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Abstract

The fundamental attribution error (FAE) refers to the predisposition for people to attribute the behavior of others to dispositional characteristics, rather than situational causes external to the individual. The current study aimed to investigate whether pre-experimental perspective taking (PT) training could reduce the FAE. Participants were randomly assigned to either receive PT training, or to receive no training, before completing a typical attitude attribution task. This task required participants to watch a video clip of an actor reading an essay for or against capital punishment and then to infer the attitude of the actor. Results indicated that participants in the perspective taking condition experienced a significant reduction in the FAE compared to participants in the control condition.

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26 PERSPECTIVE TAKING REDUCES THE FUNDAMENTAL ATTRIBUTION ERROR

27 When assessing and forming judgements of an individual's behavior we tend to
28 overlook contextual information and attribute behavior to internal dispositions (Gawronski,
29 2004; Masuda & Kitayama, 2004; Gilbert & Malone, 1995; Ross, Green, & House, 1977).
30 This bias, which has been well documented in the social psychology literature and is
31 referred to as the fundamental attribution error (FAE), can have significant negative
32 consequences (Alicke, 2000; Gilbert & Malone, 1995).

33 Perspective taking, which can be defined as adopting another person's viewpoint
34 (Parker & Axtell, 2001), may be a way to reduce the FAE. For example, a person with
35 well-developed PT skills should be able to view a situation from the perspective of another
36 individual and thus anticipate their beliefs, desires, emotions and intentions (Epley,
37 Morewedge, & Keysar, 2004). Perspective taking has been empirically implicated in
38 various ways; it has been recommended as a simple strategy for reducing social bias and
39 for strengthening the creation and maintenance of social bonds (Galinsky, Ku, & Wang,
40 2005), it has been used to reduce stereotyping (Yee & Bailenson, 2006) and it has been
41 shown to improve negotiation skills (Galinsky & Mussweiler, 2001). Of particular interest
42 to the current study, Storms (1973) investigated an experimental manipulation of visual
43 orientation in the attribution process. In other words, the researcher altered the viewpoint of
44 an observer prior to an attitude attribution task and found dispositional inferences made by
45 subjects were reduced.

46 A recent functional analytic theory is gaining increasing empirical support for its
47 account of perspective taking as a form of learnt or operant behavior (e.g., McHugh,
48 Barnes-Holmes, & Barnes-Holmes, 2004; McHugh & Stewart, 2012). This account is
49 referred to as Relational Frame Theory (RFT: Hayes, Barnes-Holmes, & Roche, 2001).
50 According to this approach the key to human language and cognition is the ability to put

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51 things into relations with each other not based on their physical properties but based on
52 cues as to which relation to apply. This is called relational framing. Consider the relation
53 between a word and an object. This is perhaps the most fundamental and important aspect
54 of language. An example would be the relation between the word ‘ball’ and an actual ‘ball’.
55 Humans can treat these two things as being the same as each other, despite the fact that
56 they are not physically the same as each other. For instance, if I ask you to give me the ball,
57 you will hand me the actual ball. In other words, humans can put these things into an
58 abstract relation of sameness with each other. Sameness is just one example of relational
59 framing. There are other examples that we go on to learn; comparison, opposition,
60 difference, temporal, spatial and hierarchical.

61 RFT suggests that we learn to relate (relationally frame) things in our environment
62 and that this relational activity can change the psychological functions of those things. This
63 change in psychological functions is referred to as ‘transformation of function’ (TOF) and
64 this effect can be useful in many contexts (see Dymond & Roche, 2013). However, TOF
65 can also be problematic in some contexts. For example, I may frame myself as a socially
66 awkward individual and based on that framing I may derive further relations such that I
67 should avoid company. In the latter example, the functions of other people are transformed
68 for me so that I tend to avoid them, even though interaction with them might be
69 psychologically beneficial.

70 Children learn to relate their own behavior as different from that of others by
71 learning three key ‘deictic’ or ‘perspective’ relations which are “I versus YOU”, “HERE
72 versus THERE” and “NOW versus THEN”. They learn to respond appropriately to
73 questions such as ‘What are YOU doing HERE?’, ‘What am I doing NOW?’, ‘What was I
74 doing THEN?’ etc. As children gradually learn to respond appropriately to these questions,
75 and as they learn that whenever they are asked about their own behavior they always

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76 answer from the point of view of 'I', 'HERE' and 'NOW', they will learn this perspective
77 is consistent and different from that of other people. For example, if you ask an individual
78 about their own behaviour, s/he will always answer from the position of 'I', 'HERE' and
79 'NOW' in response to your question asked by YOU, THERE (where you are) and THEN
80 (when you asked – a few seconds ago). I is always from this perspective here, not from
81 someone else's perspective there. A sense of perspective is therefore abstracted through
82 learning to talk about one's own perspective in relation to other perspectives. Previous
83 research in this area has demonstrated that perspective taking can be trained when deficient
84 (Weil, Hayes, & Capurro, 2011), that rehearsing perspective taking can enhance the
85 repertoire on a subsequent task (Villardaga, Estévez, Levin, & Hayes, 2012) and that an
86 under rehearsal of this repertoire can result in perspective taking deficits (Janssen, et al.,
87 2014).

