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Understanding the motivational consequences of extreme school violence through the lens of mortality salience: the case of academic self-stereotyping in math

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Abstract We conducted an investigation into a determinant of academic motivation that has implications for how we respond to school violence and tragedy. We conducted two studies to examine whether exposure to messages related to the salience of one's own mortality cause people to align their own academic beliefs more closely with stereotypical beliefs about their social groups. When exposed to graffiti images that contained messages such as R.I.P. (i.e., rest in peace), males and females in Study 1 expressed math attitudes that resembled the American stereotype of male superiority and female inferiority in this domain. In Study 2, writing about death caused participants to express ethnic stereotype-consistent math attitudes. As one example, our studies highlight a potential psychological barrier associated with student advancement in STEM careers (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics). These findings indicate that death reminders, even when they do not follow from direct exposure to school trauma, may impact the academic motivation of stereotypically disadvantaged groups. With the larger goal of reducing psychological barriers associated with inequality in the pursuit of STEM career pathways, these studies are intended to spur further examination of how cases of extreme violence in schools potentially can affect patterns of academic motivation. Even in its early stages, this research should provide new considerations for educational policy-makers aiming to design damage control protocols in response to extreme school violence.

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20 **Keywords** Mortality salience · Motivation · Stereotyping · Social identity ·
21 Mathematics

22 1 Introduction

23 Schools can be violent places. For instance, nearly 40 % of U.S. schools reported
24 incidents of violence to police during 2005–2006 ([National Center for Education
25 Statistics 2009](#)). From 2006 to 2007, nearly 8 % of 9–12th U.S. graders reported being
26 threatened or injured with a weapon on school property ([Centers for Disease Control
27 and Prevention 2008b](#)). Between 1999 and 2006, more than 16 students per year have
28 been murdered in U.S. schools ([Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2008a](#)).
29 School violence affects children and adolescents worldwide. For instance, in the last
30 5 years, a partial list of deadly school shootings includes Azerbaijan ([Associated Press
31 2009](#)), Finland ([Kauhajoki 2008](#)), Germany ([BBC News 2009a](#)), Brazil ([Fick and
32 Lyons 2011](#)), India ([Reuters 2007](#)), Israel ([Erlanger and Kershner 2008](#)), Greece ([BBC
33 News 2009b](#)), and Hungary ([Reuters 2009](#)).

34 These calamitous events reflect the most extreme type of school violence, which is
35 widespread, even in this extreme form. It is likely that for every recorded incidence
36 of killing on school property, there are perhaps many additional incidents of violence
37 that do not rise to the level of international reporting. The many cases of such violence
38 have led to educational administrators' decisions to increase monitoring of student
39 risk factors associated with violent acts ([Anderson et al. 2001](#)), increase safety stan-
40 dards and practices for combating school violence ([Ellis 2003](#)), and increase mental
41 health services available to students in times of stress and crisis ([Brener et al. 2007](#)).
42 Managing the impact of school tragedies is important not only because of the negative
43 media attention these events attract, but more importantly, because these events are
44 likely to affect the learning process of students in the schools where these tragedies
45 occur.

46 It comes as no surprise that, when responding to school violence, policies are based
47 on disrupting the harmful psychological and scholastic impacts that administrators
48 expect such tragedies to have on students. Although existing approaches are designed
49 to help students cope with school trauma, these approaches commonly do not consider
50 how violence may impact academic interest and motivation, beyond attempting to con-
51 trol trauma-related anxiety and depression-related impairments. Because violence is a
52 kind of aggression that implies extreme harm to its victims (e.g. the Federal Bureau of
53 Investigation (FBI) defines violent crimes as comprising murder/non-negligent man-
54 slaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault; [FBI 2010](#)) exposure to, and
55 reminders of, violence constitute a separate class of stressor than do many of the other
56 antisocial behaviors that might be observed in school, such as theft or willful ostracism.
57 In this manuscript, we seek to bring an important issue to the attention of the research
58 community regarding the motivational consequences of school violence. These con-
59 sequences go beyond the effects of trauma-triggered anxiety and mood disorders. This
60 issue has implications not only for the survivors of school attacks and neighborhood
61 violence, but also for other students who learn of deadly assaults, possibly even for
62 those who learn of tragedy through exposure to a well-intentioned memorial.

