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1 **The effect of ego depletion on challenge and threat evaluations during a potentially**
2 **stressful public speaking task**

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4 Word count: 3745

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Abstract

10 **Background:** It has been well established that challenge and threat evaluations affect the
11 performance of potentially stressful tasks, however, the factors that influence these evaluations
12 have rarely been examined. **Objective:** This study examined the effects of ego depletion on
13 challenge and threat evaluations during a public speaking task. **Method:** 262 participants (150
14 males, 112 females; $M_{\text{age}} = 20.5$, $SD = 4.3$) were randomly assigned to either an ego depletion
15 or control group. Participants then completed self-report measures of trait self-control. The ego
16 depletion group performed a written transcription task requiring self-control, while the control
17 group transcribed the text normally. Before the public speaking task, participant's challenge
18 and threat evaluations and subjective ratings of performance were assessed via self-report
19 items. **Results:** The results of independent *t*-tests supported the effectiveness of the self-control
20 manipulation. There were no significant differences between the ego depletion and control
21 groups in terms of challenge and threat evaluations or subjective performance. Additional
22 correlation analyses revealed that trait measures of self-control were significantly and
23 negatively related to challenge and threat evaluations and subjective performance. **Conclusion:**
24 Findings suggest that ego depletion might not influence appraisals of potentially stressful tasks,
25 and thus add to recent evidence questioning the ego-depletion phenomenon.

26 **Keywords:** self-control, stress, cognitive appraisal, demand/resource evaluations, self-
27 regulation, strength model

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29 Abstract word count: 203

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34 **Introduction**35 *Self-regulation and control*

36 The ability to control behaviour enables individuals to achieve important goals such as
37 maintaining health, controlling impulses, inhibiting unwanted thoughts, and regulating social
38 behaviour (Muaraven, Colins, & Neinhaus, 2002; Heatherton & Wagner, 2011; Richeson &
39 Shelton, 2003). Individuals who are better able to self-regulate their behaviour are less likely
40 to develop contemporary societal problems such as alcoholism, obesity, and addiction
41 compared to individuals who are less able to self-regulate (Quinn & Fromme, 2010; Vohs &
42 Heatherton, 2000; Ferguson & Bargh, 2004). Despite every individual having the capacity to
43 self-regulate, many behavioural, social, and health problems still occur, in part, due to lapses
44 in self-control (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996; Vohs & Baumesiter, 2004). Currently, there
45 is a lack of understanding regarding both the circumstances and the mechanisms associated
46 with these lapses in self-control. As such, gaining an insight into how people regulate and
47 control their behaviour and emotions is important. This study will aid understanding by
48 examining how reductions in self-control influence cognitive appraisals (i.e., challenge and
49 threat) before a potentially stressful public speaking task.

50 Self-regulation has been heavily researched within areas such as personality, social and
51 cognitive psychology, sociology, neuroscience, medicine, and many more (Nigg, 2017). Self-
52 regulation involves various adaptive complex processes and systems, with overlaps in their
53 function, measurement, and terminology (Nigg, 2017; McAuley, Chen, Goos, Schachar, &
54 Crosbie, 2010). It is important to note that the terms self-regulation and self-control appear to
55 be used interchangeably across numerous domains due to discrepancies in how to label, define,
56 and measure the construct of self-control (Duckworth & Kern, 2011; Lurquin & Miyake, 2017).
57 For clarity, we offer a definition of both self-regulation and self-control.

58 Self-regulation refers to the intrinsic processes that aide psychological and
59 physiological adaptation. Self-regulation encompasses top-down and bottom-up processes that
60 alter emotion, behaviour, and cognition in order to achieve explicit or implicit goals, including
61 deliberate as well as reactive/automatized processes (Nigg, 2017; Calkins & Fox, 2002).
62 Generally, it is agreed that self-control refers to the capacity to resist or inhibit a dominant
63 response, and therefore refers to the ability to override and adjust behaviour, thoughts, and
64 emotions (Bandura, 1989; Metcalfe & Mischel, 1999; Vohs & Baumeister, 2004). Furthermore,
65 research suggests that self-control focuses on the effort individuals exert to promote desirable
66 responses and inhibit undesirable responses (Duckworth & Kern, 2011; Fujita, 2011). In a
67 broad sense, self-control has also been referred to as voluntary behaviour and cognition,
68 effectively top-down aspects of self-regulation (Avital-Cohen & Tsal, 2016; Nigg, 2017).

