

DO AGE AND MEDIA TYPE INFLUENCE THE EFFECTS OF PRETRIAL PUBLICITY ON
VERDICTS?

By

Akera Williams

Amye R. Warren
Professor of Psychology
(Chair)

Jenny Holcombe
Associate Lecturer of Nursing
(Committee Member)

Jill T. Shelton
Associate Professor of Psychology
(Committee Member)

DO AGE AND MEDIA TYPE INFLUENCE THE EFFECTS OF PRETRIAL PUBLICITY ON
VERDICTS?

By

Akera Williams

A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of the University of
Tennessee at Chattanooga in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements of the Degree
of Master of Science: Psychology

The University of Tennessee at Chattanooga
Chattanooga, Tennessee

May 2022

ABSTRACT

Concerns about Pretrial Publicity (PTP) have grown with the rise of the internet and social media, leading to a near impossibility of selecting a jury that can ignore PTP and focus only on facts presented at trial. Previous research has shown participants exposed to negative PTP were more likely to find the defendant guilty, and tended to misattribute PTP as having been evidence presented during the trial. This study compared jury verdicts among older and younger jurors when PTP was presented in different media formats (article vs video). Results suggest both older and younger jurors tend to misattribute PTP information as trial information, which leads to more guilty verdicts. However, younger adults exposed to PTP were significantly more likely to render a guilty verdict and scored lower on a source memory test compared to older adults. Finally, format (article vs video) did not significantly moderate these effects.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents for their unwavering love and support, thank you for always pushing me to follow my dreams; I owe everything to the both of you.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would first like to express my gratitude to my mentor, Dr. Amye Warren, for her extreme patience, endless encouragement, and for helping me find confidence in myself. Thank you for guiding me through this process and for the laughs along the way. You've shown me I am capable of more than I could have ever imagined, and for that I am eternally grateful. I would also like to thank my other committee members, Drs. Jill Shelton and Jenny Holcombe, for the encouragement and for giving their time with this thesis. A huge thank you to the members of the Psychology-Law Lab for their time and support in the many projects we've tackled together. Thank you to the Scholarship, Engagement, the Arts, Research, Creativity, and Humanities (SEARCH) Award Program for funding this project. Finally, I would like to thank Talley Bettens for her support throughout this journey – thank you for always inspiring me to push through the tough times!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	iii
DEDICATION.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	ix
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Pretrial Publicity.....	2
Age and Media.....	7
Age, Memory, and Source Monitoring.....	8
Age and Individual Differences: Need for Affect and Need for Cognition.....	10
Study Overview and Hypotheses.....	12
II. METHODOLOGY.....	14
Participants.....	14
Younger Adults.....	14
Older Adults.....	15
Materials.....	16
Pretrial Publicity.....	16
Crime Story Recall and Emotional Reaction.....	17
Trial.....	18
Verdicts.....	18
Source Memory Test.....	18
NFA and NFC.....	19
Media Habit Questions.....	19
Demographics.....	20
Procedure.....	20
Informed Consent.....	20
Study Procedure.....	20

Hypotheses	21
III. RESULTS	23
Age Differences	23
Condition Effects on Verdict	24
Source Monitoring by Condition	26
Verdicts and Source Monitoring	28
Emotional Reaction and PTP Recall	29
Need for Affect and Need for Cognition on Verdict	33
Qualitative Data	33
IV. DISCUSSION	36
Limitations	38
Implications	40
Future Directions	41
REFERENCES	43
APPENDIX	
A. IRB APPROVAL LETTER	51
B. CONSENT FORMS	54
C. NEED FOR AFFECT SCALE BASED ON MAIO AND ESSES (2001)	63
D. NEED FOR COGNITION SCALE BASED ON CACIOPPO ET AL. (1984)	66
E. MEDIA HABIT QUESTIONS	68
VITA	70

LIST OF TABLES

1 Participant Overview by Condition	16
2 Demographics and Means (and Standard Errors) for NFA and NFC by Age Group	24
3 Percentage of Guilty Verdicts by Conditions	26
4 Mean (and Standard Deviations) for Source Monitoring Scores by Condition.....	27
5 Count Distribution of Open-Ended Responses by Format	35

LIST OF FIGURES

1 Mean Source Monitoring Scores by Age Group.....	28
2 Mean Source Monitoring Scores by Verdict, Age, and PTP Condition	29
3 Mean Emotional Reaction by Condition	30
4 Mean Word Count by Condition.....	31
5 Mean Proportion Recall by Condition	32

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Decision making research usually examines how people choose one out of several options, with a particular focus on how individuals select or avoid options that carry different levels of risk (Blanchette & Richards, 2010). Jurors are one population that must make critical decisions, with the key decision in criminal trials being if the defendant is guilty or not guilty. According to Bornstein and Greene (2010), a juror's decision process is to actively evaluate conflicting claims and to construct a narrative framework that provides a possible interpretation of the evidence. A jury member has the responsibility of coming to a verdict that is solely based on evidence provided within a trial, as every person accused of a crime should have their guilt or innocence determined by a fair and effective legal process. This requires a fair jury who will approach the case without biases. However, a juror's decision can be hindered by information outside of the trial, including pretrial information (Daftary-Kapur et al., 2010; Hope et al., 2004; Ruva & Hudak, 2013).

Emotions can significantly impact juror decision making (Blanchette & Richards, 2010). According to Loewenstein and Lerner (2003), emotions have two types of influences on decision making; expected emotion influence and immediate emotions. Expected emotions are predictions about the emotional consequences of decision outcomes and immediate emotions are those that are experiences at the time of decision making. Both these types of emotional influences can take a toll on jurors, as many cases have emotional consequences tied to them (Salerno & Bottoms,

2009). For example, a juror deciding a defendant is guilty, could send that person to prison for the rest of their life and destroy their livelihood. Deciding that a defendant is innocent, on the other hand, could deprive a victim of justice and allow a criminal perpetrator to be free to reoffend. On top of emotions that can come out during trial, emotional information may be presented to the public before the trial occurs.

Pretrial Publicity

Daftary-Kapur et al. (2010) refer to pretrial publicity (PTP) as being any information disseminated via the media about a case that is making its way towards trial. PTP is described as positive or negative depending on whether the defendant is placed in a positive or negative spotlight. The first documented case that dealt with PTP was in 1961, *Irvin v. Dowd*. Leslie Irvin was arrested for a series of murders that happened in Evansville, Indiana. The defense petitioned for a change of venue due to PTP reaching 95% of the community. The court overruled the defendant's motion, and the jury convicted Irvin and sentenced him to death (Garfield-Tenzer, 2019). The more recent *State v Chauvin* (2021) case highlights the difficulty in finding a jury not influenced by PTP. Derek Chauvin, a former police officer, was convicted of the murder of George Floyd. The incident was captured on video taken by a bystander that was widespread through the media, and this case may be referred to as a "trial by media." A trial by media occurs when media coverage of a case is pervasive and can give the public perception of guilt or innocence before a trial has begun (Moran, 2019). When there is an excess of information portrayed through the media, there are slim chances of finding unbiased jury members.

The largest debate is whether PTP threatens a defendant's right to a fair trial. Bornstein and Greene (2011) noted that the typical layperson is ill-equipped to handle complex evidence

and ignore pretrial information when making a verdict. Through the Sixth and Fourteenth Amendments of the U.S. Constitution, every citizen is guaranteed the right of trial by an impartial jury in the district in which the defendant committed the crime (U.S. Const. amend. VI). However, in some cases, the crime creates a great quantity of media attention, increasing the possibility of corrupting a defendant's ability to have a fair, impartial jury.

PTP displayed in the media is typically negative-PTP, which tends to be antidefendant. This negative-PTP can increase the likelihood that jurors will find a defendant guilty (Ruva & Hudak, 2013). Positive-PTP or pro-defendant does exist but occurs primarily when the defendant holds a celebrity or high status in the community (Ruva et al., 2011). Positive-PTP that is pro-defendant usually highlights how that individual could never commit such a crime. In studies that have used mock jurors, familiarity with high-publicity news stories have affected jurors' decision-making (Greene & Loftus, 1984; Green & Wade, 1988). There also is general PTP, which does not elicit any negative or positive emotions about the defendant. General PTP refers to crime information prominently in the news, but unrelated to a particular case that mock juries may be asked to adjudicate (Greene & Wade, 1988).

Research has examined the effects of negative PTP on juror decisions. The literature suggests there is a significant increase in the number of guilty verdicts for those exposed to negative PTP compared to no-PTP (Hope et al., 2004; Otto et al., 1994; Wilson & Bornstein, 1998). Additionally, research has supported the fact that negative PTP can cause jurors to form negative impressions of the defendant, leading to detrimental effect on verdicts (Dexter et al., 1992; Kramer et al., 1990; Otto et al., 1994). Ruva and LeVasseur (2012) found that all their mock jurors specifically mentioned PTP information at least once during a deliberation. Also, Ruva and Guenther (2015) found that jurors in the negative PTP condition were most likely to

find the defendant guilty. In a meta-analysis, Hoetger et al. (2022) noted that PTP exposure yields a significant overall increase in guilty verdicts; of studies included, 55.4% of PTP exposed jurors rendered a guilty verdict. Together, these findings suggest that any PTP exposure can influence juries' verdict decision.

Some researchers have also considered factual PTP and emotional PTP and compared the two. Factual PTP is referred to the PTP that affects juror decision making through damaging information portrayed about the defendant, for example, providing information about the defendant's prior criminal record; emotional PTP is referred to as that PTP that affects juror decision making through emotional arousal, for example, presenting striking descriptions of the victim's injuries (Kramer et al., 1990). Kramer and Kerr (1989) found evidence that both emotional and factual PTP produced significant bias against the defendant. Additionally, when both factual and emotional PTP were present, participants rendered significantly more guilty verdicts than when PTP was absent. Wilson and Bornstein (1998) found that both types of PTP can influence participants' judgments compared to neutral information. Identifying the differences in PTP is important due to research indicating that the higher the emotion content is, the more likely it is to be remembered (Brown & Kulik, 1977; Kramer et al., 1990).

Two theories have been proposed to explain how PTP can influence the interpretation of information, the story model and the predecisional distortion theory (Ruva & Coy, 2020). The story model claims that jurors use information they learn prior to trial (PTP) and trial information to create a story that is complete and coherent, otherwise known as cognitive framework (Pennington & Hastie, 1988; Pennington & Hastie, 1993). When jurors come into trial with substantial PTP, they are also coming to trial with a cognitive framework in mind. If information that is presented at trial does not fit in the framework, then that information is more likely to be

misinterpreted or ignored (Ruva & Coy, 2020). The predecisional distortion theory has been defined as the biased interpretation and evaluation of new information and argues that jurors' weighting and interpretation of trial evidence is biased in the way of the viewed PTP; jurors will view trial evidence with a leading opinion rather than evaluating it in a more objective manner (Carlson & Russo, 2001). Therefore, if jurors were exposed to negative PTP, their verdict will be biased in that direction. The predecisional distortion has been found to significantly mediate the effect of PTP on guilty verdicts (Hope et al., 2004; Ruva et al., 2011). When a juror comes into trial with biased information and impressions, there is an increased number of guilty verdicts.

Ample research supports the notion that PTP does affect juror's decision-making. Two limitations within this research include the nature of the sample and the nature of PTP. Many of the studies that have compared PTP and no PTP have used undergraduate samples and have only manipulated the emotion tied to PTP (Hope et al., 2004; Ruva et al., 2007; Ruva et al., 2011; Ruva & LeVasseur, 2012; Ruva & Guenther, 2015).

It is important to include older adults in research on PTP for numerous reasons. First, in most previous studies examining PTP, the sample has included only college students, and the typical college student is between 18-26 years old (Wiecko, 2010). Second, older adults are equally or more likely than younger adults to serve on juries as they typically have more free time in their day-to-day life (Rothman et al., 2000). Also, Hepburn (1980) found that as a juror's age increases, so does the likelihood of a guilty verdict. Third, older adults are known to respond differently to positive and negative emotional information than younger adults (Carstensen et al., 2003). Kisley et al. (2007) found that responding to negative stimuli gradually decreases over the lifespan while responding to positive stimuli is age invariant; therefore, as younger adults pay more attention to emotion-based information, this can lead them to be more influenced by PTP.

