



Dr. Dawn Wright @deepseadawn

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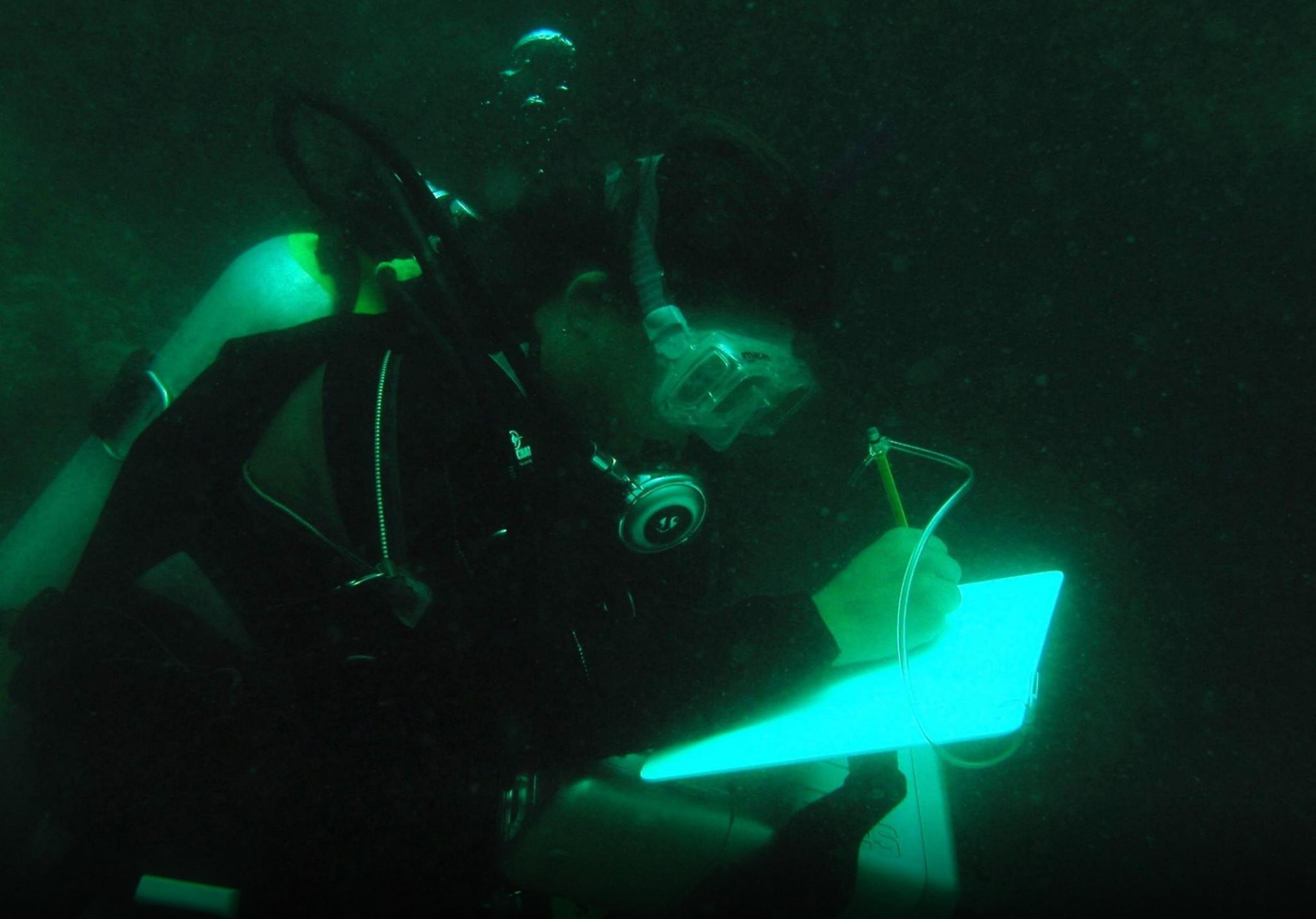
Sep 29, 2017





With the best Artistic Director in the world, ever, Erin Barker

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Yours truly - 25' below sea level. La Paz, Mexico

Photo © Gil Rosenthal - 2005



Cortez rainbow wrasse – Thalassoma lucasanum – terminal male

Photo CC BY-SA 3.0 - Javontae Murphy

ANALYSIS

- Q = quantum catch
- λ = wavelength
- I = mean irradiance
- R = reflectance of target
- T = ocular transmission
- A = photoreceptor absorptance
- C = contrast
- P = response of photoreceptor

(Lythgoe 1968; Chiao et al 2000)

SCOTOPIC (ROD) VISION

Detectability $Q_{rod,i} = \sum_{\lambda=300}^{700} I_D(\lambda) R_i(\lambda) T(\lambda) A_{rod}(\lambda)$

Internal contrast $C_c = (Q_{c,i} - Q_{c,b}) / Q_{c,b}$

Conspicuousness $Q_{c,b} = \sum_{\lambda=300}^{700} I_S(\lambda) T(\lambda)$

PHOTOPIC (CONE) VISION

Absolute chromatic signal $C_{c1,c2,i} = P_{c1,i} - P_{c2,i}$

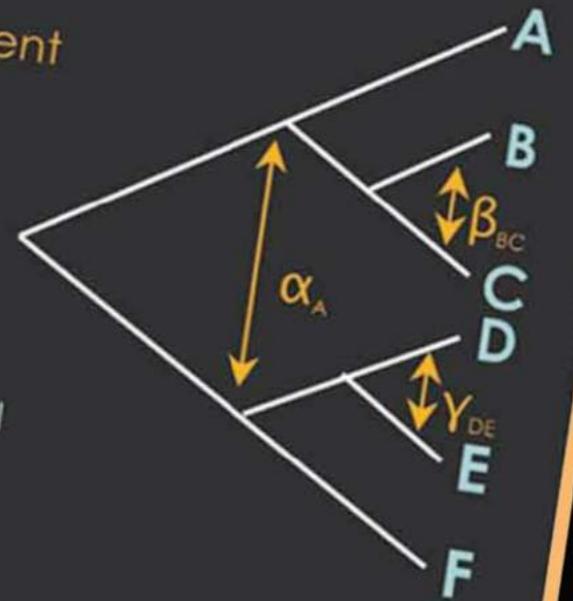
Rewritten for comparisons $C_{c1,c2,i} = \ln(Q_{c1,i}) - \ln(Q_{c2,i})$

Visual sensitivity

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS BY INDEPENDENT CONTRASTS (CAIC)

PURVIS, A. AND A. RAMBAUT. (1995). COMPUTER APPLIED BIOSCIENCES
Felsenstein, J. (1985). American Naturalist 125. 1-15.

α , β , and γ are independent evolutionary events



+ Contrast: Y proportional to X
- Contrast: Y inversely proportional to X

$\pm 1/2$ +: mean = 0

Phylogeny

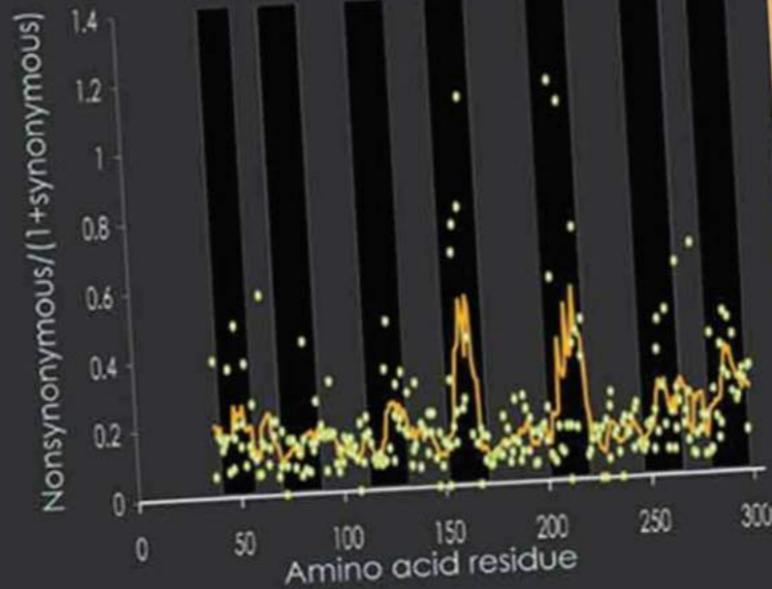
RHODOPSIN SEQUENCING



Purifying selection: low K_A/K_S

Positive selection: high K_A/K_S

Tourasse and Li (2000) found much lower K_A/K_S in transmembrane regions: likely structural constraints



