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Antiprejudice among White Americans and the Proactive Fight to End Discrimination Toward Black Americans

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ANTIPREJUDICE AMONG WHITE AMERICANS AND THE PROACTIVE FIGHT TO END
DISCRIMINATION TOWARD BLACK AMERICANS

By

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I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my parents.
They sacrificed so much to get me to where I am today.
I am eternally grateful and love you both very much.

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ABSTRACT

Despite social pressure for White Americans to be nonprejudiced, Black Americans still regularly experience discrimination. We argue that bias persists because although many White Americans espouse nonprejudiced beliefs, far fewer actively work to combat discrimination. Previous research on a newly developed scale of antiprejudice, or the belief that White people should proactively fight discrimination, indicates that higher levels of antiprejudice are associated increased proactive support among White people for multiple actions that would help put an end to discrimination. Drawing from research on prescriptive moral convictions (i.e., what people *should* do), we predicted that teaching White Americans four reasons why White people should be proactive in the fight against systemic racism would increase perceptions that White involvement is necessary in order for real change to occur and increase antiprejudiced beliefs. Results of a pilot study supported our predictions. Moreover, in a second study we replicated our results and extended them by demonstrating that our intervention not only increased perceptions about the necessity of White involvement and antiprejudice, it was also associated with a greater likelihood of volunteering for an equal rights organization.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Despite an overall reduction in explicit reports of traditional prejudice toward Black people, racial disparities in education, the justice system, and employment persist, and discrimination continues to be a problem in the United States (Alvarez, Liang, & Neville, 2016; Kahn & Martin, 2016). Racial disparities may persist because, for many White Americans, being nonprejudiced (i.e., not endorsing prejudiced beliefs and avoiding overtly discriminatory actions), feels like they have done “their part” to promote racial equality. Although, egalitarianism is impossible if people do not embrace nonprejudiced beliefs, we argue that not contributing to racial prejudice is insufficient to create meaningful change. Instead of simply being nonprejudiced, people need to be *antiprejudiced* and endorse the belief that White people should take on a proactive role in the fight against racial inequality.

Consider that one way to address entrenched racial inequalities is to encourage wide-spread support for policies designed to create social change from both minority group members (e.g., Black people) and majority group members (i.e., White people; Case, Iuzzini, & Hopkins, 2012; Mallett, Huntsinger, Sinclair, & Swim, 2008). However, research has consistently demonstrated a gap between White people’s endorsement of racial equality and their support for policies designed to create social change (Dixon, Durrheim, & Tredoux, 2005; Durrheim et al., 2011). Although many White Americans espouse nonprejudiced beliefs, far fewer actively work to combat discrimination. However, because some White Americans do get actively involved, we argue that identifying what predicts these types of social change behaviors may provide important insight into how to garner the wide-spread support needed to address racial inequalities and systemic racism.

To this end, in previous work, we created a measure of White people’s moral conviction that White people in general need to take a proactive role in fighting racial discrimination. We theorized that antiprejudice represents a prescriptive moral conviction about what White people *should* do that would be associated with support for collective action. On the other hand, we theorized that nonprejudice (i.e., the belief that one should not behave in a prejudiced manner) represents a proscriptive moral conviction that would be related to proactive support to a lesser extent. Consistent with our hypotheses, we found that, among White Americans, high levels of

antiprejudice are associated with greater perceptions of racial discrimination, greater perceptions that White involvement in the fight against racial inequality is necessary in order for real change to occur, more collective action intentions, and a higher likelihood of volunteering for an equal rights organization (LaCosse, Krusemark, & Plant, in prep). Moreover, antiprejudiced beliefs predicted these outcomes above and beyond nonprejudiced beliefs. Although our previous work took an important step in identifying which White Americans are likely to proactively fight racial inequality, more work is needed to identify ways of increasing antiprejudiced convictions with the goal of increasing collective action. Because antiprejudiced convictions were associated with greater perceptions that White involvement is necessary in order for real change to occur, we theorized that one way of increasing antiprejudice would be to increase these perceptions. Therefore, we predicted that framing the necessity of White involvement in a prescriptive manner (i.e., what White people *should* do) would positively influence antiprejudiced beliefs, which are also prescriptive in nature. Specifically, we created a ten minute Power Point presentation accompanied with an audio message entitled “Four Reasons Why White People need to be involved in the Fight against Institutional and Systemic Racism.” In order to test our hypotheses and the efficacy of our intervention for increasing antiprejudice we performed one study and we propose another.

Moving Beyond Prejudice Reduction

In the pursuit of improving intergroup relations and removing racial inequalities, researchers have typically focused on reducing prejudice (for a review see Paluck & Green, 2009). Although reducing prejudice can have a range of positive effects, the fact that systemic racism and discrimination continue to be problems in the U.S. today suggests that reducing prejudice does not always translate into the proactive support needed to reduce deep-rooted systemic racism. For example, despite the fact that many Americans endorse nonprejudiced beliefs, research has consistently demonstrated a gap between White people’s endorsement of racial equality and their support for policies designed to create social change (Dixon et al., 2005; Durrheim et al., 2011). One reason for this gap may be that advantaged group members’ willingness to intervene on behalf of disadvantaged group members is contingent upon perceptions of personal responsibility to take action (O’Leary-Kelly, Bowes-Sperry, Bates, & Lean, 2009; Stewart, Pedersen, & Paradies, 2014). Therefore, although White Americans’

espousal of nonprejudiced beliefs is important, it may be critical for them to believe that White people need to actively work to combat discrimination if real social change is to occur; a point that we will return to later.

The importance of moving beyond prejudice reduction is further supported by research demonstrating that some interventions that successfully reduce prejudice, such as positive contact and common identity formation, ironically reduce perceptions of discrimination, which in turn affects majority group members' willingness to engage in collective action on behalf of minority group members (e.g., Dixon, Levine, Reicher, & Durrheim, 2012; Mazur, 2015; Saguy, Tausch, Dovidio, & Pratto, 2009; Wright & Lubensky, 2013). However, other work indicates that when majority group members see intergroup inequality as illegitimate or unjust, positive outgroup contact does not impede majority group members' willingness to engage in collective action (Becker, Wright, Lubensky, & Zhou, 2013; Selvanathan, Techakesari, Tropp, & Barlow, 2017). This research suggests that, in addition to exploring ways to reduce prejudice, researchers should explore how to increase majority group members' perceptions of racial inequality and discrimination as a problem in the U.S.

Using Collective Action to End Discrimination and Systemic Racism

One route to ending discrimination and addressing systemic racism is to garner widespread support for policies designed to create social change. For example, if a large number of people attend rallies, protests, and marches that call for an end to discrimination, the more likely these events are to bring about social change (for a review see Little, 2016). In addition, attendance at these events may create both descriptive social norms about the prevalence of other peoples' proactive behavior and injunctive norms about others' expectations for them to get involved in fighting for social change (Chung & Rimal, 2016). Moreover, research on both the availability heuristic and simulation heuristic indicates that human cognition is influenced by how easily people can imagine an event occurring (Kahneman & Tversky, 1981). Therefore, increasing perceptions that people are, and should be, involved in proactive support could potentially influence other people's attitudes and behavior.

A central premise of our work is the idea that in order for collective action to be optimally effective, support from both minority group members (e.g., Black people) and majority

group members (e.g., White people) is necessary (Case et al., 2012; Mallett et al., 2008). Support from majority group members may play a particularly important role in enacting social change for a number of reasons. First, in the U.S., White people hold more positions of power (e.g., judges, senators, doctors, etc.). Therefore, they have a unique opportunity to use their power to influence the opinions of other people and actively combat disparate outcomes for Black people (Kendall, 2002; Ridgeway, 2014). Second, research indicates that when ingroup members confront discrimination it is seen as more legitimate than if an outgroup member confronts the discriminatory act (Czopp & Monteith, 2003; Drury & Kaiser, 2014). Third, compared to outgroup members, ingroup members are more persuasive to other ingroup members when presenting counter-attitudinal messages (Mackie, Gastardo-Conaco, & Skelly, 1992; Mackie, Worth, & Asuncion, 1990; Rasinski & Czopp, 2010; Wyer, 2010).

Finally, the sheer number of White people in the U.S. gives White people an opportunity to create real social change through voting, protesting, etc. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2016), White people make up 77.1% of the population of the U.S., which equals nearly 250 million people. Whereas, Black people make up 13.3% of the population, which is 42 million people. Moreover, there are more Black people who are disenfranchised than there are White people (Uggen, Larson, & Shannon, 2016). This means that the already low number of Black people in the U.S. that can vote is further reduced by high rates of disenfranchisement. Overall, this research demonstrates that support from White people may be particularly important to creating lasting social change. Therefore, understanding the psychological processes of White people who do participate in proactive support on behalf of Black people may provide important insight into ways of increasing other White people's proactive participation. As we elaborate below, we propose that educating White people about these reasons why White people need to be involved can be an effective way of encouraging proactive engagement in social change.

Antiprejudice

To date, research on collective action among advantaged group members on behalf of disadvantaged group members has largely focused on intergroup relations outside of the U.S., collective action on behalf of non-racial groups, and sociological models of engagement. In addition, the research that has been conducted in the U.S. has focused on emotional reactions to

inequality (e.g., anger, empathy, guilt), the effects of perspective taking, and the effects of positive contact with Black Americans (Mallett et al., 2008; Selvanathan, Techakesari, Tropp, & Barlow, 2017). In the current work we draw from these lines of research, which provide important insight into factors that might determine whether White Americans actively engage in collective action on behalf of Black Americans (for a review see Curtin & McGarty, 2016).

To be more specific, research indicates that *personal* moral convictions against inequality (e.g., “My opinion about discrimination of Blacks is an important part of my moral norms and values”) are associated with advantaged group member’s collective action on behalf of disadvantaged group members (Beaton & Deveau, 2005; Selvanathan et al., 2017; van Zomeren, Leach, & Spears, 2012; van Zomeren, Postmes, et al., 2012; van Zomeren, Postmes, Spears, & Bettache, 2011). For example, psychological belief systems that question the status quo are predictive of advantaged group members perceptions of unfair treatment and engagement in collective action on behalf of disadvantaged group members (e.g., Drury & Kaiser, 2014; van Zomeren et al., 2012). In addition, moral convictions are strong predictors of political and non-political activism across multiple domains (Alberici & Milesi, 2016; Skitka & Morgan, 2014; Skitka & Wisneski, 2011; van Zomeren, Postmes, et al., 2012). Overall, this research suggests that moral convictions against inequality are likely to lead to collective action among advantaged group members. Therefore, in the current work we focus on increasing moral convictions against racial inequality in the form of encouraging White people’s proactive support in the fight against racial discrimination.

An important caveat of encouraging moral convictions is the distinction between prescriptive moral convictions and proscriptive moral convictions. Prescriptive morality is associated with what one *should* do whereas proscriptive morality is associated with what one *should not* do (Janoff-Bulman, Sheikh, & Hepp, 2009). These two types of morality are based on research on approach-avoidance differences in self-regulation. Specifically, prescriptive morality is associated with an approach motivation characterized as the activation of “good” behaviors and attempts to engage in such behaviors. On the other hand, proscriptive morality is associated with an avoidance motivation characterized as the activation of “bad behaviors” and attempts to avoid such behaviors. In other words, a prescriptive focus on what one should do leads to moral actions to attain positive outcomes, whereas a proscriptive focus on what one should not do leads to moral actions to avoid negative outcomes. Relevant to the current work, there is evidence that

approach-based moral motives (i.e., prescriptive moral ideals) are strongly associated with positive attitudes toward equality based social issues and actions, whereas avoidance-based moral motives (i.e., proscriptive moral ideals) are only weakly related positive attitudes toward equality (Does, Derks, & Ellemers, 2011; Janoff-Bulman, Sheikh, & Baldacci, 2008). Therefore, encouraging moral convictions that White people should be actively involved in fighting racial discrimination is likely an important component of encouraging White support.

In order to test this hypothesis, in previously performed research, we created a measure of antiprejudice to see if we could tap into White people's belief that White people should proactively combat racial bias and inequality (LaCosse, Krusemark, & Plant, *in prep*). We theorized that antiprejudice represents a prescriptive moral conviction about what White people *should* do that would be associated with support for collective action. On the other hand, we theorized that nonprejudice (i.e., the belief that one should not behave in a prejudiced manner) represents a proscriptive moral conviction that would be related to proactive support to a lesser extent.