Fourth, there are age declines in the ability to monitor the sources of information, which could lead to older adults having more difficulty separating PTP from evidence presented at trial (Ruva & Hudak, 2013). Finally, older adults tend to use different media sources than younger adults.

In the only known study to examine age differences in PTP, Ruva and Hudak (2013) compared younger and older adults who read newspaper articles that were either Positive-PTP, Negative-PTP, or unrelated PTP (about a different crime). A week later, participants returned, watched a trial video, rendered a verdict, and completed a source memory test. Compared to their unrelated PTP exposed counterparts, younger adults exposed to negative PTP were more likely to render a guilty verdict, while older adults exposed to positive PTP were more likely to render a not guilty verdict (Ruva & Hudak, 2013). Additionally, when examining younger and older adults in the same PTP condition, younger participants exposed to negative PTP were significantly more likely to render a guilty verdict in comparison to those older adults who were also exposed to negative PTP. These findings suggest that positive information has similar effects on older and younger jurors' decisions, while negative information does not. Collectively these findings indicate that emotion tied to PTP affects the juror's final verdict, though that effect differs by age.

Research that has looked at the differences in younger and older adults and their tendencies to remember emotion-based information has found that younger adults are more inclined to weigh negative information more heavily than positive information in decision making (Tversky & Kahneman, 1991). Younger adults typically show a negativity bias in memory, in which negative information is remembered better than positive information (Dewhurst & Parry, 2000; Mather et al., 2000). According to Mather and colleagues (2004), as one ages, adults experience less negative emotion, pay less attention to negative than to positive

emotional stimuli, and become less likely to remember negative than positive emotional materials. This suggests that older adults are more likely to ignore negative PTP while younger adults are more likely to remember negative PTP, as Ruva and Hudak (2013) confirmed. Lastly, these age differences can affect the information a jury member chooses to encode. According to Ruva and Hudak (2013), older adults' attentional biases can affect encoding of information and thus they are more likely to encode positive information (positive PTP) than negative information.

Age and Media

Concerns about PTP have grown with the rise of the internet and social media, leading to a near impossibility of selecting a jury that can ignore PTP and focus only on facts presented at trial (Kline & Jess, 1966; Ruva & LeVasseur, 2012). Otto et al. (1994) and Steblay et al. (1999) mentioned that the threat of a fair trial has only increased throughout the years as media attention to courtroom activity has grown, due to the increase in internet usage.

Although media exposure has increased for all age groups, older adults are more likely to obtain news information from a newspaper, while younger adults are more likely to obtain information from social media platforms (Bachmann et al., 2010). Bullard (2015) stated that 86% of those aged 18-29 primarily rely on social media platforms (e.g., Twitter and Facebook) to obtain news information. When news is presented on a social media platform, users have more control over what is posted. Social media that includes news information typically includes a snippet of information along with a short video. According to American Press Institute (2017), the older people are, the more likely they will say that print is easier to read for news information when compared to digital news; 71% of those 65 and older preferred print.

One reason that news sources may impact PTP is through vividness. Vividness refers to the perceptual immediacy and intensity with which a victim's suffering is depicted, or the extent to which stimuli create powerful mental images (Dawtry et al., 2020). More vivid PTP may lead to a greater retention of the PTP and more impact on verdicts. Also, according to Dawtry et al. (2020), vivid victimization contexts (e.g., presented through video) may be more emotionally arousing and impactful than those that lack vividness (e.g., text vignettes) partly because they facilitate a stronger empathic response. Furthermore, video presentations elicit stronger emotion and engagement than when the same information is presented via text alone (Yadav et al., 2011).

Television has less time to report news than newspapers have the space. Dixon and Linz, (2002) found that television news programs typically spend 22 minutes on news content and depend on what is displayed on the screen, which allows for less information and more visuals. Newspapers, on the other hand, have the space to write from multiple sources and provide more information. Ogloff and Vidmar (1994) were some of the first to show that the format of PTP (television and print media) matters; they discovered that television led to greater bias against the defendant. One study tried to replicate these findings yet found that video PTP did not produce higher guilt ratings than written PTP (Wilson & Bornstein, 1998). Since then, there has been no further research combining different types of media coverage and source memory in studies of PTP.

Age, Memory, and Source Monitoring

Source monitoring refers to the discrimination of the origin of information (Bayen et al., 1996). Jurors must determine where they originally heard information when making a verdict; are they remembering PTP or evidence from the trial? Research supports the fact that an

individual's memory can be influenced by misinformation that is presented before the to-be-remembered event (Lindsay & Johnson, 1987; Rantzen & Markham, 1992).

One general issue within PTP research is attempting to determine what information jurors use when deciding a verdict. In studies that examined PTP, and evidence used to make a verdict, participants tend to misattribute PTP as having been presented as evidence during the trial (Ruva & Hudak, 2013). Source memory errors are referred to as jurors mistakenly using information provided in PTP to make a verdict decision (Ruva et al., 2007), and have been studied alongside the examination of PTP and verdicts. This has been to attempt to distinguish if jurors are using PTP information or trial information when making a verdict. Ruva and colleagues (2007) and Ruva and Guenther (2015) found that even when mock jurors were explicitly told to ignore negative PTP, they were still recalling PTP information. Additionally, mock jurors who performed worse on the source memory test, were those that were more likely to find the defendant guilty. These findings suggest that jurors have difficulty in separating PTP and trial information when making a verdict. Therefore, one of the hardest challenges a juror faces is distinguishing between the sources of information (Ruva et al., 2007; Daftary-Kapur et al., 2010).

Juror age may affect jurors' ability to accurately distinguish between the two sources of case information they were exposed to (PTP and trial). Older adults have decreased source-monitoring abilities compared to young adults (Dehon & Brédart, 2004). Specifically, older jurors are likely to make source monitoring errors when deciphering when information had been presented to them; before trial as PTP or evidence in trial. Older jurors are more susceptible to making source memory errors (Czernochowski et al., 2008; Davidson et al., 2006), and in turn can lead to an increase of biased verdict decisions.

Additionally, research has looked at age differences in source monitoring within the legal context, specifically focused on eyewitness testimony. Eyewitness testimony is a powerful form of evidence that can lead to severe sentencing outcomes (Memon et al., 2002). Source monitoring errors in relation to eyewitness testimony consist of making incorrect identifications of a perpetrator (Memon et al., 2003). Older (60-80 years-old) and younger adults (18-30 years-old) have participated in studies where they were to identify a perpetrator in a photo identification lineup after watching a crime video. In these studies, older participants were more likely to make incorrect identifications than younger participants (Bartlett & Fulton, 1991; Memon & Bartlett, 2002; Memon et al., 2003; Searcy et al., 1999). Dodson and Schacter (2002) concluded that, older adults have greater difficulty using source information, or remembering where information was learned, which can lead to memory errors. This suggests that older adults are more likely to mistake PTP with trial information.

Ruva and Hudak (2013) found older adults performed more poorly than younger adults on the source memory task. Specifically, older PTP-exposed jurors experienced more source confusion than the younger PTP-exposed jurors; older participants who were exposed to positive PTP or negative PTP, had more difficulty determining if information was presented in PTP or trial. This study is one of few that incorporates the source memory task, but this task allows for a possible explanation as to who is more likely to remember and be influenced by PTP.

Age and Individual Differences: Need for Affect and Need for Cognition

Need for affect (NFA) describes individual differences in the tendency to approach or avoid emotion-inducing situations and activities (Maio & Esses, 2001). NFA research in relation to jury members is limited, but Griffin and Patty (2010) found that mock jurors who have high

NFA are more motivated to process emotional stimuli and are also primed to recall negative information when time to decide a verdict. Additionally, those jurors who did recall the negative information, were those that were more likely to give a guilty verdict. Those findings suggest that NFA could impact how and if jurors remember emotional information from PTP, and if more negative information is recalled then there are higher chances for a guilty verdict. Cramer et al. (2013) examined NFA as a predictor of verdict in a jury study of hate crimes and found that jurors who are high in NFA, remembered more negative trial information, which then carried over into the juror's verdict decision. Maio and Esses (2001) found NFA to decrease with age. Older jurors could then be more prone to avoiding emotional PTP altogether, ultimately affecting their verdict decision in comparison to other jury members.

Need for cognition (NFC) is another individual difference to consider with PTP. NFC measures how much a person enjoys thinking and is motivated to do so (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982). Cramer et al. (2013) point out that the NFC can influence how jurors perceive evidence which consequently can affect their decision making. Additionally, Leippe et al. (2004) discuss that NFC can correlate with how carefully and systematically jurors will consider the evidence mentioned in trial. Including NFC comes from previous research suggesting that high-NFC mock jurors take part in carefully processing trial information while low-NFC mock jurors are less inclined to do so (McAuliff & Kovera, 2008; Salerno & McCauley, 2009). In a study that looked specifically at NFC and PTP, Ruva (2016) found that those high-NFC were less likely to render a guilty verdict than their low-NFC counterparts. High-NFC individuals tend to naturally seek and acquire information while low-NFC individuals tend to rely on other methods for acquiring information, such as adapting to the opinions of others (Cacioppo et al., 1996). Therefore, those high-NFC individuals may be prone to ignore PTP as for the careful processing of trial

information and low-NFC individuals may be prone to remembering less PTP information. Again, like NFA, there can be differences depending on the age of the juror. Bruinsma and Crutzen (2018) found NFC to decrease as one ages. Therefore, older jurors could be less inclined to carefully process trial information.

Study Overview and Hypotheses

Ruva and Hudak (2013) state that exploring age related differences in attention can affect important real-world activities such as juror decision making. However, research up to date is still limited in the manner of observing how different formats of news media could affect different aged participants. This research aims to fill that gap by examining if younger and older adults can differentiate when they have been exposed to information regarding PTP. Due to COVID-19 limitations, participants could not physically come into the lab and take part as a mock-juror in-person, as done in previous studies done by Ruva and Hudak (2013).

Participants were first exposed to pretrial information, in written or video format. This information was relevant to a criminal trial or an unrelated crime, as adapted from Ruva and Hudak (2013). A week later, participants were told to act as a mock-juror, render a verdict and indicate where they learned specific information. Based on previous literature, I hypothesized there would be age differences in memory recalled in source monitoring, NFA and NFC, in that I expected younger adults to outperform their older counterparts (H1). Based on results of similar studies, I hypothesized that younger adults exposed to negative-PTP would render more guilty verdicts than younger adults exposed to unrelated PTP, while older adults' verdicts would not differ by type of PTP exposure (H2). Additionally, I predicted video PTP would be more emotional and better remembered in that younger adults who were exposed to video would

remember more of the information contained in the video PTP than the article PTP, while also rendering more guilty verdicts. In other words, younger adults who were exposed to video PTP would remember more information and render more guilty verdicts when compared to younger adults exposed to article PTP (H3).

I further hypothesized that lower scores on the source monitoring test would result in more guilty verdicts (H4), especially in the negative PTP condition. In addition, I predicted that participants with higher NFA would remember more negative information which would lead to more guilty verdicts (H5). Last, I hypothesized that participants with higher NFC would have better source monitoring scores, which would result in less guilty verdicts (H6).

Though this study has limited ecological validity, it still can provide insight on tendencies of misattributing information in older and younger adults. Previous research has emphasized that PTP can ultimately impact the way a juror renders a verdict. Authors have also recognized the idea of older adults being more prone to ignore negative information as well as making more memory errors when compared to younger adults. To date there has been no research that has examined age differences and format of PTP. Moreover, few studies have focused on looking at individual differences and PTP. Some individuals may be more affected by PTP than others. The purpose of this study is to determine if there are differences in older and younger jurors' decision making when PTP is present and is presented in different media formats (newspaper or video).