Visual sensitivity

signal:noise

Pomacentrus amboinensis



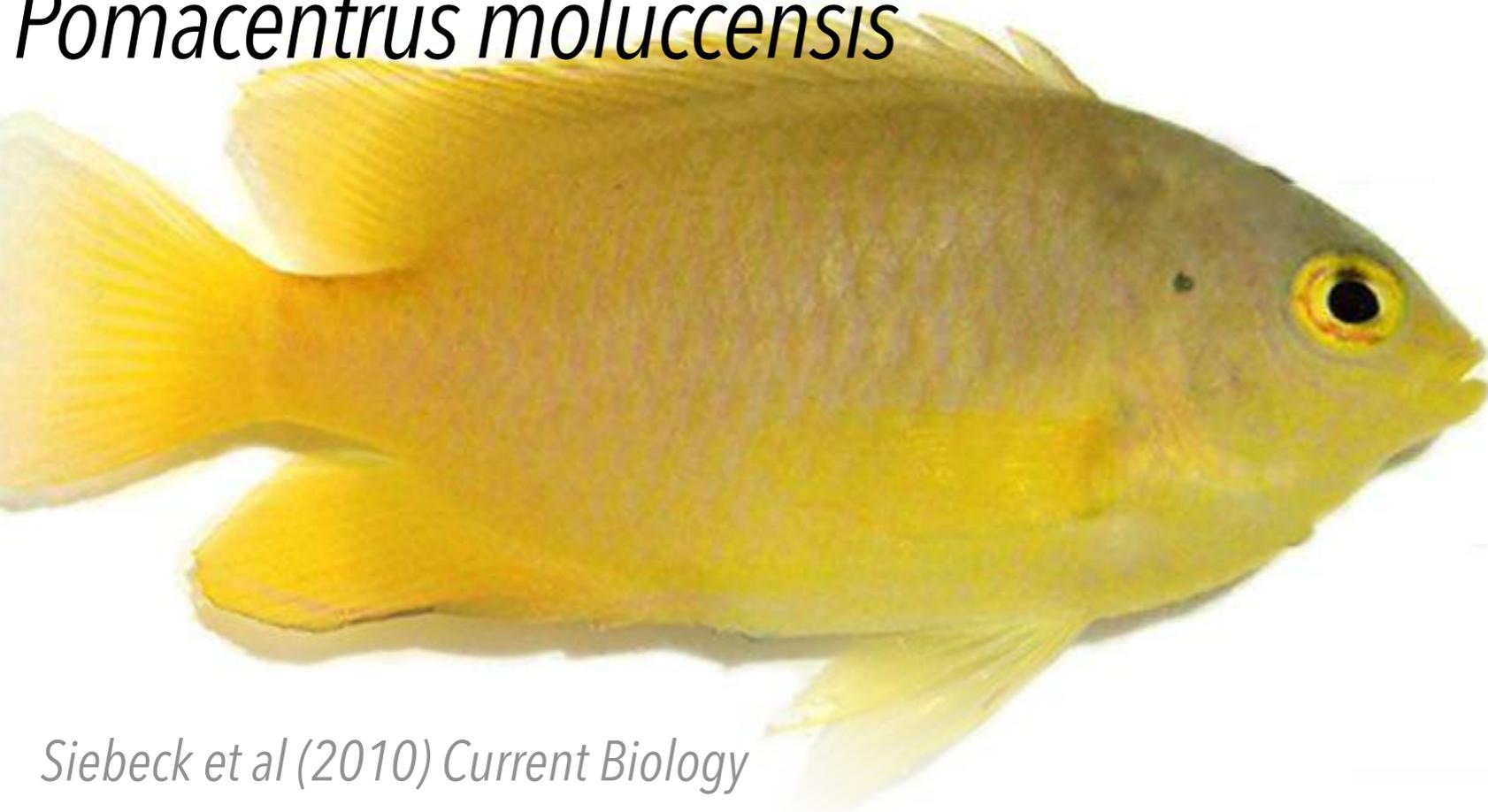
Pomacentrus moluccensis



Pomacentrus amboinensis



Pomacentrus moluccensis



Siebeck et al (2010) Current Biology

Ultraviolet spectrum



umwelt



LEARNING

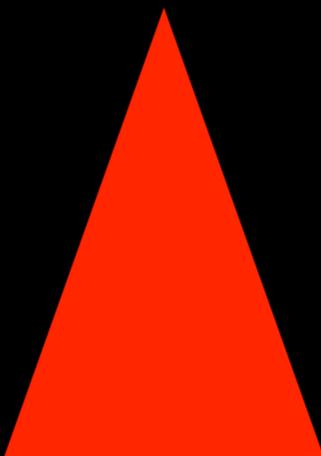
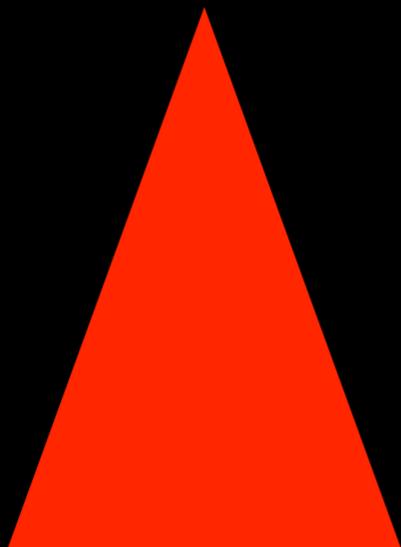
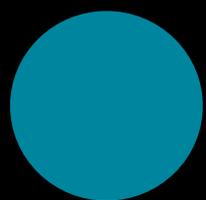
what happens

$$\Delta V = \alpha \beta (\lambda - \Sigma V)$$

what you expect

salience & speed

The diagram illustrates the Rescorla-Wagner equation, $\Delta V = \alpha \beta (\lambda - \Sigma V)$, with several annotations. The term ΔV is highlighted in red and labeled 'LEARNING' with a red arrow. The term α is labeled 'salience & speed' with a white arrow. The term β is labeled 'what you expect' with a white arrow. The term λ is labeled 'what happens' with a yellow arrow. The term ΣV is labeled 'what you expect' with a yellow arrow. The minus sign and the closing parenthesis are also highlighted in yellow.





The National Academies of
SCIENCES · ENGINEERING · MEDICINE

REPORT

SCIENCE LITERACY

Concepts, Contexts, and Consequences

OXFORD LIBRARY OF PSYCHOLOGY

EDITED BY

KATHLEEN HALL
JAMIESON

DAN
KAHAN &

DIETRAM A.
SCHEUFELE

≡ The Oxford Handbook of
THE SCIENCE of
SCIENCE
COMMUNICATION

“Research suggests that narrative communication is encoded using a unique cognitive pathway”

stories are:

- more interesting
- more understandable
- more believable
- more persuasive

Using narratives and storytelling to communicate science with nonexpert audiences

Michael F. Dahlstrom¹

Greenlee School of Journalism and Communication, Iowa State University, Ames, IA 50010

Edited by Dietram A. Scheufele, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI, and accepted by the Editorial Board April 7, 2014 (received for review November 1, 2013)

Although storytelling often has negative connotations within science, narrative formats of communication should not be disregarded when communicating science to nonexpert audiences. Narratives offer increased comprehension, interest, and engagement. Nonexperts get most of their science information from mass media content, which is itself already biased toward narrative formats. Narratives are also intrinsically persuasive, which offers science communicators tactics for persuading otherwise resistant audiences, although such use also raises ethical considerations. Future intersections of narrative research with ongoing discussions in science communication are introduced.

persuasion | ethics

Storytelling often has a bad reputation within science (1). Viewed as baseless or even manipulative, stories are often denigrated with statements such as, “the plural of anecdote is not data.” Such a perspective is valuable within the context of scientific data collection to underscore the important difference between making informed generalizations from systematically sampled populations versus overgeneralizations from small and often biased samples.

However, when the context moves from data collection to the communication of science to nonexpert audiences, stories, anecdotes, and narratives become not only more appropriate but potentially more important. Research suggests that narratives are easier to comprehend and audiences find them more engaging than traditional logical-scientific communication (3, 4). More pragmatically, the sources from which nonexperts receive most of their science information are already biased toward narrative formats of communication. Once out of formal schooling, nonexpert audiences get the majority of their scientific information from mass media content (5). Because media practitioners have to compete for the attention of their audiences, they routinely rely on stories, anecdotes, and other narrative formats to cut through the information clutter and resonate with their audiences. Although the plural of anecdote may not be data, the anecdote has a greater chance of reaching and engaging with a nonexpert audience. The challenge for science communicators, then, is to decide when and how narratives can effectively and appropriately help them communicate to nonexperts about science.

The purpose of this article is to synthesize literature on narrative communication and place it within a science communication context. The article begins with a review of narrative literature, as well as the mass media context through which most nonexpert audiences get their information about science. The article then reviews the potential persuasive impacts of narrative communication and the ethical considerations of using narrative to communicate science. Finally, future intersections of narrative with ongoing questions in science communication are introduced.

Narratives

Most individuals have an inherent understanding of what it means to tell a story. Communication scholars supplement this colloquial understanding of narrative through the articulation of

certain factors that distinguish narrative as a communication format. Narratives follow a particular structure that describes the cause-and-effect relationships between events that take place over a particular time period that impact particular characters. Although there exist more nuanced factors that scholars can use to further determine the narrativity of a message (6–8), this triumvirate of causality, temporality, and character represents a fairly standard definition of narrative communication. Such a definition is independent of content and so narratives can be present within almost any communication activity or media platform. Obvious examples include interpersonal conversation, entertainment television programs, and news profiles, but narratives can also present themselves within larger messages as testimonials, exemplars, case studies, or eyewitness accounts.

Narratives are often contrasted with other formats of communication, such as expository or argumentative communication (7), or with other types of explanations, such as descriptive, deductive, or statistical (6). However, more generally, narratives are often contrasted with the logical-scientific communication underlying most of the sciences (3, 9). Three areas in particular where logical-scientific and narrative formats differ are in their direction of generalizability, their reliance on context, and their standards for legitimacy.

