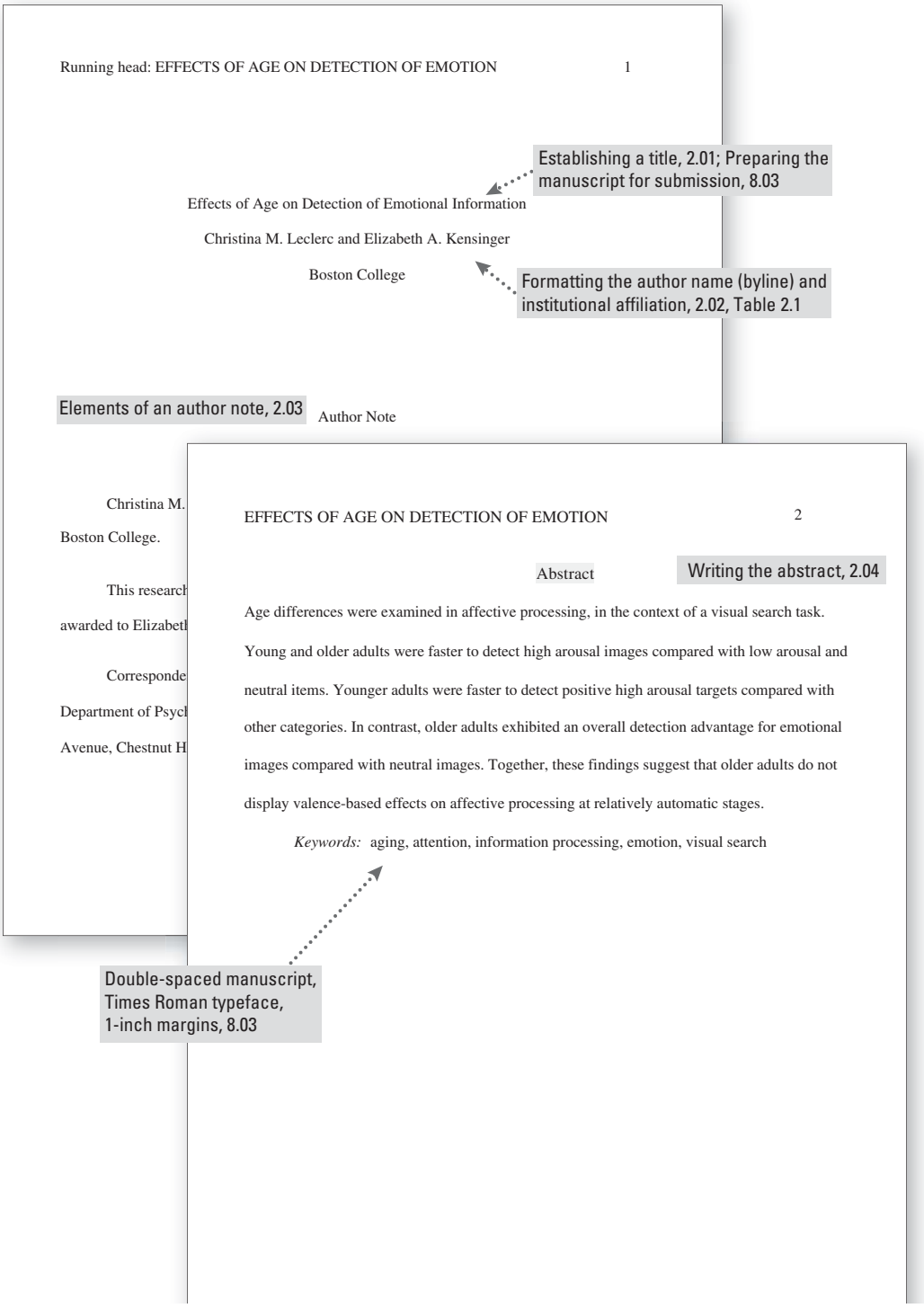
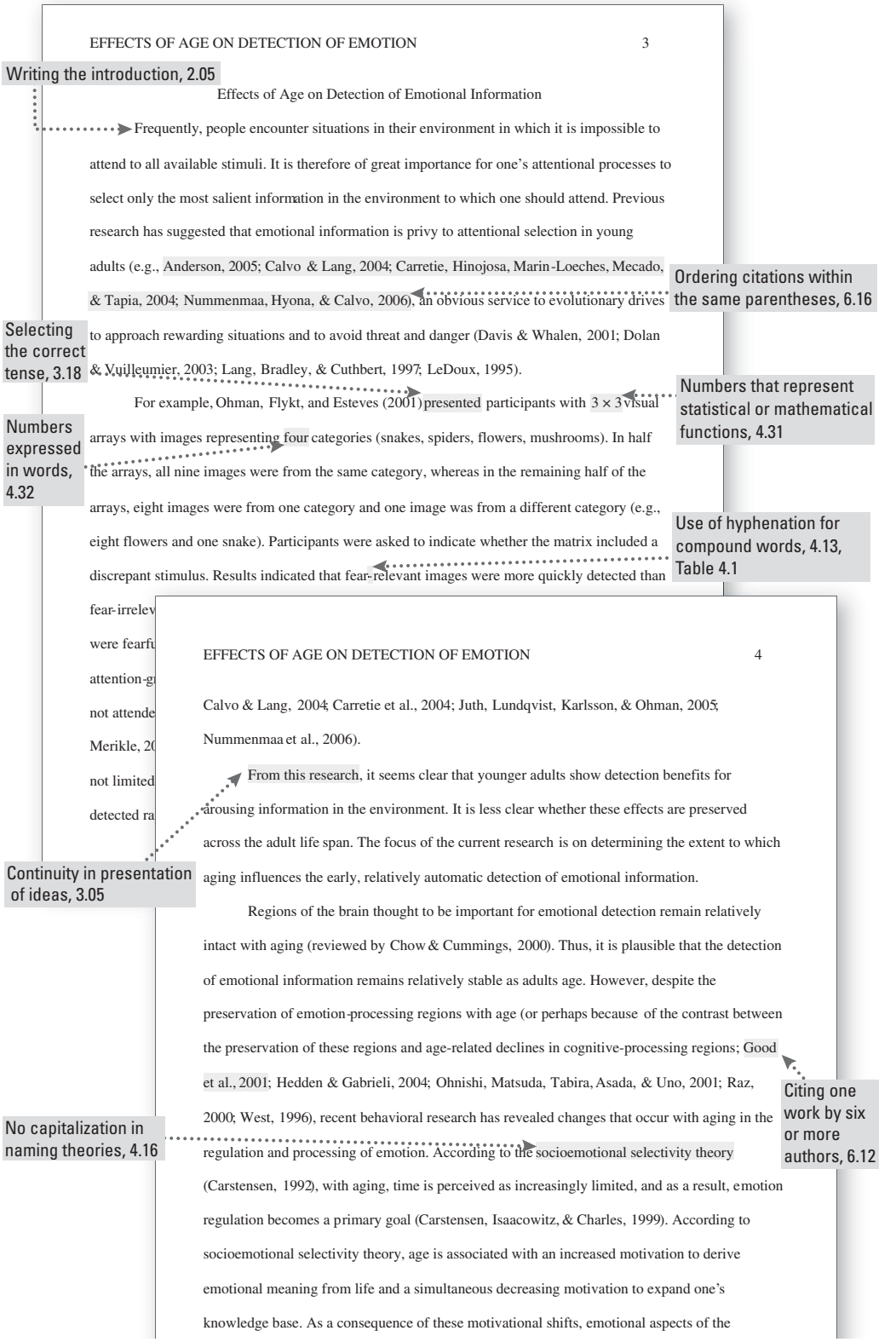
Figure 2.1. Sample One-Experiment Paper (The numbers refer to numbered sections in the *Publication Manual*.)



