# UC Santa Cruz

UC Santa Cruz Previously Published Works

Title

Reframing mental illness: The role of essentialism on perceived treatment efficacy and stigmatization

Permalink https://escholarship.org/uc/item/51c759hd

Journal Memory & Cognition, 48(8)

ISSN

0090-502X

Authors

Peters, Danielle Menendez, David Rosengren, Karl

Publication Date 2020-11-01

DOI 10.3758/s13421-020-01061-1

Copyright Information

This work is made available under the terms of a Creative Commons Attribution License, available at https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/

Peer reviewed

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	Reframing mental illness:
8	The role of essentialism on stigmatization and perceived treatment efficacy
9	
10	Danielle E. Peters
11	David Menendez
12	University of Wisconsin - Madison
13	
14	Karl S. Rosengren
15	University of Rochester
16	
17	
18	Corresponding author: dmenendez@wisc.edu
19	
20	This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Peters, D., Menendez, D., &
21	Rosengren, K. (2020). Reframing mental illness: The role of essentialism on perceived treatment
22	efficacy and stigmatization. Memory & Cognition, 48(8), 1317-1333, which has been published
23	in final form at 10.3758/s13421-020-01061-1.

- 25 Acknowledgements: The research reported here was supported in part by the Institute of
- 26 Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education, through Award #R305B150003 to the
- 27 University of Wisconsin-Madison. The opinions expressed are those of the authors and do not
- 28 represent views of the U.S. Department of Education.

29

30

#### Abstract

32 People believe that treatments for illnesses are effective when they target the cause of the illness. 33 Prior work suggests that biological essentialist explanations of mental illness lead people to prefer 34 medications or other pharmacological treatments. However, prior work has not distinguished 35 between biological and essentialist explanations. In three studies (total n = 517), we presented 36 adults with vignettes about an individual with an artificial mental illness and manipulated the 37 descriptions to emphasize or de-emphasize essentialist characteristics. Critically, none of the 38 vignettes made reference to a biological basis for the disorder. Participants rated their willingness 39 to interact with the person described in the vignettes and how effective they believed drug 40 treatment and talk therapy would be on the mental illness. Across the three studies, describing 41 mental illness with an essentialist framing led participants to think drug treatments would be more 42 effective, but there was no effect for stigma or perceived effectiveness of talk therapy. This effect 43 appears to be mediated by how much participants essentialized individuals with the disorder. The first framing that participants encountered seemed to shape their reasoning for the remainder of 44 45 the study, even if they saw conflicting framing later on. The framing manipulation had similar 46 effects for individuals with and without a mental illness. Results suggest that it is important to 47 consider how mental illness is framed to the general public as it might impact people's treatment 48 preferences.

49

50 Keywords: Cognitive Processes, Essentialism, Social Cognition, Perceived treat Effectiveness
51 Stigma

52

## Reframing mental illness:

54	The role of essentialism on perceived treatment efficacy and stigmatization
55	One in five Americans suffer from a mental illness (NIMH, 2017), but less than half of
56	the people who had experienced a mental illness in the past year received treatment (NIMH,
57	2017). Patient preferences play a significant role in treatment. Past research has shown that
58	patients with depression who receive treatment that aligns with their own preference for
59	medication or psychotherapy are more likely to initiate and adhere to treatment (Raue,
60	Schulberg, Heo, Klimstra, & Bruce, 2009) and have higher remission rates and lower levels of
61	depression (Kocsis et al., 2009). Given this association between preference and adherence to
62	treatment, it is critical to understand why people might prefer certain treatments or believe them
63	to be more effective. One possible factor that could influence beliefs and attitudes about
64	treatments might be essentialist beliefs.
65	Essentialism and Mental Illness
66	Psychological essentialism refers to the notion that people believe that categories have an
67	underlying property (an essence) that determines category membership (Medin & Ortony, 1989).

68 People tend to hold essentialist beliefs about simple categories such as "dogs" or "vegetables,"

69 but also about complex social categories such as race, gender, and sexual orientation (Dar-

70 Nimrod & Heine, 2011). Essentialist beliefs encompass a variety of sub-components. People

71 who hold essentialist beliefs about a category are likely to believe that knowing that someone is a

72 member of a certain category is greatly informative (informativeness), that the category has

raised across history with very few changes (historical invariance), that the category has all-or-

none boundaries (discreteness), and that members of the category are highly similar to one

another (uniformity; Gelman, 2003, 2004; Haslam & Ernst, 2002). They are also likely to believe

#### ESSENTIALISM AND PERCEIVED TREATMENT EFFICACY

that it is difficult or impossible for a category member to lose membership (immutability), that there are certain characteristics necessary to be a category member (necessary features), that category membership is due to an inherent underlying reality (inherence), and that the category is naturally occurring rather than socially constructed (naturalness; Gelman, 2003; Haslam & Ernst, 2002).

81 Many people hold essentialist beliefs about mental illness, believing that the disorder is caused by something inside the person that is core to their identity (Ahn, Flanagan, Marsh, & 82 83 Sanislow, 2006). This might be problematic as essentialist beliefs of mental illness affect both 84 stigmatization and views on treatment (Dar-Nimrod & Heine, 2011). One reason why people 85 might hold essentialist beliefs about mental illness is that explanations of mental illness 86 frequently attribute internal biological factors as the causes. This is not unique to mental illness 87 as in other domains people often appeal to an underlying biological cause such as the heart, other 88 organs, DNA, or blood to explain category membership (Balkcom, Alogna, Curtin, Halberstadt, 89 & Bering, 2019; Roberts & Gelman, 2015; Waxman, Medin, & Ross, 2007). Biological framing 90 of mental illness may also serve to activate essentialistist reasoning and lead to negative 91 outcomes such as stigma (Loughman & Haslam, 2018).

#### 92 Biology, Essentialism, and Perceived Treatment Efficacy

Biological explanations of mental illness influence people's beliefs about the efficacy of
treatment in general. Lebowitz, Rosenthal, and Ahn (2012) found that, when reading vignettes
about children with ADHD, reading a biological explanation of the disorder decreased stigma but
increased doubt about treatment efficacy. Additionally, Marsh and Romano (2016) found that
people often think that drug treatment would be more effective for symptoms perceived as
medically-based and that talk therapy would be more effective for symptoms perceived as

99 psychological in nature. Beliefs about the etiology of mental illness influence beliefs about what 100 kind of treatment is appropriate. That is, if the person believes that symptoms are due to an 101 internal, biological cause, they might perceive treatments that modify something inside the 102 person to be more effective. Yopchick and Kim (2009) found that when making judgements 103 about treatment efficacy, people consider the root cause of the mental illness to be most 104 important. If the root cause of the illness was described as biological, people believed that drug 105 therapy would be more effective, and if the root cause was described as psychological, they 106 believed psychotherapy would be more effective at treating the illness. Similarly, Lebowitz and 107 Appelbaum (2017) found that reading genetic explanations of addiction increased confidence in 108 pharmacotherapy and decreased confidence in psychotherapy. In addition, Phelan, Yang, and 109 Cruz-Rojas (2006) found that belief in a biological cause of mental illness was related to greater 110 endorsement of hospitalization and medication, but lower expectations that a mental health 111 professional could help treat the illness.

112 Although biological explanations of mental illness frequently attribute internal factors as 113 the cause of the illness, this need not be the case as individuals can hold essentialist beliefs about 114 non-biological categories (e.g., art; Gelman & Bloom, 2000). Therefore, it could be that 115 appealing to internal causes, without mentioning a biological cause, might promote an 116 essentialist view of mental illness. Appealing to an internal cause might also influence treatment 117 decisions (Kim & LoSavio, 2009). For example, Schroeder, Dawood, Yalch, Donnellan, and 118 Moser (2015) found that people who had an essentialist view were more likely to prefer 119 medication alone over psychotherapy or a combined treatment. If this is true, then describing 120 mental illnesses in essentialist terms might lead people to prefer treatments (such as medication) 121 that have effects internally, even if a biological cause is not mentioned in the explanation.

## Biology, Essentialism and Stigma

123 In addition to influencing beliefs about treatment, essentialist beliefs about mental illness 124 might also play a role in stigmatization (Dar-Nimrod & Heine, 2011). Stigmatization is the act of 125 distinguishing and labeling differences between humans, normally with a negative connotation, 126 and separating "us" and "them" based on those social differences (Link & Phelan, 2001). The 127 consequences of stigmatization are wide-ranging, including loss of self-esteem, job 128 discrimination, and avoidance of treatment (Rüsch, Angermeyer, & Corrigan, 2005). 129 Essentialist views about social categories such as race, gender, and sexual orientation 130 have been shown to be related to prejudice and stereotyping (Dar-Nimrod & Heine, 2011). 131 People who hold essentialist beliefs are more likely to support legislation that enhances 132 boundaries between social groups, and these beliefs can be manipulated by providing 133 information that either confirms or disconfirms the essentialist belief (Roberts, Ho, Rhodes, & 134 Gelman, 2017). Researchers have also found that people who hold essentialist beliefs about 135 mental illness have more stigmatizing attitudes about people with a mental illness (Howell, 136 Weikum, & Dyck, 2011). However, some studies have failed to find an association between 137 different sub-components of essentialism and stigmatization of individuals with mental illness 138 (Marsh & Shanks, 2014).