63 The primary aim of this manuscript is to instigate further examination of the impacts
 64 of life-threatening, and sometimes deadly, school violence on academics in terms of
 65 underlying mechanisms, as well as solutions for mitigating any potentially deleterious
 66 effects. To this end, we have conducted some initial studies in the domain of
 67 mathematics—an academic content area of high national concern within the United
 68 States. We have chosen the domain of mathematics both because of its importance for
 69 scientific advancement in general, and because of wide-spread stereotypes about the
 70 relative mathematics ability of different ethnic and gender groups. As we will explain,
 71 these two factors combine to make the effects of extreme violence on math motivation
 72 particularly important.

73 1.1 Academic values and stereotype-consistent achievement behavior

74 In 2009, the United States Congress passed the American Recovery and Reinvest-
 75 ment Act; a legislation whose aims included an increased commitment to innovation
 76 and advancement by way of education and research in science and mathematics. In his
 77 address to the National Academies of Sciences, President Obama (2011) discussed the
 78 area of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) as “more essential
 79 for our prosperity, our security, our health, our environment, and our quality of life
 80 than it has ever been” (para 10). Efforts to improve public literacy in STEM, as well as
 81 efforts to increase the number of students from diverse backgrounds pursuing STEM
 82 careers, remain important components of creating a stronger scientific workforce.

83 Increasing students’ perceptions of STEM fields as viable career paths involves a
 84 consideration of the value students place on learning and achieving in STEM domains,
 85 including mathematics. This idea is seen in established frameworks of academic moti-
 86 vation and career choice (Eccles et al. 1983). Eccles and Wigfield (1995) discuss value
 87 in terms of its sub-components. *Attainment value* is the importance a student places
 88 on engaging in an academic task. In mathematics, for example, a student is likely to
 89 engage in learning about this subject to the extent that success in math is personally-
 90 relevant and self-validating. *Intrinsic value* is how naturally appealing an academic
 91 subject is to an individual. *Utility value* is the degree to which an academic subject is
 92 instrumental in terms of helping a student reach distal goals. For example, a student is
 93 likely to take learning about linear algebra seriously if she or he believes this knowl-
 94 edge will be useful in real-life situations. *Cost* is the consideration of what a student
 95 must sacrifice in order to engage in the academic subject. For example, the time it
 96 takes to learn statistics could be spent on other activities, such as sports or spending
 97 time with friends and family. This aspect of task value is negatively associated with
 98 engagement in the sense that a student is less likely to invest her or his effort in a task
 99 when the costs of doing so are great.

100 Research shows that when students value an academic task, they will engage in
 101 the activity even when they are not required to do so (Anderman and Wolters 2006;
 102 Wigfield and Eccles 1992). Task value is associated positively with future course
 103 enrollment—that is, the more a student values a particular subject, the more likely
 104 a student will choose to enroll in a course about the particular subject (Updegraff
 105 et al. 1996). Within the United States, for example, Asian students not only express

106 greater intentions to major in STEM disciplines than do other ethnicities; Asian stu-
107 dents also remain more committed to these majors to complete their STEM degrees
108 within a 5 year period (Chang et al. 2010). Understanding the way students' value sys-
109 tems are constructed may prove useful for increasing participation in STEM academic
110 disciplines—typified as being populated disproportionately by Asians and by males.

111 1.1.1 Social identity and motivation

112 Scholars such as Eccles (2009) and Oyserman (2009) argue that social identities play
113 an important role in the construction of students' value systems. Identifying with a
114 group means placing importance on, and defining oneself, in terms of one's member-
115 ship in a group (e.g., gender group, racial group, social class, etc. Tajfel 1981; Tajfel
116 and Turner 1979). Social identities are important for a student's academic values, in
117 particular, because social identities “define what one should do with one's life to be
118 successful in that role” (Eccles, p. 86). Research has shown, for example, that we learn
119 about stereotypical gender roles at a young age (Ruble and Martin 1998). Further, the
120 more we perceive being “female” or “male” as important to our sense of self, the more
121 we embrace the norms, standards, cultural mores, and values of our cherished social
122 categories as our own. In other words, we come to see the world, and the meaning of
123 our own behavior, through the lens of being a female or male. In turn, these perceptions
124 can perpetuate gender stereotype-consistent values in academic achievement behavior
125 and career choice (Eccles 2009).

126 In order to better understand social identification effects, we must consider the
127 social “triggers” responsible for activating social identities and stereotype-consis-
128 tent academic values. Wigfield and Eccles (2002) argue that “it is difficult if not
129 impossible to understand students' motivation without understanding the contexts
130 they are experiencing” (p.128). Specifically, we seek to highlight how everyday expo-
131 sure to information making mortality salient can trigger stereotype-consistent valuing
132 in mathematics. Previous research, as we explain below, shows that mortality salience
133 can increase social identification, with implications for the effects of identity-related
134 stereotypes on our behavior.

