UNIVERSITY OF CENTRAL OKLAHOMA
Edmond, Oklahoma

Interpersonal Perceptions of American Culture

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

In partial fulfillment of requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS IN EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY

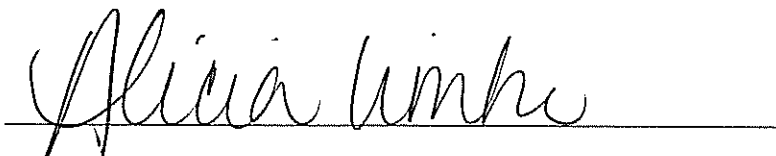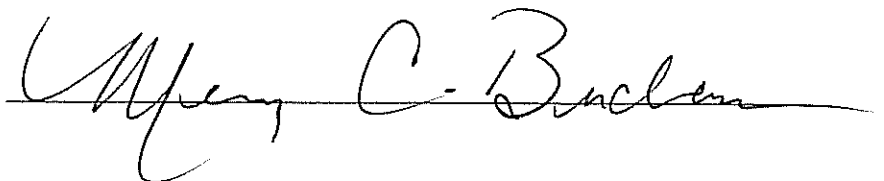By

MOLLY WARE

Edmond, Oklahoma

2008

INTERPERSONAL PERCEPTIONS OF AMERICAN CULTURE

A THESIS APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

December 5, 2008

_____

Committee Chairperson

_____

_____

Author Note

Interpersonal Perceptions of American Culture

Molly Ware

University of Central Oklahoma

Abstract

This thesis is the beginning of an exploration of intercultural relations and perception. A focus on the implications of intercultural relations in global business relations and intercultural travel stress are discussed in the literature review. A small study of international student perception of American culture was conducted. One of two counterbalanced videos was presented to each participant followed by questionnaires regarding attitude and attitude certainty, attribution, interaction, and character dimensions with Likert-type scale responses and presented first, in random order to the participants. The Interpersonal Expectancy Scale (IES), Future Events Scale (FES), and Motivation to Avoid Negative Interpersonal Bias (MANIB) scales previously used in other research (Mather, McFarlane, & Gill, 2007) were presented in random order after the questionnaires and utilized for exploratory analysis. The results imply a more positive response in the questionnaires regarding the academic video versus the familial video, in addition to significant positive correlations not previously found utilizing the scales.

Interpersonal Perceptions of American Culture

The picture outline of our lives is culture. Our language, food, clothing, and behaviors, just to name a few things, are the colors of that picture. The details of the picture are the specifics of our individual cultures. For example, Henderson (1994) notes that several cultures speak English. However, Americanized English, the English spoken in England, and the English spoken in Australia are different. For each of these there is an English language foundation, but each of these cultures provides its own shade to the color of the English language in its cultural picture.

Culture shock is used to define negative emotions such as frustration, disorientation, anger, or anxiety caused by the stress of being in an unfamiliar place (Berno & Ward, 2005). Deculturation occurs when individuals of a nondominant culture become alienated from the dominant culture and their own society (Del Pilar & Udasco, 2004). For example, one may migrate to the United States, but because they are foreign born, natural born citizens of the United States do not accept them. Then, their own cultural community may not accept them because they are perceived to not be from the right family, the right part of their home country, or the right social class of people. The caste system of India is a good example of people not being able to or not being allowed to easily transcend the societal class they were born into. Diversity is the perceived proportion of co-ethnic workers (Enchautegui-de-Jesus, Hughes, Johnston, & Oh, 2006). Culture clash arises when one or a group notices a difference in something, and then view their way as superior (Seo & Hill, 2005). Finally, acculturation is the dynamic process by which one adapts to a new or dominant culture (Levy, 2004).

Arguably, immersion into a different culture by living, eating, and engaging in local religious and community practices is the best way to learn the unique nuance of that specific culture. Anderson (1995) discusses *Master Learning*. "With mastery learning techniques, students are given as much time as they need to master early material before moving on to later material. This approach guarantees learning and makes the learning of later material easier" (p. 386). However, on a more pragmatic level, mastery learning is not feasible for most people due to time constrictions, job, family, home, as well as economic responsibilities and ties. Another matter of practicality is the expense of money and time involved for an organization to maintain any mastery program for their employees (p. 386). What this means is that a better technique of teaching one about a different culture for optimal learning in the most expedient time in the most cost efficient way is necessary for any organization including employers, or even academic institutions. The preparation of employees or students for intercultural travel is not only a commitment for the traveler, but the organization they are representing, or traveling for.

Acculturation research deals with the multiple levels of the intercultural contact experience. There is historical documentation on the integration and acculturation of different societies in regards to politics, accumulation of property, religion, and commerce. A brief summary of acculturation history from Rudmin (2003) notes the history of ancient to modern inter- and intracultural relation views and practices. Sumerian inscriptions of laws protecting traditional cultural practices from change, as well as rules or laws for doing business with foreigners are dated as far back as 2370 before the Common Era (b.c.e.). There is a Second millennium b.c.e. Egyptian law changing the separation from Nubia to the assimilation of Nubians. Rudmin (2003) also

discusses Old Testament covenant laws giving Israelites laws establishing rules of conduct concerning intercultural contact and commerce. The Roman Empire endured because of its liberal laws and treatment of conquered local cultures in which ethnicity did not imply citizenship. Plato suggested acculturation minimization policies due to possible social structure disorder and breakdown. Another example of acculturation is that Modern English is an amalgamation of Germanic, Anglo, French and Latin dialects. Finally, in the United States colonialism, and immigration of peoples from many different cultures, as well as the native people of the Americas themselves was and is a breeding ground for culture shock, deculturation, diversity, culture clash, and acculturation.

In Rudmin's (2003) brief historical overview cultural concerns are not new, nor are the issues involved in inter- and intracultural relations new. Social, political, religious, and economic issues of inter- and intracultural contact have been around for thousands of years. However, when we think of cultural issues we may only see it as affecting groups or populations. Henderson (1994) implies that during a *person's* development *they* come to understand the world through their cultural eyes. This includes but is not limited to perceived social norms, appropriate behaviors, and one's identity. All these things are within a cultural guideline (Henderson, 1994). Inter- and intracultural contact not only affects a group or population but may cause an effect in individuals.

An individual exposed to a novel situation may involve that person learning different things from that new experience. However, that person's stress coping abilities may help or hinder how they process the new information. In Shors' (2004) research regarding stress and its effects on learning it is proposed that there is no absolute answer to learning or how one handles stress:

First, it is unlikely that there are one or even two defining relationships between stress and learning. Second, they are not exclusively negative. And finally, the neuronal mechanisms that mediate these differing, and in some cases, opposite responses to stress must be remarkably plastic and broad in the capabilities (p. 143).

