Considering Intergroup Emotions to Improve Diversity and Inclusion in the Geosciences

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Abstract

While the geosciences are interdisciplinary in nature, they are not demographically diverse, which challenges the future viability and relevance of the geosciences. Causes and potential solutions for this deficiency have been proposed for several decades, but diversity within the geosciences has barely changed in that time. Dominant cultural, historical, and socioeconomic factors contribute to the lack of diversity and those factors only change slowly over generations. Solutions proposed for more immediate changes have been ineffective. Providing specific emotional support to those who are systemically non-dominant (SND) will be more impactful in improving diversity and inclusion within the geosciences. Specifically, we focus on intergroup emotions, which can be pleasant or unpleasant emotions that individuals feel due to their identification with one or more social groups. Using the Intergroup Emotions Theory, we argue that diversity and inclusion can be improved by helping those who are SND minimize undesirable emotions that arise when their group memberships are perceived to be negative. We end by making recommendations based on available research, yet we strongly call on the geoscience community to conduct further disciplinebased research in this crucial area in the near future.

Considering Intergroup Emotions to Improve Diversity and Inclusion in the Geosciences

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1 ABSTRACT

2 While the geosciences are interdisciplinary in nature, they are not demographically 3 diverse, which challenges the future viability and relevance of the geosciences. Causes and 4 potential solutions for this deficiency have been proposed for several decades, but diversity 5 within the geosciences has barely changed in that time. Dominant cultural, historical, and 6 socioeconomic factors contribute to the lack of diversity and those factors only change slowly 7 over generations. Solutions proposed for more immediate changes have been ineffective. 8 Providing specific emotional support to those who are systemically non-dominant (SND) will be 9 more impactful in improving diversity and inclusion within the geosciences. Specifically, we 10 focus on intergroup emotions, which can be pleasant or unpleasant emotions that individuals feel due to their identification with one or more social groups. Using the Intergroup Emotions 11 12 Theory, we argue that diversity and inclusion can be improved by helping those who are SND 13 minimize undesirable emotions that arise when their group memberships are perceived to be 14 negative. We end by making recommendations based on available research, yet we strongly call 15 on the geoscience community to conduct further discipline-based research in this crucial area in the near future. 16

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18 1.0 INTRODUCTION

19 1.1 Lack of diversity in the geosciences, identified causes, and proposed solutions

The geosciences are among the least demographically diverse fields within science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) (Velasco & de Velasco, 2010; Stokes, Levine, & Flessa, 2014; Glass, 2015; King et al., 2018; Vila-Concejo et al., 2018). Specifically, while there is some indication that the gender gap has decreased over the past 40 years, racial and ethnic diversity has not improved. This trend can be broadly seen by considering those who obtained Ph.D. degrees (Bernard & Cooperdock, 2018) and at the department-level by considering the demographics of faculty members. As an example from the lead author's department at Johns 27 Hopkins University, 2 of 11 faculty members identified as female in 2015, while 5 of 14 did so in 28 2017 (JHU Progress Report, 2019). Yet, 13 of those 14 faculty members identified as White, with 29 the one non-White faculty member identifying as Asian (ibid.). Such statistics led Riggs, 30 Callahan, and Brey (2018) to call for improving inclusion of those who are systemically non-31 dominant (SND) in the recent report "A Community Framework for Geoscience Education 32 Research." Here we use the term SND from Jenkins (2017) instead of the less inclusive term 33 "underrepresented minority" that is typically used in the literature. Before getting to proposed 34 solutions, we will consider some causes.

35 There are a number of documented causes for the lack of diversity in the geosciences. 36 Those include students having insufficient prerequisite knowledge (e.g., Baber, Pifer, Colbeck, & 37 Furman, 2010), students facing discouraging environments (e.g., Mattox et al., 2008), students 38 having less social capital (e.g., Callahan, Libarkin, McCallum, & Atchison, 2015), students' 39 decreasing or lack of interest in the subject (e.g., Defelice, Adams, Branco, & Pieroni, 2014), 40 students' uncertainty regarding their future earning potential (e.g., Hanks et al., 2007), and 41 students not having or having less access to early geoscience educational experiences (e.g., 42 Levine, González, Cole, Fuhrman, & Floch, 2007). Additionally, implicit biases limit access to 43 the geosciences. For example, letters of recommendation written on behalf of female 44 postdoctoral researchers were of lower quality than those written for their male counterparts 45 (Dutt, Pfaff, Bernstein, Dillard, & Block, 2016). Implicit biases are not limited to the geosciences 46 nor to gender. Eaton, Saunders, Jacobson, and West (2019) found that faculty members in 47 physics and biology rated each of the eight identical synthetic curriculum vitae (CVs) differently based solely on perceiving gender and race from the name listed on the CV. Similarly, recent 48 49 work found journals of the American Geophysical Union had fewer female scientists peer review 50 articles (Lerback & Hanson, 2017). This was due to both authors and editors inviting fewer 51 female reviewers. While those biases may be implicit, bias can also be very explicit. As an 52 example, a female respondent to a survey administered to coastal geoscientists and engineers