To validate our measure we performed four online studies. In these studies, we established both the convergent and discriminant validity of our measure of antiprejudice. For example, we found that although antiprejudice was related to other individual difference measures such as attitudes toward Black people (Brigham, 1993) and internal motivation to respond without prejudice (Plant & Devine, 1998), it represented a unique construct. In addition, antiprejudice was correlated with ($r = .44$), but distinct from, general *personal* proactive morality (e.g., "I would feel bad about myself if I didn't work to reduce the harm that others suffered"). Finally, we found that antiprejudice was unrelated to social appearance concerns and social desirability. This provides initial evidence that antiprejudiced beliefs are not a result of social pressure to act in a socially desirable manner or pressure to be "politically correct."¹

Relevant to the current work, we found that antiprejudice was associated with increased perceptions that discrimination is a problem in the U.S. and increased proactive support among White people for *multiple* actions that would help put an end to discrimination. For example, antiprejudice was associated with increased willingness to engage in collective action activities such as voting for, writing letters to, and calling local representatives, as well as, donating to organizations that work against racial inequalities. It was also associated with support for racial equality in policing and financial support for practices that promote diversity and equality.

Moreover, antiprejudice predicted signing up to volunteer for an organization that promotes diversity. Importantly, although nonprejudice was modestly related to some of these outcomes, antiprejudice had a strong and consistent relation to these outcomes when controlling for several different measures of nonprejudiced (and prejudiced) attitudes. Therefore, increasing antiprejudiced convictions should be associated with increased willingness to engage in proactive support for social change even when controlling for the influence of nonprejudiced beliefs.

The Current Work

The current work builds off our previously performed research in two ways. First, because our previous work was correlational, we wanted to experimentally manipulate antiprejudice and examine its relation with engagement in collective action. Therefore, we designed and piloted an intervention that we believed should theoretically increase antiprejudiced beliefs by highlighting the need for White involvement in order for change to occur (Study 1). Second, we examined the specific psychological processes related to such increases in antiprejudice (Studies 1 & 2) and if such increases led to a corresponding increase in proactive engagement in collective action on behalf of Black people (Study 2). That is, we predicted that increases in antiprejudice in response to the intervention would be the result of heightened perceptions of the necessity of White involvement. In addition, we hypothesized that increases in antiprejudice would in turn lead to greater intentions of engaging in proactive support.

To design our intervention, we drew from our previous research on antiprejudice and research examining ways of increasing engagement in collective action. As mentioned above, heightened perceptions of the necessity of White involvement are associated with greater antiprejudiced beliefs (LaCosse, Krusemark, Foltz, & Plant, *in prep*). Therefore, we theorized that one way of increasing antiprejudice could be to increase perceptions that White involvement is necessary. Moreover, antiprejudiced beliefs are prescriptive in nature (i.e., White people should be proactive) and research indicates that prescriptive moral convictions are more predictive of proactive social change behaviors than proscriptive moral convictions (i.e., what people should not do; Does, Derks, & Ellemers, 2011; Janoff-Bulman, Sheikh, & Baldacci, 2008). Therefore, we predicted that framing the necessity of White involvement in a similarly

prescriptive manner could positively influence antiprejudiced beliefs. Drawing from this line of research, we created a ten minute Power Point presentation with audio entitled “Four Reasons Why White People need to be involved in the Fight against Institutional and Systemic Racism” to serve as our intervention.

CHAPTER 2

STUDY 1 METHOD

As mentioned above, the primary purpose of Study 1 was to pilot a video intervention designed to increase antiprejudice. Because Study 1 served as a pilot study and our participants were recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk, we kept our survey short and only examined the relationship between the video intervention and our key outcome variables: antiprejudice, nonprejudice, necessity of White people's involvement, and perceptions of racial discrimination as a problem in the U.S. We included a measure of perceptions of racial discrimination in order to assess the influence of our intervention on perceptions of the problem (i.e. racial discrimination) versus perceptions of the necessity of action for fixing the problem (i.e., perceptions of the necessity of White involvement). It could be the case that teaching people about what systemic racism is and the importance of White involvement would increase both perceptions of the problem and perceptions of the necessity of action for fixing the problem. However, because our intervention was specifically designed to influence perceptions of the necessity of proactive support, but not perceptions of the problem itself, it could also be the case that only perceptions of necessity would be influenced. Therefore, we tested these two competing predictions in the current work.

Method

Participants

Participants were 128 (59 Male, 69 Female) American Mechanical Turk workers who participated in a short study on race relations in the United States. On average participants were 38.24 ($SD = 12.09$) years old and had an Associate's degree.² Because we did not have predictions regarding the expected effect size for our manipulation, we subjected our data to a post-hoc power analysis using the effect size of the manipulation on antiprejudice. Results indicated that we were slightly underpowered ($power = .63$). Although not ideal, because Study 1 was a pilot study, we decided to focus on replicating the study with baseline measures of antiprejudice and nonprejudice rather than collecting more data.

Design and procedure

Upon signing up for the study participants were randomly assigned to watch an approximately 10 minute long video presentation on either why White people should take a proactive role in fighting racial discrimination (experimental condition), or a video presentation of the same length on net neutrality (control condition). After watching the presentation participants rated the presentation and completed the measures described below.

Manipulations

The experimental presentation first explained what systemic racism is, then it went into detail about four different reasons White people need to be proactively involved in dismantling systemic racism. The first reason was that, compared to outgroup members (e.g., Black people), ingroup members (e.g., White people) are more persuasive when discussing inequality to other ingroup members (Mackie et al., 1992, 1990; Wyer, 2010). The second reason was the White people hold the majority of positions of power in the U.S., which puts them in a unique position to influence others and create real, lasting, social change (Ridgeway, 2014). The third reason was that White people are the largest demographic in the U.S. (United States Census Bureau, 2016), which also puts them in a unique position to create social change. Finally, the fourth reason was that when a White person confronts racism it is seen as more legitimate than when a Black person confronts racism (Czopp & Monteith, 2003).

The title of the control video presentation was “Four Reasons why you should be Concerned about Net Neutrality.” First the presentation explained what net neutrality is, then it went into detail about each of the four reasons people should be concerned (Greenstein, Peitz, & Valletti, 2016). The first reason was that internet service providers want to charge internet content providers more money to make their content visible. The second reason was if internet content providers charge more money for content visibility it could affect the success of both new and previously established businesses. The third reason was because internet service providers want to charge more money for the general public to use its internet and access content. Finally, the fourth reason was that by internet service providers charging the general public and businesses more the ability to see news sources and other media could be limited. It is important to note that an independent sample of 30 participants pretested the two manipulations.

Results indicated no significant differences between the two presentations in how informative, easy to understand, engaging, aesthetically pleasing, and interesting they were (p 's > .05). For a full transcript of both presentations see Appendix A.

Measures

After watching the presentation, participants were asked to rate it on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Two items assessed participants' perceptions that the information presented was true (e.g., "I believe that the information presented is accurate"; $r = .69$), and five items assessed how much participants learned from the presentation (e.g., "I found the presentation informative"; $\alpha = .78$).

Following this, participants completed measures of antiprejudice and nonprejudice, which utilized a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 9 (*strongly agree*). Eight items assessed antiprejudice (e.g., "It is important for people of my race to actively try to promote the equal treatment of Black people"; $\alpha = .93$) and seven items assessed nonprejudice (e.g., "In general, people of my race should never discriminate against a Black person based on race"; $\alpha = .89$).

Next participants completed a five-item measure of perceptions of discrimination in the U.S. (Gawronski, Peters, Brochu, & Strack, 2008). Items were rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 9 (*strongly agree*). For example, "Black people in America still represent a disadvantaged minority group" ($\alpha = .92$). Finally, participants completed a four-item measure of how necessary it is for White people to get involved in the fight against discrimination for social change to occur (e.g., "In order for there to be real progress, White people need to actively work for racial equality"; $\alpha = .93$). Items were rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).³

CHAPTER 3

STUDY 1 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Before comparing participants in the two conditions on our primary outcome variables, we examined the correlations between our measures (see Table 1 and see Table 2 for correlations in each condition) and used two independent-samples t-tests to examine if the two presentations differed in how believable and informative they were. Results revealed that participants in the control condition reported believing the information presented ($p = .001$; $d = .80$; $M = 5.65$, $SD = 1.16$) and learning something from it ($p < .001$; $d = .63$; $M = 5.20$, $SD = .99$) significantly more than participants in the experimental condition ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 1.17$ and $M = 4.80$, $SD = 1.52$, respectively). It is worth noting that, despite these two differences, participants in both conditions scored above the midpoint of the scale on average. This suggests that in general participants in both conditions agreed that the information presented was true and that they learned something from it.

Table 1

Study 1: Correlations among Measures

Measure	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Antiprejudice	—					
2. Nonprejudice	.77***	—				
3. Perceptions of Discrimination	.76***	.59***	—			
4. Necessity of White Involvement	.71***	.53***	.70***	—		
5. Belief in Accuracy of Presentations	.36***	.25***	.41***	.42***	—	
6. Information Learned from Presentations	.01	-.08	-.04	.06	.41***	—

Note. *** $p < .001$

Table 2

Study 1: Correlations among Measures for each Condition

Measure	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
2. Antiprejudice	—	.80***	.78***	.69***	.15	-.13
2. Nonprejudice	.74***	—	.67***	.53***	.27*	-.11
3. Perceptions of Discrimination	.74***	.51***	—	.63***	.15	-.33**
4. Necessity of White Involvement	.72***	.52***	.77***	—	.23 [†]	-.09
5. Belief in Accuracy of Presentations	.59***	.31*	.66***	.66***	—	-.05
6. Information Learned from Presentations	.19	-.02	.22 [†]	.25*	.57***	—

Note. Correlation coefficients below the diagonal are for participants in the White Involvement condition. Correlation coefficients above the diagonal are for participants in the Net Neutrality condition. [†] $p < .10$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$.

Next we performed our primary analyses. These analyses used factorial analyses of covariance that controlled for belief in the information presented to compare participants in our two conditions (see Table 3). We chose to control for how much participants believed the information because it was significantly related to our outcome variables (see Table 1). Moreover, research indicates that attitude change is often dependent on perceptions of the veracity of an argument (Gawronski & Bodenhausen, 2006; Kruglanski, 2013). Therefore, we reasoned that belief in the information presented could influence the effectiveness of our manipulation for changing antiprejudiced and nonprejudiced beliefs. We found that including believability as a covariate in our analysis of condition effects on antiprejudice resulted in a substantial reduction in unexplained variance ($R^2 = .004$ compared to $R^2 = .162$), thus increasing our power to detect condition effects.⁴

In support of our predictions, we found that people who learned about the importance of White involvement in fighting systemic racism perceived that White involvement was necessary for real change to occur and perceived discrimination as more of a problem in the U.S. significantly more than people who learned about net neutrality. These results support the utility

of educating White people about why White involvement is necessary for increasing perceptions about the importance of White involvement for creating social change. In addition, these results suggest that another benefit of teaching White people about the importance of White involvement may be that it increases perceptions that discrimination is a problem in the U.S. These findings are important because past research indicates that psychological belief systems that question the status quo and encourage a systemic analysis of inequality predict engagement in collective action (Chung & Rimal, 2016; Drury & Kaiser, 2014; Skitka & Morgan, 2014; van Zomeren, Postmes, et al., 2012). Therefore, by educating White people about the importance of White involvement in creating social change we may be able to encourage beliefs about the necessity of White involvement (i.e., changing the status quo) and increase perceptions that inequalities exist (i.e., encouraging a systemic analysis of inequality). Moreover, we may be able to leverage these perceptions to increase White people’s engagement in collective action on behalf of Black people. We tested this hypothesis directly in Study 2.

Table 3

Study 1: Condition Differences by Dependent Variable

	White Involvement Condition (<i>n</i> = 64)		Net Neutrality Condition (<i>n</i> = 64)		<i>F</i> value (1, 124)	<i>p</i>	Cohen’s <i>d</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>			
Necessity of White Involvement	5.48	.18	4.73	.18	8.34	.004	.53
Antiprejudice	7.36	.20	6.69	.21	5.15	.025	.42
Nonprejudice	8.00	.18	7.53	.18	3.34	.070	.33
Perceptions of Discrimination	6.68	.22	5.99	.23	4.44	.037	.39

Note. Means are for individuals with average (*M* = 5.22) levels of belief in the accuracy of the presentations.

Further support for the importance of educating White people about the necessity of their involvement comes from the finding that people who learned about White involvement were significantly higher in antiprejudiced beliefs than people who learned about net neutrality. On the other hand, people who learned about White involvement were only marginally higher in nonprejudiced beliefs compared to people who learned about net neutrality. These findings are important because previous research indicates that antiprejudice is associated with increased engagement in multiple collective action behaviors above and beyond nonprejudice (LaCosse, Krusemark, Foltz, & Plant, *in prep*). Therefore, increasing antiprejudiced beliefs is likely just as important, or more important, than increasing nonprejudiced beliefs for increasing White peoples' proactive support for social change. Our intervention did exactly this. This provides a meaningful addition to the literature on both antiprejudice and advantaged group member's engagement in collective action on behalf of disadvantaged group members. Specifically, the current work established that one way of encouraging moral convictions against inequality is to explain the necessity of advantaged group members' involvement.