In a study conducted by Schwartz, Pantin, Sullivan, Prado, and Szapocznik (2006) the effects of acculturation were surveyed on Hispanic immigrants in Miami, Florida. In this study the immigrants were surveyed on their nativity, and the years in the receiving culture, or the culture into which they moved (United States). There were three primary findings of this research. First, those born in America to immigrant parents did not have significant variability (12%) to index this dimension of acculturation. Basically, they were born in America thereby acculturating from birth to the receiving culture (America) practices. Second, the relationship between years in the American culture and adoption of American-culture practices differed on the levels of gender and age of immigration. For females prior to age 21, this relationship was moderately strong with a 25% shared variance. However, for males and for females who immigrated at or after the age of 21, the relationship between years in the American culture and the adoption of American-culture practices was non-significant (less than five percent). Third, the country in which one was born was significantly related to retention of heritage-culture practices in those under the age of 21. Also, the number of years spent in America was significantly related to retention of heritage-culture practices of the caretakers. Basically, the longer a caretaker had been in America the more important their heritage-culture practices were to them.

An *individual's* self identity is related to the culture in which *they* live and/or identify with. According to Ryder, Alden, and Paulhus (2000) culture shapes our sense of self therefore being a member of a certain cultural group is an important facet of our self identity. This implies if a *person* visits or moves into a different culture other than the one *they* identify with, *they* may experience culture shock initially. Then, if they take up residence in the new culture, they may experience acculturation, or deculturation, depending on their individual living variables such as attitude, environment, age, developmental status, gender, and economic opportunities. Henderson and Milhouse (1987) support this by referring to foreign cultural "enclaves" within a dominant host culture (p. 33).

Del Pilar and Udasco (2004) discuss the problems involved in research regarding deculturation in the ecocultural framework model. They propose that the model for an "ecocultural framework" is comprised of a group level and individual level. The issues that must be considered at the group level of the model are "social, political, biological, and cultural dimensions on a nondominant group" (Del Pilar & Udasco, p. 171). However, the individual level of the model considers the same variables but "as moderating factors in a person's psychological and sociocultural adaptation" (Del Pilar & Udasco, p. 171). It is proposed that the group and individual factors take the complexities of being human into consideration for this difficult research.

The general and most common criticism of cross-cultural research in the literature is its tendency to be unable to extract data that are empirically significant. It is either too general or too complex, leading to ambiguity and insignificance. The problem of

ambiguity in cultural research is a minefield of social and political issues that is under constant scrutiny.

Tourism research addresses the acculturation issue, and business travel research addresses the stressors involved in the travel such as family, and time on road, but literature on acculturation effect in business travelers, or "road warriors," is scarce. It is generally understood in the literature that travel, be it for pleasure or business, is stressful. Travel includes is not limited to the actual physical traveling, such as riding in an airplane, bus, or car, but includes culture shock, culture clash, basically the differences between the traveler's normal environment, and the host environment. However, the effects of travel stress on learning about the culture traveled to can be positive or negative. In some comparative research, the stressor optimized the time in which an animal learned a task: "...data from a number of studies now indicate that in contrast to helplessness effects, exposure to an uncontrollable stressful event can facilitate performance ..." (Shors, 2004, p. 139). In other research the animal seemed to experience helplessness. The literature also suggests that there is a difference between how males and females handle different kinds of stress. If these studies, and others are correct, it means that each individual deals with and processes stress uniquely, which implies, for this paper, that not everyone is suited for intercultural travel. The idea that every person is not suited for intercultural dealings is also referenced by Henderson and Milhouse (1987) regarding overseas assignment.

The effects of travel on individual health can be due to change in climate, altitude, political atmosphere (such as traveling from the capitalist United States to the communist North Korea), as well as separation from one's family, anxiety about flying, driving,

riding on a train, or bus, and food differences from hamburgers to kim chee. In addition, language barriers, different social norms, religious differences, attitudes, and finally, attitudes of the host country citizens about the traveler and the traveler's home culture are also factors that may cause stress (Henderson & Milhouse, 1987). The effects that these subtle, but significant stressors may have on a traveler's health could include upset stomach, inability to sleep, anxiety, depression or a combination of all of these factors (Shors, 2004). Further, according to Shors (2004), in comparative animal research "Animals exposed to the inescapable stress expressed a number of other symptoms such as sleep and eating disturbances, ulcers, and decreases in immune status" (p. 137). This comparative research was "promoted as an animal model for depression in humans (Seligman, 1975), the rationale being that exposure to uncontrollable and stressful life events leads to a feeling of loss of control, which ultimately leads to depressive like behavior" (Shors, 2004, p. 139). Given the reviewed literature thus far, one could deduce that acculturation, culture shock, culture clash, and deculturation could happen even when only traveling domestically from one town to another.

We must also consider the idea of individualistic and collectivistic cultures (Kim & Markus, 1999). Hofstede (1997) basically states that in an individualist society one grows up in a family consisting of two parents and one or more siblings in which one learns to think as "I" (p. 50). Henderson (1994) concurs with the "I" versus "We" concepts concerning individualistic and collectivistic societies. In a collectivistic society one grows up in a home in which the two parents, aunts, uncles, grandparents, and cousins may also live. In this collectivistic home, one learns to think as "We". The cultural nuances of collectivistic and individualist societies may have an impact on how

one may view co-horts, co-workers, their interactions, as well as their hierarchical

relationships.

Organizational foresight into global commerce is imperative to its survival.

Imaginative foresight helps prepare business for the future by analyzing possibilities and

strategies to promote the health and growth of the organization. As Weick (2005) stated

"To solve the problem of imagination is to first get a better grasp on the nature of

foresight" (p. 873). The ability to strategize for global commerce takes imagination,

planning, and foresight beyond the bottom line. A point made by Ivancevich, Konopaske,

and DeFrank (2003) is that many global managers recognize the significance of face-to-

face interactions to close deals, solve problems, negotiate contracts, and develop mutual

trust and respect. However, in respect to travel budgets, some may feel as if distances can

be bridged by technology such as emails and video conferencing. Again, Ivancevich et al.

(2003) states "Although there is certainly a place for these high-tech approaches, face-to-

face meetings and personal interactions have unique, irreplaceable value []" (p. 139).

Global economics means more and more people from different cultures will be

exposed to and interacting with each other, and their cultures. Stereotyping, according to

Henderson (1994) can either be positive or negative. Regardless of positive or negative,

stereotyping influences the way in which one perceives, approaches, and deals with a

person of a different culture. Stereotyping, prejudices, ethnocentrism, cooperation, and

other cultural concepts are also addressed in Henderson and Milhouse (1987). A business

traveler is a representative or ambassador if you will, of the company that is sending them

to the different culture. With this in mind, is it not in the organization's best interest to

prepare their ambassador for the meeting? Ivancevich et al (2003) also address

organizational budget travel concerns in support of the traveler but acknowledge the bottom line issues:

> The use of traditional economic yield models reflects the fact that controlling travel and entertainment expenses is considered the top priority and, in many cases, the only focus of travel departments and executives who review budgets, travel patterns, and travel issues []. [] Also, organizational policies and practices may positively influence the experiences of business travelers. It therefore follows that managers, as formal representatives of organizations, may through knowledge and action optimize the before-, during, and after-trip performance of employees engaged in business-related travel. For managers to focus only on the economics of traveling, while excluding business traveler concerns such as physical wear and tear, family disruptions, and work overload, appears to be shortsighted, incomplete, and insensitive (p. 139).