135 1.2 Mortality salience

136 Our argument emanates from Terror Management Theory (Greenberg et al. 1986;
137 Solomon et al. 2004). This theory describes how we come to rely on psychological
138 defense structures when we are reminded, for instance, by violence or other stimuli that
139 make mortality salient, that our physical existence on earth is temporary (Greenberg
140 et al. 1986). Terror management theory holds that thinking and behaving in ways that
141 are consistent with our cultural standards, norms, and values assures us that we are
142 living a meaningful life. According to the theory, this assurance of a meaningful life
143 helps us ward off concerns of death—symbolically transcending the corporal self, and
144 thereby reducing death anxiety (Greenberg et al. 1997). Thus, certain thought and
145 behavioral patterns help us curb death anxiety (Solomon et al. 1994). Approximately
146 300 studies indicate, for example, that when mortality is made salient, people show

147 greater conviction in their cultural standards and derogate representatives of opposing
148 worldviews (Burke et al. 2010; Greenberg et al. 1986). Other mortality salience effects
149 include increased ethnocentrism, less favorable attitudes toward out-group members,
150 and harsher judgments of individuals who violate cultural standards (for narrative
151 reviews, see Greenberg et al. 1997 and (Pyszczynski et al. 2003). Peer-reviewed jour-
152 nals report mortality salience effects in samples from the U.S., Canada, Australia,
153 Scotland, Italy, Holland, Israel, Germany, Switzerland, Japan, Hong Kong, Austria,
154 New Zealand, Costa Rica, Iran, England, Poland, Spain, and China (Burke et al. 2010).
155 These effects have been observed across many different situational and cultural con-
156 texts.

157 Many elements of the academic environment can work to increase mortality
158 salience. Beyond mass shootings (e.g., Columbine High School, Virginia Polytechnic
159 Institute and State University [Virginia Tech]), there unfortunately are many other
160 death reminders in schools. These might include gang rivalries, schoolyard fights,
161 threats, or bullying, but also school environments laden with R.I.P. (i.e., rest in peace)
162 graffiti messages in bathroom stalls and on the school building's exterior. Metal detec-
163 tors at school entrances are common in urban schools, and so too are armed police
164 officers on school grounds. We need to understand the impact of some of these mortal-
165 ity salience activations on students' academic motivation. This understanding will help
166 educators, policy-makers, and researchers evaluate the effectiveness of school inter-
167 ventions, policies, and practices, as well as develop new strategies to help children
168 succeed.

169 Previous research findings suggest that the understudied link between mortality
170 salience and academic beliefs and behavior may be best understood as a social identity
171 process. For instance, one effect of mortality salience is that it activates social identities
172 (Castano et al. 2002). Research demonstrates that mortality salience causes stronger
173 levels of in-group identification, and that this is related to in-group bias (Castano et
174 al. 2002). Castano et al. (2002) have shown that mortality salience-induced effects of
175 increased in-group bias can be mediated by group identification (Castano et al. 2002).
176 This increased group identification may have applied implications for human behav-
177 ior in educational contexts. Castano and colleagues have argued that by strengthening
178 perceptions of a shared social identity, people are able to achieve a sense of psy-
179 chological oneness with the in-group, extending the self over space and time, and
180 overcoming the limitations of the corporal self (Castano and Dechesne 2005; Castano
181 et al. 2002, 2004). By seeing the world through the lens of a particular social cate-
182 gory (i.e., stronger group identification) academic motivation may be supplanted by
183 stereotypical notions of one's own group's academic motivation. We expected that
184 following a mortality salience induction, social identity processes would be active.
185 We expected that students' academic values would more closely correspond with their
186 group's academically-relevant stereotypes.

187 We examined our hypothesis in the domain of mathematics—an academic subject
188 area of national concern. To the extent that one's ingroup is negatively stereotyped in
189 the domain of mathematics, academic motivation might decrease following mortality
190 salience. Because mortality salience has been known to increase social identification
191 (Castano and Dechesne 2005), and because social identities serve as scripts that guide
192 our beliefs and behaviors (Oyserman and Markus 1998), it follows that students' belief

193 systems should be more in line with cultural academic stereotypes associated with the
194 groups to which they belong when mortality is salient. It is important to note that we
195 do not propose that mortality salience should be directly responsible for changes in
196 academic motivation. Rather, we expect mortality salience should make identity-
197 relevant stereotypes more likely to influence students' self-judgments and motivation.
198 The effect of these stereotypes on academic motivation is our focus here.