Biological explanations of mental illness and essentialist beliefs may interact in complex ways to influence stigmatization. Biological explanations of mental illness may reduce stigma by shifting the blame from the individual to biological factors outside of the individual's control. Indeed, Goldstein and Rosselli (2003) found that people who believe that depression is caused by biological factors were less likely to blame people with depression for their illness. However, biological explanations may increase the stigma towards people with a mental illness (Phelan,

#### ESSENTIALISM AND PERCEIVED TREATMENT EFFICACY

145 2002). For example, Walker and Read (2002) found that people who heard a biological 146 explanation of schizophrenia believed that people with schizophrenia were more dangerous and 147 unpredictable than those who heard a psychosocial (non-essentialist) explanation. Even in the 148 same studies there have been conflicting findings. For example, Breheny (2007) found that 149 providing a genetic explanation for schizophrenia decreased stigmatization, but that providing a 150 genetic explanation for depression increased stigmatization. These results suggest that the 151 relation between stigma and biological or essentialist explanations is complex, as biological 152 essentialist explanations could decrease some components of stigma (such as blame), but 153 increase others (such as social distancing; Haslam & Kvaale, 2015). Currently it is difficult to 154 predict when one of the outcomes will occur. One issue with the prior research is that many of 155 these studies combine essentialist and biological information. This combination makes it difficult 156 to pin point whether different types of information have either beneficial or negative effects. In 157 our study we hope to shed light on this relation by examining the effects of essentialist 158 information on its own.

### 159 Essentialism Among People with a Mental Illness

160 Most of the literature on essentialism and mental illness has focused on the beliefs of the 161 general public, but less attention has been given to how individuals with a mental illness respond 162 to essentialist explanations. People who have received psychiatric services have more accepting 163 attitudes towards others with a mental illness (Segal, Kotler, & Holschuh, 1991; Walker & Read 164 2002), and so might interpret essentialist information differently. It has been found that people 165 who belong to a stigmatized group often respond differently to essentialist information. For example, although essentialist views of sexual orientation (such as "born this way") relate to 166 167 lower stigma among heterosexual individuals (Haslam & Levy, 2006; Haslam, Rothschild, &

8

## ESSENTIALISM AND PERCEIVED TREATMENT EFFICACY

168	Ernst, 2002), essentialist views of sexual orientation have mixed effects among homosexual and
169	bisexual individuals (Morandini, Blaszczynski, Costa, Godwin, & Dar-Nimrod, 2017;
170	Morandini, Blaszczynski, Ross, Costa, & Dar-Nimrod, 2015; Morton & Postmes, 2009).
171	One important context in which people with a mental illness may encounter essentialist
172	information is the context of treatment. Biological explanations of psychological symptoms,
173	when viewed through an essentialist lens, may influence people's beliefs about the course and
174	treatment of their illness. In one study that examined the effects of biological explanations
175	among people with mental illness, Kemp, Lickel, and Deacon (2014) randomly assigned
176	individuals who have had a depressive episode to either being told that the episode was due to a
177	neurochemical imbalance (i.e., a biological explanation) or not. Participants who were told that
178	their depression was caused by a neurochemical imbalance displayed increased perceived stigma,
179	greater pessimism about their diagnosis and treatment, and lower perceived ability to regulate
180	their own negative mood states. These results suggest that biological explanations for mental
181	illness may negatively affect those who suffer from mental illnesses.
182	Similarly, past research has also demonstrated that people with depression who endorse
183	biological explanations for their symptoms display greater prognostic pessimism, the belief that
184	mental illnesses are likely to be stable over time and difficult or impossible to treat (Lebowitz,
185	Ahn, & Nolen-Hoeksema, 2013). This effect is not limited to depressive disorders; people with
186	generalized anxiety disorder who read a biological description of the etiology of the disorder felt
187	decreased personal responsibility for their symptoms but also displayed increased prognostic
188	pessimism (Lebowitz, Pyun, & Ahn, 2014). In the present studies, we examined whether people
189	with a mental illness responded differently to essentialist explanations, even when an underlying
190	biological cause was not mentioned. It is possible that people with a mental illness have greater

191 knowledge about mental illness and experience with treatment than the general population, so 192 they may interpret essentialist information differently. Having greater knowledge about 193 treatment may make someone more resistant to the negative effects of essentialist framings of

194 mental illness.

195 **Present Studies** 

196 In this article we present three studies examining whether essentialism is causally related 197 to the perceived effectiveness of different treatments and to people's stigmatization towards 198 individuals with mental illness. In the present studies, we presented adults with different 199 vignettes about an individual with an artificial mental illness to examine how essentialist beliefs 200 influence their views on treatment effectiveness and stigmatization. We used artificial mental 201 illnesses in order to more easily manipulate participants' perception of the illness (either 202 essentialist or not). We manipulated the vignettes by emphasizing essentialist-consistent, 203 essentialist-inconsistent, or neutral aspects of the mental illnesses. Critically, none of the 204 vignettes made explicit reference to biology or internal causes in order to isolate the effect of 205 essentialist framing on people's beliefs about treatment efficacy and stigmatization.

206 Rather than asking participants whether they have been diagnosed with a specific 207 disorder (e.g., depression), we simply asked participants whether they have even been diagnosed 208 with a disorder. As participants were judging novel disorders, we did not believe that any 209 specific diagnosis would be more informative than another. We hypothesized that when 210 participants read essentialist-consistent vignettes they would perceive drug treatment to be more 211 effective and talk therapy to be less effective than when reading essentialist-inconsistent 212 descriptions. We also predicted that people with a mental illness would believe that both drug 213 treatment and talk therapy would be more effective than people without a mental illness. In

214	addition, we hypothesized that highlighting essentialist-consistent aspects would increase
215	stigmatization, as shown by participants' greater desire to distance themselve socially from the
216	individual with the disorder. Finally, we hypothesized that people with a mental illness would
217	have less stigmatizing attitudes than people without a mental illness.
218	STUDY 1
219	Method
220	Participants
221	Participants included 196 adults who completed the study online through Amazon
222	Mechanical Turk (MTurk), an online platform where participants can complete tasks such as
223	participating in research. Twenty-eight participants were removed from analysis due to
224	inattention (failing two attention checks), resulting in a final sample of 168 participants. The
225	final sample included 106 men, 61 women, and 1 nonbinary gender participants. The mean age
226	was 32.5 years ( $SD = 7.82$ ). The sample included 98 White/European American, 22 Asian/Asian
227	American, 4 Hispanic/Latinx, 22 Black/African American, 13 American Indian/Alaska Native,
228	and 9 multiracial participants. Forty-five participants reported having a diagnosed mental illness.
229	Design
230	We used a two condition, between groups design. We presented two vignettes to each
231	participant. The vignette included a description of the disorder followed by a social distancing
232	scale, and questions about perceived treatment efficacy (more details below). The first disorder
233	was always essentialist-neutral. We used this neutral vignette to get a baseline measure of
234	participants' stigmatization and perceived treatment effectiveness. The second disorder could be
235	either essentialist-consistent or essentialist-inconsistent.
236	Materials

Vignettes. The vignettes were based on descriptions of artificial mental disorders
developed by Marsh and Shanks (2014). They were modified to describe a single person using
gender-neutral names. Each vignette named an individual, provided a name for the disorder they
had, and listed four symptoms of the disorder. The vignettes also included information that
emphasized essentialist-consistent, essentialist-inconsistent, or neutral aspects of the disorder.
These descriptions were of approximately equal length (see Appendix A).

Social Distance Scale. After viewing each vignette, participants responded to the Social Distance Scale (Link, Phelan, Bresnahan, Stueve, & Pescosolido, 1999). This scale involves participants rating from 1 (*definitely willing*) to 4 (*definitely unwilling*) how willing they would be to move next door to the person in the vignette, to spend an evening socializing with the person, to make friends with the person, and to have the person marry into the family. This measure showed high internal consistency ( $\alpha = .85$ ). Social distance scales are widely used to measure stigma (Link, Yang, Phelan, & Collins, 2004).