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants were recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) or from social media. The MTurk platform allows for the recruitment of a more diverse sample of participants compared to a typical college student sample (Buhrmester et al., 2011). CloudResearch was additionally used to restrict participants to United States citizens, English-speakers, and those between the ages of 18 to 26 or 60 years old or older. Additionally, CloudResearch was used to block duplicate IP addresses to prevent participants from completing the study more than once, and to filter the sample to those with a 98% approval rating and a 500+ Human Intelligence Tasks approval to ensure higher quality data (Litman et al., 2017).

Younger Adults

A sample of 98 young adults aged 18-26 were recruited via MTurk and were paid \$4.00 for completing both phases of the study. Thirty-nine participants were excluded from analyses for not completing the second phase of the study, and one participant was excluded from analyses for not agreeing to consent. Therefore, responses from 58 participants were analyzed in the younger adult sample. See Table 1 for how many young adults were in each PTP condition and format. Their ages ranged from 18 to 25 years ($M=22.91$, $SD=1.82$). For gender, 58.6% identified as female and 34.5 % as male. For racial identity, 55.2% identified as White, 25.9% as

Black/African American, 6.9% as Asian, 8.6% as multi-racial, and 1.7% as Native Hawaiian. One participant did not report their race/ethnicity. With regards to education: 3.4% had less than high school, 15.5% were high school graduates, 34.5% had some college credit, 6.9% had an associate degree, 36.2% had a bachelor's degree, and 3.4% had a professional or doctoral degree. Finally, participants were asked if they had ever been summoned for jury duty and if they had ever served on a jury: 77.6% ($n=45$) said they had not been summoned for jury duty and 98.3% ($n=57$) said they had not served on a jury.

Older Adults

A sample of 80 older adults were recruited through Amazon's MTurk and received \$4.00 for completing both phases of the study. Eighteen participants were excluded from analyses for not completing the second phase of the study. However, older participants that are on MTurk may be more technically inclined and there are less MTurk workers as age increases. Therefore, another sample of 23 older adults was recruited through social media. They were compensated with \$15 Amazon gift cards. Five participants were excluded from analyses for not completing the second phase of the study. Therefore, responses from 80 participants were analyzed in the older adult sample. See Table 1 for how many older adults were in each PTP condition and format. Their ages ranged from 60 to 84 years ($M=65.96$, $SD=5.12$). For gender, 66.3% identified as female and 33.8% as male. For racial identity, 87.5% identified as White, 8.8% as Black/African American, and 1.3% as American Indian. Two participants did not report their race/ethnicity. With regards to education: 3.8% were high school graduates, 26.3% had some college credit, 11.3% had an associate degree, 31.3% had a bachelor's degree, and 27.6% had a

professional or doctoral degree. Finally, 72.5% ($n=58$) said they had been summoned for jury duty and 71.3% ($n=57$) said they had not served on a jury.

Table 1 Participant Overview by Condition

Age	Condition			
	Negative PTP		Unrelated PTP	
	Article	Video	Article	Video
Younger Adults ($n=58$)	$n=13$	$n=12$	$n=12$	$n=21$
Older Adults ($n=80$)	$n=27$	$n=20$	$n=16$	$n=17$

Materials

The methods and trial materials were adapted from Ruva and Hudak (2013), who granted permission for their use.

Pretrial Publicity

PTP was presented to participants in either article form or video form. Negative PTP articles were received from Ruva and Hudak (2013) and are modified from the *NJ v. Bias* trial that contain general information that could potentially bias their opinion against the defendant. All articles were originally taken from a Web-based archive for the *Morning Call* newspaper. The negative PTP videos were created based on these articles. Those in the no-PTP condition were given news articles or videos based on an unrelated story, also obtained from Ruva and Hudak (2013). These articles are related to an embezzlement case. In the negative PTP condition

there were 9 articles read or 9 videos watched that were approximately the same length. In the no-PTP condition, there were 8 articles read or 8 videos watched that were approximately the same length. For the video form of PTP, the Psychology and Law research team at UTC created scripts that were based on the articles. These scripts were then used to create videos for the participants to watch. All videos created ranged from 40 seconds to one minute. These videos were made in such manner to look and sound like a real news broadcasting. Participants were instructed to read/watch the articles/videos carefully as they would be asked a question regarding them later.

Crime Story Recall and Emotional Reaction

Immediately after reading the articles or watching the videos, participants were asked to type out as much information they remember from the articles/videos. Ruva and Hudak (2013) asked participants a crime recall questions in which participants were given 15 minutes and were asked to write down as much as they could about the articles they read. This is similar to potential jury members being asked what they know regarding a specific case.

Participants were also asked to rate their emotional reaction to the articles/videos. This was rated on a seven-point Likert scale (1 indicating no emotional reaction, midpoint rating of 4 indicating moderately strong reaction, and 7 indicating extremely emotional reaction). This was asked to see if the video format of the PTP caused a stronger emotional reaction than the print.

Trial

All participants watched the trial video, which lasts roughly 30 minutes and focuses on a man being accused of murdering his wife. The defendant claims he accidentally shot his wife while trying to prevent her from committing suicide, therefore the defendant is pleading not guilty. From prior research, this trial is deemed as realistic, believable, and ambiguous as to guilt (Hope et al., 2004; Ruva & Hudak, 2013; Ruva & McEvoy, 2008).

Verdicts

Participants in the negative PTP condition gave a verdict at the end of phase one, just after being exposed to the PTP. All participants indicated their verdict after watching the trial video, guilty or not guilty. Therefore, participants who were exposed to negative PTP rendered a verdict twice. Participants also rated their verdict using a seven-point Likert scale (1 indicating not guilty, midpoint rating of 4 indicating that the participant was unsure, and 7 indicating guilty) after watching the trial video.

Source Memory Test

To measure source memory accuracy, participants were asked to determine the source from a series of statements. There was a total of 59 items and the statements on the source memory test contained information presented in only the trial, only in PTP, only in unrelated article/video, and new information that had not previously been provided in either PTP or the trial. This source memory test was also provided from Ruva and Hudak (2013).

NFA and NFC

The NFA scale (Maio & Esses, 2001) includes 26 items that assess the degree to which people require intense emotional experiences. Each statement is rated on a seven-point Likert scale (1 indicating strongly disagree, midpoint rating of 4 indicating that the participant neither agrees or disagrees, and 7 indicating strongly agree). Example items include “Emotions help people get along in life,” and “I am a very emotional person.” Maio and Esses (2001) found the NFA scale to have internal consistencies all over .80 (see Appendix A for NFA Scale).

The NFC-short form scale (NFC-SF; Cacioppo et al., 1984) includes 18 items that assess the degree to which people engage in effortful cognitive processing. Each statement is rated on a five-point Likert scale (1 indicating strongly disagree, midpoint rating of 3 indicating that the participant neither agrees or disagrees, and 5 indicating strongly agree). Example items include “Learning new ways to think doesn’t excite me very much,” and “I prefer my life to be filled with puzzles that I must solve.” Internal reliability was rated at a .90 (Cacioppo et al., 1984), see Appendix B for NFC scale.

Media Habit Questions

Participants were asked 6 questions regarding their media habits. Three questions were answered using a 5-point Likert scale (1 being never and 5 being every day). These questions are related to how often participants get their news from either newspaper, television, or social media sites. Two open ended questions asked participants what their primary source of news is and what social media platforms they use regularly. The final question asked participants to select all the media platforms they currently have access to. These questions came from the potential juror questionnaire in the case of Derek Chauvin (Minnesota Judicial Branch, 2021).

Due to information on this case being mass published on television and social media, these questions have relevance to the examination of media and PTP. See Appendix C for media habit questions.

Demographics

Four questions were asked on basic demographics: age, race, gender and education levels. Participants were also asked if they have ever been summoned for jury duty as well as if they have ever served on a jury.

Procedure

Informed Consent

Before the beginning of each phase, participants were provided an informed consent form which outlined the purpose to the study, the length of time it would take to complete the study (30-45 minutes), potential benefits of participating, that participation was voluntary, they could withdraw at any point, and their data would be de-identified and confidential. After providing consent, participants were asked if they were at least 18 years-old (*yes, no*).

Study Procedure

The study was conducted in two phases. In phase 1, after obtaining consent, participants completed the NFA scale and NFC scale. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two PTP conditions (negative PTP, no PTP). Participants assigned to the negative PTP condition watched video clips or read news articles related to the case; those assigned to no PTP read/watched stories about an unrelated crime. Both negative video and negative articles were

modified from the *NJ v. Bias* trial and will contain general information that could potentially bias their opinion towards the defendant. Immediately after, participants were asked to recall as much as they can about the videos or articles they read. Participants then answered demographic questions and were finally told that they would be asked to complete another task the following week.

Phase 2 was available to participants one week later, and participants watched the *NJ v. Bias* trial. In the real world, an individual could be exposed to PTP at any time prior to becoming a jury member. The one-week retention interval is intended to allow participants to act as if they are real jury members. Prior to the start of the trial video, participants were instructed to act as if they were jurors in an actual trial. After viewing the trial, jurors were informed that during phase one of the study they may have been exposed to information that was related to the trial they just viewed, but not to use any of this previous information when making verdict decisions. Participants then rendered their verdicts (guilty or not guilty), rated their verdict on a 7-point Likert scale, and completed a source memory questionnaire to determine whether they attribute information to the trial or to the PTP. Last, participants answered questions regarding their media habits before being thanked and compensated.

Hypotheses

H1: Age differences in PTP recalled, in source monitoring, NFA and NFC, all favoring younger participants.

H2: Younger adults exposed to N-PTP will render significantly more guilty verdicts than those exposed to unrelated PTP. Older adults' verdicts will not differ by type of PTP.

H3: Younger adults exposed to video will remember more of the PTP information than those exposed to the article PTP. Additionally, younger adults exposed to negative video PTP will render more guilty verdicts than younger adults exposed to negative print PTP. Older adults will not be influenced by the negative PTP format.

H4: Lower scores on the source monitoring test will predict significantly more guilty verdicts in the negative PTP condition.

H5: Higher NFA scores will predict significantly more negative PTP information remembered, resulting in more guilty verdicts in the negative PTP condition, regardless of age

H6: Higher NFC scores will predict significantly better source monitoring scores in the negative PTP condition, resulting in fewer guilty verdicts, regardless of age

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Age Differences

In partial support of hypothesis 1, there were age differences in source monitoring and NFC, yet in the opposite direction predicted. Older adults ($M=26.94$, $SE=.61$) scored higher on the source monitoring test than younger adults ($M=24.071$, $SE=1.2$). An independent samples t -test indicated the difference was significant, $t(95.67)=-2.21$, $p=.03$. Younger adults ($M=3.21$, $SE=1.61$) reported lower NFC than older adults ($M=10.65$, $SE=1.59$). An independent samples t -test indicated the difference was significant, $t(136)=-3.20$, $p<.001$. Younger adults ($M=8.83$, $SE=2.48$) reported lower NFA than older adults ($M=13.8$, $SE=1.95$). However, the age difference in NFA was not significant, $t(136) = -1.59$, $p = .11$, (see Table 2).

Table 2 Demographics and Means (and Standard Errors) for NFA and NFC by Age Group

Age	Gender	Race	Education	NFA	NFC
Younger Adults (<i>n</i> =58)	34.5% M, 58.6% F, 6.9% O	55.2% W, 25.9% AA, 6.9% A, 8.6% MR, 1.7% NH, 1.7% O	3.4% LH, 15.5% HG, 34.5% SC, 6.9% AD, 36.2% BD, 3.4% PD	8.83 (2.48)	3.21 (1.61)
Older Adults (<i>n</i> =80)	33.8% M, 66.3% F	87.5% W, 8.8% AA, 1.3% AI, 2.5% O	3.8% HG, 26.3% SC, 11.3% AD, 31.3% BD, 27.6% PD	13.8 (1.95)	10.65 (1.59)

Note. Means and standard error are shown for NFA and NFC.