Logical-scientific communication aims to provide abstract truths that remain valid across a specified range of situations. An individual may then use these abstract truths to generalize down to a specific case and ideally provide some level of predictive power regarding that specific. Narrative communication instead provides a specific case from which an individual can generalize up to infer what the general truths must be to permit such a specific to occur (3, 10). In essence, the utilization of logical-scientific information follows deductive reasoning, whereas the utilization of narrative information follows inductive reasoning.

Logical-scientific communication is context-free in that it deals with the understanding of facts that retain their meaning independently from their surrounding units of information. Such, these facts represent the meaningful unit of content and can be excised from a larger message and inserted into other messages, or even presented alone, with little loss of understanding. In contrast, narrative communication is context-dependent because it derives its meaning from the ongoing cause-and-effect structure of the temporal events of which it is comprised. As such, it is much harder to break a narrative into units of meaningful content without either greatly altering

This paper results from the Arthur M. Sackler Colloquium of the National Academy of Sciences, “The Science of Science Communication II,” held September 23–25, 2013, at the National Academy of Sciences in Washington, DC. The complete program and recordings of most presentations are available on the NAS website at www.nas.edu/science-communication-ii.

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¹Email: mfd@iastate.edu.



generalizability

context

legitimacy

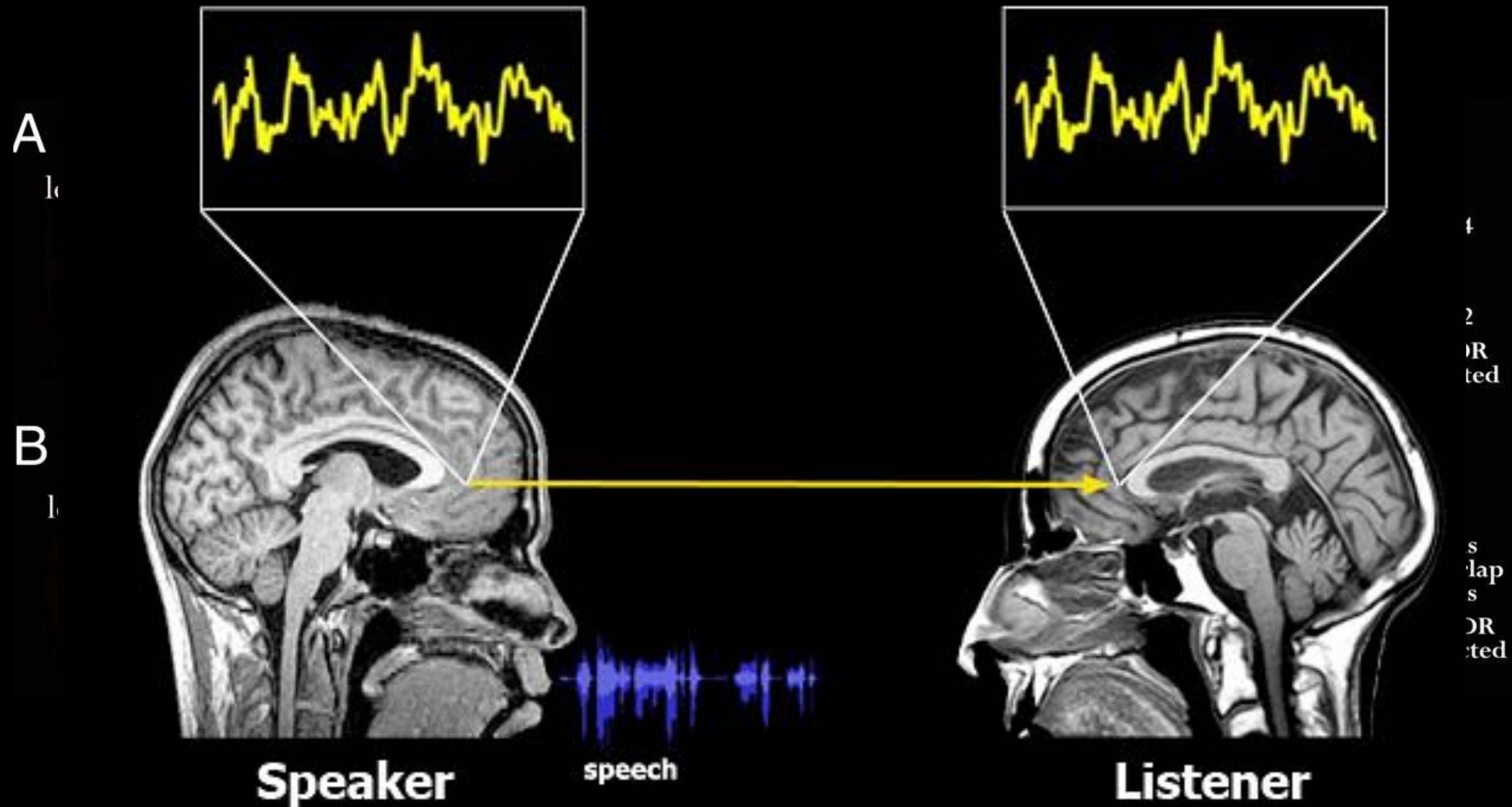
When the Revolution Came for Amy Cuddy

As a young social psychologist, she played by the rules and won big: an influential study, a viral TED talk, a prestigious job at Harvard. Then, suddenly, the rules changed.

BY SUSAN DOMINUS OCT. 18, 2017



Speaker-Listener Neural Coupling



1) Stephens et al. (2010) Speaker–listener neural coupling underlies successful communication. *PNAS* 107(32): 14425-14430

2) Hasson et al. (2012) Brain-to-brain coupling: a mechanism for creating and sharing a social world. *Trends in Cognitive Science*. 16(2):114-121



RESEARCH ARTICLE

Interactions among Collective Spectators Facilitate Eyeblink Synchronization

Ryota Nomura^{1*}, Yingzong Liang², Takeshi Okada¹

¹ Department of Education, The University of Tokyo, 7-3-1, Hongo, Bunkyo ward, Tokyo, Japan, ² Graduate School of Engineering, The University of Tokyo, 7-3-1, Hongo, Bunkyo ward, Tokyo, Japan

* [nomura](#)



ORIGINAL RESEARCH
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PLOS ONE | DOI:10.1371/journal.pone.0140774 | Octo

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Emotionally excited eyeblink-rate variability predicts an experience of transportation into the narrative world

Ryota Nomura^{1*}, Kojun Hino², Makoto Shimazu³, Yingzong Liang⁴ and Takeshi Okada¹

¹ Faculty of Education, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan, ² College of Arts and Sciences, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan, ³ Graduate School of Information Science and Technology, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan, ⁴ Graduate School of Engineering, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan

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Edited by:

Alain Morin,
Mount Royal University, Canada

Reviewed by:

Claudio Gentili,
Università di Pisa, Italy
Christian Dieter Schunn,
University of Pittsburgh, USA

*Correspondence:

Ryota Nomura,
Faculty of Education, the University
of Tokyo, 7-3-1, Hongo, Bunkyo
Ward, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan
nomuraryota@gmail.com

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Collective spectator communications such as oral presentations, movies, and storytelling performances are ubiquitous in human culture. This study investigated the effects of past viewing experiences and differences in expressive performance on an audience's transportive experience into a created world of a storytelling performance. In the experiment, 60 participants (mean age = 34.12 years, *SD* = 13.18 years, range 18–63 years) were assigned to watch one of two videotaped performances that were played (1) in an orthodox way for frequent viewers and (2) in a modified way aimed at easier comprehension for first-time viewers. Eyeblink synchronization among participants was quantified by employing distance-based measurements of spike trains, D^{spike} and $D^{interval}$ (Victor and Purpura, 1997). The results indicated that even non-familiar participants' eyeblinks were synchronized as the story progressed and that the effect of the viewing experience on transportation was weak. Rather, the results of a multiple regression analysis demonstrated that the degrees of transportation could be predicted by a retrospectively reported humor experience and higher real-time variability (i.e., logarithmic transformed *SD*) of inter blink intervals during a performance viewing. The results are discussed from the viewpoint in which the extent of eyeblink synchronization and eyeblink-rate variability acts as an index of the inner experience of audience members.

Keywords: eyeblink-rate variability, eyeblink synchronization, transportation, viewing experience, Rakugo, expert

Introduction

Collective spectator communications such as oral presentations, movies, and storytelling performances are ubiquitous in human culture. Spectators who share time and space frequently involve their minds and bodies in fascinating performances. Some spectators would describe their experience as being 'carried away' by the story. This engrossing temporal experience is known as "transportation into the narrative world" (Sestir and Green, 2010). In a previous study, researchers summarized facilitators of narrative transportation (Van Laer et al., 2014). For instance, Van Laer et al. (2014, p. 803) and pointed out that stories containing more identifiable characters to audience members, plotlines that storytelling audiences can imagine, and verisimilitude all increase the likelihood that a narrative transportation will occur. In addition, an audience

JOY

FEAR

DISGUST

SADNESS

ANGER



JONAH BERGER and KATHERINE L. MILKMAN*

Why are certain pieces of online content (e.g., advertisements, videos, news articles) more viral than others? This article takes a psychological approach to understanding diffusion. Using a unique data set of all the *New York Times* articles published over a three-month period, the authors examine how emotion shapes virality. The results indicate that positive content is more viral than negative content, but the relationship between emotion and social transmission is more complex than valence alone. Virality is partially driven by physiological arousal. Content that evokes high-arousal positive (awe) or negative (anger or anxiety) emotions is more viral. Content that evokes low-arousal, or deactivating, emotions (e.g., sadness) is less viral. These results hold even when the authors control for how surprising, interesting, or practically useful content is (all of which are positively linked to virality), as well as external drivers of attention (e.g., how prominently content was featured). Experimental results further demonstrate the causal impact of specific emotion on transmission and illustrate that it is driven by the level of activation induced. Taken together, these findings shed light on why we share content and how to design more effective viral marketing campaigns.

