

Learning Outcomes

1

- After the session and appropriate reading you should be able to:
 - Have an understanding of what an attribution is.
 - Demonstrate an understanding of several attribution theories.
 - Have considered cognitive accounts of how and why people explain events.
 - Describe a number of errors and biases in the attributional process

What is an Attribution

2

- Attribution is the process of assigning causal explanation to own or others' behaviour
- Helps us understand our own and others' behaviour
 - Predict & Control social world (Heider, 1958)
- To infer intentions and behaviour – predict another's behaviour in future
- Quality ascribed to or imputed to a person or situation.
- To assign essential characteristics
- Categorise as a result

Attribution Process

3

- “What CAUSED this behaviour?”
- “.....the process of assigning a cause to one’s own or another’s behaviour” (Hogg & Vaughan, 1995).
- “.....the attempt to identify what factors gave rise to what outcomes” (Fiske & Taylor, 1991).
- Attribution theory not a single theory
 - General approach to understanding how people explain causes of behaviour

Why use Causal Explanation

4

- Impose understanding, predictability & control upon events
- causal explanations impose clarity & lessen ambiguity
- Causal explanations simplify complex behaviours & facilitate the creation of inferences (or stereotypes)
- Social psychologists use attribution theories to understand causal inferences.

Attribution Process

5

- The factors & perceptions people use in order to create a causal explanation
- Attribution process is the understanding of factors used in formulating explanation
- The process of making inferences about behaviour
- Attributional style: An individual's predisposition to make certain causal explanations
 - Dispositional (internal), Situational (external)

Dispositional & Situational Attributions

6

- Internal (dispositional) attribution: internal characteristics such as attitude, mood or personality
- External (situational) attribution: behaviour has been caused by some outside factors
 - Observer implies the actor could not help it, he/she had no control over it
- Planned behaviours = internal attribution
- Involuntary behaviours = internal or external
- Type of attribution made related to perceived responsibility for actions