stated, "my supervisor aked [sic] me to abandon my PhD when I become pregnant" (VilaConcejo et al., 2018). Additionally, the list above would be severely lacking if we did not also
acknowledge that societal blights such as ableism, ageism, classism, homophobia, racism,
sexism, transphobia, and xenophobia working within the culture of the geosciences may lead to
a lack of diversity and inclusion within the field. Given the numerous causes for the lack of
diversity, we now consider some proposed solutions.

59 Proposed solutions to improve diversity in the geosciences include: encouraging students 60 to participate in undergraduate research (e.g., Gilligan et al., 2007), having more students 61 involved in summer programs (e.g., Hallar et al., 2010), having larger institutions partnering 62 with minority-serving institutions (e.g., McDaris, Manduca, Iverson, & Orr, 2017), supporting 63 students who transfer from two-year colleges (Wolfe & Riggs, 2017), better mentoring of 64 students (e.g., Huntoon & Lane, 2007), improving instructor training (e.g., Sherman-Morris, 65 Brown, Dyer, McNeal, & Rodgers, 2013), increasing students' self-efficacy (Baber et al., 2010), 66 increasing students' social capital (Callahan et al., 2015), changing the current biased 67 demographical depiction of geoscientists in textbooks (Mattox et al., 2008), using more 68 culturally inclusive and relevant geoscience teaching (e.g., Riggs, 2005; Semken & Butler 69 Freeman, 2008; Ward, Semken, & Libarkin, 2014), and improving recruitment of SND students 70 (Stokes, Levine, & Flessa, 2015). In spite of successful individual interventions towards 71 retention, for example through undergraduate research experiences (e.g., Russell, Hancock, & 72 McCullough, 2007; Pender, Marcotte, Sto. Domingo, & Maton, 2010; Bangera & Brownell, 73 2014), there has yet to be a broader demographic shift in a sustained way. We posit that 74 proposed solutions are ineffective because they only marginally treat symptoms caused by 75 harmful systemic factors. While systemic causes cannot be significantly changed in a short 76 period of time, providing specific emotional support to those who are SND could be more 77 effective at making the field more diverse and inclusive. In this commentary, we use some of the 78 extensive literature on emotions to argue that systemic causes negatively affect emotions of

those who are SND, resulting in them either failing to engage with or completely disengaging
from geoscience-related studies, careers, and interests. Therefore, we should directly consider
emotions of those who are SND in such a manner as to reduce or possibly reverse influences that
direct them away from the geosciences.

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84 2.0 THEORY DEVELOPMENT

85 2.1 What are emotions?

86 Before delving into the centrality of emotions in discussions of diversity and inclusion in 87 the geosciences, we first consider emotions more generally to understand their fundamental role 88 in human psychology. Emotions have been scientifically investigated for at least 150 years (e.g., 89 Darwin, 1872; Barrett & Satpute, 2017). They have been studied using various techniques, such 90 as from a psychological perspective in terms of verbal expressions and from a neuroscientific 91 perspective in terms of physiological responses (Bach & Dayan, 2017). While in the recent past 92 some have advocated for the universality of basic emotions (i.e., anger, disgust, fear, happiness, 93 sadness, and surprise; e.g., Ekman, 1992), today emotions are viewed to be more complex and in 94 line with a constructivist view in that they are culturally dependent and are formulated by 95 individuals (e.g., Jack, Blais, Scheepers, Schyns, & Caldara, 2009; Tarlow, 2012; Touroutoglou, 96 Lindquist, Dickerson, & Barrett, 2015; Mesquita, Boiger, & De Leersnyder, 2017). Here we 97 consider emotions to be specific interpretations by the brain of our physiology and environment 98 in relation to its internal model (e.g., Barrett & Satpute, 2017). Since presently there are at least 99 15 theories of emotions and research is ongoing, it is difficult to define emotions more precisely 100 (Scarantino, 2016). Though the above definition may be incomplete, we use it as a working 101 definition. Our definition of "emotions" is also narrower than "affect" or "affective domain" used 102 in education research (e.g., Barrett & Bliss-Moreau, 2009; McConnell & van der Hoeven Kraft, 103 2011; Perera et al., 2017). "Affect" is very broad in that it includes a wide range of phenomena

