



# Losing its expected communal value: how stereotype threat undermines women's identity as research scientists

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3 **Losing its expected communal value: how stereotype**  
4 **threat undermines women's identity as research**  
5 **scientists**

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10 **Abstract** The worry or concern over confirming negative gender group stereo-  
11 types, called stereotype threat, is one explanation for women's worldwide under-  
12 representation in undergraduate science classes and majors. But how does  
13 stereotype threat translate into fewer women motivated for science? In this quan-  
14 titative study with a sample from the US, we use Expectancy Value Theory to  
15 examine whether and how stereotype threat concerns might influence women's  
16 science identification. To do this, we collected survey data from 388 women en-  
17 rolled in introductory physics (male-dominated) and biology (female-dominated)  
18 undergraduate laboratory classes at three universities. We examined multiple  
19 indirect effect paths through which stereotype threat could be associated with sci-  
20 ence identity and the associated future motivation to engage in scientific research. In  
21 addition to replicating established expectancy-value theory motivational findings,  
22 results support the novel prediction that one route through which stereotype threat  
23 negatively impacts women's science identity is via effects on perceptions about the  
24 communal utility value of science. Especially among women in physics who

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25 expressed greater stereotype threat concerns than women in biology, science  
 26 identification was lower to the extent that stereotype threat reduced how useful  
 27 science was seen for helping other people and society. Implications for ways to  
 28 create an inclusive learning context that combats stereotype threat concerns and  
 29 broadens undergraduate women's participation in science are discussed.

31 **Keywords** Gender · Science identification · Science education · Expectancy  
 32 value · Stereotype threat · Motivation

35 I've always felt that in physics you must have total commitment...it's not a  
 36 job; it's my whole life.

—Dr. Chien-Shiung Wu

38 First woman elected as president of the American Physical Society, 1975

## 40 1 Introduction

41 As Dr. Wu, a Chinese-American woman nuclear physicist, illustrates in this opening  
 42 quotation, “scientist” can be a personal identity; a fundamental aspect of the self-  
 43 concept (Smith and White 2001; Markus 1977). To the extent that such  
 44 identification with science (or any field) predicts achievement and perseverance  
 45 (e.g., Chemers et al. 2011; Woodcock et al. 2012) it is important to understand the  
 46 ways in which science identity is developed, undermined, or lays latent as a function  
 47 of particular social educational structures. Dr. Wu broke many gender (and ethnic)  
 48 barriers, where the zeitgeist was blatant racism and sanctioned sexism in US society  
 49 (see Hammond 2009).

50 Worldwide, women are still rare among physicists. For example, women receive  
 51 as few as 19 % of undergraduate physics degrees in the United States (National  
 52 Science Board 2012) with similar patterns emerging in tertiary and doctoral degrees  
 53 worldwide (European Commission 2012). Scandinavian countries graduate the  
 54 fewest percentage of women physics undergraduates whereas Iran and Italy yield  
 55 higher percentages (Urry 2000). As the International Union of Pure and Applied  
 56 Physics Working Group on Women in Physics (2000) reports “despite cultural  
 57 differences, the overall situation for women in physics in India, Egypt, Brazil, Latin  
 58 America, Uruguay, Bolivia and Argentina is much the same. Fewer women than  
 59 men are receiving degrees in physics.” Such underrepresentation renders women  
 60 who are in physics as “tokens”; such solo status can trigger worry or concern about  
 61 fulfilling gender stereotypes (e.g., Sekaquaptewa and Thompson 2003). The current  
 62 study examines the extent to which women in undergraduate physics laboratory  
 63 classes experience these gender stereotype concerns and whether and how such  
 64 concerns contribute to women's identification with science and the associated  
 65 motivation to engage in scientific research.

66 Social identities are comprised of “people's knowledge of their memberships in  
 67 social groups and the emotional significance that they attach to these memberships”  
 68 (p. 611, Swann and Bosson 2010). When a situation (e.g., a science classroom)  
 69 signals that an aspect of one's social identity (e.g., gender) may be viewed or judged



70 through the lens of a negative stereotype, this type of social identity threat is termed  
 71 “stereotype threat” (Steele et al.). Because being outnumbered by men implicitly  
 72 activates feelings of stereotype threat (e.g., Inzlicht and Ben-Zeev 2000; Smith and  
 73 White 2002) when women work or learn in male-dominated fields, they often  
 74 experience feelings of stereotype threat (Schmader 2002; Schmader et al. 2004;  
 75 Steele et al. 2002a).

76 Nearly 20 years of research on stereotype threat has established that when gender  
 77 stereotypes are activated in a high stakes testing situation, women's math and  
 78 science performance suffers (for a review see Nguyen and Ryan 2008). Yet, even  
 79 high ability women who perform well are more likely to opt out of science,  
 80 technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) domains at a greater proportion  
 81 than their male counterparts, indicating a motivational explanation (e.g., Good et al.  
 82 2012; Jacobs et al. 2005; Seymour and Hewitt 1995; Smith et al. 2013; Stout et al.  
 83 2011; Xie and Shauman 2003). Performance, skills, and confidence are important to  
 84 be sure, but scholars and educators must consider more than just ability to  
 85 understand science identity (McGee et al. 2012). Indeed, the development of a  
 86 strong identity as a scientist is shaped by a number of additional motivational  
 87 factors unrelated to performance (Schmader et al. 2004; Shapiro and Williams 2012;  
 88 Thoman et al. 2013) and we focus here on the impact of stereotype threat on  
 89 undergraduate women's perceptions about the values of science that may be  
 90 associated with women's overall science identity.

### 91 1.1 Science identification

92 Developing and maintaining a stable academic domain identity is paramount to  
 93 positive educational and career outcomes (e.g., Ahlqvist et al. 2013). There are  
 94 multiple inputs, pathways, and consequences associated with a student's identifi-  
 95 cation with an academic domain (for a review see Osborne and Jones 2011), and  
 96 cultural norms often exert a strong influence (Swann and Bosson 2010). Yet, few  
 97 studies have examined *whether* women's academic domain identification is  
 98 associated with stereotype threat specifically (as reviewed by Thoman et al.  
 99 2013), and no studies that we are aware examine *how* stereotype threat contributes  
 100 to women's science identification.

