WEB APPENDIX

A Sales Force–Specific Theory-of-Mind Scale: Tests of Its Validity by Multitrait–Multimethod Matrix, Confirmatory Factor Analysis, Structural Equation Models, and Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging

ROELAND C. DIETVORST, WILLEM J.M.I. VERBEKE, RICHARD P. BAGOZZI, CAROLYN YOON, MARION SMITS, and AAD VAN DER LUGT*

Web Appendix A

PRIMER ON fMRI AND SPECIFIC PROCEDURES USED

Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) is a tool for measuring brain activity over time. It can be used to produce activation maps showing which parts of the brain are involved in particular mental processes. The technique is non-invasive and the data have relatively good spatial and temporal resolution. Whereas conventional MRI provides images of structure (e.g., bone vs. muscle vs. fat), functional MRI provides images that estimate function (brain activity). During the past decade, fMRI has become an important research technique for studying normal brain functions in humans. The primer is necessarily brief; the reader is referred to standard references on fMRI methodology (Buxton 2002; Huettel, Song and McCarthy 2004) for more detailed discussions on key concepts presented in this section.

Data Acquisition

Both conventional MRI and fMRI work by sending out perfectly safe radiofrequency (RF) pulses and then listening for echoes. The RF pulses excite hydrogen protons (found in the water molecules throughout the body) into a higher energy state. When these protons relax into their lower energy state they emit a signal (or echo) that is detected by the MRI machine. The magnetic environment surrounding each proton influences how long it takes it to relax from the high-energy state to the low-energy state. Because bone, muscle, fat, and other types of tissues provide slightly different magnetic environments, the relaxation times of protons in these tissues are different. MRI can detect these differences and can therefore distinguish these different types of tissue.

Functional MRI works according to the same principles. It turns out that blood that is carrying oxygen provides a different magnetic environment than does blood that is not carrying oxygen. MRI machines can be tuned to be particularly sensitive to this difference. And because oxygenated blood tends to be sent to parts of the brain that are active, fMRI can be used to estimate neural activity. It is important to remember that fMRI does not measure neural activity directly, but rather a Blood Oxygen Level Dependent (BOLD) signal that is strongly correlated with neural activity. This BOLD signal tends to lag behind the associated neural activity and to be more spread out in time. Modeling the relationship between neural activity and the BOLD signal (the so-called hemodynamic response function) is therefore critical in analyzing fMRI data.

During a typical fMRI experiment, a subject participant is asked to lie still on his or her back in an MRI machine for up to 90 minutes. An experimental session usually consists of 4 or 5 anatomical/structural scans of the brain taken during either the first or last 6 to 15 minutes. The participant is simply asked to lie still during this period and is not performing any tasks. These anatomical scans serve two purposes. First, they are used as guides in specifying exactly where the functional data should be collected (e.g., throughout the brain, only in the frontal lobe). Second, they provide a high-resolution image of the brain anatomy upon which the functional data can be overlaid; without the anatomical landmarks in a high-resolution structural image, it would be very difficult to determine where any observed brain activity actually occurred.

Functional data are collected in a series of “runs” (usually 5-10), each of which lasts 3 to 10 minutes. During each run, the participant performs whatever tasks the experimenter has designed. Often visual stimuli are projected on a monitor in front of the participant (or onto goggles) and the participant can make responses by making finger presses on buttons. Auditory and tactile stimuli (and even tastes and smells) are sometimes used as well. Vocal responses have occasionally been used but doing so is problematic because it introduces head movement. While the task is being performed, the MRI scanner is recording the BOLD signal throughout the brain every couple of seconds. These images are then analyzed to localize different mental processes to different parts of the brain by identifying areas that are significantly more active during some conditions/tasks than others.

The most common and powerful way of testing the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is via a blocked design. As in any blocked-design experiment, a block in an fMRI study is composed of trials that are grouped together in time to represent a level of an independent variable. Thus experimental conditions are separated into distinct blocks with each condition presented for an extended period of time. Blocks can be as short as several seconds and as long as a minute or two, although block length is typically kept constant across conditions. Transitions between blocks represent changes in the level of an independent variable. Although many research questions are amenable to use of block designs, some questions may not be appropriate for blocked designs because the nature of the experimental task preclude the separation of different types of trials into distinct blocks.