Keywords: word of mouth, viral marketing, social transmission, content

What Makes Online Content Viral?

Sharing online content is an integral part of modern life. People forward newspaper articles to their friends, pass YouTube videos to their relatives, and send restaurant reviews to their neighbors. Indeed, 59% of people report that they frequently share online content with others (Allsop, Bassett, and Hoskins 2007), and someone tweets a link to a *New York Times* story once every four seconds (Harris 2010).

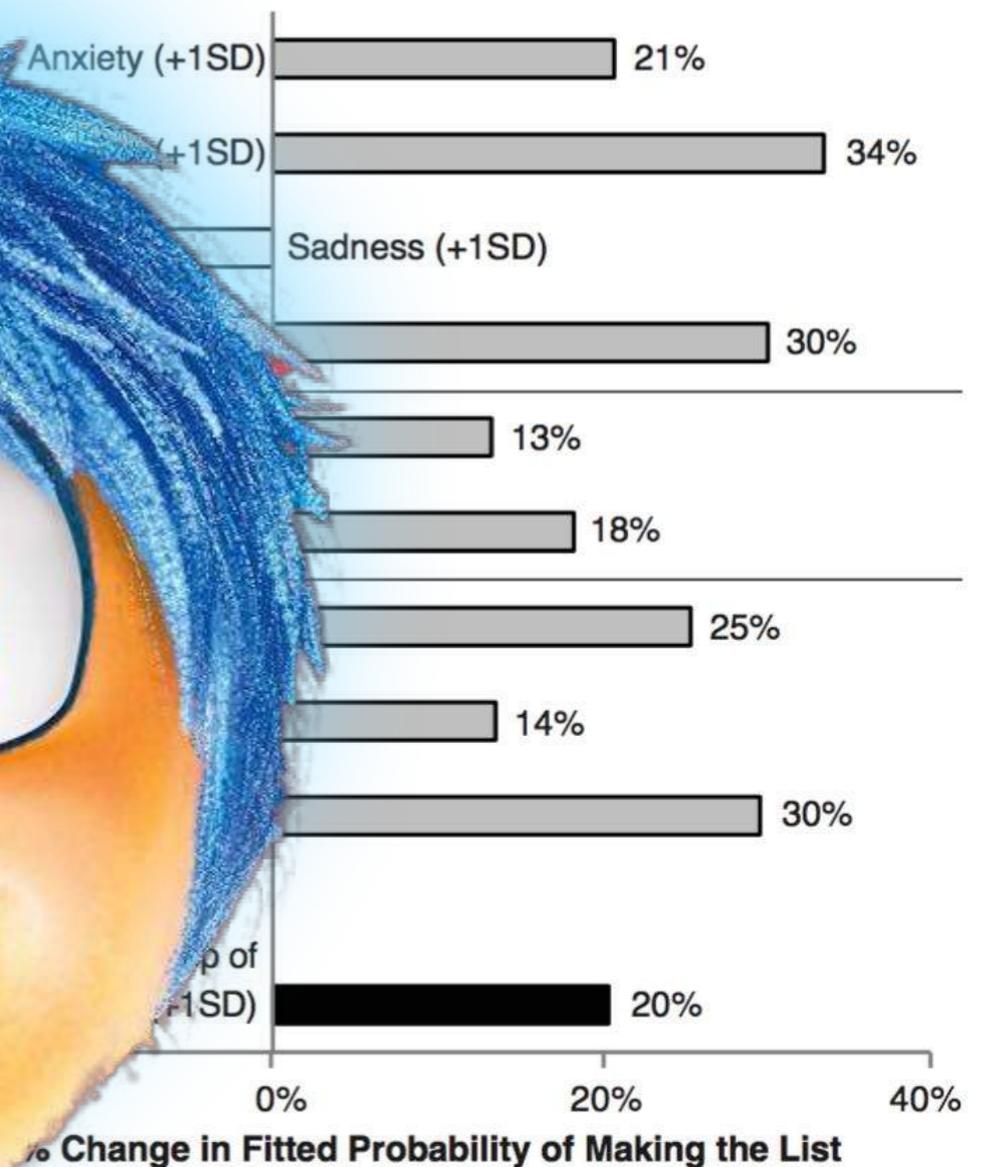
Such social transmission also has an important impact on both consumers and brands. Decades of research suggest

*Jonah Berger is Joseph G. Campbell Assistant Professor of Marketing (e-mail: jberger@wharton.upenn.edu), and Katherine L. Milkman is Assistant Professor of Operations and Information Management (e-mail: kmilkman@wharton.upenn.edu), the Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania. Michael Buckley, Jason Chen, Michael Durkheimer, Henning Krohnstad, Heidi Liu, Lauren McDevitt, Areeb Pirani, Jason Pollack, and Ronnie Wang all provided helpful research assistance. Hector Castro and Premal Vora created the web crawler that made this project possible, and Roger Booth and James W. Pennebaker provided access to LIWC. Devin Pope and Bill Simpson provided helpful suggestions on our analysis strategy. Thanks to Max Bazerman, John Beshears, Jonathan Haidt, Chip Heath, Yoshi Kashima, Dacher Keltner, Kim Peters, Mark Schaller, Deborah Small, and Andrew Stephen for helpful comments on prior versions of the article. The Dean's Research Initiative and the Wharton Interactive Media Initiative helped fund this research. Ravi Dhar served as associate editor for this article.

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$$(1) \text{makes_it}_{at} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp \left[- \left(\begin{array}{l} \alpha_t + \beta_1 \times z\text{-emotionality}_{at} \\ + \beta_2 \times z\text{-positivity}_{at} \\ + \beta_3 \times z\text{-awe}_{at} + \beta_4 \times z\text{-anger}_{at} \\ + \beta_5 \times z\text{-anxiety}_{at} \\ + \beta_6 \times z\text{-sadness}_{at} + \theta' \times X_{at} \end{array} \right) \right]}$$

Figure 2
PERCENTAGE CHANGE IN FITTED PROBABILITY OF MAKING THE LIST FOR A ONE-STANDARD-DEVIATION INCREASE ABOVE THE MEAN IN AN ARTICLE CHARACTERISTIC



PRE-MESSAGE

DURING MESSAGE

POST-MESSAGE

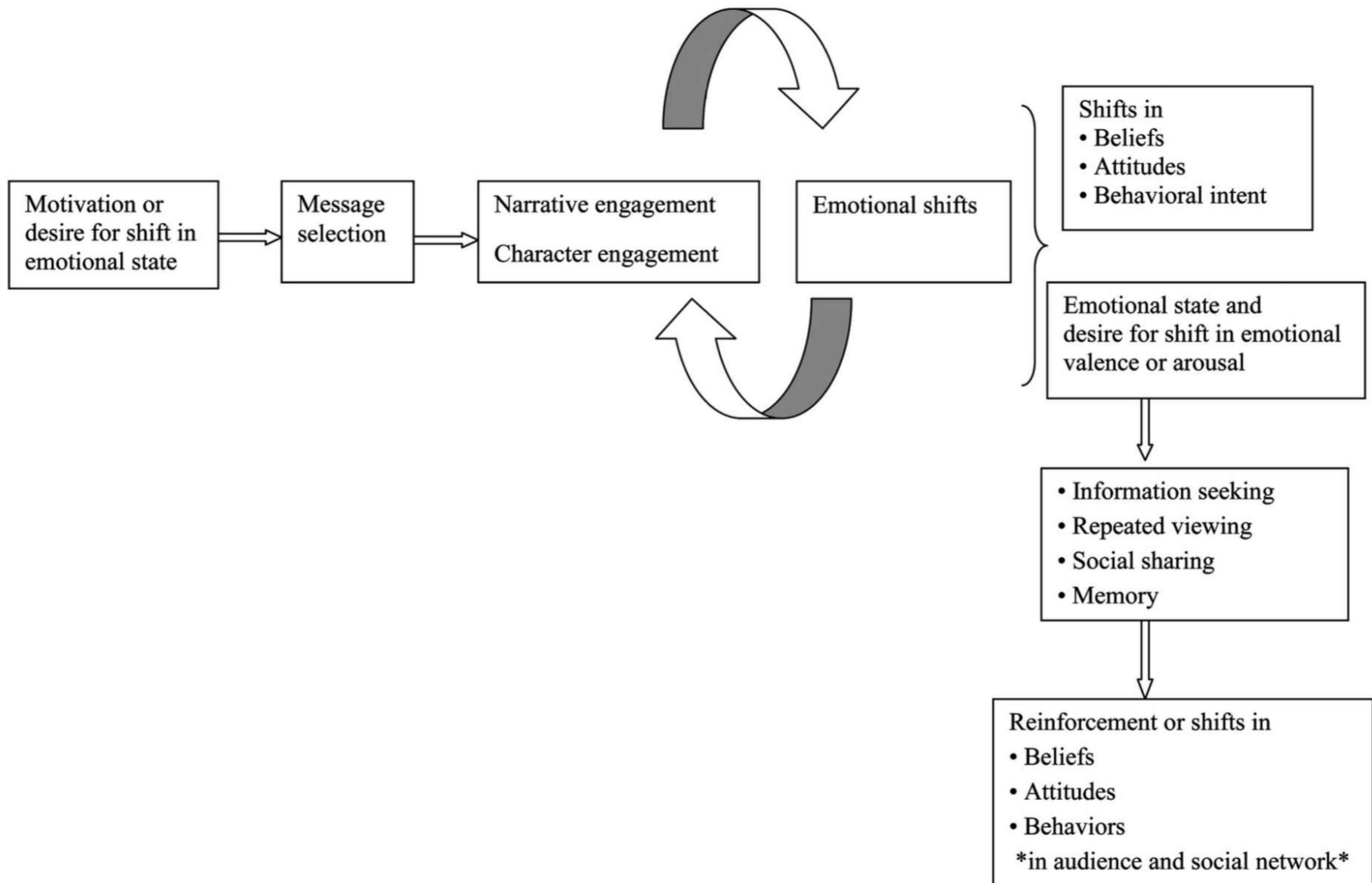


FIGURE 1 The role of emotional shifts in message selection, processing, and persuasive outcome.

