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Cognitive Evolution and the Transmission of Popular Narratives: A Literature Review and
Application to Urban Legends

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Abstract

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Recent research into cultural transmission suggests that humans are disposed to learn, remember, and transmit certain types of information more easily than others, and that any information that is passed between people will be subjected to cognitive selective pressures which alter the content and structure so as to make it maximally transmittable. This paper presents a review of emerging research on content biases in cultural evolution with relevance to the transmission of popular narratives. This is illustrated with content analysis of urban legends, which found that most featured at least one known content bias, with emotional information and social information being the most frequent. Most legends contained two to three biases, suggesting an optimum number of biases to be combined for a transmission advantage. We argue that the narratives do not succeed due to the transmission of adaptively-relevant information but due to their exploitation of content biases in human cognition.

Introduction

61

62

63 Cultural transmission has played a vital role in shaping the evolution of human cognition. In
64 the seven million years or so since our lineage diverged from the other great apes, our
65 ancestors evolved a range of specialised psychological adaptations that supported the
66 efficient acquisition and communication of information via social learning. They include
67 “true imitation” (the ability to copy actions and intentions), language, and a variety of
68 cognitive biases that guide our decisions on who and what to copy (e.g. Mesoudi 2011).
69 While these biases have been favoured by natural selection because they enable adaptive
70 behaviours to spread within populations far more easily than they could through individual
71 trial-and-error or blind copying, they can nevertheless make us susceptible to adopting ideas
72 and practices that may serve no useful purpose, or which may even be maladaptive from a
73 genetic point of view. Extreme examples of the latter include religious ideologies of celibacy,
74 blood-letting (Milton, Claidière & Mercier, 2015) and even suicide epidemics (Mesoudi,
75 2009). In this paper we review how emerging findings into cognitive and cultural evolution
76 can help to shed light on the characteristics of a universal and pervasive form of cultural
77 transmission – storytelling. We argue that the successful transmission of stories does not
78 depend so much on them containing adaptively-relevant information (e.g. Gottschall, 2012;
79 Zipes, 2006), but on their ability to exploit adaptive learning heuristics favouring certain
80 types of content (“content biases”). We then illustrate the importance of this distinction
81 through a content analysis of popular urban legends.

82

83 **"Content biases"**

84

85 Recent research into cultural transmission suggests that humans are disposed to learn,
86 remember, and transmit certain types of information more easily than others, and that any
87 information that is passed between people will be subjected to cognitive selective pressures
88 which alter the content and structure so as to make it maximally transmittable (Barrett &
89 Nyhof, 2001). Here we focus on five of these "content biases" (Mesoudi 2011) or "factors of
90 attraction" (Morin, 2015; Sperber, 1996) that are particularly relevant to the transmission
91 success of narratives: ecological survival information bias (Nairne, 2010), social information
92 bias (Mesoudi, Whiten, & Dunbar, 2006); emotional bias (Heath, Bell, & Sternberg, 2001),
93 minimally counter-intuitive (MCI) bias (Boyer & Ramble, 2001), and stereotype consistency
94 bias (Kashima, 2000).

95

96 **Ecological Survival Information Bias**

97

98 Nairne and colleagues (Nairne 2010; Nairne, Thompson, & Pandeirada, 2007; Nairne &
99 Pandeirada, 2008) argue that, as evolved trait, human memory must have been shaped by
100 selection pressures to achieve specific fitness-related goals. Human memory, they argue, has
101 evolved to encode and recall fitness related information better than other forms of
102 information. To test this, Nairne, Thompson, and Pandeirada (2007) proposed the 'survival
103 processing' paradigm, where participants imagine themselves stranded in a foreign grassland
104 scenario and then rate the relevance of words to their survival. A number of studies, using a
105 variety of experimental designs and materials (Nairne & Pandeirada, 2008; Nairne et al.,
106 2007; Kang et al., 2008; Otgaar, Smeets, & van Bergen, 2010; Weinstein, Bugg, & Roediger,

107 2008) have demonstrated the strong mnemonic advantage that survival processing grants
108 participants over other forms of processing and that this effect is robust within and between
109 participants. The recall advantage for ecological survival information found in these studies
110 suggests a potential bias for ecological information relevant to survival in human cultural
111 transmission. Beyond individual recall, Stubbersfield, Tehrani and Flynn (2015) found an
112 advantage for urban legends featuring survival information over control material in a
113 cumulative recall chain experiment.

