

1 RUNNING HEAD: An intervention to change students' theory of intelligence

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An Evaluation of an Intervention to Change First-Year Psychology Students' Theory of  
Intelligence

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Abstract

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Some people hold an entity theory of intelligence, they think of intelligence as innate. In contrast, others hold an incremental theory, believing that intelligence can be changed. Previous research has shown that an incremental theory is associated with positive outcomes. The aim of this paper was to evaluate an intervention which promoted an incremental view of intelligence in first-year university students. Thirty five students were shown a presentation which discussed research promoting an incremental view of intelligence (intervention group). Forty four students were shown a presentation which discussed research on memory (control group). Participants completed measures of theory of intelligence, goals and behavioural intentions before and after the presentation. Results suggested that the intervention had been successful in promoting an incremental view of intelligence and thus positive learning behaviours. Interventions such as this may therefore have a positive impact on student success at university.

Keywords: theory of intelligence, intervention, transition to university,

39           According to an influential body of work from Dweck and colleagues (1999) people  
40 view intelligence in one of two ways. Some hold an entity theory of intelligence; they  
41 believe that intelligence is innate and that some people are naturally more clever than  
42 others. In contrast, some hold an incremental theory and believe that intelligence is like a  
43 muscle and can be changed over time. These beliefs are implicit, meaning they are  
44 fundamental and often difficult to verbalise, but they can have a strong impact on behaviour  
45 (Chiu, Dweck & Hong, 1997). Holding an incremental theory has been found to lead to a  
46 number of positive outcomes such as choosing challenging goals and persisting following  
47 failure (Elliott & Dweck, 1988, Wormington, & Corpus, 2011; Kinlaw & Kurtz-Costes, 2007;  
48 Mangels, Butterfield, Lamb, Good, & Dweck, 2006; Wirthwein et al., 2013). However, there  
49 is little research examining how we can promote an incremental theory of intelligence in  
50 university students. This was the aim of the current paper.

51           An incremental theory of intelligence has been associated with a number of positive  
52 outcomes. For example, those who hold an incremental theory are more likely to espouse  
53 learning goals (Dweck & Legett, 1988; Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Learning goals are goals where  
54 the learner wants to understand the material and engage with it at a deep level. They want  
55 to enhance their skills. An example of this would be a student trying to understand the  
56 formula behind the standard deviation, regardless of whether it will be in the assessment. In  
57 contrast, those who hold an entity theory are more likely to hold performance goals. These  
58 are goals where the learner is primarily interested in passing the assessment and does not  
59 want to engage with the material at a deep level. In these cases, the learner is concerned  
60 with proving, validating or documenting their ability. An example of this is knowing which  
61 buttons to click in SPSS to find the standard deviation to get the correct answer in the  
62 assessment; but not understanding what the test is doing. Unsurprisingly, learning goals

63 have been found to lead to positive outcomes in terms of achievement in the longer term.  
64 Therefore incremental theorists may be more likely to succeed in education and more likely  
65 to achieve higher grades.

66 Similarly, an incremental theory has been found to lead to positive outcomes when  
67 faced with failure (Robins & Pals, 2002). Everyone is likely to perform badly at some point in  
68 their education and their responses to this may have a strong impact on their future  
69 performance and likelihood of persisting in education (Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999;  
70 Stipek & Gralinsky, 1996). Previous research suggests that those who hold an incremental  
71 theory are more likely to respond positively to failure (Henderson & Dweck, 1990). This is  
72 because they believe that their performance was caused by their efforts and techniques,  
73 which can be easily changed. Therefore, failure is a sign that more effort or a new technique  
74 is needed. It is also a signal to them that there is an opportunity to learn new things. In  
75 contrast, entity theorists see failure as threatening. They believe that intelligence is fixed  
76 and difficult to change. Because of this, failure indicates that they are not clever enough to  
77 succeed in the task and this fixed view makes them feel that they are also unlikely to  
78 succeed in the future. Thus, they are more likely to show low persistence (Dweck, 1999) and  
79 also self-handicapping behaviours (Robins & Pals, 2002). This again suggests that an  
80 incremental theory of intelligence is associated with positive learning behaviours and  
81 academic success.

82 What Works? (2012) found that students commonly drop out of university for three  
83 main reasons: they are experiencing academic issues; they feel that they do not 'fit in' or  
84 they are concerned about not achieving their future aspirations. These beliefs may be  
85 partially associated with an entity theory of intelligence. Therefore promoting an  
86 incremental theory may help to reduce student dropout rates. For example, an incremental

87 theory may encourage students to view their performance as within their control. This may  
88 help them to feel less negative if they do not achieve high grades immediately and may also  
89 help them to improve their performance, due to the fact that they are likely to hold learning  
90 goals and persist following failure. An incremental theory of intelligence may also lead them  
91 to feel that they fit in at university. Some students, particularly those from widening  
92 participation (WP) groups, such as those from lower socio-economic groups or attending  
93 schools of low progression, may be more likely to feel that they do not fit in at university.  
94 They may also perhaps view other students, such as those from more traditional  
95 backgrounds, as being more “intelligent” than them. Promoting an incremental view of  
96 intelligence may help students feel that they belong in university because they feel that they  
97 too have the potential to succeed if they work hard. Finally, an incremental theory could  
98 encourage students to feel that they can achieve their broader goals for their future careers  
99 by working hard and improving their techniques. This highlights the importance of better  
100 understanding how we can promote an incremental view of intelligence in students.

