JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGICAL INQUIRY

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From the Editor's Desk

As spring approaches for most of us in the country, we are pleased to present the newest edition of JPI. The articles within these pages represent some of the best and brightest undergraduate minds within the field of psychology. In this issue, you will find articles covering many relevant topics within psychology today.

Just as we indicated in the last issue, this is an exciting time for JPI. Specifically, we are seeing a lot of change which have brought both happiness and sadness to the journal. With this last issue, Dr. Julie Allison will be stepping down as Associate Editor. Although we have only had the privilege of working with Julie for a short time, we want to publically thank her for all her years of dedication to the journal and undergraduate research. We know you have greatly touched the lives of countless students in your tenure with the journal and are appreciative of our time working with you. With the departure of Dr. Allison, we would also like to announce the addition of Dr. Michael Tagler as one of our new Associate Editors. Dr. Tagler comes to us from Ball State University and we look forward to working with him for years to come.

In addition to these changes, the last several months for JPI have seen a significant number of increased submissions. We have been working hard to respond to this increase and are excited about the possibilities for the journal. In short, undergraduate research is alive and well in psychology! Given this increase, we are faced with an ever increasing need for reviewers. If you are willing to serve in this role and/or know of someone who is, please contact Jennifer (jmbondsraacke@fhsu.edu), John (jdraacke@fhsu.edu) or one of the Associate Editors at your earliest convenience!

Lastly, we want to draw your attention to one of the unique features of JPI, The Elizabeth A. Dahl, Ph.D., Award for Excellence in Undergraduate Research. This award recognizes one article which is deemed to distinguish itself in undergraduate research in each issue. The award was created to celebrate the distinguished contributions of Dr. Dahl, who for 25 years as faculty member and chair of the Psychology Department at Creighton University, challenged, guided, and supported numerous undergraduate students in the design and execu-

tion of research, and the scholarly communication of results.

To all readers, please know that we welcome communication on suggestions for new ideas and look forward to working with each of you in the future. We close with hope that your spring is productive and that you all enjoy this time of year!

Best regards,

Jenn Bonds-Raacke and John Raacke
Managing Editors

Acknowledgement:
Reviewers

Acknowledgement:
Institutions & Organizations

Cover:

Logo: The creation of the graphic for the logo came about by thinking of how ideas are formed and what the process would look like if we could see into our brains. The sphere represents the brain, and the grey matter inside consists of all the thoughts in various stages of development. And finally, the white spotlight is one idea that formed into a reality to voice. The entire logo is an example of creation in the earliest stages.

Cathy Solarana, Graphic Designer

Cover Design: The overall design was influenced by many aspects of psychology. Much of the inspiration was developed through the use of the iconic symbol for psychology as well as the beauty of psychology in its own right.

Brittney Funk, Graphic Designer

Instructions for Contributors

The Journal of Psychological Inquiry encourages undergraduate students to submit manuscripts for consideration. Manuscripts may include empirical studies, literature reviews, and historical articles; manuscripts may cover any topical area in the psychological sciences. Write the manuscript for a reading audience versus a listening or viewing audience.

1. Manuscripts must have an undergraduate as the primary author. Manuscripts by graduates will be accepted if the work was completed as an undergraduate. Graduate students or faculty may be co-authors if their role was one of teacher or mentor versus full-fledged collaborator.

2. Manuscripts must (a) have come from students at institutions sponsoring the Great Plains Students' Psychology Convention and the Journal of Psychological Inquiry or (b) have been accepted for or presented at the meeting of the Great Plains Students' Psychology Convention, the Association for Psychological and Educational Research in Kansas, the Nebraska Psychological Society, the Arkansas Symposium for Psychology Students, or the ILLOWA Undergraduate Psychology Conference. The preceding conditions do not apply to manuscripts for the Special Features Sections I, II, or III.

3. Submit original manuscripts only. Do not submit manuscripts that have been accepted for publication or that have been published elsewhere.

4. All manuscripts should be formatted in accordance with the APA manual (latest edition).

5. Empirical studies should not exceed 15 double-spaced pages; literature reviews or historical papers should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. The number of pages excludes the title page, abstract, references, figures, and tables. We expect a high level of sophistication for literature reviews and historical papers.

6. In the references, please include the issue number for all journal references

7. Submissions are made online at: http://www.edmgr.com/jpi. You will need to first register with the website and the follow the steps outlined on the website for your submission.

8. When prompted, provide e-mail addresses for the author (s) and faculty sponsor.

9. Include a sponsoring statement from a faculty supervisor. (Supervisor: Read and critique papers on content, method, APA style, grammar, and overall presentation). The sponsoring letter should indicate that the supervisor has read and critiqued the manuscript. In addition, assert that the research adhered to the APA ethical standards. Finally, confirm that the planning, execution, and writing of the manuscript represents primarily the work of the undergraduate author(s). This sponsoring statement should be in pdf format and uploaded with the submission.

10. The faculty statement should also included a line as to whether the faculty member was a sponsor only or if the faculty member was a co-author and a sponsor.

11. Ordinarily, the review process will be completed in 60 days.

12. If a manuscript requires revisions, the author(s) is (are) responsible for making the necessary changes and resubmitting the manuscript to the Journal. Sometimes you may have to revise manuscripts more than once.

PLEASE NOTE: Changes have been made to the submission process! All submissions and reviews will be done electronically using PeerTrack essentials. To submit your manuscript, log on at: http://www.edmgr.com/jpi.

Speaking Up and Working Harder:
How Participation in Decision-making in Meetings Improves Overall Employee Engagement

Holly Hinkel and Joseph Allen *
Creighton University

Abstract—The present study focused on how participation in decision-making in meetings relates to higher levels of job engagement even after considering the effects of coworker and supervisor satisfaction. For this study, a survey was sent to working adults (N =319) of whom 52.7% were white females with an average age of 43 years. Participants provided self-report ratings of their participation in decision-making in meetings, employee engagement, and coworker and supervisor satisfaction along with demographic variables (e.g., age, tenure, job level). Participation in decision-making was a significant predictor of meeting engagement (ΔR^2= .14, β =.38, p<.05) even after controlling for coworker and supervisor satisfaction. This is the first time participation in decision-making and engagement have been studied together and one of the few studies looking at meetings as a context for promoting employee engagement in general. The findings suggest managers and supervisors should provide opportunities for their employees to participate in decision-making, specifically in the meeting context.

Keywords: participation in decision-making, meetings, employee engagement, coworker satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction.

Meetings are important coordinating tools in many organizations (Cohen, Rogelberg, Allen, & Luong, 2011). They are used to keep tabs on progress, assign new projects, problem solve, and make decisions on projects (McComas, 2003). Meetings are also a place where other's perspectives can be expressed and their questions and concerns about projects can be addressed by supervisors and other coworkers (McLeod & Jones, 1987). Specifically, meetings are important tools in the decision-making process in organizations (Asmuß & Svennevig, 2009).

Research also suggests workplace meetings have an important impact on employee attitudes and behaviors (Baran, Shanock, Rogelberg, & Scott, 2012; Rogelberg, Allen, Shanock, Scott, & Shuffler, 2010). One employee attitude receiving considerable attention by psychologists and management researchers in recent years is employee engagement (Macey, Schneider, Barbera, & Young, 2009). Macey and colleagues (2009) defined engagement as "an individual's sense of purpose and focused energy, evident to others in the display of personal initiative, adaptability, effort and persistence directed toward organizations goals" (p. 7). As a result, engaged employees are more ingrained in the operations of their projects at work. Because meetings are useful tools in moving work projects forward in organizations, meetings may be an opportunity to enhance employee engagement. Having engaged employees is important to reach organization's goals such as improved performance (Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010).

The present study looked at how participation in decision-making in meetings leads to employee engagement, after accounting for individual coworker and supervisor satisfaction. Through a discussion of previous research concerning engagement and participation in decision-making, I illustrate the theoretically meaningful connection between meetings and engagement. Then, using a sample of working adults, the positive relationship between participation in decision-making in meetings and overall engagement is tested while taking

*Faculty Sponsor

into consideration the main constituents in meetings that can influence employees, their coworkers and supervisor. I conclude with a discussion of the implications for researchers and practitioners in the workplace.

Work Engagement Research

In recent years, psychological engagement has become a factor of interest to management and psychology (Macey et al., 2009). Kahn (1990) defined personal engagement as, "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles" (p. 694). In other words, while at work, if an employee is engaged in their job then they may be more likely to identify with the roles they assume. Macey and colleagues (2009) suggested the more engaged employees are, the more financially profitable organizations will be. Engagement has also been shown to positively relate to employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Saks, 2006). Others have found engagement is also negatively related to employee's intentions to and actually quitting behavior (Alarcon & Edwards, 2010; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008). Given these and other findings, it is no surprise research concerning engagement has expanded substantially in recent years.

Multiple facets of the organization and employee's perspectives affect psychological engagement. Kahn (1990) found that people become more psychologically engaged in work if employees feel they can express their concerns and opinions without being ridiculed or punished because of differing opinions. That is to say, people may feel more engaged in their work if they feel they have voice, especially in meetings. Because meetings are a gathering of colleagues to discuss projects, Bakker and Xanthopoulou's (2009) study found the sense of engagement one employee feels can crossover to other employees through frequent communication (e.g. meetings). Further, Bledow, Schmidt, Frese, and Kuhnel (2011) conducted a study in which participants' positive affectivity and work engagement were related. Bledow and colleagues found shifting from negative affect to positive affect was essential for motivating engagement behaviors. This is significant because affectivity can be transferred from one person to another (Bakker & Xan-

thopoulou, 2009). If meetings are effective and participants feel safe to express their ideas and opinions, it's possible this positive experience could result in great engagement in subsequent activities.

Another important facet of engagement is authentic leadership. Alok and Israel (2012) conducted a study in which they sought to explain the relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement through the construct of psychological ownership in organizations. Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, and Walumbwa (2005) defined authentic leadership as individuals who are genuine to their own values and who also help others be true to their values and achieve authenticity. The researchers found authentic leadership does have an affect on employee engagement when the employees feel the supervisor is a manifestation of the organization's goals and if the employees feel psychological ownership in the organization. They also found if the supervisor promotes feelings of psychological ownership then employees are more likely to conduct engagement behaviors.

Given the importance of engagement to a host of desirable workplace outcomes, this study focused in on the notion that managers can promote engagement within a given context (i.e., meetings) through allowing them to participate in decision-making. I now turn my focus to this important process in workplace meetings.

Participation in Decision-making Research

Participation in decision-making in meetings has a profound effect on employees' engagement level. Meetings give employees opportunities to express their concerns to others. It also gives supervisors opportunities to check on their subordinates and to help increase the amount of creative ideas employees have.

Participation in decision-making in meetings can mean different things to different people depending on the situation. Dachler and Wilpert (1978) felt participation could have many different meanings depending on the context in which it is used. Participation in decision-making in meetings should be defined as expressing opinions and ideas on how to make projects and procedures run more smoothly in the organization. Participation in meetings is important to the individual and to the organization. Rosenberg and Rosenstein (1980)

reviewed several meeting transcriptions and analyzed production rates of the employees that participated in the meeting discussion. They found the people who participated in meetings became more productive in their work. Rosenberg and Rosenstein suggest having workers participate in meetings increases their productivity in organizations.

Commitments to decisions made in meetings also have a profound effect on people. Sagie and Koslowsky (1996) found participation in decision-making when change in the organization occurs leads to more commitment in implementing solutions. In other words, when employees contribute to the changes in the organization, they are more committed to finalizing and implementing said changes. Furthermore, Neubert and Cady (2001) conducted a longitudinal study and found participation leads to more commitment to the organization and its purpose. Meaning, if an employee does participate in meetings and decision-making then he or she should become more committed to their decisions and their organization.

Participating in decisions can create better relationships for employees within the organization. Stohl and Cheney (2008) describe the relationship of participation with regard to employees. They found if participation is facilitated by the organization and not forced on unwilling employees then the employees are more satisfied with the decisions being made and enforced. Once again the findings of Rich and colleagues (2010) come into effect, when the employee perceives the organization or supervisor is listening and seriously considering all suggestions during meetings, he or she will feel more connected to the decisions made and enforce them when able. Therefore, when employees feel they are being heard in the organization, they feel more connected to their work.

Participation and Decision-making in Meetings and Employee Engagement

Participation in decision-making in meetings is essential to feeling engaged in organizations. This is because participation in decision-making fulfills the need of psychological safety to engage in work roles (Kahn, 1990). Psychological safety as defined by Kahn (1990) refers to how a people can apply themselves without being afraid of their self-image, career, or social and professional status. In meetings, employees should feel they are able to communicate differing opinions and express creative ideas. When this is present, they likely feel more psychological safety and therefore are more likely to engage in their role.

In addition to engagement theory, the proposed positive relationship between participation in decision-making and engagement is supported by social exchange theory. Social exchange theory says interdependent transactions can turn into personal relationships and professional relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The most common type of transactive exchange is reciprocity. Reciprocity is important for exchanging information and goods are mutually contingent on giving and receiving (Gouldner, 1960). According to Gouldner, in order for social relationships to continue to occur, "depends in part on the mutually contingent exchange of gratifications, that is, reciprocity as an exchange" (p 168) making reciprocity important for continued relations. Having employees participate in decision-making in meetings can lead to engagement behaviors by reciprocity as stated through social exchange theory.

Participating in decision-making in meetings can lead up to feelings of reciprocity to the organization. According to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), social exchange theory related to perceived organizational support, which is that since the employee feels the organization rewards and recognizes performance, the employee feels they need to reciprocate by increasing job performance. Similarly, if a supervisor allows an employee to participate in meetings the employee will feel indebted to the organization and they would do this through engaging in their work. Thus, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Participation in decision-making in meetings will be positively related to employee engagement.

Relationships in the organization with supervisors and coworkers are also important to employee engagement. Previous research has shown that, in regard to satisfaction with scheduling and work engagement, supervisor support is important to increase work engagement (Swanberg, McKechnie, Ojha, & James 2011). Engagement can also be

increased when employees are satisfied with their coworkers, because they feel the needed amount of psychological safety (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). Meetings are typically led by the supervisor and are held with other coworkers. Supervisor and coworker satisfaction are relationship oriented constructs, which is very different from participation in decision-making. Participating in decision-making is not a relationship oriented construct; it is a process that takes more than just relationships to enhance employee engagement. Participation in decision-making is a process and not a relationship construct, therefore I control for coworker and supervisor satisfaction. Thus the following hypothesis was proposed:

> *Hypothesis 2: The positive relationship between participation in decision-making in meetings and engagement persists even after controlling for employees' satisfaction with their supervisor and coworkers.*

Method
Participants and Procedure

The participants were working adults who had regular meetings led by their supervisor. Potential participants were taken from an email listing from a southeastern university alumni list (n= 11,552). In discussing the response rate with the email list administrator, it was suggested the list was old and many potential participants either declined or they did not check these particular email addresses frequently. The participants with more than 50% of their data missing from the survey were removed from the analysis. Thus, the response rate was only 5.1%, which is extremely low. The final sample (n=319) consisted of 52.7% females with an average age of 43 years. The average tenure for participants was 9.5 years and 3.7 years working with their supervisor. Furthermore,, 97% indicated they were college graduates and about 49% supervise others. The participants also indicated they were employed through various types of organizations such as publicly traded firms (33%), privately held firms (19%), nonprofit firms (16%), and public sector (33%).

Some of the suggestions from Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) were taken to ensure common method bias was not present

given the low response rate. Not all the suggestions were taken because of the nature of the study. However, counterbalancing was used to reduce concerns related to common method bias. Specifically, several of the items were placed in different places in the surveys so there were a total of five versions of the survey participants completed.

Further, due to the low response rate, it seemed important to determine whether nonresponse bias was present in the sample (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). One method for testing nonresponse bias is to do an interest analysis. How I measured the level of the interest in the study was through asking the participants if they wanted to see the results of the study or not. It was assumed those participants who said they wanted a summary of the results were more interested in the topic and may be more motivated to take the survey. If interest level is related to participants' standing on the topics (e.g., if interested individuals have more meetings), the survey results may be susceptible to bias as more interested individuals tend to respond more readily (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). Results indicated the means and standard deviations on the focal variables were nearly identical across these groups providing further evidence nonresponse bias was not present in this data.

Before testing the hypotheses a pilot test was conducted. Because most of the measures were taken from previous research and modified for this particular survey, a pilot test was essential to conclude the data collected were appropriately measured. The pilot survey was sent out to participants (n=5) to address potential problems and wording issues. After revising the survey, it was sent out to participants to complete it using Survey Monkey (an online survey tool). The survey was sent to working adults and measured the variables of interest such as participation in decision-making and work engagement.

Measures

Participation in Decision-making was measured with an adapted version of a nine-item scale from Seigel and Ruh's (1973) research in which the focus is on employees' opportunities to participate in decision-making in meetings. Participants were asked to, "Think of the meetings with your supervi-

sor that he/she leads. Regarding ONLY these meetings, how frequently do the following:…"Some sample items would be, "Ask an employee to play *Devil's advocate* in the decision-making process" and "Give employees opportunity to challenge the decisions made in the meeting." The ranges of responses were collected on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 being "*Never*" to 5 being "*Always*."

Employee engagement was measured using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) used in Schaufeli and Bakker's (2003) research. The UWES has 16 items to measure three facets of engagement namely vigor, absorption, and dedication which are all so highly correlated together they are considered to be measuring the same thing: work engagement. The instructions were, "The following statements are about how you feel at work. Please read the statements carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job." Sample items included such statements as, "At my job, I feel strong and vigorous," "I am enthusiastic about my job," and "I get carried away when I am working." Items were measured using a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 being "*Never*" to 5 being "*Always*."

Several variables were used as controls when testing the forgoing hypotheses: tenure, age, job level, and coworker satisfaction and supervisor satisfaction. Tenure, age, and job level were chosen to determine whether the survey was measuring what it was supposed to because engagement is related to all of these constructs (Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008; Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, & Brennan, 2008;). Some of the measures were: "What is your age (in years)?," "How long have you

worked for your current organization?," and "How would you best characterize your job level?"

Coworker and supervisor satisfaction were measured with the Abridged Job Descriptive Index (Stanton et al., 2002). Participants were asked to: "Think of the majority of people that you work with now or the people you meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these people?" and were given a list of 10 words or phrases in which to indicate yes, no, or maybe. Sample items include: helpful, boring, tactful and praises good work. The negatively worded items were reversed scored and then summed together with the non-negatively worded items.

Results

Descriptive statistics, correlations, and alpha values are presented in Table 1. Zero-order correlations suggest participation in decision-making is related to employee engagement ($r = .38$, $p < .05$).

Tests of Hypotheses

The first hypothesis stated participation in decision-making in meetings affects employee engagement. Using regression analysis, the control variables (age, tenure, and job level) were entered in the first step and were found to explain a significant amount of variance in engagement ($R^2= .06$, $p < .05$). In the second step, participation in decision-making was entered and found to significantly predict employee engagement ($\Delta R^2= .14$, $\beta = .38$, $p < .05$).This provides support for hypothesis 1.

The second hypothesis stated participation

Table 1. *Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of the Focal Variables*

	M	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
Participation in Decision-making	3.07	.95	(.95)					
Employee Engagement	3.64	.60	.38*	(.93)				
Coworker Satisfaction	2.64	.67	.39*	.34*	(.84)			
Supervisor Satisfaction	2.32	.87	.64*	.32*	.44*	(.86)		
Job Level	3.14	1.05	.06	.24*	.14*	.02	-	
Age	42.89	10.8	-.01	.15*	.15	.02	.15*	-
Tenure	9.59	8.83	.04	.15*	.17*	.05	.09	.51*

Note: N=319. Diagonal values are Cronbach's Alpha estimates for each scale.

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed).

in decision-making in meetings relates to employee engagement above and beyond supervisor and coworker satisfaction. The summary of results is presented in Table 2. Using regression analysis, the control variables were again entered in the first step and found to explain a significant amount of variance in engagement (R^2= .07, p < .05). In the second step, supervisor and coworker satisfaction was entered and found to significantly predict employee engagement (ΔR^2= .13, p < .05). In the final step, participation in decision-making was entered and was found to significantly predict employee engagement, while controlling for coworker and supervisor satisfaction (ΔR^2= .04, β = .27, p < .05). This analysis provides support for hypothesis 2.

Discussion

As shown above, the results provided support for both hypotheses, participation in decision-making in meetings leads to higher levels of engagement above and beyond coworker and supervisor satisfaction. This means that an employee's opportunity to participate in decision-making in meetings can lead to employee engagement above and beyond coworker and supervisor satisfaction. Also the current study ties together two areas of research that have not been studied together, namely participation in decision-making in meetings and engagement. Participation in decision-making in meetings has a very recent research history whereas engagement also has a brief history, but it is less recent than the idea of decision-making in meetings. Pulling aspects from meetings in work engagement is a very important next step.

Table 2. *Regression of Participation in Decision-making in Meetings onto Employee Engagement Controlling for Satisfaction with Supervisor and Coworkers*

Model	Employee Engagement				
	R^2	ΔR^2	B	$SE\ B$	β
Step 1: Demographic Controls	.07	.07			
Intercept			3.02	.16	
Tenure			.01	.00	.08
Age			.00	.00	.22
Job Level			.13	.03	.07
Step 2: Satisfaction Controls	.20*	.13*			
Intercept			2.29	.18	
Tenure			.00	.00	.04
Age			.00	.00	.06
Job Level			.11*	.03*	.19*
Coworker Satisfaction			.17*	.05*	.19*
Supervisor Satisfaction			.17*	.04*	.24*
Step 3: Main Effect	.25*	.04*			
Intercept			2.09	.19	
Tenure			.00	.00	.04
Age			.00	.00	.17
Job Level			.12	.03	.19
Coworker Satisfaction			.13*	.05*	.15*
Supervisor Satisfaction			.06*	.05*	.19*
Participation in Decision-making			.17*	.04*	.27*

Note: N = 319. *p< .05 (2-tailed).

People have many meetings throughout their work week and meetings are becoming more utilized in the workplace (Cohen et al., 2011). In order to capture all the aspects of employee engagement, researchers need to look at all the different dimensions of today's work world, specifically, meetings.

Another point of this research is it creates room for more discoveries in the work engagement field. This research provides evidence that not only do relationships and social exchange theory matter to engagement but also processes. As has been mentioned before, participation in decision-making in meetings is a process in which coworker and supervisor satisfaction cannot compare to in terms of work engagement, as has been evidenced by the current study. Reciprocity norm, as stated by Gouldner (1960), says that, in order for social exchange to occur and recur, some type of exchange or reciprocation must be performed. This research suggests participating in decision-making in meetings is a form of reciprocity and social exchange theory. Employees give back to their supervisors by participating in decision processes, this is their form of reciprocity and in turn their participation in the meetings leads to more engagement.

Implications for Practice

The research provides support for supervisors and management to incorporate participation in decision-making in their meetings. The research provides evidence that, while it is important to encourage and enhance social relationships within the organization, it is also important for employees to be able to give their opinions on decisions in the organization. This means managers can increase the amount of work engagement an employee feels by allowing employees to participate in the decision-making process.

The research is not only important for upper level management but also for the employees that work under a supervisor. This is because employees want to feel engaged in the organization and in their work. It is natural to have opinions about certain decisions that are being made in the organization and if encouraged to do so, employees will be more than willing to help the organization if they feel that they are taken seriously. The research results maintain that people need to feel that they have a say in the workplace and how it is run to an

extent, in order to feel that they have some autonomy within the organization.