101 A handful of studies have shown a negative relationship between awareness of  
 102 (and sensitivity to) stereotypes and domain identity (Ahlqvist et al. 2013; Nosek  
 103 et al. 2002; Karpinski and Hilton 2001). For example, among undergraduate women  
 104 living in a dormitory for “women in science and engineering” (WISE), awareness  
 105 of explicit gender stereotypes about STEM was negatively correlated to identifi-  
 106 cation with science (Ramsey et al. 2013). Moreover, in situations where stereotype  
 107 threat is likely to be low (e.g., in the presence of counter-stereotypic role models and  
 108 experts), science identity is stronger (Stout et al. 2011; Young et al. 2013). One of  
 109 the few studies that examined the connection between stereotype threat specifically  
 110 and overall domain identification showed greater levels of stereotype threat among  
 111 Latino undergraduate students was associated with lower levels of science identity  
 112 which in turn, predicted a decreased desire to pursue a scientific career after college  
 113 (Woodcock et al. 2012).

114 We build on this work examining the relationship between stereotypes and  
 115 science identity and ask whether *and* how the degree to which even slight variations  
 116 in naturally occurring stereotype threat concerns contribute to undergraduate  
 117 women's identification with science specifically, and the relationship between  
 118 science identity and associated future intention to pursue scientific research with  
 119 faculty. Given the dearth of literature on this specific association, we draw from  
 120 established motivational theories, specifically expectancy-value theory, to inform  
 121 our hypotheses.

## 122 1.2 Expectancy value theory

123 People feeling vulnerable to stereotype threat not only underperform on high stakes  
 124 exams such as the Graduate Record Exam (see Nguyen and Ryan 2008 for review),  
 125 but also suffer decrements in confidence, elevated anxiety, and an overall reduction  
 126 in expectancies for academic success (e.g., Cadinu et al. 2003, 2005; Stangor et al.  
 127 1998; for a review see Smith 2004). The role of such performance expectancies in  
 128 women and girls' motivation for STEM has a long history within the Expectancy-  
 129 Value Theory literature (e.g., Eccles 1989, 2009; Eccles and Wigfield 2002; see  
 130 Wang and Degol 2013 for a review). Expectancy-Value Theory is a multiplicative  
 131 function used to predict performance and motivation, and it is assumed that  
 132 expectancy and value are positively related to each other (e.g., Eccles and Wigfield  
 133 2002). According to the theory, individuals choose, persist, and succeed in career  
 134 fields/educational domains to the extent they believe that they will do well in the  
 135 field (expectancies) and the field is relatively valuable (value perceptions).

136 Among children, expectancies for success predict achievement performance  
 137 (e.g., grades) and perceiving relatively high value, in mathematics or sports for  
 138 example, predicts motivation (e.g., greater course enrollment and involvement, see  
 139 Eccles and Wigfield 2002 for a review). Over time, expectancies and value become  
 140 positively related to each other as children develop into adults and begin to see more  
 141 and more value in tasks they perform well. Results hold true whether those  
 142 expectancies or values come about directly from close others (e.g., a mother's  
 143 beliefs about her daughter's math ability, Jacobs and Eccles 1992) or broader socio-  
 144 cultural norms (e.g., stereotypes, Wang and Degol 2013; Eccles 2005).

145 Thus, Expectancy-Value Theory predicts if stereotype threat is associated with a  
 146 decline in expectancies for success (operationalized as confidence and anxiety),  
 147 women's motivation and identification with science should similarly suffer (Eccles  
 148 2009). As past work has confirmed the deleterious effects of stereotype threat on  
 149 confidence (e.g., Cadinu et al. 2003) and anxiety (albeit evidence for anxiety is  
 150 mixed, see Smith 2004 for a review), we expect to replicate these expectancy  
 151 findings among undergraduate women in physics lab classes, compared to those  
 152 enrolled in biology, as a function of increased stereotype threat concerns. We also  
 153 test whether women's expectancies for success in their science lab classes (and the  
 154 contribution of each expectancy aspect in particular) is associated with women's  
 155 identification with science and future motivation to engage in scientific research.

156 For the most part, the focus of expectancy-value research on women in science  
 157 has centered predominantly on the "expectancy" side of the theory (and has



158 extended into other theories such as social-cognitive career theory, Lent et al. 1996)  
 159 with an emphasis on policies and practices aimed at supporting students' feelings of  
 160 competence and confidence (Eccles and Wigfield 2002). The role of "value" in the  
 161 Expectancy-Value Theory equation, has received considerably less empirical  
 162 attention in the literature. Eccles herself has suggested that understanding value,  
 163 particularly in terms of how it relates to students' perceptions of their own identities  
 164 and social roles, is key to understanding motivated action (Eccles et al. 1999).  
 165 Indeed, when a student says to herself "I can, but I don't want to" such a choice  
 166 likely reflects the relative perceived (low) value of the option (Jacobs et al. 2005).

167 To be sure, there are many different types of values that an academic major, a  
 168 career or task can afford that will motivate students (i.e., attainment value, intrinsic  
 169 value, utility value, perceived cost; Eccles 2005). We focus here on "utility value."  
 170 A discipline or task has utility value if a person perceives the task as affording a  
 171 means for reaching either a short- or long-term goal, for example, helping other  
 172 people. Students who are guided to self-generate the "utility" of a task or are  
 173 provided information about a task's utility during instruction show more interest in  
 174 the task, especially those who are low in confidence (e.g., Hulleman and  
 175 Harackiewicz 2009; Hulleman et al. 2010).

176 Utility value is a broad category; we focus here on two types: communal and  
 177 agentic utility value (Fiske et al. 2007; Diekman et al. 2011). These two types of  
 178 utility value are fundamental values embedded within most cultures (e.g., Bakan  
 179 1966; Fiske et al. 2007; Helgeson 1994; Pohlmann 2001). Communal value is the  
 180 extent to which a task is other-oriented (i.e., involves working with or helping others  
 181 and creates opportunity for intimate bonds) whereas agentic value is the extent to  
 182 which a task provides autonomy, power, prestige or wealth (Pohlmann 2001).  
 183 Communion is embedded within female (and typically western) gender norms and  
 184 agency within male (typically western) gender norms (e.g., Eagly et al. 2000) and as  
 185 a cause or consequence, there is a large robust finding that men prefer working with  
 186 "things" and women prefer working with "people" (see the meta analyses by Su  
 187 et al. 2009).