Paper adapted from "Effects of Age on Detection of Emotional Information," by C. M. Leclerc and E. A. Kensinger, 2008, *Psychology and Aging, 23,* pp. 209–215. Copyright 2008 by the American Psychological Association.

Figure 2.1. Sample One-Experiment Paper (continued)



Writing the introduction, 2.05

Effects of Age on Detection of Emotional Information

Frequently, people encounter situations in their environment in which it is impossible to attend to all available stimuli. It is therefore of great importance for one's attentional processes to select only the most salient information in the environment to which one should attend. Previous research has suggested that emotional information is privy to attentional selection in young adults (e.g., Anderson, 2005; Calvo & Lang, 2004; Carretie, Hinojosa, Marin-Loeches, Mecado, & Tapia, 2004; Nummenmaa, Hyona, & Calvo, 2006), an obvious service to evolutionary drives to approach rewarding situations and to avoid threat and danger (Davis & Whalen, 2001; Dolan & Vuilleumier, 2003; Lang, Bradley, & Cuthbert, 1997; LeDoux, 1995).

Ordering citations within the same parentheses, 6.16

Selecting the correct tense, 3.18

Numbers that represent statistical or mathematical functions, 4.31

For example, Ohman, Flykt, and Esteves (2001) presented participants with 3 × 3 visual arrays with images representing four categories (snakes, spiders, flowers, mushrooms). In half the arrays, all nine images were from the same category, whereas in the remaining half of the arrays, eight images were from one category and one image was from a different category (e.g., eight flowers and one snake). Participants were asked to indicate whether the matrix included a discrepant stimulus. Results indicated that fear-relevant images were more quickly detected than fear-irrelev

Numbers expressed in words, 4.32

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Use of hyphenation for compound words, 4.13, Table 4.1

Calvo & Lang, 2004; Carretie et al., 2004; Juth, Lundqvist, Karlsson, & Ohman, 2005; Nummenmaa et al., 2006).

Continuity in presentation of ideas, 3.05

From this research, it seems clear that younger adults show detection benefits for arousing information in the environment. It is less clear whether these effects are preserved across the adult life span. The focus of the current research is on determining the extent to which aging influences the early, relatively automatic detection of emotional information.

Regions of the brain thought to be important for emotional detection remain relatively intact with aging (reviewed by Chow & Cummings, 2000). Thus, it is plausible that the detection of emotional information remains relatively stable as adults age. However, despite the preservation of emotion-processing regions with age (or perhaps because of the contrast between the preservation of these regions and age-related declines in cognitive-processing regions; Good et al., 2001; Hedden & Gabrieli, 2004; Ohnishi, Matsuda, Tabira, Asada, & Uno, 2001; Raz, 2000; West, 1996), recent behavioral research has revealed changes that occur with aging in the regulation and processing of emotion. According to the socioemotional selectivity theory (Carstensen, 1992), with aging, time is perceived as increasingly limited, and as a result, emotion regulation becomes a primary goal (Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999). According to socioemotional selectivity theory, age is associated with an increased motivation to derive emotional meaning from life and a simultaneous decreasing motivation to expand one's knowledge base. As a consequence of these motivational shifts, emotional aspects of the

Citing one work by six or more authors, 6.12

No capitalization in naming theories, 4.16

Figure 2.1. Sample One-Experiment Paper (continued)