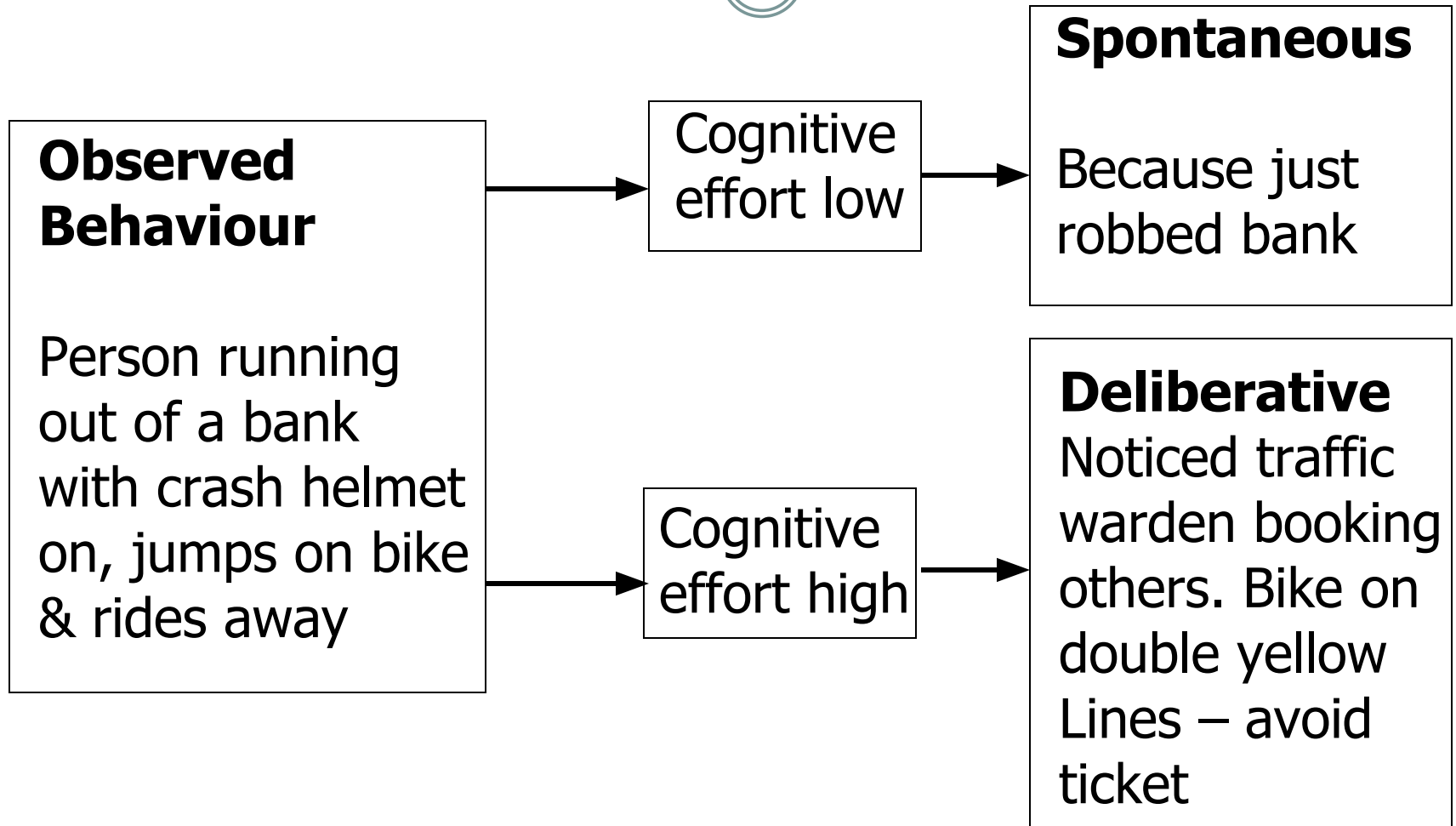
Spontaneous & Deliberative Attributions

7

- Spontaneous: without consciously thinking about alternative possible causes e.g. individuation processes
 - Stereotyping & impression formation
 - Little cognitive effort
- Deliberative: consciously think about behaviour plus social context
 - Cognitive effort high
- Motivation = deliberation (Fisk & Neuberg, 1990)
- Happy mood = spontaneous (Fisk & Taylor, 1991)

Spontaneous & Deliberative Attributions: Example

8



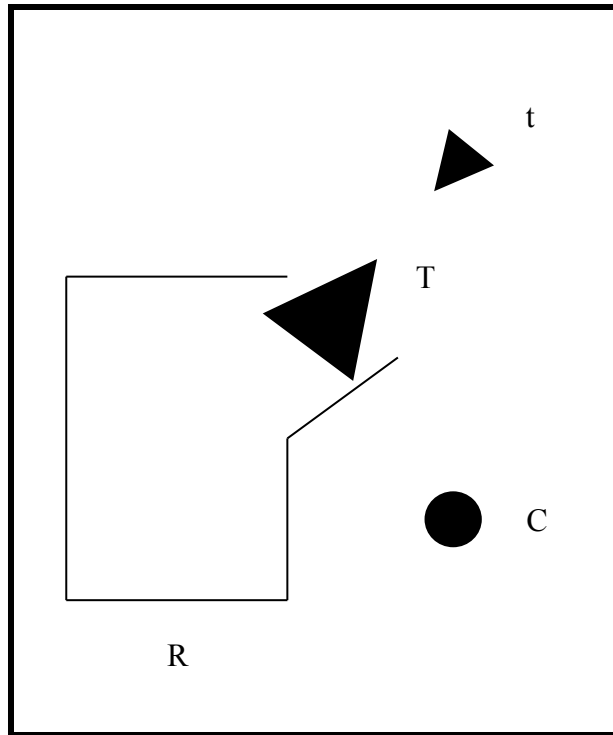
Some Early Attribution Theories

9

- Heider & Simmel (1944) hypothesised that:
 - People perceive behaviour as being caused
 - The causes of behaviour are inside or outside of the person and in some cases both
 - People give causal attributions even to inanimate objects.
- Heider (1958) advised social psychologists to assume people were naïve/lay scientists who used rational processes to explain events
 - Social cognition: assumption of.....