199 1.3 An overview of the present studies

200 In the present experiments, we examined the extent to which stereotype-consistent aca-
201 demic motivation is affected by mortality salience. In our first experiment, we used an
202 externally-valid mortality salience induction, in the form of exposure to death-related
203 graffiti. This manipulation was designed to mimic an aspect of the everyday urban
204 environment of many schoolchildren. In our second experiment, we used a written
205 manipulation of mortality salience to more directly test our idea. Of course, in every-
206 day life, graffiti, gang activity, the presence of weapons, and school violence in general
207 all might trigger mortality salience.

208 According to our logic, and following from the work of [Castano and Dechesne](#)
209 (2005), mortality salience should strengthen reliance on one's social identity and its
210 attendant stereotypes to influence judgments. Therefore, mortality salience should
211 cause people to express increased value for mathematics, if embracing mathematics
212 is a meaningful stereotype characteristic of one's in-group. Likewise, people should
213 express decreased value for mathematics under mortality salience to the extent that
214 embracing mathematics is not a meaningful stereotype characteristic of their in-group.
215 Mortality salience, when combined with group stereotypes promoting or discourag-
216 ing math engagement, should cause math value judgments to be more consistent with
217 these stereotypes.

218 Results demonstrating stereotype-consistent academic values as a function of mor-
219 tality salience would extend what is known about the impact of violence and death
220 reminders in schools. Such results would suggest that, even for instances in which the
221 salience of a student's own mortality is not the result of a directly-experienced trau-
222 matic event, death-related messages in and around schools could be especially prob-
223 lematic for the mastery of basic academic subjects, with downstream consequences for
224 career choice and even graduation rates. We investigated whether mortality salience
225 led to increased stereotype-consistent value judgments about math in the domains of
226 gender stereotypes (Study 1) and ethnic stereotypes (Study 2).

227 2 Study 1

228 According to the [Centers for Disease Control and Prevention \(2007\)](#), counts of mor-
229 tality in urban areas are nearly 4 times that of non-urban communities. En route to
230 school, students in urban communities sometimes pass buildings graffiti-tagged with
231 "R.I.P.," or pass roadside memorials dedicated to individuals who experienced early
232 deaths. After arriving at school, students may also pass through metal detectors and be
233 frisked for weapons before proceeding to their classrooms. We would predict that such

234 reminders of death (or extreme school violence) would affect students' math values
235 in a stereotype-consistent manner.

236 There are deep-seated cultural beliefs with respect to gender and mathematics.
237 Although some progress has been made in achieving more equitable distributions
238 of men and women in careers requiring extensive mathematics training, stereotypes
239 about the relative math abilities of men and women still are widespread. For instance,
240 comments about the supposed inferior math skills of women made by Lawrence H.
241 Summers, Former President of Harvard University, contributed to his eventual resig-
242 nation (Boston Globe, 2006).

243 In our first study, we focused on gender groups. Using value for learning about
244 mathematics as our dependent variable, we predicted that gender stereotypes would
245 manifest under conditions of mortality salience—causing members of each gender
246 group to express increased stereotype-consistent math valuing.

247 Stereotypes about groups can impact academic performance and the identity devel-
248 opment of individual group members (e.g. stereotype threat; Steele 1997). We inves-
249 tigated social categories that were the basis for early stereotype threat research. In
250 Steele's seminal work, he tested his ideas using the social categories of ethnicity and
251 gender. He reasoned that such categorizations were important because negative ste-
252 reotypes about one's ethnicity and gender could result in academic disidentification,
253 a shift in the self-concept such that academic performance is devalued (Steele 1997).

254 2.1 Method

255 2.1.1 Participants, materials and procedure

256 Sixty-nine introductory educational psychology students (26 male and 43 female) par-
257 ticipated in this study. The investigation was described as a "simulation of the lived
258 experience of urban students." The experiment was conducted in students' classrooms.
259 Four classrooms were randomly assigned by blocks to either the control or experi-
260 mental condition, yielding a quasi-experimental design. Participants completed paper
261 and pencil measures, sealed them in an envelope, and placed them in a drop box at the
262 front of the classrooms. Participants then were debriefed. Measures described below
263 follow the order of the experiment.