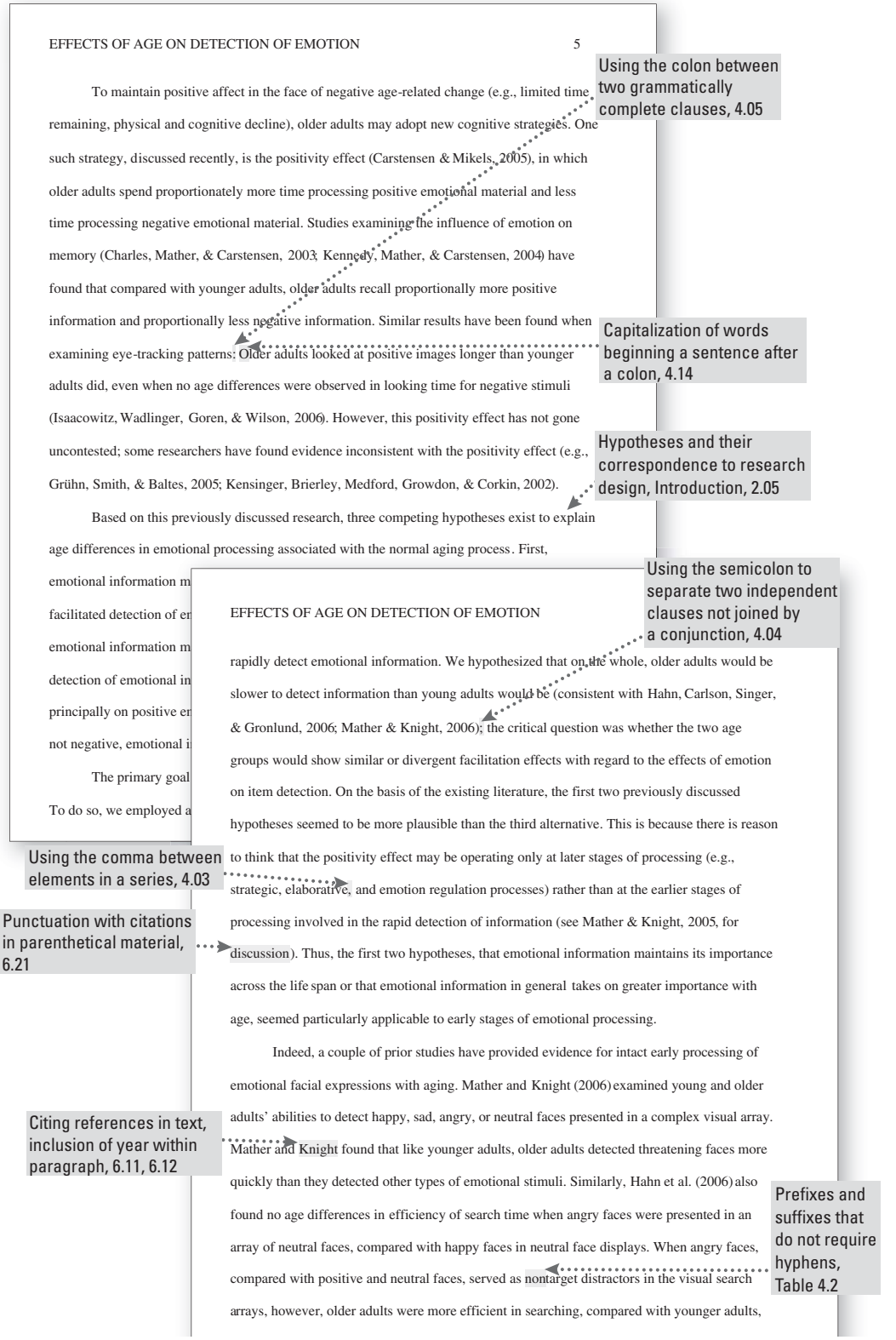

Figure 2.1. Sample One-Experiment Paper (continued)

negative stimuli were not of equivalent arousal levels (fearful faces typically are more arousing than happy faces; Hansen & Hansen, 1988). Given that arousal is thought to be a key factor in modulating the attentional focus effect (Hansen & Hansen, 1988; Pratto & John, 1991; Reimann & McNally, 1995), to more clearly understand emotional processing in the context of aging, it is necessary to include both positive and negative emotional items with equal levels of arousal.

In the current research, therefore, we compared young and older adults' detection of four categories of emotional information (positive high arousal, positive low arousal, negative high arousal, and negative low arousal) with their detection of neutral information. The positive and negative stimuli were carefully matched on arousal level, and the categories of high and low arousal were closely matched on valence to assure that the factors of valence (positive, negative) and arousal (high, low) could be investigated independently of one another. Participants were presented with a visual search task including images from these different categories (e.g., snakes, cars, teapots). For half of the multi-image arrays, all of the images were of the same item, and for the remaining half of the arrays, a sing

items was included. Participants were

the array, and their reaction times wer

differences in response times (RTs) ba

categories. We reasoned that if young

information, then we would expect sir

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Prefixed words that require hyphens, Table 4.3

Using abbreviations, 4.22; Explanation of abbreviations, 4.23; Abbreviations used often in APA journals, 4.25; Plurals of abbreviations, 4.29

for the arousing items than shown by the young adults (resulting in an interaction between age and arousal).

Elements of the Method section, 2.06; Organizing a manuscript with levels of heading, 3.03

Method

Participants

Identifying subsections within the Method section, 2.06

Younger adults (14 women, 10 men, M_{age} = 19.5 years, age range: 18–22 years) were recruited with flyers posted on the Boston College campus. Older adults (15 women, nine men, M_{age} = 76.1 years, age range: 68–84 years) were recruited through the Harvard Cooperative on Aging (see Table 1, for demographics and test scores).[1] Participants were compensated $10 per hour for their participation. There were 30 additional participants, recruited in the same way as described above, who provided pilot rating values: five young and five old participants for the assignment of items within individual categories (i.e., images depicting cats), and 10 young and 10 old participants for the assignment of images within valence and arousal categories. All participants were asked to bring corrective eyewear if needed, resulting in normal or corrected to normal vision for all participants.