250 Perceived Treatment Efficacy. Participants answered two questions about treatment
251 effectiveness, "How effective will drug treatment be at treating the disorder?" and "How
252 effective will talk therapy be at treating the disorder?" Responses were given on a scale from 1
253 (*extremely ineffective*) to 7 (*extremely effective*).

Essentialist Beliefs Scale. Participants completed the Essentialist Beliefs Scale (Haslam, Rothschild, & Ernst, 2000) for each vignette. This scale consists of nine questions assessing beliefs about individual sub-constructs of essentialism. We modified the scale to include examples in order to increase the clarity of the questions. Responses were on a scale from 1 - 9, with some items reverse-coded (see Appendix B). This scale serves as a manipulation check, to examine whether our descriptions in the vignettes influenced participants' beliefs about eachdisorder as intended.

Social Desirability Scale. Participants completed the Reynolds (1982) Short Form C, one of the most widely used versions of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. Short Form C includes 9 questions that examine whether participants may be untruthfully responding in order to provide more socially desirable answers. Responses were in a true – false format, with some of the items reverse-coded (see Appendix C). This scale was included to examine whether or not social desirability played a role in participants' responses to the Social Distance Scale.

267 **Procedure** 

268 Participants viewed two vignettes. We randomized the order of the disorders, such that 269 each disorder was equally likely to appear first or second. The first vignette was always 270 essentialist-neutral (control). The second was either an essentialist-consistent or essentialist-271 inconsistent vignette depending on the condition the participant was randomly assigned to. After 272 each vignette, participants completed the Social Distance Scale, the questions about treatment 273 efficacy, and the Essentialist Beliefs Scale. After reading and responding to both vignettes, 274 participants completed the Social Desirability Scale and a demographics section that included 275 whether or not the participant had ever been diagnosed with a mental illness.

276

#### Results

We used four separate general linear models to analyze participants' EBS scores, perceived drug effectiveness, perceived therapy effectiveness, and stigma scores. We included framing condition, mental illness diagnosis, baseline measure (e.g., EBS, drug effectiveness, therapy effectiveness, or stigma for the first disorder, where appropriate), and social desirability as predictors. We also included an interaction between essentialist framing and mental illness diagnosis. We first present the results for the EBS, then for perceived therapy effectiveness, andfinally stigma.

284 EBS

285 We used the EBS as a manipulation check. As hypothesized, we found that participants 286 that saw the essentialist-consistent framing had higher EBS scores (showing more essentialist 287 reasoning; M = 6.04, SD = 0.84) than participants that saw the essentialist-inconsistent framing 288 (M = 5.08, SD = 0.85), t(153) = 7.29, p < .001. This suggests that our manipulation worked as 289 intended and participants that read the essentialist-consistent framing essentialized the disorder 290 more than those who read the essentialist-inconsistent framing. We also found an effect of 291 baseline EBS, such that those that had higher EBS scores (i.e. greater essentialist beliefs about 292 categories in general) at baseline still had higher scores after reading the essentialist-consistent or 293 essentialist-inconsistent framing, t(153) = 3.11, p = .002. We did not find any other effects or 294 interactions, including those for mental illness diagnosis.

295 Drug Therapy Effectiveness

296 As hypothesized, participants who saw the disorder with the essentialist-consistent framing thought that drug treatment would be more effective (M = 4.87, SD = 1.19) than 297 298 participants who saw the disorder with the essentialist-inconsistent framing (M = 4.35, SD =299 1.30), t(153) = 3.75, p < .001. Contrary to our hypothesis, there was no effect of mental illness diagnosis, t(153) = -0.95, p = .343. There was an effect of baseline drug effectiveness, such that 300 301 participants that thought drug treatment was effective at baseline still thought it would be 302 effective after the manipulation, t(153) = 5.15, p < .001. There was an effect of stigma, such that 303 participants with high stigma scores thought that drug therapy would be less effective than

304 participants with low stigma scores. t(153) = -2.23, p = .027. No other effects or interactions

305 were significant, including mental illness diagnosis. See Figure 1.

**306 Talk Therapy Effectiveness** 

307 Contrary to our hypothesis, participants who saw the disorder with the essentialist-308 consistent framing did not differ in perceived effectiveness of talk therapy from participants who 309 saw the disorder with the essentialist-inconsistent framing, t(153) = 0.10, p = .917. As 310 hypothesized, there was an effect of mental illness diagnosis, in that individuals with a mental 311 illness diagnosis thought talk therapy was more effective (M = 4.47, SD = 1.52) than those without a diagnosis (M = 4.32, SD = 1.40), t(153) = 2.03, p = .044. There was an effect of 312 313 baseline therapy effectiveness, such that participants that thought talk therapy was effective at 314 baseline still thought it would be effective after the manipulation, t(153) = 5.79, p < .001. No 315 other effects or interactions were significant. See Figure 1. 316 Stigma

Contrary to hypothesis, reading an essentialist-consistent or essentialist-inconsistent 317 318 framing for a mental illness did not lead to differences in stigma scores, t(154) = 0.47, p = .639. 319 As hypothesized, we found a main effect of mental illness diagnosis, t(154) = -4.09, p < .001. 320 Individuals with a mental illness diagnosis had lower stigma scores (M = 1.95, SD = 0.67) than 321 those without a diagnosis (M = 2.59, SD = 0.70). We also found an effect of baseline stigma, such that participants with high stigma at baseline also had high stigma scores after the 322 323 manipulation, t(154) = 7.06, p < .001. No other effects or interactions were significant. See 324 Figure 1.





*Figure 1.* Participant judgements for drug therapy effectiveness (top panel), talk therapy
effectiveness (middle panel), and stigma (bottom panel). The x-axis shows whether or not

participants reported having a mental illness diagnosis. The left column presents the results for
Study 1 (*n*=168), the middle column presents the results for the first manipulated disorder of
Study 2 (*n*=246), and the right column presented the results for the first manipulated disorder of
Study 3 (*n*=103). Error bars represent the between-subject standard error of the point estimate. **Discussion**

334 The results of this study suggest that essentialist framing influences people's views on the 335 effectiveness of drug therapy. However, we did not find evidence that essentialist framing 336 influenced perceived talk therapy effectiveness or stigma. This lack of effects is not due to a 337 weak manipulation of essentialist beliefs as the EBS showed that our manipulation did influence 338 how participants essentialized the disorders. In addition, people diagnosed with a mental illness 339 reported lower levels of stigma toward the person in the vignette. It is possible that people who 340 have been diagnosed with a mental illness are more compassionate towards other individuals 341 with mental illnesses because of their own personal experiences with mental illness and 342 stigmatization.

343 Participants who read an essentialist-consistent vignette believed drug therapy would be 344 more effective than participants who read an essentialist-inconsistent vignette. This might be 345 because the essentialist framing suggested that there was a single, discrete biological cause 346 behind the mental illness (even though no cause was explicitly mentioned). Participants might 347 believe that a treatment option that addresses underlying biology might have been more 348 effective. People who read the essentialist-inconsistent framing were not cued towards an 349 underlying biological cause and thus did not perceive the drug treatment to be as effective. This 350 result supports the link between essentialist models of mental illness and treatment choices.

351	We also found that people who had been diagnosed with a mental illness thought that talk
352	therapy would be more effective than people who had not been diagnosed with a mental illness.
353	This could be due to positive personal experiences with talk therapy or might reflect a more
354	hopeful view toward treatment in general.
355	Presenting people with an essentialist framing seemed to lead them to think of the mental
356	illness in an essentialist manner. Some research suggests that interventions, such as the use of
357	generic language, that lead people to essentialize categories still have an effect even after they
358	are explicitly contradicted (Foster-Hanson, Leslie, & Rhodes, 2019). In our study, this would be
359	the equivalent of showing participants first an essentialist-consistent framing followed by an
360	essentialist-inconsistent framing. Therefore, in Study 2 we randomly assigned participants to see
361	first an essentialist-consistent or essentialist-inconsistent framing followed by the opposite
362	framing. This design allows us to examine whether people's essentialist beliefs about mental
363	illness can be changed in the moment depending on which framing they encounter or if the first
364	framing shaped their reasoning throughout the study (even if they receive conflicting information

later on).

#### STUDY 2

In this study, participants first saw a disorder with neutral framing, and then saw a
disorder with either the essentialist-consistent or the essentialist-inconsistent framing. This study
serves as a replication of Study 1. Then, participants saw a disorder with the opposite framing
and a disorder with neutral framing to examine whether participants' beliefs change if they see a
contradictory framing.