It is also worth noting that antiprejudice was more strongly correlated with perceptions that White involvement is necessary and perceptions that discrimination is a problem in the U.S. than nonprejudice was. These findings provide an important contribution to research on collective action and morality by demonstrating that, like other moral convictions (e.g., Does et al., 2011; Janoff-Bulman et al., 2008), antiprejudiced convictions characterized as a prescriptive focus on what people should do lead to positive attitudes toward equality based social issues and actions. But, nonprejudiced beliefs characterized by a proscriptive focus on what one should not do are only weakly related to such attitudes. These findings suggest that increasing perceptions about the necessity of White involvement to end racial inequalities may in turn lead to a corresponding increase in antiprejudice.

To test this hypothesis, we examined if perceptions about the necessity of White involvement would statistically mediate condition differences in antiprejudice. We performed the mediation analysis using the PROCESS macro (Model 4) developed by Hayes (2013) with bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals computed with 5,000 bootstrap resamples. Condition was dummy-coded (experimental = 0; control = 1); and belief in the accuracy of the information presented was included as a covariate in the model. Results indicated that necessity beliefs (*indirect effect* = -.55, *SE* = .21, 95% CI [-1.02, -.20]) significantly mediated the effects of

condition on antiprejudice. Moreover, when we tested for reverse mediation the indirect effect of antiprejudice was significant (*indirect effect* = -.38, *SE* = .18, 95% CI [-.77, -.07]); however, the indirect effect was significantly weaker than the indirect effect of perceived necessity on antiprejudice ($Z = 1.71, p = .043$). Although these results suggest that antiprejudice can be increased by increasing perceptions about the necessity of White involvement, the fact that we were underpowered indicates that these results should be interpreted with caution and replicated in future work. This was one of the primary goals of Study 2.

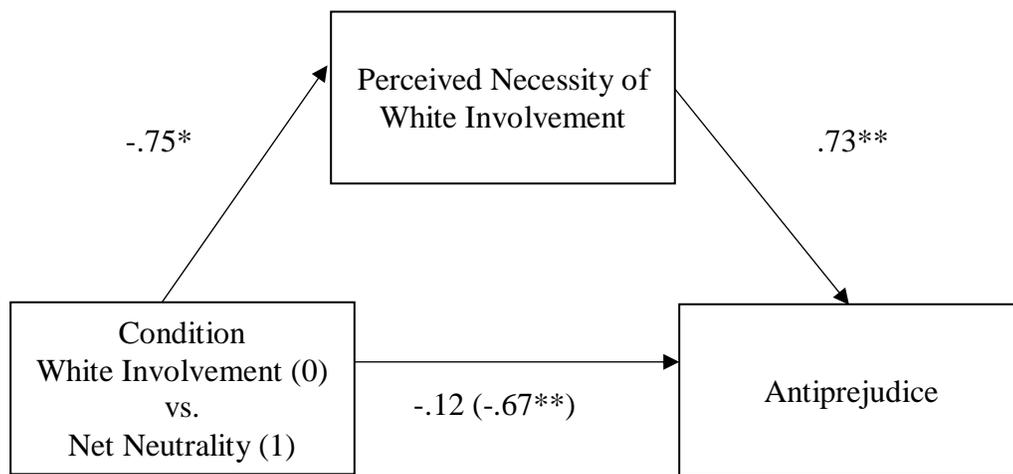


Figure 1. Study 1: Mediation. Perceptions of the necessity of White involvement statistically mediated condition differences in antiprejudice (*indirect effect* = -.55, *SE* = .21, 95% CI [-1.02, -.20]). Unstandardized path coefficients (*B*) are shown. The value in parentheses represents the relation between condition and antiprejudice prior to the inclusion of mediators. Belief in information presented was included as a covariate. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Although the above results make a compelling case for the utility of teaching White people about the importance of White involvement for increasing antiprejudiced beliefs, demand characteristics could potentially be driving our effects. That is, people who received the message about the importance of White people’s involvement may have felt pressure to endorse the antiprejudice items and say they think it is important to get involved. Even though this could be the case, the previous research on antiprejudice demonstrated that antiprejudice was not associated with social desirability, fear of negative evaluation, or external motivation to respond without prejudice (LaCosse, Krusemark, Foltz, & Plant, *in prep*). Therefore, it is likely that the

differences in antiprejudice found are not a result of socially desirable responding or social pressure to be “politically correct.” That being said, it is important for future research to rule out this possibility, which was another goal of Study 2.

In addition to ruling out the possibility that socially desirable responding was driving our effects, we wanted to use Study 2 to examine why belief in the information presented would explain so much variance in our outcome variables. One potential explanation may be that believability is actually a proxy for people’s moral convictions prior to watching the White involvement presentation. It could be the case that people who are low in nonprejudice and/or antiprejudice to start are less likely to believe the information presented in the White involvement condition because it is contrary to their attitudes. This would be consistent with research indicating that people actively search for information that confirms their existing beliefs (i.e., confirmation bias; Nickerson, 1998) and initial attitudes are often strengthened rather than changed when people are presented with arguments contrary to their beliefs (Chaiken & Yates, 1985; Lord, Ross, & Lepper, 1979). Importantly, research also indicates that belief biases such as these are more likely to occur as domain specificity increases (Baron, 1985, 2005; Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989). Therefore, participants’ baseline antiprejudiced and/or nonprejudiced convictions should not have a strong relationship with belief in the information presented in the net neutrality condition because beliefs about net neutrality are not in the same domain as nonprejudiced and antiprejudiced convictions.

In order to test these hypotheses, we examined the correlations between belief in the information presented, nonprejudice, and antiprejudice as a function of condition in Study 1 (see Table 2). The correlation between belief in the information presented and antiprejudice was ($Z = 2.92; p = .004$) was significantly different by condition; however, the correlation between belief and nonprejudice was not ($Z = 0.22; p = .826$). To be more specific, in the White involvement condition higher levels of antiprejudice were associated with significantly greater belief in the information presented ($r = .59, p < .001$), however in the net neutrality condition antiprejudice and belief were unrelated ($r = .15, p = .240$). This suggests that baseline antiprejudice may moderate the effects of our manipulations on post manipulation antiprejudice and its related outcomes (i.e., proactive support for social change). We directly tested this hypothesis in Study 2.

CHAPTER 4

STUDY 2 METHOD

Overall, the results of Study 1 indicated that teaching White people why White people need to be involved in the fight against racial discrimination was an effective way of increasing antiprejudice. In order to provide additional support for this finding and demonstrate the importance of increasing antiprejudice, we performed a second study. Study 2 had several goals. First, we wanted to replicate the results of Study 1 in a different, student, sample. Second, we wanted to demonstrate that our manipulation actually changed antiprejudice, but not nonprejudice, by obtaining baseline measures of both constructs.

In addition, we wanted to explore the possibility that participants' belief in the information presented in the study was a function of their baseline nonprejudiced and/or antiprejudiced convictions. The comparison of correlations by condition in Study 1 suggested that baseline antiprejudice, but not baseline nonprejudice, would moderate the effects of condition on belief in the information presented. However, nonprejudice is consistently significantly related to antiprejudice and sometimes interacts with antiprejudice to predict intentions of engaging in proactive support for racial equality (LaCosse, Krusemark, Foltz, & Plant, *in prep*). Therefore, we explored the possibility that baseline nonprejudice could also moderate the effects of condition on belief in the information presented. Relatedly, another goal was to see if baseline antiprejudice and/or nonprejudice would moderate the effects of condition on any of our other outcome variables.

Finally, we tested the hypothesis that teaching White people about the importance of White involvement for creating social change would be associated with greater interest in, and willingness to volunteer for, a campus group working to actively promote racial equality. Moreover, we examined if greater interest in the organization was a function of heightened perceptions of necessity and the changes in antiprejudiced beliefs engendered by such heightened perceptions (i.e., sequential mediation).

Method

Participants

An *á priori* power analysis using the effect size of the manipulation in Study 1 on antiprejudice ($d = .41$) indicated that a sample size of at least 189 participants was required to detect an effect of that size 80% of the time. Therefore, we recruited as many participants possible during an academic term with the intention of running additional participants in the following academic term if our target sample size was not met or exceeded. In the end we obtained data from 401 undergraduate students during the first academic term and did not need to collect additional data the following term. Due to experimenter error, 16 non-White participants participated but were removed from analyses. In addition, we removed data from seven participants who did not complete baseline measures of antiprejudice and nonprejudice during the mass screening session. Therefore, our final sample consisted of 378 White undergraduate students (284 female; 94 male).

As previously stated, one goal of Study 2 was to examine a larger mediation model to see if condition differences in interest in an organization that promotes racial equality could be statistically explained by condition differences in perceptions of the necessity of White involvement and antiprejudiced beliefs. That is to say, we wanted to test for sequential mediation (i.e., condition \rightarrow perceptions of necessity \rightarrow antiprejudice \rightarrow equality organization interest). Therefore, we also performed an post hoc power analysis using the newly developed Monte Carlo power analysis for indirect effects application developed by Schoemann, Boulton, and Short (2017). This app requires users to enter the correlations between the independent variable (i.e., condition), the mediators (i.e., perceived necessity of White involvement and antiprejudice), and the dependent variable (i.e., volunteering for social change organization), as well as each measures' standard deviation. We decided to perform this analysis post hoc because we did not know what the relation between condition and interest in an equality organization would be. The results of our post hoc sequential mediation power analysis with our final sample size indicated that we had adequate power to test for sequential mediation ($power = .97$).

Procedure and Materials

At the beginning of the academic semester participants completed measures of antiprejudice ($\alpha = .93$) and nonprejudice ($\alpha = .76$) during a mass screening session. Participants who signed up for the study came into the lab and were randomly assigned to watch either the experimental (i.e., White involvement) or control (i.e., net neutrality) presentation used in Study 1. After watching the presentation participants completed all of the measures used in Study 1: ratings of believability ($r = .62$), ratings of how much was learned ($\alpha = .82$), perceptions of the necessity of White involvement for creating social change ($\alpha = .86$), antiprejudice ($\alpha = .88$), nonprejudice ($\alpha = .77$), and perceptions of racial discrimination as a problem in the U.S. ($\alpha = .86$).

In addition to the measures used in Study 1, Study 2 included a six item measure rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) of how necessary concern about the state of net neutrality is to serve as a manipulation check for that condition (e.g., “Without the active support of everyday people, attempts to keep net neutrality in its current state will likely not be successful”; $\alpha = .77$). Participants also completed Crowne and Marlowe’s (1960) measure of social desirability in order to rule out the possibility that socially desirable responding was driving our effects. This measure asks participants to read 33 statements and indicate if each statement is *true* or *false* as it pertains to them personally. The number of statements participants indicate are true of themselves are added together to form a composite social desirability score, such that higher numbers equal more socially desirable responding.

Finally, participants read a short description of a new student organization being proposed on campus called the “Equality Defenders” (see Appendix B). The purpose of the organization is to “organize and put on student events (such as sit-ins, protests, marches, etc.) with the overarching goal of connecting FSU students of diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds with each other in the fight against inequality.” Participants indicated their interest in the organization using six statements rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 9 (*strongly agree*; e.g., “I am interested in joining the Equality Defenders organization”; $\alpha = .93$). In addition, participants were asked if they would be interested in receiving more information about volunteering to perform a number of different activities (e.g., making posters, organizing events, donating money, putting up fliers, etc.). They were asked to put a check next to the

activities in which they were interested in and told that if they checked one or more activities, we would collect their email address at the end of the session in order to contact them about volunteering. This behavioral measure is based upon a similar measure we used in past work as an assessment of intentions to engage in collective action, which was positively related to antiprejudice (LaCosse, Krusemark, Foltz, & Plant, *in prep*). We chose to measure interest in the Equality Defenders using both a continuous measure of interest and a dichotomous measure of willingness to volunteer (i.e., did participants check one or more activities) so we would have a measure of both attitudes toward organizations that encourage proactive support and actual behavioral engagement in proactive support. After responding to the Equality Defenders questions, participants were debriefed, thanked, and dismissed.

