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Object Personification in Autism: this paper will be very sad if you don't read it.

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Abstract

Object personification is the attribution of human characteristics to non-human agents. In online forums, autistic individuals commonly report experiencing this phenomenon. Given that approximately half of all autistic individuals experience difficulties identifying their own emotions, the suggestion that object personification may be a feature of autism seems almost paradoxical. Why would a person experience sympathy for objects, when they struggle to understand and verbalise the emotions of other people as well as their own? An online survey was used to assess tendency for personification in 87 autistic and 263 non-autistic adults. Together, our results indicate that object personification occurs commonly among autistic individuals, and perhaps more often (and later in life) than in the general population. Given that in many cases, autistic people report their personification experiences as distressing, it is important to consider the reasons for the increased personification, and identify structures for support.

In online forums, autistic individuals describe a special relationship with objects. They report, for example, that papers in a filing cabinet feel unloved, or that the last crisp in a packet is lonely¹. Savarese (2014) identified an “object-centred empathy” in the literary contributions (e.g., novels, essays) of autistic writers, and proposed that autistic individuals act like personifying poets. And yet, to the best of our knowledge, there have been no empirical studies investigating the first-hand experiences of *object personification* – the attribution of human-like qualities, such as gender, social and personality attributes to objects (Sobczak-Edmans & Sagiv, 2013) – in the everyday lives of autistic individuals. Specifically, we are interested in the spontaneous coupling of human-like qualities to everyday objects (e.g., furniture, gadgets, clothing, etc), rather than cartoons or abstract two-dimensional shapes. (Castelli, Frith, Happe, & Frith, 2002; Klin, 2000). In this Short Report, we take the first step towards understanding these experiences, reporting the results of an online survey involving 87 autistic adults, and 263 adults without autism.

Autism is a developmental condition thought to affect more than 1% of the UK population (Brugha et al., 2011). While severity and symptom profile vary across individuals, autism is clinically defined by deficits in social communication and interaction, and the presence of restricted and repetitive behaviours (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Theory of mind – the appreciation that other people have thoughts and beliefs that differ from one’s own – is thought to be impaired in many autistic individuals (Senju, Southgate, White, & Frith, 2009). Moreover, approximately half of all autistic individuals experience alexithymia (Bird & Cook, 2013), a condition characterised by difficulties identifying one’s own emotions. Given these challenges, the suggestion that object personification may be a feature of autism seems almost paradoxical. Why would a person

¹ For representative examples, see Slavin, 2015 (<http://adultswithautism.org.uk/autism-feeling-sympathy-for-objects/>) and WrongPlanet.net, 2017 (<http://wrongplanet.net/forums/viewtopic.php?t=336800>)

experience sympathy for objects, when they struggle to understand and verbalise the emotions of other people as well as their own? We set out to investigate whether the descriptions of object personification seen in online forums were representative of a large subset of the autistic population.

Methods

We carried out an online survey, administered via Survey Monkey, which comprised four parts: (1) demographic information; (2) the Autism Quotient 10 (AQ-10: Allison, Auyeung, & Baron-Cohen, 2012), a 10-item questionnaire shown to be an effective screen for autistic traits; (3) a bespoke set of questions assessing attitudes toward objects, asking whether participants ever view various object categories as having gender (yes/no), human-like attributes (yes/no), feelings (yes/no), or social roles/relationships (yes/no), and if so, how frequently (daily/weekly/monthly/rarely); (4) a 20-item Anthropomorphism Questionnaire (Neave, Jackson, Saxton, & Honekopp, 2015). Anthropomorphism is closely related to personification, and involves the attribution of human-like characteristics to a God, animals, non-human entities and objects. In psychology research, the two terms are often used interchangeably. The Anthropomorphism Questionnaire asks participants to report level of agreement with statements that involve the assumption that non-human objects have thoughts, feelings and motivations. An algorithm is then used to create a separate score for childhood and current (adult) behaviours.