372

Method

373 Participants

374	There were 306 participants in Study 2, recruited online through Amazon Mechanical
375	Turk. Sixty participants were removed from analysis because they failed attention checks built
376	into the survey, resulting in a final sample of 246 participants. This final sample included 167
377	men and 77 women participants (2 individuals did not respond). The mean age was 31.27 years
378	(SD = 7.64). The sample included 138 White/European American, 39 Asian/Asian American, 11
379	Hispanic/Latinx, 43 Black/African American, 4 American Indian/Alaska Native, and 11
380	multiracial participants. Sixty-one participants reported having a diagnosed mental illness.
381	Design
382	We used a pre-intervention-post design with framing as a within-groups variable and
383	order of the framings as a between groups variable. We presented four disorders to each
384	participant. As in Study 1, the first disorder was always essentialist-neutral in order to tap into
385	participants' baseline stigma and perceived treatment effectiveness. For the second disorder,
386	participants were randomly assigned to see an essentialist-consistent or an essentialist-
387	inconsistent framing. For the third disorder, participants saw the opposite framing. The final
388	disorder was essentialist-neutral and was used to see if there were lasting effects.
389	Materials
390	All materials were identical to Study 1, except that participants saw four vignettes instead
391	of two.
392	Procedure
393	Participants viewed four vignettes in Study 2. The first and last were always neutral
394	vignettes. The second and third were either essentialist-consistent or essentialist-inconsistent
395	vignettes. The order in which the disorders were presented was randomized across participants.
396	After each vignette, participants completed the Social Distance Scale, the questions about

treatment efficacy, and the Essentialist Beliefs Scale. After reading and responding to all

398 vignettes, participants completed the Social Desirability Scale and a demographics section.

399

#### Results

400 We used a similar analytic approach as used in Study 1. We included the baseline 401 measures in all the models for later vignettes. We first present the results for the EBS, then for 402 perceived drug effectiveness, followed by perceived therapy effectiveness, and finally stigma. 403 For each outcome measure, we present a replication of the findings in Study 1 and an extension 404 of these results. For the replication of Study 1, we analyze participants' responses to the second 405 disorder (which is the first time they encounter the framings). For the extension, we analyze their 406 responses to the third and fourth disorders. When looking at the fourth disorder (which had the 407 same framing for all participants), we examined if there were any differences between those who 408 first saw the essentialist-consistent framing or the essentialist-inconsistent framing.

409 EBS

410 Study 1 replication. As in Study 1, we found that our manipulation worked as intended 411 with participants that read the essentialist-consistent framing having higher EBS scores (M =412 5.85, SD = 0.73) than participants who read the essentialist-inconsistent framing (M = 5.34, SD =413 0.87), t(225) = 5.16, p < .001. We also found that those with higher baseline EBS still had high 414 EBS scores after the manipulation, t(225) = 6.12, p < .001. No other effects or interactions were 415 significant, including the effect of mental illness diagnosis.

416 *Extension.* When participants read the opposite framing, we found that those who read 417 the essentialist-consistent framing had higher EBS scores (M = 5.86, SD = 0.77) than those who 418 read the essentialist-inconsistent framing (M = 5.24, SD = 0.81), t(225) = 6.12, p < .001. For the 419 last disorder (when there was no difference in framing), we did not find an effect of which

420 essentialist framing participants saw first on EBS scores, t(225) = -1.16, p = .248. This suggests 421 that our framing did influence people's essentialist beliefs in the moment. Additionally, we 422 found that baseline EBS predicted EBS scores for the third and fourth disorders, t(225) = 5.74, p423 < .001, and t(225) = 8.40, p < .001 respectively. No other effects were significant, including the 424 effect of mental illness diagnosis.

#### 425 Drug Therapy Effectiveness

426 Study 1 replication. As in the previous study, participants who read the disorder with the 427 essentialist-consistent framing thought that drug treatment would be more effective (M = 5.10, 428 SD = 1.14) than participants who read the disorder with the essentialist-inconsistent framing (M 429 = 4.76, SD = 1.35), t(225) = 2.40, p = .017. We also replicated the effect of baseline drug 430 effectiveness, such that individuals who thought drug treatments were effective at baseline still 431 thought they were effective after the manipulation, t(225) = 7.84, p < .001. As in Study 1, we 432 found that higher stigma was related to lower perceived effectiveness of drug therapy, t(225) = -3.17, p = .002. We also found an effect of social desirability, such that higher social desirability 433 was related to higher perceived effectiveness of drug therapy, t(225) = 3.07, p = .002. There was 434 435 no effect of mental illness diagnosis. See Figure 1.

*Extension.* Surprisingly, when participants read the opposite framing, we did not find an effect of essentialist framing, t(225) = -0.93, p = .353. There was also no effect in the final disorder (when there was no difference in framing), t(225) = 1.12, p = .262. We found the same effect of baseline drug effectiveness such that participants that thought drug treatments were effective at baseline still thought they would be effective for the third and fourth disorder, t(225)= 9.32, p < .001 and t(225) = 8.77, p < .001. We also found the same effect of social desirability for the third disorder, t(219) = 2.59, p = .010. No other effects or interactions were significant, including the effect of mental illness diagnosis.

444 Given that we did not find an effect of our manipulation after the first exposure, we 445 decided to conduct an exploratory analysis. It could be that once participants receive the first 446 manipulation, they set their beliefs about the effectiveness of drug therapies for the remainder of 447 the study, but that the effects weaken over time. This would mean that the first manipulation has an effect on the perceived effectiveness of drug therapy and the effect gets smaller with 448 449 subsequent framings. To test this hypothesis we fitted a linear mixed-effects model predicting the 450 perceived effectiveness of drug therapy from whether participants saw the essentialist-consistent 451 (coded 0.5) or the essentialist-inconsistent (coded -0.5) framing first, trial (mean-centered), the 452 interaction between first condition and trial, mental illness diagnosis, perceived effectiveness of 453 drug treatment at baseline, and social desirability. We also included a by-subject random 454 intercept and a by-subject random slope for the effect of trial (and allowed them to correlate). 455 We used a Kenward-Rogers approximation to calculate the degrees of freedom. 456 We found an overall effect of condition, such that participants who saw the essentialist-457 consistent framing first perceived drug therapy as more effective through the remainder of the 458 study than those who read the essentialist-inconsistent framing first, F(1, 227) = 5.34, p = .022. 459 Although Figure 2 shows that this effect weakens over time, we did not find an initial condition 460 by trial interaction, F(1, 230) = 1.44, p = .231. There was also no overall effect of trial, F(1, 230)= 0.81, p = .368. We found the same effect of baseline drug effectiveness, F(1, 227) = 151.42, p461 < .001, and social desirability, F(1, 227) = 11.06, p = .001. We did not find an effect of mental 462 illness diagnosis, F(1, 227) = 2.59, p = .109. 463

22



464

*Figure 2.* Model predictions showing the effect of condition on drug effectiveness for each disorder (i.e. trial). The second disorder was the first time that participants received the manipulation. In the third disorders participants received the opposite manipulation. In the fourth disorder participants received no manipulation. Error bars represent the within-subject standard error of the point estimate.

470 Talk Therapy Effectiveness

471 *Study 1 replication.* As in Study 1, we did not find an effect of essentialist framing on 472 talk therapy effectiveness, t(225) = 0.86, p = .393. As in the previous study, we found that 473 participants that thought talk therapy was effective at baseline still thought it was effective after

474	the manipulation, $t(225) = 10.42$ , $p < .001$ . There was also an effect of stigma, $t(225) = -3.96$ , $p < -0.001$ .
475	.001. No other effects were significant, including the effect of mental illness diagnosis. See
476	Figure 1.

477	Extension. We did not find an effect of essentialist framing on talk therapy effectiveness
478	for the third disorder, $t(225) = 0.23$ , $p = .082$ . There was also no effect in the final disorder
479	(when there was no difference in framing), $t(225) = -0.32$ , $p = .751$ . We found an effect of
480	baseline talk therapy effectiveness such that participants that thought talk therapy was effective
481	at baseline still thought it would be effective for the third and fourth disorder, $t(225) = 9.84$ , $p < 100$
482	.001 and $t(225) = 7.40$ , $p < .001$ respectively. We also saw an effect of stigma for both the third
483	and fourth disorders, $t(225) = -3.00$ , $p = .003$ and $t(225) = -3.60$ , $p < .001$ respectively. No other
484	effects were significant, including the effects of mental illness diagnosis.

485 Stigma

486 Study 1 replication. As in Study 1, we did not find an effect of essentialist framing, t(226) 487 = 0.58, p = .560. We also found that those with higher baseline stigma still had high levels of 488 stigma after the manipulation, t(226) = 12.46, p < .001. No other effects were significant, 489 including the effect of mental illness diagnosis. See Figure 1. 490 Extension. We did not find an effect of essentialist framing on stigma for either the third disorder, t(226) = 1.51, p = .133, or fourth disorder, t(226) = 1.34, p = .180. We found the same 491 effect of stigma for the third and fourth disorder, t(226) = 13.98, p < .001, and t(226) = 15.21, p 492 493 < .001 respectively. No other effects were significant, including the effect of mental illness 494 diagnosis.