Limitations and Future Directions

There are some limitations in this study. The first limitation is that all the data were collected at the same time in the same survey items. This could be problematic because the predictor and criterion variables were on the same survey and collected at the same time. Predictor variables are supposed to predict the criterion variable and, according to Podsakoff and colleagues (2003), should be measured from different sources. For this survey it was not possible to gather the predictor and criterion variables separately. The survey was, however, modified into five versions to help reduce concerns for common method bias as stated above. This was just one of the suggestions made by Podsakoff et al. (2003) in order to reduce priming effects of the items on the survey, which reduces common method bias.

The second limitation was a low response rate. A response rate of 5.1% is extremely low. Therefore the responses attained could be because it pertained to a certain sample of people in which this particular subject is personally meaningful or interesting to them. In the methods section, an interest analysis was taken to compare those participants that were interested in the results and those participants that were not necessarily interested but took the survey anyway. The analysis showed the responses from the interested to non-interested people were not significantly different.

Finally, another limitation is the composition of the sample. Specifically, 97% of the sample was college graduates. However, only 33% of adults in the U.S. hold bachelors degrees (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011). Thus, the current sample is not representative of the population of employed adults in the U.S. Future research should consider using a more representative sample, including a wider variety of background and educational experiences.

In terms of additional future directions, one area alluded to in the theoretical development of this study is the notion that feelings and emotions of workers transfer from one to another (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009). There is an entire body of research concerning a concept called emotional

contagion which provides some meaningful implications for the current study and is an important area for future inquiry. Emotional contagion is the transference of emotions to other people (Nadler, Rabbi, & Minda, 2010). This is similar to affective shift theory because emotions, both positive and negative, can be transferred from one person to another within the organization. That is, if a coworker or supervisor feels positive emotions and expresses them around others in the workplace, these emotions may transfer creating an overall positive emotional experience. Future research should investigate the extent to which a meeting leader's affective tone transfers to others in the meeting setting thus causing a more positive or negative evaluation of the meeting in general.

Conclusion

The findings from this study have potential to open a door into research that looks at participation in decision-making in meetings and how it relates to engagement, which has not been explored before. Participation in decision-making in meetings is positively related to work engagement above and beyond coworker and supervisor satisfaction. The present study brings a new perspective to participation in decision-making in meetings and engagement behaviors by using social exchange theory and reciprocity norm to explain this relation. Coworker and supervisor satisfaction are relationships that are related to work engagement; however this study suggests that participation in decision-making in meetings is still important to work engagement after controlling for those two relationships. Supervisors and other management should encourage participation from subordinates whenever possible and employees should speak up when upper management asks for opinions from them.

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An Investigation of the Characteristics, Experiences, and Attitudes of Court Appointed Special Advocate (CASA) Volunteers

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Abstract—Court Appointed Special Advocate (CASA) volunteers (n = 40) completed a survey that assessed numerous variables including their demographics, empathy, perspective taking, general attitudes toward volunteering, reasons for volunteering as a CASA, and satisfaction with volunteering as a CASA. Older volunteers and those with a relatively large number of offspring were found to have a heightened level of involvement as CASAs. In contrast, volunteering because of a desire for academic/career advancement was related to relatively low levels of involvement as a CASA. Participants' interest in assisting children through the legal system was their main reason for volunteering as a CASA, and this interest was positively related to their level of empathic concern. Greater satisfaction with serving as a CASA was associated with volunteering for other-oriented reasons and scoring relatively high on perspective taking and empathic concern.

Keywords: CASA volunteers, child welfare, attitudes toward volunteering, satisfaction with volunteering, survey

Every year, millions of children in the United States are abused, neglected, or abandoned by their families (Court Appointed Special Advocates for Children, 2012). Although approximately 600,000 of these children end up in foster homes each year, many do not have the benefit of a citizen's voice in the courtroom advocating for their best interest. The Court Appointed Special Advocates (CASA) program was created to make a positive difference for these children by providing a nationwide network of volunteers who advocate for the best interest of abused and neglected children in the judicial system (Litzelfelner, 2008).

Since its inception in the late 1970s, CASA volunteers have proven to make a substantial impact on the lives and wellbeing of children in need of special assistance. For example, studies have shown children in the court system with a CASA volunteer are more likely to be successfully adopted (Smith, 1992), experience shorter stays in out-of-home care (Leung, 1996), and are offered more services provided by child welfare agencies (Duquette & Ramsey, 1986) than comparable children who do not have a CASA volunteer. Moreover, judges, attorneys, child welfare workers, and parents tend to evaluate the CASA program as providing valuable assistance to child-victims (Litzelfelner, 2008). In general, the CASA program has been deemed to be a cost effective approach for providing helpful adult advocates for children who are in the judicial system due to abuse or neglect (Leung, 1996).

Given the significance and effectiveness of the program, it is important to determine why some individuals decide to volunteer to be a CASA, and what characteristics, experiences, and attitudes impact their decision. Although research has identified numerous personal and situational variables associated with individuals' willingness to volunteer for charitable organizations (see reviews by Atkins, Hart, & Donnelly, 2005; Hustinx, Cnaan, & Femida, 2010; Wilson, 2000), little is known about the individuals who specifically choose to volunteer for the CASA program. Therefore, the

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purposes of the present exploratory study were to: (a) assess the characteristics, experiences, and attitudes of individuals who have volunteered for the Sunflower CASA Project which provides services to neglected and abused children in three counties in northeastern Kansas and (b) relate the present findings to prior observations of individuals who have chosen to volunteer to assist others.

Method

Participants

The sample consisted of 40 Sunflower CASA volunteers (31 females, 9 males) ranging in age from 19 to 78 (M = 37.9 years). The sample was diverse in the length of time served as a CASA (range: 1-148 mos, M = 29.58 mos), total number of cases served as a CASA (range: 0-21, M = 2.35), and average number of hours per month spent as a CASA (range: 0-30, M = 10.43). Additional demographic information about the sample is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. *Additional Demographic Information about the Present Sample of CASA Volunteers*

Variable		Frequency	Percentage
Marital Status			
	Single	22	55.00
	Married	16	40.00
	Divorce	1	2.50
	No Response	1	2.50
Highest Educational Level			
	HS/GED	1	2.50
	Some College	16	40.00
	Bachelor's Degree	13	32.50
	Master's Degree	5	12.50
	Ph.D./Ed.D.	5	12.50
Total Annual Income			
	< $20,000	15	37.50
	$20,001—$40,000	9	22.50
	$40,001—$60, 000	6	15.00
	$60,001 +	6	15.00
	No Response	4	10.00

Materials

The findings presented in this article focus on a subset of measures included in the survey completed by the CASA volunteers. These measures included Davis's (1983) Interpersonal Reactivity Index, the General Attitudes Toward Volunteering Scale, the Reasons for Volunteering as a CASA measure, and the Satisfaction with Serving as a CASA Scale[1]. The participants' responses to all of the statements on the measures were made on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI). Empathic Concern (7 items; α for present sample = .66), Perspective Taking (7 items; α = .83), and Personal Distress (7 items; α = .80) were measured using three subscales from the IRI (Davis, 1983). Sample items from these scales include "I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me" (Empathic Concern), "I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision" (Perspective Taking), and "I sometimes feel helpless when I am in the middle of a very emotional situation" (Personal Distress).

General Attitudes Toward Volunteering Scale (GATVS). The GATVS was adapted from the Volunteer Functions Inventory developed by Clary et al. (1998). This scale includes four subscales tapping various reasons why individuals may choose to volunteer: Career Opportunities (5 items; α = .93), Concern for Others (5 items; α = .77), Inter/Intrapersonal Benefits (5 items; α = .82), and Decrease Personal Problems/Distress (5 items; α = .81). Sample items include "Volunteering can help me get my foot in the door at a place where I'd like to work" (Career Opportunities), "I volunteer because I feel compassion toward people in need" (Concern for Others), "Volunteering makes me feel important" (Inter/Intrapersonal Benefits), and "By volunteering, I feel less lonely" (Decrease Personal Problems/Distress).

Reasons for Volunteering as a CASA (RFVC). This measure was developed for use in this study and is comprised of three subscales: Interest in Assisting Children through the Legal System (4 items; α = .61), Know a CASA Volunteer (2 items; α = .71), and Academic/Career Advance-

ment (2 items; α = .56). Sample items from the RFVC measure include "I wanted to help change the lives of children" (Interest in Assisting Children Through the Legal System), "I had a family member who volunteered for CASA" (Know a CASA Volunteer), and "It would look good on my resume" (Academic/Career Advancement).

Satisfaction with Serving as a CASA Scale (SSCS). This scale (5 items; α = .86) was developed for use in this study (sample item: "I enjoy [enjoyed] volunteering as a CASA").

Procedure

With the assistance of the Director of the Sunflower CASA Project, a total of 137 CASA volunteers were identified and were mailed a survey packet[2]. The packet included an informed consent form, a copy of the survey, a debriefing statement, and two pre-addressed and pre-stamped envelopes in which participants returned the signed informed consent form and the anonymous survey. The 40 surveys were completed and returned represent a response rate of 29.2%, which is comparable to response rates reported in survey studies using similar procedures with this volunteer organization (e.g., Litzelfelner, 2008)[3].

Results
Demographic Variables

Sex of participant. Significant sex differences were found for the volunteers' age, level of education, total annual income, total number of months as a CASA, and total number of CASA cases. As presented in Table 2, males had higher mean scores than females on all of these variables.

Age of Participant. The volunteers' age was positively correlated with their level of education (r = .49, p < .01) and total annual income (r = .65, p < .001). Volunteers' age was also positively associated with the length of time served as a CASA (r = .42, p < .01), total number of CASA cases (r = .51, p < .01), and average number of hours spent per month as a CASA (r = .32, p < .05). The older the CASA volunteer, the lower he/she scored on the Career Opportunities subscale of the GATVS (r = -.62, p < .001) and the Academic/Career Advancement subscale of the RFVC measure (r = -.51, p < .01).

Number of Children. The volunteers' number of children (range: 0-5, M = .88) was positively associated with length of time served as a CASA (r = .45, p < .01), total number of CASA cases (r = .32, p < .05), and average number of hours per month spent as a CASA (r = .48, p < .01). In addition, the more children a CASA volunteer had, the lower he/she scored on the Career Opportunities subscale of the GATVS (r = -.43, p < .01) and the Academic/Career Advancement subscale of the RFVC measure (r = -.42, p < .01).

Reasons for Volunteering as a CASA

A one-way ANOVA conducted on the volunteers' scores on the three subscales of the RFVC scale was significant, $F(2, 76)$ = 34.92, p < .001, η_p^2 = .48. The participants agreed more strongly that an interest in assisting children though the legal system (M = 5.34, SD = 1.07) was their reason for volunteering as a CASA than a desire for academic/career advancement (M = 2.92, SD = 1.72) or because they knew a CASA volunteer (M = 2.62, SD =

Table 2. *Differences Between Male and Female Volunteers on Five Demographic Variables: Means (and Standard Deviations)*

Variable	Males	Females	t(38)	d
Age	51.67 (21.42)	31.65 (17.95)	2.82**	0.91
Level of Education	2.67 (1.12)	1.71 (.97)	2.52*	0.82
Total Annual Income	1.89 (1.05)	0.81 (1.04)	2.68*	0.87
Total Number of Months as a CASA	47.56 (44.20)	24.36 (23.28)	2.12*	0.69
Total Number of CASA Cases	4.56 (6.65)	1.71 (1.35)	2.29*	0.74

*p < .05, **p < .01

Level of Education: 0 = High School/GED, 1 = Some College, 2 = Bachelor's Degree, 3 = Master's Degree, 4 = Ph.D./Ed.D.
Total Annual Income: 0 = < $20,000, 1 = $20,001-$40,000, 2 = $40,001-$60,000, 3 = $60,001+

1.91); the mean scores on the latter two subscales did not differ significantly from one another (post hoc tests were performed with the LSD test). Volunteers' Empathic Concern scores were positively correlated with their Interest in Assisting Children Through the Legal System scores ($r = .31$, $p < .05$), but unrelated to their Know a CASA Volunteer or Academic/Career Advancement scores ($rs = .02$ and .10, respectively). The more strongly the respondents agreed they had volunteered because of their desire for Academic/Career Advancement, the shorter the period of time they had served as a CASA ($r = -.33$, $p < .05$) and the fewer the number of cases they had served as a CASA ($r = -.32$, $p < .05$).

Satisfaction with Volunteering as a CASA

Greater satisfaction as a CASA volunteer was positively associated with higher Concern for Others scores ($r = .56$, $p < .001$) on the GATVS. In addition, greater satisfaction as a CASA volunteer was positively associated with scores on Perspective Taking ($r = .35$, $p < .05$) and Empathic Concern ($r = .50$, $p < .01$), but was unrelated to scores on Personal Distress ($r = -.06$).

Discussion

The findings concerning the demographic variables provide some insights into the diverse sample of CASA volunteers who completed the survey. With regard to the participants' age and sex, because the "older" males had more education and higher income than the "younger" females, they may have had more time to commit to volunteering as a CASA. Older and, presumably, wealthier individuals tend to be well integrated into their communities and may feel especially obligated to give back through a commitment to volunteer work (Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Shroeder, 2005). Moreover, older volunteers are likely to be more established in their careers (or be retired) than are their younger counterparts and, thus, their motivation for volunteering may be less focused on opportunities for career advancement. With regard to the issue of offspring, Wuthnow (1998) has noted adults who have children are especially likely to volunteer within their communities. The present findings suggest individuals who have nurtured multiple offspring may display

heightened commitment to programs that assist children, such as CASA, and their motive for volunteering may have less to do with personal concerns for career advancement as their number of children increases.

The predominant reason individuals indicated for volunteering as a CASA appropriately parallels the program's main goal of providing help to children who are involved in the judicial system as a result of abuse and neglect. Furthermore, the more volunteers reported empathizing with the feelings of others, the more strongly they agreed that an interest in helping child-victims was their reason for volunteering as a CASA. Consistent with findings associated with Omoto and Snyder's (2002) "volunteer process model," the more strongly respondents agreed they had volunteered for self-serving reasons, the weaker their involvement within the CASA program.

Again, consistent with findings associated with Omoto and Snyder's (2002) "volunteer process model," the more strongly individuals agreed they tended to volunteer for other-oriented reasons, the more satisfied they reported being as a CASA volunteer. The tendency to take other individuals' perspectives and to empathize with their feelings has been found to be associated with a heightened willingness to help others (e.g., Coke, Batson, & McDavis, 1978; Davis, 1983). For these CASA volunteers, relatively high levels of perspective taking and empathy appear to be associated not only with the willingness to assist needy children, but with considerable satisfaction in doing so.

In sum, the present study yielded interesting and meaningful relations among CASA volunteers' demographics, empathy, perspective taking, general attitudes toward volunteering, reasons for volunteering as a CASA, and satisfaction with volunteering as a CASA. Future research should work to increase response rates of those sampled to minimize any potential response bias. This research could make use of data-collection techniques, such as incentives (Gitelson et al., 1993) and multiple follow-up postcards and reminders (Dillman, 2000), which have been found to increase response rates from similar volunteer organization samples. An additional direction for future research is to examine the factors that may

differentiate between individuals who have made a long-term commitment to serve as a CASA volunteer and those who have discontinued their involvement within the program.

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Footnotes

[1]Participants also completed a few additional

measures (e.g., a 28-item Reasons for Discontinuing as a CASA measure) that were excluded from the analyses presented below for various reasons (e.g., limited subsample size).

[2]Copies of the CASA Volunteer Survey and scoring key, as well as additional demographic information about the present sample, are available upon request.

[3]Although the response rate of the current study is lower than the 60% or higher recommended by Salant and Dillman (1994), response rates around 30% are typical for studies using a sample from volunteer organizations (e.g., Crittenden, 2000). The response rate of the current study is also typical for the methodology used (i.e., a mailed survey without incentive or reminders; Gitelson, Kerstetter, & Guadagnolo, 1993) and mirrors the average initial response rate for survey studies using multiple mailings (Kwak & Radler, 2002).

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The Effects of Appearance on Sentencing Length

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Abstract—Factors such as attractiveness, race, age, health, and Afrocentric features of a defendant play a role in influencing a jury's decision on severity of punishment (Eberhardt, Davies, Purdie-Vaughns, & Johnson, 2006). With mandatory sentencing guidelines being used, an important issue involves whether the visual appearance of a defendant can solely influence a potential juror. The hypothesis that potential jurors who did not view a photograph of a defendant would suggest a harsher sentence than individuals who saw a photograph of a defendant was supported. However, the hypothesis that an African-American defendant would receive a harsher punishment than a Caucasian defendant was not supported. These findings suggest that jurors act more punitively towards defendants they are unable to see.

Keywords: defendant, race, African-American, length of sentence

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In 1993, Mike Mahoney was arrested and sentenced a mandatory sentence of a minimum of 15 years for a felon in possession of a firearm (Families Against Mandatory Minimums, FAMM). In 1979, Mahoney had been convicted of a felony for methamphetamine sales. He served 22 months in jail and completed 9 years of probation. In 1991, Mahoney became a sole owner of a restaurant/pool hall. Since his business brought in a lot of money, Mahoney purchased two revolvers from a pawnshop for personal protection. Even though Mahoney had not committed any additional crimes, a District Judge was required to sentence Mahoney to the mandatory minimum of 15 years for a felon in possession of a firearm.

The United States Sentencing Commission is responsible for enacting mandatory minimum sentencing laws (FAMM). In the United States, mandatory sentences are enforced to deter criminals from committing certain crimes. These sentences require a minimum length of prison time regardless of judicial discretion. Without consideration of the characteristics of a particular defendant, their background, and the details of the crime, individuals are required to spend at least a minimum amount of time behind bars if they are found guilty.

Researchers have found variables such as attractiveness (Beckman, Spray, & Pietz, 2007; Leventhal & Krate, 1977), age and health (Mueller-Johnson & Dhami, 2010), race (Eberhardt, Davies, Purdie-Vaughns, & Johnson, 2006), and Afrocentric features (Blair, Judd, & Chapleau, 2004) influence the length of sentence a jury proposes. Each of these moderating variables provides information about the physical appearance of the defendant resulting in recognition that the defendant is a human. Mandatory sentencing laws are written without this information. This raises the question as to whether people are more or less punitive when determining a punishment for a defendant they are able to humanize. Since all of the cited studies provided jurors with a photograph of the defendant, none required jurors to rely solely upon the facts of the crime in order to pronounce a length of sentence, the purpose of the present study was to examine the effect of merely the physical appearance of a defendant on the length of sentencing.

Defendant Characteristics Affecting Sentence Lengths

A standard protocol for determining the physical variables relevant to criminal sentencing starts by recruiting potential jurors and requiring them to determine a length of sentence they feel is appropriate for a specific criminal (Beckham et al.,

2007; Mueller-Johnson & Dhami, 2010). Jurors are either presented with a picture (Beckham et al., 2007; Blair et al., 2004; Eberhardt et al., 2006) or a written description of the specific, physical details of a defendant (Mueller-Johnson & Dhami, 2010). Jurors then propose a punishment for the defendant.

A defendant's age and apparent health affect a juror's decision on the length of punishment. In 2010, Mueller-Johnson and Dhami conducted an experiment that assessed whether the age and health of a defendant would influence a juror's decision on the length of sentence and if the type of crime was a factor. Both men and women were recruited to read sixteen different physical assault scenarios. They were provided with information about the defendants' age and health. After each scenario, they were instructed to provide a length of sentence for the guilty defendant. Overall, both the age and health of the defendant affected the length of sentence given. For violent physical assaults, older offenders received a shorter length of sentence than did younger offenders. Ill offenders received, on average, a sentence length of 6 months less than healthy offenders. The age of an offender did not influence the length of sentence if the crime was a sexual assault. However, offenders in poor health still received a shorter sentence than offenders who were in good health.

The influence of an individual's attractiveness has been demonstrated in socialization, education, mental health, personnel selection, and criminal justice (Burke, Ames, Etherington, & Pietsch, 1998). Attractive defendants receive shorter sentences than unattractive defendants in crimes against persons, victimless crimes, and crimes against property (Leventhal & Krate, 1977; Staley, 2008). However, Beckham et al. (2007), using the standard experimental protocol, found the attractiveness of a defendant did not influence the length of sentencing a juror proposed for a defendant found guilty of murder. One hundred twenty-six potential jurors read a murder scenario and viewed photographs of either an attractive or unattractive defendant. Participants then proposed a length of sentence for the defendant. Overall, an attractive defendant did not have a greater chance at receiving the death penalty than an unattractive defendant.

African-American individuals face a higher incarceration rate than Caucasian individuals (Decker & Spohn, 2010), especially when they appear to have more defined Afrocentric features (Blair et al., 2004) and they commit a crime against a Caucasian individual (Eberhardt et al., 2006). Using 216 photographs of Caucasian and African-American inmates, Blair et al. had participants rate each photograph on a scale of 1 (*not at all*) to 9 (*very much*) on the degree of stereotypical the facial features. They found individuals who appeared to have more defined Afrocentric features received harsher punishments than individuals with less defined features. Eberhardt et al. (2006) further examined this relationship of perceived African-American facial features and sentencing lengths in a two phase study. In the first phase, participants rated black and white photographs of African-American defendants who were convicted of murdering Caucasian victims. Participants were told to rate the photos on a 1 (*not at all stereotypical*) to 11 (*extremely stereotypical*) scale using features such as lips, noses, hair texture, and skin tone to rate how stereotypically African-American each photograph appeared. For the second phase, participants rated black and white photographs of African-Americans defendants who were convicted of murdering African-American victims. They found the more stereotypically Black a defendant appeared, the more likely they received the death penalty in cases which involved a Caucasian victim.

Anonymity and Sentencing

The lack of visual information about the defendant may persuade a juror to be more punitive when imposing sentences. Zimbardo (1969) demonstrated that when an individual remains anonymous and unidentifiable, people tend to act more punitive. Anonymity induces deindividuation. Deindividuation is a state of low self-awareness, a reduced concern of social issues, and a weakened restraint against expressing prohibited behaviors. In Zimbardo's experiment, participants were instructed to shock another student (*confederate*) as part of a study of empathy. Participants administered longer and more severe shocks to the confederates who were in a dimly light room, dressed in robes with large hoods, and were never identified. Students who sat in a well lit room and who wore

name tags received shorter, less severe shocks. These findings support the hypothesis that a juror would propose a harsher length of sentence to a defendant who remained anonymous than one who is identifiable. Even with overwhelming evidence that physical features of a defendant influence a jury, mandatory laws are written without the appearance of any defendant.

In the current research, both the race and mere presence of the defendant was examined to determine the effects they had on the length of sentencing. Researchers have been able to uncover subtle forms of racist attitudes towards African-Americans by using an Implicit Associate Test (IAT). Fazio, Jackson, Dunton, and Williams (1995) concluded Caucasian participants tend to associate negative words quicker to African-Americans than to Caucasians. Since negative acts of conduct (committing a crime), is easily associated with African-American individuals, it was hypothesized the condition with no photograph and the condition with the African-American photograph would receive harsher sentencing lengths than the condition with the Caucasian photograph. By incorporating a no photograph condition, the hypothesis that individuals who do not see the appearance of a defendant will propose a harsher length of sentence than those who see a photograph of a defendant was also tested.

Method

Participants

Students (*N*=102), both men (*n*=27) and women (*n*= 75), enrolled in psychology courses at Nebraska Wesleyan University were recruited. Each participant was given credit for their psychology courses. The majority (95%) of the participants indicated they were Caucasian. Their age ranged between 18-28 years (*M* = 19.53, *SD* = 1.53). The data from three individuals were excluded from this study as their responses were incomplete. All procedures were approved by the Psychology Department Research Review Board.