Greater experimental flexibility is offered by event-related designs; they allow for detection of neural activity associated with discrete events that are short in duration and whose timing and order need to be randomized. Although event-related designs have reduced detection power relative to blocked designs, they tend to have good estimation power. The design allows for characterization of precise timing and waveform of the hemodynamic response associated with a discrete event. (For a detailed explanation of the relative strengths and weaknesses of the two designs as well as mixed designs, see Liu, Frank, Wong and Buxton, 2001.) Further, impressive gains in estimation power can be realized in event-related designs through the use of “jitter”—i.e., randomization of the intervals between successive presentations of events over some relatively long time period (Ollinger, Shulman and Corbetta 2001).

During the course of an fMRI experiment, functional (BOLD) images of the entire brain are recorded every 1 to 3 seconds. Depending on the length of the experiment, there may be 500 to 1500 of these functional brain images. Each of these images is divided up into a large number of small cubes called *voxels* (the three dimensional analog of pixels). The size of the voxels is usually on the order of 3 to 5 mm cubic and it typically requires 25,000 to 50,000 voxels to cover the entire brain. Over the course of the entire experiment, the data from a single voxel constitute a time series of BOLD signals from the 500 to 1500 time points. Each of the tens of thousands of voxel time series is analyzed relatively independently in an attempt to identify voxels whose time series are significantly correlated with the experimental manipulations.

Preprocessing

Before the individual voxel timeseries are analyzed, however, a few preprocessing steps are typically performed on the data. Many researchers filter the data to exclude voxels that are outside the brain (in order to reduce analysis time). Some researchers attempt to correct for the fact that different slices within a single brain image are actually collected sequentially rather than at exactly the same point in time. For example, if a functional brain image is collected every two seconds, the first slice in that image is collected nearly two seconds before the last slice in that image. Many researchers will therefore shift the time series in time (via interpolation with earlier and later time points) in order to ensure that the voxels from different slices are in sync with each other.

The most important preprocessing step is probably correcting for motion. As previously mentioned, the timeseries from individual voxels are analyzed in an attempt to identify brain areas whose activity correlates with experimental manipulations. The underlying assumption is that the data from a voxel corresponds to the same brain area throughout the entire experiment. If a participant moves during an fMRI experiment, however, then the brain area to which a specific voxel corresponds will change. Therefore, virtually all researchers perform some kind of motion correction before analyzing the data. The standard approach is to perform a rigid-body transformation that includes six parameters (pitch, yaw, roll, and translation in x, y, and z) on the brain image from each time point until it best fits the brain image from the first time point. This process is called *realignment*.

The brains of different individuals obviously differ in size and shape. If results from different participants are going to be combined, it is therefore necessary to transform the data into some standard, template brain. This process is called *normalization* and it involves two steps. First, a set of parameters for a best-fitting, non-linear normalization transformation is computed. This transformation is usually the one that does the best job of mapping the structural brain image into the template brain, because the structural image has a higher resolution than the functional images. Second, this transformation is applied to the functional images to map them into the same space as the template brain (the functional images are usually in the same space as the structural image; if they are not, they must be *coregistered* into the same space first).

Another common preprocesing step is spatial *smoothing*. Essentially, functional brain images are blurred a little bit by convolving them with a Gaussian kernel (replacing the value at each voxel with a weighted average of its value and the values of surrounding voxels). There are three motivations for smoothing the data. First, realignment is not perfect and so the brain area to which a given voxel corresponds changes slightly over the course of the experiment. By smoothing the data, differences between nearby voxels due to motion are minimized. Second, normalization is imperfect and so the same voxel in different participants is unlikely to correspond to exactly the same brain area. Again, smoothing the data minimizes the effect of these small differences. Third, when a known smoothing kernel has been applied to the data, it makes it possible to apply a more sensitive correction for multiple comparisons. This issue will be discussed in more depth in the next section.