CHAPTER 5

STUDY 2 RESULTS

Manipulation Check

To begin our analyses we performed an independent samples t-test to examine condition differences in perceptions that White involvement is necessary in order for change to occur, which served as our manipulation check. Consistent with the results of Study 1 we found that participants in the White involvement condition ($M = 5.61, SD = 1.18$) reported significantly greater perceptions of necessity than participants in the net neutrality condition ($M = 5.11, SD = 1.22; t(373) = -4.02; p < .001; d = -.42$). In addition, when we examined participants concerns about the state of net neutrality, which was only administered to participants in the control condition, the average was above the scale mid-point ($M = 5.13, SD = 0.79$). This indicates that our control presentation successfully induced concerns about net neutrality as intended.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Next we examined descriptive statistics for each measure and the correlations among them (see Table 4 and see Table 5 for correlations in each condition).⁵ Consistent with the results of Study 1 and previous research on antiprejudice, baseline and post-manipulation antiprejudice and nonprejudice were all significantly, positively, correlated with belief in the information presented, perceptions of the necessity of White involvement, and perceptions of discrimination. Moreover, the amount of information people reported learning from the presentation was unrelated to nonprejudice, perceptions of discrimination, or the necessity of White involvement. However, unlike Study 1, there was a moderate relation between post-manipulation antiprejudice and the amount of information learned, such that the more people learned, the higher they were in antiprejudice.

One potential explanation for this discrepancy between studies could be Study 2's use of a student sample in lieu of an Mturk sample. It is likely that college students have greater access and exposure to information about racial inequality through their coursework (Swartz, 2009). Therefore, their knowledge about racial inequality and their convictions about working toward racial equality may be more closely related. Finally, consistent with our hypotheses, social

desirability was not significantly related to any other measure, indicating that social desirability was not influencing the effects of our manipulations on our dependent variables.

Presentation Ratings

Before comparing participants in the two conditions on our primary outcome variables, we performed two independent-samples t-tests to examine if, as in Study 1, the two presentations differed in how believable and informative they were. Results revealed that participants in the control condition reported believing the information presented ($p = .009$; $d = .27$; $M = 5.14$, $SD = 1.01$) and learning something from it ($p < .001$; $d = 1.85$; $M = 5.77$, $SD = 1.16$) significantly more than participants in the experimental condition ($M = 4.45$, $SD = 1.30$ and $M = 3.67$, $SD = 1.11$, respectively).

Believability Analyses

As stated earlier, one goal of Study 2 was to examine if the condition differences in belief in the information presented found in Study 1 could reflect differences in baseline (pre-manipulation) antiprejudiced and/or nonprejudiced beliefs. When baseline antiprejudice and nonprejudice and their two-way interactions with condition were regressed onto belief in the information presented there was a significant main effect of baseline antiprejudice ($B = .38$, $SE = .07$; $p < .001$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .08$), a significant main effect of condition ($B = .15$, $SE = .06$; $p = .008$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .02$), and a significant interaction between baseline antiprejudice and condition ($B = .24$, $SE = .07$; $p < .001$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .03$). Importantly, when we decomposed the interaction between antiprejudice and condition we found that greater levels of baseline antiprejudice significantly predicted greater belief in the information presented in the White involvement condition ($B = .63$, $SE = .10$; $p < .001$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .11$), but baseline antiprejudice did not significantly predict belief in the information presented in the net neutrality condition ($B = .15$, $SE = .10$; $p = .130$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$). Moreover, the main effect of nonprejudice ($B < .01$, $SE = .07$; $p = .980$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$) and its interaction with condition ($B = -.01$, $SE = .07$; $p = .845$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$) were not significant. Taken together these results suggest that belief in the information presented may act as a proxy for baseline antiprejudice. Therefore, for our primary analyses we included baseline antiprejudice and the interaction between condition and baseline antiprejudice in lieu of controlling for believability.

Table 4

Study 2: Correlations among Measures across Conditions

Measure	<i>M (SD)</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Baseline Antiprejudice	7.18 (1.85)	—									
2. Baseline Nonprejudice	7.89 (1.38)	.57**	—								
3. Post Manipulation Antiprejudice	7.44 (1.42)	.61**	.40**	—							
4. Post Manipulation Nonprejudice	8.19 (1.08)	.41**	.50**	.59**	—						
5. Belief in Accuracy of Presentations	5.29 (1.17)	.35**	.20**	.44**	.31**	—					
6. Information Learned from Presentations	4.74 (1.54)	.13*	.20**	.12*	.08	-.05	—				
7. Necessity of White Involvement	5.35 (1.22)	.46**	.31**	.74**	.42**	.42**	.04	—			
8. Perceptions of Discrimination	6.15 (1.61)	.48**	.32**	.56**	.32**	.49**	.10	.54**	—		
9. Interest in Equality Defenders	5.73 (1.70)	.53**	.39**	.65**	.50**	.38**	.07	.55**	.51**	—	
10. Social Desirability	19.75 (3.06)	.04	-.07	.09†	.07	.04	-.04	.08	-.02	.06	—

Note. † $p < .10$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$.

Table 5

Study 2: Correlations among Measures by Condition

Measure	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Baseline Antiprejudice	—	.54***	.62***	.34***	.15*	.14†	.41***	.48***	.40***	.06
2. Baseline Nonprejudice	.59***	—	.40***	.47***	.09	.01	.27***	.36***	.26***	-.06
3. Post Manipulation Antiprejudice	.60***	.36**	—	.52***	.22**	.13†	.69***	.57***	.60***	.11
4. Post Manipulation Nonprejudice	.47***	.49***	.63***	—	.23**	.09	.31***	.33***	.40***	.13†
5. Belief in Accuracy of Presentations	.50***	.29***	.62***	.40***	—	-.20**	.15*	.26**	.29***	.11
6. Information Learned from Presentations	.22**	.12	.32***	.21**	.25**	—	.17*	.01	-.05	.09
7. Necessity of White Involvement	.51***	.34***	.78***	.54***	.64***	.34***	—	.50***	.46***	.06
8. Perceptions of Discrimination	.47***	.25**	.55***	.30***	.65***	.29***	.60***	—	.46***	-.02
9. Interest in Equality Defenders	.54***	.45***	.56***	.42***	.43***	.30***	.57***	.51***	—	.03
10. Social Desirability	.04	-.08	.08	.03	-.03	-.09	.09	-.01	.06	—

Note. Correlation coefficients below the diagonal are for participants in the White Involvement condition. Correlation coefficients above the diagonal are for participants in the Net Neutrality condition. † $p < .10$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$.

Primary Analyses

Across our analysis, we included baseline antiprejudice, nonprejudice, experimental condition and all two-way and three-way interactions between them as predictors. We chose to include baseline nonprejudice and its interactions because baseline nonprejudice was significantly related to all of our outcome variables. In addition, including nonprejudice and its interaction terms allowed for a more thorough examination of the influence of baseline antiprejudice and nonprejudice on participants' reactions to the presentations they watched. Finally, previous research on antiprejudice found that antiprejudice and nonprejudice interacted to predict interest in the Equality Defenders organization. Specifically, people who were high in antiprejudice and high in nonprejudice were significantly more interested in the Equality Defenders organization than people low in antiprejudice but high in nonprejudice (LaCosse, Krusemark, Foltz, & Plant, *in prep*). Therefore, to be consistent in our analyses across our dependent variables we included all of the two-way and three-way interactions mentioned above. The simple effects of significant interactions were examined at one standard deviation above and below the means of baseline antiprejudice and nonprejudice.

Perceptions of the Necessity of White Involvement

First we examined perceptions of the necessity of White involvement as our dependent variable. There was a significant main effect of condition ($B = .28$, $SE = .06$; $p < .001$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .05$), such that people in the White involvement condition reported significantly greater perceptions of necessity than people in the net neutrality condition. There was also a main effect of baseline antiprejudice, such that greater baseline antiprejudiced convictions were associated with greater perceptions of necessity ($B = .51$, $SE = .07$; $p < .001$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .04$). None of the other effects were significant (i.e., the main effect of baseline nonprejudice, $B = .06$, $SE = .07$; $p = .415$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, the two-way interaction between baseline antiprejudice and baseline nonprejudice, $B = -.004$, $SE = .05$; $p = .936$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, the two-way interaction between baseline antiprejudice and condition, $B = .01$, $SE = .07$; $p = .874$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, the two-way between baseline nonprejudice and condition, $B = .28$, $SE = .06$; $p = .484$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, and the three-way interaction between these variables, $B = -.08$, $SE = .05$; $p = .129$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .05$).

Perceptions of Discrimination

Next we examined perceptions of discrimination as a problem in the U.S. Results revealed a significant main effect of baseline antiprejudice ($B = .74$, $SE = .09$; $p < .001$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .15$) and a marginal interaction between condition and baseline nonprejudice ($B = -.18$, $SE = .10$; $p = .055$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .05$). Analyses of the simple effects of this interaction indicated significant condition differences among people initially low in nonprejudice ($B = .27$, $SE = .14$; $p = .050$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .01$), but no significant condition differences among people initially high in nonprejudice ($B = -.10$, $SE = .07$; $p = .389$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$). That is to say, people in the net neutrality condition reported greater perceptions of discrimination than people in the White involvement condition among those low in baseline nonprejudice, but not among those high in baseline nonprejudice. None of the other effects were significant (i.e., the main effect of baseline nonprejudice, $B = .13$, $SE = .10$; $p = .183$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, the main effect of condition, $B = .08$, $SE = .08$; $p = .311$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, the two-way interaction between baseline antiprejudice and baseline nonprejudice, $B = .10$, $SE = .07$; $p = .425$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, the two-way interaction between baseline antiprejudice and condition, $B = .07$, $SE = .09$; $p = .129$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, and the three-way interaction between these variables, $B = -.09$, $SE = .07$; $p = .212$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .05$).

Post-Manipulation Antiprejudice

After this we performed our analyses with post-manipulation antiprejudice as the dependent variable. There was a significant main effect of condition ($B = .14$, $SE = .07$; $p = .039$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .01$), such that people in the White involvement condition were significantly higher in antiprejudice than people in the net neutrality condition. Unsurprisingly, there was also a main effect of baseline antiprejudice, such that greater baseline antiprejudiced convictions were associated with greater post-manipulation antiprejudiced convictions ($B = .14$, $SE = .07$; $p = .039$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .01$). The main effect of baseline nonprejudice ($B = .09$, $SE = .08$; $p = .233$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$), the two-way interaction between condition and baseline nonprejudice ($B = -.10$, $SE = .08$; $p = .205$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$), the two-way interaction between condition and baseline antiprejudice ($B = -.05$, $SE = .07$; $p = .480$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$), and the two-way

interaction between baseline nonprejudice and baseline antiprejudice ($B = .04$, $SE = .05$; $p = .494$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$) were not significant.

The three-way interaction between condition, baseline nonprejudice, and baseline antiprejudice approached significance ($B = -.10$, $SE = .05$; $p = .066$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .01$). However, because this three-way interaction was not predicted and only marginally significant, we did not decompose the interaction to examine the simple effects. Finally, it is worth noting that when post-manipulation nonprejudice was included as a covariate all of the effects remained the same despite the fact that post-manipulation nonprejudice significantly positively predicted post-manipulation antiprejudice ($B = .56$, $SE = .06$; $p < .001$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .22$).

Post-Manipulation Nonprejudice

In contrast to post-manipulation antiprejudice, there was no main effect of condition on post-manipulation nonprejudice ($B = .03$, $SE = .06$; $p = .535$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$). However, there was a significant main effect of baseline nonprejudice ($B = .37$, $SE = .06$; $p < .001$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .09$) and baseline antiprejudice ($B = .19$, $SE = .06$; $p = .002$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .03$), such that greater baseline convictions were associated with greater post-manipulation nonprejudice. None of the other effects were statistically significant (i.e., the two-way interaction between condition and baseline nonprejudice, $B = -.06$, $SE = .06$; $p = .381$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, the two-way interaction between condition and baseline antiprejudice, $B = .06$, $SE = .06$; $p = .314$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, and the two-way interaction between baseline nonprejudice and baseline antiprejudice, $B = -.06$, $SE = .04$; $p = .178$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, and the three-way interaction between condition, baseline nonprejudice, and baseline antiprejudice, $B = -.01$, $SE = .05$; $p = .760$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .01$).

Interest in the Equality Defenders Organization

When we regressed baseline antiprejudice, baseline nonprejudice, and their two and three-way interactions onto our continuous measure of interest in the Equality Defenders organization there were significant main effects of both baseline antiprejudice ($B = .86$, $SE = .11$; $p < .001$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .13$) and baseline nonprejudice ($B = .38$, $SE = .12$; $p = .001$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .03$). The higher people were in baseline antiprejudice and nonprejudice, the more

interest they showed in the organization. In addition, and consistent with previous research on antiprejudice (LaCosse, Krusemark, Foltz, & Plant, *in prep*), the interaction between baseline antiprejudice and baseline nonprejudice was significant ($B = .24$, $SE = .09$; $p = .006$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .02$). Analyses of the simple effects of this interaction revealed that among people who were high in antiprejudice at baseline, the more nonprejudiced they were at baseline, the more interest they showed in the organization ($B = .62$, $SE = .17$; $p < .001$; *semi-partial* $r^2 = .04$). On the other hand, there was not a significant association with baseline nonprejudice and interest in the Equality Defenders among people who were low in antiprejudice at baseline ($B = .15$, $SE = .12$; $p = .226$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$). None of the other effects were significant (i.e., the main effect of condition, $B = .06$, $SE = .10$; $p = .585$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, the two-way interaction between baseline nonprejudice and condition, $B = .12$, $SE = .12$; $p = .324$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, the two-way interaction between baseline antiprejudice and condition, $B = .05$, $SE = .12$; $p = .661$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$, and the three-way interaction between these variables, $B = -.06$, $SE = .09$; $p = .497$; *semi-partial* $r^2 < .01$).