Not preparing an employee for intercultural travel and business meetings could lead to unintentional social faux paux essentially affecting the attitudes of all present, and by their report, those involved that are not present. In Seo and Hill's (2005) article *Understanding the Human Side of Merger and Acquisition*, they note the precarious position of initial culture shock leading to culture clash.

> Acculturative stress will also be highest when organizational members' desire to maintain their separate culture is strong, and at the same time the forces of organizational integration are also strong. These stresses and tensions may lead to resistance to acculturation and serious interorganizational conflicts [] (p. 429).

Hofstede (1997) refers to a study conducted regarding employees of IBM all over the world and a Power Distance Index (PDI). Although the PDI measures a person's perception of their dominant and submissive roles in the workplace, it also covers several different factors such as social class, education, and family and addresses the differences in hierarchal perceptions between collectivistic and individualistic cultures. Also, according to Hofstede (1997) in a correlational comparison between the PDI and the Individualist Index (IDV) of the IBM data "the two dimensions are negatively correlated: large power distance countries are also likely to be more collectivist, and small power distance countries to be more individualistic" (p. 54). Essentially, a *person's* culture, be it individualistic or collectivistic, has the potential to have and affect on *their* ability to adapt to another culture, or at least be able to handle the stress of intercultural experiences.

There are several factors involved in preparing one for a new cultural experience according to Henderson (1989). These factors are verbal and non verbal communications, biases and good/bad perceptions as defined by one's culture, and the level of anxiety experienced due to the novel situation as well as the pressure of conducting a successful interaction. An executive officer of a company not being prepared for intercultural relations is just as important as an employee not being prepared for a new cultural experience. Both could have a negative effect on the future of the organization. Genest (2005) summarizes organizational futures regarding international commerce, trade, and/or communication by saying, "Organizational adaptation across cultures can only occur when global leaders, managers, and organizational members transform themselves to meet the new global reality. [] Cultural learning is a prerequisite" (p. 325).

To be able to determine an individual's ability to deal with business travel stress could provide guidelines for programs to help individuals deal with separation, integration, culture shock, culture clash, deculturation, and acculturation when going to another culture, as well as these same issues when they return to their home culture. In a non-experimental, but important article, Westman (2004) states the psychological research is mostly regarding business travel stress with culture playing a small part, then acculturation in regards to tourism, minorities, families, and students. However, research on the acculturalization (Stephenson, 2000), culture shock, culture clash or general preparedness of business travelers for the cultural experience is limited or non-existent.

The reason for the lack of research may be the difficulty in teasing out the intricacies of a culture and its nuances (Berno & Ward, 2005), but also the limited, if existent, tools to test an *individual* on *their* ability, and/or willingness to accept, and blend with a culture that *they* are unfamiliar with (Stephenson, 2000), as well as deal with the stress of traveling (Ivancevich et al., 2003), being away from their family (Ivancevich et al., 2003), not speaking the language (Rudmin, 2003), and eating different food. The stress of the possible interpersonal communication faux paux can be attributed to a person not understanding or at least being familiar with another person's culture. Henderson (1989) discusses that misunderstandings are a result of cultural differences because "...members of different cultures not only speak different languages, they also live in different worlds" (p. 125).

Research regarding intercultural business travel and the benefits of cultural learning prior to travel or meeting would be a benefit to the health of any organization in a global economy. Research to develop better educational techniques could help

organizations develop better diversity training programs for nontraveling domestic based

employees, as well as culturally specific diversity training programs for traveling

employees be they traveling domestic, or international.

Suppose that one could design an experiment, develop reliable and valid cultural

testing tools, and gather the data which produced results that would help design a method

of gathering information on employees best suited for business travel. This information

would be beneficial to organizations as an employee's ability to acculturate, or optimally

learn about a culture and apply that information effectively could make or break a

business deal, the organization, or even the employee. This type of specialized

information also has the possibility of creating not only more jobs, but a specialized

position for employees that are well equipped to cope with their own and other cultural

stressors.

In addition to application, background checks, and personality tests (Whetzel &

Wheaton, 1997), diversity (or cultural sensitivity) training and/or awareness in the

American culture is becoming a staple for employees upon hire, or as part of employment

review. Ethnic and cultural sensitivity in the workplace is also becoming a standard to

curb discrimination, confrontation, and liability suits (Konrad, Prasad, & Pringle, 2006).

However, with the ease of global communication and travel comes a global economy.

This means organizations must send employees as representatives of the organization to

make, or finalize a business deal, train local people in an organization branch, manage or

supervise, etc. However, business travel is assigned to those in the appropriate

employment position where speaking more than one language is a bonus, but not

necessary. Simply, there may be no policy or employee training put in place to better

prepare one for intercultural travel regardless of how many languages they speak (Ginsburg & Tregunno, 2005). Does an individual's employment position or ability to speak more than one language correlate with their ability to deal with business travel stressors including acceptance of the social structure of a different culture? This question leads to the last, and ultimately the first question, "How prepared are employees to experience a different culture?"

Since the scope of this thesis is limited, it is not feasible to examine business travelers pre-trip, during trip, and post trip. However, examination of international (not born in the United States) students and their perceptions of the American culture in two different social scenarios is feasible. Per the *Statistics & Demographics* (Office of Institutional Research, 2008) there are 75 countries represented at the University of Central Oklahoma.

First, it is predicted that participant attitude and attitude certainty, and observations about attribution, interaction, and character dimensions of an academic social situation will be more positive than those of a familial social situation. Second, a comparison of perceptions regarding both social situations will differ depending on the students score on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). Third, an analysis of perceptions of both social scenarios will be compared with the country of nativity. Fourth, the Interpersonal Expectancy Scale (IES; Mather, Casa de Calvo, & Reich, 2005), the Future Events Scale (FES; Andersen, 1990), and Motivation to Avoid Negative Interpersonal Bias (MANIB) scale (Casa de Calvo, Reich, Naylor, & Mather, 2008) will be included for exploratory purposes. It is additionally predicted that the IES (Mather et al., 2007) and FES (Andersen, 1990) will relate to ratings of individual expectancy in

positive way. The MANIB (Casa de Calvo et al., 2008) as well as the IES, and FES, is included for exploratory purposes. These were chosen for their successful use in other, similar types of research (Casa de Calvo et al., 2008; Gill & Mather, 2008; Mather et al., 2005). Consistent with Mather et al. (2007), it is predicted that as interpersonal expectancies (IES) and optimism (FES) both increase, individual attitudes towards the target persons in the video will also increase and that as the interpersonal expectancies of the participants increase, the attitudes towards the interaction will also increase for both videos. Fifth and finally, the demographic data collected will be utilized for comparison with other previously described data analysis.

Method

Participants

A convenience sample of students from the University of Central Oklahoma (UCO) were utilized as participants. Each participant had to be of at least 18 years of age, a student of the UCO, and registered in the SONA system. Participants must have been an international (not born in the U.S.) student and their first language not be Americanized English. Participants are required to complete three credits equivalent to one hour each as a requirement for their introductory Psychology course. There were alternative assignments including, but not limited to a three page paper. For this experiment, Participants were awarded one credit.

Materials

MediaLab experimental software program in the Psychology lab at the University of Central Oklahoma is used to present all surveys, videos and questionnaires to participants. The demographic surveys collected information including, but not limited to

age, ethnicity, sex, education, degree of education, date of birth, travel experience, and language information (Appendix A).