Model Fitting

Once the data have been preprocessed, each voxel is analyzed individually in an attempt to find voxels whose timeseries are significantly correlated with the experimental manipulations. As previously discussed, there are tens of thousands of voxels to be analyzed, so this approach corresponds to doing many, many univariate analyses. The standard approach is to fit a general linear model against each voxel's time series. The model would include covariates corresponding to the different conditions in the experiment. So, for example, if the participant repeatedly alternated between 10 seconds of visual stimulation and 10 seconds of rest, then the model might include a covariate that had the value 1 for each timepoint corresponding to visual stimulation and the value 0 for each timepoint corresponding to rest. It would probably also include an intercept term (value 1 at all time points) to model the baseline level of fMRI signal in the timeseries (which is typically far from 0). Fitting this model against a voxel's timeseries would then correspond to finding the weighted sum of these covariates that best fits the actual time series. The weights or coefficients associated with each covariate in this best fit are called the beta values and they are used to compute statistical values (e.g., t-values) associated with each voxel for a given contrast of covariates. For example, the t-value corresponding to a single covariate's effect is simply its beta divided by the standard error of the mean. Similarly, the t-value for a contrast between covariates is the difference between their betas divided by the standard error of the difference of the means. The statistics of interest are computed for every voxel to evaluate the probability that the voxel is consistent with the null hypothesis. The statistical tests from all voxels in the brain are then combined and displayed together in a *statistical parametric map* (or SPM) which is simply a brain image in which the value at each voxel is its corresponding statistic. These SPMs are in turn thresholded and overlayed on structural images in order to graphically display which areas of the brain exhibit activity that passes the desired threshold of statistical significance. Often different color schemes are used to aid in visualization (e.g., red for t-values above 3.5, yellow for t-values above 5.0, etc.).

In constructing a statistical model for fMRI data, it is important to keep in mind that the data reflect blood-oxygen levels, not direct neural activity. In particular, because blood-oxygen levels are delayed and extended in time relative to the underlying neural activity, the model covariates must also be delayed and extended in time. The standard approach is to create covariates based on experimental conditions and then to convolve those covariates with a model of the hemodynamic response function.

Another important issue to keep in mind is that there is substantial *temporal autocorrelation* in fMRI data. That is, the data from timepoint X is *not* statistically independent of the data from timepoint X+1. As a result, the actual number of degrees of freedom is much smaller than it would be if the data from different time points were truly independent. The number of degrees of freedom has a substantial impact on the statistical values and so most analysis packages provide a way of estimating the *effective* degrees of freedom.

When this kind of analysis is done on voxels over the entire brain, a very substantial multiple comparisons problem arises. After all, when tens of thousands of voxel timeseries are being analyzed, it is quite likely that some of them would exhibit large statistical values by chance alone. The simplest way to address this problem is to apply a *Bonferroni correction*. Rather than using an alpha level of $p=0.05$ as is customary, one could use an alpha level of $p=0.05/n$ (where n = number of voxels). The more standard approach is to look for clusters of contiguous voxels above some threshold where the cluster size is significant. If one knows how spatially smooth the data being analyzed are, then it is possible to estimate how likely it is to observe a cluster of N contiguous voxels all of which have a statistical value above a given threshold (most analysis packages provide this functionality). Given this approach requires knowing how smooth the data are, many researchers smooth their data during preprocessing as a means of imposing a known amount of spatial smoothness. Another approach for correction of the multiple comparisons problem is to evaluate statistical tests on a small predetermined *region-of-interest* (or ROI) and to exclude voxels outside the ROI from the analysis altogether.

ROI analysis involves prespecifying a set of anatomical regions of interest, and then to perform statistics across these regions (see Poldrack, 2007, for a discussion of ROI analysis). Because it is generally the case that regions specified in this approach are relatively large (e.g., the entire superior frontal gyrus), even if the region is significantly active, this activation may occur in a small proportion of voxels in the ROI. This would mean that simply averaging across the entire region could swamp the signal from this small number of voxels with noise from the remaining non-activated voxels. This would be problematic because you may well have an *a priori* hypothesis as to an area of expected activation in a statistical parametric map based on prior findings in the literature. In such a case, to correct for multiple comparisons across the whole image would be too conservative, as you are restricting your interest to a subset of the comparisons being made. More recently, researchers have used a small volume correction approach developed by Worsley et al. (1996) in order to address this problem. This involves restricting the voxel-wise analysis to a ROI and then controlling for multiple comparisons only in those voxels.

Apparatus

Imaging was conducted using a full-body 3.0 T GE scanner (General Electric, Milwaukee, WI) fitted with an 8-channel receive-only head coil.