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Narrative Style Influences Citation Frequency in Climate Change Science

Ann Hillier, Ryan P. Kelly*, Terrie Klinger

School of Marine & Environmental Affairs, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington, United States of America

* rpkelly@uw.edu

Abstract

Peer-reviewed publications focusing on climate change are growing exponentially with the consequence that the uptake and influence of individual papers varies greatly. Here, we derive metrics of narrativity from psychology and literary theory, and use these metrics to test the hypothesis that more narrative climate change writing is more likely to be influential using citation frequency as a proxy for influence. From a sample of 732 scientific abstracts drawn from the climate change literature, we find that articles with more narrative abstracts are cited more often. This effect is closely associated with journal identity: higher-impact journals tend to feature more narrative articles, and these articles tend to be cited more often. These results suggest that writing in a more narrative style increases the uptake and influence of articles in climate literature, and perhaps in scientific literature more broadly.

Introduction

Climate change is among the most compelling issues now confronting science and society, and climate science as a research endeavor has grown accordingly over the past decade. The number of scholarly publications is increasing exponentially, doubling every 5–6 years [1]. The volume of climate science publications now being produced far exceeds the ability of individual investigators to read, remember, and use. Accordingly, it is increasingly important that individual articles be presented in a way that facilitates the uptake of climate science and increases the salience of their individual research contributions.

Evidence from psychology and literary theory suggests that audiences better understand and remember narrative writing in comparison with expository writing [2,3], and new evidence from neuroscience has revealed a specific region in the brain that is activated by stories [4]. Narrative writing tells a story through related events [5], whereas expository writing relates facts without much social context. Presenting the same information in a more narrative way has the potential to increase its uptake—an especially attractive prospect in the context of climate science and scientific writing generally—and consequently, narratives are widely recognized as powerful tools of communication [2,6].

Despite this, professional scientific writing tends to be more expository than narrative, prioritizing objective observations made by detached researchers and relying on the logical



OPEN ACCESS

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Competing Interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

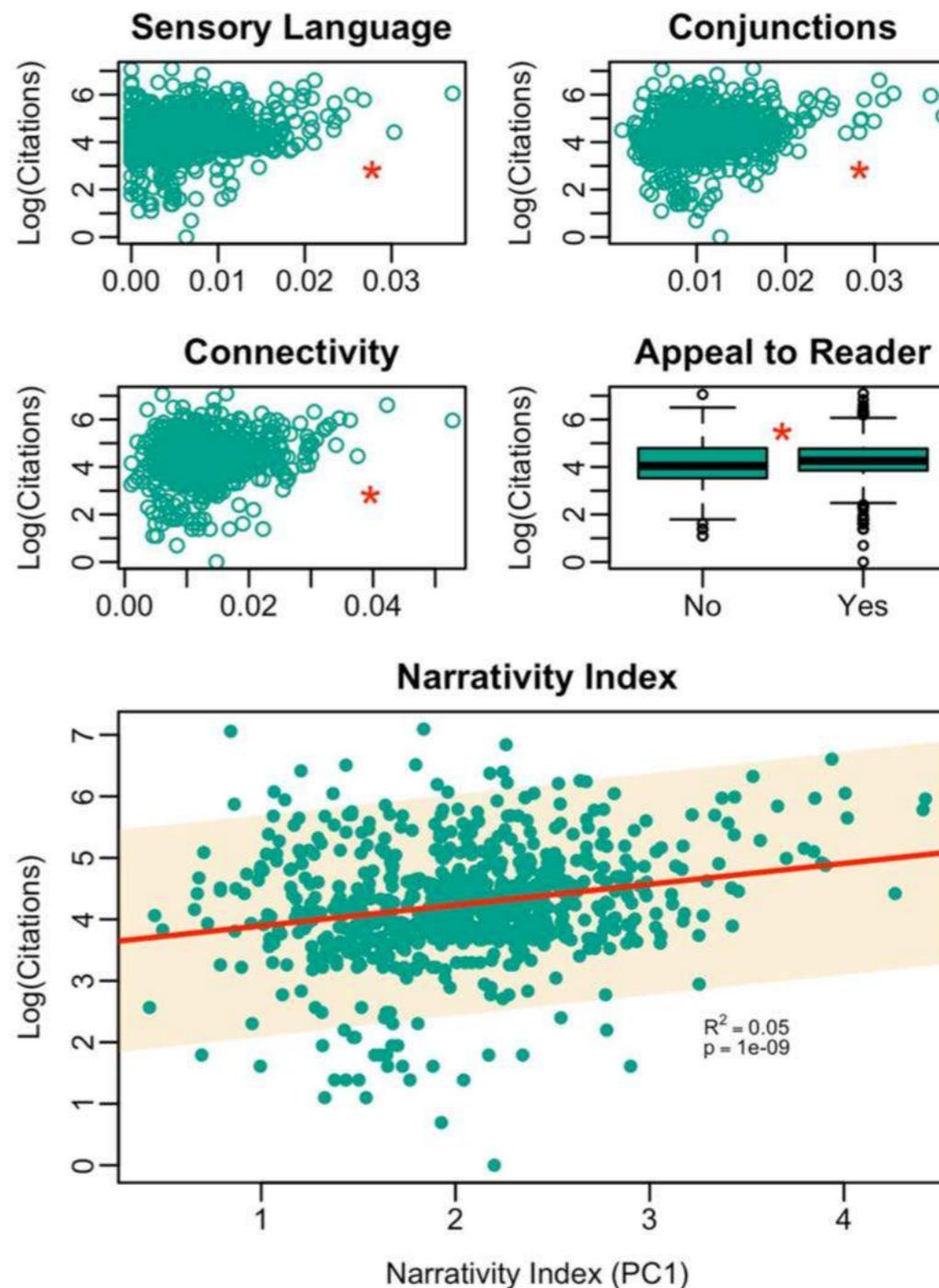


Fig 1. Multipanel plot depicting the relationship between narrativity (individual indicators and single narrativity index given by PC1, labeled individually) and article citation frequency. The use of sensory language, conjunctions, connectivity, and appeal to the reader are significantly correlated with article citation frequency. PC1 index of narrativity is significantly correlated with article citation frequency (linear regression; shaded area indicates 95% confidence interval for the linear model parameters).

what are stories?

characters

causality

THE STORY SPINE

- Once upon a time... and every day...
- But, one day...
- Because of that...
- Because of that...
- Because of that...
- Until, finally...
- And, ever since then...

From Addams, *How to Improvise a Full-Length Play*.

(Don't be scared by the title, that's not what we're doing here.)

THE BLAKE SNYDER BEAT SHEET



1. Opening Image (1)
2. Theme Stated (5)
3. Set-Up (1-10)
4. Catalyst (12)
5. Debate (12-25)
6. Break into Two (25)
7. B Story (30)
8. Fun and Games (30-55)
9. Midpoint (55)
10. Bad Guys Close In (55-75)
11. All Is Lost (75)
12. Dark Night of the Soul (75-85)
13. Break into Three (85)
14. Finale (85-110)
15. Final Image (110)

Act 1

Act 2

Act 3



THE SET-UP

CONFRONTATION

RESOLUTION

THE BLAKE SNYDER BEAT SHEET



1. Opening Image (1)
2. Theme Stated (5)
3. Set-Up (1-10)
4. Catalyst (12)
5. Debate (12-25)
6. Break into Two (25)
7. B Story (30)
8. Fun and Games (30-55)
9. Midpoint (55)
10. Bad Guys Close In (55-75)
11. All Is Lost (75)
12. Dark Night of the Soul (75-85)
13. Break into Three (85)
14. Finale (85-110)
15. Final Image (110)