One of two video examples of American culture will be presented to each participant prior to the questionnaires regarding perception of the social situation in the particular video each participant viewed, as well as the IES (Mather et al., 2005), FES (Andersen, 1990) and the MANIB (Casa de Calvo et al., 2008). Mather et al. (2005) developed the Interpersonal Expectancy Scale (IES) to "measure general expectancies about other people's interpersonal behaviors, intentions, characteristics, capabilities, and outcomes." The Future Events Scale (FES) is a measure of generalized future event expectancies to examine the probabilities that people estimate for events (Andersen, 1990). The Motivation to Avoid Negative Bias (MANIB) is the examination of the interpersonal process of whether or not people vary in their general motivation to avoid negative bias in their social judgements and behavior (Casa de Calvo et al., 2008).

One video is of an academic setting in which a professor is lecturing to a class (Mather et al., 2007). This professor in this video is of middle age and White. He is lecturing to a class of more than 30 people of varying age in a small, stadium-type of seating class room. The professor is also engaged by one male student in an exchange about what the professor is lecturing. This academic social setting video has been utilized in other social psychology research on impression formation (Mather et al., 2007). The other video is a familial social setting clip from the movie *Little Miss Sunshine* (Turtletaub et al., 2006). This movie was nominated for four Academy Awards, and won two. It was chosen because of these nominations and awards in addition to its popularity with the American public. One of those awards was for Best Writing, Original

Screenplay. This scene is of a white, middle class family having lunch in a diner. The family members present are a mother, father, teenage son, adolescent daughter, uncle, and grandfather. During the scene a financial limitation is set for what each can order for lunch and the daughter decides on a type of pie a' la mode. After this the father implies that ice cream makes one fat and his daughter should think about this. The rest of the family seems to be bothered by this through their verbal and non-verbal social exchange, then influence on the main character by the whole family begins. The dynamic between the father and daughter, as well as how the rest of the family nonverbally counter what the father says is a good example of familial pressure and social interaction which is supported by the movies popularity with the American public. Both clips are no more than four and one-half minutes long.

The same questionnaires were randomly presented after each video. The dependent variable questions are regarding one's attitude and attitude certainty, observations about attribution, character interaction, and character dimensions of people in the videos (Appendix B). Also a manipulation check was presented to see how closely the participant paid attention to the video (Appendix B). These questionnaires and manipulation check have been modified from previous research done by Mather et al. (2007). Finally, the IES (Mather et al., 2005; seeAppendix D), FES (Andersen, 1990; see Appendix C), and MANIB (Casa de Calvo et al., 2008; see Appendix E) were presented for exploratory purposes to determine if the videos had an effect on the consistency of participant ideals.

Design

The design of the experiment for this thesis proposal is a one-way between-subject multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). The independent variable is the video presentation. The two videos are counterbalanced. The dependent variables are the measure of participant answers on the post video questionnaires regarding the participant attitude and attitude certainty about the video characters, the participant attributions to the video characters, the participant perception of video character interaction, and participant opinion regarding character personality and/or behavior dimensions (Appendix B).

The MANOVA was chosen to compare the two video conditions of the independent variable against the post-video questionnaires dependent variables to see if there was a difference between the observations of the two videos. The FES (Andersen, 1990), IES (Mather et al., 2005), and the MANIB (Casa de Calvo et al., 2008) scales were used for explorative corollary analysis with the dependent variable data.

Procedure

The participants registered for the experiment participation times through the University of Central Oklahoma SONA system. At their arrival, the participants were given two copies of the informed consent (Appendix F). One informed consent form was for their signature to return to the researcher, and one was for the participant to keep for their referral and record. Prior to the arrival of participants a researcher assigned a participant number and, careful to keep the videos counterbalanced, one of the two conditions in Media Lab software program. The participants were then assigned to a computer in a cubicle to begin the experiment task. The demographic survey was presented first. Then one of the two videos was presented. After the video had been viewed by the participant, the attitude, attitude certainty, attitude toward the interaction,

and character dimension questionnaires were presented. Finally, the IES (Mather et al.,

2007), FES (Andersen, 1990), MANIB (Casa de Calvo et al., 2008) scales and

manipulation check questions were presented. The data was collected via the MediaLab

software in the university psychology department computer lab in an Excel spread sheet.

Then the data was transferred to SPSS for statistical analysis and interpretation.

<div align="center">Results</div>

Of the 34 participants, the data for two were excluded from the analysis because

they did not meet the participant requirements. The two participants were excluded

because their country of nativity was the United States. Males ($n = 13$) and females ($n =$

19) were included in this task. Also, twelve countries are represented in this experiment

(see Table 1).

A one-way between-subjects MANOVA was conducted with video presentation

as the independent variable. The dependent variables were measures of participant

answers on the post video questionnaires regarding the participant attitude and attitude

certainty about the video characters, the participant attributions to the video characters,

the participant perception of the video character interaction, and participant opinion

regarding character personality and/or behavior dimensions. All tests were evaluated at p

$= .05$.

Levene's test of Equality of Error Variance indicated that the data did not meet

the assumption of homogeneity of variance. As recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell

(2007), Pillai's Trace was evaluated with a value of .65, $F(18, 13) = 1.36, p = .29$, eta

square $= .65$, observed power $= .48$. Only the significant effects will be reported as most

effects were non-significant.

Attitude and Attitude Certainty Measures

There were significant differences in participant responses to the following question: "To what extent do you like or dislike the interaction between the main character and the other people?" Participants who saw the academic video rated the interaction in their video more positively ($M = 5.39$, $SD = 1.34$) than did participants who saw the *Little Miss Sunshine* video ($M = 4.00$, $SD = 2.08$), $F(1, 30) = 5.28$, $p = .03$, eta-squared = .15, observed power = .60.

Attribution Measures

There were significant differences in participant responses to the following question: "How successful was the main character at keeping the others attention?" Participants who saw the academic video rated the success of the main character in keeping the others attention more positively ($M = 5.89$, $SD = 1.13$) than did participants who saw the *Little Miss Sunshine* video ($M = 4.71$, $SD = 1.68$), $F(1, 30) = 5.56$, $p = .03$, eta-squared = .16, observed power = .63.

There were significant differences in participant responses to the following question: "How good are the main character's interpersonal skills?" Participants who saw the academic video rated the interpersonal skills of the main character in their video more positively ($M = 5.22$, $SD = .81$) than did the participants who saw the *Little Miss Sunshine* video ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 1.35$), $F(1, 30) = 12.64$, $p = .001$, eta-squared = .30, observed power = .93.

There were significant differences in participant responses to the following question: "How well did the main character connect with the others?" Participants who saw the academic video rated connection of the main character in their video more

positively (*M* = 5.17, *SD* = 1.10) than participants that saw the *Little Miss Sunshine* video (*M* = 4.00, *SD* = 1.57), $F(1, 30) = 6.13$, $p = .02$, eta-squared = .17, observed power = .67.