Imaging Procedures

For the structural imaging, a high resolution image of the brain was acquired with a 3D T1-weighted inversion recovery fast spoiled gradient recalled echo sequence (echo time (TE)/

repetition time (TR)/inversion time = 2.1/10.4/300 ms, flip angle = 18°, matrix = 416x 256, field of view (FOV) = 25 cm, slice thickness 1.6 mm with 50% overlap). For the functional imaging, a time series of 210 volumes, with 39 Slices in the transverse plane, was obtained using single shot gradient-echo planar imaging (TR = 3000 ms, TE = 30 ms, flip angle = 75°, resolution = 3.5 mm x 3.44 mm x 2.3 mm, and FOV = 22 cm).

Functional image data were preprocessed and analyzed using Statistical Parametric Mapping (SPM2, Wellcome Department of Cognitive Neurology, London, UK). Linear image realignment, co-registration, non-linear normalization to stereotactic anatomical space (MNI), and spatial smoothing 3-dimensional Gaussian kernel, 8mm full-width at half maximum (FWHM) were performed for each participant using standard statistical parametric mapping methods. A high-pass (cutoff period, 250 sec) frequency filter was applied to the time series.

References

Buxton, Richard B. (2002), *Introduction to Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging: Principles and Techniques*, Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press.

Huettel, Scott A., Allen W. Song, and Gregory McCarthy (2004), *Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging,* Sunderland, MA: Sinauer Associates.

Poldrack, Russell A. (2007), “Region of Interest Analysis for fMRI,” *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience,* 2 (March), 67-70.

Worsley, K.J., S. Marrett, P. Neelin, A. C. Vandal, K. J. Friston, and A. C. Evans (1996), “A Unified Statistical Approach for Determining Significant Signals in Images of Cerebral Activation,” *Human Brain Mapping*, 4 (1), 58-73.

Web Appendix B

DEFINITION OF INDEXES USED TO INTERPRET THE GOODNESSES-OF FIT OF CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS AND STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELS IN STUDIES 1-3

1. Root Mean Square Error or Approximation (RMSEA).

   The RMSEA is a population-based index of fit that is defined as

   $$\sqrt{\frac{\chi^2 - df}{N-1} / df}$$

   where χ^2 = chi-square for a model of interest, df = degrees of freedom, and N = sample size. One set of guidelines maintains that a “close-fit” or “good fit” occurs when RMSEA < .05, a “reasonable fit” or “acceptable fit” happens for values greater than .05 but less than or equal to .08, a “mediocre fit” occurs for values greater than .08 but less than or equal to .10, and a “poor fit” results for values greater than .10. The RMSEA is relatively insensitive to sample size, but of course findings under very low (N<100) and very large (N>1000, say) sample sized, as well as deviations from normality, should be regarded with caution. The RMSEA tends to penalize complex models and favors parsimonious models.

2. Nonnormed Fit Index (NNFI).

   Also known as the Tucker and Lewis index, the NNFI is defined as

   $$\frac{\chi_n^2 / df_n - \chi_f^2 / df_f}{\chi_n^2 / df_n - 1}$$

   where χ_n^2 = chi-square for the null model of modified independence (i.e., the model where only error variances are estimated:, χ^2 = chi-square of a focal model to be tested, and *df* = degrees of freedom. Depending on the author, values of the > .90 or > .95 are considered “good fits”. The NNFI takes into account model complexity, but again caution should be applied for testing very small or very large samples and nonnormal data.

3. Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

   The comparative fit index (also called the relative noncentrality index) is defined as

$$\frac{(\chi_n^2 - df_n) - (\chi_f^2 - df_f)}{\chi_n^2 / df_n}$$

   Depending on the author, values of the CFI > .90 or CFI > .95 are considered “good fits”. Although the CFI is relatively insensitive to sample size (at least for N not too small or too large), it does not compensate for more complexity.

4. Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR).

   The SRMR is a measure of the average of residuals in a model and is defined as the square root of the mean squared differences between elements of the predicted and observed variance-covariance matrix. Depending on the author, values of the RMSEA < .08 or < .07 are considered satisfactory.

References

Browne, M.W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. IN K. Bollen & J.S. Long (Eds.), *Testing Structural Equation Models* (pp. 445-455). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P.M. (1998). Fit indices in covariance structure modeling: Sensitivity to underparameterization model misspecification. *Psychological Methods*, 3, 424-453.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P.M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6, 1-55.

MacCallum, R.C., Browne, M.W., & Sugawara, H.M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of smaple size for covariance structure modeling. *Psychological Methods*, 1, 130-149.