from metacognition to emotion to motivation (Illeris, 2009). Given our working definition, we
will next consider how emotions are connected to cognition.

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107 **2.2 Emotions and Cognition**

108 The connection between emotions and cognition has a long-established basis in 109 neuroscience (e.g., Pessoa, 2008), psychology (e.g., Öhman, Flykt, & Esteves, 2001), and 110 anthropology (e.g., Anderson, 2011). Though connected, emotions and cognition (i.e., attention, 111 language, memory, planning, and problem solving) have been considered as separate constructs 112 (e.g., Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956). For instance, certain regions of the 113 brain (e.g., amygdala and ventral striatum) were considered to control emotion and other 114 regions (e.g., lateral orbitofrontal cortex, ventromedial prefrontal cortex, and anterior cingulate 115 cortex) were considered to control cognition (Duncan & Barrett, 2007). This is akin to electricity 116 and magnetism being regarded as two separate phenomena prior to the 1820s, though we now 117 know that electricity and magnetism are fundamentally related. Similarly, our current 118 neurological understanding of the human brain finds emotions and cognition to be highly 119 integrated. In fact, traditional emotion-control areas are involved in cognition and traditional 120 cognition-control areas are involved in emotion (Pessoa, 2008). As an example, the amygdala, 121 often termed the "fear center" of the brain, influences attention by increasing awareness to 122 sensory information that is particularly emotionally meaningful to the person (Duncan & 123 Barrett, 2007). The connection between emotions and cognition is further illustrated by 124 research that showed emotions affect processing, encoding and retrieving of information (e.g., 125 Levine & Pizarro, 2004). Additionally, Sohn et al. (2015) showed that more impulsive decisions 126 are made under high-arousal conditions as compared to a neutrally aroused state. For an 127 extensive overview of emotions in education, we refer the reader to Pekrun & Linnenbrink-128 Garcia (2014) who thoroughly examined all facets of how emotions impact student learning and 129 classroom dynamics. The challenge is moving from recognizing emotions as an important facet

of learning to understanding how they can ultimately impact diversity and inclusion within thegeosciences.

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133 2.3 Intergroup (Group-based) Emotions

134 Emotions and diversity in the geosciences may be linked by considering intergroup 135 (group-based) emotions, which are "emotions that arise [in an individual] when [they] identify 136 with a social group and respond emotionally to events or objects that impinge on the group" 137 (Smith & Mackie, 2016, p. 412). The underlying theory, called Intergroup Emotions Theory 138 (IET; Smith, 1993), was inspired by previous work on social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978) and 139 self-categorization theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987), since 140 fundamentally these emotions arise from a sense of self as it relates to group membership. The 141 crux of IET is that when group membership is made salient, the emotions experienced by an 142 individual tend to be dominated by intergroup emotions.

A number of studies have shown that intergroup emotions can be powerful, but may also 143 144 be destructive. For example, DeSteno, Dasgupta, Bartlett, and Cajdric (2004) conducted two 145 experiments to show that when anger was induced in participants, they showed automatic bias 146 (viz. prejudice) towards outgroup members (who were only randomly assigned that role). 147 Further, Gordijn, Yzerbyt, Wigboldus, and Dumont (2006) showed that undergraduate students 148 (who were residents of Colorado) deemed a fee increase aimed at out-of-state students to be 149 unfair when they thought of themselves more as students, but fair when they thought of 150 themselves as residents of Colorado. Since both those studies were cases where groups were 151 formulated experimentally, they give credence to the possibility of altering perceptions in 152 educational settings to improve diversity and inclusion. To that end, recent work in human 153 resources has considered the connection between intergroup emotions and diversity. For 154 example, Tufan, De Witte, and Wendt (2017) used IET to study how failure to meet diversity-155 related promises by employers resulted in higher anxiety and avoidant behavior by ethnic

156 minority employees. While emotions of individuals can stem from their group membership, a
157 complication is that in turn their group membership can be strengthened or weakened by those
158 very emotions (Kessler & Hollbach, 2005). For instance, happiness towards an outgroup can
159 weaken association with an ingroup, which again is important as we try to consider intergroup
160 emotions of SND students in improving diversity and inclusion in the geosciences.