There were significant differences in participant responses to the following question: "How engaging would this character be for other topics?" Participants who saw the academic video rated the engaging nature of the character in the video for other topics more positively (*M* = 5.00, *SD* = 1.28) than those that saw the *Little Miss Sunshine* video (*M* = 3.71, *SD* = 1.54), $F(1, 30) = 6.64$, $p = .02$, eta-squared = .18, observed power = .70.

There were significant differences in participant responses to the following question: "How smoothly did the interaction go?" Participants who saw the academic video rated the smoothness of the interaction in their video more positively (*M* = 5.22, *SD* = .88) than the participants who saw the *Little Miss Sunshine* video (*M* = 3.71, *SD* = 1.98), $F(1, 30) = 8.40$, $p = .01$, eta-squared = .22, observed power = .80.

Interaction and Dimension Measure

A positive index was created consisting of the average score of positive perception of interaction items. Participants who saw the academic video rated the positive interaction aspects in their video more positively (*M* = 5.12, *SD* = .62) than did participants who saw the Little Miss Sunshine video (*M* = 4.28, *SD* = 1.35), $F(1, 30) = 5.52$, $p = .03$, eta-squared = .1, observed power = .62.

A negative index was created consisting of the average score of negative perception of interaction items. Results of this index were non-significant.

A positive index was created consisting of the average score of perceived positive dimension behaviors. Participants who saw the academic video rated the perceived positive dimension in their video more positively (*M* = 5.20, *SD* = .81) than those who

saw the Little Miss Sunshine video ($M = 4.14$, $SD = 1.11$), $F(1, 30) = 9.74$, $p = .004$, eta-squared = .25, observed power = .86.

A negative index was created consisting of the average score of negative perceived positive dimension behaviors. Results of this index were non-significant.

Intercorrelations

Total scores were calculated for the FES, IES, and MANIB scales. The Interpersonal Expectancy Scale (IES) ($M = 81.81$, $SD = 11.83$), the Future Events Scale (FES) ($M = 46.13$, $SD = 33.03$), and Motivation to Avoid Negative Interpersonal Bias Scale (MANIB) ($M = 5.50$, $SD = .71$) scales were included for exploratory purposes.

A one-way between-subjects MANOVA was conducted with video presentation as the independent variable. The dependent variables were MANIB, IES, and FES. All tests were evaluated at $p = .05$. This MANOVA was utilized to demonstrate that the video presentation did not influence scores on the scales, since the scales were administered after the videos and questions. Levene's test of Equality of Error Variance indicated that the data did not meet the assumption of homogeneity of variance. As recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), Pillai's Trace was evaluated with a value of .04, $F(3, 28) = .39$, $p = .76$, partial eta square = .04, observed power = .12. The videos did not influence scores on the MANIB, $F(1, 30) = .01$, $p = .92$ partial eta-squared = .00, observed power =.05; the IES, $F(1, 30) = .38$, $p = .54$, eta-squared = .01, observed power = .09; or the FES, $F(1, 30) = .87$, $p = .36$, eta-squared = .03, observed power = .15. At alpha = .05 the results were non-significant and indicated that the videos had no effect on the individual difference measures of the MANIB, IES, or FES.

The FES positively correlated with the MANIB, $r(30) = .43$, $p = .01$ unlike the results found by Gill and Mather (2008) and Mather et al. (2007). The FES positively correlated with the attribution question: "How successful was the main character at keeping the others attention?" $r(30) = .39$, $p = .03$. Finally, the FES negatively correlated with the negative perception of interaction index, $r(30) = -.41$, $p = .02$.

Discussion

The design of the experiment for this thesis proposal was a one-way between-subjects Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) with the independent variable of counter-balanced video condition and its effects on the dependent variables (see Appendix B) of post video questionnaires regarding the participant attitude and attitude certainty about the video characters, the participant attributions to the video characters, the participant perception of video character interaction, and participant opinion regarding character personality and/or behavior dimensions. Additionally, for exploratory purposes, the FES (Andersen, 1990), IES (Mather et al., 2005), and the MANIB (Casa de Calvo et al., 2008) scales were used. Participants consisted of a convenience sample from the University of Central Oklahoma (UCO) introductory psychology course pool who were at least 18 years of age, not natural born citizens of the United States, and whose first language was not Americanized English. The participants were then assigned to a computer to begin the task by answering a demographic survey. Then one of the two video conditions was presented after which the dependent variable questionnaires were randomly presented, followed by the IES, FES, and MANIB scales that were also randomly presented.

Several proposed analyses were not performed due to the lack of participants. Only 18 of the 75 countries were represented. The countries represented were mainly from the Eastern hemisphere, and most only had one representative (see Table 1). Therefore, the proposed comparison of perceptions regarding both social situations against the TOEFL, the country of nativity, and other demographic data collected that was to be utilized for comparison with the other data analysis was not performed.

It was predicted that participant attitude and attitude certainty, and observations about attribution, interaction, and character dimensions of an academic social situation would be more positive than those of a familial social situation. According to the results, this prediction was supported by some of the measures. In the Attitude and Attitude Certainty questionnaire (see Appendix B) the only question with significant results ($p =$ .03) was: "To what extent do you like or dislike the interaction between the main character and the other people?" This question focused on the interaction between the main character and the other characters unlike the other questions in this section which focused on the characters themselves. This may imply a cultural difference between an individualistic and collectivistic culture. As previously stated, in an individualistic culture one learns to think as "I" and in a collectivistic culture one learns to think as "We". The cultural difference between the nuances of collectivistic and individualist societies may have an impact on how one may view co-horts, co-workers, their interactions, as well as their hierarchical relationships. This means there may be more of a focus on the interactions and relationships between people in a collectivistic society. For example, a person from a collectivistic culture may have more respect for the hierarchical

relationship between the student and teacher more so than a person from an individualistic society.

In the Attribution questionnaire several questions had significant results. There was a difference on the question: "To what extent do you like or dislike the interaction between the main character and the other people?" In addition to the collectivistic and individualistic cultural differences previously stated, the implication may be that the professor is seen as a direct authority figure and interaction in the classroom when engaged is imperative. However, interactions between members of a family other than your own may have been specific to a family culture that is different from the participant's and not elicit an interaction response.

There was a difference on the question: "How good are the main character's interpersonal skills?" The more positive responses to the academic setting may imply that a person is more open for interpersonal relations in a classroom setting, but when observing another person's family may make you less likely to be open to interaction with them, as well as misjudging the interpersonal skills due to differences in personal cultures including, but not limited to familial, and native culture.

There was a difference on the next question: "How well did the main character connect with the others?" The more positive response to the academic video may imply that, since the job of the professor, an authority figure, is to engage and connect with students a person is more likely to judge the connection favorable than an interaction within a family other than one's own.

Finally, there was a difference on the question: "How engaging would this character be for other topics?" The more positive response to the academic video may

imply that the professor is expected to be engaging on a wide range of topics where a family, anyone's family may not be open to a wide range of topics. It may also be inappropriate in some cultures to speak of certain topics within families.

In the Interaction and Dimension questionnaire (see Appendix B), there was a difference on the question: "How smoothly did the interaction go?" There were more positive responses to the academic video than the *Little Miss Sunshine* video. It is deduced that the reason is that the academic video did not contain a confrontation but the *Little Miss Sunshine* video did.