69 *Self-control theory and research*

70 One of the most cited theoretical frameworks associated with self-control is the strength
71 model (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996). The model states that self-control is vulnerable to
72 deterioration over time due to repeated exertion. It is argued that self-control is a finite resource
73 that can be depleted, and consequently this reduction in self-control resources decreases the
74 capacity to regulate behaviour during subsequent tasks. The depletion of this limited resource
75 is termed ‘ego depletion’ (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996). Research has examined the effect
76 of ego-depletion on performance, with a meta-analysis of 83 studies concluding that ego
77 depletion had a detrimental effect on the performance of subsequent self-control tasks,
78 particularly during stressful conditions (Hagger, Wood, Stiff, & Chatzisarantis, 2010). This
79 finding was robust for both perceptual motor (e.g., Englert & Bertrams, 2012; McEwan, Ginis,
80 & Bray, 2013), and physical endurance (e.g., Bray, Martin Ginis, & Woodgate, 2011), tasks.

81 More recently, the ego depletion literature has come under intense scrutiny (e.g., Carter,
82 Kofler, Forster, & McCullough, 2015), as studies have failed to replicate the ego depletion

83 effect (e.g., Osgood, 2017; Xiao, Dang, Mao, & Liljedahl, 2014). Furthermore, Carter and
84 McCullough's (2015) meta-analysis brought to light potential publication bias in the ego
85 depletion literature, hinting at a possible body of unpublished non-significant findings. In a
86 separate study, Carter and colleagues (2015) argued that the initial support for ego depletion
87 was likely driven by small sample sizes and publication bias. The inconsistent findings
88 surrounding ego depletion initiated a registered replication report, but this also failed to find a
89 significant ego depletion effect (Hagger et al., 2016). However, Hagger et al. (2016) did not
90 conclude that the ego depletion effect does not exist, but rather encouraged future research to
91 investigate the causes of the null finding. In line with the aforementioned research, a recent
92 survey surrounding research practices and replication rates within ego depletion research,
93 supports the assumption that a large body of grey literature on ego depletion exists, leaving the
94 authors to call for additional exploration of the ego depletion effect (Wolf, Baumann, &
95 Englert, 2018).

96 Adding to the controversy surrounding the resource model, is the inconclusive research
97 surrounding the duration of primary and secondary self-control tasks. The impaired
98 performance in secondary self-control tasks are said to be due to self-control replenishing
99 slowly (Muraven, Collins, Shiffman, & Paty, 2005). Furthermore, it is expected that a linear
100 association exists between primary self-control task duration and the size of the ego depletion
101 effect on the secondary task (Hagger et al., 2010). Therefore, the ego depletion effect should
102 scale with time. The average primary self-control task lasts five to six minutes, however, no
103 lower limit for the duration of exertion has been specified (Hagger et al., 2010). Recent research
104 suggests that the duration of the primary self-control task does not predict the magnitude of
105 impairment in the secondary task (e.g., Giboin & Wolff, 2019). This is further supported by a
106 high-powered study that varied the duration of the primary self-control task, finding no

107 relationship between task duration and subsequent performance during a secondary self-control
108 task (Wolff, Sieber, Bieleke, & Englert, 2019).

109 As the strength model of self-control has remained in doubt, alternative explanations
110 and measures have emerged to challenge the resource model. For example, Tangney,
111 Baumeister, and Boone (2004) explored trait self-control and performance, with research
112 suggesting that an individual's ability to control behaviour predicts a wide range of positive
113 outcomes (e.g., higher achievement, greater impulse control, and more optimal emotions;
114 Tangney et al., 2004; De Ridder, van der Weiden, Gillebaart, Benjamins, & Ybema, 2019).
115 However, findings are varied regarding trait self-control and propensity to be ego depleted.
116 Indeed, while some research suggests that individuals higher in trait self-control are less
117 vulnerable to ego depletion (e.g., Dvorak & Simons, 2009), more recent studies suggest that
118 those higher in trait self-control are more vulnerable due to less frequent impulse inhibition in
119 everyday life (e.g., Imhoff, Schmidt & Gerstenberg, 2014). Salmon and colleagues (2014) also
120 explored a similar trait-like concept, termed 'depletion sensitivity' (Salmon, Adriaanse, De
121 Vet, Fennis, & De Ridder, 2014), which referred to the different rates of ego depletion
122 individuals experience when exerting self-control. Research has found that individuals higher
123 in depletion sensitivity tend to perform worse on secondary self-control tasks, demonstrating a
124 greater ego depletion effect (e.g., Salmon et al., 2014).