Using numerals to express numbers representing age, 4.31

Participant (subject) characteristics, Method, 2.06

Materials and Procedure

The visual search task was adapted from Ohman et al. (2001). There were 10 different types of items (two each of five Valence × Arousal categories: positive high arousal, positive low arousal, neutral, negative low arousal, negative high arousal), each containing nine individual exemplars that were used to construct 3 × 3 stimulus matrices. A total of 90 images were used, each appearing as a target and as a member of a distracting array. A total of 360 matrices were presented to each participant; half contained a target item (i.e., eight items of one type and one target item of another type) and half did not (i.e., all nine images of the same type). Within the

Figure 2.1. Sample One-Experiment Paper (continued)

matrix. Within the 180 target trials, each of the five emotion categories (e.g., positive high arousal, neutral, etc.) was represented in 36 trials. Further, within each of the 36 trials for each emotion category, nine trials were created for each of the combinations with the remaining four other emotion categories (e.g., nine trials with eight positive high arousal items and one neutral item). Location of the target was randomly varied such that no target within an emotion category was presented in the same location in arrays of more than one other emotion category (i.e., a negative high arousal target appeared in a different location when presented with positive high arousal array images than when presented with neutral array images).

The items within each category of grayscale images shared the same verbal label (e.g., mushroom, snake), and the items were selected from online databases and photo clipart packages. Each image depicted a photo of the actual object. Ten pilot participants were asked to write down the name corresponding to each object; any object that did not consistently generate the intended response was eliminated from the set. For the remaining images, an additional 20 pilot participants rated the emotional valence and arousal of the objects and assessed the degree of visual similarity among objects within a set (i.e., how similar the mushrooms were to one another) and between objects across sets (i.e., how similar the mushrooms were to the snakes).

Valence and arousal ratings. Valence and arousal were judged on 7-point scales (1 = *negative valence* or *low arousal* and 7 = *positive valence* or *high arousal*). Negative objects received mean valence ratings of 2.5 or lower, neutral objects received mean valence ratings of 3.5 to 4.5, and positive objects received mean valence ratings of 5.5 or higher. High arousal objects received mean arousal ratings greater than 5, and low arousal objects (including all neutral stimuli) received mean arousal ratings of less than 4. We selected categories for which both young and older adults agreed on the valence and arousal classifications, and stimuli were

Latin abbreviations, 4.26

Numbers expressed in words at beginning of sentence, 4.32

Italicization of anchors of a scale, 4.21

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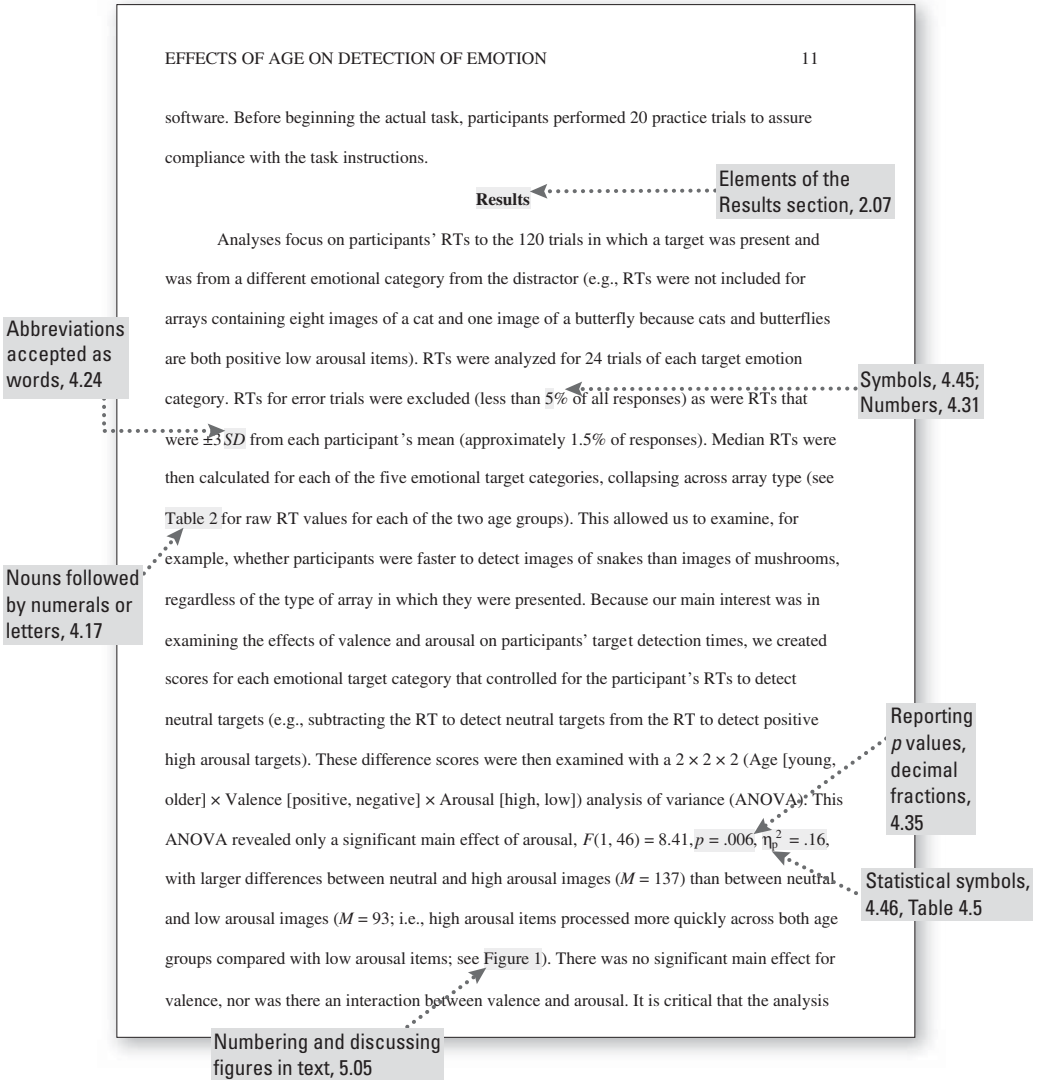
overall similarity of the object categories (*p*s > .20). For example, we selected particular mushrooms and particular cats so that the mushrooms were as similar to one another as were the cats (i.e., within-group similarity was held constant across the categories). Our object selection also assured that the categories differed from one another to a similar degree (e.g., that the mushrooms were as similar to the snakes as the cats were similar to the snakes).