264 2.1.2 Induction of mortality salience (MS) through Graffiti

265 On a projector screen, participants in both conditions were shown three images of
266 graffiti, one after another. In the control condition, the images of graffiti were pictures
267 and names (see Fig. 1). The experimental condition also saw images of graffiti that
268 were pictures and names; however, these images conveyed death-related messages.
269 For example, one graffiti image in the experimental condition was a picture of a heart,
270 which read "rest in peace," and made reference to 9/11 (also see Fig. 1). We chose
271 these death-related images in particular because past research has shown that refer-
272 ences to 9/11 increase accessibility to death-related thoughts (Landau et al. 2004). For
273 each image, students responded to two open-ended questions, "What is your overall



Fig. 1 Sample images shown to participants. Sample images from control (*top*) and mortality salience conditions (*bottom*)

274 impression of this image?” and, “Is there anything in particular about this image that
275 draws your attention?”

276 2.1.3 Affect measure

277 At this point, participants completed the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule—
278 Expanded Form (PANAS-X; [Watson and Clark 1991](#)). This scale was followed by the
279 morningness–eveningness Questionnaire ([Horne and Ostberg 1976](#)) to provide a filler
280 task.

281 2.1.4 Task value

282 On the projector screen, participants were shown the mathematical formula for mean
283 $\left(\sum_{i=1}^N Y_i / N\right)$. Participants then completed a version of Eccles and Wigfield’s measure
284 of task value (see [Eccles and Wigfield 1995](#), for a review). The task value measure
285 included a total of seven items which measured intrinsic value (e.g. “I would find
286 working on math assignments such as these: 1 = *Very boring*, 7 = *Very interesting*.”),
287 attainment value (e.g. “For problems such as these, I feel that, to me, being good
288 as solving problems that involve math or reasoning mathematically is: 1 = *Not at all*
289 *important*, 7 = *Very important*.”), and utility value (e.g. “How useful is learning about

290 math concepts like this for what you want to do after you graduate and go to work?
 291 1 = *Not at all useful*, 7 = *Very useful*.”).

292 2.2 Results and discussion

293 The seven task value items were averaged into an index ($\alpha = .91$) with higher scores
 294 indicating greater valuing of mathematics learning. Analyses of affect revealed no
 295 significant effects of the MS manipulation on either positive affect ($\beta = .15$, $t(66) =$
 296 $.08$, $p = .94$) or negative affect ($\beta = .89$, $t(66) = .69$, $p = .49$).

297 Because previous research has shown that the salience of the United States Sep-
 298 tember 11th, 2001 tragedy makes thoughts of death more accessible (see Landau et
 299 al. 2004), we checked participants' responses to ensure that participants in the exper-
 300 imental condition were, in fact, attending to the death-related messages embedded
 301 in the graffiti images. Whereas participants in the control condition commented on
 302 the “art” of the graffiti, participants in the MS condition commented on death-related
 303 messages in the images addition to aesthetics. For example, one participant wrote:
 304 *This image is really pretty. It appears to be a tribute to those who passed away during*
 305 *9/11.*

306 2.2.1 Value for learning about mathematics in males and females

307 A 2 (gender) \times 2 (condition) ANOVA was conducted on value for math. We predicted
 308 that mortality salience (MS) would moderate the effect of gender on the value indi-
 309 viduals placed on learning mathematics, such that MS would produce increases in the
 310 valuing of learning about math among males, and decrease the valuing of learning
 311 about math among females (Fig. 2).

312 Analyses revealed a main effect of condition, $F(1, 65) = 4.56$, $p = .037$; as well
 313 as a main effect of gender, $F(1, 65) = 4.35$, $p = .041$. That is, the MS condition
 314 expressed greater value than the control condition, and males expressed greater value
 315 than females. These effects were qualified by our predicted condition \times gender interac-
 316 tion, $F(1, 65) = 7.24$, $p < .01$. When primed with MS, males expressed greater valu-
 317 ing than did females for learning about the math concept ($F(1, 65) = 4.35$, $p = .04$;
 318 see Fig. 3), whereas in the control condition males expressed marginally lower lev-
 319 els of academic motivation compared to females; $F(1, 65) = 3.28$, $p = .08$. Fur-
 320 ther decomposition of the condition by gender interaction revealed that for men, MS
 321 participants significantly increased valuing for mathematics compared with control
 322 participants, $F(1, 65) = 4.35$, $p = .04$, and for women, MS marginally decreased
 323 valuing for mathematics $F(1, 65) = 3.05$, $p = .09$. In sum, MS was associated with
 324 a pattern of stereotype-relevant valuing of mathematics, in accordance with gender
 325 stereotypes.