125 Other theoretical explanations related to the ego depletion effect have centred around
126 individual perceptions of, and mindsets towards, self-control. For example, Clarkson and
127 colleagues (2010) found that perceptions of resource depletion predicted performance patterns
128 in the dual self-control task paradigm better than actual depletion (i.e. actual exertion of self-
129 control; Clarkson, Hirt, Jia, & Alexander, 2010). Therefore, implying that depletion of self-
130 control resources might be consciously perceptible. Moreover, Job, Dweck, and Walton (2010)
131 propose that self-control is affected by individuals' implicit beliefs about willpower, and

132 whether willpower is a finite resource or not. Interestingly, research has shown that individuals
 133 who do not believe that willpower is limited, are less susceptible to ego depletion after
 134 completing a primary self-control task (e.g., Job et al., 2010). It remains both theoretically and
 135 empirically unclear how dispositional traits and beliefs of self-control interact. Due to various
 136 concerns and inconclusive evidence, researchers have called for improved empiricism and
 137 theory to find more conclusive answers to ‘if and why’ the ego depletion effect exists (Frieze,
 138 Loschelder, Gieseler, Frankenbach, & Inzlicht, 2018).

139 *Challenge and threat appraisals*

140 It has been suggested that research exploring the potential moderators and mediators,
 141 as well as testing the specific conditions under which ego depletion may or may not occur, will
 142 help to answer questions surrounding this phenomenon (Hagger et al., 2016). One possible
 143 theoretical framework that could help explore these issues is the biopsychosocial model
 144 (BPSM) of challenge and threat (Blascovich, 2008). According to the BPSM, when entering a
 145 potentially stressful situation (e.g., sporting competition, speech), an individual evaluates how
 146 demanding the situation is, and whether they have the necessary resources to cope effectively
 147 with those demands (Seery, 2011). If an individual evaluates that they have sufficient coping
 148 resources to meet the demands, they evaluate the stressful situation as more of a challenge. In
 149 contrast, if an individual evaluates that the situational demands exceed their coping resources,
 150 they evaluate the stressful situation as more of a threat (Seery, 2011). It is important to note
 151 that challenge and threat are not considered dichotomous states, but are instead conceptualised
 152 as anchors of a single bipolar continuum, meaning that relative rather than absolute differences
 153 in challenge and threat are typically examined (e.g., stressful situation is evaluated as more or
 154 less of a challenge or threat; Blascovich, 2008).

155 Challenge and threat are traditionally explored during motivated performance situations
 156 (e.g., sporting competitions, exams, public speaking), defined as potentially stressful situations

157 in which an individual must actively perform cognitively or behaviourally in order to attain an
158 important outcome (Blascovich, 2008). Crucially, challenge and threat evaluations have been
159 shown to have different effects on cardiovascular responses and task performance, with a threat
160 evaluation (i.e., situational demands exceed coping resources) associated with a less efficient
161 cardiovascular response (i.e., lower cardiac output and higher total peripheral resistance), and
162 poorer task performance (see Hase, O'Brien, Moore, & Freeman, 2018 for a review). Despite
163 these robust findings, to date, relatively little research has explored the factors that influence
164 challenge and threat evaluations (Moore, Vine, Wilson, & Freeman, 2014). This is surprising
165 given that such research will aid the development of interventions aimed at promoting
166 challenge evaluations, or more positive responses to stress. One factor that could influence
167 challenge and threat evaluations is ego depletion. Indeed, given that ego-depleted individuals
168 have limited resources to use in subsequent self-control tasks, it is possible that ego depletion
169 could lead individuals to evaluate tasks as more of a threat (i.e., insufficient resources to cope
170 with task demands; Seery, 2011; Seery, 2009). Thus, this study aimed to shed light on this issue
171 using a potentially stressful public speaking task.

172 One common method to evoke stress is to use a social evaluative task such as public
173 speaking. Indeed, the Tier Social Stress Test (TSST) has been commonly used as such a task
174 for many decades (Kudielka, Hellhammer, & Kirschbaum, Harmon-Jones, Winkielman, 2007),
175 and has been consistently shown to provoke a profound stress response (Kirschbaum, Pirke, &
176 Hellhammer, 1993). Although the TSST has been modified over the years (e.g., for groups;
177 Vons-Dawans, Kirschbaum & Heinrichs, 2011), it typically requires participants to prepare
178 and deliver a speech, and to verbally respond to a challenging mental arithmetic problem in the
179 presence of a socially evaluative audience. Researchers using the TSST have found elevations
180 in heart rate, blood pressure, and several endocrine stress markers (e.g., cortisol), highlighting
181 its reliability in inducing a stress response (Birkett, 2011).