188 Although American male and female children as young as 5 on up through adults  
 189 all equally value agentic utility (e.g., money), women and girls are more likely to  
 190 value communal utility (e.g., Morgan et al. 2001; Weisgram et al. 2010; Konrad  
 191 et al. 2000), and seeing such value in a given field is associated with women's career  
 192 interest and motivation (e.g., Diekman et al. 2010, 2011; McGee and Keller 2007).  
 193 For example, Weisgram et al. (2010) demonstrated that a novel job described as  
 194 high in communal utility (defined as having altruistic value) was linked to decreased  
 195 interest for boys and men, but among girls and women, interest in the novel job was  
 196 just as high if described as affording altruistic utility (communal) or money utility  
 197 (agentic). Science jobs are generally perceived as low in communal utility value;  
 198 science is seen as providing few opportunities to connect with and benefit other  
 199 people; especially compared to other formerly male-dominated disciplines (medical  
 200 doctor, lawyer) and female-dominated disciplines (e.g., nursing, education)  
 201 (Diekman et al. 2010). This perception of science as non-communal is problematic  
 202 and deters undergraduate American women from a science, career (Diekman et al.  
 203 2010, 2011). In short (mis)perceptions that science professions are low in communal



204 values conveys information that is at odds with what many women value in a career  
 205 (e.g., Good et al. 2012; Morgan et al. 2001; Smith et al. 2013) and such low  
 206 communal value is likely an impediment to women's science identity (Wang and  
 207 Degol 2013).

208 When stereotype threat is triggered, women become vigilant to cues that they do  
 209 not belong (e.g., Cheryan et al. 2009; Good et al. 2012). As such, we predicted that  
 210 women may be particularly likely to perceive science as low in communal value  
 211 utility when experiencing stereotype threat in their science classroom, which would be  
 212 a novel finding. This prediction is based in research on "stereotype threat spillover"  
 213 (Carr and Steele 2010) such that coping with stereotype threat can lead women to be  
 214 loss-averse (Carr and Steele 2010), cause women to downplay the importance of their  
 215 own feminine characteristics (Pronin et al. 2003) result in a deflated sense of women's  
 216 communal "we" sense of self (Keller and Sekaquaptewa 2008), and make salient the  
 217 majority group's values (in this case, the majority group is white men who do not  
 218 highly value the communal utility of science, Smith et al. 2014a, b). It is therefore  
 219 important to ask if certain science classroom contexts (those more likely to trigger  
 220 stereotype threat) undermine undergraduate women's ability to see science disciplines  
 221 as affording communal utility value, and if so, such low communal utility value  
 222 should negatively influence women's willingness to identify with science.

### 223 1.3 Study overview

224 The goal of the study was to examine whether and how stereotype threat impacts  
 225 women's science identity using an Expectancy-Value Theory formulation with a  
 226 specific focus on communal utility value. We also examined the relationship  
 227 between science identity and women's intention to engage in future scientific  
 228 research (versus motivation for science more generally). Understanding women's  
 229 intention to pursue and engage in scientific research as part of their future college  
 230 studies is especially important considering the need to diversify the scientific  
 231 workforce to improve discovery, innovation, and remain competitive to meet global  
 232 scientific needs (McGee et al. 2012; STEMconnector 2012; President's Council of  
 233 Advisors on Science and Technology 2012). Women are highly underrepresented in  
 234 science jobs in general, but are even more likely than men to opt out of *research*  
 235 *intensive* science majors and careers (e.g., Martinez et al. 2007) especially in highly  
 236 male-dominated science research fields such as physics (NSF 2011).

237 We surveyed undergraduate women at three US universities enrolled in either  
 238 highly male-dominated physics laboratory classes or female-dominated biology  
 239 laboratory classes. It was predicted that women in physics lab classes would report  
 240 greater experiences of stereotype threat than women in biology lab classes because  
 241 the male-dominated nature of the classes should trigger stereotype threat (Inzlicht  
 242 and Ben-Zeev 2000; Smith and White 2002). Moreover, it was expected that greater  
 243 gender stereotype threat concerns would reduce expectancies for success (in line  
 244 with past research findings). Our novel prediction was that greater stereotype threat  
 245 concerns would be associated with a reduction in the perceived communal utility  
 246 value of science that would be related to less willingness to identify with science.  
 247 We further expected that lower levels of science identity would be associated with

women's decreased intention to engage in scientific research with faculty. We also explored the contributing role of an alternative type of utility value (agency). Although less central to the study aim, it was possible that stereotype threat would be linked to greater agentic value perceptions. Recall, agentic utility values are characterized by a self-oriented focus and involves seeking new experiences with a focus on power, competition and/or achievement (Pohlmann 2001). Given science is a "masculine" field that is (or at least is stereotyped as) highly competitive and agentic (Diekmann et al. 2010; see also Smith et al. 2013) it is possible that women who have greater gender stereotype threat concerns would be more likely to associate agentic values with science. Alternatively, because agency is already central to the culture of science, it is possible that perceptions of the agentic value of science will be unaffected by stereotype threat concerns. We test both possibilities.

## 2 Method

### 2.1 Participants and procedure

A total of 388 women enrolled in introductory biology ( $n = 198$ ) and physics ( $n = 190$ ) courses (61.6 % Caucasian; ages 18–39; median age = 20.78; 12.4 % Freshman; 27.6 % Sophomores; 24.7 % Juniors; 32.2 % Seniors; 2.5 % "other") at three different universities (located in the South, West Coast, and Mountain West in the United States of America) participated in this survey in exchange for \$10 in compensation. More than one-half (61.9 %) of the participants reported majoring in a STEM discipline, 37.4 % reported majoring in some other discipline, and 0.7 % had not yet declared a major. The introductory biology courses we sampled from were populated primarily by women (67.6 %) whereas the introductory physics courses mainly consisted of men (64.3 %). No differences emerged as a function of data collection site, thus this variable is not discussed further.

Course rosters containing student email addresses for students enrolled in biology and physics lower division (100 and 200 level) lab courses were obtained from the registrars' offices. Email messages inviting students to participate in a "research motivation study" to "gain understanding about perceptions of science lab classes" were then distributed to students at the midpoint of the academic term. Participants completed an internet-based survey assessing which lab class they were enrolled in, their feelings of stereotype threat, and measures assessing their confidence in science, anxiety about science, beliefs about the degree to which science fulfills communal and agentic utility values, their future research intentions and, most importantly, their identification with science. Measures were counterbalanced.

### 2.2 Measures

#### 2.2.1 *Stereotype threat*

Participants rated themselves on three different items adapted from the Impression and Threat Concern Scale (Marx and Goff 2005; see also Keller and Sekaquaptewa

287 2008) on scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7(*strongly agree*). The  
 288 adapted items were as follows: “I worry that my ability to perform well in my class  
 289 is affected by my gender;” “I worry that if I perform poorly in my science lab class,  
 290 others will attribute my poor performance to my gender;” and “I worry that,  
 291 because I know the negative stereotype about women and science ability, my  
 292 anxiety about confirming this stereotype will negatively influence how I perform in  
 293 my science lab class.” The three items were summed to form a stereotype threat  
 294 (ST) index ( $\alpha = 0.90$ ).