Gender abbreviations: Male (M), female (F), other/non-binary (O)

Race abbreviations: White (W), Black/African American (AA), Asian (A), Multi-racial (MR), Native Hawaiian (NH), American Indian (AI), other/did not report (O)

Education abbreviations: Less than high school (LH), high school graduate (HG), some college credits (SC), associate degree (AD), bachelor’s degree (BD), professional/doctoral degree (PD)

Condition Effects on Verdict

A logistic regression analysis was conducted to assess the overall effect of condition on the dichotomous dependent variable of verdict outcome (guilty vs. not guilty). Age (younger adults vs older adults), PTP condition (negative-PTP vs unrelated PTP), and format of PTP (article vs video) were entered into a logistic regression model. Analysis revealed that age, PTP condition and format of PTP did not significantly predict the percentage of guilty verdicts (Wald

$\chi^2=.07, p=.79$, odds ratio=0.91; Wald $\chi^2=.001, p=.97$, odds ratio=1.01; Wald $\chi^2=.12, p=.72$, odds ratio=1.13 respectively).

Although the logistic regression did not reveal a significant overall effect of condition, Chi-square analyses were conducted to further examine the effect of condition on verdict decision by age. Supporting hypothesis 2, there was a significant association between verdict and PTP condition for younger adults but not for older adults ($\chi^2([, N = 58] = 4.5, p = .03$, Cramer's $V = .21, \chi^2[1, N = 80] = .01, p = .95$, Cramer's $V = .01$ respectively). Younger adults were significantly more likely to render a guilty verdict when exposed to negative PTP (76%) than unrelated PTP (48.5%). Though not significantly different, older participants were somewhat more likely to render a guilty verdict when exposed to negative PTP (59.1%) compared to unrelated PTP (40.9%) (see table 3). Chi-square analyses were also conducted to examine the effect of PTP format on verdict decision. Refuting hypothesis 3, there was no significant association between verdict and PTP format for younger or older adults ($\chi^2[1, N = 58] = .06, p = .8, \text{Cramer's } V = .03, \chi^2[1, N = 80] = .03, p = .88, \text{Cramer's } V = .02$). Though the difference was not significant, younger and older adults gave more guilty verdicts when exposed to negative article PTP rather than negative video PTP (see Table 3).

Table 3 Percentage of Guilty Verdicts by Conditions

Age	Condition			
	Negative PTP		Unrelated PTP	
	Article	Video	Article	Video
Younger Adults	76.9 (<i>n</i> =10/13)	62.5 (<i>n</i> =10/16)	41.7 (<i>n</i> =5/12)	52.4 (<i>n</i> =11/21)
Older Adults	59.3 (<i>n</i> =16/27)	50.0 (<i>n</i> =10/20)	50.0 (<i>n</i> =8/16)	58.8 (<i>n</i> =10/17)

Source Monitoring by Condition

To see if there was a difference in source monitoring based on age, PTP condition, and PTP format, a 2 (age: young adults vs older adults) x 2 (condition: negative vs unrelated) x 2 (format: article vs video) Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted on source monitoring scores. Alpha levels were set to .05 for all analyses.

A Pearson's *r* correlation test was conducted to examine and relationship between individual differences and source monitoring scores. There were no significant relationships between gender, education, and source monitoring scores ($r=.005, p=.95; r=-.05, p=.54$).

Partially supporting hypothesis 3, there was a significant main effect of condition, $F(1,140) = 28.96, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .17$. Participants in the negative PTP condition ($M = 23.02, SE = .56$) scored lower than those in the unrelated PTP condition ($M = 28.74, SE = 1.03$) on the source monitoring test. There was also a significant main effect of age, $F(1,140) = 10.43, p = .002$, partial $\eta^2 = .07$, with younger adults ($M = 24.11, SE = 1.13$) scoring lower than older adults ($M = 26.94, SE = .61$) on the source monitoring test, opposite the direction predicted. There was no

main effect for format, $F(1,140) = .21, p = .65$, partial $\eta^2 = .002$, with no significant differences in source monitoring for article vs video exposed participants.

There were no significant interactions between PTP condition and age, PTP condition and PTP format, or age and PTP format on source monitoring scores ($F[1,140] = .91, p = .34$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$, $F[1,140] = 2.49, p = .12$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$, $F[1,140] = .19, p = .66$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$ respectively). See Table 4 for mean source monitoring scores for each cell.

Table 4 Mean (and Standard Deviations) for Source Monitoring Scores by Condition

	Condition			
	Negative PTP		Unrelated PTP	
	Article	Video	Article	Video
Younger Adults	20.31 (5.72)	22.68 (6.64)	27.83 (8.35)	25.43 (11.36)
Older Adults	23.85 (3.66)	24.00 (3.34)	32.31 (4.34)	30.11 (5.16)

I further examined source monitoring in the negative PTP condition (which has greater source monitoring demands). There was no significant main effect for format in the negative condition ($F[1,70] = .59, p = .45$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$). There was a main effect of age for participants exposed to negative PTP, $F(1,70) = 5.54, p = .02$, partial $\eta^2 = .07$. Older adults exposed to negative PTP ($M = 23.91, SD = 3.49$) scored higher on the source monitoring test than younger adults exposed to negative PTP ($M = 21.12, SD = 6.53$), see Figure 1.

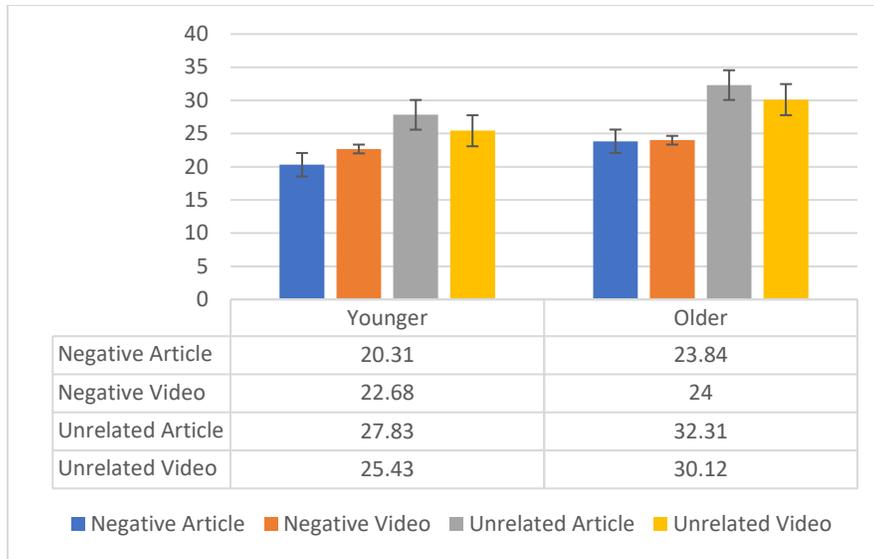


Figure 1 Mean Source Monitoring Scores by Age Group

Note. Error bars show standard errors.

Verdicts and Source Monitoring

Supporting hypothesis 4, participants with lower source monitoring scores rendered more guilty verdicts, $\chi^2([, N = 141] = 8.47, p = .01, \text{Cramer's } V = .25$. For this first analysis, source monitoring scores were split into three groups based on frequency of mean scores; 80% of those in the low score range of source monitoring rendered a guilty verdict, whereas only 48.5% in the high score range rendered a guilty verdict.

An ANOVA was conducted to examine source monitoring scores based on verdict, age, and PTP condition, which revealed a main effect of age, $F(1,137) = 12.79, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .09$ and PTP condition (negative/unrelated), $F(1,137) = 29.51, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .17$. Younger adults who rendered a guilty verdict ($M = 21.94, SD = 8.66$) had lower source monitoring scores than older adults ($M = 26.34, SD = 5.95$) who rendered a guilty verdict. Moreover, there was a main effect of verdict, $F(1,137) = 6.38, p = .01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .04$, in that those who rendered a guilty

verdict ($M=24.37, SD=7.51$), had lower source monitoring scores than those that rendered a not guilty verdict ($M=27.44, SD=6.63$). Last, there was a significant interaction between verdict, age and PTP condition, $F(1,137) = 4.44, p = .04$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. Younger adults that were exposed to negative PTP and rendered a guilty verdict ($M=21.58, SD=5.10$) had lower source monitoring scores than older adults that were exposed to negative PTP and rendered a guilty verdict ($M=23.31, SD=4.32$). See Figure 2.

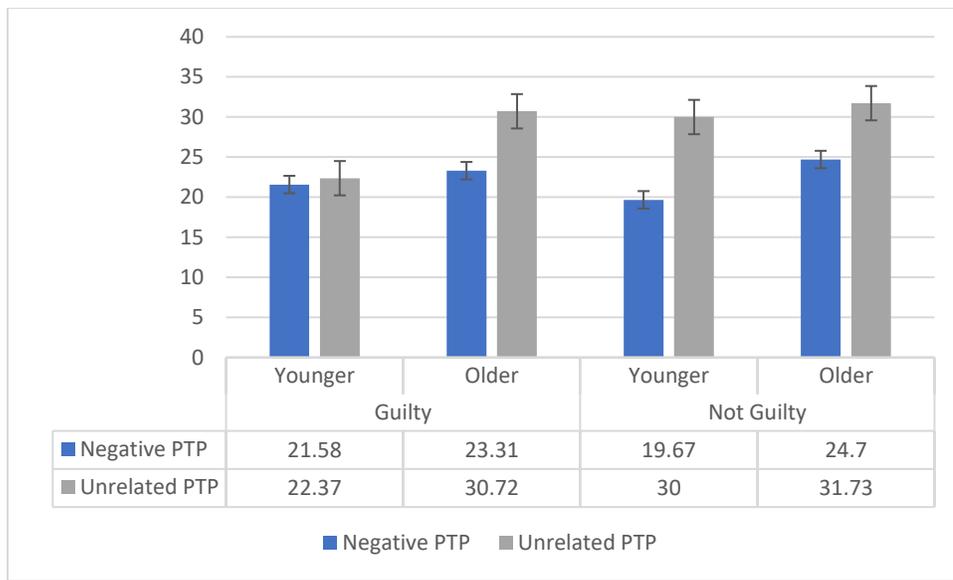


Figure 2 Mean Source Monitoring Scores by Verdict, Age, and PTP Condition

Note. Error bars show standard errors.

Emotional Reaction and PTP Recall

An ANOVA was conducted to examine the effects of emotional reaction to PTP based on condition, format, and age. There was a main effect of age, $F(1,137) = 5.19, p = .03$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$. Younger adults ($M=3.39, SD=1.82$) had lower emotional reactions to the PTP than older adults

($M=4.21$, $SD=1.64$). There was also a main effect of condition, $F(1,137) = 3.92$, $p=.05$, partial $\eta^2=.03$. Regardless of age, participants who were exposed to the negative PTP ($M=4.24$, $SD=1.66$) had greater emotional reactions to the PTP than those exposed to the unrelated PTP ($M=3.47$, $SD=1.79$). There was also a main effect of format, $F(1,137) = 6.18$, $p=.01$, partial $\eta^2=.05$. Participants exposed to article PTP had more emotional reaction ($M=4.34$, $SD=1.66$) than those exposed to video PTP ($M=3.41$, $SD=1.75$). There were no significant interactions between the PTP condition, format and age on emotional reaction to the PTP, which contradicts predictions of younger adults having a more emotional reaction to negative video when compared to older adults. See Figure 3.