495

### Discussion

This study replicates the finding that using an essentialist framing for mental illnesses leads participants to believe that drug therapy will be more effective. However, this was only the case the first time participants read about the disorder. We did not find this relation for stigma or perceived effectiveness of talk therapy. We did not find that any of the effects depended on whether participants had a mental illness.

501 There was no effect of framing when participants were exposed to the opposite framing 502 in the third disorder. This is surprising because our analysis of the EBS scores suggests that the 503 framing did lead to differences in participants' essentialist beliefs. Our exploratory analysis 504 suggests that participants were influenced by whichever framing they saw first, as those who saw 505 the essentialist-consistent framing first still thought drug therapy was more effective after 506 encountering the opposite framing. The effects of the essentialist-consistent framing degraded 507 over time. The fact that only the first framing was effective suggests that maybe repeated 508 exposure (even to the same framing) does not make a difference. We examine this possibility in 509 Study 3.

510

#### STUDY 3

To test whether repeated exposure to the same framing produces the same effects or whether the framing is only relevant on the first exposure, in Study 3 we utilized a betweengroups design so that participants did not see both essentialist-consistent and essentialistinconsistent information in the vignettes. In Study 2, the framing that was first presented to participants seemed to influence how they responded to the subsequent vignettes. This might be because the within-groups design highlighted the essentialist language, or it could be due to the first manipulated vignette shaping how participants think about mental illness for the duration of

518	the study. Given the order effects that occurred in Study 2, Study 3 used a between-participants
519	design in order to examine the order effect more closely.
520	Method
521	Participants
522	Participants included 111 undergraduate students enrolled in an introductory psychology
523	course at a large Mid-Western university who participated for extra-credit in the course. Eight
524	participants were removed from analysis because they failed attention checks in the survey,
525	resulting in a final sample of 103 participants. This final sample included 39 men and 64 women.
526	The mean age was 19.1 years ( $SD = 1.53$ ). The sample included 63 White/European American,
527	28 Asian/Asian American, 5 Hispanic/Latinx, 3 Black/African American, and 4 multiracial
528	participants. Sixteen participants reported having a mental illness diagnosis.
529	Design
530	We used a pre-intervention-post design with a between-groups manipulation. Participants
531	saw four disorders. The first disorder served as baseline and was always essentialist-neutral.
532	Participants were randomly assigned to see either essentialist-consistent or essentialist-
533	inconsistent framings for the second and third disorder. The final disorder was also essentialist-
534	neutral.
535	Materials
536	Vignettes, Social Distance Scale, and perceived treatment efficacy questions were
537	identical to Studies 1 and 2. However, in order to simplify our analysis, we did not include the
538	EBS or the Social Desirability Scale.
539	Procedure

540	Participants viewed a total of four vignettes in Study 3. Participants all viewed two
541	neutral vignettes, and either two essentialist-consistent or two essentialist-inconsistent vignettes
542	depending on the condition they were randomly assigned to. The first and last vignettes
543	presented were always essentialist-neutral vignettes. The second and third vignettes presented
544	were always either essentialist-consistent or essentialist-inconsistent vignettes. After each
545	vignette, participants completed the Social Distance Scale and questions about treatment
546	effectiveness. After reading and responding to all four vignettes, participants answered
547	demographic questions.
548	Results
549	We used the same analytic approach as the previous studies, except that we did not
550	include social desirability in the models as participants did not complete that measure in this
551	study. For each outcome we first present the result for the first time participants see the framing
552	as this is a replication of Study 1. Then, we present the extension of the findings. For the
553	replication of Study 1, we analyze participants' responses to the second disorder (which is the
554	first time they encounter the framings). For the extension, we analyze their responses to the third
555	and fourth disorders. When looking at the effects of framing on the fourth disorder (which had
556	the same framing for all participants), we looked at the effect of the framing they saw on the
557	previous two disorders.
558	Drug Therapy Effectiveness
559	Replication. Surprisingly, we did not find that participants who read the essentialist-
560	consistent framing thought that drug treatment would be more effective ( $M = 4.83$ , $SD = 1.08$ )

than participants who read the essentialist-inconsistent framing (M = 4.08, SD = 1.47), t(92) =

562 1.46, p = .146. However, the means were in the direction consistent with the findings from the

other studies. We replicated the effect of baseline drug effectiveness, such that participants that thought drug treatment was effective at baseline still thought that drug treatment was effective after the manipulation, t(92) = 2.89, p = .005. No other effects were significant, including the effect of mental illness diagnosis. See Figure 1.

*Extension.* We did not find any evidence that the framing manipulation had any effect when participants read it again in the third disorder, t(92) = 0.75, p = .455, or when they saw no framing in the final disorder, t(92) = 0.49, p = .626. We found the same effect of baseline drug effectiveness for the third disorder, t(92) = 2.38, p = .020, but not for the fourth disorder, t(92) =1.88, p = .063. For the fourth disorder, we found that participants that had a mental illness diagnosis thought drug therapy was more effective (M = 4.43, SD = 1.20) than those without a

573 diagnosis (M = 5.19, SD = 1.17), t(92) = 2.06, p = .042. No other effects were significant.

574 Once again, we examined whether the effect of the initial framing decreased over time. 575 To test this effect we fitted a linear mixed-effects model predicting the perceived effectiveness of 576 drug therapy from condition (coded -0.5 for essentialist-inconsistent and 0.5 for essentialist-577 consistent), trial (mean-centered), the interaction between condition and trial, mental illness 578 diagnosis, and perceived effectiveness of drug at baseline. We also included a by-subject random 579 intercept and a by-subject random slope for the effect of trial (and allowed the two to correlate). 580 We used a Kenward-Rogers approximation to calculate the degrees of freedom. As in Study 2, 581 we found an effect of framing across all trials, such that participants who saw the essentialist-582 consistent framing continued to perceive drug therapy as more effective through the remainder of 583 the study than those who read the essentialist-inconsistent framing, F(1, 94.01) = 5.00, p = .028. 584 As can be seen in Figure 3, once again, we did not find a condition by trial interaction, F(1, 96) =585 2.07, p = .154. There was also no overall effect of trial, F(1, 96) = 0.35, p = .555. We found the

same effect of baseline drug effectiveness, F(1, 94) = 10.72, p = .001. We did not find an effect of mental illness diagnosis, F(1, 94) = 2.07, p = .785.

### 588 Talk Therapy Effectiveness

*Replication.* In line with our initial hypothesis but contrary to the other previous studies, we found that participants who read the essentialist-consistent framing perceived talk therapy as less effective (M = 4.37, SD = 1.37) than participants who read the essentialist-inconsistent framing (M = 5.12, SD = 1.26), t(92) = -2.01, p = .048. We replicated the effect of baseline therapy effectiveness, such that participants that thought talk therapy was effective at baseline still thought it was effective after the manipulation, t(92) = 4.29, p < .001. No other effects or interactions were significant, including the effect of mental illness diagnosis. See Figure 1.

*Extension.* We did not find an effect of essentialist framing on the perceived effectiveness of talk therapy for either the third or fourth disorders, t(92) = -1.02, p = .309 and t(92) = -1.00, p= .318 respectively. We found an effect of baseline therapy effectiveness for the third disorder, t(92) = 3.46, p = .001, but not the fourth, t(92) = 1.97, p = .051. No other effects were significant, including the effect of mental illness diagnosis.

601 Given that we found an effect of framing on the first disorder, we conducted an 602 exploratory analysis to see if the effect weakened over time. We fitted a linear mixed-effects 603 model predicting the perceived effectiveness of talk therapy from condition (coded -0.5 for 604 essentialist-inconsistent and 0.5 for essentialist-consistent), trial (mean-centered), the interaction 605 between condition and trial, mental illness diagnosis, and perceived effectiveness of talk therapy 606 at baseline. We also included a by-subject random intercept and a by-subject random slope for 607 the effect of trial (and allowed the two to correlate). We used a Kenward-Rogers approximation 608 to calculate the degrees of freedom. We did not find an overall effect of framing across all trials,

609	F(1, 94) = 2.67, p = .106, or trial, $F(1, 96) = 2.66, p = .106$ . However, we found a condition by
610	trial interaction, $F(1, 96) = 4.83$ , $p = .030$ . As can be seen in Figure 3, reading the essentialist-
611	consistent framing led participants to perceive talk therapy as less effective than those who read
612	the essentialist-inconsistent framing, but this effect rapidly disappeared over time. We found the
613	same effect of baseline talk therapy effectiveness, $F(1, 94) = 18.48$ , $p < .001$ . We did not find an
614	effect of mental illness diagnosis, $F(1, 94) = 0.95$ , $p = .331$ .