Procedure

Each trial began with a white fixation cross presented on a black screen for 1,000 ms; the matrix was then presented, and it remained on the screen until a participant response was recorded. Participants were instructed to respond as quickly as possible with a button marked *yes* if there was a target present, or a button marked *no* if no target was present. Response latencies and accuracy for each trial were automatically recorded with E-Prime (Version 1.2) experimental

Figure 2.1. Sample One-Experiment Paper (continued)



EFFECTS OF AGE ON DETECTION OF EMOTION 11

software. Before beginning the actual task, participants performed 20 practice trials to assure compliance with the task instructions.

Results

Analyses focus on participants' RTs to the 120 trials in which a target was present and was from a different emotional category from the distractor (e.g., RTs were not included for arrays containing eight images of a cat and one image of a butterfly because cats and butterflies are both positive low arousal items). RTs were analyzed for 24 trials of each target emotion category. RTs for error trials were excluded (less than 5% of all responses) as were RTs that were ±3 *SD* from each participant's mean (approximately 1.5% of responses). Median RTs were then calculated for each of the five emotional target categories, collapsing across array type (see Table 2 for raw RT values for each of the two age groups). This allowed us to examine, for example, whether participants were faster to detect images of snakes than images of mushrooms, regardless of the type of array in which they were presented. Because our main interest was in examining the effects of valence and arousal on participants' target detection times, we created scores for each emotional target category that controlled for the participant's RTs to detect neutral targets (e.g., subtracting the RT to detect neutral targets from the RT to detect positive high arousal targets). These difference scores were then examined with a 2 × 2 × 2 (Age [young, older] × Valence [positive, negative] × Arousal [high, low]) analysis of variance (ANOVA). This ANOVA revealed only a significant main effect of arousal, $F(1, 46) = 8.41$, $p = .006$, $\eta_p^2 = .16$, with larger differences between neutral and high arousal images ($M = 137$) than between neutral and low arousal images ($M = 93$; i.e., high arousal items processed more quickly across both age groups compared with low arousal items; see Figure 1). There was no significant main effect for valence, nor was there an interaction between valence and arousal. It is critical that the analysis

Elements of the Results section, 2.07

Abbreviations accepted as words, 4.24

Symbols, 4.45; Numbers, 4.31

Nouns followed by numerals or letters, 4.17

Reporting *p* values, decimal fractions, 4.35

Statistical symbols, 4.46, Table 4.5

Numbering and discussing figures in text, 5.05

Figure 2.1. Sample One-Experiment Paper (continued)

revealed only a main effect of age but no interactions with age. Thus, the arousal-mediated effects on detection time appeared stable in young and older adults.