Attribution of inanimate objects

10



- Short films involving shapes
- “What did you see in the film?”
- Intentions & motives in behaviour of shapes
- Personal characteristics to shapes

Naive scientist (Heider, 1958)

11

- Use of cause-effect processes to make sense of the environment.
- Search for causes to understand motivation of others.
- Motivated to predict environment.
 - Look for stable, enduring traits.
- Distinguish between personal factors (internal) and environmental factors (external).

Correspondence Inference Theory

12

- Jones & Davis (1965)
- Use information about another person's behaviour and its 'effects' to draw a **correspondent inference**
- Observe behaviour then make inference that corresponds to whether we think the behaviour is attributable to a dispositional / internal / personality / trait characteristic.
- Things that are enduring and stable within an individual.
- **But HOW do we do this?**

Correspondence Inference Theory

13

- ‘Internal’ cognitive questioning
- **Q1: Were the effects of someone’s behaviour intended?**
 - We are more likely to draw a correspondent inference if the behaviour appears **intentional** than when it is unintentional.
 - Intention is important: Individual must know the consequences of their action and have the ability to carry out the action.
 - **Key assumption:** Behaviour voluntary and free will
 - No inferences over involuntary behaviour
- **Q2: Were the effects of the behaviour socially desirable?**
 - We are more likely to decide there is a correspondence when the effects of the behaviour are deemed **socially undesirable**.

Correspondence Inference Theory

14

- Q3: Does the behaviour of the person impact on me?
 - Impact on person making the attribution = dispositional attribution
 - = Hedonic relevance
- Summary
- We seek to infer that an observed act, *and the intention behind it*, correspond to an underlying stable quality or disposition in the person carrying out that behaviour.
- People strive to make correspondent inferences because a dispositional cause is a stable one □ predictability □ sense of control

CIT: Problems

15

- Can the attributor categorise behaviour as voluntary?
 - What if we have NO prior knowledge of the person?
- How do we then combine the information re intention, social desirability & hedonic relevance to make the final attribution?
 - *Answer: We can change the dispositional attribution made (Gilbert et al, 1988)*
 - Correspondence inference is a relatively **automatic** process (Gilbert & Malone, 1995) whereas correcting dispositional attributions in the light of situational factors suggests more **deliberative** processing.
- Only about *internal attributions*

A Two-Step Model of Causal Attribution

16

Gilbert & Malone (1995)

- Observed Behaviour
- Dispositional Attribution
- Situational Attribution / Correction
- Re-defined Dispositional Attribution

Automatic Step
Default

Effortful / Deliberative
Step:

Co-Variation Model (Kelley, 1967, 1963).

17

- The naive scientist view.
- People calculate how a number of factors co-vary with observed behaviour and make attribution based on this.
- This *co-variation principle* predicts whether to attribute a behaviour to **internal** or **external** factors.
- Factors for covariation
 - Consistency, Distinctiveness, Consensus.

Kelly's (1967) Co-variation Model

18

- Accounts for dispositional (internal) and situational (external) attributions
- 3 types of information used to make attributions
- How these co-vary determines type of attribution made
- Each has high and low value

Kelley (1967): ANOVA Theory

19

● **Distinctiveness**

- *How does the person act when in similar situations ?*
 - High distinctiveness = behaviour is 'unique' to this situation – the individual never behaves this way in other situations
 - Low distinctiveness = behaviour is 'typical' of these situations – the individual behaves this way in most other situations.

● **Consistency**

- Does the person or object behave in this way in similar circumstances? Does the person behave similarly across time?
 - High consistency when the individual always behaves this way in this situation – when the behaviour has been seen before
 - Low consistency is when this is a new behaviour – the individual never behaves this way in this situation

● **Consensus**

- *Do other people behave in the same way (i.e. like this person) in response to the stimulus (i.e. in similar situations)?*
 - High consensus is when other people act like the person in question
 - Low consensus is when people act differently than the person in question

An Example.....