Materials

Photographs. Presentations of the physical appearance of the defendant were provided by using two photographs selected from the Florida Department of Corrections database (http://

www.dc.state.fl.us/activeinmates/search.asp). To examine the effect of race on sentencing, one photograph was of an African-American defendant, whereas the other photograph was a Caucasian defendant. The Caucasian defendant's photograph was chosen from approximately 6,000 Caucasian inmates who ranged between the ages of 20-25 years. The African-American defendant's photograph was chosen from approximately 9,000 African-American inmates who ranged between the ages of 20-25 years.

Facial features were taken into account while choosing photographs. Blair et al. (2004) suggested facial features are used to stereotype individuals, thus pictures were chosen to accentuate the stereotypic characteristics. A Caucasian individual with thin lips, a small nose, and light skin complexion was compared to an African-American individual with full lips, a large nose, and dark skin complexion.

Crime scene scenario and sentence rating. A fictional murder scenario described the details of the crime. In the scenario, the defendant poisoned the victim's food, which resulted in the victim's death. In the state of Nebraska, the penalty for a person who commits murder in the first degree "…by administering poison or causing the same to be done…" (*Neb.Rev.Stat. § 28-303, Reissue 2008*) is death. However, the defendant pled guilty to attempted second degree murder, which is a Class IC felony (minimum of 5 years, maximum of 50). Participants were asked to choose between 5-50 years in order to calculate the variance between the three groups.

Procedure

Participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions. Participants in the No Photograph condition were presented with the crime scene scenario only. Participants in the Caucasian Photograph condition and the African-American Photograph condition were presented with the crime scene scenario and the appropriate-race photograph of the individual who allegedly committed the crime. During debriefing, all participants were informed that the crime they read was a fictional scenario. Additionally, participants in the two photograph groups were informed the individual they saw in the photograph did not com-

mit the crime described.

Results

To test the hypothesis that an African-American defendant would receive a harsher punishment than a Caucasian defendant, a one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated. As seen in Figure 1, the sentencing length did not vary by groups, $F(2,96) = 2.19$, $p = .78$, $\eta^2 = 0.04$. The effect size of .04 indicates that the type of group an individual was placed in had a small to medium effect on their length of sentencing.

To test the hypothesis that having no visual representation of a defendant will effect length of sentencing, an Independent-Samples t-test was conducted. As the two photograph groups were not different from one another on proposed length of sentencing, they were combined to create one group that had visual representation of the defendant and compared to the control group that had no visual representation (See Figure 2). Those individuals who viewed a photograph of a defendant proposed a significantly lower length of sentencing ($M = 27.6$, $SD = 13.85$) than those individuals who did not view a photograph of a defendant ($M = 33.33$, $SD = 11.83$), $t(97) = 2.00$, $p = .04$, $d = 0.43$.

Discussion

The hypothesis that having the visual representation of the defendant would influence a juror to propose a harsher length of sentence was supported. Putting a face to the crime resulted in a reduced length of sentencing. This research supports Zimbardo's (1969) conclusion which stated people act more punitively towards participants who are anonymous and unidentifiable. The current research suggests the unidentifiable aspect (no appearance of the defendant) allowed a potential juror to administer harsher lengths of sen-
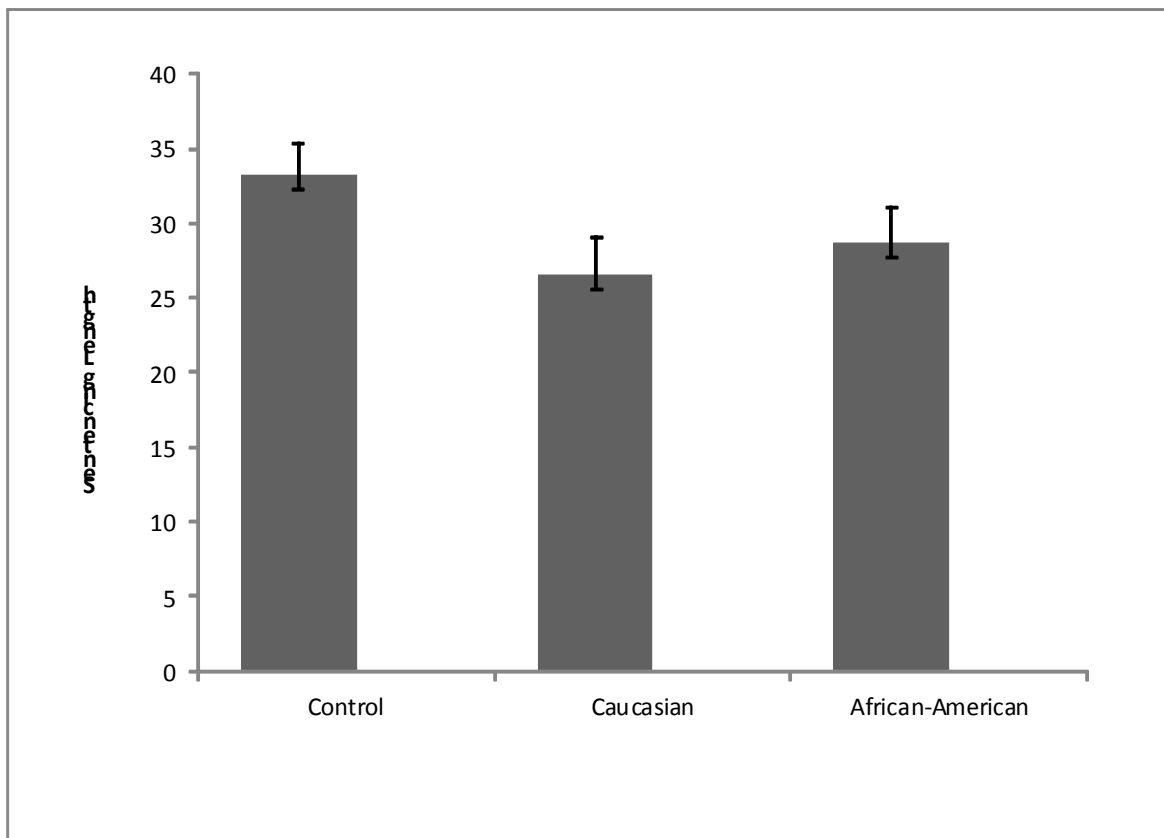
Figure 1. *The bars represent the mean length of sentencing by each group. No significant differences were found. Standard errors are represented in the figure by the error bars attached to each column.*

tences. A juror will tend to be more punitive when they are unable to humanize the defendant. Given the evidence showing physical features of a defendant influences a juror's judgment on the length of sentencing, mandatory laws are likely more punitive than a jury would apply.

Eberhardt et al. (2006) had demonstrated a significant positive relationship between African-American facial characteristics and sentence length. However, the second hypothesis that African-American defendants would receive harsher punishment than Caucasian defendants was not supported in this study. The lack of significance may have been due to participants not wanting to appear racist. Upon reading the scenario and viewing a photograph of an African-American defendant, participants may have suspected the intent of the study and downgraded the length of sentence they proposed.

The limited participation pool presents a potential bias. As previously noted, 95% of the participants in this study were Caucasian. Women made up the majority (74%) of the participants for this study. Fischer (1997) concluded young female jurors produce harsher punishments than young male jurors. Future studies examining sex as a variable could determine whether there is an effect on proposed lengths of sentences. Future studies may also examine the effects that other racial groups (Hispanic or Asian) have on the length of sentencing. Steffensmeier and Demuth (2000) concluded Hispanics received harsher punishments than did African-Americans. Incorporating different racial groups into this experiment may shed light onto whether potential jurors act more punitively towards a certain groups of people. Recruiting more diverse participants would more accurately depict a potential jury a defendant will confront.

Another limiting factor was the wording of
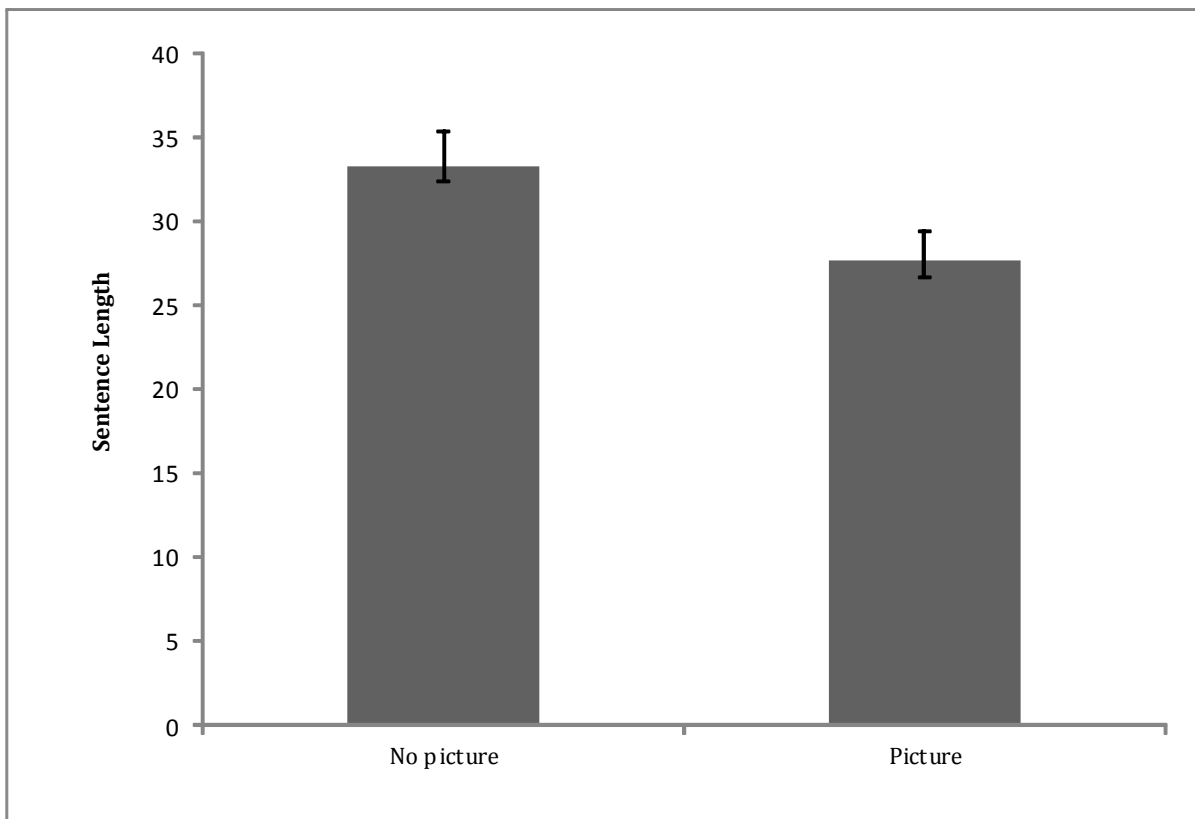

Figure 2. *The bars represent the mean length of sentencing between the groups. Significant differences were found between those who saw a picture to those who did not see a picture. Standard errors are represented in the figure by the error bars attached to each column.*

the crime scene scenario. The defendant was guilty of causing the death of a victim by administering poison, which is murder in the first degree in the *State of Nebraska Neb.Rev.Stat. § 28-303* (Reissue 2008). However, the defendant pled guilty to attempted second degree murder, which is Class IC felony in the State of Nebraska. A Class IC felony has a minimum length of 5 years and a maximum length of 50 years. Restricting participants to choose between 5-50 years allowed variance to be calculated between groups. It was assumed that participants would understand the dynamics of a plea bargain. However, participants may have been confused with the wording which may have influenced their sentencing judgments.

      The appearance of a defendant was determined to be critical to the length of sentence a juror proposed. Although race was not a factor, the presentation of a photograph of the alleged defendant allowed a juror to humanize the defendant and propose a shorter sentence length than when no physical representation of the defendant was provided.

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Sex and Dress as Predictors of Success

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Abstract—This study addressed how type of dress and sex influence perceptions of success. Photographs of men and women across three modes of dress were rated for level of success by participants. Results indicated there was an interaction between sex and mode of dress. Participants rated women higher than men when they were dressed casually, and men were rated higher when the dress was professional. Results suggest a combination of sex and dress play a significant role in ratings of perceived success.

Keywords: sex, dress, success

Researchers (Lightstone, Francis, & Kocum, 2011; Peluchette, Karl, & Rust, 2006; Yan, Yurchisin, & Watchravesringkan, 2011) have investigated many factors that influence how people are perceived. For example, people are perceived to be more successful if they are more attractive. In addition to physical characteristics, researchers have found dress is an influential factor (Forsythe, Drake, & Cox, 1985; Frith & Gleeson, 2004; Kwantes, Lin, Gidak, & Schmidt, 2011; Lennon, 1986; Stangor, Lynch, Duan, & Glass, 1992).

Type of dress is sex specific. So perceptions of success are understandably influenced by sex. Both the sex of the person being evaluated and the sex of the person doing the evaluation can be influential. For example, researchers have found that ratings of male and female professors differ based on the sex of the person rating the professor (Bachen, McLoughlin, & Garcia, 1999; Basow, 1995). Additional research suggests course content and sex interact (Basow & Martin, 2012).

Willis and Todorov (2006) found t people take only about one-tenth of a second to form impressions of others and typically a person's face is the most influential feature. In addition to facial features, attire, cleanliness, and grooming are additive, or comprise a gestalt approach in forming an opinion (Lennon, 1986; Stangor et al., 1992). Therefore, the way in which a person is dressed can have a significant effect on how people form impressions. For example, St-James, de Man, and

Stout (2006) found informal attire, such as athletic apparel, can lead others who do not dress in a similar manner, to be distant or hesitant to initiate conversation. Aside from facial features, clothing is one of the most important cues used in the perception of others. Let us begin by reviewing the research pertaining to perceived success based on mode of dress.

Mode of Dress

Mode of dress plays an important role in shaping perceptions of competency regardless of whether faculty or students are rated. People can alter their dress, thus modifying how they are perceived. People can easily make changes to what they wear, so research about successful modes of dress is important for helping people make good decisions about how to dress for a high-stakes situation. Thus, understanding how people perceive dress, depending on whether the person is male or female, may lead to recommendations for how people (e.g., interviewees) might dress for a high stakes interview. In other words, initial impression management is particularly important because people form impressions almost immediately.

A limited number of studies have specifically examined the role of student dress and sex on perceived success (Carr, Davies, & Lavin, 2009; Carr, Davies, & Lavin, 2010; Lightstone et al., 2011). In addition, different styles of dress can reflect personality or cultural norms. For instance, St-James

et al. (2006) found that students feel a greater perceived social distance between themselves and other students when they are wearing athletic apparel. Athletes are perceived by their peers to have a different social status. Athletic apparel is usually associated with less formal and less prestigious judgments, but when athletes are dressed in athletic apparel, students may actually perceive the athletes as having a different and more elite social class.

In contrast to students, when professors dress less formally they are perceived as less professional regardless of the students' majors (Carr et al., 2009; Carr et al., 2010; Lightstone et al., 2011). Similarly, student opinions about how a professor is dressed suggest less formal dress is associated with students reporting the professor is much more friendly and approachable. However, if the dress is too casual the professor is viewed as less credible. Students often perceive professors wearing blue jeans and a polo shirt as competent but lacking in expertise (Lighthouse et al., 2011). Those professors are also perceived as being much more lenient and friendly. Students tend to perceive a professor dressed in a casual manner as more successful than one dressed in a t-shirt, but less successful than a professor dressed in more formal attire (Carr et al., 2010).

Because a professor is frequently viewed as a model, it follows that careful attention is paid to a professor's attire (Carr et al., 2009). Much like the way retail store employees are seen as more competent and helpful as their formality increases, professors in the college classroom are perceived to be more serious and knowledgeable about the subject material when the formality of dress is increased (Carr et al., 2009; Yan et al., 2011). Although casually dressed instructors are often rated as the most likeable, their overall class ratings are typically in the neutral range when evaluated by their students (Lightstone et al., 2011).

In a business setting, particularly the retail environment, customers form opinions or jump to certain conclusions based on the dress of the employees (Peluchette et al., 2006; Yan et al., 2011). Yan et al. (2011) found employee attire affects the quality expectations of a customer. They also found that a store with lower standards of dress for its employees is more likely to be perceived as selling lower quality merchandise. Yet there are some positive attributes associated with less formal dress in the workplace. For instance, when employees are permitted to wear less formal clothing, employees report being more satisfied with their job (Peluchette et al., 2006).

People tend to feel most comfortable in their duties when wearing casual clothes (Peluchette et al., 2006). Yan et al. (2011) found a positive correlation between the perceived class of a retail store and the increased formality of dress among its employees. Yet, it is also important for businesses to consider morale of their employees (Peluchette et al., 2006). An employee who is casually dressed in the work environment is likely to portray a friendly and adequate amount of service to a potential customer (Peluchette et al., 2006; Yan et al., 2011).

Generally speaking, regardless of setting (educational or business), people form impressions based on attire. Overall, employees prefer to dress casually (Peluchette et al., 2006). Although ratings of people who are dressed casually are not typically as high, they are still perceived as competent and approachable in either setting (Yan et al., 2011).

When considering the ways a person may dress, people often perceive others as more professional, or knowledgeable, as their attire increases in formality (Lighthouse et al., 2011; Peluchette et al., 2006; Yan et al., 2011). Business casual dress lacks a formal definition, but it is frequently associated with a dress shirt, khaki (or some other color dress pants), and a specific type of shoe (Forsythe et al., 1985; Peluchette et al., 2006; Yan et al., 2011). For example, interviewees are perceived as more confident and successful when wearing clothes considered to be business casual (Forsythe et al., 1985; Peluchette et al., 2006). In other words, dress directly influences the way coworkers and customers view an employee (Yan et al., 2011). As the level of formality increases, the credibility of the employee and business increase. Peluchette et al. (2006) also found people who place high value on their appearance at work feel more competent, influential, successful, and they were more likely to receive raises or promotions faster than those that did not dress in a similar manner.

These same findings are mirrored in an academic environment (Carr et al., 2009; Carr et al., 2010; Yan et al., 2011). Although professors who

dress in business attire are often seen as less friendly, they are rated more positively on dimensions of competence and knowledge (Lightstone et al., 2011). Professors dressed in clothes students deem business casual are also seen as more successful outside of the classroom (Carr et al., 2010). Students also typically rate the overall educational quality of the class to be higher when the professor dresses in a more formal manner (Carr et al., 2009). It is not uncommon for students to feel more prepared for the task of finding a job after taking a class in which the instructor was dressed professionally (Carr et al., 2010). Furthermore, the academic quality of the institution is rated more positively when students frequently encounter faculty dressed in business casual attire (Carr et al., 2010; Lightstone et al., 2011).

Sex

Perceptions of success are heavily influenced by attire, yet sex is a second influential variable in shaping perceptions. Not only is it important to consider the role of dress in shaping perceptions, but it is important to consider how type of dress may differ in conjunction with sex. Forsythe et al. (1985) found women are typically perceived more positively when their dress is similar to men. However, they also found women may be perceived as too masculine if they dress too much like men, thus decreasing their rating. In sum, ratings of men and women are the result of different expectations that may also vary by situation (Forsythe et al., 1985; Kwantes et al., 2011).

Societal expectations for how men and women should dress are inconsistent. For men, professional dress in clearly defined as formal attire. Men are expected to wear formal shoes, pants, belts, shirts, and frequently even ties while in a business environment (Kwantes et al., 2011). Appropriate dress for women is much more difficult to define (Forsythe et al., 1985). Expectations of women may include wearing a dress, skirt, or slacks. Styles for each of these categories vary widely. The most appropriate modality for women is a sex-neutral form of dress. In particular, women are perceived as less competent if they wear more risqué or revealing styles (Glick, Chrislock, Petersik, Vijay, & Turek, 2008; Forsythe et al., 1985; Peluchette et al., 2006; White, 1995).

As previously indicated, perceptions are shaped by a number of factors. The perceived role of the person is important in shaping opinions. Sex is also critical in differentiating what is perceived to be appropriate attire. This study expanded on these questions and examined the role of dress in perceived success in college. Determining perceptions of appropriate classroom attire, from a student's perspective, will ultimately assist in understanding social and professional choices. The purpose of this study was not to contradict earlier studies, but to expand on those findings.

Method

Participants

Participants were recruited through the department subject pool. Students participating in this study (N = 195) attended a large comprehensive public institution in the southeastern United States. Consistent with the general demographics of the university, women (n= 120) were overrepresented (60.9%) in the sample (Kennesaw State University 2011-2012 Fact Book).

Only 185 participants reported their age. Participants in this study ranged in age from 18 to 49 (M = 20.92, SD = 4.32). Most participants were Caucasian (65.5%). African Americans made up the highest minority group representation (20.8%). Hispanics (1.5%), Asian Americans (6.6%), Native Americans (.5%), and multiracial (5.1%) students were also represented in this study.

Stimuli

The independent variables in this experiment were type of attire and sex. Three levels of dress (i.e., weekend, casual, and business casual) were portrayed using photographs depicting the three modes of dress. Two models (one male and one female) were used to examine sex as a second variable.

Six different conditions (i.e., type of attire and gender) were created by taking photographs of models. Three levels of dress (i.e., business casual, casual, and weekend) were depicted by each model (i.e., male and female) to create the six conditions. For the purpose of this study, business casual was defined as the most formal mode of dress, followed by casual dress, and weekend or informal dress. A

male student was asked to dress in a white dress-shirt and khaki pants to reflect the business casual level of the independent variable. The same male student then dressed in a white polo shirt and jeans to reflect a slightly more casual mode of dress. The third level of the independent variable was the most casual, with the student dressing in a tee shirt and jeans. In each level, the color of the shirt remained constant to minimize the potential for color to act as a confounding variable. These images are contained in Appendix A.

Using the same operational definitions for each level of dress, a female model was also rated by each participant. The female model wore a white dress shirt with khaki pants in the business casual level. Casual dress was demonstrated by the female wearing jeans and a white polo shirt. The female wore jeans and a tee shirt in the most casual level of dress. Appendix A contains the images that were created by for this study.

When staging the photographs, every effort was made to change only the dress of the model, while maintaining similarity across images. Facial expressions and posture remained consistent across the three levels of dress for both male and female images. In sum, three photographs depicting each level of dress with a male and female model were used. In addition to the stimulus photographs, six photographs were also created that would serve as distractors. Three male and female photographs included various modes of dress that deviated from the stimulus photographs. The dress in these images also included alternate color combinations.

Procedure

Survey Monkey was used to create an online study. Students were presented with an informed consent statement upon entering the study. Once the participant accepted the conditions of the informed consent, the participant was asked to provide demographic information. Participants were asked to provide age, sex, and race.

After completing demographic information the photographs were presented. Photographs appeared in a random order (using the Survey Monkey random feature) to minimize potential carry over effects. The participants viewed and rated each photograph individually (i.e., six stimu-

lus and six distractors). Photographs were presented one per page, and participants were asked to rate each photograph for likelihood of success before proceeding. Using the presentation feature, participants were not allowed to return to previous photographs after rating each picture. Thus, participants rated each photograph on the perceived level of success, ranging from 1 (*least successful*) to 10 (*most successful*), on each page before proceeding to the subsequent photograph. Participation was complete after the participants successfully rated all twelve photographs.

Results

Two independent variables were examined in this study. Three levels of attire were used (i.e., weekend dress, casual, and business casual) and sex (i.e., male and female) as the second independent variable. A two-way repeated measures ANOVA was used to examine the combined effect of attire and sex on perceived level of success.

It was initially believed ratings of success would increase as dress became more formal. However, the statistical analysis revealed the main effect (dress) was also influenced by sex. In other words, sex and dress produced an interaction effect, $F(2, 388) = 14.806, p < .001$, .