114 Traditional folklore from various cultures provides examples of narratives which
115 contain ecological information relevant to survival. Sugiyama (2001) argues that oral
116 narratives among foraging peoples are used as a means to transmit this survival relevant
117 information. Since these folktales are likely to have been passed down over many
118 generations, the presence of this content supports the results of the experimental studies
119 suggesting that ecological survival information is likely to be transmitted with a high degree
120 of fidelity.

121

122 **Social Information Bias**

123

124 The *Machiavellian Intelligence* (Byrne & Whiten, 1988; Whiten, 1999) or *Social Brain*
125 (Dunbar, 1998; 2003) hypothesis suggests that primates evolved greater intelligence in order
126 to deal with complex social interactions, rather than to deal with non-social challenges in
127 their ecological environment. As such, Mesoudi, Whiten and Dunbar (2006) argue that
128 humans should preferentially attend to, recall, and transmit social information over equivalent
129 non-social information and found support for this hypothesis in a transmission chain study

130 which demonstrated that social information was transmitted with greater accuracy and in
131 greater quantity than equivalent non-social information. This result is supported by
132 Stubbersfield et al (2015), who found that urban legends featuring social information were
133 transmitted with greater fidelity than control material and urban legends featuring survival
134 information. Social information bias is also supported by evidence from traditional folktales,
135 which, as Sugiyama (2001) points out, frequently concern topics such as kinship, marriage,
136 sex, friendship, betrayal, social status, interpersonal conflict and deception.

137

138 **Emotional Bias**

139

140 Emotional arousal is known to be an important factor in the storage and recall of memories
141 (LaBar & Cabeza, 2006), and is thought to play a major role in the transmission of cultural
142 knowledge and beliefs (Whitehouse, 2004). Heath, Bell, and Sternberg (2001) found that
143 participants preferred and were more likely to pass on urban legends which produce high
144 levels of disgust and that urban legends which featured a greater number of disgust evoking
145 motifs were more widely distributed on urban legend websites. Eriksson and Coultas (2014)
146 expanded on Heath et al. (2001) and demonstrated a bias for urban legends which evoked
147 higher levels of disgust across three phases of cultural transmission: ‘choose-to-receive’,
148 ‘encode-and-retrieve’ and ‘choose-to-transmit’. Outside of disgust, Stubbersfield, Tehrani
149 and Flynn (in press) found a more general advantage for more emotive urban legends. In an
150 analysis of *New York Times* articles, Berger and Milkman (2010), found that those articles
151 which aroused emotions characterized by high arousal, such as anger, were more likely to be
152 transmitted than articles which aroused emotions characterized by low arousal, such as
153 sadness. More recent research by Eriksson, Coultas and de Barra (2016) has suggested that

154 emotional bias may vary cross-culturally, as they found that, while American participants
155 displayed a bias towards disgusting content, Indian participants did not. Both groups showed
156 a bias towards more amusing stories, however.

157

158 **Minimally Counter-Intuitive (MCI) Bias**

159

160 Boyer (1994) has argued that humans hold intuitive assumptions about the properties of
161 different categories of entities. These intuitive assumptions are generally described as ‘folk
162 biology’, ‘folk physics’, and ‘folk psychology’. Concepts which violate these category-level
163 expectations are considered to be counterintuitive and, when balanced against a majority of
164 intuitive elements (hence *minimally* counter intuitive), feature inherent transmission
165 advantages that can increase the salience of a narrative (Boyer, 1994). Several studies have
166 shown that MCI narratives have an advantage in recall and transmission (Barrett & Nyhof,
167 2001; Boyer & Ramble, 2001; Upal 2011) and some suggest a cognitively optimum number
168 of counterintuitive elements (1-2 for Barrett, Burdett and Porter, 2009; 2-3 for Norenzayan,
169 Atran, Faulkner & Schaller, 2006). Studies also show, however, that simply adding counter-
170 intuitive concepts to a narrative is unlikely to enhance its transmission. Upal (2011) argues
171 that the cohesion of the narrative is a key mediating factor in its memorability and calls into
172 question the idea that there is a specific cognitive optimum for all narratives. Stubbersfield
173 and Tehrani (2013) used computational phylogenetic methods to examine MCI in the
174 evolution of the urban legend ‘Bloody Mary’, and found that intuitive concepts were found to
175 be equally stable in transmission, suggesting that MCI bias functions on the narrative as a
176 whole, rather than on individual concepts within it.