The survey was advertised on social media and through the researchers' own networks. Particular efforts were made to reach autistic participants via online autism groups and existing databases held by the authors' research centres. Care was taken not to post information about the survey on personification-related internet groups, to guard against

artificially elevating the rates of personification within respondents. All procedures were approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the university, and all participants gave consent to take part in the study.

Results

416 people responded, 92 who reported a professional diagnosis of autism and 280 who reported being non-autistic. Those who did not answer regarding diagnostic status ($n = 17$), believed they had undiagnosed autism ($n = 22$), were in the process of pursuing a diagnosis ($n = 5$), or did not have English as their first language ($n = 22$) were excluded. Having English as a first language was required in order to avoid the confounding impact that having a first language with gendered nouns might have on personification rates (see discussion in Sagiv, Sobczak-Edmans, & Williams, 2017 regarding higher rates of grapheme personification in French-speaking populations compared to in English-speaking populations). Table 1 provides data for the resultant groups (87 autistic and 263 non-autistic individuals).

[Table 1 about here]

As expected, AQ10 scores were significantly higher in the autistic group (mean = 7.9) compared to the non-autistic group (mean = 2.2; $t(320) = 26.0$, $p < .001$, $d = 3.26$). A score of 6 or above on the AQ10 is considered an indication of autism.² Using results from Part 3 of the questionnaire, we created a variable to distinguish respondents who did and did not personify. Respondents were classed as ‘personifiers’ if they reported that objects had human-like traits or feelings, or provided a description consistent with personification in the ‘other’ response option, for example “has own thoughts”. The coding of these responses was

² In the autistic group, there were five individuals (6%) who did not reach this cut-off and 11 in the non-autistic group who scored over the cut-off (4.5%). Analyses were re-run with these individuals excluded, and all results remained unchanged. As such, and given that an autism diagnosis is not based on one questionnaire alone, these individuals were kept in the sample.

performed independently by both authors, with inter-rater reliability of 93%. Using this metric, there were significantly more personifiers in the autistic group (56%) than in the non-autistic group (33%; $\chi^2 = 13.8, p < .001, w = 0.2$). Autistic personifiers also reported experiencing the phenomenon more often (31% reporting daily personification) than non-autistic personifiers (16% daily) however this difference failed to reach significance $\chi^2 = 3.55, p = .059, w = 1.7$). The attribution of gender to objects did not differ between the autistic (33%) and non-autistic group (35%; $\chi^2 = .057, p = .811, w = .013$).

Overall scores for the Anthropomorphism Questionnaire were higher in the autistic group ($t(311) = 2.31, p = .02, d = .27$). In addition, the pattern across the two subscales revealed group differences. On the Childhood Subscale the average scores were very similar ($t(311) = .73, p = .47, d = .09$) however the autistic group more strongly endorsed statements from the General Subscale ($t(311) = 3.84, p < .001, d = .45$), suggesting that anthropomorphism more commonly persists into adulthood for autistic individuals than for those without the condition.

Given the gender imbalance between the groups (fewer males in the non-autistic group, as is often the case due to higher diagnosis rates of autism in males compared to females) differences in personification levels between the genders were calculated. Analyses indicated that females appear to have *higher* scores on the child sub-scale of the Anthropomorphism questionnaire ($t(308) = 2.18, p = .03, d = .30$). This suggests that – if anything – the differences between the autistic and non-autistic groups are underestimated in our results.

Discussion

Together, our results indicate that object personification occurs commonly among autistic individuals, and perhaps more often (and later in life) than in the general population. Though initially counter-intuitive, we posit various explanations. Personification may reduce social disconnection in autism. Autistic individuals report greater loneliness and social isolation (Causton-Theoharis, Ashby, & Cosier, 2009), and ascribing human-like qualities (e.g., free will) to non-human agents (e.g., alarm clocks, pillows) has been shown to reduce loneliness and promote social connection (Epley, Akalis, Waytz, & Cacioppo, 2008).