The female weekend dress condition received higher ratings ($M = 6.41, SD = 1.47$) than male weekend dress condition ($M = 5.91, SD = 1.50$). In an examination of casual level of dress, the results for men and women were very similar, but the male model ($M = 6.61, SD = 1.33$) was rated slightly higher than the female model ($M = 6.60, SD = 1.38$). Finally, the male model ($M = 7.37, SD = 1.60$) was rated higher than the female model ($M = 7.22, SD = 1.69$) in the business casual level (see Figure 1).

Simple contrasts revealed a significant difference was present only for the interaction between sex and dress for the weekend and business casual conditions, $F(1, 194) = 24.38, p < .05$. This result indicates participants rated females ($M = 6.41, SD = 1.47$) higher than males ($M = 5.91, SD = 1.50$) when models wore weekend dress. However, the opposite effect occurred when models were dressed in business casual attire. In this case, male models ($M = 7.37, SD = 1.60$) were rated as more successful than female models ($M = 7.22, SD =$
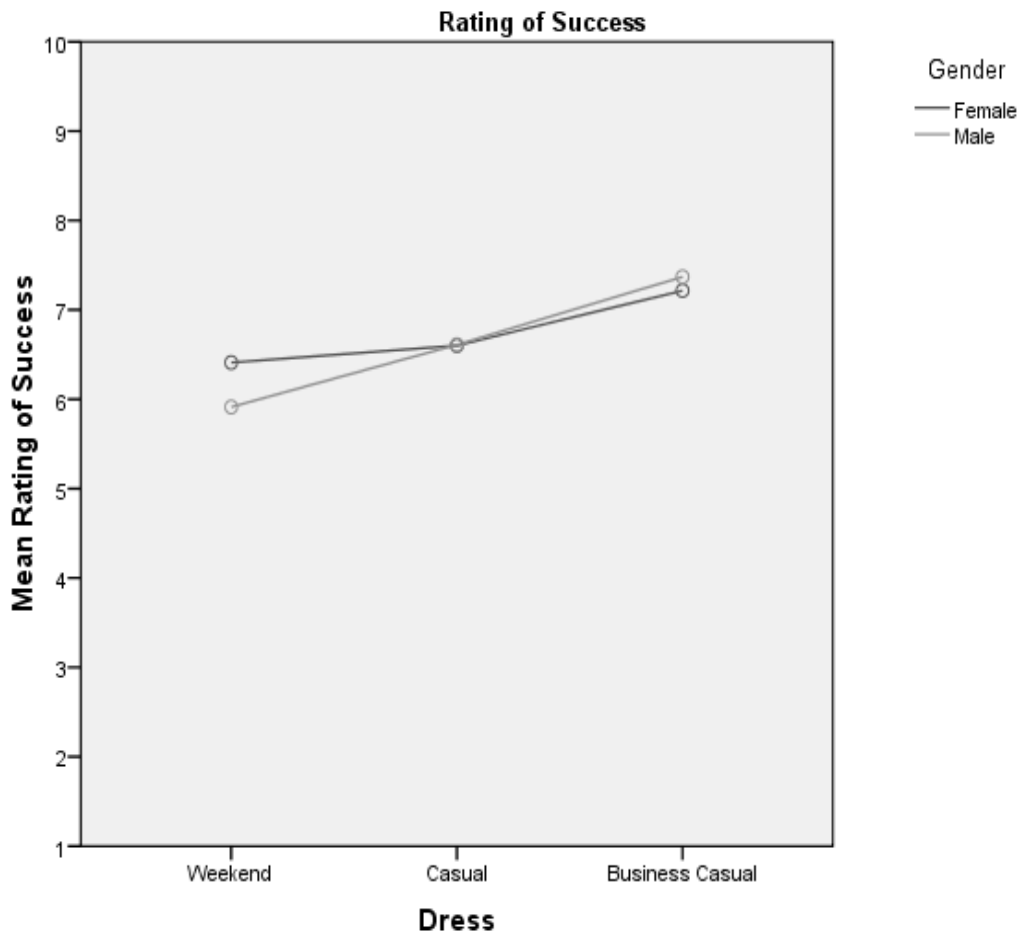
Figure 1. *Mean scores for men and women across the three styles of dress.*

1.69) when they wore business casual attire.

Discussion

This study largely demonstrated results similar to earlier studies with respect to perceived differences in sex and dress. Forsythe et al. (1985) found women are rated more positively when dressed professionally, but if women dressed in a highly masculine fashion, ratings decreased. So, although sex patterns of dress were not specifically examined, this study did find women were rated lower than men in the business dress condition.

However, Lightstone et al. (2011) found male and female professors were rated similarly when they were dressed professionally. Results from this study contradicted those of Lightstone et al. (2011) in comparison to men, women were rated less positively when they were dressed professionally and more positively when they were dressed casually. Thus ratings of perceived success appear to be influenced by both sex and type of dress.

Most of the literature (Yan et al., 2011) suggests as formality of dress increases, perceived level of success and competence also increases regardless of sex. However, these conflicting results may reflect, in part, the prevailing discrepancy in wages. For example, Wood, Corcoran, and Courant (1993) found women still make less than

men in the same position. So, results from this study may simply reflect a societal expectation that women must dress more professionally in a work setting, or perform at higher levels, to be successful.

Perhaps one of the most interesting findings in this study was the interaction of dress and sex, particularly with respect to the more casual dress condition. In general, expectations of women might be lower (Heilman, 2001) therefore, in the weekend casual condition women might be rated more highly because the expectations in general for women are actually lower.

This study did have several limitations. Along with overrepresentation of females in this sample, this study was conducted online. Although using an online method of testing allowed provided an opportunity to obtain a larger sample, because participants were not directly observed it was difficult to evaluate how seriously the participants took the study. Therefore results of this study should be replicated to ensure these findings remain consistent.

A second limitation is that stimuli did not include racially diverse models. Therefore, these results cannot be generalized to conditions that are racially diverse. A third limitation was lack of specificity in the scenario. Participants were only asked to rate each model using one common question. The ratings of the models could vary based on the scenario at hand. For instance, the business casual model may receive different ratings if the pictures included a description of a specific profession. This limitation is particularly important when considering research that indicates differences in sex (Forsythe et al., 1985).

Because it appears women are held to a higher standard when it comes to increasing formality in dress, there would be several benefits to expanding this line of research. It would be beneficial to expand on the number of different clothing combinations. Adding varieties of each level of dress would also be helpful in establishing more consistency in the ratings. Modality of dress influences perceptions of success, and the results of this study suggest students see others as being significantly more successful when dressed professionally.

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Appendix
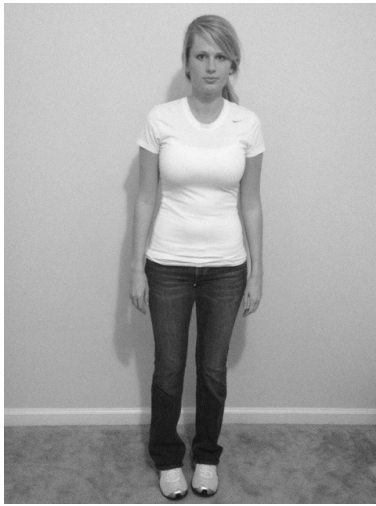
Female weekend dress

Male weekend dress
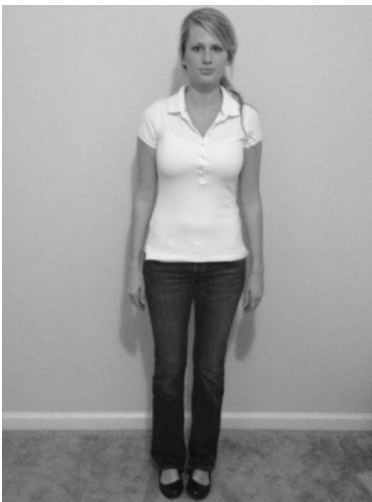
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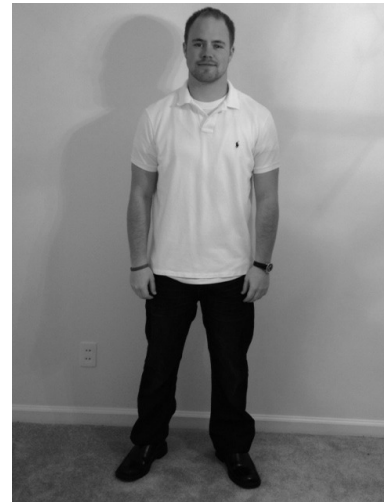
Male casual dress

Female business casual
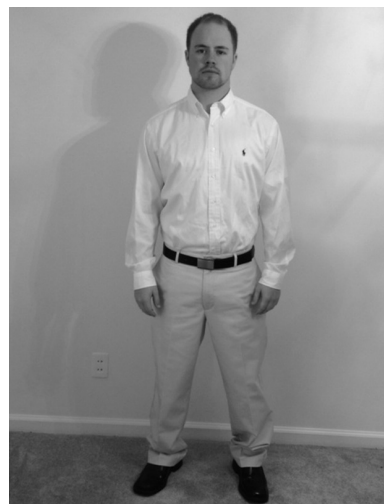
Male business casual

Mindfulness in Adolescents:
Effects of Single-Session Mindfulness Meditation on Anxiety and Depression

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Abstract—The main goal of the study was to determine if participating in a short "mindfulness" meditation session would decrease anxiety and depression in adolescents. Forty-one teens from two middle/high school wrestling teams were placed into one of two conditions, either a five minute guided meditation session or a control group (no meditation). Both groups completed scales on anxiety, depression, introversion, openness to experience, and perceived mindfulness. Going against hypotheses, participants in the meditation condition showed similar levels of anxiety and depression as the control condition, and no significant correlations were found between mindfulness and personality traits. However, important confounding variables of session timing and environmental culture likely impacted these results. Implications and future research ideas are discussed.

Keywords: mindfulness, adolescents, therapy, meditation

In this fast-paced time and culture where there is so much pressure to have it all, do it all, and be all that you can be, the idea that simply existing is the best and most important concept to a successful life may be hard to swallow for some Americans. However, the concept of simply living in the moment is a common practice for a follower of Eastern philosophy. It is called "mindfulness," and it is the belief that one should be present in every moment of every day. Also part of this practice is accepting things as they are without judgment. Recently, the concept of mindfulness meditation has found its way into therapeutic practices for a variety of physical and psychological ailments (Miller, Fletcher, & Kabat-Zinn, 1995; Shapiro, Schwartz, & Bonner, 1998; Teasdale et al., 2000). The purpose of the present study was to examine the usefulness of meditation based on mindfulness in adolescents, as a possible way to decrease anxiety and depression.

Types of Mindfulness Based Therapy

Mindfulness is the self-regulated, attention creating, increased recognition of mental events in the current moment, and observing these moments in an accepting, open, and curious manner (Bishop et al., 2004). Put more simply, mindfulness is being aware of what is occurring at the present moment (Brown & Ryan, 2003). When people meditate mindfully, they are encouraged to be aware of not just their breathing, but also how they are feeling emotionally and physically. If a thought enters their consciousness when meditating, the meditator needs only to observe it objectively, without passing judgment on themselves or the thought (Bishop et al., 2004; Shapiro et al., 1998).

There are two main types of therapy involving mindfulness, namely mindfulness based stress reduction (MBSR) and mindfulness based cognitive therapy (MBCT). Although the two therapeutic perspectives have many components in common, there are some very significant differences. Typically, mindfulness based therapies involve a training program lasting between eight to ten weeks, in which the participants practice and understand mindfulness (Miller et al., 1995). Sessions focus on multiple aspects of mindfulness meditation, such as mindfulness in stressful situations and how yoga positions help mindfulness (Grossman, Niemann, Schmidt, & Walach, 2004). Particular ses-

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sions may differ based on the group's demographics. For example, if the group is composed of adults suffering from social anxiety, the sessions may be more focused on using mindfulness to stay present and aware of anxiety levels and what is occurring in that situation in order to lower anxiety. Often, participants are assigned daily meditation homework to increase their success in the therapy.

MBSR, the first type of mindfulness therapy, was originally developed as a treatment for chronic pain. It is now widely used to treat many psychological disorders as well, including anxiety and depression (Bishop et al., 2004). The main goal of MBSR is to educate participants on identifying stressful situations, as well as providing them with tools on how to lower their stress in specific and daily situations. Participants in MBSR range from those individuals with a physical or psychological ailment, such as fibromyalgia or cancer, to individuals who desire better coping skills for their daily lives (Grossman et al., 2004).

MBCT, as the name suggests, is the combination of mindfulness with cognitive behavior therapy (CBT). MBCT was designed specifically to aid clients with history of depressive relapse (Geschwind, Peeters, Drukker, Van Os, & Wichers, 2011). Through mindfulness meditation, clients' thinking is shifted from their current thinking pattern, to a new, healthier one. The focus of MBCT is to educate individuals on the awareness of their feelings as mental events, rather than seeing their feelings as a negative reflection on themselves (Teasdale et al., 2000). By being more "present," clients are better able to recognize negative emotions and thoughts, as well as what triggers them, and this awareness allows them to process through the feelings, rather than instantly reacting to them, thus preventing the negative symptoms to escalate. Geschwind and colleagues (2011) later found MBCT also improved levels of positive affect in clients with depression, in addition to creating higher levels of response to pleasant daily activities.

Application of Mindfulness Based Therapy

Numerous applications of mindfulness based therapies have been reported, both physical and psychological. Lower pain, higher quality of function (Grossman et al., 2004), and higher im-

mune function (Davidson et al., 2003) are physical benefits that have been reported . Psychological benefits to mindfulness are bountiful. In a study of premedical and medical students, mindfulness meditation was found to reduce psychological distress and anxiety, aid in emotional regulation, and increase empathy (Davis & Hayes, 2011; Shapiro et al., 1998). Stress reduction may be the most applicable of all mindfulness based skills because stress is a common negative factor in many diseases, both physical and psychological. Mindfulness has also been found to lead to higher reported quality of life, better coping style, and increase in positive affect (Davidson et al., 2003; Grossman et al., 2004). In oncological patients, mindfulness had greater resultant effect size compared to supportive counseling and medication in relation to patient anxiety, depression, perceived quality of life, and distress (Foley, Huxter, Baillie, Price, & Sinclair, 2010).

Although past research clearly shows that mindfulness based therapies have been successful in a variety of individuals, this work has all been completed with adult populations. Despite the large body of research on mindfulness therapy in general, few studies have been published regarding whether mindfulness based therapies are effective with younger populations (although see Greco, Baer, & Smith, 2011). However, it is reasonable to assume the techniques will work, regardless of age. One purpose of the current study was to expand past work by applying mindfulness techniques to children, and based on success rates in adults, it was predicted that mindfulness meditation would reduce anxiety and depression in adolescents.

Mindfulness and Openness to Experience

Similar to the heightened attention provided by mindfulness is the psychological phenomenon called absorption. Absorption is defined as "a disposition for having episodes of 'total' attention that fully engage one's representational resources" (Tellegen & Atkinson, 1974, p. 268). The main basis for absorption is rooted in one's ability to be hypnotized. Research has shown that those individuals who score higher in absorption are also more susceptible to hypnotism (Glisky, Tataryn, Tobias, Kihlstrom, & McConkey, 1991; Tellegen & Atkinson, 1974). This is because people high in

absorption are more likely to be fully engaged in an event (in this case, the hypnotism; Tellegen & Atkinson, 1974).

Absorption has been found to be correlated with the personality trait openness to experience (Glisky et al., 1991; Roche & McConkey, 1990). Openness to experience was even identified as an aspect to the definition of absorption (Roche & McConkey, 1990). Because those individuals with higher openness to experience are more involved and absorbed in their activities, it was hypothesized in the current study that openness to experience and mindfulness would be positively correlated.

Mindfulness and Introversion

Many studies have demonstrated introverts have heightened arousal and stronger reaction to stimuli in comparison to extraverts (cf. Eysenck, 1972). For example, introverts have been shown to be less affected by caffeine than extraverts (Revelle, Humphreys, Simon, & Gulliland, 1980; Smith, Wilson, & Jones, 1983); introverts spend more time viewing stimuli and respond more slowly to stimuli than extraverts (Brebner & Cooper, 1978), and introverts make fewer mistakes on complex tasks testing reaction time (Bullock & Gilliland, 1993). One possible reason for these phenomena is the ascending reticular activating system (ARAS), which mediates arousal (Bullock & Gilland, 1993; Eysenck, 1972). In introverts, there is more base activity in the ARAS, indicating they operate at a higher level of arousal on average than extraverts, which is why introverts tend to shy away from stimulation whereas extraverts seek it out (Bullock & Gilland, 1993). While it is true this difference between introverts and extraverts is potentially due to biological differences, it is important to acknowledge the lack of random assignment to personality invites alternate explanations. However, this individual difference may still be predictive of reactions to a mindfulness meditation session. As stated above, mindfulness practice heightens one's awareness of the environment. Because the preponderance of evidence indicates that introverts are naturally more aroused and responsive to stimuli, it was expected in the present study that introversion and mindfulness would be positively correlated.

Hypotheses

This study had four hypotheses, based on previous research. First, participants who engaged in mindfulness meditation would report higher perceived mindfulness scores compared to a control group. Second, it was expected that mindfulness meditation would be associated with lower anxiety and depression in youth compared to a control group. Third, a positive correlation was predicted between scores on openness to experience and mindfulness (regardless of meditation condition). Lastly, a positive correlation was also expected between scores on introversion and mindfulness (again, regardless of meditation condition).

Methods

Participants

Participants were 41(38 boys, 3 girls) middle and high school students who were recruited through Midwestern public schools (28 students were from wrestling team 1, 13 from wrestling team 2). The self-reported ethnicity of participants was 94% Caucasian, 5% Black, and 1% were other. Participant ages ranged from 12 to 18 years of age (M=15.44, SD =1.88). No compensation was given for participation in this study; all participants were purely voluntary, although the procedure was encouraged by the wrestling coaches. Wrestling teams were used because the school principals and wrestling coaches agreed to the study; the specific context of wrestling is not relevant to the current study's hypotheses.

Procedure

Upon approval of the hosting university's Institutional Review Board, two middle/high school principals and wrestling coaches in the Midwest were contacted through mail to inform them of the nature of the study and request permission to use their teams for participants. Parental consent forms explaining the study were sent home; completion of this form allowed students to participate. If a student either did not return a completed consent form or chose not to volunteer themselves, they did not participate.

Participants were assigned to either the meditation or control condition (see below for de-

tails), and both groups completed a survey including all dependent variables. After completion of the survey, all participants were thanked for their participation and given a debriefing form. One side of this debriefing form contained questions and answers written for comprehension for a younger audience, whereas the other side was written for parents, to be taken home by each participant.

Independent Variable: Guided Meditations
All participants in each of the two locations were placed in one of two conditions: meditation or non-meditation (i.e., all students at school 1 meditated, and all students at school 2 served as the control group). Those in the meditation group completed a six minute guided meditation, as a group. First, they were asked to find a comfortable position around the room in which they could maintain a comfortable sitting position. They were then instructed to listen to a recording of a guided meditation from the UCLA Mindful Meditations Breathing Meditation 2009. The recording asked the participants to become aware of themselves and their environment. For example, some phrases were: "Find your meditation posture. A position that is not to tight, nor too relaxed… notice where your body makes contact with the floor, or the chair, feel your breath, the rising and falling of your abdomen with your breath." The meditation lasted 5 minutes and 33 seconds. In the non-meditation (control) condition, participants were instructed to complete the survey immediately, with no preceding meditation mentioned or completed.

Dependent Variables
  Perceived mindfulness. Perceived mindfulness was measured using the Child and Adolescent Mindfulness Measure (CAMM; Greco et al., 2011). The CAMM is a 10 item scale in which participants responded with how true a statement was on a 4-point Likert scale (where 0 = *Never true*, 4 = *Always true*). Statements included, "I get upset with myself for having certain thoughts," and "I think that some of my feelings are bad and that I shouldn't have them." All items were summed to create a composite variable where higher scores indicated more mindfulness. The mean of this sample was 30.75 (*SD* = 6.47). Cronbach's alphas measuring internal consistency of the measure were calculated for all

dependent variables; the standard for this statistic is that anything above .70 is considered sufficient (Vogt, 1999). Internal consistency for perceived mindfulness was good, α = .85.
  Depression. A modified version of the Beck Depression Index-Youth scale (Beck, Beck, & Jolly, 2001) was used to measure depression; the scale was shortened to avoid participant fatigue (see Kluver & Goodfriend, 2010, for modified items). The scale included ten symptoms of depression and participants indicated how often they experienced each symptom on a 4-point Likert scale (where 1 = *never* and 4 = *always*). Items included statements such as, "I have had a bad life" and "I feel like crying." The score was obtained by calculating the sum of responses on all ten items, with higher scores indicating more depressive symptoms. The mean for this sample was 13.34 (*SD* = 2.55), and internal consistency was good, α = .76.
  Anxiety. Anxiety was measured using a modified Beck Anxiety Index (Beck, Epstein, Brown, & Steer, 1988). This modification from Kluver and Goodfriend (2010) is a 10 item self-report questionnaire scored on a 4-point Likert scale (1 = *not at all*, 4 = *Severely, it bothered me a lot*) measuring how bothersome anxious symptoms were in the past month. An example item from this scale includes, "Dizzy or lightheaded." The measure was summed, so higher numbers indicated higher severity of anxious symptoms. The mean of this sample was 15.65 (*SD* = 4.62), and internal consistency was good, α = .84.

Personality Variables: Introversion and Openness to Experience .   Introversion and openness to experience were measured using a modification of the Big 5 Inventory (see Appendix for modified items; John & Srivastava, 1999). The scale contained 18 items measured on a 5-point Likert scale in which the participants rated how a statement described them from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Items 2, 5, 7, 15, and 17 were reversed scored. The sum of the items indicated the score; items 1-8 measure introversion and items 9-18 measure openness to experience, with higher numbers on each scale indicating more of that trait. The mean of this sample for introversion was 30.62 (*SD* = 5.84), and internal consistency was good, α = .78. The mean of this sample for open-

ness was 35.32 (*SD* = 5.98), and internal consistency was good, α =.74.

Results

Hypothesis One

In order to examine the effects of meditation on mindfulness levels of participants, a t-test was performed to compare perceived mindfulness levels of participants in the meditation condition to those participants in the control condition. Going against the hypothesis, participants in the meditation condition showed slightly lower levels of mindfulness (*M* = 29.75, *SD* = 6.74) compared to participants in the control condition (*M* = 33.08, *SD* = 5.32); however, this difference was not statistically significant, *t* (38) = 1.52, *p* = 0.14.

Hypothesis Two

It was hypothesized that participants in the mindfulness condition would show less anxiety and depression than the control group. Results of a t-test showed that this was not the case; participants in the meditation group had similar levels of overall anxiety (*M* = 16.2, *SD* = 4.78) as those participants in the control condition (*M* = 14.46, *SD* = 4.15). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported, *t* (39) = 1.12, *p* =.27. This same pattern was also seen in depression scores. Participants in the meditation condition showed very similar levels of depression (*M* = 13.47, *SD* = 2.65) as those participants in the control condition (*M* = 13.08, *SD* = 2.43), also not supporting Hypothesis 2, *t*(39) = .45, *p* = .66.

Hypotheses Three and Four

A Pearson correlation coefficient was used to examine the possibility of a positive correlation between openness to experience and mindfulness. Results showed a slight and non-significant negative correlation, *r* (40) = -.13, *p* = .43, not supporting the hypothesis. Finally a positive correlation was also expected between openness to experience and mindfulness. A Pearson correlation coefficient revealed a slight positive correlation, but it was not significant; *r* (40) = .26, *p* = .10, not supporting the hypothesis.