177

178 **Stereotype Consistency Bias**

179

180 Cultural stereotypes are social representations about social groups which are likely to arise
181 from the cognitive processes of sense-making and conventionalisation (Bangerter, 2000;
182 Kashima, 2000). It has been suggested by a number of researchers that information which
183 conforms to stereotypical assumptions is more likely to be transmitted than information that
184 conflicts with them. Fyock and Stangor's (1994) meta-analysis found that people recalled
185 stereotype-consistent (SC) information better than stereotype-inconsistent (SI) information,
186 when presented with both. More recently support for bias SC content in transmission has
187 been demonstrated experimentally by Kashima (2000) and Bangerter (2000), although
188 Kashima (2000) did find an advantage for SI content in the earlier positions of a transmission
189 chain, perhaps suggesting an advantage for SI content in individual recall. Importantly
190 however, the extent to which people hold these stereotypes as true affects the degree of bias
191 in transmission, as does an in-group out-group effect; participants are more likely to view an
192 out-group's behaviour as homogenous compared to the behaviour of their in-group (Kashima,
193 2000). Interestingly, Lyons and Kashima (2006) found that SC content was preferentially
194 retained only where participants had communicative intent (i.e. they were aware that material
195 was being passed on to another participant); chains which only featured cumulative recall
196 showed no SC bias. This suggests that some content biases might influence the selection of
197 information for transmission, rather than its encoding and recall.

198

199 **Applying the Theory: A Case Study of Urban Legends**

200

201 The research summarized above suggests there are a number of cognitive dispositions that
202 probably favour the transmission of certain types of story content, and may make us
203 susceptible to apocryphal and potentially even harmful narratives. With that in mind, we turn
204 now to an empirical study in which we investigated whether there is any evidence for these
205 biases in a popular and well-documented genre of contemporary storytelling: urban legends.
206 Urban legends are apocryphal stories that are told as true (Brunvand, 2000; Tangherlini,
207 1990), involve a contemporary setting (Brunvand, 2000), and feature a single event as the
208 core of the narrative (Tangherlini, 1990). Historically, these legends have been transmitted
209 through word-of-mouth but more recently their transmission has been accelerated by through
210 electronic media (Brunvand, 2000; Fox Tree & Weldon 2007). Popular urban legends can be
211 widespread and influence individual behaviour (see Best & Horiuchi, 1985 for parents’
212 reactions to the ‘razor blade in apple’ legend), negatively impact on businesses (‘Chinese
213 restaurant bankruptcy fear’, 2011) and inspire horror movies such as *Candyman* (Rose,
214 Barker & Golin, 1992) and *Urban Legend* (Blanks, Matthews, McDonnell, & Monitz, 1998).
215 Given that most urban legends are not based on true events (and are often easy to disprove),
216 their popularity cannot be explained in simple utilitarian terms, however, following the
217 research reviewed above, we can hypothesise that their success may be due to their ability to
218 exploit adaptive learning biases and/or their by-products.