182 ***The present study***

183 In order to offer an initial exploration into the effect of ego depletion on challenge and
184 threat evaluations and subjective ratings of performance, this study used a social-evaluative
185 speech task comparable to the one used as part of the Trier Social Stress Test (Kudielka, et al.,
186 2007). It was hypothesised that participants randomly assigned to an ego depletion group would
187 evaluate the potentially stressful speech task as a more of a threat (i.e., coping resources
188 insufficient to meet task demands), and rate their expected speech performance as lower,
189 compared to participants assigned to a control group. A secondary aim of this study was to
190 explore relationships between trait measures of self-control, challenge and threat evaluations
191 and subjective ratings of performance.

192 **Method**193 ***Participants***

194 Based on a power analysis using G*Power software with alpha set at 0.05 and beta set
195 at 0.95, we determined that a sample size of 262 participants was required to detect a small
196 effect size. Thus, following institutional ethical approval, 304 undergraduate university
197 students were recruited. All data was screened prior to statistical analysis. Forty-six participants
198 were excluded from all analyses as they failed to complete the most important parts of the study
199 protocol, including the written transcription task and reporting challenge and threat evaluations.
200 As such, the final sample consisted of 262 participants (150 males, 112 females; $M_{\text{age}} = 20.5$,
201 $SD = 4.3$). All participants read an information sheet and provided written informed consent
202 prior to taking part.

203 ***Measures***204 ***Trait self-control measures***

205 ***Brief self-control scale.*** Individual differences in trait self-control were assessed using
206 the 13-item brief self-control scale (Tangney et al., 2004). Participants indicated the degree to

207 which they agreed with each item on a 5-point Likert scale anchored between *not at all* (1) and
208 *very much* (5). The scores from all 13 items were summed, with a higher score indicating
209 greater trait self-control. This scale has been used previously in the ego depletion literature
210 (e.g., McEwan et al., 2013), and has been shown to be valid and reliable in assessing
211 dispositional self-control (Tangey et al., 2004; $\alpha = 0.92$).

212 ***Depletion sensitivity scale.*** Individual differences in depletion sensitivity were
213 measured using the 11-item depletion sensitivity scale (Salmon et al., 2014). Participants rated
214 the degree to which they agreed with each item on a 7-point Likert scale anchored between
215 *totally disagree* (1) and *totally agree* (7). The scores from all 11 items were summed, with a
216 higher score indicating greater depletion sensitivity. This scale has been used previously in the
217 ego depletion literature (e.g., Englert, Persaud, Oudejans, & Bertrams, 2015), and has been
218 shown to be valid and reliable in assessing depletion sensitivity (Salmon et al., 2014; $\alpha = 0.92$).

219 ***Implicit theories of willpower.*** Individual differences in the beliefs regarding the nature
220 of willpower, were assessed using the 6-item strenuous mental activity subscale of implicit
221 beliefs about willpower scale (Job et al., 2010). Participants indicated the degree to which they
222 agreed with each item on a 6-point Likert scale anchored between *strongly agree* (1) and
223 *strongly disagree* (6). The scores from all 6 items were summed, with a higher score reflecting
224 a greater belief that self-control is a limited resource. This measure has been used previously
225 in the ego depletion literature and has been shown to be valid and reliable (Job, Walton, Dweck,
226 & Bernecker, 2015; $\alpha = 0.82$).

227 ***Self-control (ego depletion) manipulation checks***

228 Self-control was experimentally manipulated using a written transcription task. This
229 task required participants to transcribe a text for six minutes (the most common length of time
230 for ego depletion tasks; Giboin & Wolff, 2019). While the control group transcribed the text
231 conventionally in full, requiring little self-control, the ego depletion group were asked to omit

232 the letters “e” and “n”, an act that required suppression of their typical writing habits and thus
233 self-control. Importantly, this task, and time on the task, has been repeatedly shown to deplete
234 self-control resources in previous research (e.g., Bertrams, Englert, & Dickhauser, 2010;
235 Englert, Zwemmer, Bertrams, & Oudejans, 2015; Giboin & Wolff, 2019).

236 Performance on the transcription task was measured using the number of words
237 transcribed and errors (Bertrams et al., 2010). Transcription errors constituted grammatical
238 mistakes (e.g., spelling, lack of capital letters), missing words or sentences, and failing to miss
239 out the letters “e” and “n” (for the ego depletion group only). In addition, as a manipulation
240 check following the task, participants were asked “How strongly did you have to regulate your
241 writing habits?”, and “How effortful did you find the writing task?” (Englert & Bertrams, 2014;
242 Furley, Bertrams, Englert, & Delphia, 2013). The participants responded to both items on a 4-
243 point Likert scale anchored between *not at all* (1) and *very much* (4).