Positive and negative indexes were created for the interaction and dimension questionnaires. Neither of the negative indexes were significant, but the positive indexes did show significant results. In the positive interaction index the academic video received more positive responses than the familial video. This may be due to the academic video did not have a confrontational situation as did the familial video. It may also be due to more of a respect for hierarchical relationships in collectivistic cultures. It is also determined that the reason for the more positive responses in the positive dimension index is that of the 18 questions 17 were positive. The Interpersonal Expectancy Scale (IES; Mather et al., 2005), the Future Events Scale (FES; Andersen, 1990), and Motivation to Avoid Negative Interpersonal Bias scale (MANIB; Casa de Calvo et al., 2008) demonstrated that the videos had no influence on the core attitudes and perceptions of the individuals viewing them. However, significant results were found in three correlations for which these scales were utilized.

The positive correlation between the FES and MANIB is unlike the results found by Gill and Mather (2008) and Mather et al. (2007). This result implies the more

optimistic people become, the more motivated they are to avoid negative interpersonal biases. It also indicates that the more pessimistic people are, the less motivated they are to avoid negative biases. The positive correlation may be due to the participants do not predict (FES) that they will experience motivation to avoid negative bias (MANIB) because, the majority of the participants seem to be from a collectivistic culture, they are more motivated to avoid negative bias due to their focus on their relationships with others not themselves. This may also be due to the fact that the scales had never been posed to international students specifically before.

There was a positive correlation between the FES and the question: "How successful was the main character at keeping the others attention?" The FES is a measure of optimism. Therefore, the positive correlation between the FES and the question responses implies that the participants would expect the main character to be engaging and drew upon their general expectancies in making the assessment.

A negative correlation between the FES and the negative perception of interaction index was found. Positive scores on the negative items indicated a more negative assessment of the main character. Thus, the more pessimistic the participant the more negatively they evaluated the main character. Simply, if someone was demonstrating behavior that has been deemed negative by social guidelines then it is likely people make a negative assessment of that person and are not going to want to be around them

The deficiencies of this experiment are plentiful. Due to the lack of participation by the participant pool, it is difficult to have any external validity. In addition, some participants did not take the TOEFL but some other standardized test for international

students. These two issues made the answers to demographic questions inconsistent and unusable. Another problem was that the dimension questionnaire had more positive questions than negative. These would have to be changed so there are equal amounts of positive and negative questions. Finally, the videos were inherently different. Had the academic video had a confrontation or the *Little Miss Sunshine* clip been less confrontational we may not have seen any significance. To investigate the role of confrontation, future studies should manipulate the level of confrontation exhibited in the videos viewed by participants.

More controls are needed to help refine this research. For example, including all tests similar to the TOEFL would be beneficial for demographic and score comparisons. Also, making the task "country of origin" specific might help tease out more specific details regarding attitudes about America from specific cultures. Another control could be analysis of differences between the sexes.

The lack of previous research to set guidelines and measures, funding, in addition to the lack of control, as well as the measures not being tailored to collect information regarding perception of culture different from one's own identified culture are other limitations of this study. However, if these limitations were breeched, with regard to the impossible task of categorizing every nuance of a culture, then methods and measures for helping to understand a person's perception of a culture other than their own could be developed into tools for organizations. Therefore, companies, schools, or any other organization could utilize these tools similar to those standardized tests already utilized, to help identify organization members such as employees or students that would be more able to handle intercultural contact and stressors. In addition, utilizing tools and measures

from different types of research, such as the IES (Mather et al., 2005), FES (Andersen, 1990), MANIB (Casa del Calvo, 2008), and PDI (Hofstede, 1997), may allow for a different approach to cultural research in the field of Psychology thereby allowing for more accurate data to be collected and analyzed.

This cultivation of a person's strength may make a happier person overall therefore making the person more successful organizationally. Following this reasoning, a happier more successful person in an organization makes it more likely that the organization's intercultural and global endeavors will be more successful. By virtue of helping the organization member be more successful, the organization is making itself, as a whole, more successful.

References

Andersen, S. M. (1990). The inevitability of future suffering: The role of depressive predictive

certainty in depression. *Social Cognition, 8,* 203-228.

Anderson, J. R. (1995). *Learning and memory: An integrated approach* (2nd ed.). New

York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Berno, T., & Ward, C. (2005). Innocence abroad: A pocket guide to psychological

research on tourism. *American Psychologist, 60,* 593-600.

Casa de Calvo, M. P., Reich, D. A., Naylor, N. K., & Mather, R. D. (2008, February).

*On purging partiality: Toward the assessment of internal motivation to avoid

negative interpersonal bias.* Poster presented at the 9th annual meeting of the

Society for Personality and Social Psychology, Albuquerque, NM.

Del Pilar, J. A., & Udasco, J. O. (2004). Deculturation: Its lack of validity. *Cultural

Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 10,* 169-176.

Enchautegui-de-Jesus, N., Hughes, D., Johnston, K. E., & Oh, H. J. (2006). Well-being in

the context of workplace ethnic diversity. *Journal of Community Psychology, 34,*

211-223.

Genest, C. M. (2005). Cultures, organizations and philanthropy. *Corporate

Communications: An International Journal, 10,* 315-327.

Gill, J. & Mather, R. D. (2008, April). *Testing the generalizability of the Interpersonal

Expectancy Scale and the Motivation to Avoid Negative Interpersonal Biases

Scale.* Poster presented at the 26th annual meeting of the Oklahoma Psychological

Society, Edmond, OK.

Ginsburg, L., & Tregunno, D. (2005). New approaches to interprofessional education and

    collaborative practice: Lessons from the organizational change literature. *Journal*

    of Interprofessional Care, 1, 177-187.

Henderson, G. (1989). *A practitioner's guide to understanding indigenous and foreign*

    cultures: An analysis of relationships between ethnicity, social class and

    therapeutic intervention strategies with third world peoples from other countries.

    Springfield, IL: Charles C Thomas.

Henderson, G. (1994). Cultural *diversity in the workplace: Issues and strategies.* West

    Port, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group, Inc.

Henderson, G. & Milhouse, V. H. (1987). International business and cultures. New York:

    Cummings & Hathaway Publishers.

Hofstede, G. (1997). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind.* New York: The

    McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.

Ivancevich, J., Konopaske, R., & DeFrank, R. (2003). Business travel stress: a model,

    propositions and managerial implications. *Work & Stress, 17*, 138-157.

Kim, H. & Markus, H. R. (1999). Deviance or uniqueness, harmony or conformity? A

    cultural analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 77*, 785-800.

Konrad, A. M., Prasad, P., & Pringle, J. K. (Eds). (2006). *Handbook of workplace*

    diversity. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Levy, J. J. (2004). [Review of the book *Acculturation: Advances in theory,*

    measurement, and applied research]. *Counseling Psychology Quarterly, 17*, 129-

    136.

Mather, R. D., Casa de Calvo, M. P., & Reich, D. A. (2005, January). *What do you expect? Predicting social judgments with Interpersonal Expectancy Scale.* Poster presented at the 6th annual meeting of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology, New Orleans, LA.