Willingness to Volunteer

For our final analysis we used logistic regression in lieu of linear regression because willingness to volunteer for the Equality Defenders organization was a dichotomous dependent variable (1 = willing to volunteer, 0 = not willing to volunteer). Results of this analysis revealed a significant main effect of baseline antiprejudice, such that participants were 1.75 times more likely to sign up to receive information about volunteering for every standard deviation above the mean they were in baseline antiprejudice ($B = .56$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 8.98$, $p = .003$, $\text{Exp}(B) = 1.75$, 95% CI for $\text{Exp}(B)$ [1.21, 2.53]). However, the main effects of baseline nonprejudice ($B = .28$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 2.31$, $p = .129$, $\text{Exp}(B) = 1.32$, 95% CI for $\text{Exp}(B)$ [0.92, 1.89]) and condition ($B = .56$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 8.98$, $p = .003$, $\text{Exp}(B) = 1.75$, 95% CI for $\text{Exp}(B)$ [1.21, 2.53]) were not significant. The three-way interaction between baseline antiprejudice, baseline nonprejudice, and condition was not significant ($B = .03$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = .06$, $p = .806$, $\text{Exp}(B) = 1.03$, 95% CI for $\text{Exp}(B)$ [0.80, 1.34]); however, all of the two-way interactions between these three variables were.

The first two-way interaction we probed was that between baseline antiprejudice and condition ($B = .53$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 7.83$, $p = .005$, $\text{Exp}(B) = 1.70$, 95% CI for $\text{Exp}(B)$ [1.17, 2.46]).

Results revealed a significant condition difference in willingness to volunteer among people who were initially low in antiprejudice, such that people were significantly *less* likely to volunteer in the White involvement condition than in the net neutrality condition ($B = -.70$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 5.94$, $p = .015$, $\text{Exp}(B) = .28$, 95% CI for $\text{Exp}(B)$ [1.21, 2.53]). Among people initially high in antiprejudice, there was a marginal condition difference, such that people were more likely to volunteer in the White involvement condition than in the net neutrality condition ($B = .36$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 3.09$, $p = .079$, $\text{Exp}(B) = 1.43$, 95% CI for $\text{Exp}(B)$ [0.96, 2.14]).

The next two-way interaction we probed was that between baseline nonprejudice and condition ($B = -.44$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 5.93$, $p = .015$, $\text{Exp}(B) = .64$, 95% CI for $\text{Exp}(B)$ [.45, .92]). Results indicated that among people initially low in nonprejudice there were no significant condition differences ($B = .27$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 1.32$, $p = .290$, $\text{Exp}(B) = 1.32$, 95% CI for $\text{Exp}(B)$ [0.79, 2.18]). Surprisingly, among people initially high in nonprejudice, there was a significant condition difference, such that people who were in the White involvement condition were *less* likely to volunteer than people in the net neutrality condition ($B = -.61$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 7.27$, $p = .007$, $\text{Exp}(B) = .54$, 95% CI for $\text{Exp}(B)$ [0.35, 0.84]).

Following this we probed the interaction between antiprejudice and nonprejudice ($B = .29$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 4.82$, $p = .028$, $\text{Exp}(B) = 1.34$, 95% CI for $\text{Exp}(B)$ [1.03, 1.74]). Results revealed that, across conditions, among people who were initially low in antiprejudice their nonprejudiced beliefs did not predict their willingness to volunteer ($B = -.02$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = .007$, $p = .934$, $\text{Exp}(B) = 1.75$, 95% CI for $\text{Exp}(B)$ [0.67, 1.45]). On the other hand, among people who were initially high in antiprejudice the higher they were in baseline nonprejudice, the more likely they were to volunteer for the Equality Defenders ($B = .58$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 5.41$, $p = .020$, $\text{Exp}(B) = 1.79$, 95% CI for $\text{Exp}(B)$ [1.10, 2.91]).

Mediation Analysis

Although we proposed testing for sequential mediation with interest in the Equality Defenders as the final outcome variable (i.e., condition \rightarrow perceptions of necessity \rightarrow antiprejudice \rightarrow interest), we did not find significant condition differences in interest. As a result, it did not make sense to conduct the sequential mediation analyses. However, we did test for replication of the mediation results found in Study 1. Specifically, we examined if perceptions about the necessity of White involvement would statistically mediate condition

differences in antiprejudice. As in Study 1, this analysis used the PROCESS macro (Model 4) developed by Hayes (2013) with bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals computed with 5,000 bootstrap resamples and condition was dummy-coded (experimental = 0; control = 1). However, unlike in Study 1, belief in the information presented was not included as a covariate. Instead, to be consistent with our other analyses, baseline antiprejudice, baseline nonprejudice, and the two and three way interactions between condition, baseline antiprejudice, and baseline nonprejudice were included as covariates. Baseline antiprejudice was not included as a moderator because it did not moderate the main effects of condition on perceptions of necessity or post-manipulation antiprejudice. Replicating the results of Study 1, perceptions about the necessity of White involvement (*indirect effect* = $-.38$, $SE = .08$, 95% CI $[-.54, -.22]$) significantly mediated the effects of condition on antiprejudice. Moreover, when we tested for reverse mediation the indirect effect of antiprejudice was significant (*indirect effect* = $-.17$, $SE = .08$, 95% CI $[-.32, -.02]$); however, the indirect effect was significantly weaker than the indirect effect of perceived necessity on antiprejudice ($Z = -3.12$, $p < .001$).

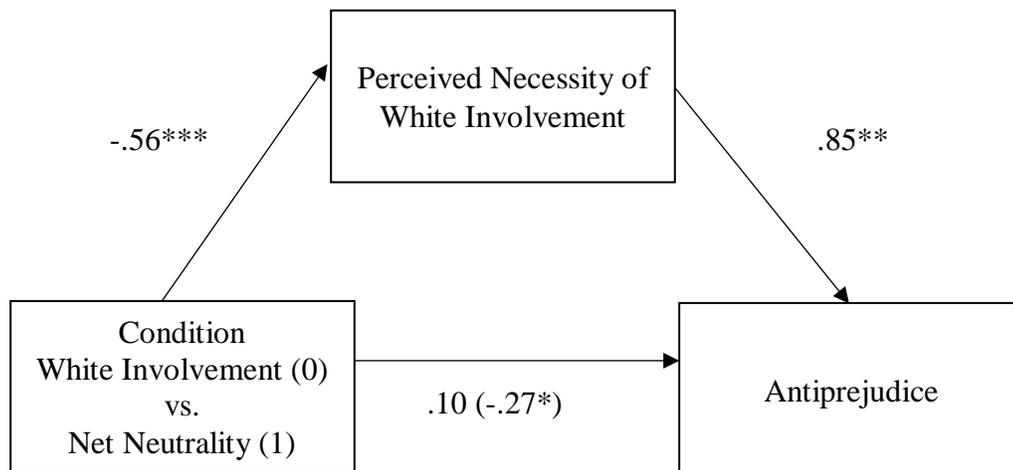


Figure 1. Study 2: Mediation. Perceptions of the necessity of White involvement statistically mediated condition differences in antiprejudice (*indirect effect* = $-.38$, $SE = .08$, 95% CI $[-.54, -.22]$). Unstandardized path coefficients (B) are shown. The value in parentheses represents the relation between condition and antiprejudice prior to the inclusion of mediators. Baseline antiprejudice, baseline nonprejudice, and the two and three way interactions between condition, baseline antiprejudice, and baseline nonprejudice were included as covariates. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

CHAPTER 6

STUDY 2 DISCUSSION

Overall, Study 2 replicated and extended the results of Study 1 in several different ways. Specifically, Study 2 replicated the results of Study 1 in a student sample, providing additional evidence that, compared to teaching people about net neutrality, teaching White people about the importance of White involvement for creating social change is associated with greater perceptions that White involvement is necessary in order for real change to occur and greater post-manipulation antiprejudiced beliefs. Moreover, the differences in post-manipulation antiprejudice were once again statistically accounted for (i.e., mediated) by perceptions of necessity of White people's involvement even when controlling for baseline antiprejudice.

Extending the findings of Study 1, the results of the believability analysis in Study 2 suggest that the extent to which people believed the information presented about the importance of White involvement could be a proxy for people's baseline antiprejudiced beliefs. If belief was not a proxy for baseline antiprejudice we would not have expected baseline antiprejudice to moderate the effects of condition on belief. Instead, the degree to which people believed the information presented should be unrelated to, or only weakly related to, baseline antiprejudice regardless of condition. However, this is not what was found. The results of Study 2 indicated that people who were higher in antiprejudice at the outset of the study were more likely to believe the information presented in the White involvement condition compared to people who were lower in antiprejudice at the outset of the study. In contrast, baseline antiprejudice did not impact belief in the information presented in the net neutrality condition. These findings help to explain why controlling for belief in the information presented in Study 1 accounted for a significant amount of variance in people's post-manipulation antiprejudiced beliefs. More variance was being explained because the influence of baseline antiprejudiced beliefs were being accounted for.

The results of Study 2 further extended the findings of Study 1 by examining the influence of our intervention on participants' interest in, and willingness to volunteer for, an organization that actively fights racial prejudice and discrimination. Although, there was a positive correlation between both baseline and post-manipulation antiprejudice and interest in the Equality Defenders, there were no main effects of condition on these variables. Instead, our regression analyses revealed an interaction between baseline antiprejudice and condition. Specifically, compared to people who learned about net neutrality, people who learned about the importance of White involvement were marginally more likely to volunteer for the equality defenders organization if they were initially high in antiprejudice but they were significantly *less* likely to volunteer if they were initially low in antiprejudice. Thus, people who were high in antiprejudice at the outset of the study were somewhat positively influenced by the intervention with regards to their desire to volunteer for the Equality Defenders. However, people who were initially low in antiprejudice appeared to be negatively influenced by the intervention.

One reason why people low in antiprejudiced beliefs may be less likely to volunteer is because they are experiencing behavioral backlash induced by pressure to comply with the antiprejudiced social norms portrayed in the White involvement presentation. This account would be consistent with reactance theory (for reviews see Miron & Brehm, 2006; Steindl, Jonas, Sittenthaler, Traut-Mattausch, & Greenberg, 2015), which argues that people sometimes interpret social or external pressure to engage in a behavior as threats to their personal freedom and, thus, push back against the pressure (Heilman, 1976). Reactance is particularly likely to occur when social influence attempts are obvious and intense (Heilman, 1976; Rains & Turner, 2007). Therefore, people who are initially low in antiprejudiced beliefs may have felt like their personal freedom were being infringed upon, especially because the White involvement presentation was obviously and ardently advocating for proactive support. This explanation is congruent with the previously mentioned research demonstrating that advantaged group members' participation in collective action on behalf of disadvantage group members is contingent upon perceptions of personal responsibility to take action (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2009; Stewart et al., 2014). People who are low in antiprejudice may not feel that it is their responsibility to get involved, so telling them that they should be involved may feel like an infringement on their personal freedom. However, more research is needed to test these hypotheses directly.

We also found an interaction between baseline *nonprejudice* and condition predicting intentions of volunteering for equality defenders. Contrary to our findings regarding the moderating role of baseline antiprejudice, people who were initially high in nonprejudice were significantly *less* likely to volunteer when taught about the importance of White involvement, whereas people who were initially low in nonprejudice did not seem to be influenced. These results are somewhat perplexing because we would have expected the opposite pattern of results. That is, we would have anticipated that people who hold more positive attitudes about Black people at the outset of the study would have responded positively to the intervention and been more eager to volunteer for the organization. Further, it would have been more consistent with reactance theory, if people who were initially *low* in nonprejudice were less likely to volunteer for the Equality Defenders organization. Therefore, we can only speculate as to why people initially high in nonprejudice would be less likely to volunteer. Research by Jackman (1994) argues that positive intergroup emotions can coexist with the rejection of racial-equality interventions like affirmative action. That is to say, people can have positive attitudes but still experience reactance when faced with attempts to create racial equality. Indeed, researchers have proposed that this may be one reason why there is often a discrepancy between people's endorsement of racial equality and their participation in collective action (Dixon et al., 2005; Durrheim et al., 2011). Therefore, White people who are high in nonprejudice may have positive attitudes and emotions toward Black people, but feel conflicted and respond in a reactionary way when taught about the importance of White involvement. This may provide a theoretical starting point that future research could examine in more detail.