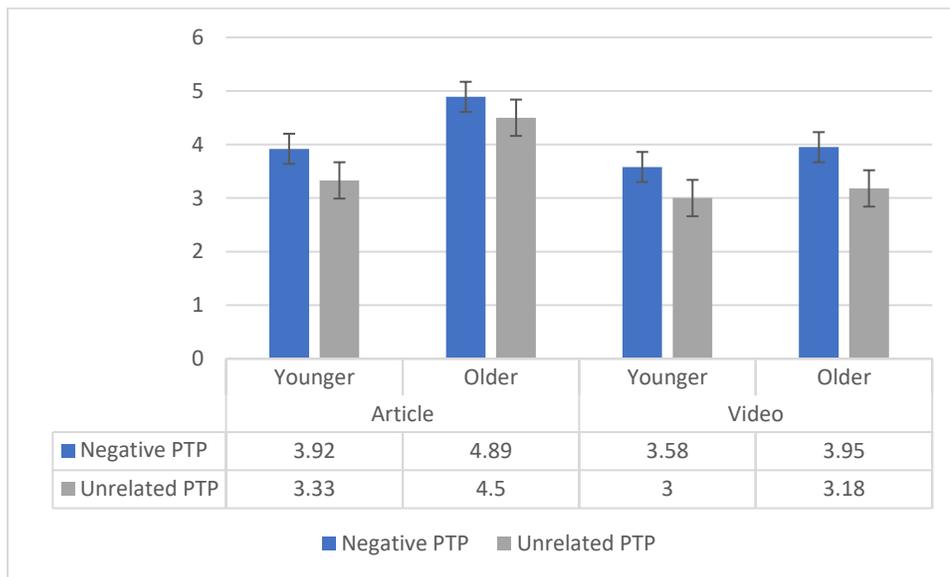


Figure 3 Mean Emotional Reaction by Condition

Note. Error bars show standard errors.

Participants were asked to recall (type) as much information as they could remember from the PTP after being exposed. Word count for recall was compared for age condition, PTP condition and format condition. Older adults ($M=139.48$, $SE=.8.37$) recalled more than younger adults ($M=85.81$, $SE=8.78$). An independent samples t -test indicated the difference was significant, $t(135)=-4.35$, $p<.001$. Participants exposed to negative PTP ($M=136.71$, $SE=8.35$) recalled more than those exposed to unrelated PTP ($M=92.34$, $SE=8.82$). An independent samples t -test indicated the difference was significant, $t(139)=3.65$, $p<.001$. Last, participants exposed to article PTP ($M=134.76$, $SE=9.75$) recalled more than those exposed to video PTP ($M=98.41$, $SE=7.68$). An independent samples t -test indicated the difference was significant, $t(139)=2.95$, $p=.004$. These finding do not support the prediction of younger adults outperforming their older counter parts. See Figure 4.

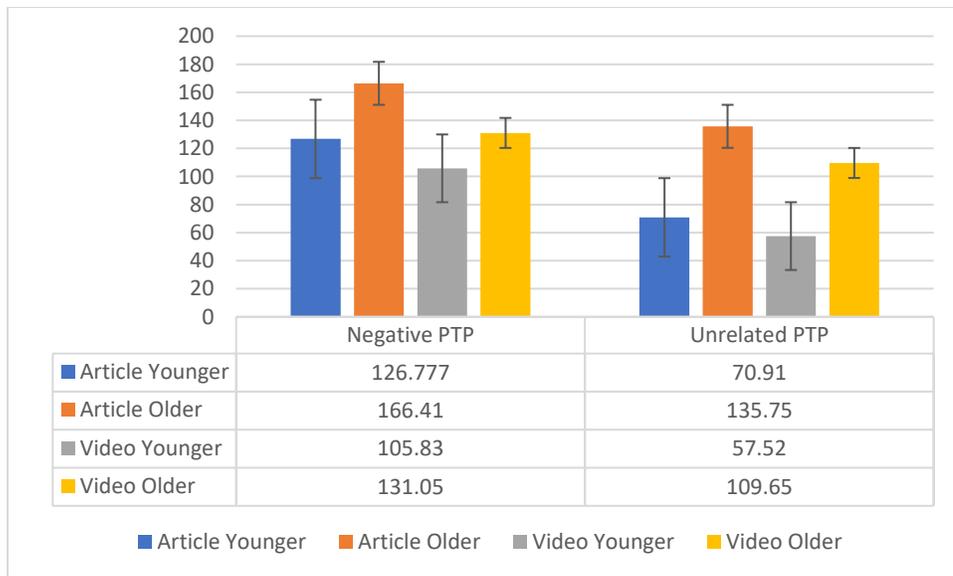


Figure 4 Mean Word Count by Condition

Note. Error bars show standard errors.

Participants in the negative PTP exposed condition were able to recall up to 20 items, while those in the unrelated PTP exposed condition were able to recall up to 15 items. After converting to proportions, an ANOVA was conducted to examine how much PTP information participants recalled based on age, PTP condition, and PTP format. There was a main effect of condition, $F(1,137) = 32.79, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .20$. Those exposed to negative PTP ($M = 7.22, SD = 3.12$) recalled more than those exposed to unrelated PTP ($M = 4.18, SD = 2.44$). There also was a significant interaction between age and format, $F(1,137) = 6.67, p = .01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .05$. Younger adults ($M = 6.20, SD = 3.50$) recalled more than older adults ($M = 6.02, SD = 2.95$) when presented the article PTP; while older adults ($M = 6.67, SD = 3.09$) recalled more than younger adults ($M = 4.09, SD = 2.86$) when presented the video PTP. These findings counter predictions of younger adults recalling more information from video PTP and older adults recalling more information from article PTP. See Figure 5.

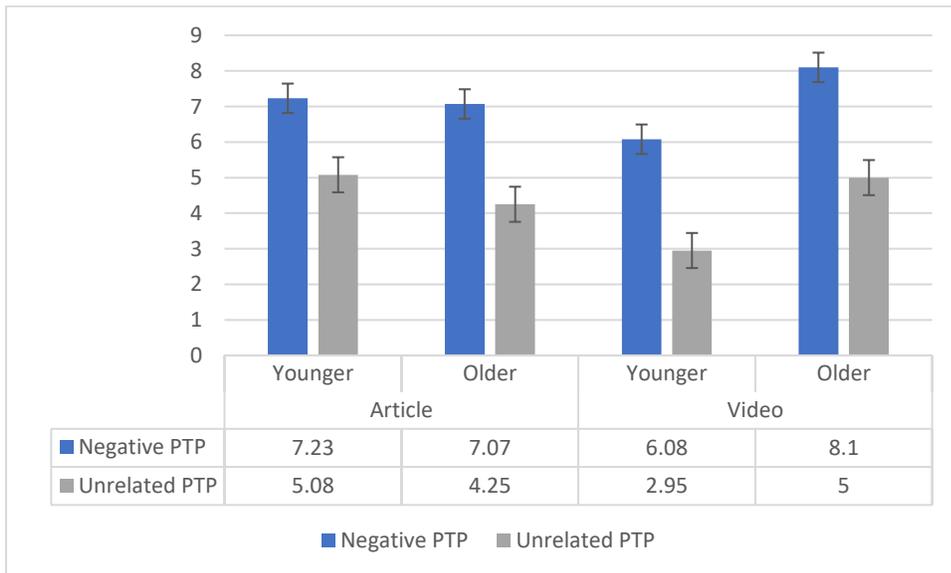


Figure 5 Mean Proportion Recall by Condition

Note. Error bars show standard errors.

Need for Affect and Need for Cognition on Verdict

A Pearson's r correlation test was conducted to see if there was a relationship between NFA and source monitoring scores for those exposed to negative PTP. There was no significant correlation between NFA and source monitoring scores, $r=.005$, $p=.96$, thus refuting hypothesis 5. Additionally, a Pearson's r correlation test was conducted to see if there was a relationship between NFC and source monitoring scores on verdict. There was a significant correlation between NFC and source monitoring scores, $r=.21$, $p=.01$. However, once put into a logistic regression, NFC and source monitoring scores did not significantly predict verdict, Wald $\chi^2=.86$, $p=.35$, odds ratio=1.00. therefore, hypothesis 6 was not supported.

Qualitative Data

Participants' qualitative analyses of responses to the open-ended question '*Please type as much information you remember from the articles (or videos) you just read (or watched),*' were conducted. A modified thematic analysis was used to identify themes and patterns in the data to create a code book (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The research team then used the code book to collaboratively analyze an overlap of 20% of participant responses to establish inter-rater reliability, and any disagreements were discussed. A Cohen's kappa coefficient of .71 was reached between the two coders, which has the benchmark of substantial, according to Landis and Koch (1977). Frequencies of each code were then calculated. This was the first questions participants responded to after being exposed to PTP, and 5 themes were identified for our codes in the negative condition and 5 in the unrelated condition.

Information about the defendant, Daniel Bias, was the most frequent recalled item for each PTP format. Approximately half of the participants in the article condition (50.6%, $n=166$)

and video condition (51.6%, $n=183$) were able to recall information about Daniel Bias. The second most frequent recalled information was relevant to the day of the crime. Almost a quarter (22.3%, $n=75$) recalled information about the day of the crime in the article condition. A fifth (20.5%, $n=72$) recalled information about the day of the crime in the video condition

The third most frequent item recalled was information about Lise Bias, the victim (10.6% in article condition, 11.6% in video condition). The next most frequent information recalled was about Lise's family victim (10.4% in article condition, 10.6% in video condition), followed by information about Daniel and Lise Bias' relationship victim (5.6% in article condition, 6.2% in video condition). See Table 5 for count distributions of the open-ended recall responses by format.

Table 5 Count Distribution of Open-Ended Responses by Format

		Negative Article (<i>n</i> =327)	Negative Video (<i>n</i> =356)
Themes	Codes		
I. Daniel Bias	1. Daniel was accused of killing his wife	50.6%	51.8%
	2. Daniel refused a polygraph		
	3. Daniel did not administer CPR		
	4. New life in New Mexico		
	5. Personality description		
	6. Daniel's story of the crime		
II. Day of the crime/death	7. Lisa went shopping for new work clothes	22.3%	20.5%
	8. Daniel was hunting/drinking		
	9. Location of Lise's body		
	10. Mention of the weapon used		
	11. Date or location of the crime		
III. Lise Bias	12. Career/promotion	10.6%	11.6%
	13. Lise was right-handed and just had elbow surgery		
IV. Lise's family	14. Lise did not like guns	10.4%	10.6%
	15. Lise had strong family support		
	16. Mother/father say Lise would never commit suicide		
	17. Lise painted a house with her father		
V. Daniel and Lise's relationship	18. Lise went shopping with her sister	5.6%	6.2%
	19. The couple argued frequently		
	20. Married for 6 years		
Total codes		327	356

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The current study sought to investigate if the format of PTP would impact the information used to make a verdict and if that differed by age. First, I was interested in the differences between older and younger adults in source memory, NFC, and NC. I hypothesized that younger participants would score higher on all three measures. There was no significant age difference for NFA but there were for source monitoring and NFC. Countering the hypothesis and the results of Ruva and Hudak (2013), older adults performed better on the source monitoring test. Older adults typically perform worse than their younger counterparts on source memory tests (Czernochowski et al., 2008; Davidson et al., 2006; Dehon & Brédart, 2004). However, this result supports previous literature in that older adults are good at filtering out negative information (Carstensen et al., 2003). Also countering the hypothesis, younger adults had lower scores on NFC. These trends do not support previous research as it has been found that NFA and NFC decrease as one ages (Maio & Esses, 2001; Bruinsma & Crutzen, 2018).

Second, I hypothesized that younger participants exposed to negative-PTP would render more guilty verdicts than younger participants exposed to unrelated PTP, but that older adults' verdicts would not differ by type of PTP. This was supported as there were no significant differences in verdict for older adults based on PTP condition, but younger adults were significantly more likely to find the defendant guilty in the negative PTP condition than the unrelated condition. Both age groups gave more guilty verdicts when exposed to negative PTP.

This trend supports the literature in that negative PTP does bias the juror and leads to more guilty verdicts (Ruva & McEvoy, 2008; Hope et al., 2004; Otto et al., 1994; Wilson & Bornstein, 1998), and the findings of Ruva and Hudak (2013), that older adults were less impacted by negative PTP than younger adults.