20

- David attend one of my lectures and tells you that he liked it very much
- Can and how do we attribute this behaviour (i.e. liking) to
 - David
 - The lecture
 - The circumstances
- *Distinctiveness*
 - If David likes all lectures and has same reaction the information is **low** in distinctiveness
 - If David likes my lectures and does not have the same reaction to other lectures distinctiveness is **high**

An Example.....

21

● Consensus

- Does David's reaction to my lecture show consensus?
- If everybody else says the lecture was great, David's reaction = **high** in consensus
- If few people liked the lecture = **low** consensus

● Consistency

- If we assume that David has seen a number of my lectures, did he like them each time he attended?
- If yes = **High** consistency
- If no = **Low** consistency

Making the Attribution: Example



Attribute to:	David -Internal -Dispositional	Lecture -External -Entity	Circumstances External Specific Situational
<i>Distinctiveness</i>	LOW	HIGH	HIGH
<i>Consensus</i>	LOW	HIGH	LOW
<i>Consistency</i>	HIGH	HIGH	LOW

Accounting for “one-offs”

23

- The three sources of info not available
- Observe “one-off” behaviours
- Kelly (1972): use **discounting** or **augmenting** principle in these instances
- Discounting = attach less importance to one cause when other causes present
- Augmenting = attach less importance to one cause when behaviour happened in presence of inhibiting factors
- Also use **causal schemas** – causal generalisations

Co-Variation Model: Evaluation

24

- Not all information types used all of the time
 - Consensus least used information source
- Significant cognitive effort required
 - Too busy to attend to information
- Not all information types always available
- Only unexpected events, or threat-related events, lead people to use the three information sources in the way claimed by Kelley

Weiner's (1986) Attribution Model

25

- Specific for attributions of **success** or **failure** (*achievement*)
- Attributions made generates *expectations* for the future
- Three separate dimensions to make the attribution
 - Locus – internal (person), external (situation)
 - Stability – whether locus factor stable over time
 - Controllability – whether performance under personal control
- Eight possible combination i.e. $2 \times 2 \times 2$

Dimensions & Combinations



	Internal		External	
	<i>Stable</i>	<i>Unstable</i>	<i>Stable</i>	<i>Unstable</i>
<i>Controllable</i>	Usual Effort	Special Effort	Help / no-help from others	Special help / no help from others
<i>Uncontrollable</i>	Ability	Mood	Task difficulty	Luck / chance

Biases in Attribution

27

- Individual differences
 - Locus of control (Rotter, 1966)
- Cultural factors – personal vs. social identity
 - Differences in belief and value systems between cultures, resulting in corresponding differences in social explanation (Smith and Bond, 1998).
 - In Western cultures there is a tendency to make dispositional attributions (Ross, 1977), but this is much less so in more collectivist cultures (Shweder and Bourne, 1982).
- Fundamental attribution error
- Actor/observer bias
- False consensus effect

Fundamental Attribution Error

28

- Ross (1977): the tendency for people to make internal (dispositional) attributions regarding other people's behaviour.
- Applies only when making inferences about another's behaviour, not own behaviour.
- Heider (1958) – attentional factors
 - Default is to focus on the person behaving rather than situational cues
 - Person dominant in the perceiver's thinking
- FAE therefore spontaneous (automatic) rather than deliberative processing
- Gilbert's (1989) two stage model of the FAE