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162 2.4 Intergroup Emotions of Systemically Non-Dominant (SND) Students

163 Before we consider the emotions of SND students in educational settings, we need to 164 acknowledge that SND students need to cope with the harsh conditions of the wider society in 165 which they live. Previous works have demonstrated this as it relates to those who identify as 166 transgender (Dhejne, Vlerken, Heylens, & Arcelus, 2016; Evans, Bira, Gastelum, Weiss, & 167 Vanderford, 2018) and female (Eaton et al., 2012; Evans et al., 2018) as generally experiencing 168 higher levels of anxiety and depression. Additionally, SND students experience emotions in 169 educational settings that are destructive to their learning. For example, they experience 170 microaggressions, which may consist of microinsults, microassaults, and microinvalidations 171 (Sue et al., 2007). Nadal, Griffin, Davidoff, and Sriken (2014) found that microaggressions can 172 lower self-esteem and in turn degrade academic performance. While initially proposed for racial 173 microaggressions (Pierce, 1969), it has been widened to include other demographics such as 174 gender (e.g., Barthelemy, McCormick, & Henderson, 2016) and sexual orientation (e.g., Shelton 175 et al., 2011). In addition to dealing with microaggressions, SND students face stereotype threats, 176 in which students are aware of larger perceived societal stereotypes about their designated 177 group (e.g., race, gender, and nationality). Those threats in turn impact their academic 178 performance (Steele, 1997). Past work demonstrated that the most successful students of color 179 tend to be the most likely to withdraw from school (Osborne & Walker, 2006). Furthermore, it is 180 important to note that when a person belongs to multiple marginalized groups (i.e. 181 intersectionality; Crenshaw, 1989), the negative effects are worse. For example, Clancy, Lee,

182 Rodgers, and Richey (2017) found that women of color in astronomy and planetary science 183 reported the highest rates of negative experiences (including harassment and assault) in the 184 workplace. Carlone and Johnson (2007) also studied the career paths of 15 women of color, 6 of 185 them had a "disrupted scientist identity" due to obstacles such as not conforming to established 186 laboratory culture (e.g., manner in which mice were killed) and messages of not belonging (e.g., 187 "well, maybe you can change your major"). These findings are consistent with IET in that 188 intergroup emotions in individuals mediate between an external destructive effect (e.g., 189 microaggressions) and their academics (e.g., lower academic performance). As such, those 190 wanting to implement effective means of improving diversity and inclusion in the geosciences 191 need to consider intergroup emotions of SND students. 192 193 **3.0 RECOMMENDATIONS** 194 3.1 Finding Research-based Psychological Interventions 195 To make their courses more learner-centered, geoscience instructors can plan their 196 courses today using research-based practices such as backward design (e.g., Wiggins & McTighe, 197 1998; Reynolds & Kearns, 2016). Some may even implement evidence-based cognitive 198 psychological interventions to help their students learn. For example, values affirmation 199 interventions have been shown to reduce the negative effects associated with stereotype threat 200 (Shnabel, Purdie-Vaughns, Cook, Garcia, & Cohen, 2013) and have been shown to reduce the 201 gender gap substantially (Miyake et al., 2010). Yet, geoscience instructors may not have access 202 to many research-based practices for improving intergroup emotions, as evidenced by the lack 203 of any geoscience discipline-based education research (DBER) pertaining to intergroup 204 emotions. As such, we call on the geoscience DBER community to help fill this need. Since such 205 work will inherently be transdisciplinary, we encourage geoscience DBER groups to work closely

- with their psychology and sociology colleagues. A recent literature review mentioned how few
- 207 papers "integrate cognitive, social, or psychological theories into their discussion of different
- 9

programs" (Callahan et al., 2017). While quantitative research is important and allows for a
broader sampling, we particularly recommend qualitative research, so that we can obtain richer
data about intergroup emotions from the relatively few SND students currently in the
geosciences and can in turn propose better-targeted, more relevant, and more effective
interventions.