Third, I was interested in the differences in source monitoring abilities based on the format of the PTP presented to participants. There is no research to date that combines PTP format and examining source memory. However, Ruva and McEvoy (2008) found both positive and negative PTP exposed participants had difficulty in source memory and younger, negative PTP exposed jurors were more likely to render a guilty verdict. Also, Ogloff and Vidmar (1994) found video presented PTP had a greater influence when compared to article. Thus, I hypothesized that younger adults exposed to video would score lower on the source monitoring test than those exposed to the article PTP. Additionally, I expected that younger adults exposed to video PTP would render more guilty verdicts than younger adults exposed to print PTP, while I believed older adults would not be influenced by PTP format. However, there were no differences in source monitoring scores when PTP was presented in different formats for older or younger adults.

Fourth, I was interested in the relationship between source monitoring scores and verdicts rendered; specifically, I hypothesized that lower scores on the source monitoring test would predict more guilty verdicts. Ruva and colleagues (2007) demonstrated that exposure to negative PTP was associated with higher errors in source memory and more guilty verdicts. Results supported the hypothesis, consistent with previous research. This could be due to misattributing more PTP information as trial information, supporting the predecisional distortion theory (Hope et al., 2004; Ruva et al., 2011).

Fifth, I was interested in the relationship between NFA and source monitoring in relation to verdicts rendered. I hypothesized that participants with higher NFA scores who were exposed to negative PTP would score lower on source monitoring test and then result in more guilty verdicts, as the literature suggests high NFA mock jurors are more likely to recall negative information when making a verdict (Griffin & Patty, 2010). Countering the hypothesis, results indicated no relationship between NFA, source monitoring scores, and verdict rendered. This suggests the way in which a potential juror approaches emotion-inducing information does not predict what information would later be recalled when rendering a verdict.

Last, I was interested in the relationship between NFC, source monitoring, and verdicts rendered. I hypothesized that those who had higher NFC scores would score higher on the source monitoring test, resulting in fewer guilty verdicts. Ruva and Hudak (2013) did not find NFC to be useful in explaining age differences in verdict; however Ruva (2016) found that those high in NFC were less likely to render a guilty verdict than their low-NFC counterparts. There was a relationship between NFC and source monitoring scores in this study, but NFC did not drive the relationship between source monitoring and verdict. These findings suggest that how motivated a juror is to process information (PTP or trial information) may not predict the verdict rendered.

Limitations

The largest implication of the current study is that participants were acting as mock jurors online rather than in real-life. Participants were asked to act as a real juror in a trial, but it is unsure how much participants “bought into” the scenario and focused on the trial video. The younger participants, in particular, did not perform as well as expected. Compared to the older participants, younger participants did not recall as much of the PTP information, rated their

emotional reactions lower, were not as motivated to return to complete the trial phase of the study, and did not perform as well on the source-monitoring tasks. Perhaps the online environment failed to engage participants to put forth their full effort, which might account for findings that differed from Ruva and Hudak (2013).

Additionally, in real trials, jurors have time to deliberate amongst other jurors. Ruva and Coy (2020) found that after deliberations, PTP exposed and no-PTP exposed participants had no differences in verdict; those in the two conditions were able to share information that was biased from PTP. Participants in this study were unable to deliberate before rendering a verdict, which might have allowed some jurors who had been influenced by PTP to be “corrected” by fellow jurors who were not. Therefore, with no deliberation, the ecological validity of the study is limited, and results may not be generalizable to actual trials.

Another limitation in the study is the makeup of the participant sample. The majority of the participants were white (74.6%) and females (63.4%). Therefore, males and different racial identities were not appropriately represented in this study. However, there were no gender or racial differences observed for any measures within this sample. Previous studies of PTP have also been similarly unrepresentative (Ruva & Hudak, 2013). In most previous studies that examine PTP, the samples consisted entirely of college students (Ruva et al., 2007; Ruva & Coy, 2020). However, half of the participants (50%) in this study had the equivalent or higher than a bachelor’s degree. Although these differences in educational attainment could limit comparisons to previous research, greater diversity allows better generalization to the jury pool. Finally, the sample sizes across all conditions (age, PTP condition and PTP format) were unequal, which may have contributed to the findings.

Though this study did incorporate different presentations of PTP, the videos were created to be parallel to the articles, while real world social media videos may be more interesting and emotion inducing. Furthermore, all participants in each condition were exposed to the PTP materials in the same order, which is not how real jurors would be exposed to PTP. Thus, caution should be taken when interpreting the emotional reaction, which was made following the final story or video in the series. Moreover, exposure to PTP is likely to happen more than once in a real-life case, and participants in this study were only exposed once, one week before the trial itself.

Implications

The results from this study counter previous findings in relation to older and younger adults as jurors. Previous research highlights that younger adults are typically able to outperform their older counterparts in source memory tests (Czernochowski et al., 2008; Davidson et al., 2006). However, older adults in this study were able to outperform their younger counterparts in all conditions. Moreover, when examining effects of source memory and verdicts rendered, younger adults who were exposed to negative PTP and rendered a guilty verdict performed worse on the source monitoring test than older adults that were exposed to negative PTP and rendered a guilty verdict.

The findings support previous literature in relation to verdicts rendered. Ruva and Hudak (2013) found that only younger negative-PTP exposed jurors were more likely render a guilty verdict. Younger adults in this sample were more likely to render a guilty verdict when exposed to negative PTP, yet older adults were more likely to render a guilty verdict when exposed to unrelated PTP. Adding to the literature, younger adults were more likely to render a guilty verdict

when exposed to article PTP compared to their video exposed PTP counterparts, though only in the negative condition. The same trend was observed for the older adults as well, however, this trend did not reach significance for the older adults. This could be due to more information being presented in the article condition. Therefore, the format in which PTP is presented can have an impact on the verdict a juror makes and what information they are considering in the process.

Overall, younger adults in this study were especially susceptible to negative PTP and made more source monitoring errors than their older counterparts, even though older adults recalled more of the PTP and rated it as more emotional. These results suggest that PTP exposure can cause source memory errors in younger and older adults, regardless of the form in which the PTP was presented. Importantly, if jurors are instructed to ignore PTP when making a verdict decision, yet have difficulty due to source memory errors, then the defendant is unable to receive a fair trial.

Future Directions

Despite the limitations of this study, it highlights the differences between younger and older jurors and what information they may use when rendering a verdict. Future studies should seek to investigate how these results translate into a real-life mock juror situation, as done by Ruva and Hudak (2013). Research on PTP and verdicts should prioritize recruiting a large and equal sample of younger and older participants in efforts to reach sufficient power. Future research can further investigate the capability of older and younger jurors rendering a verdict based solely on trial evidence and ignoring prior information. Also, older jurors are typically viewed as less capable, while findings here suggest older adults may actually make better jury members. Therefore, future studies should include younger, middle-aged and older adults to

examine the developmental trajectory of memory and emotional reactions to PTP and source memory skills and how those impact verdicts. Data collection is still on-going for younger and older adults for the present study, however barriers in recruiting participants who complete both phases of the study have surfaced.

As discussed by Ruva et al. (2007), even when jurors are instructed to render a verdict without the use of prior exposed information, it is nearly impossible. More research is needed to examine factors that affect jury members' ability to discriminate between information they received prior to trial and facts presented during the trial, such as format of PTP and jury deliberation. Future research can extend to this current study by presenting PTP in video and article format, similar to this study, while also adding in the time for a mock jury deliberation.

Previous research reveals the problems associated with negative PTP exposure on verdicts. Furthermore, it has been found that the amount of PTP that participants are exposed impacts a verdict given (Hoetger et al., 2022). This study used the same amount of PTP across all conditions, thus future studies should present PTP in different formats (video and print) and in varying amounts.

REFERENCES

- American Press Institute. (2017).
<https://www.americanpressinstitute.org/publications/reports/survey-research/print-vs-digital/>
- Bachmann, I., Kaufhold, K., Lewis, S. C., & Gil de Zúñiga, H. (2010). News platform preference: Advancing the effects of age and media consumption on political participation. *International Journal of Internet Science* 5(1), 34-47.
- Bartlett, J. C., & Fulton, A. (1991). Familiarity and recognition of faces: The factor of age. *Memory & Cognition*, 19, 229-238.
- Bayen, U. J., Murnane, K., & Erdfelder, E. (1996). Source discrimination, item detection, and multinomial models of source monitoring. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 22(1), 197-215.
doi:<http://dx.doi.org.proxy.lib.utc.edu/10.1037/0278-7393.22.1.197>
- Blanchette, I., & Richards, A. (2010). The influence of affect on higher level cognition: A review of research on interpretation, judgement, decision making and reasoning. *Cognition & Emotion*, 24(4), 561-595.
- Bornstein, B. H., & Greene, E. (2011). Jury decision making: Implications for and from psychology. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 20(1), 63-67.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101. DOI: 10.1191/1478088706qp063oa
- Bruinsma, J., & Crutzen, R. (2018). A longitudinal study on the stability of the need for cognition. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 127, 151-161.

- Brown, R., & Kulik, J. (1977). Flashbulb memories. *Cognition*, 5(1), 73-99.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0277\(77\)90018-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0277(77)90018-X)
- Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's Mechanical Turk: A new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality data? *Perspectives on Psychological Science* 6(1), 3-5.
DOI: 10.1177/1745691610393980
- Bullard, S. B. (2015). Editors use social media mostly to post story links. *Newspaper Research Journal*, 36(2), 170-183.
- Cacioppo, J. T., & Petty, R. E. (1982). The need for cognition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 42(1), 116-131. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.42.1.116
- Cacioppo, J. T., Petty, R. E., Feinstein, J. A., & Jarvis, W. B. G. (1996). Dispositional differences in cognitive motivation: The life and times of individuals varying in the need for cognition. *Psychological Bulletin*, 119, 197-253.
- Cacioppo, J. T., Petty, R. E., & Feng Kao, C. (1984). The efficient assessment of need for cognition. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 48(3), 306-307.
- Carlson, K. A., & Russo, J. E. (2001). Biased interpretation of evidence by mock jurors. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied*, 7, 91–103. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/1076-898X.7.2.91>
- Carstensen, L. L., Fung, H. H., & Charles, S. T. (2003). Socioemotional selectivity theory and the regulation of emotion in the second half of life. *Motivation and Emotion*, 27(2), 103-123.
- Cramer, R. J., Kehn, A., Pennington, C. R., Wechsler, H. J., Clark III, J. W., & Nagle, J. (2013). An examination of sexual orientation-and transgender-based hate crimes in the post-Matthew Shepard era. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, 19(3), 355. DOI: 10.1037/a0031404
- Daftary-Kapur, T., Dumas, R., & Penrod, S. D. (2010). Jury decision-making biases and methods to counter them. *Legal and Criminological Psychology*, 15(1), 133-154.

- Dawtry, R. J., Callan, M. J., Harvey, A. J., & Gheorghiu, A. I. (2020). Victims, vignettes, and videos: meta-analytic and experimental evidence that emotional impact enhances the derogation of innocent victims. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 24(3), 233-259.
- Dehon, H., & Brédart, S. (2004). False memories: young and older adults think of semantic associates at the same rate, but young adults are more successful at source monitoring. *Psychology and Aging*, 19(1), 191-197.
- Dewhurst, S. A., & Parry, L. A. (2000) Emotionality, distinctiveness, and recollective experience. *European Journal of Cognitive Psychology*, 12(4), 541-551, DOI: 10.1080/095414400750050222
- Dexter, H. R., Cutler, B. L., & Moran, G. (1992). A test of voir dire as a remedy for the prejudicial effects of pretrial publicity. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 22, 819–832.
- Dixon, T. L., & Linz, D. (2002). Television news, prejudicial pretrial publicity, and the depiction of race. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, 46(1), 112-136.
- Dodson, C. S., & Schacter, D. L. (2002). Aging and strategic retrieval processes: Reducing false memories with a distinctiveness heuristic. *Psychology & Aging*, 17, 405-415.
- Garfield Tenzer, L. Y. (2019). Social Media, Venue, and the Right to a Fair Trial. *Baylor L. Rev.*, 71, 421.
- Greene, E. & Loftus, E. F. (1984). What's new in the news? The impact of well publicized news events of psychological research and courtroom trials. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 5(21), 1-221
- Greene, E., & Wade, R. (1988). Of private talk and public print: General pre-trial publicity and juror decision-making. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 2(2), 123-135.
- Griffin, D. A., & Patty, E. (2010). Emotions in the courtroom: Need for affect in juror decision-making. *Jury Expert*, 22, 61-67.