219

220

Method

221

222 **Material**

223

224 Two-hundred and sixty urban legends were collected from the *Urban Legends Reference*
225 *Pages* (www.snopes.com) using the ‘randomizer’ function which provides a random selection
226 of one legend from their database of thousands. The *Urban Legends Reference Pages* is the
227 most complete collection of urban legends available and has been praised by folklorists
228 knowledgeable in the field such as Brunvand (Seipp, 2004). It has also been used as a source
229 for material in other studies examining biases in cultural evolution (see Fessler, Pisor, &
230 Navarrete, 2014). For the purposes of this study urban legends were defined as apocryphal
231 narratives, told as true, involving a contemporary setting and featuring or referencing a single
232 event as the core of their narrative. As the *Urban Legends Reference Pages* applies a more
233 expansive use of the term ‘urban legend’ than is used here, also including rumours, trivia,
234 hoaxes, common misconceptions and misinformation, only legends which met the above
235 criteria were used in analysis. To meet the criteria of being an ‘apocryphal narrative’ only
236 those legends which have been rated by the *Urban Legends Reference Pages* as ‘False’ or
237 ‘Legend’ were used (complete details on the *Urban Legends Reference Pages* rating system
238 can be found at <http://www.snopes.com/info/ratings.asp>). Two-hundred and sixty legends
239 were originally collected as it was felt that this number was large enough to provide a
240 representative sample with potentially all biases being represented. During analysis six of
241 these were rejected for not matching the criteria for an urban legend described above, leaving
242 254 legends in the final sample. When multiple variants of a legend were presented, only the
243 first variant presented was collected for the study

244

245 **Coding**

246

247 The collected legends were coded for the presence of biases using NVivo 10 (QSR
248 International, 2012). These biases included emotional content (subdivided into anger,
249 amusement, disgust, and fear), MCI content, social content (subdivided into social, social
250 context, and social gossip), stereotype consistency (subdivided into male behaviour, female
251 behaviour, race/nationality, and regional), and survival information (subdivided into high and
252 low). See Table 1 for the coded biases and the definitions used.

253 The emotions coded were anger, disgust, fear, and amusement. The first three of these
254 emotions are taken directly from Ekman's (1992) list of Basic Emotions. Of the six Basic
255 Emotions sadness was not coded due to research suggesting it does not enhance transmission
256 (Berger & Milkman, 2009) and surprise was not coded due to its neutral valence. Amusement
257 (also referred to as mirth, exhilaration [McGhee, 1979; Ruch, 1993] or joy [Panksepp &
258 Burgdorf, 2003]), was chosen for coding in place of happiness for a number of reasons. First,
259 it was thought that material deliberately intending to elicit amusement would be easier for
260 coders to recognize than happiness. Second, as in the other emotions coded, amusement is
261 thought to have an adaptive function (Gervais & Wilson, 2005). Third, Ekman (1999)
262 suggests that amusement shares characteristics with the six Basic Emotions and included it in
263 an expanded list. All four of the emotions coded are characterized by high-arousal, are cross-
264 culturally recognized and have been included in studies examining emotion in transmission
265 (Eriksson & Coultas, 2014; Meagher, Arnau & Rhudy, 2001; Ruch, 1993; Russell &
266 Mehrabian, 1974).

267 To assess inter-rater reliability an independent coder, blind to the hypothesis, coded a
268 sample of 50 randomly selected legends. They were provided with the coding definitions (see
269 Table 1) and instructed to code as present any biases that they believed were featured in the
270 legends. The coding of the second coder and the researcher was highly consistent, being in
271 88% agreement for all biases coded.

272

273

274

[Table 1 about here]

275

276

Results

277

278 The majority of urban legends coded were shown to feature content which exploits cognitive
279 biases. Examples of legends can be found in the supplementary material (SM). Biases for
280 emotional content, MCI, social information, ecological survival information and stereotype
281 consistency were all represented, with 92% of legends featuring at least one bias (see Table 2
282 for frequency of biases coded and Table S1 in SM for the frequency of specific biases).

283

284 [Table 2 about here]

285

286 **Emotional Bias**

287

288 One of the two biases most frequently coded as present was emotional content (present in
289 78% of the legends). The bias was subdivided into four emotions, three which are
290 characterised by negative valence and high arousal: anger, disgust and fear (Russell &
291 Mehrabian, 1974; Meagher et al., 2001), and one which is characterised by positive valence
292 and high arousal: amusement (Ruch, 1993). Of these, amusement was the most frequent (47%

293 of legends). Fear and disgust occurred at a frequency of 14% and 13% respectively. Anger
294 was the least frequent (4% of legends).