326 These results suggest that death reminders may indeed be a problem. However,
 327 our use of graffiti, while optimal from the perspective of external validity, leaves
 328 something lacking when considering construct validity—can we be certain that it was
 329 thoughts of death, and not, for instance, incidentally-increased national identification,

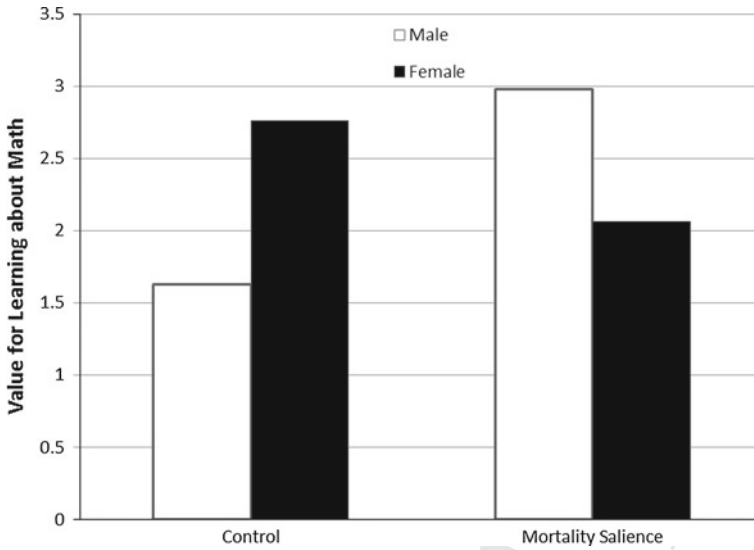


Fig. 2 Interaction of mortality salience and gender predicting value for learning about mathematics

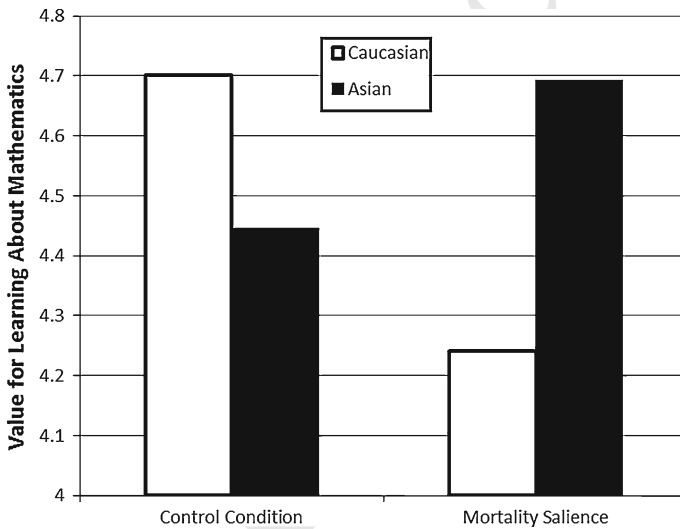


Fig. 3 Interaction of mortality salience and ethnicity predicting value for learning about mathematics

330 that was responsible for our Study 1 effects? We conducted a second study to address
 331 this question.

332 3 Study 2

333 In our second study, we focused on the American stereotype that *excelling at math is*
 334 *for me if I am Asian, but not if I am Caucasian* (after Aronson et al. 1999; p. 39). We

335 used the same dependent variable as in Study 1. In line with cultural stereotypes and
336 standards, we expected that Caucasians, compared with Asians and Asian-Americans,
337 would decrease in their value for math learning under MS versus a control condition.
338 Asian and Asian-American participants were expected to show increased math valuing
339 under MS, versus a control condition.

340 According to our thinking, changes in valuing under MS should be due to
341 increased stereotype-consistent cognitions. Personal, or non-stereotype related cog-
342 nitions, should have no impact on determining MS effects. In other words, if MS
343 has its effects by activating social identity-relevant knowledge, personal math ability
344 would not be expected account for MS effects. If perceptions of personal math ability
345 did account for the effects of MS on value for learning about mathematics, though,
346 this would suggest that our theoretical perspective was wrong. To investigate this, we
347 included a measure of participants' perceived math ability in Study 2 as our covariate
348 to assess whether our significant interaction from Study 1 could be replicated—above
349 and beyond the association between perceived math ability and task value.