### 295 2.2.2 Confidence in science

296 As one index of expectancy for success, we assessed science confidence using the  
 297 confidence in learning science (CLS) subscale of the Science Motivation  
 298 Questionnaire (SMQ; Glynn and Koballa 2006). Participants respond to five items  
 299 on Likert scales ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). The five confidence items are  
 300 as follows: (a) “When I am in a college science course I expect to do as well as or  
 301 better than other students in the science course”; (b) “When I am in a college  
 302 science course I am confident I will do well on the science labs and projects”;  
 303 (c) “When I am in a college science course I believe I can master the knowledge and  
 304 skills in the science course”; (d) “When I am in a college science course I am  
 305 confident I will do well on the science tests”; and (e) “When I am in a college  
 306 science course I believe I can earn a grade of ‘A’ in the science course.” These  
 307 items were summed to create a confidence in science index ( $\alpha = 0.84$ ).

### 308 2.2.3 Anxiety about science

309 As a second index to expectancy for success, we used the 5-item “anxiety about  
 310 science assessment” (ASA) subscale of the SMQ (Glynn and Koballa 2006) to  
 311 measure science anxiety. ASA items include: (a) “I am nervous about how I will do  
 312 on the science tests”; (b) “I worry about failing the science tests”; (c) “I become  
 313 anxious when it is time to take a science test”; (d) “I am concerned that other  
 314 students are better in science”; and (e) “I hate taking science tests”. These items  
 315 were originally designed to be reversed-scored and summed to contribute to an  
 316 overall motivation score on the SMQ. However, factor analytic work with the SMQ  
 317 has shown ASA items to produce strong factor loadings, with standardized coefficients  
 318 ranging from 0.63 to 0.81 (Glynn, Taasobshirazi, & Brickman 2009). The ASA is  
 319 therefore believed to possess sufficient enough construct validity to be used as a stand-  
 320 alone measure. Responses are scored on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5  
 321 (*always*). These items were summed to form an anxiety index ( $\alpha = 0.83$ ).

### 322 2.2.4 Perceptions of science utility values

323 Participants answered two questions assessing how much they believed that science  
 324 careers afforded communal and agentic utility values on scales ranging from 1 (*not*  
 325 *at all*) to 7 (*extremely*) (taken from Diekman et al. 2010, 2011). The communal item  
 326 was as follows: “How much do you believe that science affords working with

327 people, helping others, and serving the community?" The agentic item was as  
 328 follows: "How much do you believe that science affords power, achievement, and  
 329 seeking new experiences or excitement?"

### 330 2.2.5 Future science research intentions

331 Participants rated their intention to engage in science research in the future on three  
 332 items on scales ranging from 1 (*not likely at all*) to 5 (*very likely*) as used in Smith  
 333 et al. (2014b). The items were as follows: "How likely would you be to pursue  
 334 undergraduate research opportunities?" "How likely would you be to volunteer to  
 335 work in a faculty research lab?" "How likely would you be to volunteer to work on  
 336 a faculty member's research team?" "How likely would you be to volunteer to work  
 337 on a faculty member's research?" These items were summed to form a research  
 338 intentions index ( $\alpha = 0.96$ ).

### 339 2.2.6 Identification with science

340 Items from a group identification measure developed by Doosje et al. (1995) were  
 341 adapted to assess the extent of participants' identification with science. The original  
 342 4-item measure was developed for the purpose of tapping the cognitive and affective  
 343 dimensions of identification with an academic domain (i.e., "I see myself as a  
 344 psychology student"). For the purposes of this study, we modified the original  
 345 measure and added two additional items to provide broader coverage of the above-  
 346 noted dimensions of identification. Items in the present study were rated on a 1  
 347 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) scale as follows: (a) "I see myself as a  
 348 science student"; (b) "I am pleased to be a science student"; (c) "I feel strong ties  
 349 with other science students"; (d) "I identify with other science students"; (e) "I feel  
 350 that being a science student is an important reflection of who I am" (added item  
 351 from Luhtanen and Crocker 1992; Walsh and Smith 2007); and (f) "I don't act like  
 352 the typical science student" (reverse-scored; see Walsh and Smith 2007). These  
 353 items were summed to form an identification with science index ( $\alpha = 0.90$ ).

## 354 3 Results

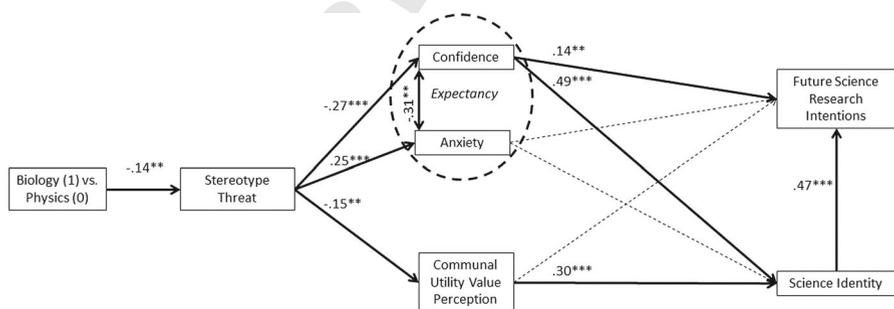
### 355 3.1 Analyses overview

356 Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics and correlations for all of the study  
 357 variables. Two structural equation models were analyzed using *Mplus* version 7  
 358 (Muthen and Muthen 2012) using the maximum likelihood estimation model. Model  
 359 1 provides a test for our conceptual model, with a focus on the relationship between  
 360 stereotype threat effects and science identity occurring through communal utility  
 361 value (see Fig. 1). In model 2, we add agentic utility as a secondary value process  
 362 variable alongside communal utility value, in order to test whether potential effects  
 363 involving communal utility value hold even when accounting for students' agentic  
 364 values (see Fig. 2). Because the models that we present are not nested, we cannot