615

Figure 3. Model predictions showing the effect of condition on drug effectiveness (left panel)
and talk therapy effectiveness (right panel) for each disorder (i.e. trial). In the fourth disorder
participants received no manipulation. Error bars represent the within-subject standard error of

619 the point estimate.

## 620 Stigma

621 *Replication.* As in the previous studies, we did not find an effect of essentialist framing, 622 t(93) = 0.31, p = .754. We did find an effect of baseline stigma, such that those with high levels

623	of stigma at baseline still had high levels after the manipulation, $t(93) = 7.29$ , $p < .001$ . No other
624	effects were significant, including the effect of mental illness diagnosis. See Figure 1.
625	Extension. We did not find an effect of essentialist framing on stigma for the third or
626	fourth disorders, $t(93) = 0.22$ , $p = .826$ and $t(93) = 0.37$ , $p = .715$ respectively. We did find the
627	same effect of baseline stigma for both disorders, $t(93) = 8.58$ , $p < .001$ and $t(93) = 6.66$ , $p < .001$
628	.001 for the third and fourth disorder respectively. No other effects were significant, including
629	the effect of mental illness diagnosis.
630	Discussion
631	We did not find that the essentialist-consistent framing significantly increased
632	participants' perceived effectiveness of drug therapy when they first encounter it. However, we
633	did find that, across all the trials, those who saw the essentialist-consistent framing thought that
634	drug therapy was more effective than those who saw the essentialist-inconsistent framing.

635 Additionally, participants who read the essentialist-consistent framing thought that talk therapy

636 would be less effective than people who read the essentialist-inconsistent framing. Participants

637 might have thought that talk therapy would be less effective as it does not alter any internal

structures. However, given that this is the only study in which we found an effect for the 639 effectiveness of talk therapy, and this study has the smallest sample size, this effect might not be

640 reliable. This study, along with the results of Study 2, suggest that framing mental illnesses in an

641 essentialist manner has an effect when participants first encounter it and then the effect fades

642 over time. In line with the previous two studies, this study suggests that essentialist language

643 does not affect stigma (as measured by social distancing).

644

638

### **Combined Analysis**

645 It is possible that we did not find an interaction between framing and mental illness 646 diagnosis because of the low number of participants with a mental illness diagnosis in each 647 study. Additionally, we wanted to check whether finding the predicted effect of framing on talk 648 therapy was spurious or if the effect is small, and so we only found it once. In this section, we 649 combine data from all three studies to test if this is the case. Combining all participants means 650 we have a sample of 368 participants without a mental illness diagnosis and 122 participants 651 with a diagnosis. We first examine whether our two populations had differences at baseline. 652 Then, we analyze the data from the second disorder (where participants first encounter the 653 manipulation) to see if our results change with more power.

#### 654 Baseline Disorder

655 We ran 3 general linear models— one predicting drug therapy effectiveness, one 656 predicting talk therapy effectiveness, and one predicting stigma. We used population 657 (undergraduate students coded as -0.5 and MTurk workers coded as 0.5), mental illness 658 diagnosis, their interaction. We found that MTurk workers (M = 4.76, SD = 1.25) thought that 659 drug therapy would be more effective than undergraduates (M = 4.34, SD = 1.21), t(486) = 2.08, p = .038. People who reported having a mental illness diagnosis (M = 5.02, SD = 1.19) thought 660 661 that drug therapy would be more effective than those who reported not having a diagnosis (M =662 4.55, SD = 1.28), t(486) = 2.38, p = .018. There were no differences between our two populations in perceived effectiveness of talk therapy, t(486) = -0.60, p = .545, or stigma, t(486) = 0.73, p = .545663 664 .465. There was also no effect of mental illness diagnosis for either talk therapy effectiveness, 665 t(486) = 1.65, p = .100, or stigma, t(486) = -0.69, p = .491. The interaction between population 666 and mental illness diagnosis was not significant in any of the analyses.

667 Manipulation

668	We ran 3 general linear models— one predicting drug therapy effectiveness, one
669	predicting talk therapy effectiveness, and one predicting stigma. We used framing condition,
670	mental illness diagnosis, their interaction, and baseline ratings as predictors.
671	Drug Therapy Effectiveness. We found that participants who saw the essentialist-
672	consistent framing (M = 4.97, SD = 1.15) thought drug therapy would be more effective than
673	those who read the essentialist-inconsistent framing (M = 4.49, SD = 1.38), $t(485) = 4.50$ , $p < 1.50$
674	.001. We did not find an effect of mental illness diagnosis on perceived effectiveness of drug
675	therapy, $t(485) = -0.11$ , $p = .909$ . There was no interaction, $t(485) = 0.80$ , $p = .426$ . We found an
676	effect of baseline drug effectiveness, $t(485) = 10.42$ , $p < .001$ . See Figure 4.
677	Talk Therapy Effectiveness. We did not find an effect of framing on perceived
678	effectiveness of talk therapy, $t(485) = -0.36$ , $p = .720$ . We did find that participants with a mental
679	illness diagnosis ( $M = 4.99$ , $SD = 1.46$ ) thought that talk therapy would be more effective than
680	participants without a diagnosis ( $M = 4.56$ , $SD = 1.45$ ), $t(485) = 2.78$ , $p = .014$ . There was no
681	interaction, $t(485) = 0.12$ , $p = .904$ . We found an effect of baseline talk therapy effectiveness,
682	t(485) = 12.98, p < .001. See Figure 4.
683	<i>Stigma</i> . We did not find an effect of framing on stigma, $t(485) = 0.71$ , $p = .476$ . We did
684	find that participants with a mental illness diagnosis ( $M = 2.15$ , $SD = 0.73$ ) had lower stigma
685	scores that participants without a diagnosis ( $M = 2.45$ , $SD = 0.73$ ), $t(485) = -3.25$ , $p = .001$ .
686	There was no interaction, $t(485) = -0.78$ , $p = .437$ . We found an effect of baseline stigma, $t(485)$

687 = 16.36, p < .001. See Figure 4.



689 *Figure 4.* Participant judgements for drug therapy effectiveness (top panel), talk therapy

690 effectiveness (middle panel), and stigma (bottom panel) for the combined analysis of all studies.

691 The x-axis shows whether or not participants reported having a mental illness diagnosis. Error

bars represent the between-subject standard error of the point estimate.

## 693 Mediation analysis

694 Given that we found a reliable effect of condition on the perceived effectiveness of drug 695 therapy, we now explore whether this change is in fact due to our manipulation changing

696	participants' essentialist beliefs about mental illness. To do this, we conducted a mediation
697	analysis examining whether the effect of condition on perceived effectiveness of drug therapy is
698	mediated by participants' scores on the EBS. We fit a path model predicting EBS scores from
699	framing condition, and perceived effectiveness from both the EBS and framing condition. We
700	only included 414 participants from Study 1 and 2 because participants in Study 3 did not
701	complete the EBS. We followed the recommendations of Preacher and Hayes (2004) and ran
702	10,000 simulations and we tested the indirect effect using nonparametric percentile
703	bootstrapping.

704 As before, we found that the essentialist-consistent framing led to higher perceived 705 effectiveness of drug therapy, b = 0.41, 95% CI = 0.17, 0.66. Additionally, the essentialist-706 consistent framing led to higher EBS scores, b = 0.69, 95% CI = 0.53, 0.85. When controlling for 707 framing condition, higher EBS scores were also related to higher perceived effectiveness of drug 708 therapy, b = 0.28, 95% CI = 0.13, 0.44. After controlling for EBS score there was no effect of the 709 framing condition, b = 0.13, 95% CI = -0.04, 0.47. The indirect effect of framing condition on 710 perceived effectiveness of drug therapy through EBS scores was significant as the bootstrap 711 confidence interval does not include 0, b = 0.20, 95% CI = 0.09, 0.32. This indirect effect 712 represents 48.2% of the total effect of condition on perceived drug effectiveness. Therefore, our 713 data is consistent with the mediational model in which framing had an impact on perceived 714 effectiveness of drugs because it changed participants' essentialist beliefs. 715 **General Discussion** 

Essentialist language played an important role in participants' beliefs about treatment.
Collectively, these studies suggest that framing mental illnesses with an essentialist lens
increases individuals' essentialist beliefs towards mental illness, which in turn influences their

719 beliefs on drug treatments. We think that the essentialist framing led participants to view mental 720 illnesses as having a distinct internal cause, even when a biological explanation was not 721 explicitly stated. Past research in different domains has suggested that when essentialist language 722 is used people are more likely to reason using internal causes (Taylor, Rhodes, & Gelman, 2009; 723 Gelman, 2003; 2004). Given that drugs work at a biochemical level, participants might believe 724 that medication is better suited to treat these internal causes. Given that patients' beliefs about 725 treatment might influence treatment adherence and efficacy (Kocsis et al., 2009; Raue et al., 726 2009), mental health providers should consider this issue when describing treatment options to 727 their patients.