244 ***Challenge and threat evaluations***

245 To assess evaluations of task demands and personal coping resources, and thus
246 challenge and threat evaluations, two items from the cognitive appraisal ratio were used
247 (Tomaka, Blascovich, Kelsey, & Leitten, 1993). Evaluations of task demands were assessed
248 by asking “How demanding do you expect the upcoming speech task to be?”, while evaluations
249 of coping resources were measured by asking “How able are you to cope with the demands of
250 the upcoming speech task?”. Both items were rated on a 6-point Likert scale anchored between
251 *not at all* (1) and *extremely* (6). A demand resource evaluation score (DRES) was then
252 calculated by subtracting evaluated demands from resources (range -5 to +5), with a positive
253 score reflecting an evaluation more reflective of a challenge state (i.e., resources exceed
254 demands), and a negative score reflecting an evaluation more akin to a threat state (i.e.,
255 demands exceed resources). This measure has been used commonly in the challenge and threat
256 literature (e.g., Hase et al., 2018; Moore, Wilson, Vine, Coussens, & Freeman, 2013).

257 ***Subjective speech performance***

258 In keeping with previous research (e.g., Nicholls, Polman, & Levy, 2010), participants
259 were asked to rate how well they expected to perform in the upcoming speech task using a 7-
260 point Likert scale anchored between *not at all well* (1) and *extremely well* (7).

261 ***Procedure***

262 Participants were randomly assigned to either an ego depletion or control group.
263 Randomization was conducted using <https://www.randomizer.org/>. First, participants
264 completed the trait self-control measures. Second, participants were required to perform the
265 written transcription task for six minutes. Time was monitored by the researcher, and
266 participants were informed when they had one-minute remaining. Next, after completing self-
267 report items relating to the regulation of writing habits and effort during the transcription task,
268 participants read a set of instructions that described a potentially stressful speech task.
269 Specifically, participants were informed that they would give a five-minute speech about their
270 dream job in front of their peers (all data was collected in taught sessions). To add an element
271 of self-control, participants were asked to avoid standing still, closed body posture, negative
272 facial expressions, unconfident body language, pausing for longer than five seconds, and using
273 a monotonous voice. Participants were made aware that these criteria would be used to rate
274 their performance, and their speech was going to be recorded via a digital video camera.
275 Participants were then asked to report their challenge and threat evaluations and subjective
276 ratings of performance. Finally, participants were debriefed, informed that they did not need to
277 complete the potentially stressful speech task, and thanked for their participation.

278 ***Statistical analyses***

279 Missing data analysis revealed that 0.14% of the data from 262 participants was
280 missing, however, Little's missing at random (MCAR) test was significant at the .05 level (χ^2
281 = 1172.19, $df = 1072$, $p = .017$), therefore, we replaced missing data using the expectation

282 maximization method. To ensure data was normally distributed, outlier analyses were
283 performed before the main statistical analysis. A total of eight outliers were identified.
284 Specifically, for ‘number of words’, one outlier was identified for the control group and two
285 for the ego depletion group. Moreover, for ‘number of errors’, four outliers were identified for
286 the control group and one for the ego depletion group. The windsorization method was used to
287 treat the outliers, with raw data being changed to 1% larger or smaller than the next most
288 extreme score. Following outlier analyses, all data was normally distributed as skewness and
289 kurtosis z-scores did not exceed 1.96.

290 A series of independent *t*-tests were performed on the trait self-control (i.e., trait self-
291 control, depletion sensitivity, implicit theories of willpower), self-control (ego depletion)
292 manipulation check (i.e., number of transcribed words and errors, ratings of writing habit
293 regulation and effort), challenge and threat evaluation (i.e., DRES), and subjective speech
294 performance data. For all *t*-tests, the degrees of freedom, *t* statistic, and probability values were
295 corrected for homogeneity of variance assumption violations using the Levene’s test for
296 equality of variances. Effect sizes were calculated using Cohen’s *d* (small = 0.20, medium =
297 0.50, and large = 0.80; Cohen, 1992), and significance was set at 0.05. Furthermore, Pearson’s
298 correlations were conducted to determine the relationships between the trait self-control
299 measures, DRES, and subjective performance. In accordance with Cohen (1992), the strength
300 of a relationship was considered small, moderate, and large, if a coefficient was reported as
301 being above 0.2, 0.3 and 0.5 respectively. All analyses were performed on IBM SPSS statistics
302 software (version 25).