It is worth noting that, unlike in Study 1, people who learned about White involvement were not more likely to perceive discrimination as a problem in the United States. Moreover, people who learned about White involvement were marginally higher in nonprejudiced beliefs compared to people who learned about net neutrality in Study 1, but not significantly, or even marginally, different in Study 2. However, there are at least two potential reasons for these differences. First, Study 1 was underpowered, sampled from a different population, and was exploratory in nature; all of which could have influenced the effectiveness of our manipulation. Second, lack of condition differences in perceptions of discrimination and nonprejudice are not necessarily inconsistent with our overarching theory. We conceptualized antiprejudice as a prescriptive moral conviction that White people should be proactive, and we predicted that

increasing perceptions that White involvement is necessary may be effective in part due to the matching prescriptive nature of these perceptions. Therefore, we recognized the possibility that nonprejudiced beliefs would not be influenced by our manipulation. Moreover, although increasing perceptions that discrimination is a problem is an important component of encouraging collective action on behalf of disadvantaged group members (Becker et al., 2013; Selvanathan et al., 2017), the goal of our manipulation was to influence perceptions of the necessity of action and behaviour, not perceptions of the problem itself. Given the inconsistent findings across studies and the speculative nature of these predictions, it will be important for future research to disentangle the effects of increasing perceptions of necessity versus increasing perceptions of the problem itself on proactive support.

CHAPTER 7

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The persistence of racial disparities in the U.S. highlights the need for widespread support for social change. However, we argue that the espousal of nonprejudiced beliefs among White Americans is not enough to create the active pursuit of social change that is needed to reduce such disparities and dismantle systemic racism. Instead, antiprejudiced beliefs are needed. Therefore, understanding how to increase antiprejudiced beliefs could be the key to encouraging more White people to engage in collective action on behalf of Black people. In two studies, the current work took important first steps toward meeting this goal and provided evidence that teaching White people about why they should be proactive using prescriptive statements about what White people *should* do can increase perceptions that White involvement is necessary for dismantling systemic racism and heighten White people's antiprejudiced beliefs. Importantly, heightened perceptions of necessity and antiprejudiced beliefs were correlated with greater interest in, and desire to volunteer for, the Equality Defenders organization. Taken together, the current work supports the notion that promoting antiprejudiced beliefs may be an important component of encouraging White people to engage in proactive support for social change.

Limitations and Future Directions

Although the present work took important steps toward understanding how to increase White people's engagement in collective action on behalf of Black people, it is prudent to note its limitations. First, although there was a positive association between post-manipulation antiprejudice and our Equality Defenders outcomes (i.e., interest and willingness to volunteer) in Study 2, there was no main effect of condition on these outcomes. There was evidence that baseline antiprejudiced and nonprejudiced beliefs moderated the influence of teaching people about the importance of White involvement on volunteer behavior; however, these findings are difficult to interpret. People who were initially high in antiprejudice were only marginally more likely to volunteer for the Equality defenders organization after learning about the importance of White involvement, whereas people low in antiprejudice or high in nonprejudice were significantly less likely to volunteer compared to people who learned about net neutrality. These findings limit our ability to say with confidence that teaching people about the importance of

White involvement actually leads to increased proactive support for racial equality. Therefore, future research should examine the influence of teaching about the importance of White involvement on other measures of proactive support (e.g., voting behavior or support for policies and practices designed to create social change). Moreover, it will be important to examine the influence of baseline antiprejudice and nonprejudice on these other measures of proactive support to see if, as in the current work, they moderate the effects of teaching people about the importance of White involvement.

Another limitation of the current work is its use of net neutrality as a comparison condition. When Study 1 was performed net neutrality was less widely discussed in public discourse; however, toward the end of running Study 2 (November 2017) the current state of net neutrality became a major issue that was widely discussed in the media. This could partially explain some of the differences across studies that we found, but our data do not allow for a direct test of this since the majority of our sample (88.5%) was collected prior to November 2017. Moreover, net neutrality is not a race-related issue, which limits our interpretation of the results. We propose that being nonprejudiced is not enough of a contribution to creating racial equality. Therefore, a manipulation that directly targets the importance of being nonprejudiced would be more parallel to teaching people about the importance of White involvement and allow for a more direct test of this proposal. Another option would be to teach people about what systemic racism is and how pervasive it is as the control condition. This would allow us to say with more confidence that changing perceptions of the necessity of White involvement is more important for developing antiprejudiced beliefs than simply changing people's perceptions that problem exist in the first place. It would also give us the opportunity to explore in more detail why perceptions of discrimination were increased by teaching people about White involvement in Study 1, but not Study 2. Overall, although net neutrality is a good non-race related issue to compare teaching people about the importance of White involvement to, a different, race-related, issue would allow for a different set of hypotheses to be tested.

Despite the limitations of the current work, it provides unique and important contributions to the literature on both antiprejudice and majority group members' engagement in collective action on behalf of minority group members. Specifically, the current work provided initial experimental evidence that perceptions of the necessity of White involvement can influence antiprejudiced beliefs. Previous research on antiprejudice has focused on identifying

White people who are likely to engage in proactive support on behalf of Black Americans and what drives them (i.e., antiprejudiced beliefs), whereas the current work focused on developing an antiprejudiced drive among White people. The current work contributed to the collective action literature by providing evidence that, in addition to factors such as efficacy beliefs, White guilt, and *personal* moral convictions (e.g., Hartley, McGarty, & Donaghue, 2013; Mallett et al., 2008; Mallett & Swim, 2000; van Zomeren, Postmes, et al., 2012), prescriptive antiprejudiced moral convictions about the role of ingroup members in creating social change is related to encouraging engagement in collective action on behalf of outgroup members. Therefore, an important goal for future research will be to integrate antiprejudice into current models of engagement in collective action by establishing its relation to the factors mentioned above (e.g., efficacy beliefs and White guilt).

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

In combination with our previously performed research (LaCosse, Krusemark, Foltz, & Plant, *in prep*), the current work tests the hypothesis that in order to maximize the likelihood of meaningful social change, in addition to being nonprejudiced, White Americans should be antiprejudiced. As previously stated, White involvement in collective action on behalf of Black Americans is particularly important given that one way of addressing entrenched racial inequalities is to encourage support from people of all races (Case, Iuzzini, & Hopkins, 2012; Mallett, Huntsinger, Sinclair, & Swim, 2008). However, the perceived pervasiveness of nonprejudiced beliefs could potentially lead White Americans to believe that racial inequality is not an issue in the U.S. today. This is problematic because if White Americans do not recognize racial inequality and the need to end it, then they are unlikely to become allies in the fight against such inequities (Dixon et al., 2012; Wright & Lubensky, 2013). Because antiprejudiced moral convictions are associated with White people's perceptions of the necessity of White involvement for creating social change and their intentions to proactively engage in efforts to create said social change, increasing antiprejudice among White Americans may be integral to fighting racial inequality in the U.S. The current work indicates that one way of doing so is to teach White Americans about why and how their involvement is needed in order for real change to occur. Overall these findings suggest that increasing awareness about the necessity of White involvement for ending systemic racism may be the key to encouraging the antiprejudiced moral convictions needed to garner widespread support for social change.

APPENDIX A

TRANSCRIPTS OF VIDEO MANIPULATIONS

White Involvement Condition

Slide 1	Hello. Today, you'll be watching a short presentation about why white people in the United States should be involved in the fight against institutional racism, and discrimination in America.
Slide 2	So what is systemic, or institutional racism? While it refers to the unequal treatment or discrimination of people based on their racial or ethnic background that persists because of previous or current institutional practices, policies, and laws. It is different from individual or personal racism because it is not bias held by individuals, but rather bias that is built into the fabric of society. Unfortunately, systemic racism often goes unnoticed, or is explained away by people who do not fully understand what it is and how it is maintained. Therefore, we wanted to use this presentation as a way to educate people about systemic racism, and why it is important for white people to take an active role in dismantling systemic racism and its negative effects.
Slide 3	Institutional racism and discrimination continue to be a problem in the United States today. Before we explain what institutional racism is, and the multitude of effects it has, we would first like to explain you why it is important for both white people and black people to understand what it is. This is nicely summed up by Dr. Kevin Gannon, who is a professor of history at Grand View University, who said "we are the products of the history that our ancestors chose, if we are white. If we are black, we are products of the history that our ancestors most likely did not choose. Yet, here we are all together, the product of that set of choices, and we have to understand that in order to escape from it." His point is that although Americans today did not create the initial racial inequalities that affect black people today, we all have to regardless of race, deal with the consequences of decades of racial inequality. If we as Americans are to deal with the consequences then it is important for us all to have a good understanding of the extent to which racial inequalities and biases are systematically entrenched in the various institutions of this country. That being said, this presentation seeks to provide an overview not an exhaustive explanation of what systemic or institutional racisms is, and how it persists today. Our goal is to educate people on how our collective histories have brought us to this present state of race relations in America.
Slide 4	As previously stated, systemic racism is built into the fabric of society, including but not limited to, housing practices, access in control of wealth, education, and the justice system. Now, we will go into a little bit more detail about why white people need to be involved in ending systemic racism.

Slide 5	The first reason why white people need to be involved in ending systematic racism, is that white people are more persuasive to other white people when discussing racism. Specifically, psychological research shows that people are more likely to be persuaded by people who belong in their in-group than persuaded by people not in their in-group.
Slide 6	Examples of in groups include people of the same race, people of the gender, or even people of the same nationality.
Slide 7	In other words, fostering conversations about race relations systemic racism and discrimination are likely to be more effective when explained by a white person to another white person, than when a black person explains it to a white person.
Slide 8	When it is appropriate, taking the time to calmly and respectfully explain the importance of ending systemic racism to your white friends, family, community members, acquaintances, and even strangers can be an important contribution to the fight against systemic and individual racism.
Slide 9	The second reason why white people need to get involved in the fight against systemic and individual racism is because white people hold a majority of positions of power.
Slide 10	Positions of power include any position that may have authority or be able to sway or control policies, laws, attitudes, and beliefs. For example, political leaders, prosecutors, judges, police officers, teachers, doctors, etc., all hold positions of power.
Slide 11	So why does it matter that a person in a position of power support the deconstruction of systemic racism? Well people in positions of power have a unique opportunity to use their power for the greater good. For example, political leaders can use their positions of power to introduce new policies, laws, or amendments to existing laws that help combat disparate outcomes for black people and other minorities.
Slide 12	Moreover if a person in a position of power publicly supports the importance of changing systemic racism, they can use their position and influence to convince other people in positions of power and the general public. Just like Barack Obama did during his presidency. Finally, the general public or everyday people are more likely to model the behaviors of people in positions of power with authority than people not in positions of power. This is demonstrated by the increase in donations that organizations see when celebrities publicly endorse their cause.
Slide 13	Here is another example. Take prosecutors and judges who have a lot of control within the judicial system for recommending sentences and sentencing crimes. Research shows that black Americans are prosecuted and convicted of crimes, and they receive harsher punishments more often than white Americans who commit the same crimes at the same rates. If prosecutors and judges are informed and trained to recognize the disparities and treatment within the judicial system toward black people and minorities, they can work to ensure that people of all races and ethnicities are treated equally and fairly within the system.

Slide 14	Another example of how people in positions of power can have an effect include police chiefs. Black neighborhoods and communities have higher police surveillance and police brutality rates, which creates distrust between the communities and the local police task forces. Police chiefs have the power to implement new policies and training protocols that reduce bias and suspicion in black and minority communities. They can also create outreach programs to foster better relationships between task forces and communities of color.
Slide 15	Another reason why white people need to get involved in the fight against racism, is because white people are the largest demographic in the United States.
Slide 16	In fact, according to the most recent statistics from the US Census Bureau, white people make up 64 percent of the population. That's a lot of people.
Slide 17	Why does it matter that white people make up 64% of the population? 64% of the population is nearly 200 million people. If all white people became involved in the fight against individual and systemic racism, it would be more than all minorities combined. That's a lot of people to help mobilize and who support for the end of systemic racism.
Slide 18	So how can the size of the population of white people influence policy changes and attitudes? There are so many ways.
Slide 19	White people are the largest demographic that can vote. By voting for government representatives, including state and local governments that support and have a history of voting for policies that contribute to the end of systemic racism is a huge help.
Slide 20	White people can also attend rallies and protests of causes that help in end systemic racism. Increase support by all people shows politicians the importance of these issues. Additionally, listening to the experiences of people of color at these rallies and protests can help you better understand the importance of being a supporter. Please note that staying a respectful participant at these events is of utmost importance. Being violent and aggressive during these types of events only worsens the problem and undermines the purpose of these rallies and protests.
Slide 21	White people can also join, volunteer, or financially support organizations that promote bridging groups together and make equal rights and fair treatment priorities. Like the American Civil Liberties Union, or the ACLU. The Southern Poverty Law Center, and the Sentencing Project.
Slide 22	The fourth reason why white people need to be involved in the fight against systemic and individual racism, is because when a white person confronts racism, it is seen as more legitimate than when a black person confronts racism.