Discussion

The current study attempted to further investigate the utility of mindfulness meditation. It was hypothesized participants in the mindfulness condition would show higher levels of perceived mindfulness, less anxiety, and less depression compared to participants in the control group. In addition, positive correlations were expected between openness to experience and mindfulness, as well as between introversion and mindfulness, regardless of condition. Unfortunately, none of the results showed statistical significance.

Many possible explanations could be offered regarding why the results were not significant. First, it is entirely possible mindfulness meditation does not work on younger people in the same way it does for adults (e.g., Davidson et al., 2003; Grossman et al., 2004). As stated above, few studies have tested mindfulness meditation therapy on adolescents (although see Greco et al., 2011). One of the purposes of this study was to replicate the pattern of findings previously found in adults, but in an adolescent population, to provide further evidence this form of therapy can work, regardless of age. It is not unreasonable to believe adolescents are not able to reach the same levels of mindfulness or concentration as adults, considering their lower levels of cognitive development, maturity, and life experience. Thus, perhaps the reason the mindfulness manipulation had no effect is simply because it would not have been effective for this particular sample.

However, there are many other possibilities for the lack of significant results, mostly due to limitations within the current study. First, all of the participants were recruited due to being on middle/high school wrestling teams, and perhaps the largest limitation of the study was the timing of data collection. The meditation group participated in the study the evening prior to State Qualifiers, a high-pressure tournament that is the summation of each of the athletes' individual progress throughout the season. Understandably, the athletes in our sample may have been experiencing a lot of anxiety in anticipation of this significant event.

In contrast, the non-meditation condition participants completed the survey at the completion of their wrestling season, after any sports-relevant activities had passed. It is likely there was very little outside pressure on the participants in this condition, compared to the meditation condition. This very important timing issue was, thus, a

major confounding variable in the study. Although it is certainly possible the meditation manipulation simply was not effective, another very real possibility is the meditation did not make up for the increased anxiety, depression, and distraction (or lack of mindfulness) the individuals in that condition were already experiencing.

The settings in which the participants completed the experiment also differed. The meditation group completed the meditation and surveys in a group setting in their home wrestling room after practice. In contrast, the non-meditation group completed the surveys at their leisure in a variety of settings and then returned them to their coach. This difference also could have played an important role in the unexpected results. Finally, the two teams had different cultures, leadership via their individual coaches, and so on, making the zeitgeist of each group very different. All of these comparisons added important confounding variables to the study.

In short, the lack of control over the experimental conditions was unfortunate and probably impacted the pattern of results in a variety of ways. Participants were not randomly assigned to the two experimental conditions, which created the confounding variables mentioned above. While these circumstances were unfortunate, the restrictions placed by the coaches involved and the difficulty in obtaining an underage sample in general required a convenience sample. The original intention of the authors was to eliminate all relevant confounding variables by assigning individual participants to one of the two study conditions. However, the coaches requested all of their players receive the same treatment, making this random assignment impossible.

Future Research

As noted above, an essential limitation of the current study was the timing of the experiment in relation to the team schedules. If this experiment is to be redone with the same type of participants, athletic schedules need to be taken into account to help rule out external factors and confounding variables. The location in which the experiment is completed should also be made consistent across both conditions. In short, in order to correctly infer causality relevant to the manipulation of mindfulness meditation, much more control over experimental conditions must occur.

Another limitation is lack of diversity in the participants. Due to the nature of the teams used, only three participants were girls, while the remaining 38 were boys. In order to thoroughly study the effects of meditation across sex, a more diverse sample with similar numbers of boys and girls should be used. More diversity across ethnicities would also be beneficial, and is another area in which this sample is lacking. Another limitation relating to this experiment is overall sample size. With the small sample size used in this study, statistical power was low and therefore it would be difficult to achieve significant results even after controlling for the variables mentioned above.

The length of meditation was another limitation in this study. Previous research has examined the usefulness of mindfulness meditation over a period of time, such as several weeks (Miller et al., 1995). While the current study was specifically interested in the utility of a brief, single-session mediation period that could be used by teachers or coaches in school settings, it is possible five minutes is simply too short to show any effects, especially for younger participants who may have had trouble concentrating in the beginning of the meditation. The meditation time should be longer, so there is time for participants to fully immerse themselves. This may require having participants who are older, so their attention span will be able to withstand a longer meditation (e.g., only juniors and seniors in the high school; see Carriere, Cheyne, Solman, & Smilek, 2010). However, academic settings and after-school activities such as athletics could potentially benefit from knowing the minimum length of time required to have beneficial effects, so experimentally changing the length of time across different students is one avenue of future research.

Future research on this topic should also continue looking at the general application of meditation in school settings. These effects would ideally be tested in a traditional classroom setting, as was the original intention of this study. If classrooms can be used, participants should meditate in that classroom setting, ideally over an extended period of time, rather than a single session meditation, to be most similar to other mindfulness based

therapies. If this experiment can be completed successfully, and anxiety and depression are lowered, it can support the theory that teaching meditation practices in schools is beneficial in teaching life-long skills that students can use to cope with life's stressors.

Conclusion

Despite not obtaining significant results, this study is still valuable. It exhibited several limitations future research should avoid, and it pointed out the possibility that mindfulness meditation may be limited in the populations it could benefit. Adolescents have many life stressors; in addition to athletic pressure, students also have academic pressure and social pressure. It is necessary for more research to be done in this area regarding young students, in order to provide them with the necessary skills to manage stress in order to be successful in life. While this study did not support the utility of mindfulness meditation in adolescents, it is possible that the lack of results was due to procedural artifacts. Additional work regarding how to best combat anxiety and depression in children and adolescents is valuable, both from an academic perspective and from the perspective of improving young lives.

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Appendix

Modified Big 5 Scale

Directions: Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not describe you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who is talkative? Please write in the number which best indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement listed below. Use the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree		Neutral		Strongly Agree

1. _____ I am someone who is talkative.

2. _____ I am someone who is shy.

3. _____ I am someone who is full of energy.

4. _____ I am someone who is very excited.

5. _____ I am someone who tends to be quiet.

6. _____ I am someone who tends to stand up for myself.

7. _____ I am someone who finds it difficult to talk to strangers.

8. _____ I am someone who is outgoing, sociable.

9. _____ I am someone who is original, comes up with new ideas.

10. _____ I am someone who is curious about many different things.

11. _____ I am someone who is clever, a deep thinker.

12. _____ I am someone who has an active imagination.

13. _____ I am someone who likes to create and invent things.

14. _____ I am someone who values artistic experiences.

15. _____ I am someone who prefers work that is routine.

16. _____ I am someone who likes to think about things, and play with ideas.

17. _____ I am someone who isn't very interested in artistic things.

18. _____ I am someone who knows and likes art, music, or literature.

The Influence of Misogynistic Lyrics on Love Perceptions and Acceptance of Relationship Abuse

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Abstract—Much research exists on theoretical perspectives of love schemas (e.g., Knee, 1998), cultural acceptance of sexism (e.g., Wood, 2001), and the influence of music on individual perceptions (e.g., Barongan & Nagayama Hall, 1995). However, little research has combined these perspectives in experimental ways. We investigated the experimental influence of misogynistic lyrics on several dependent variables. It was expected participants exposed to misogynistic song lyrics would show higher levels of belief in "destiny" theories of love (Knee, 1998), higher sexism, and higher acceptance of relationship abuse, compared to a control group. Surprisingly, no significant differences were found except women in the misogynistic condition were more likely to blame a female victim of violence in a fictional abuse scenario. We hope this study contributes to literature regarding the impact pop culture and the music industry may have on young adults and larger society.

Keywords: love schemas, sexism, music, lyrics, theories of love

Let me show you how much I love you
I'll leave you a love mark on your face
Teach you that rough love is love
My love marks may hurt, but you deserve them
- Lyrics written by authors

In today's society love is a common theme in popular music, but messages and interpretations of what love should be vary with every song. Many studies have explored depictions of love in culture, such as through song lyrics or fairytales read to children (e.g., Anderson, Carngey, & Eubank, 2003; Barongan & Nagayama Hall, 1995; Wood, 2001); sometimes, the messages portrayed could influence relationship aggression and sexist attitudes toward women. The goal of the current study was to further investigate individual perceptions and expectations of the experience of love and relationship abuse, and how misogynistic cultural messages may influence those perceptions. The song lyrics shown above were written by the authors and used as experimental manipulation in this study (see method section).

Music in Society

It is possible that music has existed since the dawn of mankind, and it could be considered an essential component of many cultures. Music has many functions; for example, it can serve as a source of information where certain cultural beliefs and perceptions are communicated. It can also serve as the basis of having something in common between individuals. The purpose of music is not just limited to those few examples; at some point most people have used it for background noise or to simply change their current mood. For example, it can relax, or it can energize (Schafer & Seldmeir, 2009). Of course, the effects of music are dependent on the particular songs chosen.

As stated before, music has the ability to relax people. This is an example of an emotional stimulation. The emotional component of the song will influence the type of emotional response in listeners. The setting of where and when the song was listened to will also affect the mental image. For example, if a particular song was initially heard on a first date, hearing that song later may cause the listener to recall both the date setting and the

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emotions associated with that event (Laucher & Mizerisky, 1994).

While the example provided above implies positive connotations to music, some research has focused on negative connotations, such as music's influence on aggression and attitudes toward women. Anderson et al. (2003) found when men are exposed to violent rap videos, they are more likely to be accepting of using violence when interacting with others. Their research also suggested music videos that displayed antisocial behavior influenced participants to be more accepting of such behavior. Violent rap videos can influence both women and men to be more accepting of dating violence in young adults. The genre of the song also has influence. For example, people who prefer to listen to heavy metal music have been known to hold negative attitudes toward women. Research on lyrics has shown that aggressive lyrics influenced participants to view their relationships with women as more argumentative (Anderson et al., 2003).

As the example above illustrates, the interpretation of lyrics is not always accurate. At least one study established many people misunderstand the metaphors used in lyrics (Bader, 2007). For example, lyrics could be interpreted more literally than the songwriter intended; literary techniques such as metaphor may be overlooked by listeners. This misinterpretation could serve as an explanation to why misogynistic songs are sometimes taken literally.

Although the research outlined above highlights that some music can have a negative effect on listeners, not all music has the same influence. Interestingly, other research has also focused on music's influence on prosocial attitudes. For example, one recent study (Greitmeyer, 2008) exposed participants to either prosocial songs or neutral songs. Individuals in the prosocial song condition later showed more willingness to help others. Clearly, the specific messages portrayed in a song can influence perceptions and decision-making in individuals exposed to the lyrics. The current study explored the particular influence of lyrics on perceptions of love and relationships.

Perceptions of Love

Many romantic songs could be interpreted as portraying cultural values about love. Some songs deal with the experiences that occur while people are in love or after a breakup. Other songs display certain beliefs about love. For example, some songs display love as the everlasting cure to any problem. The beliefs presented by romantic songs can influence people's perceptions and expectations about love and relationships. Knee (1998) proposed two common, but disparate, ways of thinking about love; he referred to these perceptions as implicit theories of love. The first implicit theory identified by Knee is destiny or the belief that fate decides whether or not two people should be in a relationship. Destiny individuals further believe that the qualities that each person brings to the relationship cannot be changed because it has been predetermined by fate. Destiny also incorporates a "true love" or "soul mate" expectation, and the belief that conflicts indicate one's partner is not the one (Knee, 1998).

The second implicit theory is growth or the belief that when people are in a relationship, they grow together. Growth individuals believe relationships are built over time and conflicts are an opportunity to grow, as opposed to a sign the relationship is doomed. This latter belief has been shown to be more common among successful marriages, compared to destiny beliefs (Knee, 1998).

In addition to the research above, other studies show perceptions of love vary by sex. For example, men are more likely to fall in love faster than women, but also more likely to fall out of love. Women typically fall in love more cautiously. Both men and women believe in being affectionate; however, men place more emphasis on passion, whereas women prefer commitment (Miller & Perlman, 2009). These sex differences in styles of loving and in basic orientations toward relationships may impact the type of influence songs have on each sex and their interpretations of love. Thus, this study compared men and women on all variables of interest.

Cultural Acceptance of Abuse

Although little research has been conducted regarding cultural messages in song lyrics, studies have been completed regarding cultural messages in fairytales. Because these two genres (songs and fairytales) are similar in that they are messages

delivered to young people regarding how to think about love and a "happy ever after" future, findings from research about fairytales might inform hypotheses regarding song lyrics. Like in songs, many fairytales depict sexist attitudes toward women. The typical storyline in a fairytale includes a beautiful woman, who is rescued by the handsome Prince Charming. At the end, they live happily ever after, with the perfect marriage. Women in most fairytales are depicted as being helpless and in need of a man. Prince Charming shares similar characteristics with men who are aggressive towards women; he is dominant, confidant, strong, powerful, and authoritative (Wood, 2001).

Details of the typical fairytale relationship are not given after a courtship or marriage, though it can be interpreted fairytales follow Knee's (1998) destiny implicit theory of love. Prince Charming has the perceived perfect qualities a woman expects and does not have much to change, even if he is aggressive. It was destiny that brought these two people together, and destiny will decide for them the course their relationship will take. Again, similar messages and themes about destiny and "true love" can be found in popular music as well. While on the surface these themes do not appear particularly harmful, traditional gender roles between men and women may be an underlying current. These themes may send messages of relatively weak women who are destined to obey their masculine, aggressive, and powerful male counterparts. Unfortunately, when taken to an extreme these fairytale-like themes may teach misogyny.

Misogynistic or sexist song lyrics are also an example of cultural acceptance of abuse. As previous research (e.g., Anderson et al., 2003; Laucher & Mizerisky, 1994) has established, music does influence people and it also serves as an avenue of cultural information, even if it is acceptance of violence. This cultural acceptance can make it hard for victims to leave an abusive relationship. Furthermore, it allows the abuser to believe abuse is accepted in a relationship because it is culturally accepted. Because of the lack of extant research examining sexist themes in music, and how these messages may influence listeners' acceptance of abuse within a relationship context, the present

study sought to explore these issues further.

Hypotheses

Based on the research summarized above, the following hypotheses guided the present research study:

Hypothesis 1:
Participants exposed to misogynistic lyrics will be more accepting of relationship abuse, compared to participants not exposed to misogynistic lyrics (a main effect). No specific hypotheses were made regarding the interaction of gender with this main effect, however, sex was tested (see results).

Hypothesis 2:
Participants exposed to misogynistic lyrics will display more sexist attitudes toward women, compared to participants not exposed to misogynistic lyrics (a main effect), and this effect would be stronger in men, compared to women (an interaction).

Hypothesis 3:
Participants exposed to misogynistic lyrics will be more inclined to believe in the destiny theory of love, compared to participants who are not primed with misogynistic lyrics (a main effect), and this effect will be stronger for women than for men (an interaction).

Hypothesis 4:
Participants exposed to misogynistic lyrics will be less likely to believe in the growth theory of love, compared to participants not exposed to misogynistic lyrics, and this effect will be stronger for women than for men (an interaction).

Method

Participants

Participants were recruited from psychology classes in a small Midwestern university and received extra credit. There were a total of 95 participants (30 men, 65 women); age ranged from 18 -31 years (M = 19.74, SD = 1.79) and they were

79% Caucasian, 8% African American, 6% Hispanic/Latino, 1% Asian, and 5% other.

Procedure

All participants were asked to complete a consent form and report demographic information. Following that, they read a randomly assigned set of lyrics (the experimental manipulation; see below for details) and asked to consider their thoughts as they read the lyrics. Participants next completed a survey measuring sexism, beliefs about love, and general acceptance of relationship violence (see below). Subsequently, they read a fictional courtroom scenario regarding a heterosexual couple who had engaged in relationship violence (adapted from Esqueda & Harrison, 2005). Finally, participants responded to several items relevant to their perceptions of the violence and whom was to blame in the courtroom scenario (again, see below). Upon completion of the survey, participants received a full debriefing sheet explaining the nature of the study. All sessions were completed in a classroom setting in groups ranging from one to seven people. The study was approved by the university's Institutional Review Board for ethics.

Independent Variable: Types of Lyrics

Participants were randomly assigned to receive either misogynistic or non-misogynistic lyrics; in both cases, they were told that the lyrics were from a popular song in Austria from 2009. This cover story allowed the authors to present original lyrics without suspicion of the true variable of interest, misogyny. Debriefing included an explanation of this deception. See the Appendix for full lyrics in each condition (Part A for misogynistic lyrics and Part B for control lyrics); lyrics were actually composed by the authors.

Dependent Variables

Acceptance of violence. Acceptance of relationship violence was measured in two separate ways. First, global acceptance of relationship violence was measured using Foo and Margolin's (1995) Attitudes toward Violence Scale. Participants rated their agreement with how justifiable it is for one partner to slap or hit the other under each circumstance provided (e.g., "One partner

insults the other partner's best friend"). Thirteen items are measured on a 7-point Likert scale where 1= *not justifiable*, 4 = *somewhat justifiable*, and 7 = *justifiable*. All items are averaged to obtain a composite score with a possible range of 1 to 7, with higher numbers indicating more acceptance of relationship violence. The mean of this sample was 2.17 (*SD* = 1.04), and internal consistency for the scale was good in our sample, α = .91.

Acceptance of violence was also measured in terms of a specific fictional scenario. All participants read a transcript that supposedly came from a courtroom trial in which a husband and wife reported on a domestic violence incident (adapted from Esqueda & Harrison, 2005). The scenario described a party at their apartment, during which both the husband and wife became intoxicated, had a fight about the wife flirting with another man, and the husband beat the wife. After reading the scenario, participants responded to ten questions regarding their view of the situation (all responses were on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 = *Not at all* and 7 = *Very much*). The items asked how responsible each spouse was, how justified each spouse would be in physically harming the other person, whether arrest was warranted for each spouse, whether each spouse was guilty of "abuse," and how much each spouse was to blame for the incident. Each of the ten items was analyzed separately.

Sexism. Sexism was measured using the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 2001), which includes subscales for both hostile sexism (the belief that women are too demanding, are sexual teases, and complain too much) and benevolent sexism (the belief that women should be protected and cherished, and that they belong in traditionally feminine roles). Participants rated their agreement with each item on a 6-point Likert scale (where 0 = *disagree strongly* and 5 = *agree strongly*). Items are averaged to form composite variables with a possible range of 0 to 5, with higher numbers indicating more of each type of sexism. In the current sample, levels of both types of sexism were relatively low (for benevolent, *Mean* = 2.27, *SD* = 0.89; for hostile, *Mean* = 2.32, *SD* = 1.01), and internal consistency in both subscales was good for our sample (alpha for benevolent = 0.84; alpha for hostile = 0.91).

Implicit theories of love. Each implicit theory (growth and destiny) was measured with Knee's (1998) Implicit Theories of Love scale. The scale contained a total of eight items; four measured destiny (e.g., "Potential relationship partners are either destined to get along or they are not") and four measured growth (e.g., "The ideal relationship develops over time"). Participants rated their agreement to each item on a 7-point Likert scale (where 1 = *do not agree at all* and 7 = *strongly agree*). For each implicit theory, items are averaged to form a final score with a possible range of 1 to 7, with higher numbers indicating more belief in that theory of love. The mean of the current sample was 4.09 for destiny (*SD* = 0.98) and 5.49 for growth (*SD* = 0.95), but internal consistency in both subscales was relatively low in our sample, probably due to the scale only consisting of four items (alpha for destiny = 0.57; alpha for growth = 0.67).

Results

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis expected participants exposed to misogynistic lyrics would be more accepting of relationship abuse, compared to participants not exposed to misogynistic lyrics. An analysis of variance tested the main effects (of lyrics condition and of participant sex) and the interaction term; neither the interaction nor the main effects were significant (all *p* values > .75). Participants in the misogynistic lyrics condition reported similar levels of global acceptance of relationship abuse (*M* = 2.17, *SD* = .94) compared to participants in the control condition (*M* = 2.18, *SD* = 1.13). In addition to testing global acceptance of violence, analyses of variance were also conducted on each item accessing perceptions of the fictional relationship abuse scenario. Nine out of ten of the items showed no significant interactions or main effects of participant sex or misogyny condition (all *ps* > .10). However, one item did show significant effects. The final item on this part of the survey asked participants, "Was the woman to blame for the incident?" Thus, this item specifically assessed victim blame, as the woman was the victim of physical abuse in the scenario. For this question, there was a significant interaction (participant sex X lyrics), $F(1, 91) = 7.14$, $p < .01$. When separated into main effects, the misogynistic lyrics (versus control) did

not seem to have an effect, $F(1, 91) = 0.05$, $p = .83$. However, the main effect of participant sex was marginal, $F(1, 91) = 3.28$, $p = .07$. Male participants were slightly more likely to blame the woman in the scenario (*M* = 5.33, *SD* = 1.40), compared to female participants (*M* = 4.73, *SD* = 1.55).

However, the most surprising finding was revealed by the significant interaction. For men, when they were exposed to misogynistic lyrics, their blaming of the woman in the abuse scenario actually went down (*M* = 4.87, *SD* = 1.68), compared to men in the control lyrics condition (*M* = 5.80, *SD* = 0.86). The opposite effect was found in women; for them, blaming of the woman in the abuse scenario went up after hearing misogynistic lyrics (*M* = 5.15, *SD* = 1.52), compared to women in the control lyrics condition (*M* = 4.35, *SD* = 1.52). In sum, global acceptance of relationship violence was not affected by misogynistic lyrics, thus not supporting Hypothesis 1. However, the hypothesis did find partial support in a single item accessing perceptions of a fictional violence scenario, when female participants blamed the woman victim more after reading misogynistic lyrics.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis expected that participants exposed to misogynistic lyrics would display more sexist attitudes towards women, compared to participants not exposed to misogynistic lyrics (a main effect). It was further expected the exposure to misogynistic lyrics would affect men's sexism more, compared to women (an interaction). To analyze effects of condition and participant sex on sexism, sexism was separated into hostile sexism and benevolent sexism.

For benevolent sexism, the main effect of lyrics condition was not significant, $F(1, 91) = .80$, $p = .37$. However, the main effect of participant sex was significant, $F(1, 91) = 6.08$, $p < .05$, and the interaction was marginally significant, $F(1, 91) = 3.29$, $p = .073$. An examination of the means revealed that in the control condition, men had higher sexism (*M* = 2.85, *SD* = .97), compared to women (*M* = 2.04, *SD* = .80). The same trend was found in the misogynistic lyrics condition, but the difference was smaller; here, men's higher level of benevolent sexism (*M* = 2.34, *SD* = .82) was just slightly above women's benevolent sexism (*M* = 2.22, *SD* = .89).

For hostile sexism, again, the main effect of lyrics condition was not significant $F(1, 91) = 2.18$, $p = .14$, nor was the interaction, $F(1, 91) = 1.58$, $p = .21$. However, the main effect of participant sex was marginally significant $F(1, 91) = 3.60$, $p = .06$, with men reporting higher hostile sexism ($M = 2.61$, $SD = 1.08$) compared to women ($M = 2.19$, $SD = .96$). In sum, neither type of sexism supported Hypothesis 2; on both tests, effect of lyrics condition was not significant.