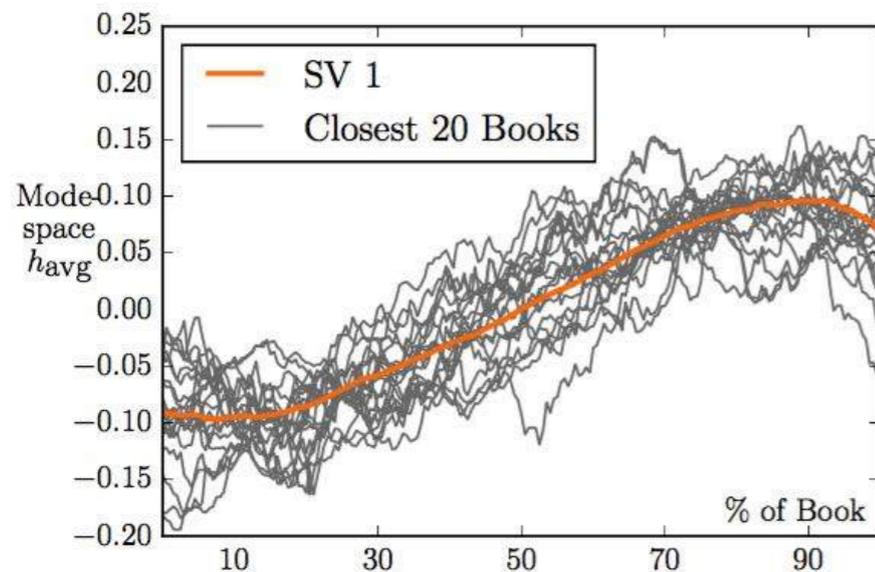
THE BLAKE SNYDER BEAT SHEET



1. Opening Image
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3. Set-Up
- Catalyst
5. Debate
- ★ Break into Two
7. B Story
8. Fun and Games
9. Midpoint
10. Bad Guys Close In
11. All Is Lost
12. Dark Night of the Soul
- ★ Break into Three
- ★ Finale
15. Final Image

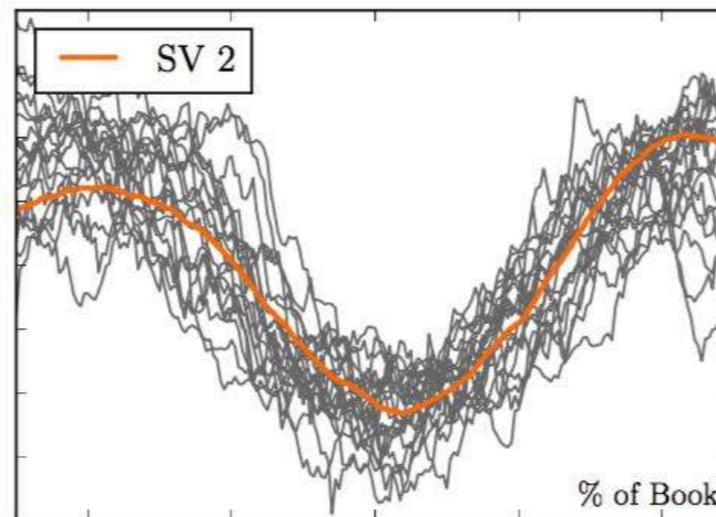
GREAT FORTUNE

ILL FORTUNE



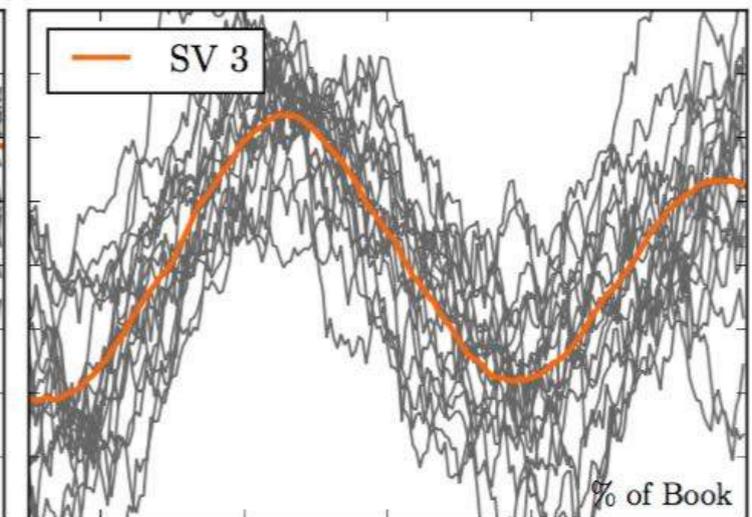
Top Stories:

- 1: The Winter's Tale (1539, 73)
<http://hedonometer.org/books/v3/1539/>
- 2: Oscar Wilde, Art and Morality: A... (33689, 88)
<http://hedonometer.org/books/v3/33689/>
- 3: The Terror: A Mystery (35617, 61)
<http://hedonometer.org/books/v3/35617/>
- 4: The Pilgrim's Progress in Words ... (7088, 55)
<http://hedonometer.org/books/v3/7088/>
- 5: The Road to Oz (26624, 68)
<http://hedonometer.org/books/v3/26624/>