728 We did not find support for the idea that individuals with a mental illness interpret 729 essentialist information differently than individuals without a mental illness. It is possible that we 730 did not find the predicted association because we asked whether participants ever received any 731 mental illness diagnosis. Previous studies have focused on participants with a specific mental 732 disorder (Kemp et al., 2014). We did not think this strategy was reasonable for our study as we 733 presented participants with artificial illnesses. Previous studies suggest that people who belong to 734 a stigmatized group interpret essentialist information differently (Morandini et al., 2015, 2017). 735 It is possible that these different interpretations only appear when the information is about your 736 specific group (and not about related groups, especially those defined by a novel or artificial 737 illness).

In addition to essentialist language, views on treatment effectiveness were related to participants' stigma. Participants with higher levels of stigma generally believed both drug and talk therapy to be less effective than those with lower stigma. Given the correlational nature of our data, we cannot make claims as to the direction of this relation. It may be that people who do not believe mental illnesses are easily treatable do not want to spend time with people who have
a mental illness. Alternatively, people with greater stigma might blame people with a mental
illness because they view them as in control of their symptoms or may be looking for a way to
justify their stigmatization. Future research should examine the direction of and mechanisms
behind this relationship.

747 We did not find that essentialist framing influenced stigmatization. This contradicts past 748 research (e.g. Howell et al., 2011) that has demonstrated a relationship between essentialist 749 beliefs and stigma. One potential explanation for these results is that our manipulation was 750 relatively subtle and may not have been strong enough to produce differences in stigmatization. 751 In all of our framings, we described a person as having a diagnosis using person-first language 752 (e.g. "Terry has Mirania") rather than using a noun phrase (e.g. "Terry is a Miraniac"). A 753 preference for using noun phrases to describe someone with a mental illness is associated with 754 holding more essentialist beliefs, as well as greater stigmatization and lower empathy (Howell, 755 Ulan, & Powell, 2014). It has also been found that generic noun-phrases (e.g. "Miraniacs behave 756 like this") lead to greater essentializing of categories (Rhodes, Leslie, & Tworek, 2012). 757 However, we did find that even this weak manipulation led to differences in the essentialist 758 beliefs participants had about the disorders (as measured by the EBS). It is also possible that it is 759 biological explanations, and not essentialist explanations in general, that are related to stigma. 760 Future research should examine how essentialist and biological explanations (independently) 761 influence different components of stigma.

We also did not find that the essentialist framing influenced the perceived effectiveness of talk therapy. We initially hypothesized that reading the essentialist-consistent framing would decrease the perceived effectiveness of talk therapy compared to reading the essentialist-

765 inconsistent framing. We only found this result once, in Study 3, and it was not found in our 766 combined analysis. Our Study 3 sample did not differ from our other samples in their baseline 767 perceived effectiveness of talk therapy, and we statistically controlled for the baseline beliefs and 768 for whether participants had been diagnosed with a mental illness, therefore differences in 769 baseline beliefs are likely not a reason for the differences in findings. There could still be 770 important differences between the undergraduate and Mturk sample that led to the differences in 771 results, however, until there is more research on this topic, we consider that our studies suggest 772 there is no effect of essentialist framing on the perceived effectiveness of talk therapy. One 773 possible explanation for this lack of effect could be that the essentialist-consistent framing 774 highlights uniformity among category members, while the essentialist-inconsistent framing 775 highlights variation among category members. When reading the essentialist framing, people 776 may view drug treatment as having a single mechanism of action that is likely to be equally 777 effective among all of the, highly similar, category members. However, when reading the 778 essentialist-inconsistent framing, drug treatment would be viewed as less likely to be effective 779 across a wide variety of category members because it only has a single mechanism of action. 780 Conversely, people may view psychotherapy as having multiple mechanisms of action and 781 tailored to the individual, so it does not matter if category members are highly similar or 782 different. However, this is just speculative, and future work should consider exploring people's 783 intuitive understanding of why psychotherapies are effective.

A limitation of these studies is that findings with artificial disorders might not generalize to real mental illnesses. When thinking about someone with a mental illness, people will likely rely on their previous knowledge about that specific disorder or previous experiences with someone with a similar disorder. Nonetheless, using artificial disorder vignettes provides the benefit of limiting participants' prior knowledge and experience with a disorder, which may influence results and limit the power of the manipulation. Although we acknowledge this is a limitation of this series of studies, it was necessary in order to try to isolate the effect of other individual differences (e.g., mental illness diagnosis).

We also found that participants' beliefs about the efficacy of a treatment seemed to be shaped with the first framing, such that subsequent framings did not matter. This was the case even when the framings were congruent (i.e., both framings either consistent or inconsistent with essentialist views). It is possible that the first framing people encounter shapes their thinking or primes them to think in a particular way (Foster-Hanson et al., 2019). We did see that the effects faded over time, suggesting that if manipulations were spaced out over a longer interval, we might see an effect of presenting more framings.

799 An important direction for future research is to examine clinicians' beliefs about mental 800 illness and how these may influence treatment. Clinicians have been shown to hold essentialist 801 beliefs about mental illness (Ahn et al., 2006) and past research has demonstrated that clinicians 802 with biomedical training (i.e. psychiatrists) reported less empathy for their patients than 803 clinicians with less biomedical training (i.e., psychologists and social workers; Lebowitz & Ahn, 804 2014). In addition, clinicians reported less empathy for a hypothetical patient when reading 805 biological explanations for their mental illness than when reading psychosocial explanations 806 (Lebowitz & Ahn, 2014). Reading biological explanations of symptoms led clinicians to perceive 807 medication as more effective and psychotherapy as less effective than reading psychosocial 808 explanations (Lebowitz & Ahn, 2014). Future research should examine if clinician essentialist 809 beliefs, rather than biological explanations, influence the therapeutic choices and treatment 810 outcome.

811	Essentialist beliefs affect how people think about mental illness, specifically how they
812	think about treatment for mental illness. These beliefs can be modified by describing mental
813	illnesses in a manner that is consistent or inconsistent with essentialist beliefs. When people read
814	essentialist-consistent explanations for mental illness they believe that drug treatment will be
815	more effective than when they read essentialist-inconsistent explanations. Researchers,
816	clinicians, and potentially organizers of anti-stigma campaigns should carefully consider how
817	they talk about mental illness and should avoid talking about mental illness in essentialist or
818	exclusively biological ways.
819	
820	Open Practices Statements
821	The data and materials for all experiments are available at
822	https://osf.io/bt26h/?view_only=e45f9f3da49c412bb11f4aaaee6b85bd and none of the

823 experiments were preregistered.

## References

825	Ahn, W. K., Flanagan, E. H., Marsh, J. K., & Sanislow, C. A. (2006). Beliefs about essences and
826	the reality of mental disorders. Psychological Science, 17(9), 759-766.
827	Balkcom, E. R., Alogna, V. K., Curtin, E. R., Halberstadt, J. B., & Bering, J. M. (2019).
828	Aversion to organs donated by suicide victims: The role of psychological essentialism.
829	Cognition, 192, 104037.
830	Breheny, M. (2007). Genetic attribution for schizophrenia, depression, and skin cancer: Impact
831	on social distance. New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 36(3), 154.
832	Dar-Nimrod, I., & Heine, S. J. (2011). Genetic essentialism: on the deceptive determinism of
833	DNA. Psychological Bulletin, 137(5), 800.
834	Foster-Hanson, E., Leslie, S.J., & Rhodes, M. (2019). Speaking of kinds: How generic language
835	shapes the development of category representations. PsyArXiv.
836	https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/28qf7
837	Gelman, S. A. (2003). The essential child: Origins of essentialism in everyday thought. Oxford
838	Series in Cognitive Dev.
839	Gelman, S. A. (2004). Psychological essentialism in children. Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 8(9),
840	404-409.
841	Gelman, S. A., & Bloom, P. (2000). Young children are sensitive to how an object was created
842	when deciding what to name it. Cognition, 76(2), 91-103.
843	Goldstein, B., & Rosselli, F. (2003). Etiological paradigms of depression: The relationship
844	between perceived causes, empowerment, treatment preferences, and stigma. Journal of
845	Mental Health, 12(6), 551-563.