213 Generally, effective means of improving intergroup relations are still developing (e.g., 214 Schellhaas & Dovidio, 2016 and references therein) as revealed to us daily by conflicts and 215 tensions in the world. Yet, it is important to consider a few nascent strategies that may help in 216 the context of the geosciences. Previous works showed there to be less bias towards outgroups 217 when individuals are designated into multiple groups (i.e., *multiple categorization*) than when 218 they are classified into two dichotomous groups (e.g., Crisp, Hewstone, & Rubin, 2001). For 219 instance, there tends to be less bias towards outgroups when a person categorizes others by 220 gender, ethnicity, and age rather than only gender. Another strategy of reducing bias is to 221 encourage people to reclassify themselves and their outgroups into a superordinate common 222 ingroup (e.g., human beings or college students; Gaunt, 2009). Albarello and Rubini (2012) 223 found that combining those two methods was the most effective way of lessening 224 dehumanization of those who identify as Black. As we qualified earlier, while these methods 225 have been shown to work they are not invariably effective. For instance, Schellhaas and Dovidio 226 (2016) noted that the process of recategorization into a superordinate common ingroup is not 227 effective when a group feels that they are losing their identity in the process. As such an effective 228 strategy may be to encourage seeing commonalities between groups while being careful not to 229 discourage group identifications. Experiments by Bruneau and Saxe (2012) support another 230 strategy to improve intergroup dynamics. They suggest that attitudes towards outgroups can be 231 improved when members of the dominant group (e.g., White Americans and Israelis) are 232 'perspective-taking,' while those in the nondominant group (e.g., Mexican immigrants and 233 Palestinians) are 'perspective-giving.' A different yet related intervention emphasizes the

234 importance of building trust. Consider that SND students likely come into an institution with 235 mistrust due to past unfair experiences in academic settings (e.g., Okonofua & Eberhardt, 2015). 236 Yeager, Purdie-Vaughns, Hooper, and Cohen (2017) note that an institution is seen as 237 trustworthy when it is recognized by an individual to be "procedurally just" in that it is fair and 238 the institution has "personal regard" in that they care about the wellbeing of that person. In 239 their study, they found that African American and Latino/a/x middle school students' awareness 240 of bias was predictive of their decrease in trust in the institution. That decrease in trust in turn 241 predicted these students' later increased discipline infractions and their decreased likelihood of 242 enrolling in college. Likewise, Yeager et al. (2014) found that African American students who 243 were provided feedback along with specific encouragement that indicated the instructor thought 244 the student was capable of being a high-achiever were more likely to persist and performed 245 better than those who only received feedback. Future work should explore these and other 246 interventions that help improve intergroup emotions.

247

248 3.2 Working Towards a More Inclusive Geoscience Community

249 Our group identifications are vital to our self-identity, yet it is important to be self-250 reflective of how our own ingroup identifications may negatively affect those we consider to be 251 in our outgroup. For example, Cikara, Bruneau, and Saxe (2011) found that people are more 252 likely to help those in their ingroup than those in their outgroup. This is in line with *ingroup* 253 favoritism discussed by Greenwald and Pettigrew (2014), who noted that it is that favoritism 254 that serves as the basis for discrimination. With that in mind, there are specific ways in which a 255 learning environment may not be inclusive. Here we discuss a few examples of how such 256 environments may trigger negative intergroup emotions that signal to a student that they are 257 not welcome. For instance, instructors need to be aware and responsive to cultural differences 258 when using certain scientific terminology. In the geosciences we often use analogies and 259 examples to discuss a principle, such as the "heat engine" of the Earth. Use of such mechanical