350 3.1 Method

351 3.1.1 Participants

352 Introductory psychology undergraduates from a mid-sized university along the East-
353 ern Seaboard participated in this study. In terms of the demographics of this particular
354 institution, 50% of all undergraduates are Caucasian and 28% Asian or Asian Amer-
355 ican. Previous research has noted that Caucasians feel added pressure in mathematics
356 and science fields under conditions in which they are in the presence of Asians or
357 Asian Americans (Seymour and Hewitt 1997). This condition was met by having par-
358 ticipants (N = 138) complete their survey packets together in the same lecture hall; 88
359 were Caucasian and 50 were Asian or Asian American.

360 3.1.2 Materials and procedure

361 Participants completed what was described as two studies. The first “study” contained
362 the mortality salience manipulation. The second “study” was described to participants
363 as follows: “On the following pages you will find a few questions asking about how
364 much you care for learning about a particular subject. Students have been assigned to
365 various subjects, but yours is math.” In actuality, all students were assigned to math-
366 ematics. Students were debriefed upon completion. Measures are described below in
367 the order they appeared for participants.

368 3.1.3 MS manipulation and delay

369 The MS induction (Rosenblatt et al. 1989) was comprised of two open-ended response
370 questions (e.g. “Jot down, as specifically as you can, what you think will happen to you
371 physically when you die and once you are physically dead”). The control condition
372 was given parallel questions regarding dental pain.

373 3.1.4 Affect measure

374 At this point, participants completed the PANAS-X, followed by the morningness–
375 eveningness Questionnaire (Horne and Ostberg 1976) as a filler task.

376 3.1.5 Task value

377 As an example of a math concept in their packets, participants were shown the for-
378 mula for the mean (as in Study 1). Participants also indicated their value for learning
379 about this concept by completing the adapted version of Eccles and Wigfield (1995)
380 expectancy-value measure of academic achievement motivation, as in Study 1.

381 3.2 Results and discussion

382 The value for learning scale was aggregated as described for Study 1. It again demon-
383 strated acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .83$). We first investigated whether our dichotomous
384 predictor variables had effects on either general positive or negative affect as computed
385 according to the PANAS-X manual (Watson and Clark 1994). ANOVAs with condi-
386 tion and ethnicity as predictors revealed no significant main effects or interactions for
387 either positive or negative affect (all tests showed $p = .15$ or higher). This null result
388 is consistent with the findings of many previous MS studies.

389 *Value for Learning about Mathematics in Asians and Caucasians.* Next, a 2 (eth-
390 nicity) \times 2 (condition) ANCOVA, including perceptions of personal math ability as
391 a covariate, was conducted on task value. We predicted that MS would moderate the
392 effect of ethnicity on the value individuals placed on learning mathematics, such that
393 MS would cause Caucasian students to value learning about math relatively less, and
394 Asian students to possibly increase their valuing of learning about this subject.

395 The ANCOVA revealed that perceived personal math ability was a significant covar-
396 iate, $F(1, 132) = 52.25, p < .001$). While there were no significant main effects of
397 condition or ethnicity ($ps > .55$), the predicted condition by ethnicity interaction was
398 significant ($F(1, 132) = 3.84, p = .05$). The MS induction impacted students valu-
399 ing for learning about mathematics as expected (please see Fig. 3). Simple contrasts
400 showed that this effect was caused mainly by Caucasian students reporting signifi-
401 cantly reduced valuing for learning about math under MS compared with the control
402 condition ($F(1, 132) = 4.61, p = .03$). Asian students showed the theoretically-
403 expected, but non-significant, trend in a positive direction ($F(1, 132) = .72, p =$
404 $.40$).

405 4 Discussion

406 The results of Study 2 again suggest that individuals may, for better or worse, endorse
407 the stereotypes of their in-groups under MS. It appears that as people become aware
408 of their temporary physical existence, the value they place on learning shifts in a
409 direction that is representative of the stereotypic academic values of their in-group.
410 As our results show, these consequences are not always positive. Our use of a more

411 face-valid MS manipulation, in addition to the use of personal math ability beliefs as
412 a covariate, both increase our confidence that these effects may in fact be caused by
413 everyday reminders of death, and that they reflect stereotype-consistent (not personal
414 ability consistent) cognitive responses.