303 Results

304 *Trait self-control measures*

305 The results revealed no significant differences between the groups in terms of trait self-
306 control ($t_{(260)} = 0.58, p = .562, md = 0.53, 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.28, 2.36], d = 0.07$), depletion sensitivity

307 ($t_{(260)} = 0.15, p = .884, md = 0.21, 95\% \text{ CI } [-2.56, 2.97], d = 0.01$), or strenuous mental activity
 308 beliefs about willpower ($t_{(261)} = -1.33, p = .148, md = -0.76, 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.89, 0.36], d = 0.16$).
 309 This data is presented in Table 1 and supports the effectiveness of the randomisation procedure
 310 used to allocate participants to the experimental groups.

311

312 INSERT TABLE 1 HERE

313

314 ***Self-control (ego depletion) manipulation checks***

315 The results revealed that the written transcription task required significantly more self-
 316 control for the ego depletion group than the control group, with the ego depletion group
 317 transcribing fewer words ($t_{(192.2)} = 8.64, p < .001, md = 25.92, 95\% \text{ CI } [20.01, 31.83], d = 1.10$),
 318 and making more errors ($t_{(241.3)} = -13.11, p < .001, md = -6.76, 95\% \text{ CI } [-7.77, -5.74], d = 1.57$),
 319 than the control group. Furthermore, the ego depletion group reported having to regulate their
 320 writing habits more ($t_{(260)} = -8.55, p < .001, md = -0.91, 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.12, -0.7], d = 1.06$), and
 321 that the transcription task required more effort ($t_{(219.9)} = -7.23, p < .001, md = -0.79, 95\% \text{ CI } [-$
 322 $1.01, -0.57], d = 0.91$), than the control group. This data is presented in Table 2 and supports
 323 the effectiveness of the self-control (ego depletion) manipulation.

324

325 INSERT TABLE 2 HERE

326

327 ***Challenge and threat evaluations***

328 The results revealed no significant difference between the groups for DRES ($t_{(260)} =$
 329 $0.53, p = .828, md = 0.15, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.41, 0.71], d = -0.06$). This data is presented in Table 3,
 330 and suggests that the ego depletion and control groups did not differ in terms of how they

331 evaluated the potentially stressful speech task, with the descriptive data indicating that both
332 groups evaluated the task as more of a threat (i.e., task demands exceed coping resources).

333 *Subjective speech performance*

334 The results revealed no significant difference between the groups in terms of subjective
335 ratings of speech performance ($t_{(255.2)} = 0.10, p = .915, md = 0.02, 95\% CI [-0.35, 0.39], d =$
336 0.01). This data is presented in Table 3, and implies that the initial self-control task (i.e., written
337 transcription) had little effect on participants' perceptions of their performance prior to a
338 subsequent self-control task (i.e., public speaking), with the descriptive data suggesting that
339 both groups doubted that they could perform the potentially stressful speech task successfully.

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INSERT TABLE 3 HERE

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343 *Exploratory analyses*

344 Pearson's correlations were used to assess the relationships between trait self-control
345 measures, self-control manipulation checks, DRES, and subjective performance for each group
346 separately (Table 4). For the control group, there was a significant negative correlation between
347 trait self-control and effort ($r = -.19, p = .034$). In addition, depletion sensitivity showed a
348 significant positive correlation with effort ($r = .29, p = .002$) and regulation of writing habits
349 ($r = .25, p = .006$). Regulation of writing habits also showed a significant negative correlation
350 with DRES ($r = -.18, p = .050$). However, these correlations were not significant for the ego
351 depletion group.

352 Depletion sensitivity showed a significant negative correlation with DRES for both the
353 control ($r = -.33, p < .001$) and ego depletion ($r = -.31, p < .001$) group. Depletion sensitivity
354 also showed a significant negative correlation with subjective ratings of performance for both
355 the control ($r = -.31, p < .001$) and ego depletion ($r = -.21, p = .008$) group. Furthermore,

356 strenuous mental activity beliefs about willpower showed a significant negative correlation
 357 with DRES for both the control ($r = -.21, p = .022$) and ego depletion ($r = -.18, p = .025$) group.
 358 Strenuous mental activity beliefs about willpower also showed a significant negative
 359 correlation with subjective ratings of performance, but only for the ego depletion group ($r = -$
 360 $.17, p = .038$). Finally, DRES showed a significant positive correlation with subjective ratings
 361 of performance for both the control ($r = .70, p < .001$) and ego depletion ($r = .73, p < .001$)
 362 group.