Hypothesis 3

For Hypothesis 3, it was expected participants exposed to misogynistic lyrics would be more inclined to believe in the destiny theory of love, compared to the control group, and this effect would be particularly strong in female participants. Analysis of variance revealed no effect of lyrics condition, $F(1, 91) = .66$, $p = .42$, and no interaction, $F(1, 91) = 0.66$, $p = .42$. There was, however, a significant main effect of participant sex on perceptions of the destiny theory of love [$F(1, 91) = 4.05$, $p = .047$], such that women believed in destiny love ($M = 5.62$, $SD = .88$) more than men did ($M = 5.20$, $SD = 1.04$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Hypothesis 4

Finally, Hypothesis 4 expected participants exposed to misogynistic lyrics would be less likely to believe in the growth theory of love, compared to control participants, and this effect would be stronger for women. For beliefs in "growth" love, none of the effects were significant, with the interaction $p = .37$ and both main effects $ps > .76$. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Discussion

The main purpose of the current study was to examine the potential effects of exposure to misogynistic lyrics on beliefs in sexism, implicit beliefs in love, and perceptions of violence within romantic relationships. Unfortunately, most of the hypotheses showed no significant effect of exposure to misogynistic lyrics.

The one significant effect of lyrics was revealed in the analysis of perceptions of the fictional abuse scenario that was presented to participants. Out of ten items assessing perceptions of the scenario, only one revealed effects of the lyrics manipulation. This single finding was small when considering all of the hypotheses from the current study; however, the potential conclusions from this finding may be quite important.

When men were exposed to misogynistic lyrics, they were less likely to blame a female victim of relationship abuse. This decrease in victim blaming was surprising, as the hypotheses in general expected the misogynistic lyrics would increase sexism and acceptance of violence. It is possible the men in the study felt reactive against the both the lyrics and the perpetrator of violence in the fictional scenario was a man. When reading these materials, they may have felt defensive of their sex and felt the desire to show not all men (including themselves) display socially unacceptable traits such as sexism or violence toward women (Tajfel, 1978). Perhaps the men's decreased blame for a female victim of violence was a way of trying to establish themselves as individuals who did not agree with the message in the song, or as individuals who did not support abuse of women.

For female participants, however, the opposite pattern emerged; they blamed the female victim of abuse more after hearing misogynistic lyrics (compared to the control group). This latter trend was more expected by the authors, but the participant sex difference was a surprise. The tendency for women to blame female victims of violence more after listening to misogynistic lyrics is an important, and potentially troubling, finding from the current study.

Women are twice as likely to be the victims of relationship violence as are men; they also typically attempt to leave an abusive relationship several times before successfully doing so (Cathey & Goodfriend, in press). If part of our culture is contributing to the difficulty of victims of violence finding safety, this becomes a serious matter. Results from the current study indicate at least in a small way, exposure to misogynistic lyrics caused women to blame victims of violence (at least, more than the control group of women). This tendency might make women less likely to support victims of violence who seek help or resources. It might also make women more likely to blame themselves, if they are ever the victims of violence in their own relationships.

Limitations and Future Research

Even though most of the hypotheses in the current study were not significant, it does not mean misogynistic lyrics have no influence in the real world. Several limitations of the study may have reduced the likelihood of significant results from our specific procedure. One limitation is the lyrics used, that were generated by the authors. A reasonable inference from the lyrics of the misogynistic song is that it is from the rap genre, while the genre of the control song is ambiguous. Genre of song is thus a confounding variable. Research has been done on particular genres such as rap. For example, Barongan and Nagayama Hall (1995) found participants who were exposed to rap videos were more likely to show an aggressive video to a confederate than those in the neutral condition. This study could be used as example of a particular genre having a greater influence on participants. Further research could explore which type of genre influences people to be more accepting of relationship abuse and have more sexist attitudes towards women.

Based on research done by Anderson et al. (2003), another possible limitation this study could have had was the means by which participants were exposed to misogynistic music. The current study presented participants with lyrics to be read on a piece of paper, whereas Anderson et al. presented participants with music videos. Future research could study more in depth if either watching a misogynistic video or reading its lyrics has a greater influence. Perhaps videos would have a stronger impact, due to the participants actually being able to see and hear the artist firsthand. Future research could examine whether hearing the song while reading the lyrics provides a stronger influence on participants (i.e., dual encoding of both visual and auditory exposure).

Another limitation this study faced was the low amount of men who participated, relative to the women, making sex comparisons difficult. Thus, future research should attempt to gain both a larger sample in general and one with equal numbers of men and women. Finally, the study did not conduct any pilot testing to establish manipulation checks on the lyric conditions. Pilot testing would have helped establish participants really did perceive the lyrics in both conditions as the experimenters assumed. Future research should utilize pilot testing to obtain an overall interpretation of how the participants will perceive the set of lyrics.

Conclusion

This study offers some insight into the influence (or lack of influence) of misogynistic music lyrics on sexism, perceptions of love, and perceptions of relationship violence. Further research should investigate the influence of both positive and negative music to decrease sexist attitudes acceptance of relationship abuse (Greitmeyer, 2008). While many people may typically view music as simply a form of entertainment, the current study considered the possibility that music has an impact on individuals' views of the world, relationships, and each other. Due to the popularity and ubiquity of the music in the modern world, the impact of lyrics on worldviews is an area that warrants additional attention.

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Appendix

Part A: Misogynistic Lyrics
A Love Mark

Bitches these days don't know what love is
That's why it's my duty to teach you
What I say you do
You know you can't live without me

Bitch I've provided every need of yours
As you lay next to me think of how much you fucking need me
Bitch don't get feisty with me, I'm in change[1]
I'm the one that came to your rescue

Let me show you how much I love you
I'll leave a love mark on your face
Teach you that rough love is love
My love marks may hurt, but you deserve them

And you already know that when I get some I'll be showing you some love
Love like you've never had
I may leave a bruise with my hand
But you love ain't love if it don't hurt

Now treat me right you fucking cunt
Give me what I need, don't make me say it again
Make me mad again and I'll have to discipline you
Bitches these days just don't know how to please a man

Ooo babe when I be fucking you I be leaving some love marks
You know you love me bitch
Love marks, yeah, they teach bitches how to behave
My love marks ain't nothing but fucking love

Part B: Control Lyrics
Let's Walk Together

Hold my hand my darling

We've begun a new journey
Together we'll stand
Battles may come, but together we stand

We'll argue
I'll get mad at you; you'll get mad at me
But we'll talk it out darling
We'll work it out

This is not a fairytale love
Destiny had nothing to do with it
We came together
Now we'll walk together

Our love will grow
Perfection does not exist between us
We will grow as one
Share the load
And when we break and cry
We'll comeback drink some tea and serenade the
turmoil

Our house will be painted with hope
It will smell like calla lilies that grew from a kind
garden
We'll built the house together
Our dirty hands will make it stronger

Hold my hand my darling
Let's take a walk
Learn a few things here and there
Hold my hand my darling
Let's walk together

[1] This was a typo; the intended word was "charge."
However, because the typo did appear in the ex-
perimental materials, we have retained it here as
well.

Special Features

Conducting Psychological Analysis: Dramatic

Black Swan: Depiction of Psychosis

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Watching the movie, *Black Swan* (Medavoy & Aronofsky, 2010), I noticed many behaviors portrayed by the main character could be seen as some form of psychopathology. Reviewers have described the film as a psychological thriller because of some disturbing behaviors related to the psychological problems displayed. In this paper, I analyze some of the psychologically deviant behaviors and thoughts of the main character, and link them to psychological disorders.

In the movie, Natalie Portman plays ballet dancer, Nina Sayers, who auditions for the part of Swan Queen in the company's upcoming production of *Swan Lake*. Another young dancer, Lily (played by Mila Kunis), also auditions for this part. The director of the company, Thomas Leroy (played by Vincent Cassel), is looking for a dancer who can portray both the innocent, fragile White Swan and her twin, the dark, sensual Black Swan. Thomas chooses to cast Nina for this role even though he believes she is not sensual enough to portray the Black Swan. While he becomes increasingly critical of Nina's dancing, because she tries too hard to be perfect and starts loosing smoothness in her movements, she starts witnessing strange happenings around her and with her body, which are, in fact, hallucinations.

As the movie progresses, the hallucinations become stronger and happen more frequently, both during rehearsals and at home. This causes Nina's mother to worry, but Nina pushes her concern aside and insists on dancing in the opening performance of the production. During the first half of the performance, Nina experiences a hallucination during a lift, which distracts her and consequently results in her partner dropping her. When she returns to her dressing room in distress, she finds Lily dressing and declaring to play the Black Swan. Angry, Nina fights with her, and after breaking a mirror, she grabs a shard and fatally stabs Lily. She hides Lily's body, returns to the stage, and dances the part of the Black Swan, experiencing another hallucination.

After Nina has returned to her dressing room, Lily surprisingly enters and congratulates Nina. Distressed by this confusing encounter, Nina realizes she did not stab Lily but stabbed herself as she struggled with the dark side of her own personality. She dances the final act and, while jumping off the stage, as the White Swan throws herself off a cliff, blood from her fatal wound leaks through her white costume. At the end of the film, the last words she whispers are "I'm perfect – it was perfect," as an acknowledgement that she achieved her ultimate goal of perfection.

From the movie description as given above, it becomes clear Nina suffers from psychological problems. As the movie progresses, Nina becomes very paranoid, thinking her mother and Lily conspire to take away her role as principal dancer in *Swan Lake*. Her mother retired as principal dancer of a company when she was pregnant with Nina, and now Nina thinks her mother doesn't want Nina to have what she gave up. However, her mother

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merely sees the change in behavior and tries to protect Nina. Furthermore, Nina thinks Lily wants to be principal dancer. Hence, her relationship with her mother declines rapidly, as does her short friendship with Lily, because of Nina's delusional belief they are trying to stop her from dancing.

A good example of a hallucination occurs when Lily and Nina go out together early in the movie. After a fight with her mother, Nina locks herself in her room and has sex with Lily. The next morning Nina wakes up late for rehearsal. In the studio she confronts Lily, who is dancing as the Swan Queen, with the question why she did not awaken Nina. However, Lily says she spent the night with a man from the club, and then Nina realizes she had imagined the whole sexual encounter from the previous night. Another example is Nina's experience during the dance of the Black Swan. In the hallucination, black feathers start to grow from her arms and torso until she is finally transformed into a black swan. This hallucination might have been inspired by Nina's continuous wish to lose herself in the role and 'be' the Swan Queen.

The occurrence of such hallucinations and delusional experiences is typically seen in the paranoid type of schizophrenia. Also common in paranoid schizophrenia are delusions and hallucinations with a theme (Barlow & Durand, 2005); in this situation the delusions and hallucinations are centered on Nina's strive for absolute perfection. In the movie, there are some signals Nina might neglect self-care to some point. She is very concerned with her body image, but still takes drugs and subjects her body to behaviors that can lead to severe damage. Also, the movie contains some scenes in which Nina keeps practicing her dance even though her feet are hurt and continuing to practice might cause even more damage. Nina is still able to function relatively well in her job, but because of her delusions and developing paranoia, she is not able to maintain healthy social relationships, even to the point where she becomes alienated from her mother.

However, one could doubt if the behaviors Nina shows in the movie match the diagnostic criteria for schizophrenia in the DSM-IV-TR (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). One diagnostic criterion that Nina does not meet is the absence of disorganized behavior, whereas Nina

displays disorganized behavior in several scenes. Instead of suffering from paranoid schizophrenia (and not meeting this criterion of absence of disorganized behavior), Nina's symptoms could maybe more easily be related to delusional disorder, for which she meets all criteria. On the other hand, hallucinations are not usually a symptom of delusional disorder; whereas, they are an important criterion for paranoid schizophrenia (Barlow & Durand, 2005).

Schizophrenia usually has a biological basis, and there might be strong genetic influences. There is no evidence in the movie based on which a conclusion could be drawn about Nina's possible genetic vulnerability to develop schizophrenia. However, in accordance with the diathesis-stress model, research has acknowledged the fact that high stress levels can contribute to the development of symptoms of schizophrenia and other psychotic disorders (Philips et al., 2006). This can clearly be seen in the movie: Nina's psychotic behaviors mostly begin just before she auditions for the role of Swan Queen under stressful circumstances. When she is cast for the role, her stress level increases due to the heavy pressure of her job.

Even though she is displaying some core symptoms of a psychotic disorder, Nina tries to be perfect in every way. She wants to have the perfect personality, dance the perfect performance and have a perfect body; because it is important for ballet dancers to control their weight and body shape, she feels pressure to obtain a perfect body shape. Consequently, Nina starts controlling her food intake and vomiting after some meals. This can especially be seen in the movie scene where her mother wants to celebrate Nina was cast for the role of Swan Queen and baked a pie. Nina, in an attempt to control her food intake, does not want to eat it, and when she does eat a small piece, she vomits. The behaviors described above might be the first signs of an eating disorder such as anorexia, and research has shown perfectionism directed at a distorted perception of body image can be strongly linked to the development of eating disorders (Yum, Caracci, & Hwang, 2009). Also, the notion that Nina's possible eating disorder only starts after she has been cast for the role of Swan Queen relates to the findings that eating disorders can be triggered by heavy social pressure (Haase, Pra-

pavessis, & Glynn Owens, 2002; Nagel & Jones, 1992). Several studies (e.g., Jordan et al., 2008; Striegel-Moore, Garvin, Dohm, & Rosenheck, 1999) investigated the comorbidity of eating disorders and schizophrenia and concluded schizophrenia is a disorder often found in patients with eating disorders. Furthermore, schizophrenia is found more often in patients with restricting anorexia than with other eating disorders (Blinder, Cumella, & Sanathara, 2006). Hence, the notion that Nina might suffer from both schizophrenia and anorexia is covered by research as a possibility.

So, in the movie *Black Swan*, some forms of psychopathology are portrayed by Nina, the main character. The disorder on which the whole story of the movie is based, is a psychotic disorder, probably the paranoid type of schizophrenia, and Nina's experiencing of delusions and hallucinations play a key role. Besides this, the movie provides some strong clues Nina might be developing an eating disorder.

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Special Features Evaluating Controversial Issues

Online Versus Face-To-Face Education

Advantages of Face-to-Face Education over Online Education

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Abstract—Traditional face-to-face education has been a staple of advanced civilizations for over two thousand years (Shimahara, 2003); however, since the advent of the World Wide Web, online courses have begun to supplant a portion of the traditional educational format and function in the 21st century (Allen & Sloan, 2011). Although there are obvious advantages of online education, such as convenience and reaching out to a wider range of people (Blair & Hoy, 2006), face-to-face (FTF) education has unique features to establish its superiority over online education. FTF education provides an excellent channel to retain information (Howard, 2009), interact socially (Stodel, Thompson, & MacDonald, 2006; Wright, Knight, & Pomerleau, 1999), and develop accountability (Lowenthal & Thomas, 2010). It is through a combination of academic learning and social learning in FTF education that young adults could benefit the most from their valuable time and financial resources invested in their education.

Keywords: online education, traditional education, face-to-face education

Traditional face-to-face (FTF) education has been a staple of advanced civilizations for over two thousand years (Shimahara, 2003); however, since the advent of the World Wide Web, online courses have begun to supplant a portion of traditional education by changing the format and function of education in the 21st century (Allen & Sloan, 2011). People who would otherwise be unable to attend college now can earn college credit (Clark, 2001) and degrees online. Adult learners with fixed job and family responsibilities make up a considerable portion of online students (Cercone, 2008), and working adults seek not only degrees but also professional development and continuing education courses online (Anderson & Anderson, 2009; Karaman, 2011). Young adults who might have traditionally entered the workforce directly after high school are now sought after as ideal candidates for online education. Advertisements and commercials market online education as a convenient way for students to get a college degree or certificate on their own time. In a recent commercial, the consumer service Education Connection portrayed online education as an accessible way to get an education while wearing pajamas (Education Connection, 2010). The commercial, by citing a US census report showing college graduates earn one million dollars more over their life time than non-graduates, implies earning an online degree while wearing pajamas will result in a large increase in lifetime income.

Convenience and flexibility are cited often as top reasons for pursuing online education (Daymont, Blau, & Campbell, 2011; Lee & Nguyen, 2007; Tabatabaei, Schrottner, & Reichgelt, 2006). Easy accessibility to online degrees and classes has attracted both traditional (ages 18-22) and non-traditional students to online education. More than 30% of college students have taken at least one online course, and the Fall 2010 semester saw just

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over 6.1 million students enrolled in online courses in the United States (Allen & Sloan, 2011). Despite the popularity of online education, Allen and Sloan (2011) found more than two-thirds of chief academic officers think faculty do not acknowledge online education as a legitimate and important method of education. As online education becomes more popular it is important to remember why FTF education is superior to online education: FTF education provides functional (technical/administrative) advantages and social (socialization/accountability) benefits not readily available in online education.

There are a number of functional advantages to FTF instruction. The most overtly observable strength of FTF instruction over online education is it provides salience through interactions with tangible people and things. The availability of resources in classrooms, not the nature of course delivery, is the only limiting factor. Take a science course as an example. Although some argue histology can be taught just as effectively online as in person (Schoenfeld-Tacher, McConnell, & Graham, 2001), the elements of working in a lab cannot be recreated easily in a virtual environment. In addition to science labs, a number of other areas of study lend themselves to physical class, including, music performance, theater, physical therapy, veterinary medicine, etc.

Immediacy is another functional advantage to FTF courses over online courses. Aside from retaining information, students seek opportunities for formal and informal interaction with professors inside and outside of class (Stodel, Thompson, & MacDonald, 2006). According to Howard (2009), it is easier to answer questions and take care of misunderstandings promptly in a FTF class because of the immediacy of social cues (e.g., students' confusion can be seen on their faces). Expectations are also easier to convey FTF because professors' tone of voice and facial expressions are overt. Additionally, a lateral advantage of being a FTF student is on campus students have the benefits of being physically present for employer interviews and local job placement announcements.

Whereas the aforementioned advantages of FTF education center mostly on the classroom experience itself, the social benefits of FTF instruction are more ubiquitous. Thriving in life and work is about much more than academic knowledge gained at college, and FTF education has an advantage over online education in the social arena because social models are not limited by the asynchronous interactions (e.g. discussion board posts, video posts, email, etc.) and anonymity common in online education.

According to Social Learning Theory, learning is a social process that involves observing and modeling the behavior of others (Bandura, 1977). College is a place to hone social and interpersonal skills like communication, working in groups, and self-management (Wright, Knight, & Pomerleau, 1999) through interactions with peers and professors. To this end, the Association of American Colleges and Universities' (AAC&U) strategic plan for 2013 through 2017 includes in its Four Goals a goal of "Social Responsibility" making "civic inquiry, social responsibility, and democratic engagement across differences-in local and global contexts- a shared expectation for all college students" (AAC&U, Section, "Strategic Plan," para. 7). This is important because social experiences with peers at college can influence and change a person's worldview and views on diversity by widening their views from what they were in high school. Analysis of the 2008 College Senior Survey (CSS) showed 76% of respondents reported they were more familiar with people of diverse cultures and races as seniors compared to when they first began college, and 64.9% reported their understanding of people of different cultures and races had increased (Liu, Ruiz, DeAngelo, & Pryor, 2009).

One of the most important aspects of FTF education is the concept of accountability because it is the nexus of the functional and social advantages of FTF learning. In college, students learn accountability in two ways: a) by observing student/faculty model appropriate behavior, and b) by receiving feedback from peers and superiors. Although these two methods of learning accountability may be present in online education, they are limited to the digital realm, which is only one aspect of social interaction in the modern world. For many traditional students, college is the first place where they have to rely on themselves without their parents monitoring their daily activities. FTF

interaction leads to more accountability because of social pressure (Howard, 2009), and public interaction and feedback make students more accountable and create a model for the class (Lowenthal & Thomas, 2010).

One way this type of accountability can be established is through group assignments (Thomas & McPherson, 2011). Although group assignments can be given in online courses, they are easier to ignore in an online setting than in a FTF class. Social pressures from online group partners can be disregarded simply by not reading emails and discussion board posts or by not participating in more interactive sessions (e.g., Skype sessions). It is harder to ignore group partners while sitting with them in class because of the public nature of the interaction. Social accountability in FTF education also helps students establish discipline through routine, which is a skill students will use for the rest of their lives. Less motivated students can be reminded easily by a FTF professor of assignments and organizational objectives (Howard, 2009), and FTF professors can aide students by asking them in person about missed assignments and absences, which can lead students to become more accountable due to social pressure. In online education, however, professors are limited to email reminders and other forms of electronic communication, which can be ignored easily by students.

Although online education is convenient and serves populations not previously able to attend college (Blair & Hoy, 2006), face-to-face education is the superior form of education. FTF education offers interaction with professors and peers and hands-on experiences that simply are not available through online courses. FTF education better prepares young adults for life as contributing members of society by instilling them with the social responsibility, self-discipline and timeliness necessary for success in the modern world. FTF students learn non-academic skills that are a prerequisite to success in the adult world. They learn to navigate social situations with peers and superiors, to be responsible and accountable for their actions/inactions, to deal with disagreements that may arise from their actions/inactions, and to manage their time within the boundaries set by others. It is through a combination of academic learning and social learning in FTF education in which young adults learn to maintain or transform society, and without social education, the world could easily evolve into a place quite different and not necessarily better than what it is today.

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The Online Education Movement: A Review of Benefits

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Abstract—Since the 1990s, higher education has been implementing online courses and online degree programs into their curriculum. Consequently, the academic community began researching various domains of online education and researchers have continually demonstrated online courses are comparable to or surpass learner outcomes in traditional courses (Bernard et al., 2004). The benefits of online education run even deeper than just learner outcomes. It enables greater scheduling flexibility for students, especially those individuals who are gainfully employed or raising a family (Appana, 2008). Online education allows universities to maintain academic programs that may sink if constricted to an on-campus environment (Bartolic-Zlomistic & Bates, 1999). Additionally, online courses encourage a diverse academic setting not bounded by geographic region (Appana, 2008). On a deeper level still, the academic community has begun to focus on questions concerning which student learning styles "match" with the online learning environment (Allen, Bourhis, Burrell, & Mabry, 2002). Cumulatively, research provides ample support for the growing benefits and need within academia for online education.

Keywords. online education, traditional education, face-to-face education

Humans often resist change, especially change that may transform traditional paradigms. Dating back to ancient Greece, students have sat captivated by their teacher's spoken word and have dialectically interacted with their peers (Cubberley, 1920). In present day, technology has revolutionized educational tools and subsequent employment in academic settings (Bartley & Golek, 2004). Due to the development of online education at major colleges and universities in the 1990s, researchers have asked many probing questions concerning the nature of online learning (Navarro & Shoemaker, 2000). The current paper will explore the online education movement with emphasis on its contribution to enable more people to attain a higher education, its flexibility to accommodate diverse student populations, and its capability to deliver more customized education that is better suited for some students' learning styles than traditional courses.

One advantage of online education is its mode of delivery. The growth of technology in the 1990s enabled institutions of higher education to provide online courses for the general population. The enrollment rate for postsecondary education increased only 9% between 1989 and 1999, but increased 38% from 1999 to 2009 (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2011). This substantial growth may be due to several reasons including a societal focus on the importance of education, a depreciating economy, and the increased availability of a college education. Regardless, the demand for a college degree is high and one way colleges have met demand is through online courses. Over the last eight years, the growth of enrollment rates for online higher education has been substantially larger than overall enrollment rates in traditional higher education (Babson Survey Research Group & Quahog Research Group, 2011). Additionally, in 2011, 31% of all higher education students were taking at least one online course. Prolific growth in enrollment of online courses prompted the academic community to begin investigating student outcomes through a multitude of research efforts. For example, Bernard et al. (2004) reviewed over 200 studies analyzing the achievement, attitude, and retention outcomes of online education. The role of online courses in the attainability of higher education is undeniable. Though higher education has become more available through online courses, many are skeptical that online education does not parallel a traditional education. However, research has continually demonstrated the effectiveness of online education is equivalent to or exceeds the outcomes of traditional education.