415 The results of both studies support our hypothesis that MS causes individuals to
416 endorse stereotype-consistent academic values. Our results are not at all meant to be
417 depressing. Instead, the graffiti MS prime used in Study 1 represents an environmental
418 stimulus that can be found in and around schools that may impact aspects of a student's
419 learning experiences in ways that students themselves are not even aware. We would
420 be wrong to consider such stimuli inconsequential. In fact, our results suggest that
421 death reminders, even embedded in graffiti, may inhibit the advancement of students
422 who have been historically stigmatized and underserved in this particular academic
423 domain.

424 Although Study 1 used random assignment by blocks, given the findings of Study 2,
425 it seems to us unlikely that these effects are a result of classroom differences. Further,
426 a classroom-effect explanation would have to explain differences between men and
427 women in some classes, but not others. Participants were sampled across different
428 sections of the same course, and we cannot think of an explanation as to why one
429 random sample of these sections would show gender differences, but the other would
430 not.

431 Building on previous literature, we have shown that death-laden stimuli can activate
432 stereotype-relevant motivational beliefs in mathematics even in the absence of specific
433 instructions calling attention to relevant stereotypes (c.f. Landau et al. 2009). Moving
434 forward, we would like better to understand the links between participants' specific
435 self- and stereotype-relevant beliefs and valuing for mathematics. In our studies, we
436 relied on general awareness of ethnic and gender stereotypes, and we did not measure
437 participants' individually-held stereotypic beliefs. Measuring such beliefs in future
438 research would provide an even better understanding of the academic effects of death
439 reminders. Observations and interviews would also prove useful for approaching an
440 understanding of mortality salience in academic settings from different methodologi-
441 cal perspectives.

442 We believe these findings may generalize to the other academic domains
443 (e.g., English)—an important question for future research. We focused on mathematics
444 in the present study due to the strong underpinnings of gender and ethnicity stereotypes
445 in this domain, and due to the fact that advanced mathematics courses are an integral
446 aspect of academic pathways in STEM. Our findings may have relevance anywhere that
447 stereotypes suggest one group might academically under-perform, relative to another.
448 As one example, our studies highlight a potential psychological barrier associated with
449 student advancement in STEM careers (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math-
450 ematics). Career choice can be traced, in part, back to the classes students opt to take
451 while in school. As such, STEM choice interventions are often aimed at increasing the
452 extent to which people come to value learning about a specific subject area while they
453 are in school. This is reflected in White House initiatives such as National Lab Day
454—a national collaboration between scientists, engineers, and educators to bring discov-
455 ery-based science experiences to local communities. In conjunction with large-scale
456 initiatives, we need to understand and address the everyday stimuli that affect important

457 outcomes, such as academic values. Interventions designed to address everyday stimuli
 458 will likely be cheaper, require less logistical work before implementation, and are
 459 likely to be more locally sustainable.

460 Fortunately, the contents of group identities—or the perceptions of the norms, stan-
 461 dards, and cultural mores of one’s cherished ingroup—are socially determined. In a
 462 recent experiment, [Elmore and Oyserman \(2011\)](#) manipulated students’ perceptions
 463 of what it meant to be “male” or “female” in the domain of mathematics. When girls
 464 viewed math achievement as part of the script for what it meant to be “female,” they
 465 were more motivated to achieve in math. And when boys viewed math achievement
 466 as part of the script for what it meant to be “male,” they too were more motivated
 467 to achieve in math. Elmore and Oyserman’s work thus demonstrates that changing
 468 students’ perceptions of whether achieving in math is “*for people like me*” ([Oyserman
 469 et al. 2012](#), p. 88) can motivate student achievement despite students’ identification
 470 with groups which historically have been stigmatized in that domain. So, “flipping the
 471 script” of an identity to be consistent with academic achievement in mathematics is
 472 one possible way to counter the potentially psychologically damage of extreme school
 473 violence on students’ academic pursuits.

474 We believe that an understanding of the impact of everyday mortality salience
 475 triggers—and ways to counteract its possibly negative consequences—will allow us
 476 to better provide children of all backgrounds the genuine opportunities for success
 477 that they deserve. Alongside efforts to change the contents of students’ identities
 478 ([Oyserman 2009](#)), our findings suggest that minor alterations in school policies and
 479 procedures (such as the removal of death-related graffiti images on school grounds)
 480 have the capacity to reduce the perpetuation of such stereotypes as “math is for me
 481 only if I am *male*,” and that “math is for me only if I am *Asian*.” It is our hope that the
 482 present study will serve as a springboard for future investigations of the association
 483 between academic motivation and mortality salience.

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 486

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