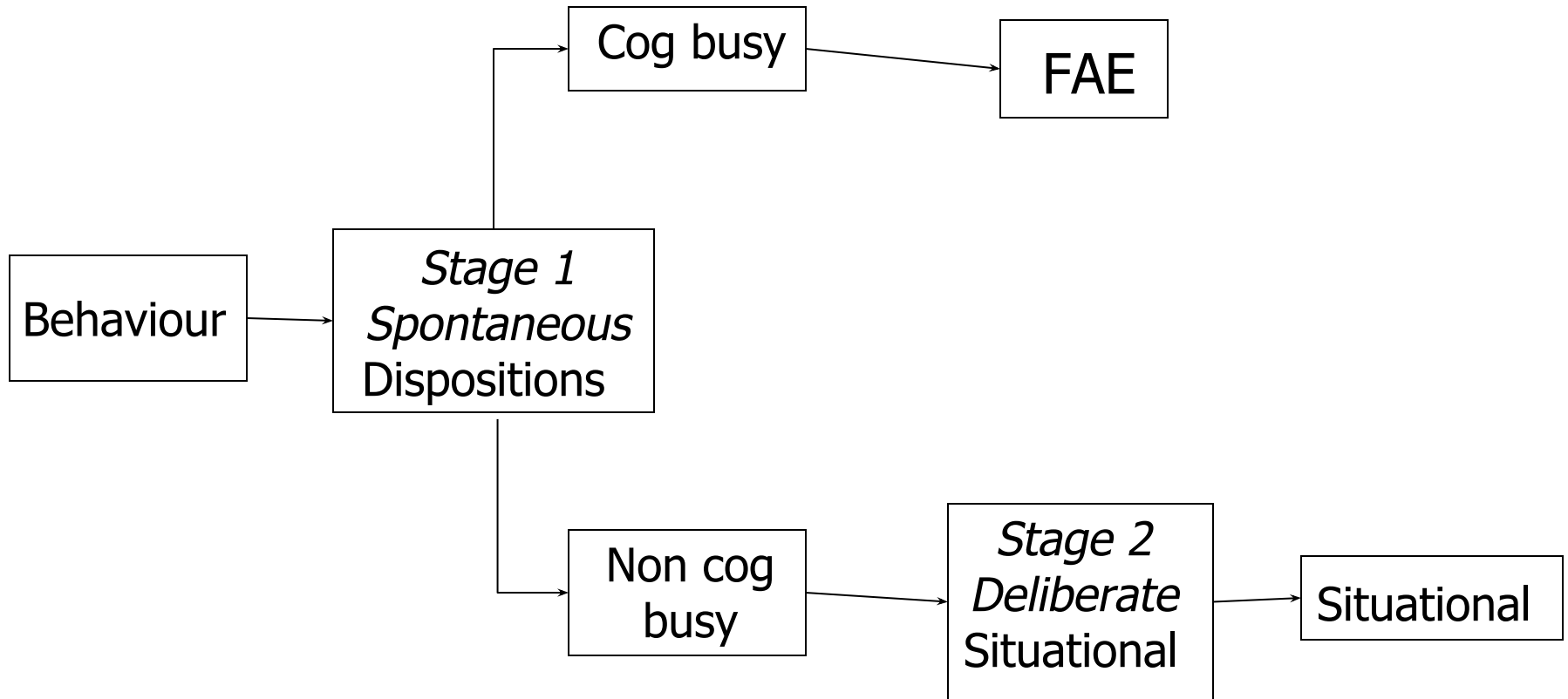
Why does the FAE operate as it does?

29

- Heider (1958), Taylor & Fisk (1975) – attentional factors
 - Default is to focus on the person behaving rather than situational cues
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Gilbert's (1989) two stage model

30



Actor-Observer Differences

31

- When explaining own behaviour (actor) - emphasis on situational
- When explaining another's (observer) – emphasis on dispositional
- Default is that attention focussed on situation (e.g. other's reactions to us) when analysing own behaviour
 - Greater information available for self-rating
- Can reverse effect by challenging the default
 - Making person consider non-default information i.e. dispositions for actor, situational for observer

Summary

32

- What is attribution theory?
 - Collection of theories that seek to understand how people assign causes to social events.
- Which theories/models are cognitive accounts of how and why people explain events?
 - CIT, Co-variation model, success-failure model, 2-stage model
- What are the main errors and biases in the attributional process?
 - Fundamental attribution error, actor-observer bias