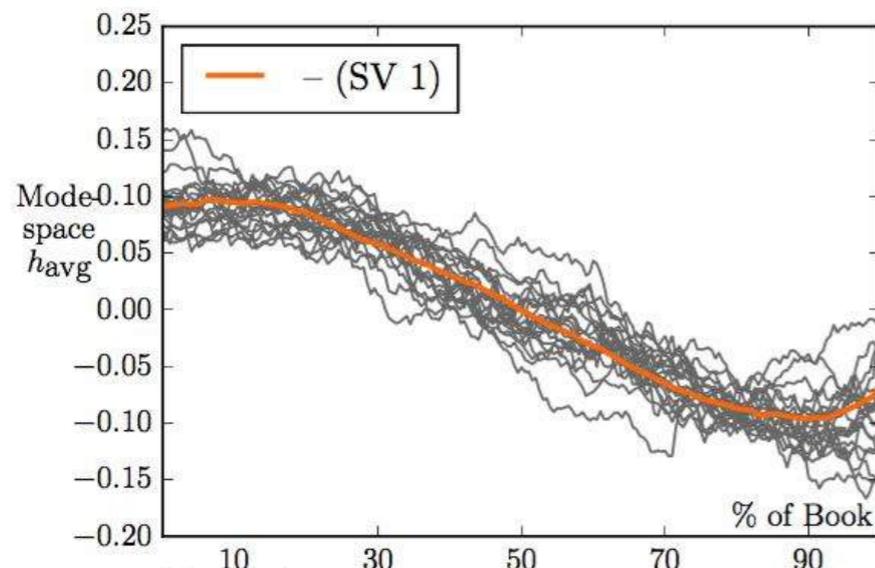
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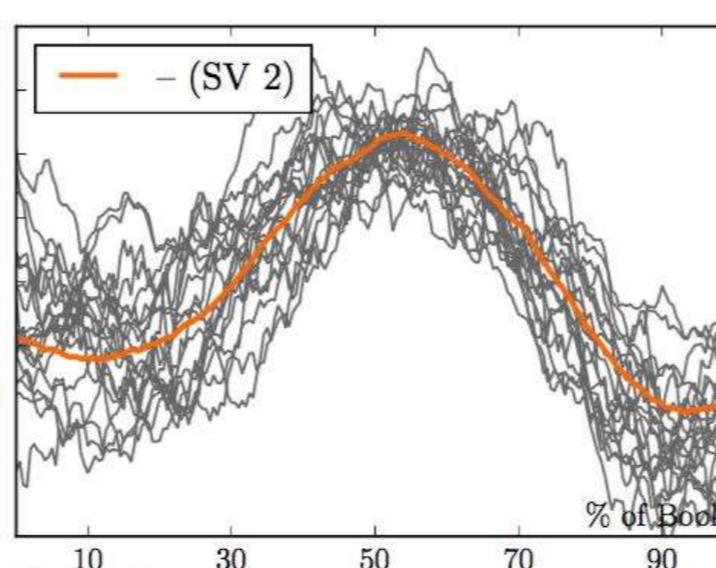
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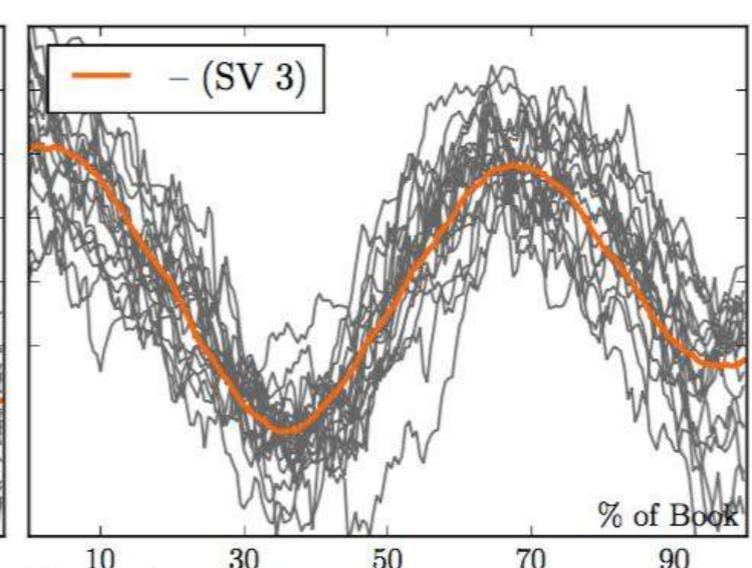
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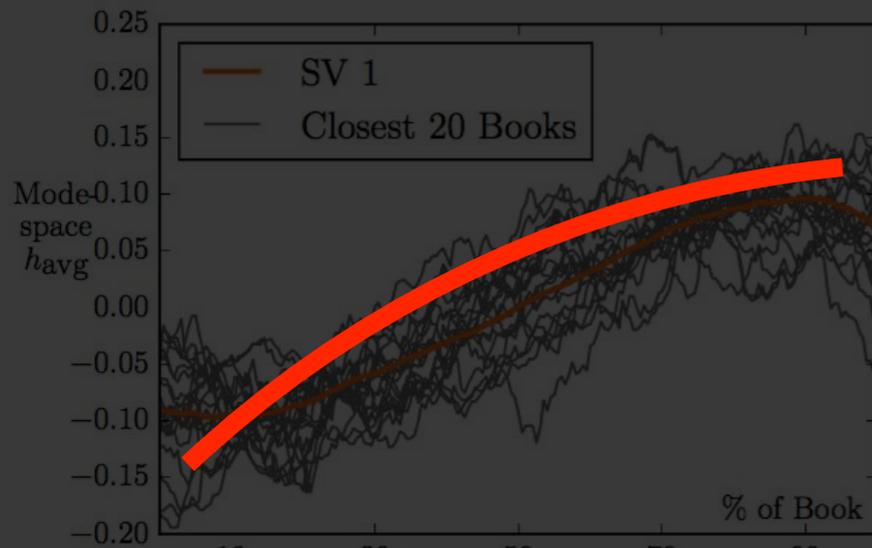
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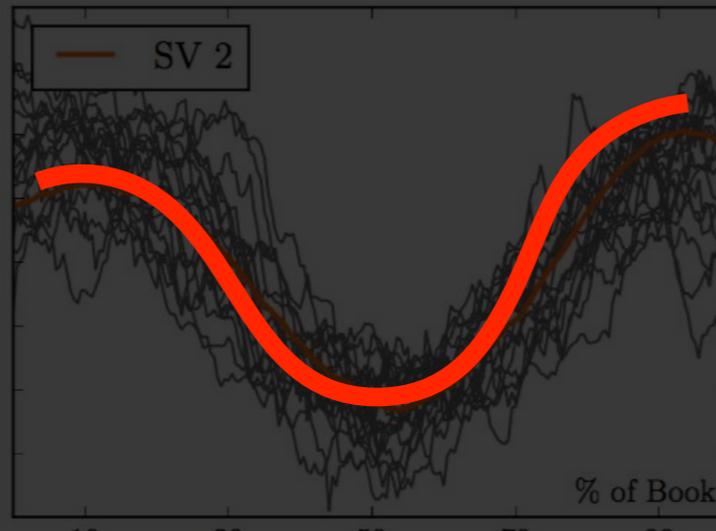
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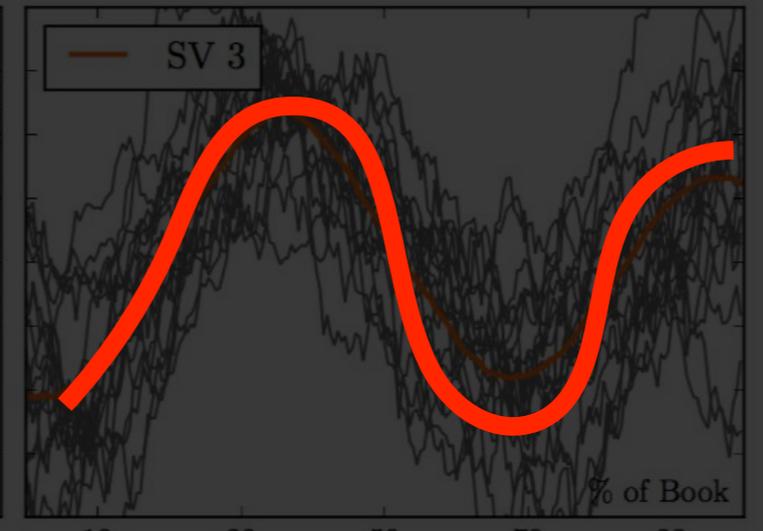
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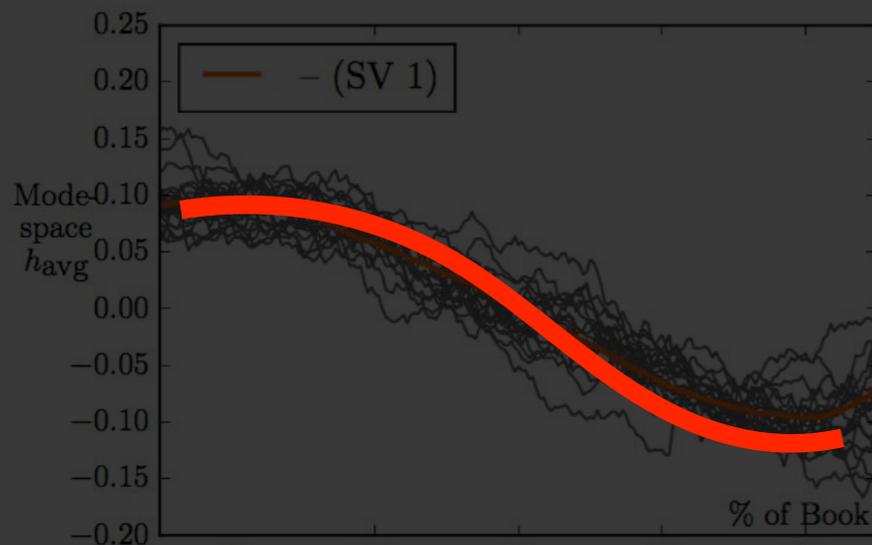
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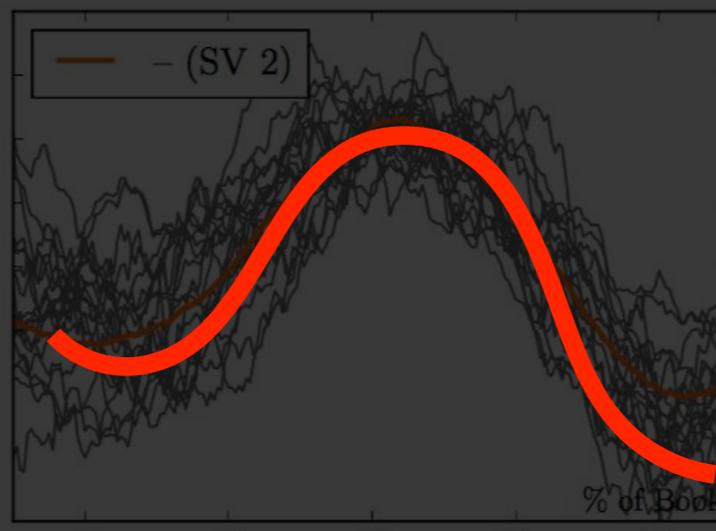
"Cinderella"



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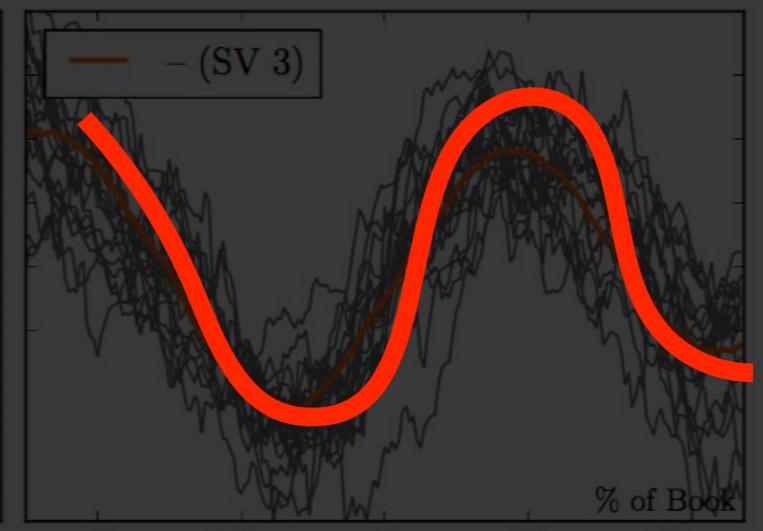
"Tragedy"



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"Icarus"



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"Oedipus"

80% of what you need to
know about story structure
in one slide

BEGINNING SOMETHING CHANGES MIDDLE END

why stories?