**Table 1** Correlations, means, standard deviations, and ranges for model variables

Subscale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Stereotype threat	–	–0.25***	0.25***	–0.15**	–0.06	–0.03	–0.12*
2 Confidence		–	–0.34***	0.20***	0.26***	0.37***	0.50***
3 Anxiety			–	–0.06	–0.01	–0.07	–0.14**
4 Communal utility value perception				–	0.43***	0.27***	0.38***
5 Agentic utility value perception					–	0.31***	0.38***
6 Future science research intentions						–	0.56***
7 Science identification							–
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> values							
Model 1 <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> values	0.02	0.07	0.06	0.02	–	0.32	0.32
Model 2 <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> values	0.02	0.07	0.06	0.02	0.004	0.31	0.33
Total mean	5.96	19.25	17.37	5.68	5.98	14.09	31.21
Biology mean	5.36	19.64	17.37	5.69	6.06	14.21	31.14
Physics mean	6.58	18.80	17.38	5.67	5.91	13.95	31.28
Total standard deviation	4.25	3.56	4.38	1.13	1.04	4.81	7.67
Biology mean	3.75	3.49	4.13	1.18	1.00	4.97	8.54
Physics mean	4.64	3.60	4.65	1.07	1.08	4.63	6.65
Range	3–21	5–25	5–25	1–7	1–7	5–20	6–42

\*\* *p* < 0.01; \*\*\* *p* < 0.001



**Fig. 1** Model 1: Testing perceived communal utility value of science. Path coefficients represent the statistically significant standardized estimates from the structural equation analysis. *Dashed lines* indicate non-significant paths in the model. *R*<sup>2</sup> values for the variables ranged from 0.02 (Stereotype Threat; Communal Utility Value Perception) to 0.32 (Science Identity; Future Science Research Intentions). Note: \*\**p* < 0.01; \*\*\**p* < 0.001

365 statistically compare model fit. Instead we indirectly compare the models based on  
 366 the fit indices for each model ( $\chi^2/df$ , CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR).

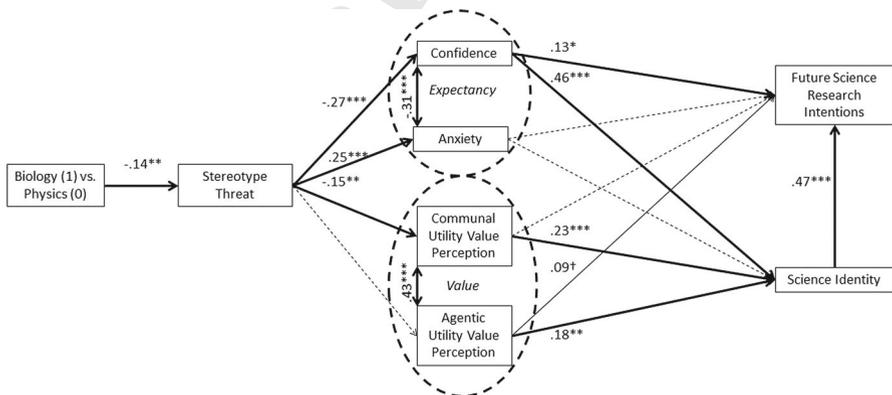
367 3.2 Testing the role of perceived communal utility value: model 1

368 Overall, model fit statistics indicate that our conceptual model provides a good fit  
 369 for the data. Three indices for this model suggest a good fit (CFI = 0.967;  
 370 RMSEA = 0.062; SMR = 0.04), and one indicator suggests that this is an  
 371 acceptably fitting model ( $\chi^2/df = 2.513$ ). Because the overall model achieved  
 372 good fit, we can explore the specific theoretical predictions through direct and  
 373 indirect paths between variables, as illustrated in Fig. 1.

374 The first prediction tested in our conceptual model is that women in physics  
 375 classes would report higher levels of stereotype threat than those in biology classes.  
 376 As seen in the significant relationship between the two variables at the left side of  
 377 Fig. 1, this hypothesis was confirmed (means for biology and physics classes are  
 378 presented in Table 1).

379 The next relationships tested in the model involved the relationship among  
 380 stereotype threat and women's expectancy-value motivation variables. Among the  
 381 expectancy variables, replicating previous findings, greater feelings of stereotype  
 382 threat significantly predicted lower confidence and higher anxiety. Further, central  
 383 to the current study's predictions, greater feelings of stereotype threat also  
 384 significantly predicted lower perceptions of communal utility value of science  
 385 among these women science students.

386 Next, the model tests whether the expectancy-value variables were associated  
 387 with science identity. As seen in Fig. 1, although both confidence and anxiety  
 388 significantly correlated with science identity in the expected directions (see  
 389 Table 1), when both variables were accounted for in the model, only confidence,



**Fig. 2** Model 2: The additional contribution of perceived agentic utility value of science. Path coefficients represent the statistically significant standardized estimates from the structural equation analysis. *Dashed lines* indicate non-significant paths in the model. R<sup>2</sup> values for the variables ranged from 0.02 (Stereotype Threat; Communal Utility Value Perception) to 0.33 (Science Identity). Note: †*p* < 0.10; \**p* < 0.05; \*\**p* < 0.01; \*\*\**p* < 0.001

390 and not anxiety, was significantly related to science identity. More importantly for  
 391 the current study's predictions, greater perceived science communal utility value  
 392 was significantly associated with greater science identity.

393 We next examined indirect effects, which can reveal the influence of a variable  
 394 that a direct effect test might miss (e.g., Preacher and Hayes 2004). Indeed, the tests  
 395 of model indirect effects also demonstrate that stereotype threat was significantly  
 396 indirectly associated with science identification through two paths. Consistent with  
 397 others' theoretical predictions (e.g., Cadinu et al. 2003), the first significant indirect  
 398 path suggests that stereotype threat predicts lower science identity through its  
 399 association with confidence (bootstrapped, 95 % CI  $-0.35$  to  $-0.13$ ). In addition, we  
 400 are the first to predict and provide evidence that even small increases in stereotype  
 401 threat indirectly relates to a decrease in science identity through its association with  
 402 perceived communal utility value of science (bootstrapped, 95 % CI  $-0.14$  to  $-$   
 403  $0.02$ ).

404 Lastly, as seen in Fig. 1, the model demonstrates that future intentions to pursue  
 405 research are directly predicted both by science identity and confidence. As with  
 406 science identity, tests of indirect effects suggest that stereotype threat significantly  
 407 indirectly relates to lower research intentions through multiple paths. First, a  
 408 significant path through both confidence (bootstrapped, 95 % CI  $-0.087$  to  $-0.014$ )  
 409 and confidence and science identification emerged (bootstrapped, 95 % CI  $-0.107$   
 410 to  $-0.038$ ). More important for the current study hypotheses, a significant path from  
 411 stereotype threat to science research intentions emerged through perceived  
 412 communal utility value and science identity (bootstrapped, 95 % CI  $-0.042$  to  $-$   
 413  $0.006$ ). Thus, although perceived communal utility value did not directly influence  
 414 research intentions (despite their positive correlation, see Table 1), it did play an  
 415 indirect role along with science identity in explaining how feelings of stereotype  
 416 threat predict women's lower intentions to engage in science research.