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INSERT TABLE 4 HERE

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Discussion

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To date, relatively little research has explored the factors that influence challenge and threat evaluations despite their fairly robust effects on cardiovascular responses to, and performance during, potentially stressful tasks (Hase et al, 2018). Indeed, this is the first study to examine the effect of ego depletion on challenge and threat evaluations, and subjective ratings of performance, before a potentially stressful speech task. Contrary to our hypotheses, the results revealed no significant differences between the ego depletion and control groups in terms of challenge and threat evaluations or subjective ratings of performance.

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Consistent with previous research (e.g., Englert & Bertrams, 2012; Bertrams et., 2010), and supporting the effectiveness of the written transcription task, the ego depletion group transcribed fewer words and made more errors than the control group. In addition, the ego depletion group indicated that the written transcription task they completed required more effort, and greater regulation of writing habits, than the transcription task completed by the control group. Previous research would suggest that this result implicates a reduction in self-control resources or a successful ego depletion effect (e.g., Arber et al., 2017). Therefore, after

381 being satisfied that the written transcription task caused ego depletion, the effect of this
382 depletion on challenge and threat evaluations of a potentially stressful public speaking task was
383 examined.

384 Contrary to our hypothesis, the results revealed no significant difference between the
385 ego depletion and control groups in terms of challenge and threat evaluations (i.e., evaluations
386 of task demands and personal coping resources). The reduction in self-control resources
387 experienced by the ego depletion group did not result in this group evaluating the potentially
388 stressful speech as more of a threat (i.e., insufficient resources to cope with task demands). In
389 addition to challenge and threat evaluations, we also examined whether ego depletion
390 influenced how participants expected to perform in the potentially stressful public speaking
391 task, which would have also required an element of self-control (e.g., avoid using a
392 monotonous voice and standing still). Contrary to our hypotheses, the results revealed no
393 significant differences between the ego depletion and control groups in terms of subjective
394 ratings of performance. Despite experiencing a reduction in self-control resources as a result
395 of the written transcription task, the ego depletion group did not report expecting to perform
396 worse than the control group.

397 Secondary exploratory analyses revealed significant relationships and differences
398 between trait measures of self-control, DRES, and subjective ratings of performance.
399 Specifically, for both groups, participants more sensitive to depletion were more likely to
400 evaluate the potentially stressful speech task as more of a threat. Similarly, participants who
401 reported being more sensitive to depletion were also more likely to rate that they were going
402 to perform poorly in the potentially stressful speech task. These findings extend previous
403 research that has shown that depletion sensitivity can impact actual task performance following
404 ego depletion (e.g., Salmon et al, 2014). Therefore, with previous and present findings, it is
405 suggested that the ability and time taken to deplete an individual may vary due to depletion

406 sensitivity, this further supports the conflict regarding time to depletion and task order.
407 Importantly, the results also suggest a possible conscious level of depletion sensitivity and the
408 impact of this on upcoming tasks. Further exploration of depletion sensitivity may provide
409 more insight into the contradictory null findings surrounding the resource model of ego
410 depletion.

411 Secondly, for the control and ego depletion groups, participants whose beliefs were
412 more aligned with the limited theory of willpower were more likely to evaluate the potentially
413 stressful speech task as more of a threat. However, only those in the ego depletion group whose
414 beliefs aligned with the limited theory of willpower were more likely to rate that they were
415 going to perform poorly in the potentially stressful speech task. These findings extend previous
416 research which has found that willpower beliefs may affect actual task performance following
417 ego depletion (e.g., Job et al, 2010; Job et al., 2015). The current study suggests that depletion
418 sensitivity and beliefs surrounding willpower may explain the variance in differing challenge
419 and threat states and subjective performance.

420 *Strengths and Limitations*

421 In order to better contextualise the findings, several strengths and limitations should be
422 considered. Firstly, whilst this was the first study to assess the effects of ego depletion on
423 challenge and threat evaluations during a potentially stressful task, it should be noted that only
424 subjective markers were used to measure challenge and threat evaluations and performance.
425 However, previously subjective markers have been shown to be both valid and reliable when
426 compared with an objective marker in other domains requiring measures of stress and
427 performance (Arora et al, 2010). Evidence also suggests there is a valid need to assess
428 subjective measures, as perceptions of depletion have been shown to be better predictors of
429 performance, than actual depletion (Clarkson et al, 2010). Objective markers were not used in
430 the current study due to the exploratory nature of the study design and large sample size (i.e.,

431 a large volume of data was collected from multiple participants at one time point). Second,
432 only single-item measures were used to assess challenge and threat evaluations. Research has
433 shown that one item and multi-item measures perform equally as well (Bergkvist & Rossiter,
434 2007), future research is encouraged to replicate the findings of this study using multi-item
435 measures (e.g. stress appraisal scale; Schneider, 2008). Despite the benefits of being an
436 experimental study, the research was conducted in the ‘field’ (i.e., real teaching sessions),
437 which limited control over potential confounding variables (e.g., class size, interaction between
438 participants, etc.).