295

296 **Social Information Bias**

297

298 Social information was one of the two most frequently coded biases (77% of legends). Social
299 information was subdivided into three levels: social context, social and social gossip (see
300 Table 1 for definitions). Of these levels, social was the most frequently coded (49% of
301 legends). 18% of legends contained social context and 9% contained social gossip.

302

303 **Ecological Survival Information Bias**

304

305 Ecological survival information was present in 27% of legends. This bias was subdivided into
306 two levels: high, concerning serious injury or death, and low, concerning injury or potential
307 injury. Of these levels high survival information was the most frequently coded (20% of
308 legends), low survival information was present in 7% of legends.

309

310 **Stereotype Consistency Bias**

311

312 Stereotype consistent behaviour was present in 23% of the legends. Stereotypical behaviour
313 based on race or nationality was the most frequent (9%). Other stereotypes included gender

314 stereotypes (7% stereotypical male behaviour, 5% stereotypical female behaviour). Only 2%
315 contained stereotypical behaviour based on region. No legends were coded as featuring
316 stereotype inconsistent behaviour.

317

318 **Minimally Counterintuitive (MCI) Bias**

319

320 MCI was the least frequently coded bias (6% of legends). Each MCI legend was coded for
321 the number of counterintuitive objects or concepts. The number of counterintuitive features
322 present ranged from 1-2. 93% of the MCI legends featured just one MCI object or concept.

323

324 **Multiple Biases**

325

326 76% of the legends featured two or more biases, with the majority of legends featuring two
327 (see Figure 1).

328

329 [Figure 1 around here]

330

331 There were a number of common combinations (see Tables 3 and S1 for the frequency of
332 combined biases).

333

334

[Table 3 around here]

335

336 Amusement and Social Information were found together in 31% of the legends, Survival
337 (High) and Fear were found together in 11% of the legends and Survival (High) and Disgust
338 were found in 5% of the legends. All legends featuring stereotype consistent content, also
339 featured social information and amusement, below is an example of one such legend:

340

341 **Stereotype-Social-Amusement Legend Example**

342 *A few Decembers ago Japanese department store, desperate to appear westernised*
343 *and with-it, mounted an extravagant Christmas display, featuring a life-sized Santa*
344 *Claus, crucified upon a cross.*

345

346 An abridged example of a legend featuring ecological survival information and fear content is
347 below:

348

349 **Survival-Fear Legend**

350 *Don't forget to look !!! This is really scary ...the mystery behind a recent spate of*
351 *deaths has been solved...3 women in Chicago, turned up at hospitals over a 5 day*
352 *period, all with the same symptoms. Fever, chills, and vomiting, followed by muscular*
353 *collapse, paralysis, and finally, death... It was discovered, however, that they had all*
354 *visited the same restaurant.....one toxicologist... drove out to the restaurant, went*
355 *into the restroom, and lifted the toilet seat. Under the seat, out of normal view, was*

356 *small spider.....So please, before you use a public toilet, lift the seat to check for*
357 *spiders.*

358 *It can save your life!...*

359

360 The example below featured survival information and disgusting content:

361

362 **Survival-Disgust Legend**

363 *An old lady ordered out for Kentucky Fried Chicken. She was eating along when she*
364 *noticed teeth; she pulled back the crust and discovered she was eating a rat. She had*
365 *a heart attack and died, and her relatives sued Kentucky Fried Chicken for a lot of*
366 *money.*

367

368 **No Biases**

369

370 No biases were coded in 8% of the legends (n = 20).

371

372 **Discussion**

373

374 This study set out to investigate the role of content biases in the transmission of urban
375 legends. The results provide compelling evidence that the content and popularity of urban

376 legends has been influenced by cognitive biases. Over 90% of the legends included in this
377 analysis contained at least one bias. This is consistent with experimental studies
378 demonstrating superior recall and fidelity of transmission of information that exploit biases.
379 They are also in line with studies of traditional folklore suggesting that successful tales and
380 myths frequently reflect these biases (Barrett, Burdett, & Porter, 2009; Norenzayan et al.,
381 2006; Sugiyama, 2001).

382 Only a small minority of legends were coded as featuring no biases. One possible
383 explanation of this relates to the individual version of a legend which was coded. Any legend,
384 urban or traditional, is likely to exist in multiple versions due to the infidelity of cultural
385 transmission. These versions will vary in content to some degree and some will be more
386 culturally successful than others. It is likely that when looking at multiple versions of the one
387 legend more versions would exploit at least one bias than none.

