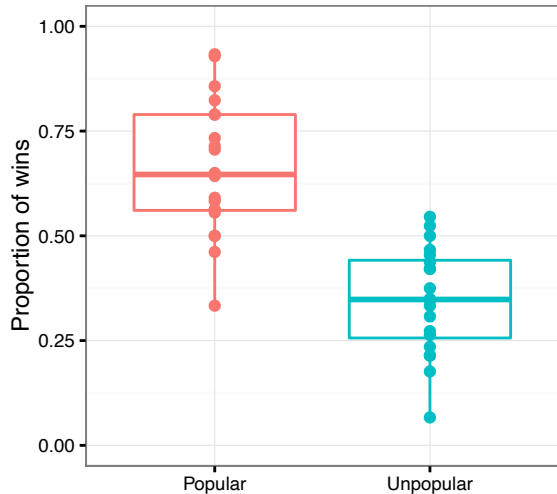
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Figure 4

Love/Friendship



Money/Success

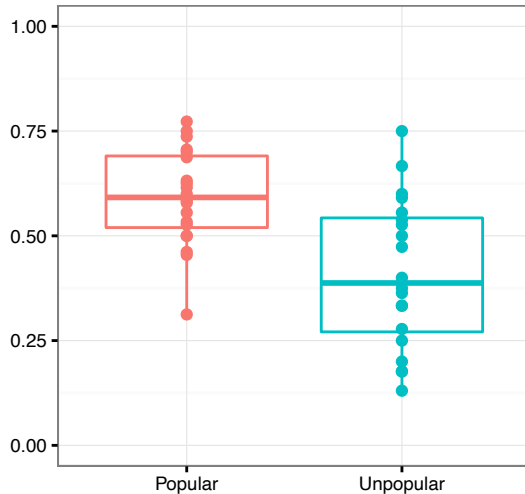
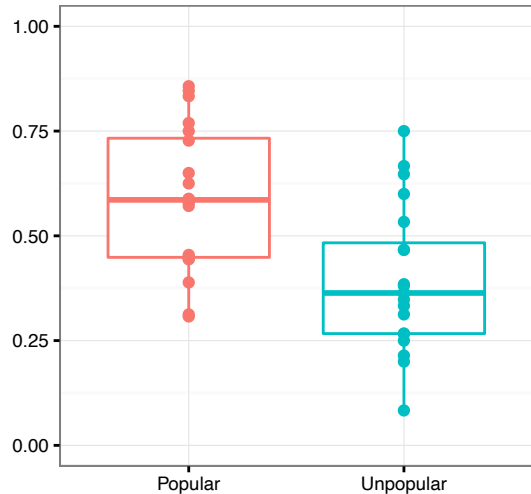
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Figure 5