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260 metaphors is common in Western epistemology. Yet, since many indigenous people in the 261 Americas and elsewhere view the Earth system as a living entity, such inanimate metaphors 262 should be replaced by more inclusive terms (e.g., "heat cycle") and instructors can go further by 263 asking students to create their own preferred metaphors. Otherwise, emotions may be triggered 264 that hinder a student's learning (e.g., Aikenhead & Jegede, 1999; Semken, 2005). Along similar 265 lines, Cheryan, Plaut, Davies, and Steele (2009) found that computer science classrooms with 266 more stereotypically male objects (e.g., Star Trek posters and video games) discouraged women 267 by reducing their sense of belonging. Comparably, Traxler et al. (2018) discussed how examples 268 used in physics can introduce gender bias (e.g., references to sports and vehicles in the Force 269 Concept Inventory). Specific interest-based examples, however, can improve learning for both 270 female and male students (Hoffman, 2002). Another important factor to consider is accessibility 271 for students with disabilities (both emotional and physical; e.g., Kirch, Bargerhuff, Cowan, & 272 Wheatly, 2007; Carabajal, Marshall, & Atchison, 2017). A shift is required in how these students 273 are viewed, from individuals who cannot effectively participate to those who can succeed if given 274 the appropriate support and accommodations. Institutions, for example, can broaden access to 275 field-based learning experiences through the use of virtual-reality (e.g., Atchison & Feig, 2011; 276 Mead et al., 2019) and augmented-reality (e.g., Bursztyn et al., 2017) field trips, many of which 277 are readily available online.

278 Place-based approaches offer one outstanding example of inclusive geoscience 279 educational practices. Those approaches can be traced back to indigenous and communal 280 teaching practices (e.g., Cajete, 1994, p. 243; Cajete, 2000, p. 315; Kawagley & Barnhardt, 1999). 281 Place-based teaching situates learning in local landscapes, environments, and communities; leverages students' intellectual and emotional connections to places; meaningfully integrates (or 282 283 at least respectfully acknowledges) traditional and local knowledge of the place(s) studied; and 284 teaches attitudes and practices that favor environmental and cultural sustainability (Semken, 285 2005). Several recent studies and literature reviews (Apple, Lemus, & Semken, 2014 and other

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papers in that volume; Semken, Ward, Moosavi, & Chinn, 2017) present evidence for the
effectiveness of place-based geoscience teaching in better engaging culturally diverse and SND
students in different, but mostly small-group, instructional settings. Longitudinal research on
place-based geoscience education for large student populations and on their intergroup
emotions remains to be done.

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292 **4.0 OUTLOOK**

293 In this commentary, we tried to convey that "emotions are not just messy toddlers in a 294 china shop, running around breaking and obscuring delicate cognitive glassware" (Immordino-295 Yang & Damasio, 2007, p. 5). In fact emotions are vital to both learning and improving diversity 296 in the geosciences. Yet, emotions are generally not considered when discussing plans to improve 297 diversity (e.g., JHU Progress Report, 2018; ASU Diversity Plan, 2018; UO IDEAL Framework, 298 2016). Given the deficiency of diversity and inclusion in the geosciences for at least several 299 decades, it is important to ask ourselves a question posed by Alfred Wegener: "why should we 300 hesitate to toss the old views overboard?" We strongly recommend the community to specifically 301 consider intergroup emotions of students in the near future. It is undeniable that we need to do 302 better.

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FIGURE

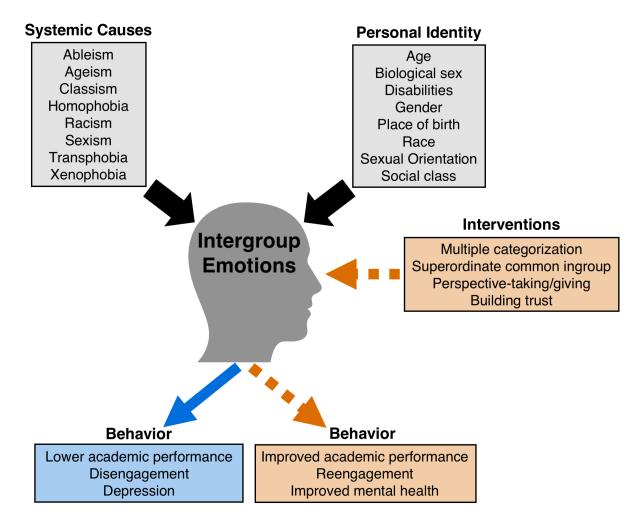


Figure 1: Intergroup emotions are generated by systemic causes that regard aspects of personal identity as negative. The blue (hexadecimal color #006ddb) solid arrow shows that intergroup emotions generated in this manner can be destructive to a student's learning. The orange (hexadecimal color #db6doo) arrows and boxes show that interventions may reduce destructive effects.

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