388

389

390 **Are some biases more important in transmission than others?**

391

392 Content which would exploit emotional bias was one of the most frequently coded biases
393 (78%), being found in the majority of legends, with all of the emotions coded characterised
394 by high arousal. This provides good evidence for an emotional content bias in the
395 transmission of narrative. This bias was rarely found on its own (3% of the legends were
396 coded as only featuring emotional bias) suggesting that high emotional content grants a
397 transmission advantage to a narrative but this is mostly in addition to another content bias.
398 The most frequently coded emotion bias was amusement, being coded as present more
399 frequently than both disgust and fear put together. The results suggest that ‘funny stories’
400 (Example 1) are found more frequently than ‘disgusting stories’ (Example 8) or ‘scary

401 stories' (Example 7). This is consistent with previous research examining emotional bias in
402 transmission has found a potential cross-cultural advantage for amusing content (Eriksson,
403 Coultas & de Barra, 2016) but is perhaps counter to the common conception of urban
404 legends. Based on these results it is feasible that positively valenced narratives may feature a
405 transmission advantage over negatively valenced narratives, however, this is not definitive
406 and further research examining emotional bias is required to establish if and how it varies
407 between emotions evoked and what effect this has on transmission.

408 Over three quarters of urban legends coded contained social information, a finding
409 consistent with experimental studies (Mesoudi, Whiten & Dunbar, 2006; Stubbersfield,
410 Tehrani & Flynn, 2015). This is a far greater than the number of legends containing
411 ecological survival information. Social information bias was the bias most frequently coded
412 as the sole bias in a narrative (9% of the legends were coded as only featuring social bias),
413 suggesting that a social information bias provides enough of an advantage alone for some
414 transmission success. Celebrities (such as Elvis and Priscilla Presley) were sometimes
415 featured in legends containing social information, perhaps because they represent people that
416 a large number of people are familiar with and therefore provide relevant social information
417 to a wide audience.

418 One of the more unexpected results of Mesoudi, Whiten and Dunbar (2006) was that
419 social non-gossip was transmitted just as well as gossip, suggesting that the intensity of social
420 relationships described in the information has no effect on the fidelity of transmission but
421 what is important is some form of third party interaction. A similar result was found in the
422 current study as the social sub-category (which featured the same definition as Mesoudi et
423 al.'s social non-gossip) was coded as present more frequently than the social gossip sub-
424 category. This result is consistent with the expectation that gossip would not be more
425 frequent than social non-gossip. In general, these results are consistent with the predictions

426 based on the *Machiavellian Intelligence* or *Social Brain* hypotheses and suggest that humans
427 are highly susceptible to narratives featuring social information content.

428 Over a quarter of legends were coded as featuring ecological survival information.
429 This provides support for a survival information bias (Nairne & Pandeirada, 2008; Nairne et
430 al., 2007; Kang et al., 2008; Otgaar et al., 2010; Weinstein et al., 2008) and is consistent with
431 the oral narratives of foraging peoples (Sugiyama, 2001). The consistency with the latter is
432 noteworthy, given the radical differences in the contexts of transmission. One might expect
433 ecological information to be less salient to post-industrial populations than to foragers, who
434 depend on detailed knowledge of their environments to survive. However, the popularity of
435 urban legends concerned with health risks and environmental hazards, such as food
436 contamination (e.g. the ‘Kentucky fried rat’ example) suggests that ecological survival bias
437 still plays an important role in the spread and persistence of narratives in the developed
438 world. In most cases, it seems unlikely that the legends actually contain useful survival-
439 relevant information, however, legends such as the ‘razor blade in the apple’ did affect
440 behaviour on a wide scale despite its false premises (see Best & Horiuchi, 1985). The
441 successful transmission of a legend would appear to be based more on our *susceptibility* to
442 information about survival, rather than the *usefulness* of the information itself.