88 The current study aims to develop the RFT literature on perspective taking by
89 asking participants to engage in PT training (McHugh et al., 2004) prior to completing the
90 most widely employed test of the FAE; the attitude attribution paradigm (Bauman &
91 Skitka, 2010; Jones & Harris, 1967; Wright & Wells, 1988). We predict that the
92 perspective taking groups will experience a reduction in the FAE.

93

94

Method

Participants and Design

96 A total of 80 participants from the general public (i.e., 50 females and 30 males)
97 took part in the experiment. All participants were over the age of 18 years old (mean 25.23
98 years, SD= 10.71) and were assigned to one of four groups via the excel random number
99 generator. Each group therefore had 20 participants. Group 1 (14 females; mean 24.65
100 years, SD= 11.01) received PT training and watched a video 'for' capital punishment

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101 Group 2 (12 females; mean 26.95 years, SD= 12.98) received PT training and watched a
102 video ‘against’ capital punishment. Group 3 (11 females; mean 22.25 years, SD= 0.77)
103 received no training and the ‘for’ capital punishment video. Group 4 (13 females; mean
104 27.05 years, SD= 12.36) received no training and the ‘against’ capital punishment video.
105 The study employed a 2 (training: PT training vs. no training) x 2 (position: for vs. against)
106 between subjects design, with FAE score as the dependent variable.

107

108 *Stimulus*

109 *Perspective Taking (PT) Training.* Participants in the PT groups received a training
110 exercise (McHugh, et al., 2004, protocol) consisting of 30 questions with 2 answers to
111 choose from. The protocol involved trials that required the participant to respond to the
112 three perspective-taking frames of I-YOU, HERE-THERE and NOW-THEN across three
113 levels of relational complexity (i.e., a *simple* relational response; a *reversed* relational
114 response; and a *double reversed* relational response). For example, a simple NOW THEN
115 trial is as follows: ‘*Yesterday I was watching television, today I am reading a book. What*
116 *am I doing now?*’ A reversed I YOU trial is as follows: ‘*I have a red brick and you have a*
117 *green brick. If I was you and you were me, what would you have?*’ Finally, a double
118 reversed HERE THERE, NOW THEN trial is as follows: ‘*Yesterday you were sitting here*
119 *on the blue chair and today you are sitting there on the black chair. If now was then and*
120 *then was now and here was there and there was here. Where would you be sitting today?*’
121 Participants were free to answer these questions in as much time as they needed. In line
122 with McHugh et al. (2004) and Villatte, Monestes, McHugh, Freixa i Baqué and Loas
123 (2010) accuracy rates of 50% in the two-response protocol can be interpreted as chance
124 level responding therefore only participants whose scores were over 67%, and thus
125 demonstrated adherence to the perspective taking protocol were included in the analysis.

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126 Only 3/40 participants did not meet this criterion, one ‘for’ and two ‘against’ (see
127 Appendix 1 for participants overall accuracy on the perspective taking protocol).

128 *Attitude Attribution Task.* Participants were asked to watch either a ‘for’ or ‘against’
129 capital punishment video clip. The video clips were created with the help of a female
130 confederate who read the essays (taken from Masuda & Kitayama, 2004) without emotion.
131 The ‘against’ capital punishment video was 1 minute 37 seconds, whilst the ‘for’ capital
132 punishment video was 1 minute 29 seconds.

133 Following the video participants answered an FAE questionnaire, which consisted
134 of three questions (taken from Masuda & Kitayama, 2004). Question 1 was ‘*please infer*
135 *the attitude of the individual in the video towards capital punishment*’ where 1 was equal to
136 ‘*extremely against*’ and 15 was equal to ‘*extremely in favour*’. If participants recorded
137 scores closer to the extremities of the scale on this measure then they committed the FAE.
138 Question 2 asked participants to estimate the attitude of an average 20 year old on the topic
139 of capital punishment and Question 3 asked participants to indicate their own views on
140 capital punishment. These questions were also assessed on a 15-point scale. As with
141 Masuda and Kitayama (2004) estimates of both average attitude and the participants own
142 views were negative towards capital punishment, but they bore no relationship to the
143 results recorded on the FAE measure. Hence they will not be discussed further.

144

145 *Procedure*

146 After being randomly assigned to condition, participants in the perspective taking
147 groups were told that the experiment would involve two unrelated parts; firstly they would
148 have to complete a ‘cognitive measure’ and secondly they would have to complete an
149 everyday decision making task that required them to watch a video about capital
150 punishment and rate their opinion on the topic. Those in the control group received no

151 training so were only given the second part. Before beginning the attitude attribution task
152 all participants were made explicitly aware that the speaker would be reading an essay that
153 they were assigned to write: “*The experiment concerns attitude inference. The person*
154 *speaking in the video will be reading an essay for or against capital punishment that they*
155 *were assigned to write in an English class*”. See Figure 1 for a graphical representation of
156 the procedure.