101 Previous research suggests that an incremental theory of intelligence can be  
102 promoted by feedback. For example, process forms of feedback, e.g. “You worked hard in  
103 this” can encourage an incremental view of intelligence (Kamins & Dweck, 1999). This is  
104 because they explicitly state that success in the task was caused by effort levels or  
105 techniques. However, person forms of feedback, for example “You are really clever”  
106 promote more of an entity view of intelligence. This is because they suggest that an innate  
107 ability has led to success in the task.

108 The impact of feedback on theory of intelligence has been examined in various  
109 experimental settings. For example, Cimpian, Arce, Markman and Dweck (2007) asked  
110 young children to draw a picture and then gave them feedback on their drawing. They

111 found that children who received process forms of feedback were more likely to persist  
112 following failure.

113           Furthermore, Mueller and Dweck (1998) examined the impact of feedback on  
114 children's goals, response to failure and academic performance. To begin, all children  
115 completed an easy set of problems and were told they had received a high score; they also  
116 received either person, process or no feedback. They were then asked questions to  
117 ascertain whether they held learning or performance goals. Children were then given a  
118 second, more challenging set of problems, and told that they had performed badly in them.  
119 They then rated their desire to persist in the task and their attributions for their failure.  
120 Finally they were given a set of easy problems again. Results suggested that those children  
121 who received process praise were more likely to hold an incremental theory of intelligence.  
122 They were more likely to choose a complex task rather than a simple task. Furthermore,  
123 when they experienced a failure, those who received process feedback were more likely to  
124 state that they would like to persist. Finally, when faced with the final simple set of  
125 problems performed well on them. This suggested that process praise led to positive  
126 learning behaviours. In contrast, children who were given person praise showed an entity  
127 theory of intelligence and chose simple tasks rather than complex ones. These children also  
128 showed a helpless response to their failure and when they were faced with a further, easy  
129 set of problems failed to complete them. The finding that students were unable to  
130 complete the final set of problems which were at a similar level to those they had previously  
131 completed with ease, simply because they had recently failed on other problems, illustrates  
132 how theory of intelligence can have a strong long term impact on students' academic  
133 performance. In addition to this experimental research, it has been found that children  
134 whose parents used high levels of process feedback at age two were more likely to hold

135 incremental views of intelligence when they were eight years old (Gunderson, Gripshover,  
136 Romero, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2015).

137         Other research suggests that an incremental theory of intelligence can be promoted  
138 with a targeted intervention. For example, Blackwell, Trzesniewski, and Dweck (2007)  
139 designed an intervention for secondary school students. This involved eight sessions being  
140 delivered to students about the brain and memory. Students in the intervention group also  
141 received information about how the brain is constantly changing and how effort can lead to  
142 improvement. In contrast, those in the control group were taught about memory in general  
143 and specific techniques to improve memory. Results suggested that those in the  
144 intervention group showed higher motivation and also performed better academically than  
145 those in the control group.

146         Therefore, it appears to be possible to influence theory of intelligence via feedback  
147 or intervention programmes. These sorts of interventions may be particularly effective and  
148 important during periods of transition. When young people transition from one educational  
149 environment to another they may find it challenging as the standard of expected work  
150 increases and they may well be studying a subject that they have not previously studied.  
151 Students who hold an incremental theory of intelligence may be more likely to cope better  
152 with this transition as they are likely to show positive learning behaviours such as choosing  
153 challenging learning goals, responding positively to the academic challenge and believing  
154 that they can succeed with effort (Dweck, 1999). Additionally, as previously discussed, they  
155 are more likely to respond positively to failure. Indeed Henderson and Dweck (1990) found  
156 that students who held an incremental theory of intelligence were more likely to achieve  
157 better grades during the transition to high school than those who held an entity theory,  
158 controlling for previous grades.

159            However, most of this research has been conducted with children and less has been  
160 conducted with university students. Some research suggests that students who received  
161 process feedback were more likely to persist following failure (Skipper & Douglas, 2012);  
162 this suggests that students' theory of intelligence may also be changed by teacher feedback.  
163 In addition to examining the impact of teacher feedback, some research has more explicitly  
164 examined how students respond when they are given information about what skill is being  
165 tested. In a study by Aronson (1999) (cited in Aronson, Fried & Good, 2002) students took a  
166 challenging verbal test. Before they took the test they were told that the questions would  
167 test verbal ability which was either described as malleable, fixed or they were given no  
168 further information. Results showed that those in the 'fixed' ability condition were most  
169 anxious and scored lower than those in the control condition, while those in the 'malleable'  
170 condition showed the lowest anxiety and scored the highest. This suggests that teacher  
171 feedback and also teachers explicitly explaining what is being tested for can impact  
172 students' learning behaviours and performance.