Navarro and Shoemaker (2000), for example, found students who were enrolled in an online course mirroring a traditional course in content,

performed significantly better on the final exam, even when controlling for major, gender, and grade point average. Similarly, Reisetter, Lapointe, and Korcuska (2007) found students in both traditional and online course settings made significant gains in course content knowledge and possessed no significant differences in content mastery across both pre and posttest assessments. Further, Reisetter et al. (2007) found no difference in pre and post attitudes of traditional versus online students involving course satisfaction. Neuhauser (2002) reported 96% of students found an online course section as or more effective than their "typical" traditional course. Lastly, through an extensive meta-analysis, Bernard et al. (2004) revealed despite wide variability in achievement in both online and traditional learning modalities, the two are comparable to each other. It has been critical for the academic community to identify support for the effectiveness of online education. Although this support grants credence to online education, researchers have begun answering more complex questions pertaining to why an increasing number of students prefer online courses as opposed to traditional courses.

One of the most readily identified reasons students select online courses is flexibility. Flexibility manifests itself in several ways within online education. The first facet of flexibility involves the customization of time and learning within an online course. Appana (2008) asserts an online education enables students to learn who must juggle employment and family obligations. Navarro and Shoemaker (2000) identified further support for this argument, finding two of the most important factors for students selecting an online course were scheduling convenience and the ability to learn at an independent pace. Perreault, Wadman, Alexander, and Zhao (2002) found 90% of professors believed flexibility was the greatest benefit to students in online courses. These findings suggest online courses allow people to receive a higher education who may not have otherwise been able to because of time or economic constraints.

A second facet of flexibility may be viewed from an institutional perspective. By developing online courses, institutions have the opportunity to revive sinking programs by enabling people to enroll who may not have the ability to attend on-campus courses (Bartolic-Zlomistic & Bates, 1999). Further, after reviewing several different categories of costs pertaining to starting and maintaining online courses, Bartley and Golek (2004) argue the economic benefits outweighed the costs. It follows that institutions who invest in online higher education create greater flexibility in their futures concerning the ability to provide services to students and helping to maintain academic programs, which may otherwise perish.

Lastly, flexibility manifests within the connectivity among cultures and diverse groups of online learners. Appana (2008) reported online education supports the collaboration of students and faculty across cultures and varying demographics. Such possibilities may be critical for the growth of ideas and solutions to global problems. Without online higher education, cross- cultural sharing of knowledge becomes limited to an institution's geographic location. These three facets of flexibility are major benefits of online courses.

When evaluating the effectiveness of online education, one critical underlying question is whether online courses are comparable to traditional courses in terms of students' success. Perhaps the more relevant question pertains to which students are online courses most beneficial? Allen, Bourhis, Burrell, and Mabry (2002) stressed the need to explore the "match" between learning style and students who select an online education. Online higher education may serve as a medium to better accommodate the learning styles and personal characteristics of certain students than traditional higher education.

Reisetter et al. (2007) found students in both online and traditional courses viewed discipline and responsibility as important, but each set of students interpreted these terms differently. Online students valued their self-reliance, focus, and preparation skills in order to succeed in class whereas traditional students relied more on the accountability to attend class and interacting well with both peers and instructors. Such attributions may be a factor to explain why Neuhauser (2002) found no significant differences across course unit posttests and other course assignments between traditional and online course sections. Both sets of

students may have succeeded because they were in an environment that matched their learning styles.

Further, Tsai and Chuang (2005) showed a significant correlation between epistemological beliefs and predisposition in selecting an online learning environment. Epistemological beliefs involve peoples' beliefs on the nature of learning and knowledge. Tsai and Chuang (2005) found students who hold a constructivist oriented epistemological belief system tended to prefer online education. Specifically, significant relationships existed between constructivist beliefs and an online educational environment that encourages independent investigations and thinking deeply about one's own understanding of material. Together, these findings indicate certain students who value discipline and individual centered learning tend to gravitate and thrive in online courses. One may rhetorically inquire; is not the goal of education to spark independent and motivated thought while promoting strong learner characteristics such as self-regulation? This question does not aim to portray online education as superior to traditional education. Rather, it should highlight the critical issue that some students may benefit more in an online environment with a curriculum distinct from a traditional paradigm.

Undoubtedly, traditional higher education possesses strong positive characteristics such as face-to-face interactions with peers and instructors, high accountability for doing one's own work, and high achievement outcomes. However, online education has experienced unprecedented growth over the last 15 years and this trend will likely continue. It has received a large amount of empirical support concerning its effectiveness in comparison to traditional education. In addition, online education offers a flexible learning environment for people with employment or familial obligations. Further, it grants security to academic programs otherwise verging on collapse. As time progresses, researchers are shedding light onto the types of students that benefit most from online education. Reisetter et al. (2007) points out the academic community has spent considerable time and money in devising ways online learning may emulate a traditional classroom. Perhaps, it may be more prudent to focus on ways in which online education "matches" the learning styles of students who

enroll in online courses rather than to focus on finding ways for online education to mimic traditional education. In conclusion, research on online education over the last two decades continually demonstrates its capability to ignite growth on both institutional and individual levels. Therefore, it will be prudent for the academic community to continue offering and researching online courses that have already provided millions of people with one of the noblest pursuits in life, an education.

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Psychologically Speaking

Probing the Depths of Human Nature:
An Interview with Roy Baumeister

Mackenzie L. Boon, Brooke C. Brown, Mariah N. Ramold
& Richard L. Miller
University of Nebraska at Kearney

Background—Roy F. Baumeister is the Francis Eppes Eminent Scholar and Professor of Psychology at Florida State University. He is a social psychologist whose wide-ranging interests include the self, social rejection, belongingness, sexuality, self-control, self-esteem, self-defeating behaviors, motivation, aggression, consciousness, and free will. He has authored over 500 publications and has written, co-written, or edited 30 books. He earned an A.B. summa cum laude from Princeton University; an M.A. from Duke University, and in 1978 received a Ph. D. from Princeton. For two decades he taught at Case Western Reserve University prior to moving to Florida. He is a fellow of both the Society for Personality and Social Psychology and the Association for Psychological Science. At Florida State, he directs the social psychology area and conducts research on a variety of topics, including self-control, choice, and decision making, particularly how people regulate their emotions, resist temptation, break bad habits, and perform up to their potential -- and why they often fail to do so. Another research interest is the need to belong. He and his students have worked on how people respond to being rejected or excluded from social groups, as well as to romantic heartbreak. A series of studies of human sexuality has addressed questions such as how nature and culture influence people's sex drive, rape and sexual coercion, the cultural suppression of female sexuality, and how couples negotiate their sexual patterns. Yet another topic of interest is consciousness, volition, emotion, and "free will." Finally, Roy and his students are working on understanding irrationality and self-destructive behavior. An enduring theme of Roy's work is why people do stupid things. Self-defeating behavior is the essence of irrationality and thus shows the limits of human rationality.

Miller:

The *Journal of Psychological Inquiry* publishes undergraduate student research. In addition, there is a Special Features section that serves a variety of purposes. It is a forum for student essays on topical issues and also features, from time to time, articles that provide information of interest to both faculty and students related to the research process. We have asked you for this interview in order to explore your thoughts on the role of undergraduate research in teaching. The

audience the interview is primarily designed for are students, and secondarily for faculty. Particular emphasis is on the scholarly component of teaching and learning and how that relates to students conducting research and subsequently presenting and publishing the results of that research. The three students who will be conducting this interview are Brooke Brown, Mackenzie Boon and Mariah Ramold. Mackenzie has been accepted into the school psychology doctoral program at the University of Utah. Brooke will be pursuing a doctorate in occupational therapy at Creighton University, and Mariah is completing her senior year at the University of Nebraska at Kearney. After graduation, she plans to pursue graduate study in clinical psychology. So without further ado, I will leave you in the capable hands of these students, who have prepared a series of questions.

Boon:

Our first question is, who influenced you to become a psychologist and were there significant teachers who played a role in your decision?

Baumeister:

That's two questions! In answer to the first, I was studying philosophy in Germany and I read some of Freud's books. The philosophers approached the problem of right and wrong by analyzing the concepts and trying to use their intuition. Freud attacked the problem of the origins of morality by looking at how people actually learn what is right and wrong in their lives, and where children learn their moral sense, and where civilizations come from based on the anthropological evidence available back in his day. I thought that was a very interesting approach and when I decided not to pursue philosophy; psychology was very appealing as a way of dealing with some of the same questions, but with scientific evidence. So, I give Freud some credit. In terms of teachers, Joel Cooper was a social psychologist at Princeton. I took his class and then he was the advisor on my senior thesis. So, he influenced

me quite a bit. He made it seem interesting, and both challenging, yet a fun field to go into. I think he was more influencing me to choose social psychology rather than psychology in general. Psychology in general I picked largely on the basis of Freud's readings that were a way of tackling really interesting problems.

Ramold:

What was the reaction of your family and friends to choosing psychology as a career?

Baumeister:

I remember my parents didn't want me to go into philosophy because they thought there wouldn't be any money in that. So, they said I could do philosophy if I went to law school or something that would earn a living. I remember, I thought about this, and then I came up with this psychology idea. I remember my father's first reaction. He said, "Oh, you'd be wasting your brain." So, that was not exactly encouraging. But, he researched the field and as luck would have it, at the company he worked for, there were some industrial psychologists who earned more money than he did. So he thought, well I guess you can make a living with that, I guess that's a good field. He came around and said that it was okay. In terms of my friends, I think they were pleasantly surprised. As it happened, I had gotten advanced standing at Princeton and had spent my second year, which was thus sort of a sophomore/junior year, overseas in Germany in foreign study at the University of Heidelberg. The third year I came back to Princeton and that's where I had to declare a major that's when I declared psychology as my major rather than philosophy, which I had been thinking I might do. Originally I was going to do math, but I didn't want to do math since I didn't have any friends in math. I hadn't seen most of my friends for a year, because I had been in Europe, and it was very hard to keep in touch then; you had to write letters and mail them and it took a week or two to get there. I found a bunch of the friends that I had known from my first year at Princeton, and they were also psy-

chology majors, and so we were together and had things in common, which was nice.

Brown:

What were some of your early research interests?

Baumeister:

My undergraduate thesis was on self-esteem. That remained an interest for a long time. In fact, I sometimes still talk about self-esteem, but we hoped self-esteem would do a lot more than it does; self-esteem was kind of a disappointment. It was an interesting thing; people with high self-esteem are different from people with low self-esteem. It was a nice line of work to fall back on, but it didn't turn out to have either the great theoretical or the real-world practical impact that we had hoped. The biggest thing that I did the first ten years or so was self-presentation, which was a shift away from self-esteem. Self-esteem is how you think about yourself; self-presentation is concerned with how other people perceive you. One theme of my career has been to look at how many phenomena are really interpersonally grounded and motivated. A lot of people were talking about self-esteem in the 1970's, but I thought does it really matter how they think of themselves or is it how other people think of them, and how they are intertwined? Researchers back then hadn't maintained much of a distinction. We started doing these experiments where something would be either public or private, in terms of your self-esteem, and what you thought about yourself and your emotions, and all of that should be the same, but the difference occurs when other people know about it. It turned out that behavior differs quite a bit. So, that got me going on self-presentation and I would say that was the main thing for the first ten years of my career. People were studying self-awareness then, so that was another self-issue. My work on why people choke under pressure was applying self-awareness theory. I think we would talk about it a little bit different today in terms of automatic and controlled processes. Back then my idea was that when

the performance is really important, the pressure is on, you feel all of this attention on yourself and you pay more attention to what you do, which would be a natural response. You think, "this is important so I better make sure to do it right," but the nature of skills is that you do them automatically. If you pay more attention to how you're doing them that messes them up and that throws

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you off. I remember watching the Super Bowl and watching a guy get the winning touchdown right in his hands and drop it, even though it was an easy little pass. He's caught that pass a thousand times in practice, probably tens of thousands, why does he drop it in the most important event? Millions of people all over the world are watching him. This is the big thing. He's probably paying way too much attention to exactly what he's doing, so the effect of self-awareness on performance under pressure was another theme of work I did for awhile. I've always been interested in self-destructive, self-defeating behavior. My advisor Edward E. Jones and Steven Berglas were just starting to publish work on self-handicapping when I was in graduate school and it sort of sensitized me to the idea that self-defeating behavior has interest beyond its immediate practical impact, and it shows the limits of human rationality. We think of humans as rational beings, but if rational means pursuing your enlightened self-interests, then doing something that is self-defeating is thwarting your enlightened self-

interest —and is therefore the essence of irrationality. I know there are lively debates going on amid the social sciences, and economists are reluctant to admit that people can be irrational in any sense. In psychology, I think we have more a tradition going back to Freud that there are a lot of irrational behaviors. But exactly how does irrational behavior occur, that's an open theoretical question. Self-defeating, self-destructive behavior had been another long-term interest. That gets me through the 80's. You were just asking about the first part of my career, so the 70's and 80's.

Boon:

Can you explain a little more about your first publication, which involves self-monitoring and ingratiation, and how that research topic came about?

Baumeister:

My first year of graduate school, I was working with Edward E. Jones and he had two main thrusts of his research; attributions, which is how people draw conclusions about each other, and ingratiation, how people get to like each other. He assigned me a project the first year to see if we could get someone to praise someone else and get that person to dislike him or her. We concocted this experience where there were all sorts of ulterior motives for the praise but it didn't really work. So, we were disappointed. I went into his office then to have a meeting after that had sort of flopped, and he said, "Well I've got something else we'll do, and this will be your job to do next." This self-monitoring scale had just come out. We'll talk about these self-monitoring people who pay a lot of attention and adjust their behaviors to others, and he said they seem like they are natural ingratiators. So, let's do something where we look at the difference in the personality trait, motivate them to either try to get the other one to like them, or to respect them, or maybe no motivation, or have some ulterior motives. I don't remember the experiment all that well. It had about a 20 different cell design, which is how Ned liked to work. He would run a giant experiment, col-

lect lots of information, and then figure out what the important and interesting stuff was, and then write the paper around those. So, that was really his idea, and we talked and I contributed a few suggestions or wrinkles or whatever, but he was essentially giving me an assignment. The model he taught me I still use, although I'm doing it a little bit different. The idea is that you come to graduate school, you don't really know what's what, and so your advisor tells you what to do. Then, second or third year you start to interact more and share ideas, and by your dissertation you should be coming up with the idea and your advisor is sort of acting as a consultant. It took us a long time to figure out how to get it set up, and get all the stimuli made but then it worked pretty well; a very complicated sets of results. I remember we even had a four-variable interaction, which I tried and tried to explain, and he said, nobody can understand four variable interactions, we just won't talk about it, we won't even report it, and it never got into the paper. Back then, we did the analyses with a little hand computer punching in the numbers, and adding up the squares. It took a couple months to do the analyses. There were many, many things that we had measured. So, I wrote up the first draft of the results section as this long, long draft. He took it away and a few days later brought it back in a much more condensed and coherent form. He had really made sense of it. I remember spending a lot of time studying his draft and mine, trying to see how he could make it so much better, and a sensible thing that you can actually read and follow, where I just had stacks of data and paper. I learned a lot from doing that.

Ramold:

I recently did a project on hollow forgiveness, so one of my questions is, what motivated you to write on the topic of hollow forgiveness?

Baumeister:

Somewhere in the 90's, hardly any research on forgiveness had been done up until then. The Templeton Foundation came up with

the idea that this would be a good thing for people to study. People have very different reactions to the Foundation, and I guess it's changed some over the years, but the basic thrust is that they want to stimulate scientific research on interesting problems that will maybe make the world a better place, and they want research to answer the deep philosophical questions. I appreciate the support they have given me over the years. Some people think they push for a certain agenda, with a number of them religious, but they have never pushed me to spout a certain kind of conclusion, and I'm not religious at all. I met Sir John Templeton at the first meeting and he said that every religion in the world says forgiveness is a good thing to study or is a good thing to have to make the world a better place. We should know more about how it works, so let's stimulate some research and find out. They advertised for people who might want to apply for relatively small research grants to do this. It's difficult for the psychologist to get research grant money, so a lot of people were interested. At the start they had a little conference where they invited us to come and talk about forgiveness from a scientific standpoint. Most of us didn't know anything because there wasn't really any research to go on, but we had to go and say something. Then, we had to write a chapter for an edited book and it was all designed to get this line of research going. They sponsored a conference, put out a book, and gave some grant money, and sure enough it has really had a lasting effect. Those grants lasted three years and stopped after that, but research on forgiveness is still going on. So, I think they made a positive impact on the field showing this new kind of pro-social behavior. In my textbook when I was thinking about how to organize social psychology, we thought, "Well, let's have one on pro-social and one on anti-social behavior." But then there's the problem of what pro-social behaviors do you have other than helping, since that's mostly what social psychologists have studied. We have a section on forgiveness and there are a few other things in there. So, I think conceptually it enriched the field, not just in terms of increasing knowledge of this phenomenon that had been neglected up to that point.

To answer your question about how that particular chapter or paper came about, I had to produce something for the conference and this early book and so I thought about it in terms of what I did know about interpersonal structures and contingencies and came up with these ideas. It was really listening to the other people at the conference, and talking to other people who were all just starting to think about this phenomenon, and trying to work out a more systematic theory. Is forgiveness good for you, or is it for the other person, if I say I forgive you what does it matter, does it matter what I think if I just say it or if I really believe, does it matter if you believe or not? I think we came up with a 2x2; the hollow forgiveness is where I say I forgive you but I don't really believe it.

Brown:

How have you involved undergraduate students in your research and what do you think are the advantages for faculty in working with undergraduates in research?

Baumeister:

That's again, two questions!

Ramold:

We're sneaky like that.

Baumeister:

We've had undergraduates involved in research in lots of ways. I suppose the largest number is as research participants because most of the research wouldn't have been done without students taking part to furnish data, so that's crucial, and really valuable. I've always supported undergraduates in getting training on running research too. So the ideal thing is when you're a freshman and you take your first psychology course, you should participate in a lot of research. I wish I had done more. I didn't have a freshman year at Princeton, I was taking other courses, and then I was in Europe the second year, so I became a psychology major without having taken psychology classes. The

next year when I had to start running experiments, it was a disadvantage to me not having been in experiments. I always tell people serving as research participant, if you have any thought of going on in psychology, don't just do the minimum you should do a lot because when you're running your own experiments you'll remember what it was like. You'll remember what you felt, and how much explanation you needed, and whether you were nervous about it, or if you just wanted to get out of there as fast as possible.

Then we like people to assist with the research process. I've had quite a few undergraduates do independent studies or thesis with me where they will conduct a study closely supervised by me. Now at Florida State, there are a lot of students who want this experience, but I'm supposed to work with the graduate students. Some semesters we have had over 50 undergraduates working as research assistants in our lab, but I don't have that much direct contact with them. I work with the graduate students, the graduate students work with them. I'll have some meetings with the group, and every so often someone comes and does a thesis with me, but even on many of the theses, a graduate student will also be involved to make it work. So primarily students have been involved as research assistants and as research participants. Those who serve as research assistants do everything from entering data, to coding stories for various fea-

> *The undergraduate research assistants are really much more open and much more willing to do whatever I say. They are not as into having their own agenda and doing what they want.*

tures, to actually running experiments. We don't usually ask them to do the statistics because they need to have some graduate statistics courses to do that sort of thing. In

terms of the advantages, well, all of science is getting to be more and more collaborative. When I started my career, if there were papers in the journal there would be a single author, who presumably did all the work, and ran all the subjects, and did the analyses — but you see very few of those single-author articles any more. This is not unique to psychology. Science in general is a collective enterprise. It's good for multiple people to work together and it's in some ways better if they're not all at the same level. Everyone can do different tasks and some people can learn and we can train the next generation, while producing original research. As to working with an undergraduate as opposed to a graduate student, the big advantage of undergraduates is they're more likely to listen and do what you want. The graduate students have minds and goals of their own; they have their ideas of what studies they want to do. With an undergraduate research assistant you can say here's the study I want you to do, you give them the questionnaire, you put them in front of the computer, and the experiment can be done exactly the way that I want it done. Here I am as an established member of the field, but hey, hardly any studies are done exactly the way that I want. I'm really at the mercy of my graduate students. I'm trying to get them launched in their careers, and you know we come to some agreement, and its not like my ideas are completely irrelevant. If they do come up with an idea that I say I don't want to work on, or that's is really not promising, then I don't have to be involved. I'm not dependent in that regard. If I want a particular study done, and I think it would be really interesting to get a study done in a certain way, I have to persuade a graduate student to do it. I have to convince them that it's interesting and that they should spend their time doing this rather than the other stuff they want to do. The undergraduate research assistants are really much more open and much more willing to do whatever I say. They are not as into having their own agenda and doing what they want. What I actually tell the grad-

uate students is when they become a professor, at first it's probably better to work with undergraduate students, partly because you have control over them, and partly because you can get better quality students. Although graduate students in general are more selective, and may be better on average than undergraduates, most graduate students want to work with the more established, more senior, more famous people. So, when you're just starting out it's hard for you to get a really good graduate student. There's nothing better for your career than a good graduate student, but there's not much that's worse than a bad graduate student. I've been through those, with going through thirty-four drafts of a master's thesis that will never be published. It's a lot of time and effort taken away from doing anything that will do me any good. So, they'll think, oh yeah I can't wait to have graduate students, but then you have them and they're not that good and they're not that motivated and they don't want to do what you want to do. So, what I say is that you've got these great, talented undergraduates, go through your course, and pick out a sophomore who wants to major in psychology and got an A. This is someone who is motivated and talented: ask that person to be a research assistant. It will be good for them, you can write them a great letter for getting into graduate school. I suggest picking someone who is a sophomore because if you pick a senior, by the time you get them trained they're graduating, so pick someone young who is going to be around for a couple of years, and someone who got an A in your class. You already know the person, and you figure they'll probably be pretty good, they're probably conscientious, sine they got an A, so that's a very good way to work. I did that early in my career, before I started having good quality graduate students, and I think that was really an advantage.

Boon:

How has your teaching style evolved over the years and throughout the multiple universities you've taught at?