### 417 3.3 Testing the possible contribution of perceived agentic utility value: model 2

418 Although our conceptual model emphasizes the contributions of perceived  
 419 communal utility value to women's science identity, agentic values (high pay,  
 420 opportunities for pursuing one's curiosity, and intrinsic science interests) are the  
 421 values that the majority of people consider as centrally important to science  
 422 motivation, identity, and success (Dyer and McWhinnie 2011; McGee and Keller  
 423 2007; Smith et al. 2014b; Webb et al. 2002). Thus, it is possible that when  
 424 accounting for agentic values in our model, the role of communal utility value  
 425 perceptions could diminish. We test this empirical question by estimating Model 2,  
 426 which is identical to Model 1 but with the addition of perceived agentic utility value  
 427 as a parallel value alongside communal utility value (see Fig. 2).

428 As seen in Fig. 2, although greater agentic value perceptions significantly predict  
 429 greater science identity, agentic value perceptions are not influenced by stereotype  
 430 threat nor do they play an indirect role in effects of stereotype threat on science  
 431 identity. More importantly for our theoretical framework, including agentic value  
 432 perceptions in the model does not change effects of communal utility value  
 433 perceptions. Both the direct and indirect effects involving communal utility value

434 reported in Model 1 remain significant in Model 2. Further, examination of model fit  
 435 statistics suggests that adding agentic utility value does not improve fit of the  
 436 empirical model (CFI = 0.944; RMSEA = 0.079; SMR = 0.061;  $\chi^2/df = 3.412$ ).  
 437 Each of the model fit indices indicate that Model 1 fits the data better than Model 2.  
 438 Thus, adding perceived agentic utility value to the empirical model does not  
 439 diminish the importance of communal utility value.

#### 440 3.4 Testing alternative reverse pathway models

441 Although we argue that stereotype threat concerns are associated with a reduction in  
 442 expectancies for success and the perceived communal utility value of science, the  
 443 correlational nature of our data render it important to test reverse pathways among  
 444 the variables. We did this in two ways. To start, we tested whether the type of class  
 445 (physics versus biology) was associated with confidence, anxiety, and communal  
 446 utility value, and if in turn, these variables were associated with concerns about  
 447 stereotype threat, with stereotype threat concerns being more proximally associated  
 448 with science identity and motivation. Model fit statistics show that reversing the  
 449 relationships in this way resulted in poor fit (CFI = 0.57; RMSEA = 0.20;  
 450 SRMR = 0.14;  $\chi^2/df = 17.05$ ) suggesting that this pathway was not a significantly  
 451 supported possibility.

452 Next, we tested whether the type of class (physics versus biology) was associated  
 453 with communal utility value first, and if in turn this variable was associated with  
 454 concerns about stereotype threat, with stereotype threat concerns then being  
 455 associated with expectancies (confidence and anxiety), science identity, and  
 456 motivation. Again, the model fit statistics show that reversing the model in this  
 457 way also resulted in a poor fit (CFI = 0.84; RMSEA = 0.12; SMR = 0.09;  $\chi^2/$   
 458  $df = 6.76$ ).

459 Taken together, we argue that although the causal pathways cannot be confirmed  
 460 with complete certainty because of the correlational nature of the data, testing these  
 461 alternative pathway models offer some evidence as to the veracity of the direction of  
 462 effects as shown in Model 1. We return to this topic in the discussion.

## 463 4 Discussion

464 Understanding factors that influence women's science identity is important to  
 465 understanding women's pursuit and persistence in male dominated STEM fields  
 466 (e.g., Osborne and Jones 2011; Ramsey et al. 2013). We set out to examine whether  
 467 and how women's science identity is associated with feelings of stereotype threat,  
 468 especially in male-dominated physics classes. Drawing from Expectancy-Value  
 469 Theory (e.g., Eccles and Wigfield 2002), we focused on the associations among  
 470 science identity, stereotype threat, and women's perceptions about the communal  
 471 utility value of science –perceptions about how much science affords the chance to  
 472 work with and help other people. As predicted, our findings showed that in line with  
 473 past experimental work on stereotype threat (e.g., Murphy et al. 2007) feelings of  
 474 stereotype threat were relatively greater in the (male-dominated) physics lab classes

475 versus the (female-dominated) biology lab classes. This is important, as there are  
 476 clearly essential differences within various types of science disciplines that should  
 477 not be overlooked, which can happen when “science” fields are merged into one  
 478 broad category. The relationship between science identity and stereotype threat was  
 479 significantly associated with beliefs about how much science fulfills communal  
 480 utility value. The addition of perceived agentic utility value did not add to or change  
 481 the pattern of results. Science identification was also found to be important in  
 482 predicting future intentions to engage in science research, which was generally  
 483 lower among women who reported feeling stereotype threat.

484 Our findings are among only a handful to date that examine women’s science  
 485 identity as an outcome predicted by stereotype threat, and are one of the first to  
 486 demonstrate one of the ways in which even small differences in stereotype threat  
 487 experiences in a naturalistic setting contribute to women’s science identity.  
 488 Women’s science identity was associated indirectly with stereotype threat via  
 489 perceptions in how much science can and does involve working with and helping  
 490 other people. When women reported fewer stereotype threat concerns, they were  
 491 more likely to see that science has communal utility value, and in turn greater  
 492 perceived communal utility value was associated with elevated science identity. In  
 493 contrast, when women reported greater stereotype threat concerns, which was more  
 494 often the case in male-dominated physics classes compared to biology classes, they  
 495 also viewed science as affording fewer communal utility opportunities; lower  
 496 communal utility value was associated with lower science identity. These findings,  
 497 we hope, have both theoretical and applied implications.