Steiger, J.H. (1990). Structural model evaluation and modification: An interval estimation approach. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 25, 173.180.

Web Appendix C

THE GENERAL THEORY OF MIND (ToM) SCALE

1. I find it easy to understand non-verbal signals of other people.
2. I immediately notice when people do not smile sincerely.
3. I notice more quickly than others when people seem to possess a hidden agenda.
4. I find it easy to keep a conversation going about everyday topics or topics that do not have any urgency.
5. When I’m in an elevator with others I can easily start small talk.
6. When I’m sitting on a terrace I tend to elaborate on what motivates or drives people passing by.
7. I enjoy watching movies that provoke me to imagine the experiences of the characters.
8. I often think about deeper motivations of other people.
9. I enjoy speculating on what other people are thinking.
10. I tend to explain people’s behavior at a more sophisticated level than others.

Web Appendix D

AUDITORILY PRESENTED SCENARIOS IN THREE TASK CONDITIONS

All original versions of the following scenarios were presented in Dutch. In this appendix, they have been translated from the original language version into English, and therefore do not always reflect the same time length as the original language version.

<u>Interpersonal mentalizing task</u>

Scenario 1:
Sjaak is a salesperson who has just explained to Renée his own perspective about future trends in their market. Renée is the buyer in a customer's firm and tries to sell Sjaak's perspective on the market to his colleagues. Suddenly Sjaak realizes that he has provided Renée with the wrong information, and he immediately calls Renée. Renée is irritated and responds, "Do you know that you may have hurt my reputation? Sjaak apologizes and says, "I want to explain my mistakes to your colleagues *personally*."

Why is it that Sjaak wants to explain his mistakes in person?

Scenario 2:
Before visiting a customer, Jacqueline always browses that customer's website. While browsing one of these websites she notices that the director, whom she has known for a long time, still works for the firm in question; but she also notices that many new people have joined the firm. Jacqueline is especially curious about what these new people think of *her* firm. However, Jacqueline first decides to talk with the director, the person she has known a long time; therefore she calls him to suggest having dinner together.

Why did Jacqueline ask the director to have dinner with her?

Scenario 3:
Wouter is a street-smart salesperson and always tries to consider the personal interests of his customers. He mentions a customer's personal interests to his secretary so that she can look for a gift that fits the customer's needs exactly. He knows that when he surprises his customers, they invite him for dinner. Before sending a surprise present, Wouter calls the customer and says, "Hey, pal, take note: now I am not sending you a bill!"

Why does Wouter call the customer and make this statement?

Scenario 4:
Henk talks to a buyer, Janine. As the conversation evolves, Henk realizes that Janine shies away from sensitive issues. He starts to realize that Janine's influence in the firm might be far less than he had assumed. Consequently, Henk considers how he can get around Janine without hurting her pride. He tells Janine, "During our next meeting perhaps it would be convenient to have a colleague from our technical staff join us, so would you also invite a colleague of yours?"

Why does Henk suggest that Janine invite other people to join the conversation?

Scenario 5:

Ralph, who is a buyer, talks to Pieter and to Pieter's secretary. Ralph notices that Pieter is unfairly skeptical about his story while Pieter's secretary is more receptive to his arguments. Ralph then adds something to the conversation. He tells Pieter a funny anecdote about how his own secretary once provided him with an insight which allowed him to avoid a grave mistake.

Why does Ralph mention this anecdote about his own secretary?

Process task

Scenario 1:
In a steel company the buying process occurs via a well-defined method: the buyers first study how earlier firms supplied goods; and, in collaboration with the technical staff, they make up a request for a proposal. This RFP is then sent by e-mail to salespersons from different firms, who then indicate by e-mail whether they can match the request for proposal. Subsequently, using economical arguments, the buyers determine which salesperson will deliver the goods.

On what bases do buyers make decisions about which salesperson will deliver goods?

Scenario 2:
An account manager visits his customers every year. According to a well-defined protocol he has to visit all the factory plants; and, in order to plan these visits, he uses a call-plan system. This planning system determines how different plants can be visited in the shortest amount of time. The account manager studies the planning results and notices that the plant in Amsterdam is the last one he has to visit.

Why does the account manager visit the Amsterdam plant last?