Baumeister:

Do I have to answer that? Grade inflation has been going on all the time. So, there's pressure on faculty to get a little bit easier every year. When I moved from Case Western Reserve, which was a private university, to Florida State there was a lot of pressure to make it a lot easier, really fast. I used to go through the teaching manual and pick out what I thought were the hardest ones for the test because they were the things that weren't obvious, because these are most effective at telling the difference between those who know the material and those who don't. At Florida State we had to pick out the easiest questions, rather than the hardest ones. I always thought exams should be hard. If the purpose of an exam is to separate the people who know the material from the people who don't, then hard questions do that better than easy questions. A lot of people who don't really want to go to class very often or read the textbook still would like to get a B, and I didn't want to cater to that. So if you grade on the curve, having hard questions doesn't matter if you give the same number of A's. When I used to make up my own exams, nobody ever got a perfect score. They were hard questions and so out of 160 possible pts, we'd have the top score at around 150 and scores might range down to 40 or 50. Somebody comes and they get 75 out of 160 possible and there are other people getting 150. They think they should have an A with the lower score, and you can say they're a long way from that A. If you make an easy exam though then, if one or two wrong answers had been right, then they'd be in the next higher grade, so it's a legitimate complaint. An easy test is not as valid an instrument for discriminating between the people who know it and those who don't. So I've really been sympathetic to the smart people who work hard, and I try to make course setup to favor them. I've had to adjust some at Florida State. It's known as a party school and many of the students are there more to have a good time than to study that hard. There certainly are a number of good stu-

dents and the last few years my undergraduate class has had some better students, and they're fun. So back to the question, how has my teaching style changed? Switching to PowerPoint, was a change and I'm still not sure whether that was a good thing or not. I think that many people suggest that using PowerPoint lowers the whole intellectual tone of the class. It simplifies things and students think they don't have to take notes. The discipline of sitting in a lecture and listening to what the instructor says and then taking notes to figure it out, encourages students to learn a lot more. Even if you never read your notes, you still learn a lot more because the act of listening means you're much more actively involved. A lot of people think, "I'll just print off the power point slides and I'll have that so I can sit in class and go online and do Facebook." There isn't as much pressure to pay attention and to be involved and so more faculty have had to cope with that and lower standards because people want higher grades get upset if they don't get them. You can't run a class where nobody gets an A or a B. Apart from the fact that we've made the courses easier, a higher proportion of people get A's now in an easier course than a couple of generations ago. The only other change is that when I started, there wasn't nearly as much social psychology as when I gave my first lectures in 1979. My model was the classes I had taken from Joel Cooper and people like that and they said in a lecture you should talk about 3 or 4 experiments, describing them in detail. Often an article would have only one experiment so there were only a few important papers. You would describe the experiment in detail and people would think about them and analyze them. I did that for a while and sort of updated it and started to put in more and more stuff. I think late in the 80s I said well this going into depth on a single experiment and just doing 3 or 4 per lecture is not a sensible approach anymore. I tried to rethink what are the big ideas and talk about the experiments here and there, but I wanted to talk about them in much briefer form. I could spend 3 minutes on an experiment rather than 15 minutes, so I could cover the topic and the vast amount of research literature in an integrative way. So rather than picking out the few best experiments and trying to present them in depth, I wanted to do much more thinking about what does the field know about this phenomenon, what are the important points, how should I summarize them, and what experiments should I talk about bringing in more general examples which was another change.

Ramold:

What is your favorite course to teach at FSU?

Baumeister:

I pretty much teach only two classes. I teach an undergraduate introduction to social psych and I teach a graduate course where we read the latest volumes of *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* and talk about all the articles. I don't know how to pick a favorite between those two since they are completely different. In the one I stand up and lecture and it's not really all that much preparatory work for me semester after semester. Preparing all those lectures was hard, as I had to read everything and put it together. Now I just update it when I am reading and I think, "Oh that's a new paper that came out that should go in the lecture on aggression," so I add a few things here and there. Whereas the other one is completely different content cause it's whatever is in the journal, which is a lot of work. It's much less focused. Everyone picks an article or two and gives a capsule summary and then I provide the context and we talk about it for a little bit so that's much more draining. To me it's a lot more work. I have to sit and read the whole issue and have something to say about each article. The course is dependent on the graduate students. They're supposed to provide a summary, and sometimes the summary doesn't make any sense so I have to leap in and provide a clear summary. Other times they do a great job and I don't have anything to add. It's more challenging in class as well, but has the benefit that it keeps me up to date on the research

literature and I'm really reading lots of new things including things outside of my interests. Things out of the blue will seem fascinating and it's something I'd never thought about and some clever person or some clever group of people did a series of ingenious experiments so there's this sense of discovery and satisfaction. But it's harder work and we also have to cover plenty of stuff I'm not really that interested in. In the undergraduate lectures I've oriented them toward what I think is important and interesting in each area of study. So those two are really quite different, though, this fall I'm going to teach a graduate course on addiction with two other faculty members that's a onetime deal. I will see how that goes. Once in awhile it's interesting to try something different. In terms of how I operate I'm trying to be as productive as I can in research and my favorite part is working one-on-one with graduate students. I do that a lot and that's constantly different as every graduate student has different talents and abilities. I usually get them fresh out of undergraduate schools. They start their first year clueless in five years they're ready to be a professor and go and train somebody else. We do get a lot done in that amount of time plus they have to get enough research published so they can compete for a job and have a talk to present for an hour on their research program. So that's the main focus. What I do in the classroom I can't really afford to put a ton of time into. There are professors who teach four courses a semester at some places, or teach a different course every year or every term adding new things, I can't really afford to do that if I'm also going to be successful with the graduate program. Florida State hired me to do the graduate program and that's what I want to do so I try to keep the classroom running at least smoothly, in a way that isn't going to make huge demands on my time. The graduate class does take some but then it's also rewarding because I'm talking to the graduate students and I'm learning new stuff going on in the field and we're able to share that, so I can justify the extra time.

My focus is on the graduate students who have entrusted their lives to me, so I have to, at least if they listen to me, give good advice and give them guidance that will get them to where they want to be in a few years and that's not an easy task. So that's the stuff I lie in bed worrying about at night. If I am lying in bed worried it's about how so-and-so is going to get a job, or his experiment didn't work, or she didn't do this or that. I don't worry as much about, whether I'm going to give a bad lecture tomorrow in an undergraduate class because I've given most of the lectures before and it's going to be a little different this year, but I know it will mainly be fine.

Brown:

How can instructors increase the appeal of research for their undergraduate students?

Baumeister:

What appeal of research? Of reading it? Of doing it? Of conducting it?

Boon:

Conducting research.

Baumeister:

Conducting research, well, I guess that assumes that they should. I haven't really thought much about that because at Florida State we always turn people away. There are so many people who want to come and do research so somehow they get the idea that this is an important skill to learn and important for graduate school. It is one of the most exciting and stimulating parts of any job. If you look at the jobs people have all over the world, many people are tired of their jobs, they do the same thing, and they do whatever their told. As a professor, you have the possibility to study whatever you want. As soon as you get tired of it you can move on to something else. You're always finding out new things, figuring things out, it's tremendously stimulating. People think a professor is what you teach but teaching to me is a small part of the job and one of the less interesting ones. Giving the same lectures with small changes year after year over material I've already figured out and mastered and I'm just trying to explain it to

people is less exciting. It's pleasant, I mean I like teaching but the excitement of research is greater. We get some interesting data and the experiment came out exactly the opposite of what we expected, and then we've got to figure out what that means. We start with first did you quote the data backwards because sometimes that happens, but no it turns out that it means we had this theory and the truth is exactly opposite what we thought or completely in a different direction, or the main part worked okay but something else happened over here that we totally didn't anticipate. So trying to figure these things out and then figuring out how you can prove that, how can your verify that your explanation is the right one. Then you submit it to a journal and they send it to ex-

> *Seeing somebody, who five years ago could hardly dress himself and was walking around in this confused state, spouting all these crazy ideas, and seeing him now as an assistant professor who has a job and he's wearing clothes that look like a civilized human being and speaking in complete sentences and being listened to by others.*

perts who write back and say, "Well, no we think what's happening is this," and so how can I come up with another experiment to show that it's this and not that. I think that's one of the most engaging, fascinating and satisfying things you can do with your life. In the history of the world, having work that you enjoy, so that your job is almost like your hobby, that's probably one of the greatest luxuries ever in the history of civilization and we have that as professors. It's mainly in the research side but some people get this out of teaching too. I didn't mean to suggest that teaching wasn't rewarding, but your

question is about research and for those of us who like research and who get to do it it's just this endlessly fascinating procedure of discovering new things, the challenge of how to test this, how to analyze these data, how to write this up in a way that will get the message across to others. This is very intellectually exciting and is so much fun. I mean I've passed the age when my parents retired. My mother was a schoolteacher and my father was a businessman and they just got sick of their jobs by the time they were into their 50s and were just counting the days until they could retire, but I would like to go another 20 years. I have no wish to slow down and it's partly because of the excitement of research. I don't know if you can quite communicate that to undergraduates because they might see it as a chore and difficult. Certainly there are some tedious aspects of research and when you start off those are the ones you get assigned first, adding up the numbers or entering data, or something like that, so maybe it doesn't look as much fun, but it does, in the long run, become most people's favorite part of this job.

Boon:
What are some of your best and worst moments as a teacher?

Baumeister:
I don't know, best and worst moments. Well, I guess most of us would say that grading is a chore. Grading is not fun. Inside of grading, I have to say, I really like grading the excellent papers and, in a sort of perverse way, the terrible ones. When they are just so bad, you think, "How did this person think I said that or where did this person come up with this? Don't they teach grammar and spelling in high school anymore?" So those are a little bit less dull than the others and reading a great paper or a great exam is really a pleasure. It shows that this person really got it and so that's very satisfying. As for best moments, those may involve working with graduate students, again I'm much more invested with them and that's really one of my favorite parts I think. Seeing somebody, who five years ago could hardly dress himself and

was walking around in this confused state, spouting all these crazy ideas, and seeing him now as an assistant professor who has a job and he's wearing clothes that look like a civilized human being and speaking in complete sentences and being listened to by others. That's just a really euphoric feeling to me, and I think, all right this person really came along, and if I managed to help in some way, that's a nice feeling and I wanted to figure out how can I do that again with the next ones coming in. Low points are when they give me their dissertation and it still has all the mistakes I corrected in their Master's thesis. I don't mind giving feedback, and criticizing, but they should learn from those and not make the same mistakes over and over again. Makes me feel like I'm not getting anywhere, but seeing them produce good quality work and you know if you can support them and give them opportunities and encourage the right things then they surprise me and they come up with really nice, creative things. I have a couple of wonderful graduate students right now who just come up with things that I hadn't thought of on topics I've been working on for years. They come up with a fresh perspective and contribute something new and its okay, let's work together and get this published. That's a real nice high point.

Ramold:

What is the most important element regarding your work you wish society to remember?

Baumeister:

Well, I suppose there are a lot of things there I could say, but one might be forget about self-esteem, concentrate on self-control. The self-esteem movement was well intentioned and was an honest mistake, but it's done probably as much or more harm than good. The idea that children should be raised without being criticized or that they should be flattered for whatever they do, it's not actually even good for self-esteem. For self-esteem, you should set goals and standards and criticize and punish when the child falls short and reward and praise when the child

meets the goals, because you build a healthy self-esteem by knowing what the rules are and living up to them, but that's not how it's implemented, by-and-large. People are afraid to damage children's self-esteem, so they don't criticize. Ultimately, as we learned, it was an honest mistake because there were all these positive correlations that people with high self-esteem did better in school, they were less likely to be pregnant teenagers or drug addicts or criminals or all these things. So it looked like if we raise people's self-esteem, we produce better people, but it turned out self-esteem was mostly a result, not a cause. So, I think the field of psychology jumped the gun a little bit in terms of going public with these findings. When they tracked people over time, it turned out students with better grades have higher self-esteem, but it's getting good grades that leads you to have higher self-esteem, having higher self-esteem does not lead you to getting better grades. So, self-esteem was a big wrong start, but self-control is the real deal. Self-control measured at time one really does produce better outcomes at time two, much more than we ever found for self-esteem, so it's really a terrific, positive thing. So, that would be one of many things.

Brown:

What are your future plans for scholarship and teaching?

Baumeister:

Well, plans are always in flux. I tell people, I think someone gave me the advice once; you should always have a five-year plan. You don't always have to stick to it, but you should always have a five-year plan, so I'm not sure this is exactly what I will do, other things might come up, but my plan at this point is to have a slightly smaller lab and start writing more books. You can tackle bigger issues and bigger problems in books than you can in journal articles and I've done many, many journal articles and I'm not going to stop doing that. Certainly for training graduate students, conducting experiments and trying to publish them, that's important.

As I look ahead to what I am hoping is maybe another twenty years of being productive, I think it's time to look past doing single experiments or small groups of experiments and look for the really bigger points, which are done either in the major review articles, where you survey all the literature that's published on some topic and synthesize it and come up with some grand conclusion, or in the books, which I said can reach a broader audience. The stuff we publish in the journals is just read by other specialists in that area, whereas books can reach people in other fields and everyday life. So, I'd say, procedurally, that's where I want to go. I have a number of books in mind to write. I'd like to write a book on free will, talking about doing this one on the phenomenon that bad is stronger than good, which I had an article on ten years ago that was a bit of a struggle to get published, but it's been tremendously influential and cited by lots and lots of people. I think it's one of the basic principles of psychology. I want to write a book on the self. I had a book about twenty years ago on the meanings of life, how people find meaning in life and I really wrote that too early. I was too young to do it. It's continued to sell although it was a stretch for me. I remember how exhausted I was after that, but now that I presumably know a lot more and have a better understanding of culture and society and human nature and all these things, I want to revisit that and write a much better book on that topic. I have a colleague who does an interesting line of work on money, so I'm interested and we might do a book on that. So, I think those are five ideas for books already, so those are my priorities.

Boon:

What inspired you to begin publishing books and what's your favorite part about doing it? What is the hardest part?

Baumeister:

What was the first part? What inspired me to do books?

Boon:

Yeah, and then what's your favorite part and what's the hardest part?

Baumeister:

Well, a book is a lot of writing, so for people whom writing is one of their favorite parts of the job, then a book is a good thing. For many researchers, writing is quite difficult and it's a struggle. For them, writing a book is a bad idea because it emphasizes that. There's more freedom in writing a book. In a journal article, you're criticized line by line by experts who really know the material. Writing a book you can get advice from others, but it's spread out and it's not every line. You're a little freer to say what you think. You're also dealing with an editor who is not so much an expert on the topic, so it's a more relaxed process. In terms of difficulty, I think you just need the discipline and to carve out the time to get it done. For me, writing is easy and is actually more pleasant than most of the other things I do, so I don't have to force myself to write. I'm more struggling to get the other obligations out of the way, so I can carve out the time to do it. So, I mentioned I want to write a book on how people find meanings in life. That's going to take probably six months of time to read all of the relevant published stuff and pull it together and come up with some new formulations and integrations. While I'm teaching classes and supervising all these graduate students it's hard to make that kind of time. The book I wrote that came out last year and made the best seller list, I wrote when I was on sabbatical, but I have another six years before I have another sabbatical, so getting the time for that is difficult. My first book I had the idea for the topic of identity and how people understand who they are. This is something that went beyond what I could do in a single laboratory experiment and I wanted to draw from history and literature and philosophy and other social sciences. So, I didn't know if I could write a book, but I thought I would try. I remember asking a senior colleague, is this something you think it would make sense for me to do? He said, well, the usual advice is before you get tenure, you shouldn't write a book because it's a lot of time and

effort and it's risky and you won't get full credit for it. They'll just treat it like one or two publications, so you have to make sure you do your other stuff. The usual advice is no, but he said his idea was the only excuse for being a professor is to do whatever you want, so if that's what you want to do, then go ahead and do it. I thought that was good advice and I made sure the laboratory work continued, but I managed to get the book written and it was well received and people liked it. Then I thought, well, I can do this and after that I wrote more.

Ramold:

What is your all-time favorite research topic?

Baumeister:

Oh, I don't know that I would have one. What I like about research is there are always new questions and new things to move on to. Different ones have different charms. I wrote a book on evil and did some experiments on aggression, and that was intriguing and it was very well received. The publications went well and the book sold tremendously well. To do that, I had to read about all these terrible things that people did. Everybody working in aggression was really quite nice, so the whole experience was good, apart from the fact of reading all these miserable, awful things. When I was done with that, I thought I want to read something nice after this, so let's read about sex and whatever is in the sex literature. I remembered the hippie days of "make love not war." So, I thought, okay, I'll just go in and do the same thing with sex, and I read all the sex literature and that was much more interesting and fun. Everything was interesting, but it was more fun to read about, but it turned out that some of the people working in that area were really terrible. It's a very politicized group. There are two camps in sex research who hate each other and they dominate the field and so anybody else coming in they expect to align with one group or the other, in which case, automatically, all the other people hate you. The reviews, or the findings, were not done on scientific bases,

but on political correctness and it was "this is a point for our side against the other side." I found it a rather unsatisfying area to work in, even though the phenomena were quite interesting. You know, sex and aggression were Freud's two bases for the human psyche, so they should have been quite parallel and similar to work in them, but in some ways, they were opposite on a number of dimensions. So, as I said, everything has its charm and interests. I certainly learned a lot from both and I'm glad I did them.

Brown:

We've heard that you play the jazz guitar. We're wondering, are you in a band and why did you take up the jazz guitar?

Baumeister:

My mother played the jazz trumpet and, she thought children should learn musical instruments. When I was in elementary school or junior high I took trumpet lessons too, but then I had to have braces and back then, they had these really nasty braces that went on the outside of your teeth and would cut your lips even when I managed to put some wax over the braces. Every time you tightened the braces, it changed your whole mouth and all the practicing I'd done went out the window and I'd start over. That just got too discouraging, so I quit and I didn't do any music for a couple of years. I went to college and my mother bought me a guitar and said, you've got musical talent, you should do something. Everybody should play something, and a guitar is convenient because you don't have to practice every day. On a trumpet, if you don't practice every day, your mouth goes bad. Guitar, you can just play when you feel like it, otherwise, just sit it in the corner, but at least you'll have something. Being very achievement oriented, I played the guitar every day for a long time and got better and better. I liked to learn stuff and I always wanted to be creative with it. Jazz is, in some ways, the most creative because you can both compose and improvise; you're creative every time you play. I was in a couple of jazzy rock bands. In the 70s, rock and roll had gotten kind of jazzy,

with the long jams, the Grateful Dead and Steely Dan were very advanced in their music, so we played that kind of stuff and we would jam and we had a sax player, who would do solos. I was in a couple bands, then, but once I became a professor, I thought it was time to concentrate on writing papers so I said I'm going to take a month or two off and it ended up being fifteen years that I didn't play at all. After I got my career established, I thought I kind of missed playing my guitar and it had been fun, so I started again. I played with a couple of people now and then, but not that much, until my daughter came along. Late in life I had this little girl and she had to take piano lessons, so I was going to have her do the piano lessons and I'd encourage her. After about five years of classical piano lessons, in which you do all these exercises, she did not like it. I knew one of the piano teachers was into jazz piano and was in a jazz band, so I said why don't we hire this guy to give us lessons and we can play like playing in a band and we can learn rock songs and we can jam a little bit. I also knew some adult women who play piano and play really wonderfully, but they have to read notes. Improvising is something you can do like talking, but I wanted to get my daughter doing it before she got to that age where she thought she couldn't do it. So, starting about three years ago, she and I would take lessons together and she learned how to play chords and then we would take turns and I would accompany her while she improvised a solo and she would accompany me while I played one. She learned to improvise and I was busy with my playing the guitar again and working together with her. She is the main person I've played with the past couple of years. Unfortunately, I'm getting arthritis in my thumbs and the strumming is hard. What I discovered from watching her take piano lessons was that I could figure out how to play the piano. I knew how to read music from the trumpet and I knew chord theory and all that from the guitar, so I've actually just been playing the piano more than the guitar lately. I like to compose and, with composing, the piano is really the ultimate instrument. It's no accident why most of the great composers have been piano players because you can really work out all the different parts and do that together, in a way that even the guitar, which is a marvelous instrument, doesn't.

Invitation to Contribute to the
Special Features Section—I

Undergraduate students are invited to work in pairs and contribute to the Special Features section of the next issues of the Journal of Psychological Inquiry. The topic is:

Evaluating Controversial Issues

This topic gives two students an opportunity to work together on different facets of the same issue. Select a controversial issue relevant to an area of psychology (e.g., Does violence on television have harmful effects on children?—developmental psychology; Is homosexuality incompatible with the military?—human sexuality; Are repressed memories real?—cognitive psychology). Each student should take one side of the issue and address current empirical research. Each manuscript should make a persuasive case for one side of the argument.

Submit 3-5 page manuscripts. If accepted, the manuscripts will be published in tandem in the Journal.

Note to Faculty:
> This task would work especially well in courses that instructors have students debate controversial issues. Faculty are in an ideal position to identify quality manuscripts on each side of the issue and to encourage students to submit their manuscripts.

Procedures:
1. All manuscripts should be formatted in accordance with the APA manual (latest edition).
2. Include a sponsoring statement from a faculty supervisor. (Supervisor: Read and critique papers on content, method, APA style, grammar, and overall presentation). The sponsoring statement should indicate that the supervisor has read and critiqued the manuscript and that writing of the essay represents primarily the work of the undergraduate student.
3. Submit your manuscripts online (http://www.edmgr.com/jpi) as a Special Features: Controversial Issues submission.

Invitation to Contribute to the
Special Features Section—II

Undergraduate students are invited to contribute to the Special Features section of the next issue of the Journal of Psychological Inquiry. The topic is:

Conducting Psychological Analyses – Dramatic

Submit a 3-5 page manuscript that contains a psychological analysis of a television program or movie.

Option 1—Television Program:

Select an episode from a popular, 30-60 min television program, describe the salient behaviors, activities, and/ or interactions, and interpret that scene using psychological concepts and principles. The presentation should identify the title of the program and the name of the television network. Describe the episode and paraphrase the dialogue. Finally, interpret behavior using appropriate concepts and/or principles that refer to the research literature. Citing references is optional.

Option 2—Movie Analysis:

Analyze a feature film, available at a local video store, for its psychological content. Discuss the major themes but try to concentrate on applying some of the more obscure psychological terms, theories, or concepts. For example, the film Guess Who's Coming to Dinner? deals with prejudice and stereotypes, but less obviously, there is material related to attribution theory, person perception, attitude change, impression formation, and nonverbal communication. Briefly describe the plot and then select key scenes that illustrate one or more psychological principles. Describe how the principle is illustrated in the movie and provide a critical analysis of the illustration that refers to the research literature. Citing references is optional.

Procedures:
1. All manuscripts should be formatted in accordance with the APA manual (latest edition).
2. Include a sponsoring statement from a faculty supervisor. (Supervisor: Read and critique papers on content, method, APA style, grammar, and overall presentation). The sponsoring statement should indicate that the supervisor has read and critiqued the manuscript and that writing of the essay represents primarily the work of the undergraduate student.
3. Submit your manuscripts online (http://www.edmgr.com/jpi) as a Special Features: Conducting Psychological Analyses – Dramatic submission.

Invitation to Contribute to the
Special Features Section—III

Undergraduate students are invited to contribute to the Special Features section of the next issue of the Journal of Psychological Inquiry. The topic is:

Conducting Psychological Analyses – Current Events

Submit a 3-5 page manuscript that contains a psychological analysis of a current event. News stories may be analyzed from the perspective of any content area in psychology. The manuscript should describe the particular event and use psychological principles to explain people's reactions to that event.

Example 1: Several psychological theories could be used to describe people's reactions to the destruction of the World Trade Center on September 11, 2001. Terror management research has often shown that after reminders of mortality people show greater investment in and support for groups to which they belong and tend to derogate groups that threaten their worldview (Harmon-Hones, Greenberg, Solomon, & Simon, 1996). Several studies have shown the link between mortality salience and nationalistic bias (see Greenberg, Simon, Pyszczynski, & Solomon, 1992). Consistent with these findings, the news reported that prejudice towards African Americans decreased noticeably after 9/11 as citizens began to see all Americans s more similar than different.

Example 2: A psychological concept that could be applied to the events of September 11 would be that of bounded rationality, which is the tendency to think unclearly about environmental hazards prior to their occurrence (Slovic, Kunreuther, & White, 1974). Work in environmental psychology would help explain why we were so surprised by his terrorist act.

The analysis of a news event should include citations of specific studies and be linked to aspects of the news story. Authors could choose to apply several psychological concepts to a single event or to use one psychological theory or concept to explain different aspects associated with the event.

Procedures:
1. All manuscripts should be formatted in accordance with the APA manual (latest edition).
2. Include a sponsoring statement from a faculty supervisor. (Supervisor: Read and critique papers on content, method, APA style, grammar, and overall presentation). The sponsoring statement should indicate that the supervisor has read and critiqued the manuscript and that writing of the essay represents primarily the work of the undergraduate student.
3. Submit your manuscripts online (http://www.edmgr.com/jpi) as a Special Features: Conducting Psychological Analyses – Current Events submission.

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