846 Haslam, N., & Ernst, D. (2002). Essentialist beliefs about mental disorders. Journal of Social

- 847 *and Clinical Psychology*, *21*(6), 628-644.
- Haslam, N., & Kvaale, E. P. (2015). Biogenetic explanations of mental disorder: The mixed
  blessings model. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *24*(5), 399-404.
- Haslam, N., & Levy, S. R. (2006). Essentialist beliefs about homosexuality: Structure and
- 851 implications for prejudice. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 32(4), 471-485.
- Haslam, N., Rothschild, L., & Ernst, D. (2000). Essentialist beliefs about social categories. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *39*(1), 113-127.
- Haslam, N., Rothschild, L., & Ernst, D. (2002). Are essentialist beliefs associated with
  prejudice? *British journal of social psychology*, *41*(1), 87-100.
- Howell, A. J., Ulan, J. A., & Powell, R. A. (2014). Essentialist beliefs, stigmatizing attitudes, and
  low empathy predict greater endorsement of noun labels applied to people with mental
  disorders. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 66, 33-38.
- Howell, A. J., Weikum, B. A., & Dyck, H. L. (2011). Psychological essentialism and its
  association with stigmatization. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 50(1), 95-100.
- 861 Kemp, J. J., Lickel, J. J., & Deacon, B. J. (2014). Effects of a chemical imbalance causal
- 862 explanation on individuals' perceptions of their depressive symptoms. *Behaviour*863 *Research and Therapy*, 56, 47-52.
- Kim, N. S., & LoSavio, S. T. (2009). Causal explanations affect judgments of the need for
  psychological treatment. *Judgment and Decision Making*, 4(1), 82.
- 866 Kocsis, J. H., Leon, A. C., Markowitz, J. C., Manber, R., Arnow, B., Klein, D. N., & Thase, M.
- E. (2009). Patient preference as a moderator of outcome for chronic forms of major
- 868 depressive disorder treated with nefazodone, cognitive behavioral analysis system of
- psychotherapy, or their combination. *The Journal of Clinical Psychiatry*, 70, 354-361.

- Lebowitz, M. S., & Ahn, W. K. (2014). Effects of biological explanations for mental disorders
  on clinicians' empathy. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *111*(50),
  17786-17790.
- Lebowitz, M. S., Ahn, W. K., & Nolen-Hoeksema, S. (2013). Fixable or fate? Perceptions of the
  biology of depression. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *81*(3), 518.
- Lebowitz, M. S., & Appelbaum, P. S. (2017). Beneficial and detrimental effects of genetic
  explanations for addiction. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, 63(8), 717-723.
- 877 Lebowitz, M. S., Pyun, J. J., & Ahn, W. K. (2014). Biological explanations of generalized
- 878 anxiety disorder: effects on beliefs about prognosis and responsibility. *Psychiatric*
- 879 *Services*, *65*(4), 498-503.
- Lebowitz, M. S., Rosenthal, J. E., & Ahn, W. K. (2016). Effects of biological versus
- psychosocial explanations on stigmatization of children with ADHD. *Journal of Attention Disorders*, 20(3), 240-250.
- Link, B. G., & Phelan, J. C. (2001). Conceptualizing stigma. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 27(1),
  363-385.
- Link, B. G., Phelan, J. C., Bresnahan, M., Stueve, A., & Pescosolido, B. A. (1999). Public
- conceptions of mental illness: labels, causes, dangerousness, and social distance. *American Journal of Public Health*, *89*(9), 1328-1333.
- Link, B. G., Yang, L. H., Phelan, J. C., & Collins, P. Y. (2004). Measuring mental illness stigma. *Schizophrenia Bulletin*, *30*(3), 511-541.
- 890 Loughman, A., & Haslam, N. (2018). Neuroscientific explanations and the stigma of mental
- disorder: a meta-analytic study. *Cognitive Research: Principles and Implications*, 3(1),
- 892 43.

- Marsh, J. K., & Romano, A. L. (2016). Lay judgments of mental health treatment options: The
  mind versus body problem. *MDM policy & practice*, *1*(1), 2381468316669361.
- 895 Marsh, J. K., & Shanks, L. L. (2014). Thinking you can catch mental illness: How beliefs about
- 896 membership attainment and category structure influence interactions with mental health
- 897 category members. *Memory & Cognition*, 42(7), 1011-1025.
- Medin, D. L., & Ortony, A. (1989). Psychological essentialism. In S. Vosniadou & A. Ortony
  (Eds.), *Similarity and Analogical Reasoning* (pp. 179 -195). New York: Cambridge
  University Press.
- 901 Morandini, J. S., Blaszczynski, A., Costa, D. S., Godwin, A., & Dar-Nimrod, I. (2017). Born this
- 902 way: Sexual orientation beliefs and their correlates in lesbian and bisexual women.
  903 *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 64(5), 560.
- 904 Morandini, J. S., Blaszczynski, A., Ross, M. W., Costa, D. S., & Dar-Nimrod, I. (2015).
- 905 Essentialist beliefs, sexual identity uncertainty, internalized homonegativity and
- 906 psychological wellbeing in gay men. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *62*(3), 413.
- 907 Morton, T. A., & Postmes, T. (2009). When differences become essential: Minority essentialism
- 908 in response to majority treatment. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 35(5),
  909 656-668.
- 910 National Institute of Mental Health. (2017). Mental Illness. Retrieved from
- 911 <u>https://www.nimh.nih.gov/health/statistics/mental-illness.shtml</u>
- 912 Phelan, J. C. (2002). Genetic bases of mental illness-a cure for stigma?. TRENDS in
- 913 *Neurosciences*, *25*(8), 430-431.

- 914 Phelan, J. C., Yang, L. H., & Cruz-Rojas, R. (2006). Effects of attributing serious mental
- 915 illnesses to genetic causes on orientations to treatment. *Psychiatric Services*, 57(3), 382916 387.
- 917 Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects
- 918 in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers,*919 36(4), 717-731.
- Raue, P. J., Schulberg, H. C., Heo, M., Klimstra, S., & Bruce, M. L. (2009). Patients' depression
  treatment preferences and initiation, adherence, and outcome: a randomized primary care
  study. *Psychiatric Services*, 60(3), 337-343.
- Reynolds, W. M. (1982). Development of reliable and valid short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne
  Social Desirability Scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *38*(1), 119-125.
- Rhodes, M., Leslie, S-J., Tworek, C. M. (2012) Cultural transmission of social essentialism. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science*, *109*, 13526-13531.
- 927 Roberts, S. O., & Gelman, S. A. (2015). Do children see in Black and White? Children's and
- 928 adults' categorizations of multiracial individuals. *Child Development*, *86*(6), 1830-1847.
- 929 Roberts, S. O., Ho, A. K., Rhodes, M., & Gelman, S. A. (2017). Making boundaries great again:
- 930 Essentialism and support for boundary-enhancing initiatives. *Personality and Social*
- 931 *Psychology Bulletin*, *43*(12), 1643-1658.
- 932 Rüsch, N., Angermeyer, M. C., & Corrigan, P. W. (2005). Mental illness stigma:
- 933 concepts, consequences, and initiatives to reduce stigma. *European Psychiatry*, 20(8),
- 934 529-539.

- 935 Schroder, H. S., Dawood, S., Yalch, M. M., Donnellan, M. B., & Moser, J. S. (2015). The role of
- 936 implicit theories in mental health symptoms, emotion regulation, and hypothetical
- treatment choices in college students. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, *39*(2),120-139.
- Segal, S. P., Kotler, P. L., & Holschuh, J. (1991). Attitudes of sheltered care residents toward
  others with mental illness. *Psychiatric Services*, 42(11), 1138-1143.
- 940 Taylor, M. G., Rhodes, M., & Gelman, S. A. (2009). Boys will be boys: cows will be cows:
- 941 Children's essentialist reasoning about gender categories and animal species. *Child*942 *Development*, 80, 461-481.
- 943 Walker, I., & Read, J. (2002). The differential effectiveness of psychosocial and biogenetic
- 944 causal explanations in reducing negative attitudes toward "mental illness". *Psychiatry:*945 *Interpersonal and Biological Processes*, 65(4), 313-325.
- 946 Waxman, S., Medin, D., & Ross, N. (2007). Folkbiological reasoning from a cross-cultural
- 947 developmental perspective: early essentialist notions are shaped by cultural beliefs.
- 948 Developmental Psychology, 43(2), 294.
- 949 Yopchick, J. E., & Kim, N. S. (2009). The influence of causal information on judgments of
- 950 treatment efficacy. *Memory & Cognition*, 37(1), 29-41.