443 Of the legends coded, 23% featured behaviour consistent with cultural stereotypes of
444 race, nationality, gender and region but none were coded as featuring stereotype inconsistent
445 behaviour. This is generally consistent with the literature; Fyock and Stangor (1994) and
446 Clark and Kashima (2007) suggest that SC content has a transmission advantage. The nature
447 of stereotype consistent information means that it was never seen in isolation as a bias and
448 has a strong association with social information and the emotion amusement. They were
449 almost consistently ‘funny stories’ with the amusement being found in cultural stereotypes.
450 Future research needs to examine whether the transmission advantage provided by stereotype

451 consistent content is actually due to the advantage provided by social information and if these
452 two biases can be separated.

453 MCI was the least frequent bias, as only 6% of the legends were coded as containing
454 this bias. This was unexpected as traditional folklore and myth commonly features MCI
455 content (Barrett, Burdett, & Porter, 2009; Norenzayan et al., 2006). The number of
456 counterintuitive characters found in each legend is consistent with the cognitive optimum of
457 1-2 suggested by Barrett, Burdett and Porter (2009), however, with the majority (93%) only
458 featuring one counterintuitive character they generally fall below the cognitive optimum of 2-
459 3 suggested by Norenzayan et al. (2006). Where MCI content is featured it is generally in
460 reference to a ghost. References to other MCI characters which are found in traditional
461 folklore, such as talking animals, are apparently non-existent in urban legends. The low
462 frequency of legends containing MCI information could be explained by genre categorisation.
463 Contemporary folklore which features MCI content is usually categorised as ‘ghost stories’ or
464 cryptozoology and UFO tales rather than urban legends. Another possible explanation could
465 be the relative ages of traditional folklore and urban legends, it is feasible that the MCI urban
466 legends will survive transmission for many years longer than the non-MCI urban legends.

467

468

469 **Do content biases tend to occur individually or in combination with other biases?**

470

471 The majority of legends were coded as featuring more than one bias (see Figure 1),
472 suggesting that exploiting multiple biases provides a greater transmission advantage to a
473 narrative. In the majority of legends, however, a combination of two biases was the highest
474 number featured, suggesting an optimum number of biases to be combined for a transmission
475 advantage. One possible explanation for this is that biases are exploited by content and that

476 with more biases there would be more content which could make the narrative overly
477 complex and unmemorable. Another possible explanation is that different biases may conflict
478 with each other, making the narrative nonsensical or unappealing. As Upal (2011) has
479 suggested, with counterintuitive characters in a narrative, the legend must remain coherent to
480 be memorable so there is likely to be a limit to the amount of biased content which can be
481 included before the narrative loses coherence. Multiple biases appearing together is also seen
482 in model-based biases (Wood, Kendal, & Flynn, 2013). In this case children have been shown
483 to calibrate across multiple model-based biases and certain biases will dominate over others.
484 Content biases could function in a similar way, with certain biases granting a greater
485 transmission advantage than others. As yet research into content biases has focused on
486 individual biases, however, Stubbersfield et al (2015) found that stories which combined
487 survival and social information had a transmission advantage over those solely featuring
488 survival information but were transmitted with equal fidelity to those featuring solely social
489 information. Seeing which biases are combined and the frequency of their combination with
490 other biases could suggest the relative strength of a bias in transmission.

491 Social information was by far the most frequent single bias, suggesting it provides
492 enough of a transmission advantage in itself, a finding consistent with Stubbersfield et al
493 (2015). Other biases were also frequently combined with social information. The most
494 frequent combinations suggest certain common ‘story types’ which are culturally successful.
495 The most common ‘story type’ among the legends collected for this study was the ‘funny
496 story’; these legends combined social information and amusement. Another ‘story type’
497 would be the ‘scary story’ or ‘warning’, combining survival information and fear and
498 structured as a warning against certain behaviour. ‘Scary’ legends frequently emphasise the
499 truth of the information and often urge the receiver to transmit the content. Another common
500 ‘story type’ that could be viewed as the stereotypical urban legend is the ‘disgusting story’

501 which combines disgust and survival information. These different story types suggest that
502 some biases may complement each other and generate a greater transmission advantage and
503 therefore be frequently found together.