498 Theoretically, our model merged together three different literatures to test  
 499 predictions about influences on undergraduate women’s science identity: stereotype  
 500 threat (e.g., Steele 1997), Expectancy-Value Theory (e.g., Eccles and Wigfield  
 501 2002), and research on communal goals and interpersonal values (e.g., Diekmann  
 502 et al. 2011; Maddux and Brewer 2005). Specifically, our findings contribute to the  
 503 literature on what is known about the ways in which stereotype threat, women’s  
 504 science identification, and motivation are related. What we do know from the  
 505 relatively little existing past research is that stereotype threat reduces women’s  
 506 motivation for a stereotype-relevant domain. To be sure, motivation is related to  
 507 domain identification (e.g., Smith and White 2001). Much of this evidence however  
 508 is indirect; for example, when considering an upcoming engineering conference,  
 509 women who see that the overwhelming majority of conference attendees are men  
 510 (versus gender equal) report less motivation to participate in the conference  
 511 (Murphy et al. 2007). Indeed, women’s motivation to consider a novel science field  
 512 of study declines when that field is presented as male-dominated versus gender  
 513 equal (Smith et al. 2013). Even when women are not confronted directly with their  
 514 token status, just sitting in a classroom that is decorated with male-stereotypic items  
 515 activates stereotype threat and results in women reporting less interest in pursuing  
 516 (computer) science (Cheryan et al. 2009). These studies assume, but do not measure  
 517 or manipulate, stereotype threat. Actual direct assessment of stereotype threat and  
 518 motivation is relatively rare (cf., Davies, Spencer, Quinn, and Gerhardtstein 2002;  
 519 Schmader et al. 2004; Thoman et al. 2008) and although domain identification and  
 520 motivation are typically positively related (Osborne and Walker 2006), rarer still is

521 the inclusion of domain identification as the specific variable under study. Thus, one  
 522 contribution of the current study was determining that undergraduate women in US  
 523 physics laboratory classes (which were male-dominated) experience stereotype  
 524 threat to a greater extent than women in more gender equal or female-dominated  
 525 science classes (e.g., biology); such stereotype threat concerns were associated with  
 526 women's depleted identification with science.

527 It is well documented within the stereotype threat literature that domain  
 528 identification moderates the effect of stereotype threat on performance (e.g.,  
 529 Aronson et al. 1999; Cadinu et al. 2003) and as such, domain identification is  
 530 typically used as a participant selection criterion (e.g., Spencer et al. 1999), as a  
 531 predictor variable (e.g., Forbes et al. 2008; Lawrence and Crocker 2009; Osborne  
 532 and Walker 2006), or as a covariate (e.g., Smith and White 2002) to isolate the  
 533 effects of stereotype threat on other outcomes. Little research exists on the  
 534 stereotype threat-identification-motivation relationship (see Thoman et al. for  
 535 review). Understanding that stereotype threat decreases interest in pursuing or  
 536 persisting in science is important, as measures of interest are indicative of actual  
 537 degree selection, degree completion, and career pursuit (for a review see Nye et al.  
 538 2012). Yet, for women, science is a "leaky pipeline" (Blickenstaff 2005; Wickware  
 539 1997) whereby even momentary gains in interest or career intentions do not ensure  
 540 persevering in science. What is also needed is for women to develop strong feelings  
 541 of a personal connection to science, whereby much of her sense of self is defined by  
 542 her participation in science. Our results suggest that one important pathway through  
 543 which science identification was influenced by stereotype threat was via expectan-  
 544 cy-value differences, in particular in perceptions about the communal utility value  
 545 of science.

546 Indeed, our findings extend past work on Expectancy-Value Theory by focusing  
 547 on the association between stereotype threat concerns and a specific type of (gender  
 548 conflated) utility value: communal values. Women as a group are generally more  
 549 likely to perform better and enjoy working on tasks that are perceived as  
 550 purposefully serving society and involve other people (see Su et al. 2009 for a  
 551 review). Yet, science is often stereotyped as not affording such communal goals  
 552 (e.g., Diekmann et al. 2010, 2011). Add to this that stereotype threat triggers  
 553 vigilance to cues that women do not belong in male-dominated domains (e.g.,  
 554 Kaiser et al. 2006; Murphy et al. 2007; Steele et al. 2002b). Putting this all together,  
 555 we predicted and found that this unique merging of literatures was useful for  
 556 informing contributing factors to women's science identity. Certainly it is possible  
 557 that our combined theoretical framework is only applicable to science identity in  
 558 women. Moreover, we only examined two different types of utility value and there  
 559 are many other values worthy of investigation. Our hope is that other domain  
 560 identities and other types of values might also be served by considering these  
 561 theoretical perspectives together.

562 Our findings also have practical implications for designing empirically based  
 563 interventions aimed at reducing stereotype threat and enhancing women's science  
 564 identity (e.g., Smith and Hung 2008). In line with recent work showing that helping  
 565 parents see the personal utility of math and science improves their high-school sons  
 566 and daughters' motivation for the fields (Harackiewicz et al. 2012) our findings go

567 one step further and suggest that not all “utility” values are equal when considering  
 568 improving women’s science identity. Instead, communal utility in particular  
 569 (compared to agentic utility for example) may be important for educators and  
 570 scholars to consider when designing and delivering classroom interventions aimed  
 571 at broadening the participation of women in science (and other underrepresented  
 572 minority groups, see Smith et al. 2014a). Our results imply that women’s  
 573 identification with science may be enhanced when the communal utility value of  
 574 physics is made salient, which remains to be tested in future research.

575 Additionally, our focus on the relationship between science identity and science  
 576 research intentions adds to the emerging literature on broadening women’s  
 577 participation as scientific and biomedical researchers. In the European Union—  
 578 27, as few as 33 % of all science researchers in 2009 were women (European  
 579 Commission 2012). And for those women who are science researchers, there  
 580 remains a worldwide gender disparity in access to resources (Iviev and Tesfaye  
 581 2012). For example, women science researchers in the US made up only 25 % of  
 582 NIH and 23 % of NSF 2007 grant awards (Nature Neuroscience 2010). Such  
 583 underrepresentation has clear implications not only for social justice and equal  
 584 access but also for workforce development, economics, discovery, and innovation  
 585 (e.g., McKinsey and Company 2007). Individuals might embark on the pursuit of  
 586 careers in scientific research because they are inherently interested in developing  
 587 their understanding of the laws and phenomena that govern the operation of the  
 588 natural world. However, such reasons for conducting research often change  
 589 depending on the people and situations they encounter, leading to more complicated  
 590 patterns of motivation for conducting research (Smith et al. 2014b). Undergraduate  
 591 research experience is one way science interest can be captured and sustained  
 592 especially among underrepresented students (Hurtado et al. 2009). Our findings  
 593 point to science identity as a pivotal place in the process that may help understand  
 594 women’s research intentions in lower level science classes: research motivation  
 595 appears to be channeled through science identity development and the perception  
 596 that science affords fulfillment of important communal values.