- Hepburn, J. R. (1980). The objective reality of evidence and the utility of systematic jury selection. *Law and Human Behavior*, 4, 89-101.
- Hoetger, L. A., Devine, D. J., Brank, E. M., Drew, R. M., & Rees, R. (2022). The impact of pretrial publicity on mock juror and jury verdicts: A meta-analysis. *Law and Human Behavior*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/lhb0000473>
- Hope, L., Memon, A., & McGeorge, P. (2004). Understanding pretrial publicity: Predecisional distortion of evidence by mock jurors. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied*, 10(2), 111-119.
- Kisley, M.A., Wood, S., & Burrows, C.L. (2007). Looking at the sunny side of life: Age-related change in an event-related potential measure of the negativity bias. *Psychological Science*, 18, 838-843. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9280.2007.01988.x
- Kline, F. G., & Jess, P. H. (1966). Prejudicial publicity: Its effect on law school mock juries. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 43, 113–116.
- Kramer, G. P., & Kerr, N. L. (1989). Laboratory simulation and bias in the study of juror behavior. *Law and Human Behavior*, 13, 89-99.
- Kramer, G. P., Kerr, N. L., & Carroll, J. S. (1990). Pretrial publicity, judicial remedies, and jury bias. *Law and Human Behavior*, 14(5), 409–438
- Landis, J. R., & Koch, G. G. (1977). The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics*, 33(1), 159-174.
- Leippe, M. R., Eisenstadt, D., Rauch, S. M., & Seib, H. M. (2004). Timing of eyewitness expert testimony, jurors' need for cognition, and case strength as determinants of trial verdicts. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(3), 524-541.
doi:<http://dx.doi.org.proxy.lib.utc.edu/10.1037/0021-9010.89.3.524>
- Lindsay, D. S., & Johnson, M. K. (1987). Reality monitoring and suggestibility: Children's ability to discriminate among memories from different sources. In *Children's eyewitness memory* (pp. 92-121). Springer.

- Litman, L., Robinson, J., & Abberbock, T. (2017). TurkPrime.com: A versatile crowdsourcing data acquisition platform for the behavioral sciences. *Behavior Research Methods*, *49*(2), 433-442. <https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.3758/s13428-016-0727-z>
- Maio, G. R., & Esses, V. M. (2001). The need for affect: Individual differences in the motivation to approach and avoid emotions. *Journal of Personality*, *69*, 583–614.
- Mather, M., Canli, T., English, T., Whitfield, S., Wais, P., Ochsner, K., Gabrieli, J. D.E., & Carstensen, L. L. (2004). Amygdala responses to emotionally valenced stimuli in older and younger adults. *Psychological Science*, *15*(4), 259-263.
- Mather, M., Shafir, E., & Johnson, M. K. (2000). Misrememberance of options past: Source monitoring and choice. *Psychological Science*, *11*, 132–138.
- McAuliff, B. D., & Kovera, M. B. (2008). Juror need for cognition and sensitivity to methodological flaws in expert evidence. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *38*, 385–408. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2007.00310.x
- Memon, A., & Bartlett, J. C. (2002). The effects of verbalisation on face recognition in young and older adults. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, *16*, 635-650.
- Memon, A., Bartlett, J., Rose, R., & Gray, C. (2003). The aging eyewitness: Effects of age on face, delay, and source-memory ability. *The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences*, *58*(6), 338-345. <https://doi.org/10.1093/geronb/58.6.P338>
- Memon, A., Hope, L., Bartlett, J., & Bull, R. (2002). Eyewitness recognition errors: The effects of mugshot viewing and choosing in young and old adults. *Memory & cognition*, *30*(8), 1219-1227.
- Minnesota Judicial Branch. (2021). Hennepin County Special Juror Questionnaire. Retrieved from <https://int.nyt.com/data/documenttools/george-floyd-derek-chauvin-jury-questions/4c54ccb3edf65018/full.pdf>
- Moran, R. (2019). Casey Anthony and the Social Media Trial. *Women Leading Change: Case Studies on Women, Gender, and Feminism*, *4*(1), 44-60.

- Ogloff, J. R., & Vidmar, N. (1994). The impact of pretrial publicity on jurors. *Law and Human Behavior, 18*(5), 507-525.
- Otto, A. L., Penrod, S. D., & Dexter, H. R. (1994). The biasing impact of pretrial publicity on juror judgments. *Law and Human Behavior, 18*(4), 453-469.
- Pennington, N., & Hastie, R. (1988). Explanation-based decision making: Effects of memory structure on judgment. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 14*, 521–533. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0278-7393.14.3.521>
- Pennington, N., & Hastie, R. (1993). The story model for juror decision making. In R. Hastie (Ed.), *Inside the juror: The psychology of juror decision-making* (pp. 192–221). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511752896.010>
- Rantzen, A., & Markham, R. (1992). The reversed eyewitness testimony design: More evidence for source monitoring. *The Journal of General Psychology, 119*(1), 37-43.
- Rothman, M. B., Dunlop, B. D., & Hirt, G. M. (2000). Jury selection in an aging America: The new discrimination. *Elder's Advisor, 2*, 69.
- Ruva, C., McEvoy, C., & Bryant, J. B. (2007). Effects of pre-trial publicity and jury deliberation on juror bias and source memory errors. *Applied Cognitive Psychology, 21*(1), 45-67.
- Ruva, C. L. (2016). The impact of pretrial publicity and need for cognition on mock-jurors' decisions and deliberation behavior. *International Journal of Psychology and Behavioral Sciences, 6*(1), 20-31. DOI: 10.5923/j.ijpbs.20160601.04
- Ruva, C. L., & Coy, A. E. (2020). Your bias is rubbing off on me: The impact of pretrial publicity and jury type on guilt decisions, trial evidence interpretation, and impression formation. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law, 26*(1), 22-35.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/law0000220>
- Ruva, C. L., & Guenther, C. C. (2015). From the shadows into the light: How pretrial publicity and deliberation affect mock jurors' decisions, impressions, and memory. *Law and Human Behavior, 39*(3), 294-310.

- Ruva, C. L., Guenther, C. C., & Yarbrough, A. (2011). Positive and negative pretrial publicity: The roles of impression formation, emotion, and predecisional distortion. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 38(5), 511-534.
- Ruva, C. L., & Hudak, E. M. (2013). Pretrial publicity and juror age affect mock-juror decision making. *Psychology, Crime & Law*, 19(2), 179-202.
- Ruva, C. L., & LeVasseur, M. (2012). Behind closed doors: The effect of pretrial publicity on jury deliberations. *Psychology, Crime & Law*, 18, 431-452.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1068316X.2010.502120>
- Salerno, J. M., & Bottoms, B. L. (2009). Emotional evidence and jurors' judgments: The promise of neuroscience for informing psychology and law. *Behavioral Sciences & The Law*, 27(2), 273-296. DOI: 10.1002/bsl.861
- Salerno, J. M., & McCauley, M. R. (2009). Mock jurors' judgments about opposing scientific experts: Do cross-examination, deliberation and need for cognition matter? *American Journal of Forensic Psychology*, 27, 37-60.
- Searcy, J., Bartlett, J. C., & Memon, A. (1999). Age differences in accuracy and choosing in eyewitness identification and face recognition. *Memory & Cognition*, 27, 538-552.
- Stebly, N. M., Besirevic, J., Fulero, S. M., & Jimenez-Lorente, B. (1999). The effects of pretrial publicity on juror verdicts: A meta-analytic review. *Law and Human Behavior*, 23(2), 219-235.
- Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1991). Loss aversion in riskless choice: A reference dependent model. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 107, 1039-1061.
- U.S. Const. amend. VI
- Wiecko, F. M. (2010). Research note: Assessing the validity of college samples: Are students really that different?. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 38(6), 1186-1190.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2010.09.007>

Wilson, J. R., & Bornstein, B. H. (1998). Methodological considerations in pretrial publicity research: Is the medium the message?. *Law and Human Behavior*, 22(5), 585-597.

Yadav, A., Phillips, M. M., Lundeberg, M. A., Koehler, M. J., Hilden, K., & Dirkin, K. H. (2011). If a picture is worth a thousand words is video worth a million? Differences in affective and cognitive processing of video and text cases. *Journal of Computing in Higher Education*, 23, 15-37.

APPENDIX A

IRB APPROVAL LETTER

Institutional Review Board

Dept 4915
615 McCallie Avenue
Chattanooga, TN 37403
Phone: (423) 425-5867
Fax: (423) 425-4052
instrb@utc.edu
<http://www.utc.edu/irb>

TO: Akera Williams **IRB # 21-143**
Drs. Jill Shelton, Jenny Holcombe, and Amye Warren

FROM: David Deardorff, Interim Director of Research Integrity
Dr. Susan Davidson, IRB Committee Chair

DATE: 11/5/2021

SUBJECT: IRB #21-143: Do Age and Media Type Influence the Effects of Pretrial Publicity on Verdicts?

Thank you for submitting your application for research involving human subjects to The University of Tennessee at Chattanooga Institutional Review Board. Your proposal was evaluated in light of the federal regulations that govern the protection of human subjects and approved via the expedited review procedure authorized by 45 CFR 46.110 and 21 CFR 56.110.

You must include the following approval statement on research materials seen by participants and used in research reports:

The Institutional Review Board of the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga (FWA00004149) has approved this research project # 21-143.

Please keep in mind that all research must be conducted according to the proposal submitted to the UTC IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an Application for Changes, Annual Review, or Project Termination/Completion form to the UTC IRB. Please bear in mind that significant changes could result in having to develop a new application for submission and approval. Your protocol will be automatically closed at the end of the proposed research period unless a change request application is submitted. No research may take place under a closed or expired protocol.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite our best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the UTC IRB as soon as possible. Once notified, we will ask for a complete explanation of the event and your response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event.

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval.

For additional information, please consult our web page <http://www.utc.edu/irb> or email instrb@utc.edu.

Best wishes for a successful research project.

APPENDIX B

CONSENT FORMS

Consent Form for Social Media Participants Phase 1:

We are conducting academic research, in the form of a survey, through the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga's Department of Psychology. Taking part in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time. This description will provide you with information regarding potential risks, inconveniences, or discomforts that may arise from participation in the study. You must be 18 years or older to participate in this study.

The purpose of this study is to investigate reactions to news stories about crime. If the topic makes you uncomfortable, please do not participate. The description of the crime will be very brief and will not contain overly graphic or gruesome details. This study will be done in two phases. In the first phase, you will first be asked to respond to some demographic questions, then answer questions regarding personality traits, then either read a series of articles or watch a series of video clips about the crime story, and finally respond to a recall question. Total participation time in this phase will be approximately 30 minutes. If you complete the survey appropriately, pass the attention checks, and respond appropriately to the open-ended questions, you will be compensated with a \$5.00 Amazon gift card. Note that if you return for the second phase of the study, you will receive up to an additional \$10.00 Amazon gift card (approximately one hour).

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may choose to withdraw from the study at any time. If you fail to complete at least 50% of the questions, we will consider that you have withdrawn from the study and your data will not be included. If you do choose to participate in this study, your responses will be completely confidential. We will use participant IDs rather than names, and no identifying results will be shared with anyone outside of our research team. All data will be kept on password protected computer files. The identifiers will be removed from all the responses, and the de-identified information may then be used in future research or distributed without additional informed consent.

If you have any questions or concerns, please contact Dr. Amye Warren at the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga Psychology and Law Research Lab at psychlawlab@utc.edu.

In addition, if you feel that you need to talk to anyone about any issues raised by this survey, please consult this list of free crisis counseling resources (<https://www.apa.org/topics/crisis-hotlines>).