Scenario 3:
Long before the Christmas season, Mr. Versteeg, a salesperson, looks at the rules his company has devised for determining how much to spend on presents to be sent to his customers. Next he chooses two presents that match the set price. Another department then determines which present best fits the company policy rules; this evaluation process lasts a few weeks. Finally, presents are bought and are sent by mail to the customers.

Why does Mister Versteeg begin deciding so early what presents to buy for his customers?

Scenario 4:
For the customer, the buying process occurs via well-defined protocols: the buying customer asks for a meeting with the company's technical staff via e-mail. During the meeting, alternatives from different suppliers are discussed in order to determine which supplier best meets the company strategy. The resulting information is then sent to a manager, who instructs others to design a checklist for the buying parties.

How does Miss Maartens, a customer, know that her buying follows the company policy?

Scenario 5:
An account manager of a bio-logistics company visits the customer in order to solve a logistics problem. The problem is that two of the customer's three locations are being supplied by goods beyond the keeping abilities date. He explains to his customer that bio-logistics currently delivers the product in only one plant and that the other two plants are having their goods

delivered internally. The account manager suggests that it would be best to have the goods delivered to all the plants.

Why will a customer make more profit with the expansion of this service?

Unlinked sentences task

Scenario 1:
The company alignment has four plants spread over the Benelux. It is now already the second time that Mister Jansen has been invited to give a presentation. Frank has been account manager for 14 years, and he trains new buyers in his firm. Because of the intense competition from the Internet the future looks different. Peter's office is on the third floor. The problems with traffic jams have risen quickly in the Randstad.

On which floor is Peter's office?

Scenario 2:
On Main Street there is a large parking lot from which one can reach the train station. The construction of a network causes delay in information services. Miss Versteeg is an accountant and a mother of three children. The bicycle repairman just repaired a tube. The vacation time planned for this year is a bit unlucky because it falls at the time of an ad campaign. When the train arrives in the station at 4 o'clock we have four more hours before the theater performance starts.

Who repaired the tube?

Scenario 3:
This year the weather warmed so quickly that the skating rink closed one month earlier. The buyer today is not present; he is at the new plant. At the courtroom they say that they will come up with a verdict within 6 weeks. The e-mail did not arrive because many people are working with the server. There is a strike in the public transportation system.

Why did the e-mail not arrive?

Scenario 4:
The new broadcast about the nuclear experiments will be repeated at twelve o'clock. Gerard read enough and now has fallen asleep. Education takes on average five years, but it also can be finished in four years. We now live in an information age. New bridges are always built higher and longer, but where does all this end? It is time to move because this house is past its prime. The shops close at 9 p.m.

Why is it time to move?

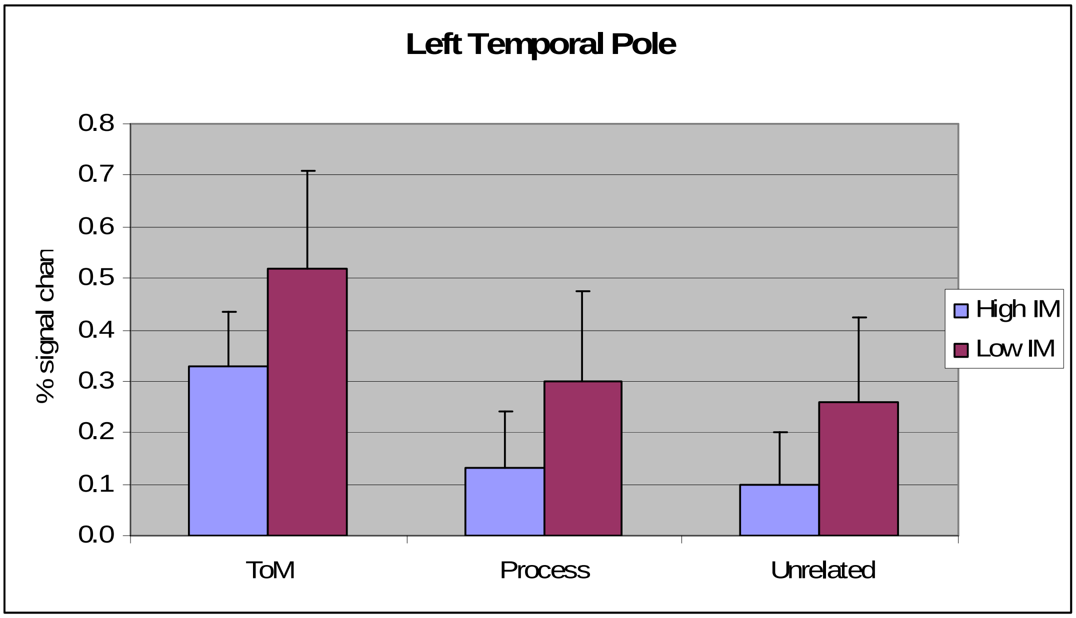
Scenario 5:
People are working hard on the new block, and they expect it to be ready at the end of next year. People are starting to ask when they will come with the new folder? One can ask if our vision about the future will catch on in the marketplace. The number of customers is rising according to a pattern. The housing market at this time is a bit unstable because the future of the tax deduction for rent is unclear. Around the Christmas season, the days are always short.