The results described above suggested that there was no influence of age on the influences of emotion. To further test the validity of this hypothesis, we submitted the RTs to the five categories of targets to a 2 × 5 (Age [young, old] × Target Category [positive high arousal, positive low arousal, neutral, negative low arousal, negative high arousal]) repeated measures ANOVA.[2] Both the age group, $F(1, 46) = 540.32, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .92$, and the target category, $F(4, 184) = 8.98, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .16$, main effects were significant, as well as the Age Group × Target Category interaction, $F(4, 184) = 3.59, p = .008, \eta_p^2 = .07$. This interaction appeared to reflect the fact that for the younger adults, positive high arousal targets were detected faster than targets from all other categories, $ts(23) < -1.90, p < .001$, with no other target categories differing significantly from one another (although there were trends for negative high arousal and negative low arousal targets to be detected more rapidly than neutral targets ($p < .12$). For older adults, all emotional categories of targets were detected more rapidly than were neutral targets, $ts(23) > 2.56, p < .017$, and RTs to the different emotion categories of targets did not differ significantly from one another. Thus, these results provided some evidence that older adults may show a broader advantage for detection of any type of emotional information, whereas young adults' benefit may be more narrowly restricted to only certain categories of emotional information.

Discussion

As outlined previously, there were three plausible alternatives for young and older adults' performance on the visual search task: The two age groups could show a similar pattern of enhanced detection of emotional information, older adults could show a greater advantage for

Statistics in text, 4.44

Spacing, alignment, and punctuation of mathematical copy, 4.46

Capitalize effects or variables when they appear with multiplication signs, 4.20

Elements of the Discussion section, 2.08

Figure 2.1. Sample One-Experiment Paper (continued)

emotional detection than young adults, or older adults could show a greater facilitation than young adults only for the detection of positive information. The results lent some support to the first two alternatives, but no evidence was found to support the third alternative.

In line with the first alternative, no effects of age were found when the influence of valence and arousal on target detection times was examined; both age groups showed only an arousal effect. This result is consistent with prior studies that indicated that arousing information can be detected rapidly and automatically by young adults (Anderson, Christoff, Panitz, De Rosa, & Gabrieli, 2003; Ohman & Mineka, 2001) and that older adults, like younger adults, continue to display a threat detection advantage when searching for negative facial targets in arrays of positive and neutral distractors (Hahn et al., 2006; Mather & Knight, 2006). Given the relative preservation of

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Clear statement of support or nonsupport of hypotheses, Discussion, 2.08

processing, given that no effects of valence were observed in older adults' detection speed. In the present study, older adults were equally fast to detect positive and negative information, consistent with prior research that indicated that older adults often attend equally to positive and negative stimuli (Rosler et al., 2005). Although the pattern of results for the young adults has differed across studies—in the present study and in some past research, young adults have shown facilitated detection of positive information (e.g., Anderson, 2005; Calvo & Lang, 2004; Carretie et al., 2004; Juth et al., 2005; Nummenmaa et al., 2006), whereas in other studies, young adults have shown an advantage for negative information (e.g., Armony & Dolan, 2002; Hansen & Hansen, 1988; Mogg, Bradley, de Bono, & Painter, 1997; Pratto & John, 1991; Reimann & McNally, 1995; Williams, Mathews, & MacLeod, 1996)—what is important to note is that the older adults detected both positive and negative stimuli at equal rates. This equivalent detection of positive and negative information provides evidence that older adults display an advantage for the detection of emotional information that is not valence-specific.

Thus, although younger and older adults exhibited somewhat divergent patterns of emotional detection on a task reliant on early, relatively automatic stages of processing, we found no evidence of an age-related positivity effect. The lack of a positivity focus in the older adults is in keeping with the proposal (e.g., Mather & Knight, 2006) that the positivity effect does not arise through automatic attentional influences. Rather, when this effect is observed in older adults, it is likely due to age-related changes in emotion regulation goals that operate at later stages of processing (i.e., during consciously controlled processing), once information has been attended to and once the emotional nature of the stimulus has been discerned.

Although we cannot conclusively say that the current task relies strictly on automatic processes, there are two lines of evidence suggesting that the construct examined in the current

Use of an em dash to indicate an interruption in the continuity of a sentence, 4.06; Description of an em dash, 4.13

Figure 2.1. Sample One-Experiment Paper (continued)

research examines relatively automatic processing. First, in their previous work, Ohman et al. (2001) compared RTs with both 2 × 2 and 3 × 3 arrays. No significant RT differences based on the number of images presented in the arrays were found. Second, in both Ohman et al.'s (2001) study and the present study, analyses were performed to examine the influence of target location on RT. Across both studies, and across both age groups in the current work, emotional targets were detected more quickly than were neutral targets, regardless of their location. Together, these findings suggest that task performance is dependent on relatively automatic detection processes rather than on controlled search processes.