give voice to experience

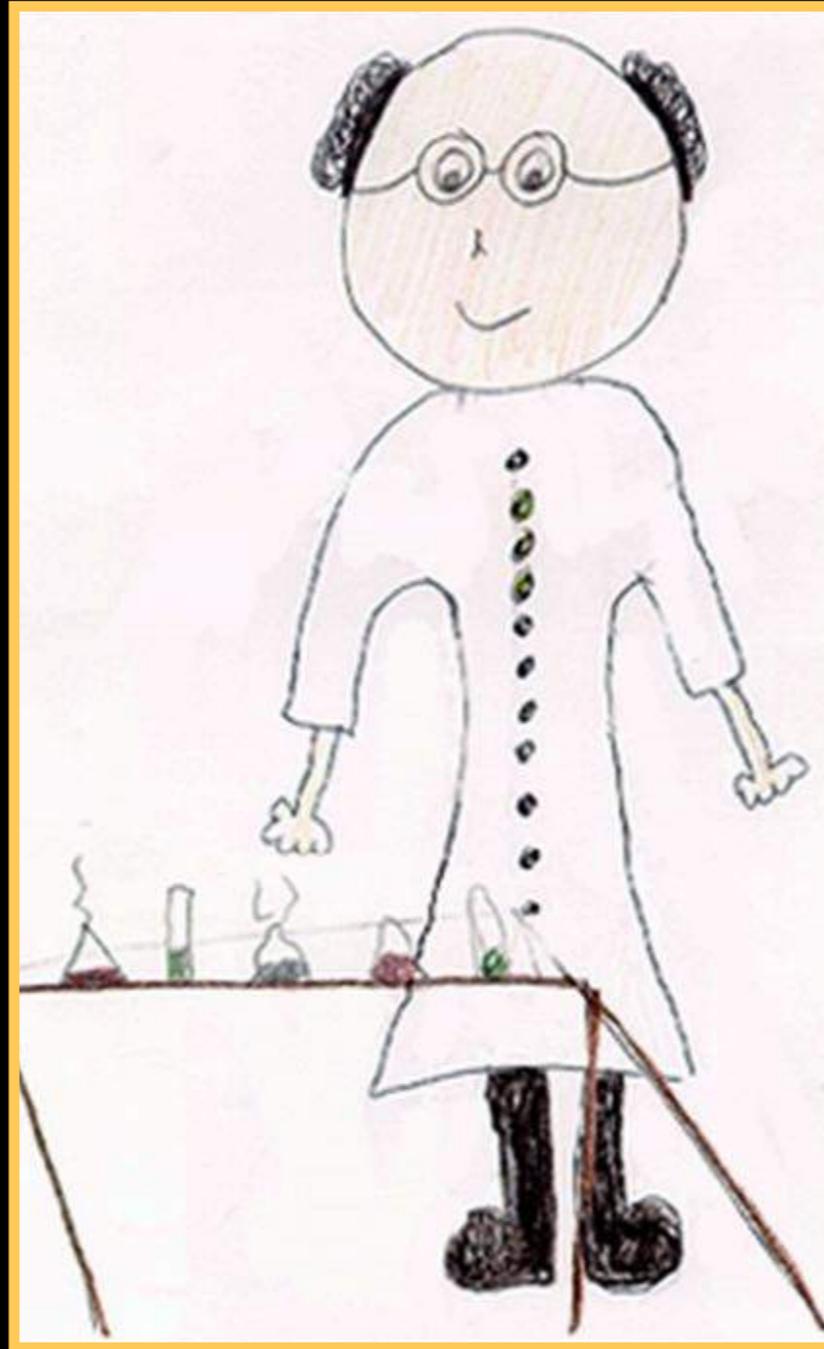
bear witness to suffering

construct identity

connect knowledge to action

#metoo

what is normal?





Scientist Spotlight Homework Assignments Shift Students' Stereotypes of Scientists and Enhance Science Identity in a Diverse Introductory Science Class

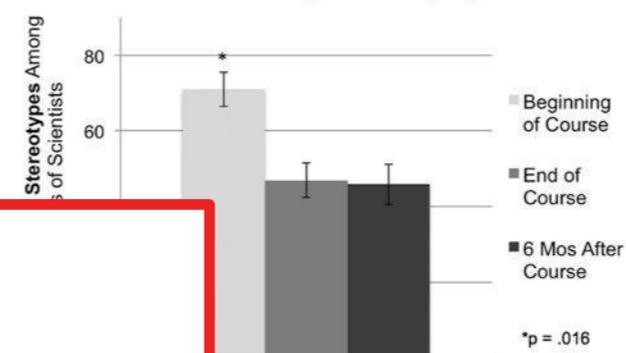
Jeffrey N. Schinske,^{1*} Heather Perkins,² Amanda Snyder,¹ and Mary Wyer²

¹Biology Department, De Anza College, Cupertino, CA 95014; ²Psychology Department, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC 27695

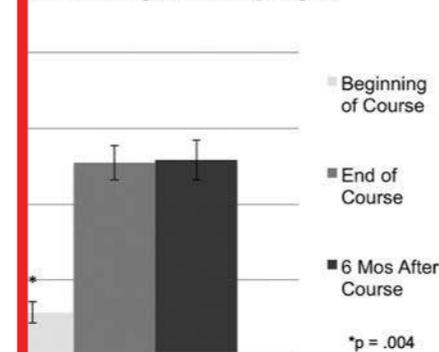
ABSTRACT

Research into science identity, stereotype threat, and possible selves suggests a lack of diverse representations of scientists could impede traditionally underserved students from persisting and succeeding in science. We evaluated a series of metacognitive homework assignments ("Scientist Spotlights") that featured counterstereotypical examples of scientists in an introductory biology class at a diverse community college. Scientist Spotlights additionally served as tools for content coverage, as scientists were selected to match topics covered each week. We analyzed beginning- and end-of-course essays completed by students during each of five courses with Scientist Spotlights and two courses with equivalent homework assignments that lacked connections to the stories of diverse scientists. Students completing Scientist Spotlights shifted toward counterstereotypical descriptions of scientists and conveyed an enhanced ability to personally relate to scientists following the intervention. Longitudinal data suggested these shifts were maintained 6 months after the completion of the course. Analyses further uncovered correlations between these shifts, interest in science, and course grades. As Scientist Spotlights require very little class time and complement existing curricula, they represent a promising tool for enhancing science identity, shifting stereotypes, and connecting content to issues of equity and diversity in a broad range of STEM classrooms.

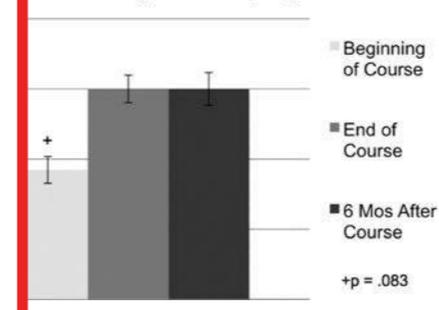
(a) Longitudinal Trends in Stereotypical Descriptions of Scientists Following Scientist Spotlights



(b) Trends in Nonstereotypical Descriptions of Scientists Following Scientist Spotlights



(c) Trends in Student Ratings of Relating to Scientists Following Scientist Spotlights



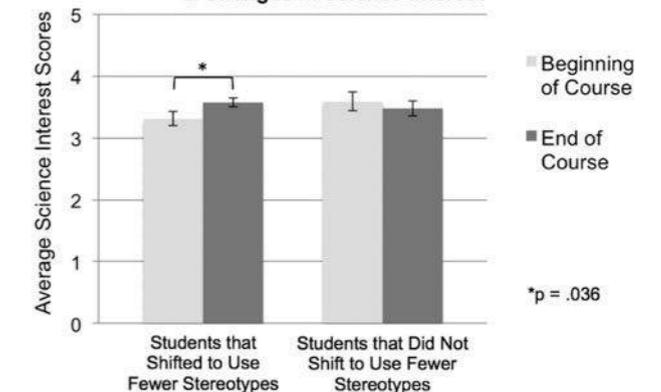
percent of Stereotypes (a), percent of nonstereotypical descriptions (b), and relating to scientists (c) in students' responses at the beginning of the course, and 6 months following the end of the course. Error bars represent SE.

It may influence the effectiveness of Scientist Spotlights. Our anticipated future directions in exploring these relationships.

Generated Shifts in Students' Stereotypes of Scientists and Scientist Relatability

Students were prompted to evaluate the impact of Scientist Spotlights on their stereotypes of scientists. When

(a) Changes in Stereotypical Descriptions of Scientists & Changes in Science Interest



(b) Changes in Nonstereotypical Descriptions of Scientists & Changes in Science Interest

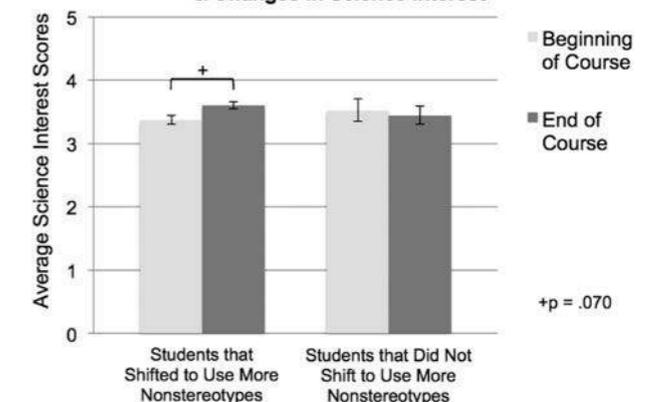


FIGURE 4. Relationships between changes in Stereotypes (a) and Nonstereotypes (b) to changes in Science Interest from the beginning of the course to the end of the course.

compared with a class performing a similar activity that lacked connections with diverse scientists, students who completed Scientist Spotlights adopted more nonstereotypical views of scientists (Figure 1). These changes appeared to be sustained 6 months after the courses ended (Figure 3) and were associated with higher course grades (Figure 5). Reductions in stereotypical descriptions of scientists further correlated with increases in Science Interest (Figure 4a) and an enhanced interest in STEM majors.

We piloted the relatability prompt as a tool for examining students' possible selves in a science context, making the case that explicitly asking students about their ability to personally relate to scientists would draw out descriptions of students' possible selves in relation to scientists. While only 43% of Course Reader Homework students found scientists relatable at the end of the course, the vast majority (79%) of Scientist Spotlight students did (Figures 2 and 4c). These students discussed shared personalities and interests outside science as reasons for being able to relate to scientists, with some students also commenting on certain scientists' nontraditional paths to gaining an interest in science. Many students used specific language such



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