This research has been reviewed and approved by the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga's Institutional Review Board. If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact Dr. Susan Davidson, the Chair of the Human Subjects Committee, Institutional Review Board at 423- 425-1387. Additional contact information is available at www.utc.edu/irb.

The Institutional Review Board of the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga (FWA00004149) has approved this research project # 21-143.

Please indicate if you agree or do not agree to consent to this research. By agreeing, you are indicating that you have fully read and understand the above stated information and voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

- I agree to consent to this study.
- I do not agree to consent to this study.

Consent Form for Social Media Participants Phase 2:

We are conducting academic research, in the form of a survey, through the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga's Department of Psychology. Taking part in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time. This description will provide you with information regarding potential risks, inconveniences, or discomforts that may arise from participation in the study. You must be 18 years or older to participate in this study.

The purpose of this study is to investigate reactions to stories about crime. This study deals with a murder case and may be considered disturbing to some. If the topic makes you uncomfortable, please do not participate. The description of the crime/crime scene will be very brief and will not contain overly graphic or gruesome details. In this phase of the study, you will act as a jury member and then be asked questions regarding the trial and your media habits. Total participation time will be approximately 60 minutes. If you complete the survey appropriately, pass the attention checks, and respond appropriately to the open-ended questions, you will be compensated a \$10.00 Amazon gift card for completing this phase of the study, and \$15.00 Amazon gift card if you completed both the first and second phases.

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may choose to withdraw from the study at any time. If you fail to complete at least 50% of the questions, we will consider that you have withdrawn from the study and your data will not be included. If you do choose to participate in this study, your responses will be completely confidential. We will use participant IDs rather than names, and no identifying results will be shared with anyone outside of our research team. All data will be kept on password protected computer files. The identifiers will be removed from all the responses, and the de-identified information may then be used in future research or distributed without additional informed consent.

If you have any questions or concerns, please contact and Dr. Amye Warren at the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga Psychology and Law Research Lab at psychlawlab@utc.edu.

In addition, if you feel that you need to talk to anyone about any issues raised by this survey, please consult this list of free crisis counseling resources (<https://www.apa.org/topics/crisis-hotlines>).

This research has been reviewed and approved by the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga's Institutional Review Board. If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact Dr. Susan Davidson, the Chair of the Human Subjects Committee, Institutional Review Board at 423- 425-1387. Additional contact information is available at www.utc.edu/irb.

The Institutional Review Board of the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga (FWA00004149) has approved this research project # 21-143.

Please indicate if you agree or do not agree to consent to this research. By agreeing, you are indicating that you have fully read and understand the above stated information and voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

I agree to consent to this study.

I do not agree to consent to this study.

Consent Form for Amazon Mechanical Turk Participants Phase 1:

We are conducting academic research, in the form of a survey, through the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga's Department of Psychology. Taking part in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time. This description will provide you with information regarding potential risks, inconveniences, or discomforts that may arise from participation in the study. You must be 18 years or older to participate in this study.

The purpose of this study is to investigate reactions to news stories about crime. If the topic makes you uncomfortable, please do not participate. The description of the crime will be very brief and will not contain overly graphic or gruesome details. This study will be done in two phases. In the first phase, you will first be asked to respond to some demographic questions, then answer questions regarding personality traits, then either read a series of articles or watch a series of video clips about the crime story, and finally respond to a recall question. Total participation time in this phase will be approximately 30 minutes. If you complete the survey appropriately, pass the attention checks, and respond appropriately to the open-ended questions, you will be compensated \$1.00. Note that if you return for the second phase of the study, you will receive up to an additional \$3.00 (approximately one hour).

If you do choose to participate in this study, your participation will be completely confidential. No report of the results will identify you individually. Please be aware that any work performed on Amazon MTurk can potentially be linked to information about you on your Amazon public profile page, depending on the settings you have for your Amazon profile. We will not be accessing any personally identifying information about you that you may have put on your Amazon public profile page. We will store your MTurk Worker ID separately from the other information you provide to us and use your Worker ID only to distribute compensation. Your MTurk Worker information will never be shared with anyone outside the research team. We will delete your MTurk ID from the data file once all compensation has been distributed.

If you have any questions or concerns, please contact Dr. Amye Warren at the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga Psychology and Law Research Lab at psychlawlab@utc.edu. Please be aware that any messages sent to us through MTurk will include your name and e-mail address, making you identifiable.

In addition, if you feel that you need to talk to anyone about any issues raised by this survey, please consult this list of free crisis counseling resources (<https://www.apa.org/topics/crisis-hotlines>).

This research has been reviewed and approved by the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga's Institutional Review Board. If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact Dr. Susan Davidson, the Chair of the Human Subjects Committee, Institutional Review Board at 423- 425-1387. Additional contact information is available at www.utc.edu/irb.

The Institutional Review Board of the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga (FWA00004149) has approved this research project # 21-143.

Please indicate if you agree or do not agree to consent to this research. By agreeing, you are indicating that you have fully read and understand the above stated information and voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

- I agree to consent to this study.
- I do not agree to consent to this study.

Consent Form for Amazon Mechanical Turk Participants Phase 2:

We are conducting academic research, in the form of a survey, through the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga's Department of Psychology. Taking part in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time. This description will provide you with information regarding potential risks, inconveniences, or discomforts that may arise from participation in the study. You must be 18 years or older to participate in this study.

The purpose of this study is to investigate reactions to stories about crime. This study deals with a murder case and may be considered disturbing to some. If the topic makes you uncomfortable, please do not participate. The description of the crime/crime scene will be very brief and will not contain overly graphic or gruesome details. In this phase of the study, you will act as a jury member and then be asked questions regarding the trial and your media habits. Total participation time will be approximately 60 minutes. If you complete the survey appropriately, pass the attention checks, and respond appropriately to the open-ended questions, you will be compensated \$3.00 for completing this phase of the study, and \$4.00 if you completed both the first and second phases.

If you do choose to participate in this study, your participation will be completely confidential. No report of the results will identify you individually. Please be aware that any work performed on Amazon MTurk can potentially be linked to information about you on your Amazon public profile page, depending on the settings you have for your Amazon profile. We will not be accessing any personally identifying information about you that you may have put on your Amazon public profile page. We will store your MTurk Worker ID separately from the other information you provide to us and use your Worker ID only to distribute compensation. Your MTurk Worker information will never be shared with anyone outside the research team. We will delete your MTurk ID from the data file once all compensation has been distributed.

If you have any questions or concerns, please contact Dr. Amye Warren at the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga Psychology and Law Research Lab at psychlawlab@utc.edu. Please be aware that any messages sent to us through MTurk will include your name and e-mail address, making you identifiable.

In addition, if you feel that you need to talk to anyone about any issues raised by this survey, please consult this list of free crisis counseling resources (<https://www.apa.org/topics/crisis-hotlines>).

This research has been reviewed and approved by the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga's Institutional Review Board. If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact Dr. Susan Davidson, the Chair of the Human Subjects Committee, Institutional Review Board at 423- 425-1387. Additional contact information is available at www.utc.edu/irb.

The Institutional Review Board of the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga (FWA00004149) has approved this research project # 21-143.

Please indicate if you agree or do not agree to consent to this research. By agreeing, you are indicating that you have fully read and understand the above stated information and voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

I agree to consent to this study.

I do not agree to consent to this study.

APPENDIX C

NEED FOR AFFECT SCALE BASED ON MAIO AND ESSES (2001)

Please read each statement and indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statement.

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Somewhat disagree
4. Neither agree nor disagree
5. Somewhat agree
6. Agree
7. Strongly agree

- (1). If I reflect on my past, I see that I tend to be afraid of feeling emotions.
- (2). I have trouble telling the people close to me that I love them.
- (3). I feel that I need to experience strong emotions regularly.
- (4). Emotions help people get along in life.
- (5). I am a very emotional person.
- (6). I think that it is important to explore my feelings.
- (7). I approach situations in which I expect to experience strong emotions.
- (8). I find strong emotions overwhelming and therefore try to avoid them.
- (9). I would prefer not to experience either the lows or highs of emotion.
- (10). I do not know how to handle my emotions, so I avoid them.
- (11). Emotions are dangerous—they tend to get me into situations that I would rather avoid.
- (12). Acting on one's emotions is always a mistake.
- (13). We should indulge our emotions.
- (14). Displays of emotions are embarrassing.
- (15). Strong emotions are generally beneficial.
- (16). People can function most effectively when they are not experiencing strong emotions.
- (17). The experience of emotions promotes human survival.
- (18). It is important for me to be in touch with my feelings.
- (19). It is important for me to know how others are feeling.
- (20). I like to dwell on my emotions.
- (21). I wish I could feel less emotion.
- (22). Avoiding emotional events helps me sleep better at night.
- (23). I am sometimes afraid of how I might act if I become too emotional.

(24). I feel like I need a good cry every now and then.

(25). I would love to be like “Mr. Spock,” who is totally logical and experiences little emotion.

(26). I like decorating my bedroom with a lot of pictures and posters of things emotionally significant to me.

APPENDIX D

NEED FOR COGNITION SCALE BASED ON CACIOPPO ET AL. (1984)

Please read each statement and indicate how much you believe the statement is characteristic of yourself.

- 1- Extremely uncharacteristic of me
- 2- Somewhat uncharacteristic of me
- 3- Uncertain
- 4- Somewhat characteristic of me
- 5- Extremely characteristic of me

1. I would prefer complex to simple problems.
2. I like to have the responsibility of handling a situation that requires a lot of thinking.
3. Thinking is not my idea of fun.
4. I would rather do something that requires little thought than something that is sure to challenge my thinking abilities.
5. I try to anticipate and avoid situations where there is likely chance I will have to think in depth about something.
6. I find satisfaction in deliberating hard and for long hours.
7. I only think as hard as I have to.
8. I prefer to think small, daily projects to long-term ones.
9. I like tasks that require little thought once I've learned them.
10. The idea of relying on thought to make my way to the top appeals to me.
11. I really enjoy a task that involves coming up with new solutions to problems.
12. Learning new ways to think doesn't excite me very much.
13. I prefer my life to be filled with puzzles that I must solve.
14. The notion of thinking abstractly is appealing to me.
15. I would prefer a task that is intellectual, difficult, and important to one that is somewhat important but does not require much thought.
16. I feel relief rather than satisfaction after completing a task that require a lot of mental effort.
17. Its enough for me that something gets the job done; I don't care how or why it works.
18. I usually end up deliberating about issues even when they do not affect me personally.

APPENDIX E

MEDIA HABIT QUESTIONS

1. How often do you read a hard copy or online version of a newspaper?

- Everyday
- Several times a week
- Once or twice a week
- Less than once a week
- Never

2. How often do you listen to local news on the radio or watch news on television?

- Everyday
- Several times a week
- Once or twice a week
- Less than once a week
- Never

3. How often do you see local news or news related updates on social media sites such as Facebook and Twitter?

- Everyday
- Several times a week
- Once or twice a week
- Less than once a week
- Never

4. What is your primary source of news?

5. What social media platforms do you use regularly, if any?

6. Select all media platforms you have access to:

- Cable
- Newspaper
- Internet
- Social Media

VITA

Akera Williams was born in Baltimore, MD to the parents April and Barry Schulze. She is the first of two children, with younger brother Quintin. She attended C. Milton Wright High School before continuing her education at Stevenson University. There she studied Psychology and minored in Criminal Justice. After completing her Bachelor of Science degree in May of 2020, she enrolled at the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga in the Research Psychology Master's Program. During her graduate career, Akera conducted research in and was Lab Manager of the Psych-Law Lab, taught undergraduate college courses (including Introduction to Psychology and Research Methods Lab), served as graduate coordinator for Research Methods Labs, and worked with several departments on campus where she contributed research and data analytical skills on grant projects. Akera will graduate with a Master of Science degree in Psychology in May 2022 before continuing her education in a doctoral program.