#### 597 4.1 Limitations and future directions

598 Our research focused specifically on women’s science identity, and not men’s,  
 599 largely because of women’s underrepresented status in science (National Science  
 600 Board 2012; European Commission 2012) and because the gender stereotypes  
 601 regarding science are negative towards women as a group (e.g., Rahm and  
 602 Charbonneau 1997; see also Nosek et al. 2009). Nevertheless, the world is in dire  
 603 need of more qualified people participating in science in general and thus it is  
 604 important for future work to examine how positive gender stereotypes about men,  
 605 for example, may “boost” versus trigger a “choking under pressure” reaction  
 606 among majority men that contributes to men’s science identity (e.g., Smith and  
 607 Johnson 2006). It is also the case that some cultures highly value and uphold  
 608 communal ideals for both men and women, and to the extent that ethnic minority  
 609 male students (e.g., US Native American men) identify with those cultures they too  
 610 may experience similar science identity processes as our findings here (Smith et al.



2014a). Research on the intersectionality of race, gender, and social class based stereotype threat, is key to advancing our understanding of science identity (e.g., Tine and Gotlieb 2013).

Another important limitation is the correlational nature of the data. Although our conceptual model makes causal predictions, conclusions about causality, direct effects, or the direction of causality should not be inferred from correlational data. One benefit of using structural equation modeling is that associations between variables can be decomposed through multiple a priori specified pathways, allowing for comparisons of multiple indirect paths. This strength was evident in the current findings as, for example, both confidence and anxiety were correlated with science identity but only confidence (and not anxiety) served a significant indirect effect role in the association between stereotype threat and science identity. In addition, although agentic and communal utility value were correlated with each other and both correlated with science identity, only communal (and not agentic) utility value played a role in the relationship between stereotype threat and science identity. What is more, we tested two possible alternative models that reversed the direction of effects, and found no support for those models. Thus, although causality and directionality cannot be inferred, our study examined the multiple pathways of correlational decompositions for the variables surveyed.

The stereotype threat literature is rich with excellent experiments establishing its effects and correlates in controlled environments (e.g., Aronson et al. 1999; Croizet et al. 2001; Derks et al. 2008); for example, being outnumbered in a stereotype threatening situation decreases feelings of belonging and connection (e.g., Murphy et al. 2007) and is associated with feelings of a hostile work and learning environment (e.g., Oswald and Harvey 2000). Our examination of multiple paths from stereotype threat to science identity in a naturalistic setting we think complement and extend the existing literature. The next step for research is to consider the overlap and distinctions among the experimentally determined mechanisms involved with stereotype threat effects (e.g., Smith 2004) and communal utility value beliefs. In this way, we can learn more about “third variable” effects that were untested in the current study. For example, perhaps biology classes are more likely than physics classes to have women faculty as instructors. If so, a stereotype inoculation perspective (Dasgupta 2011) would predict that female role models within biology (versus physics), for example, might buttress associated reductions in how much female students think science involves working with and helping other people; this is a key empirical question for future research.

Our project findings are necessarily limited by the measurement instruments we selected, for better or worse. Although we were careful to select measures established in the literature, it is true that self-reported explicit measures of science identity might not always capture the level of importance and value of the domain to the overall self (Osborne and Jones 2011). Some scholars instead have begun to focus on implicit science identity as a more holistic and predictive measure of science outcomes (e.g., Nosek et al. 2002; Ramsey et al. 2013). Future research would benefit from continuing to explore the nuanced differences in implicit versus explicit science identity and the relationship between the two. For example, which

657 type of identity is necessary (albeit not sufficient) for the development of the other?  
 658 Which type of science identity, or combination of the two, might buffer, versus  
 659 make a group member vulnerable, to stereotype threat effects (e.g., Aronson et al.  
 660 1999; Osborne and Jones 2011)? Indeed, we approached science identity from a  
 661 stereotype threat framework, which has pros and cons. There is a need for empirical  
 662 data on the link between stereotype threat and science identity, as we reviewed  
 663 previously—to date most evidence for this link is indirect. Yet it is also true that  
 664 naturalistic data might not shine a bright light on this link. People may not be  
 665 especially willing to admit to or even have insight into personal experiences with  
 666 prejudice and stereotypes (Crosby 1984) and as such, overall mean scale levels  
 667 might be low in field studies of science identity and stereotype threat. This was  
 668 indeed the case in our own study. Yet, our findings suggest that even small  
 669 differences in stereotype threat concerns have meaningful associations with science  
 670 identification, and modest differences in science identity are associated with  
 671 important differences in future research intentions.

672 What is the ideal level of science identity for women working in male-dominated  
 673 science fields such as physics? This is an empirical question. As Osborne and Jones  
 674 (2011) point out, for example, the very type of self-identity educators are interested  
 675 in fostering is often the very same identity that makes someone vulnerable to  
 676 stereotype threat effects (Aronson et al. 1999; Schmader 2002; Steele 1997). The  
 677 discovery of some optimal amount of science identity among underrepresented  
 678 students is a critical question to consider in future research. The answer likely  
 679 involves a motivational experiences feedback loop (Thoman et al. 2013) whereby  
 680 science identity becomes tied to belonging, interest, and activity engagement in  
 681 ways that stereotype threat concerns both undermine the experience (via perfor-  
 682 mance avoidance goals) and enhance the experience (by cueing an unsafe and  
 683 adverse negative environment that should be exited).

## 684 5 Conclusion

685 As was illustrated by Dr. Wu at the outset of our paper, for some science can define  
 686 one's life, and this identification with science can drive persistence and commitment  
 687 to the field. Our study is among the first to examine how stereotype threat concerns  
 688 shape science identification and how science identification is associated with the  
 689 motivation to engage in scientific research for an underrepresented group of people.  
 690 Combining three different literatures (Stereotype Threat, Expectancy-Value, and  
 691 Communal Goals and Values), this study provides evidence that women's science  
 692 identity is shaped by their experience of stereotype threat, with the relationship  
 693 between stereotype threat and science identification being explained by the  
 694 perceived communal utility value of science. Implications for our results are  
 695 twofold: (1) the importance of removing stereotype threat cues and triggers and (2)  
 696 emphasizing the ways in which science contributes to and helps others as a means to  
 697 enhancing women's identification with science. Both implications are in the service  
 698 of ultimately broadening the participation of women in male-dominated science  
 699 research fields.

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