It may also be the case that personification is used to reduce uncertainty and thus alleviate anxiety in autism. Autistic individuals are often intolerant to uncertainty (Boulter, Freeston, South, & Rodgers, 2014), and experience considerable anxiety in unstructured environments. Ascribing human-like qualities to non-human agents has been shown to make these stimuli more predictable and understandable, thereby reducing uncertainty (Waytz, Morewedge, Epley, Monteleone, Gao, & Cacioppo, 2010). Indeed, personification may act as a bridge for autistic individuals. A recent review revealed that Theory of Mind deficits were ameliorated when assessing the mental states of anthropomorphic stimuli (e.g. cartoons) compared to human stimuli (Atherton & Cross, 2018).

Lastly, the personification exhibited by autistic individuals may be synaesthetic in nature. The prevalence of synaesthesia – atypical merging of sensory and cognitive constructs – is higher in autistic individuals than in the general population, with one study identifying synaesthesia in 31 of 164 autistic participants (Baron-Cohen, Johnson, Asher, Wheelwright, Fisher, Gregersen, & Allison, 2013). Moreover, synaesthetic variants involving the personification of ordinal linguistic units (e.g., letters, numbers, weekdays) and objects have been identified (Smilek et al., 2007). Of particular relevance to the current study, is recent

work highlighting that, in non-autistic individuals, synaesthetic personification may occur even in individuals who attain low scores on empathy measures (Amin et al., 2011). This observation has led to the suggestion that, in some individuals, personification may result from difficulties mentalising (e.g. using the wrong cues: Sagiv et al., 2017). Further investigation would establish which, if any, of these three hypotheses might be driving the increased rates of personification seen in autism.

To conclude, we have provided the first slice of empirical evidence to suggest that autistic individuals may demonstrate a propensity toward object personification and anthropomorphism. It must be noted that our clinical sample was based on self-report (rather than objectively verified diagnoses) and respondents were recruited via convenience sampling – both of which may reduce the generalisability of the findings. However the results appear to echo the anecdotal comments made by autistic individuals. Furthermore, in our review of online forums, we were struck by the distressing tone of many posts (WrongPlanet.net, 2017). Autistic individuals reported sadness and despair when faced with an object that might be hurt or lonely, and several asked whether they might receive “help for their problem”. It will be important for future work to establish the frequency with which object personification causes distress, and if necessary, to identify possible structures for providing support.

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Table 1: *Demographic information for autistic and non-autistic survey respondents (all percentages are valid percentages, and n values are given where there is missing data due to non-responses).*

Variable	Autistic group (n = 87)	Non-Autistic group (n = 263)
Age in Years	Frequency (%)	
16-24	23 (26)	22 (8)
25-34	33 (38)	99 (38)
35-44	13 (15)	69 (26)
45-54	13 (15)	36 (14)
55-64	4 (5)	26 (10)
65-74	1 (1)	11 (4)
Gender	Frequency (%)	
Male	40 (46)	36 (13.5)
Female	44 (51)	226 (86)
Other	3 (3)	1 (0.5)
AQ10	Mean (SD) [n = 78]	[n=244]
Score	7.9 (1.8)	2.2 (1.7)
Do you ever view objects as having:	Frequency (%*) [n = 75]	[n = 244]
Gender	25 (33)	85 (35)
Human-like attributes	26 (35)	53 (22)
Feelings	34 (45)	76 (31)
Other	12 (16)	7 (3)
None of the above	33 (44)	139 (57)
Regularity of personification:	Frequency (%) [n = 42 personifiers]	[n = 80 personifiers]
Rarely	12 (28)	30 (37.5)
Monthly	5 (12)	14 (17.5)
Weekly	7 (17)	20 (25)
Daily	13 (31)	13 (16)
Other	5 (12)	3 (4)
Anthropomorphism Questionnaire: Mean (SD)		
	[n = 75]	[n = 238]
Total score	36 (30)	29 (21)
Childhood subscale	20 (17)	18 (14)
General (adult) subscale	17 (15)	11 (10)

* Note that for the object-attributes question multiple responses could be selected, therefore percentage values are given as percentage of respondents who endorsed each response option.