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Insert Figure 1

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Results

161 Figure 1 suggests that the control group in both the ‘for’ (M = 11.85, SD = 2.36)
162 and ‘against’ (M = 3.5, SD = 2.92) capital punishment conditions committed greater FAE
163 than the participants who received PT training in the ‘for’ (M = 10.05, SD = 2.55) and
164 ‘against’ (M = 5.22, SD = 3.57) capital punishment conditions.

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Insert Figure 2

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168 A 2 (training: PT training vs. no training) X 2 (position: for vs. against) analysis of
169 variance (ANOVA) revealed a significant interaction between intervention and essay type,
170 $F(3,76) = 7,19$ $p < .05$ $\eta^2 = .09$ such that PT training attenuated the FAE (i.e. ratings
171 were closer to 8 in the perspective taking groups).

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Discussion

Perspective taking reduces the fundamental attribution error

174 The current experiment indicated that a pre-experimental perspective taking
175 exercise reduced the fundamental attribution error. The current findings have implications
176 both at a practical and theoretical level. At a practical level, the results suggest that brief
177 perspective taking interventions could have use in improving everyday social interactions
178 in which the FAE is committed. Indeed such exercises would be easily disseminable and
179 could be accomplished in many different contexts (from schools to workplaces).

180 At a theoretical level, the current study demonstrated the effectiveness of exposing
181 participants to an RFT based perspective-taking protocol. According to RFT, the core of
182 language is being able to put things into abstract relations that do not depend on the
183 characteristics of the things being related but instead depend on cues that ‘signal’ which
184 relational frame is appropriate. There is increasing evidence for these frames (e.g., Steele &
185 Hayes, 1991). As we learn to respond to perspective relations (i.e., I YOU, HERE THERE
186 and NOW THEN) we gradually learn to abstract a sense of perspective so that whenever
187 we are asked about our own behavior we learn to answer from the point of view of ‘I’,
188 ‘HERE’ and ‘NOW’ and we learn that this perspective is consistent and different from that
189 of other people. The key advantage of the RFT approach to understanding and developing
190 perspective taking is that RFT is a behavioral approach to explaining behaviour, which
191 means that it is a naturalistic, empirical and pragmatic approach.

192 It is naturalistic because it is not based on things that cannot be directly seen or
193 manipulated, such as the id or the ego of psychodynamics or the visual-spatial sketchpad of
194 cognitive psychology, for example. Instead, its theoretical explanations always include
195 processes in the environment that affect behavior and that can be directly seen and
196 manipulated by the scientist. For example, relational responding is a measurable activity
197 that is affected by socio-verbal interaction and indeed, as suggested above, can be trained
198 by systematically changing the environment (e.g., by focusing on particular types of

199 relations). It is empirical as it is based on a scientific theory developed following the
200 observations of scientists over decades of behavior analytic research, and in that time there
201 has been substantial empirical and theoretical progress (see Dymond & Roche, 2013 for a
202 recent book length review of this progress). Finally, it is pragmatic as it aims to actually
203 change behavior, not simply describe it. In fact this intentional focus on changing behavior
204 is a fundamental, ‘built-in’ feature of this account and therefore it will continue to lead to
205 immediate and promising applications.

206 There are a number of limitations to the current study that would need to be
207 addressed in future research. Firstly, no measure of state perspective taking ability was
208 taken following the intervention to ensure that those in the perspective taking groups
209 were, in fact, better able to take perspective of others than those in the control group.
210 However, given that there is no standardized state scale of perspective taking ability that
211 could be used to assess this, other investigations have yet to include such a measure in
212 research of this kind (Vilardaga et al., 2012). Secondly, although every effort was made to
213 convince the perspective taking groups that the training was unrelated to the subsequent
214 FAE task, it is possible that exposure to such an intervention may have primed the
215 participants to be more careful during the FAE task, not as a function of increased
216 perspective taking abilities, but because they became more suspicious following the task. In
217 order to overcome this issue it may be worthwhile to repeat the investigation with a control
218 group who do mock perspective taking training where the three relational abilities are not
219 targeted. However, it is important to note that past research has employed such control
220 groups and found no difference between a mock control group and a no training control
221 group (Weger, Hooper, Meier, & Hopthrow, 2012).

222 Future research could include a pre-experimental measure of perspective taking and
223 then use moderation analysis to investigate the effect of PT training on the FAE. It may

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224 also be interesting to determine the effects of an extended perspective taking training
225 exercise. For example, it is likely that longer perspective taking training may result in a
226 greater ability to appreciate the contextual variables in a given situation. Overall, this is the
227 first study to attempt to use perspective taking training to attenuate the FAE. The results are
228 particularly noteworthy given that the findings reported herein suggest that a brief exercise
229 in taking the perspective of another may be useful in reducing the robust FAE phenomena.

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294 Appendix 1

295 Accuracy scores across the two Perspective Taking Groups.

296 For Against

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