439 *Future research*

440 This is the first known study to assess the effect of ego depletion on challenge and threat
441 evaluations and subjectively rated performance under potentially stressful conditions. Future
442 studies are encouraged to further the current study findings by using both subjective and
443 objective measures of challenge and threat, and pressurized speech performance. The
444 introduction of cardiovascular reactivity measures would allow for additional exploration of
445 subconscious and objective measures of challenge and threat and ego depletion, equally
446 reducing possible subjectivity and bias (e.g., social desirability; Blascovich, 2008). It is also
447 suggested that future research examine the relationship between ego depletion and challenge
448 and threat in a controlled laboratory environment, enabling a more causal understanding of the
449 relationship. Furthermore, as moderation analyses were not performed, future research is
450 encouraged to explore if the effects of ego depletion on performance is moderated by challenge
451 and threat appraisals. It is also important to explore other proposed mechanisms of ego
452 depletion (rather than the consequence of a limited self-control resource) on challenge and
453 threat evaluations, such as motivation or attention (e.g., Inzlicht and Schmeichel, 2012,
454 Kurzban, Duckworth, Kable & Myers, 2013). Equally, further examination of the effect of ego
455 depletion on other types of stress appraisals is warranted (e.g., Lazarus, 1984).

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Conclusion

In summary, this study offered an initial test of the effect of ego depletion on challenge and threat evaluations and subjective ratings of performance during a potentially stressful public speaking task. Although the results supported the effectiveness of the self-control (ego depletion) manipulation (i.e., written transcription task), there were no significant differences between the ego depletion and control groups in terms of challenge and threat evaluations or subjective ratings of performance. Thus, the findings suggest that ego depletion might not affect the appraisals of potentially stressful tasks. However, additional exploratory analyses suggested that individuals who were more sensitive to depletion, and who believed that willpower was more limited, were more likely to evaluate the potentially stressful task as a threat and doubt in their ability to perform the task successfully. Thus, this study contributes to the growing body of evidence questioning and examining the ego depletion phenomenon.

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676 **Table 1.** Means and SDs for all trait self-control data.

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	Ego Depletion		Control	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Trait self-control	41.08	7.49	41.61	7.38
Depletion sensitivity	44.83	11.30	45.04	11.26
Implicit beliefs about willpower	25.38	4.77	24.61	4.34

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EGO DEPLETION AND CHALLENGE/THREAT

701 **Table 2.** Means and SDs for all self-control (ego depletion) manipulation check data.

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	Ego Depletion		Control	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Number of words	60.28	19.20	86.21	27.12***
Number of Errors	9.58	5.29	2.82	2.96***
Regulation of writing habits	2.94	0.83	2.03	0.87***
Required effort	2.94	0.80	2.15	0.93***

703 *Note:* significantly different from the ego depletion group, *** $p < .001$

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719 **Table 3.** Means and SDs for challenge and threat evaluation (DRES) and subjective speech
 720 performance data.

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	Ego Depletion		Control	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
DRES	-1.73	2.30	-1.58	2.29
Subjective speech performance	2.78	1.62	2.80	1.40

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738 **Table 4.** Correlations for trait self-control, self-control manipulation checks, DRES and subjective performance

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Variables	Trait self-control	Depletion Sensitivity	Willpower (Strenuous mental activity)	Regulation (of writing habits)	Effort (required in transcription)	DRES	Subjective performance ⁷⁴⁰
Trait self-control	1	-.522**	-.228**	-.081	-.012	.109	.075
Depletion Sensitivity	-.511**	1	.505**	.028	.033	-.311**	-.218**
Willpower (Strenuous mental activity)	-.249**	.596**	1	.086	.067	-.184*	-.170*
Regulation (of writing habits)	-.177	.259**	.137	1	.418**	.004	.006
Effort (required in transcription)	-.199*	.294**	.115	.559**	1	-.040	-.035
DRES	.032	-.339**	-.216*	-.185*	-.125	1	.734**
Subjective performance	.034	-.310**	-.100	-.089	-.140	.700**	1

751 *N.B* Correlation for the control group is below the diagonal, the ego depletion group is above.

752 ** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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