Why is the housing market unstable?

Web Appendix E

TEMPORAL POLE ACTIVATIONS FOR HIGH AND LOW INTERPERSONAL MENTALIZING (IM) GROUPS

a)



Main effect of Interpersonal Mentalizing Group (High vs. low): $F < 1$

Interaction of IM and Task: $F < 1$

High IM Group:

ToM – Process: F (1, 9) = 21.00, $p < .001$

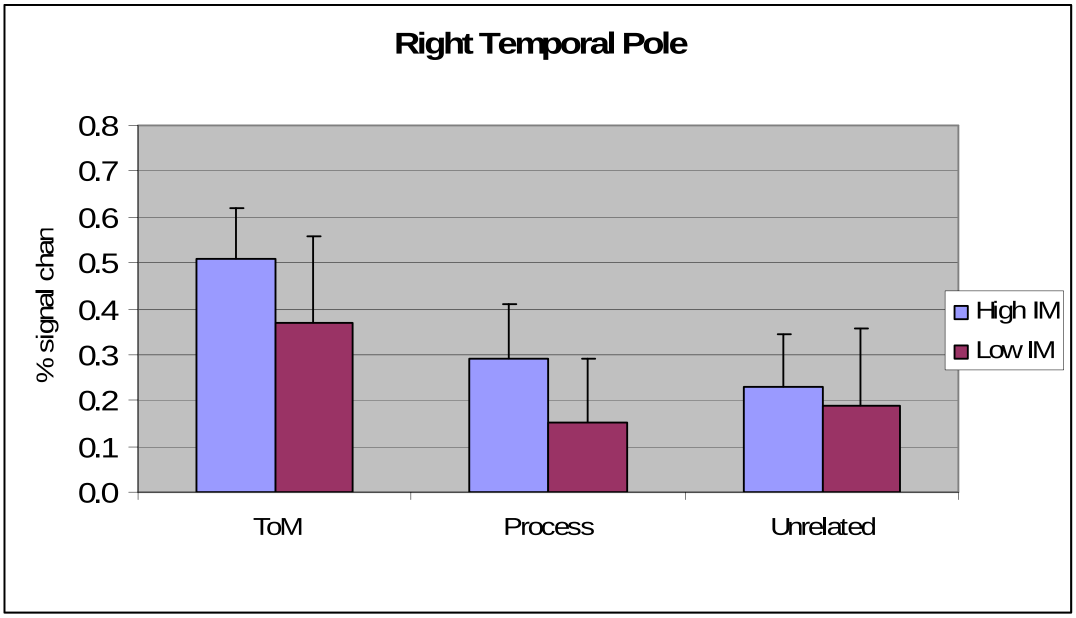
ToM – Unlinked Sentences: F (1, 9) = 23.02, $p < .001$

Low IM Group:

ToM – Process: F (1, 9) = 10.10, $p < .01$

ToM – Unlinked Sentences: F (1, 9) = 38.37, $p < .0001$

b)



Main effect of Interpersonal Mentalizing Group (High vs. Low): *F* < 1

Interaction of IM and Task: *F* (2, 18) = 1.04, *p* = .36

High IM Group:

ToM – Process: *F* (1, 9) = 10.16, *p* < .01

ToM – Unlinked Sentences: *F* (1, 9) = 17.00, *p* < .001

Low IM Group:

ToM – Process: *F* (1, 9) = 14.26, *p* < .01

ToM – Unlinked Sentences: *F* (1, 9) = 32.30, *p* < .0001