504 Another question that arises from legends featuring multiple biases is: are the biases
505 all contributing to a transmission advantage or is some biased content ‘riding’ on the
506 transmission advantage of another? For example, the majority of survival information was
507 coded as high survival (information relevant to serious injury or death) so feasibly the
508 cultural success of urban legends which feature survival content owe their success to also
509 exploiting emotional biases such as fear or disgust (77% of legends which were coded as
510 featuring high survival information were also coded as evoking fear or disgust) rather than
511 combining survival information and emotional content. The results of Stubbersfield et al
512 (2015) discussed above suggest that the prevalence of threats and hazards found in urban
513 legends may be due to their combination with social information bias or emotional bias,
514 rather than a strong susceptibility to survival-related content per se.

515

516 **How universal are content biases?**

517

518 The assumption of content biases is that they exploit shared cognitive dispositions towards
519 certain properties of cultural items. A criticism of this is that the majority of the research
520 examining content biases has used participants from nations described by Henrich, Heine and
521 Norenzayan (2010a) as western, educated, industrialised, rich and democratic (WEIRD).
522 People from WEIRD nations represent only 12% of the world’s population and could be
523 considered psychologically unusual (Arnett, 2008; Henrich, Heine & Norenzaya, 2010b). As
524 such the results of such studies may not be generalisable to humans as a whole. The urban
525 legends presented here are collected from western, English-speaking countries and as such

526 may only reflect the content biases of people from WEIRD nations. There is evidence,
527 however, to suggest that the same content biases are present in the folklore of non-WEIRD
528 nations. Studies have found evidence for content biases using traditional, pre-industrial
529 folklore such as fairy tales (Barrett, Burdett, & Porter, 2009; Norenzayan et al., 2006) and, as
530 discussed above, the oral narratives of foraging people can be seen to contain information
531 relevant to survival and social interaction (Sugiyama, 2001). Some of the *Setsumu bungaku*
532 (tale literature) of Japan's Kamakura period (1185-1333) frequently feature motifs related to
533 survival information (i.e. food contamination stories or tales of unpleasant death) and social
534 information (i.e. tales involving social interaction and social embarrassment) which bear
535 striking similarities to contemporary, Western urban legends (Schaefer, 1990). Given the
536 presence of biased content in this diverse, international range of folklore it is plausible to
537 suggest that content biases (or some of them at least) are shared universally, however, the
538 relative frequencies examined here may vary significantly. For instance, social information is
539 likely to be particularly salient cross-culturally, as all humans live in social groups, but the
540 frequency of survival information found in stories may vary on how dangerous the
541 ecological environment is, or how reliant on the local ecological environment one is for food.
542 Examining how the relative frequency of content biases is reflected in folklore cross-
543 culturally presents an interesting avenue for future research and would go towards examining
544 how truly universal these biases are.

545

546 **Conclusions**

547

548 In sum, this study has found compelling evidence that the popularity and longevity of urban
549 legends can be explained, at least in part, by cognitive biases to learn and transmit certain

550 kinds of information content. We argue that, although it is likely that most of these
551 dispositions were selected for in our evolutionary past, they make us susceptible to narratives
552 that may have no adaptive value in themselves, such as urban legends (see Sperber, 1996).
553 Evidence was found for all of the content biases which have been suggested by experimental
554 research. The distributions of content biases suggest humans are especially susceptible to
555 narratives containing social information. This finding supports the hypothesis that human
556 cognition was shaped to a greater degree by selective pressures from the social environment
557 than the natural environment. The results further suggest that combining biases together in a
558 single narrative could confer a greater transmission advantage than a single bias alone,
559 although further research needs to be conducted to examine how biases can combine and the
560 effects of this on transmission. Last of all, I emphasise that in discussing ‘susceptibilities’ we
561 eschew any pejorative implications associated with the term. Occasionally urban legends may
562 be harmful, but on the whole they are entertaining and fun (as evidenced by the frequency of
563 amusing themes). Sometimes they may even be therapeutic, providing ways of making sense
564 of a frightening or unpredictable world. Above all, urban legends are catchy, and by
565 investigating the underlying psychological factors that make them so, we have demonstrated
566 the value of a cognitive and cultural evolution approach to examining storytelling.

567

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572

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