Use of parallel construction with coordinating conjunctions used in pairs, 3.23

Although further work is required to gain a more complete understanding of the age-related changes in the early processing of emotional information, our findings indicate that young and older adults

Discussion section ending with comments on importance of findings, 2.08

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Construction of an accurate and complete reference list, 6.22; General desciption of references, 2.11

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Figure 2.1. Sample One-Experiment Paper (continued)

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Digital object identifier as article identifier, 6.31; Example of reference to a periodical, 7.01

Example of reference to a book chapter, print verison, no DOI, 7.02, Example 25

Figure 2.1. Sample One-Experiment Paper (continued)

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Article with more than seven authors, 7.01, Example 2

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Footnotes

Placement and format of footnotes, 2.12

[1]Analyses of covariance were conducted with these covariates, with no resulting influences of these variables on the pattern or magnitude of the results.

[2]These data were also analyzed with a 2 × 5 ANOVA to examine the effect of target category when presented only in arrays containing neutral images, with the results remaining qualitatively the same. More broadly, the effects of emotion on target detection were not qualitatively impacted by the distractor category.

Figure 2.1. Sample One-Experiment Paper (continued)

Table 1

Participant Characteristics

	Younger group		Older group			
Measure	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F* (1, 46)	*p*
Years of education	13.92	1.28	16.33	2.43	18.62	<.001
Beck Anxiety Inventory	9.39	5.34	6.25	6.06	3.54	.066
BADS–DEX	20.79	7.58	13.38	8.29	10.46	.002
STAI–State	45.79	4.44	47.08	3.48	1.07	.306
STAI–Trait	45.64	4.50	45.58	3.15	0.02	.963
Digit Symbol Substitution	49.62	7.18	31.58	6.56	77.52	<.001
Generative naming	46.95	9.70	47.17	12.98	.004	.951
Vocabulary	33.00	3.52	35.25	3.70	4.33	.043
Digit Span–Backward	8.81	2.09	8.25	2.15	0.78	.383
Arithmetic	16.14	2.75	14.96	3.11	1.84	.182
Mental Control	32.32	3.82	23.75	5.13	40.60	<.001
Self-Ordered Pointing	1.73	2.53	9.25	9.40	13.18	.001
WCST perseverative errors	0.36	0.66	1.83	3.23	4.39	.042

Note. The Beck Anxiety Inventory is from Beck et al. (1988); the Behavioral Assessment of the Dysexecutive Syndrome—Dysexecutive Questionnaire (BADS–DEX) is from Wilson et al. (1996); the State–Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) measures are from Spielberger et al. (1970); and the Digit Symbol Substitution, Digit Span–Backward, and Arithmetic Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale—III and Wechsler Memory Scale—III measures are from Wechsler (1997). Generative naming scores represent the total number of words produced in 60 s each for letter *F*, *A*, and *S*. The Vocabulary measure is from Shipley (1986); the Mental Control measure is from Wechsler (1987); the Self-Ordered Pointing measure was adapted from Petrides and Milner (1982); and the Wisconsin Card Sorting Task (WCST) measure is from Nelson (1976). All values represent raw, nonstandardized scores.

Selecting effective presentation, 4.41; Logical and effective table layout, 5.08

Elements of table notes, 5.16

Figure 2.1. Sample One-Experiment Paper (continued)

Principles of figure use and construction, types of figures; standards, planning, and preparation of figures, 5.20–5.25

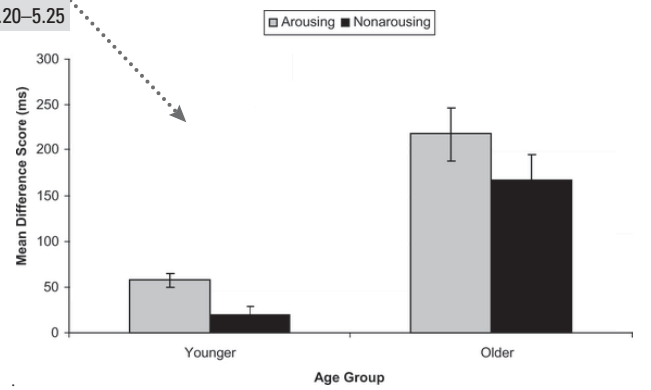

Figure 1. Mean difference values (ms) representing detection speed for each target category subtracted from the mean detection speed for neutral targets. No age differences were found in the arousal-mediated effects on detection speed. Standard errors are represented in the figure by the error bars attached to each column.

Figure legends and captions, 5.23