Slide 23	Because of in-group, out-group relations that we briefly outlined earlier, in individual situations when racism is confronted by a white person to another white person, it is seen as more legitimate than when it is confronted by a black person. For example, if a black person is discriminated against in a grocery store and a white person notices and confronts the act of discrimination, other white people see it as more legitimate. This view of legitimacy is in part due to the fact that the white person does not stand to benefit from calling out acts of discrimination. So why does this matter? Because being exposed to calling out acts of discrimination spreads. It may encourage other white people to recognize and confront acts of discrimination if they see another white person do it.
Slide 24	Now let's review what we have learned in this presentation.
Slide 25	Overall, we discussed four reasons why white people should get involved in the fight against systemic and individual racism. First we talked about how white people are more persuasive to other white people when discussing racism, because they are part of the same in-group. Second, we talked about how white people hold the majority of the positions of power and are therefore able to bring about the potentially more change, than black people who do not hold as many positions of power. Third, we talked about how white people are the largest demographic in the United States, and are thus, in a unique position to bring about social change. Finally, we talked about how when a white person confronts racism, it is seen as more legitimate than a black person confronting racism in the same way.
Slide 26	Like Dr. Kevin Gannon stated, institutional racism and discrimination is widespread, but the first step on the path to removing it is understanding what it is and acknowledging our collective histories and involvement. Thank you for viewing our presentation today. We hope you found it informative and helpful. Please leave us any comments or suggestions you may have at the end of this survey.

Net Neutrality Condition

Slide 1	Hello today you will be watching a short presentation about why people should be concerned with the state of net neutrality.
Slide 2	So what is net neutrality? Well net neutrality is the concept that access to the Internet should be treated as a public utility in the same way that water and energy are treated. In other words, it is the principle that Internet service providers should enable access to all content and applications regardless of the source and without favoring or blocking particular products or websites.
Slide 3	So why should you be concerned about the state of net neutrality? Net neutrality allows for you to access all contents of the Internet at the same speed.
Slide 4	However, if Internet service providers or ISPs are allowed to throttle or limit the amount of bandwidth or speed at which you access content, this could have strong implications for the kind of content shared on the Internet.

Slide 5	The idea of net neutrality is nicely summed up by Nicholas Economides, who's a professor of economics at New York University. In an industry with lots of change and innovation, there are big dangers of allowing only the people who can pay you today to win. His point is that by dissolving net neutrality, we could hinder innovation and creation if we only allow people with lots of money to have a voice on the Internet. That being said, this presentation seeks to provide an overview, not an exhaustive list, of reasons why you should be concerned about the future state of net neutrality. Our goal is to educate people about why they should be concerned about the loss of net neutrality.
Slide 6	Like we stated earlier, because of net neutrality, when you get on the internet, on your smartphone, tablet, or computer, you can access any website at the same speed you can access every other website. This means you are able to watch a documentary on EBS at the same speed as you're able to binge watch a season as a show on Netflix. The same goes for reading content on small bloggers websites vs. reading content from the New York Times or The Wall Street Journal.
Slide 7	So why does this matter? Because as you'll learn throughout this presentation, there are many implications of losing net neutrality for Internet content producers, businesses, and perhaps most importantly you.
Slide 8	In order to understand the implications of net neutrality, we are going to provide four reasons why you should be concerned with the state of net neutrality. The first reason is that Internet service providers, or ISPs, want to charge Internet content producers more money to make their content visible.
Slide 9	So why does this matter? Well, ISPs like Comcast, Verizon, and AT&T want the ability to contract or charge more money with websites and content producers like Google, Yahoo, and Facebook to make their websites and content faster to load.
Slide 10	And why does it matter that companies who can pay Internet service providers more money that their content will load faster? This is an issues because Internet service providers can block and/or throttle the speeds that you serve certain content or websites. For example, Hulu might be super-fast to load a television show, but Netflix might become really slow depending on which websites or companies that your internet service provider has contracted with. The Internet service providers would be able to control which websites you see quickly, which creates an unequal balance of power between the Internet service provider and the website or company. Moreover, it also effects the content the consumer you see.
Slide 11	For example, if the Internet was an interstate road, there would be a fast lane, where you arrive at certain destinations like Disney World quickly, and a slow lane where you arrived at every other destination like your local grocery store, slowly based on how much Disney World and your local grocery store paid the interstate regulators. Another example would be if Walmart paid the interstate regulators money to allow you to get to Walmart faster, but the local grocery store wasn't able to pay via interstate regulators for you to get there faster. This encourages the consumer to shop at Walmart, not the locally owned grocery store, which could affect business competition.

Slide 12	The second reason why you should be concerned with the state of net neutrality, is if Internet service providers can charge more money for content visibility that could have pretty big effects on the success of both new and previously established businesses.
Slide 13	Why does it matter if business competition is affected? Well new businesses that are trying to launch would have a harder time entering the market without significant capital to pay ISPs to make their websites visible to users. For example, say a start-up is trying to launch. The start-up would have a difficult time getting its products and services known, because it would have to pay significant amounts of money for an ISP like Comcast to make its website visible to users.
Slide 14	This also has a negative effect on well-established businesses because they would have to pay premium prices to keep their websites fast and visible to users. As a result, there will be less competition among businesses which ultimately undermines our competitive market economy. For example, if Verizon decides to launch its own video streaming service in direct competition with Netflix or Hulu, it could force Verizon users to switch to its own or proprietary streaming service by throttling speed of Hulu and Netflix or outright blocking access.
Slide 15	The third reason why you should be concerned with the state of net neutrality, is that Internet service providers want to charge you more money to use its internet and access content.
Slide 16	If ISPs were able to throttle website content, you would potentially have to pay more money to visit your preferred websites at the same speed as other websites, or to visit your favorite website at all.
Slide 17	This can also affect what information, news, and media you're exposed to which can create a bias on the information that you see.
Slide 18	Why does this matter? Internet service providers do this by a new payment structure they have suggested by creating a tiered payment structure similar to the way television cable packages work. For example, in order to receive just basic features like email and instant messaging, you would pay a small price. But say you wanted more than that, you would have to pay more for each additional feature like individual websites such as Google, or the New York Times. Now say that you wanted access to all websites, well in that case, you would have to pay an even higher price. Ending net neutrality would mean that internet service providers would be able to charge consumers whatever they wanted, to access all internet content.
Slide 19	Overall, what does this mean? First and foremost, it could cost you a lot more money just to enjoy the same Internet that you enjoy right now. Instead of paying a basic Internet bill every month, you would have to pay more for each additional website you wanted to visit. This could desperately affect low-income household that need the Internet to access textbooks and other educational tools, paying bills, access news or media, search for jobs, and many other important tools.

Slide 20	The fourth reason why you should be concerned with the state of net neutrality, is Internet service providers, by charging businesses and you more, could inhibit your ability to see news sources and media.
Slide 21	We mentioned this before, but why does it matter that without net neutrality, Internet service providers could charge you more for access to all media and news? Internet service providers would potentially have unfettered access to control what news articles are visible to you. That could have damaging effects for the spread of information, and what kind of information you see, creating a bias.
Slide 22	For example, is CNN published an article criticizing the business practices of Comcast of one of its affiliates, Comcast could significantly limit user access to CNN's website or news articles at its own discretion.
Slide 23	Now let's review what we have learned in this presentation.
Slide 24	Why should you be concerned with the state of net neutrality? Well we first discussed that Internet service providers want to charge Internet content producers or websites more money to make their content visible on the Internet. Second, we discussed that if Internet service providers are allowed to charge more money for content visibility that could affect the success of both new and previously established businesses, meaning businesses would need to have a lot more money to make sure they were visible in a competitive market. Third, we discussed that Internet service providers want to charge you the consumer more money for you to use its Internet and access content. ISPs want to create a payment structure and model similar to cable television plans that would cause you to pay more money for the Internet that you already enjoy and use. Lastly, we discussed that by charging you and businesses more money to utilize the Internet, this could prohibit you from seeing news and media sources which would create a bias of information.
Slide 25	Want to learn more about net neutrality? The Federal Communications Commission, or the FCC regulates television, cable and radio, and net neutrality in the US, so you can check out their website for updates on the issue. Of importance, is the fact that in 2014 the FCC tried to enact new regulations reclassifying ISPs rights to control access and broadband, but due to public outcry, the FCC reclassified broadband as a public utility in 2015, upholding its previous stance on net neutrality. This sparked a lengthy legal battle between Internet service providers and the FCC with lower courts ruling in favor of the FCC and net neutrality. AT&T, and other Internet service providers have stated that they will challenge these rulings in the Supreme Court. Given the serious consequences of ending net neutrality, you should seek out more information about net neutrality, and keep an eye out for it in the news.
Slide 26	Like Dr. Economedes said, there are serious dangers and allowing people and businesses who can pay for internet service to access the Internet. Thank you for viewing our presentation today, we hope you found it informative and helpful. Please leave any comments or suggestions that you may have at the end of the survey. Thank you.

APPENDIX B

EQUALITY DEFENDERS DESCRIPTION



Florida State University Equality Defenders—Confronting systemic inequality through collective power

A group of students and faculty at Florida State University are thinking about developing a new student organization—the FSU Equality Defenders—that will organize and put on student events (such as concerts, sit-ins, protests, marches, etc.) with the overarching goal of connecting FSU students of diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds with each other in the fight against inequality. The FSU Equality Defenders is based on the belief that both minority group members *and* majority group members need to be proactive in defending the political, educational, social, and economic equality of rights of all persons regardless of their race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, religion, or gender identity. FSU Equality Defenders aims to help students establish new friendships and promote multicultural awareness by giving them the opportunity to be part of collective action against institutional barriers to equality. FSU Equality Defenders will create a social environment in which FSU students of all cultures and backgrounds can interact and work together to insure equal rights for everyone. Given that FSU is located in the state’s capitol, the Equality Defenders have a unique and important opportunity to try to influence legislation that eradicates systemic biases and promotes equal treatment for everyone. Before we develop the Equality Defenders organization, we need to see how interested FSU students would be in joining such an organization.

APPENDIX C

IRB APPROVAL MEMO AND CONSENT FORM

The Florida State University
Office of the Vice President For Research
Human Subjects Committee
Tallahassee, Florida 32306-2742
(850) 644-8673, FAX (850) 644-4392
APPROVAL MEMORANDUM

Date: 2/22/2017

To: Jennifer LaCosse [*****]
Address: *****
Dept.: PSYCHOLOGY DEPARTMENT

From: Thomas L. Jacobson, Chair

Re: Use of Human Subjects in Research
Increasing Antiprejudice among Americans

The application that you submitted to this office in regard to the use of human subjects in the proposal referenced above have been reviewed by the Secretary, the Chair, and one member of the Human Subjects Committee. Your project is determined to be Expedited per 45 CFR Â§ 46.110(7) and has been approved by an expedited review process.

The Human Subjects Committee has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which may be required.

If you submitted a proposed consent form with your application, the approved stamped consent form is attached to this approval notice. Only the stamped version of the consent form may be used in recruiting research subjects.

If the project has not been completed by 2/21/2018 you must request a renewal of approval for continuation of the project. As a courtesy, a renewal notice will be sent to you prior to your expiration date; however, it is your responsibility as the Principal Investigator to timely request renewal of your approval from the Committee.

You are advised that any change in protocol for this project must be reviewed and approved by the Committee prior to implementation of the proposed change in the protocol. A protocol change/amendment form is required to be submitted for approval by the Committee. In addition, federal regulations require that the Principal Investigator promptly report, in writing any unanticipated problems or adverse events involving risks to research subjects or others. By copy of this memorandum, the Chair of your department and/or your major professor is

reminded that he/she is responsible for being informed concerning research projects involving human subjects in the department, and should review protocols as often as needed to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations. This institution has an Assurance on file with the Office for Human Research Protection. The Assurance Number is FWA00000168/IRB number IRB00000446.

Cc: **Elizabeth Plant, Advisor**
HSC No. **2017.20219**

Informed Consent Form Florida State Students

I freely and voluntarily and without element of force or coercion, consent to be a participant in the research project entitled “Experiences as an American.” This research is being conducted by Jennifer LaCosse, psychology graduate student, under the supervision of Ashby Plant, Professor of Psychology at Florida State University. I understand that the purpose of this research project is to understand how people think about and perceive issues related to race relations. I understand that if I participate in the project that I may be asked to think about and report my attitudes, perceptions of race relations, and my behavioral intentions. In addition, I may be asked to watch a short presentation about race relations or a neutral topic and report my opinions on, and memory for, the information presented.