Mather, R. D., McFarlane, C., & Gill, J. L. (2007, April). *Using the Interpersonal Expectancy Scale to predict attitudes toward a social interaction.* Poster presented at the 25th annual meeting of the Oklahoma Psychological Society, Edmond, OK.

Office of Institutional Research. (2008). *Enrollment statistics & demographics.* Edmond: University of Central Oklahoma.

Rudmin, F. W. (2003). Critical history of the acculturation psychology of assimilation, separation, integration, and marginalization. *Review of General Psychology, 7,* 3-37.

Ryder, A. G., Alden, L. E., & Paulhus, D. L. (2000). Is acculturation unidimensional or bidimensional? A head-to-head comparison in the prediction of personality, self-identity, and adjustment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 79,* 49-65.

Schwartz, S. J., Pantin, H., Sullivan, S., Prado, G., & Szapocznik, J. (2006). Nativity and years in the receiving culture as markers of acculturation in ethnic enclaves. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 37,* 345-353.

Seo, M. G., Hill, N. S. (2005). Understanding the human side of merger and acquisition. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 41,* 422-443.

Shors, T. J. (2004). Learning during stressful times. *Learning & Memory, 4,* 137-144.

Stephenson, M. (2000). Development and validation of the Stephenson Multigroup

Acculturation Scale (SMAS). *Psychological Assessment, 12,* 77-88.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007) *Using multivariate statistics* (5th ed.). Boston:

Allyn & Bacon.

Turtletaub, M., Saraf, P., Berger, A., Yerxa, R., Friendly, D. (Producers), Dayton, J., &

Faris, V. (Directors). (2006). *Little Miss Sunshine* [Motion Picture]. United States:

Fox Searchlight Pictures. Retrieved February 23, 2008, from

http://www.foxsearchlight.com/littlemisssunshine/

Weick, K. E. (2005). [Review of the book *Managing the Future: Foresight in the*

Knowledge Economy]. *Academy of Management Review, 30,* 871-873.

Westman, M. (2004). Strategies for coping with business trips: A qualitative exploratory

study. *International Journal of Stress Management, 11,* 167-176.

Whetzel, D. L. & Wheaton, G. R. (1997). *Applied measurement methods in industrial*

psychology. Palo Alto, CA: Davies-Black Publishers.

Table 1

Participant Country of Origin

Country	Male	Female
Bangladesh	1	
Belarus		1
Brazil	1	
Bulgaria	1	
Cameroon		1
Canada	1	1
China		1
Ghana	1	
Honduras		1
India	1	1
Iran		1
Japan	2	3
Kenya	1	1
Mexico		1
Nepal	2	5
South Korea	1	
Taiwan	1	
Vietnam		2
n =	13	19

Appendix A

Demographics Questions

What is your Age? Fill in the Blank

What is your Sex?
Male
Female

What is your Academic Classification?
Freshman
Sophmore
Junior
Senior
Graduate

What is your Country of Origin? Fill in the Blank

How many countries have you traveled to? Fill in the Blank

What is your first language? Fill in the Blank

If you took the TOEFL, what was your TOEFL score? Fill in the Blank

If English is NOT your first language, at what age did you begin to learn English? Fill in the Blank

If English is NOT your first language, where did you learn English?
Academia
Social Community

What academic college do you belong to?
College of Arts, Media & Design
College of Business Administration
College of Education and Professional Studies
College of Liberal Arts
College of Mathematics & Science

What is your Degree?
Bachelor of Applied Technology
Bachelor of Arts
Bachelor of Arts in Education
Bachelor of Business Administration
Bachelor of Fine Arts
Bachelor of Fine Arts Education

Bachelor of Music
Bachelor of Music Education
Bachelor of Science
Bachelor of Science in Education
Master of Arts
Master of Business Administration
Master of Education
Master of Fine Arts
Master of Music
Master of Science

How many languages do you speak? Fill in the Blank

Appendix B

Post Video Questionnaire (Mather et al., 2007)

Who was the main character in the video? Fill in the Blank

Attitude & Attitude Certainty

Please rate your assessment of each statement by entering the number from the corresponding scale that best represents your answer. (Likert type scale with 1 being Dislike and 7 being Like & 1 being Certain and 7 being Uncertain)

To what extent did you like or dislike the main character from the video?

How certain are you of your opinion toward the main character?

To what extent did you like or dislike the other people from the video?

How certain are you of your opinion toward the other people?

To what extent did you like or dislike the interaction between the main character and the other people?

How certain are you of your opinion toward the interaction between the main character and the other people?

Attribution

Please choose the number from the scale that best represents your answer to the following questions based on your observation of the video. (Likert type scale with 1 being Not Good and 7 being Good)

Compared to other interactions you have observed, how good was this social interaction?

How well did the main character you observed perform in the social interaction?

How successful was the main character at keeping the others attention?

In general, how engaging was the main character?

How good are the main character's interpersonal skills?

How well did the main character connect with the others?

How engaging would this character be for other topics?

Interaction

Consider the interaction between the main character and other people. Please choose the

best representative number on the scale. (Likert type scale with 1 being Worst and 7

being Best)

To what degree was the interaction: POSITIVE?

To what degree was the interaction: RESPECTFUL?

To what degree was the interaction: CONFRONTATIONAL?

To what degree was the interaction: ENJOYABLE FOR BOTH?

To what degree was the interaction: PLAYFUL?

To what degree was the interaction: STRAINED?

To what degree was the interaction: ANTAGONISTIC?

To what degree was the interaction: LIVELY?

To what degree was the interaction: HONEST?

To what degree was the interaction: SARCASTIC?

To what degree was the interaction: ONE-SIDED?

To what degree was the interaction: CONSIDERATE?

To what degree was the interaction: HURRIED?

To what degree was the interaction: HOSTILE?

To what degree was the interaction: DISRUPTIVE?

To what degree was the interaction: DULL?

To what degree was the interaction: INTERESTING?

To what degree was the interaction: CONDESCENDING?

To what degree was the interaction: AUTHENTIC?

How smoothly did the interaction go?

How well did the main character and other people seem to get along?

Dimension

Please rate the main character on the following dimensions, based on what you saw in the video. Select the number from scale that best represents your evaluation. (Likert type scale with 1 being Not Good and 7 being Good)

INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

SELF-CONFIDENCE

INTELLIGENCE

HONESTY

CREATIVITY

LIKEABILITY

SENSE OF HUMOR

ABILITY TO ENGAGE THE OTHERS

ABILITY TO STAY ON TOPIC

ENTHUSIASM

ORGANIZATION

CLARITY

WARMTH

ABILITY TO KEEP THE OTHERS ATTENTION

USE OF HUMOR

NERVOUSNESS

RESPONSIVENESS TO OTHERS

FRIENDLINESS

How likely would you be to interact with the main character?

What is your overall evaluation of this main character?

Manipulation Check

Please answer the following questions based on your observation of the video. (Fill in the

Blank)

What color was the shirt that the main character was wearing?

Was the main character wearing glasses?

What color was the main character's hair?

Probes

How much did you pay attention to the video?

How interested were you in the video?

How well could you hear the voice's in your headphones?

Appendix C

FES (Casa de Calvo et al., 2008)

For each of the following items, please choose the number that best represents how likely you think the event is to happen to you at some point in your life. (Likert type scale with 1 being Unlikely and 7 being Likely)

To be stuck in a boring and unfulfilling job.