I understand that I must be at least 18 years of age in order to participate. The total time commitment will be about 30 minutes and I will be compensated by receiving one half of a research credit total for the study. I understand that my participation is totally voluntary and I may stop participation at anytime. If I decide to stop participation, I will still be entitled to the credit accrued up to that point in my participation. In addition, my name will not appear on any of the results. No individual responses will be reported. Only group findings will be reported. The data will be stored in a locked room in the psychology building. In addition, all paper materials and electronic data will be destroyed by January 2030.

I understand there is minimal level of risk involved with participating in this research project. It is possible that I may become uncomfortable thinking about different interpersonal interactions and my social attitudes. I understand there are benefits for participating in this research project. I will be providing researchers with valuable insight into people’s interactions with others. I understand that this consent may be withdrawn at any time without prejudice, penalty, or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled. I have been given the right to ask and have answered any inquiry concerning the study.

Questions, if any, have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I may contact Jennifer LaCosse, Florida State University, Department of Psychology PDB A303, (517) 376-2878, or at lacosse@psy.fsu.edu or Dr. Ashby Plant, Florida State University, PDB B332, 644-5533, or at plant@psy.fsu.edu for answers to questions about this research or my rights. Group results will be sent to me upon my request. If I have questions about my rights as a participant in this research, or if I feel I have been placed at risk, I can contact the Chair of Human Subjects Committee, Institutional Review Board, through the Office of the Vice President for Research, at (850) 644-8633 or at humansubjects@magnet.fsu.edu.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

JENNIFER LACOSSE, PH.D.

EDUCATION

August 2012-May 2018
FL

Florida State University

Tallahassee,

PhD in Social Psychology

Masters of Science in Social Psychology

August 2005- May 2009
MI

University of Michigan

Ann Arbor,

Bachelor's Degree in Psychology (BA)

AWARDS

Ermine M. Owenby, Jr. Travel Award
April 2017, Florida State University

**Outstanding Teaching Assistant Award
Nominee**
January 2015, Florida State University

**Diversity Fund Graduate Registration
Award**

February 2016, Society for Personality and
Social Psychology

**Diversity Fund Undergraduate
Registration
Award**

January 2012, Society for Personality and
Social Psychology

Joe Grosslight Endowed Scholarship
January 2016, Florida State University

**Graduate Student Poster Award (First
Place)**
March 2018, Society for Personality and
Social Psychology

PUBLICATIONS

LaCosse, J., & Plant, E.A., (2018). Imagined contact with famous gay men and lesbians reduces contagion concerns and sexual prejudice. *In Press*. *European Journal of Social Psychology*

LaCosse, J., Ainsworth, S. E., Shepherd, M. A., Ent, M., Klein, K. M., Holland-Carter, L. A., ... Licht, B. (2017). An Active-Learning Approach to Fostering Understanding of Research Methods in Large Classes. *Teaching of Psychology*, 44(2), 1–7.
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LaCosse, J., Tuscherer, T., Kunstman, J. W., Plant, E. A., Trawalter, S., & Major, B. (2015). Suspicion of White people's motives relates to relative accuracy in detecting external motivation to respond without prejudice. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 61, 1-4.
doi:10.1016/j.jesp.2015.06.003

Kunstman, J. W., Plant, E. A., Zielaskowski, K., & LaCosse, J. (2013). Feeling in with the outgroup: Outgroup acceptance and the internalization of the motivation to respond without prejudice. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 105(3), 443-457.
doi:10.1037/a0033082

PUBLICATIONS UNDER REVIEW AND IN PREPARATION

LaCosse, J., Krusemark, D., Foltz, J., & Plant, E.A., (*in prep*). Antiprejudice among White Americans is associated with actively working to end discrimination toward Black Americans.

LaCosse, J., Mallinas, S., Plant, E.A., (*in prep*). Changes in Internal and External Motivations to Respond without Prejudice Correspond to Changing Social Norms

LaCosse, J., & Plant, E.A., (*under review*). Internal motivation to respond without prejudice fosters concerns about showing respect in interracial interactions.

LaCosse, J., Derricks, V., & Sekaquaptewa D. (*in prep*). Intervening to reduce STEM Stereotypic Attribution Bias among Women in STEM.

***LaCosse, J.**, Murphy, M. C., Driskell, S., Garcia, J., & Zirkel, S. (*in prep*). Instructors' perceived theories of intelligence serve as a cue to social identity threat (or safety) for Women in STEM.

LaCosse, J., & Quintanilla, V. D. (*in prep*). The role of empathic concern in shaping how the public resolves legal indeterminacy.

LaCosse, J., Mallinas, S., Plant, E.A., (*in prep*). A meta-analytic review of motivations to respond without prejudice.

Tock, J.T., Moxley, J.H., **LaCosse, J.** (*in prep*). Academic and General Regimentation for College Students: Scale Development and Validation.

*Shared first authorship

PROFESSIONAL ORAL PRESENTATIONS

LaCosse, J., & Plant, E.A., (2017). *Internal motivation to respond without prejudice fosters concerns about showing respect in interracial interactions*. Individual talk presented at the 40th Annual Meeting of the Southeastern Society for Social Psychology, Atlantic Beach, FL.

LaCosse, J. & Plant, E.A. (2017, October). *Teaching White Americans about the Necessity of White Involvement for Combating Racial Inequalities increases Antiprejudice and Collective Action on Behalf of Black Americans*. Individual Data Blitz talk presented at the Annual Meeting of the Society of Experimental Social Psychology, Boston, MA.

LaCosse, J., & Plant, E.A. (2016, November). *Antiprejudice among White Americans Predicts Collective Action on Behalf of Black Americans*. Individual talk presented at the 39th Annual Meeting of the Southeastern Society for Social Psychology, Asheville, NC.

LaCosse, J., Murphy, M.C., Driskell, S., Garcia, J., & Zirkel, S. (2016, May). *Instructors' Perceived Theories of Intelligence Serve as a Cue to Social Identity Threat for Women, African*

Americans, & Latinos. In LaCosse, J. (Chair) & Burnette, J. (Co-Chair), *New Directions in Mindset Research*. Symposium conducted at the 124th Annual Convention of the Association for Psychological Science, Chicago, IL.

LaCosse, J., & Plant, E.A. (2015, October). *The Benefits of Imagined Contact with Famous Outgroup Members*. Individual talk presented at the 37th Annual Meeting of the Southeastern Society for Social Psychology, Winston-Salem, NC.

LaCosse, J., & Plant, E.A. (2014, June). *The Benefits of Imagined Positive Contact with Gay Men & Lesbians*. In LaCosse, J. (Chair) & Plant, E.A. (Co-Chair), *Misidentification Concerns: Implications for Sexual Prejudice and Political Decisions*. Symposium conducted at the 10th Biennial Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues Convention, Portland, OR.

LaCosse, J., Murphy, M. C., Driskell, S., Garcia, J., & Zirkel, S. (2014, May). *Instructors' Theories of Intelligence as a Subtle Situational Cue to Identity Threat in STEM*. Individual talk presented at the 86th Annual Meeting of the Midwestern Psychological Association, Chicago, IL.

LaCosse, J., & Sekaquaptewa, D.S. (2012, May). *Stereotypic Attribution Bias: Predicting Negative Attributions for Women's Science Success*. Individual talk presented at the 84th Meeting of the Midwestern Psychological Association, Chicago, IL.

POSTER PRESENTATIONS

LaCosse, J. & Plant, E.A. (2018, March). *Teaching White Americans about the Necessity of White Involvement for Combatting Racial Inequalities increases Antiprejudice and Collective Action on Behalf of Black Americans*. Poster presented at the 19th Annual Society for Personality and Social Psychology Convention, Atlanta, GA.

LaCosse, J. & Plant, E.A. (2018, March). *Internal Motivation to Respond Without Prejudice Fosters Concerns about Showing Respect in Interracial Interactions*. Poster presented at the Group Processes and Intergroup Relations Preconference at the 19th Annual Society for Personality and Social Psychology Convention, Atlanta, GA.

LaCosse, J., & Plant, E.A. (2017, January). *Antiprejudice among White Americans Predicts Collective Action on Behalf of Black Americans*. Poster presented at the 18th Annual Society for Personality and Social Psychology Convention, San Antonio, TX.

LaCosse, J., & Plant, E.A. (2016, January). *Outgroup Friendships on Facebook Predict Positive Responses toward African Americans*. Poster presented at the 17th Annual Society for Personality and Social Psychology Convention, San Diego, CA.

LaCosse, J., Ainsworth, S. E., Shepherd, M.A., Ent, M., Klein, K.M., Holland, L.A., Moss, J.H., Licht, M., Licht, B. (2016, January). *An Active-Learning Approach to Fostering Critical Thinking in Large Classes*. Poster presented at the 38th Annual Meeting of the National Institute on the Teaching of Psychology, St. Petersburg, FL.

Jarczynski, J., **LaCosse, J., & Plant, E.A.** (2015, March). *The Effects of Diversity Focused Mission Statements on Company Perceptions & Hiring Decisions*. Poster presented at the 61st Annual Meeting of the Southeastern Psychological Association, Hilton Head, NC.

LaCosse, J., & Plant, E.A. (2015, February). *Learning by Example: Exposure to Others' Success Improves People's Expectations about Interracial Contact*. Poster presented at the 16th Annual Society for Personality and Social Psychology Convention, Long Beach, CA.

LaCosse, J., & Plant, E.A. (2014, February). *Real and Imagined Positive Contact Experiences with Gay Men and Lesbians Reduces Heterosexuals Concerns about being Misidentified as Gay/Lesbian*. Poster presented at the 15th Annual Society for Personality and Social Psychology Convention, Austin, TX.

Quintanilla, V.D., & **LaCosse, J.** (2013, January). *Different Voices: Gender Differences In Reasoning About The Letter Versus The Spirit Of The Law*. Poster presented at the 15th Annual Society for Personality and Social Psychology Convention, New Orleans, LA.

LaCosse, J., Murphy, M. C., Garcia, J., & Zirkel, S. (2012, May). *Barriers for Women in Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math (STEM): Assessing Student's Appraisals of Professors*. Poster presented at the 28th Annual Meeting of the Association for Psychological Science, Chicago, IL.

Trevino, L., **LaCosse, J.,** Mowbray, O., Sekaquaptewa, D.S. (2012, January). *Discounting Our Own Success: Seeing Few Other Women in Science Settings Increases Stereotypic Attributional Bias for Women*. Poster presented at the 14th Annual Society for Personality and Social Psychology Convention, San Diego, CA.

Gonzales, I., **LaCosse, J.,** & Sekaquaptewa, D.S. (2011, January). *Unwelcoming Environments: Biased Treatment and Female Under-Representation Affects Performance-Related Outcomes for Women in STEM*. Poster presented at the 13th Annual Society for Personality and Social Psychology Convention, San Antonio, TX.

LaCosse, J. (2009, April). *Mortality Salience, Self-Regulation and Two Types of Self-Affirmation*. Poster presented at the University of Michigan's Annual Psychology Research Forum, Ann Arbor, MI.

SERVICE

Reviewer

- Psychology Learning and Teaching
- Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology
- SPSP 2018 Outstanding Research Award
- Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin
- Journal of Experimental Social Psychology

Undergraduate Poster Judge

- November 2016 & 2017, Annual Meeting of the Southeastern Society for Social Psychology
- 90th Annual Meeting of the Midwestern Psychological Association

Graduate Research Day Committee Member

- Fall 2015-Spring 2017, Florida State University

Research Assistant/Honors Thesis (Crocker Lab)

- January 2008-April 2009, University of Michigan

Graduate Student Volunteer
- 18th & 19th Annual Society for Personality
and Social Psychology Convention

**Social Psychology Career Fair
Representative**
- Fall 2012 & 2016, Florida State University

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Instructor of Record for Social Psychology Fall 2014, Spring 2015 & 2018

Lab Instructor for Research Methods in Psychology Spring 2014

Preparing Future Faculty Academic Certification Summer 2014-Spring 2018

ADDITIONAL RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

**Research Assistant (Data Core) for
Multinational Consortium for Suicide
Research Grant**
August 2015-July 2017, Florida State
University

Lab Manager (Plant Lab)
January 2013-August 2016, Florida State
University

**Lab Manager (Mind & Identity in Context
Lab)** July 2011- June 2012, University of
Illinois Chicago

**NSF Grant Project Manager
(Sekaquaptewa Lab)**
December 2009-June 2011, University of
Michigan

**Research Assistant/Honors Thesis
(Crocker Lab)**
January 2008-April 2009, University of
Michigan