To have enough money to satisfy all my needs.

To be very lonely when I am old.

To have the recognition of many of my colleagues.

To regret a decision I have made in my life.

To live the lifestyle I have always dreamed of.

To divorce or experience the death of a mate.

To contract a fatal disease.

To have what I consider to be the perfect job.

To be institutionalized (e.g. prison or asylum) in the next 20 years.

To achieve my goals during my life.

To live a sexually fulfilled life.

To be satisfied with many of the major decisions I have made during my life.

To feel that I have made no contribution to others or society within my life time.

To lose my mental facilities when I am older.

To experience a great financial loss.

To be able to live in the home in the location I have always dreamed of.

To be able to cope successfully even when under a great deal of pressure from my job.

To work with people I do not like.

To win the lottery.

To retire at the age of 40 and do all the things that I would like to do.

To have a loved one die in the next year.

To enjoy doing some of the things I would like to do in the next ten or fifteen years.

To be responsible for someone's physical or emotional suffering.

To live a healthy and active life until the end of my life.

To experience unhappiness with my relationships for several years.

Appendix D

. *IES* (Mather et al., 2005)

The following items concern your expectations about other people. Please use the scale to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each item. (Likert type scale with 1 being Disagree and 7 being Agree)

Most people with lead a healthy and active life.

Few people are capable of true compassion.

When I meet people, I usually expect that they will be friendly.

People are often insensitive to the needs of others.

People will usually treat others with respect.

People will generally help others in need.

People typically have good intentions toward others.

Most people will do whatever they can do to avoid hard work.

If people can mess things up, they generally will.

Most people will cheat to get ahead.

People can be trusted.

Most people live by the "golden rule" (treat others as you would like to be treated).

Most people will live the lifestyle they have always wanted.

People will often tell lies if they can get away with it.

People cannot be relied on to keep their promises.

Most people will strive to be fair.

Most people will blame others for things that go wrong.

People have trouble being faithful to others.

People are generally capable of achieving their goals.

I expect most people I meet to be bright, intelligent individuals.

Most people will take advantage of others if they get the chance.

Most people will deliberately say or do things to hurt you.

Most people do not really care what happens to others

Most people are likely to succeed in reaching their goals.

Appendix E

MANIB (Andersen, 1990)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements. (Likert type scale with 1 being Disagree and 7 being Agree)

I always try to give other people the benefit of the doubt when they've messed up.

Avoiding negativity toward other people is important to me.

I always try to seek out the good in other people.

When I have a negative opinion of someone, I have no interest in treating that person well.

Being negative toward other people is sometimes justified.

I try not to be too critical of others.

My negative judgments about other people are usually accurate.

I strive to be fair in the way that I judge other people.

I strive to be fair in the way I treat other people.

I jump to conclusions about people when I hear negative things about them.

When possible, I try to give people a second chance.

I try hard not to treat people based on my stereotypes about them.

I believe that most of my prejudices against others are justified.

I am highly motivated to treat people fairly, no matter what I may think of them.

I try not to assume the worst about another person without finding out more about them.

Being positive in my judgments of others is important to me.

Appendix F

UNIVERSITY OF CENTRAL OKLAHOMA
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Experimental Psychology Research Project Title: Interpersonal Perceptions of American Culture.

Researcher(s) and contact information: Robert Mather, Ph.D., (405) 974-5474, rmather@ucok.edu. You may also contact the Research Administrator at (405) 974-5707 or ucok-admin@sona-systems.net

A. Purpose of this research: The purpose of the current study is to assess the perception of the American culture by non-Americans.

B. Procedures/treatments involved: Participants will be asked to fill out a demographics survey. Watch a video and answer questions regarding the video. Only participants who are not native born Americans and whose first language is not American English will be allowed to participate.

C. Expected length of participation: No more than 1 hour(s). (1 credit)

D. Potential benefits: The information acquired via this study may aid in the development of new methods with which to reduce the stress involved in intercultural travel. Specifically, this study will demonstrate perceptions that a person from a non-American culture may have of the American culture and may aid in the development of intercultural experience preparation tools. For participants, the experimental task may make them more aware of their own perceptions aiding in their dealing with intercultural stressors in a more positive way.

E. Potential risks or discomforts: There will be no harm or discomfort anticipated in the research greater than what is ordinarily encountered in daily life or during routine physicals or psychological examinations or tests. The demographic information requested will not be used to identify individuals and will be used for exploratory correlational research regarding its impact on the participant perception.

F. Medical/mental health contact information: If you would like to visit with someone regarding sensitive or special concerns about this project or other issues please feel welcome to visit the UCO Student Counseling Center at (405) 974-2215 or http://www.ucok.edu/student_counseling (Bruce Lochner, Ph. D., Director).

G. Contact information for researchers appears above. You may also contact the Research Administrator at (405) 974-5707 or ucok-admin@sona-systems.net

You may also contact the Institutional Review Board:

Dr. Jill A. Devenport

Chair, UCO Institutional Review Board
ADM 216
Campus Box 159
Edmond, OK 73034

405-974-5479 phone
405-974-2526
405-974-3825 fax
jdevenport@ucok.edu - email

H. Explanation of confidentiality and privacy: Your name or identity will not be associated in any way with the research findings; information about you remains confidential and will not be kept after the semester ends. Your name or other uniquely identifying information will never be in any record that can be identified with you. We do not request student ID numbers either.

Results are reported only about groups of people or by a number that conceals your identity. All results are reported in summary form, except on occasion when an individual example may be given, at which time no name or other identifiable information will be given. Anonymous data are stored in electronic or hard copy form by individual researchers. Only the student researchers and their instructors have access to the data.

Most psychology journals expect that researchers retain data for five years following publication. Individual researchers destroy anonymous data after the standard retention period (see above) has passed. Records (separate from research data) regarding which students completed their participation assignments are purged from electronic sources or shredded by individual instructors/researchers after final grades are recorded.

The fact that you did or did not participate in a specific experiment or study is part of a record available to your General Psychology instructor. General Psychology instructors have to know which studies you completed in order know how much research participation credits each you earned (in order to determine whether that course requirement was satisfied). They do not need nor do they receive any other information.

I. Assurance of voluntary participation:

AFFIRMATION BY RESEARCH PARTICIPANT

I hereby voluntarily agree to participate in the above listed research project and further understand the above listed explanations and descriptions of the research project. I also understand that there is no penalty for refusal to participate, and that I am free to withdraw my consent and participation in this project at any time without penalty. I have read and fully understand this Informed Consent Form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. I acknowledge that a copy of this Informed Consent Form has been given to me to keep.

Participant's Printed Name: _____

Participant's Signature: _____ Date

_____

*** By signing this, I affirm that I am at least 18 years of age.

J. For more information: If you would like more information about the results of this study, you can get the complete details after we have collected all our data. There are four ways to do this:

    1) Come to the Oklahoma Research Day conference.
    2) Ask your General Psychology instructor for access to this semester's study summaries.
    3) Request that the researcher e-mail or mail you the study results.
    4) Make an appointment for a telephone or in person visit with the researcher.