173            Additionally, Aronson, Fried and Good (2002) designed an intervention-style  
174 experiment to manipulate college students' theories of intelligence and in turn their grades.  
175 To do this they asked college students to participate in a scholastic pen pals programme  
176 where they received letters from school children who were struggling academically and  
177 were asked to write letters to encourage them. Some were asked to write to the children  
178 about an incremental theory of intelligence, and how intelligence could be changed.  
179 Another group were asked to write to the children about multiple intelligences and how  
180 everyone has strengths. A control group did not write letters. In order to promote these  
181 views of intelligence, participants watched a video discussing research which showed  
182 evidence supporting these theories. In fact, the letters which the students received were



183 not written by children and the aim of the study was to encourage the students themselves  
184 to view intelligence in these ways. Results suggested that those in the malleable  
185 intelligence condition showed more learning goals and performed better in tests than those  
186 in the other conditions. This suggests that the study was successful in promoting an  
187 incremental theory of intelligence. However, it would not be possible to deliver this  
188 intervention to students across different year groups because students who had  
189 participated in previous years would be likely to discuss the study and reveal the deception  
190 to new students, which would reduce efficacy of the intervention.

191 Thus, research suggests that an incremental theory of intelligence can be promoted  
192 via feedback and also via training programmes. However, there is currently no simple  
193 intervention which could be used for a large number of university students, particularly  
194 during transition to university. This is an important gap in the literature. A simple  
195 intervention which could be delivered to a large number of students as a part of First Year  
196 class activities has the potential to have a strong impact on students' experiences of  
197 university. Additionally, interventions as part of the curriculum rather than as an 'add on'  
198 has been found to enhance their success (What Works? 2012). Thus, the aim of the current  
199 paper was to examine whether it is possible to change students' theory of intelligence via a  
200 short intervention and whether this could impact other variables such as learning goals and  
201 behavioural intentions.

202 Eighty students were recruited in their first year at university and were randomly  
203 assigned to the intervention or the control group. Two presentations were created. The  
204 presentation for the intervention group discussed research showing how the brain changed  
205 as participants learned new things. The presentation for the control group discussed  
206 research relating to memory in general. Participants completed a questionnaire before the

207 presentation and immediately afterwards. It was hypothesised that those in the  
208 intervention group would show a more incremental theory of intelligence and in turn more  
209 learning-focused goals and show different behavioural intentions in that they would be  
210 more likely to choose more complex tasks and less likely to choose simple tasks than those  
211 in the control group.

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213

## Method

### 214 Participants and Design

215 Participants were 80 psychology students who were in their first year of university.

216 This was a convenience sample. Participants were drawn from six seminar groups, which

217 were randomly chosen and all students within the groups were invited to participate. All

218 participants were aged 18-21 ( $M=19$  years 5 months,  $SD=2.41$ ) and 66 were female.

219 Participants were from a variety of ethnic groups including 57 White British participants; the

220 other 23 included a number of ethnic groups such as, four Asian British, three African British

221 and three mixed race participants.

222 All participants were studying psychology. Twenty eight students were studying

223 single honours psychology, and the remainder were studying dual honours degrees. Of

224 these, 15 were studying psychology and criminology, nine psychology and neurobiology, six

225 psychology and biology and three psychology and forensics.

226 The design was mixed methods, using both quantitative and qualitative measures.

227 The quantitative element involved a repeated measures design, comparing participants'

228 answers before and after the intervention. The independent variable (IV) was whether

229 participants had been randomly assigned to the control group or the intervention group.

230 The dependent variables (DVs) were theory of intelligence, goals and behavioural intentions  
231 to choose simple and complex tasks.

## 232 **Materials**

### 233 **Intervention**

234 The intervention itself consisted of two PowerPoint presentations, one for the  
235 intervention group and one for the control group. Both were one hour long and contained  
236 information and an activity. The presentation for the intervention group included research  
237 studies which provided evidence that effort and technique were vital to success. For  
238 example, Ericsson (1991) worked with violinists studying at a music academy. The students  
239 were streamed into three groups, those expected to become international soloists, those  
240 who were expected to become performers in top orchestras and less able students who  
241 were expected to teach. They found that the only significant difference between these  
242 three groups was the number of hours of practicing they had done. Other studies exploring  
243 brain plasticity, such as that of Maguire, Woollett and Spiers (2006) were presented. In this  
244 study, the brains of London taxi drivers were compared to brains of bus drivers using an  
245 MRI. Results showed that taxi drivers had greater gray matter volume in mid posterior  
246 hippocampi, a region specialising in acquiring and using complex spatial information to  
247 navigate efficiently. Taxi drivers had to navigate around London by memory while bus  
248 drivers followed a set route. Their behaviours had changed their brain structure, thus  
249 suggesting that the brain could be developed like a muscle. A number of other studies were  
250 also presented as well as more informal facts about learning and memory but always  
251 focused on how effort and techniques led to success.

252 The control group presentation focused on memory. Research around the impact of  
253 music on memory was presented, for example Ludke, Ferreira, and Overy (2013) asked

254 students to learn Hungarian phrases either by singing them or by saying them. Results  
255 suggested that those who sang performed better in later memory tests. Other research  
256 presented examined the impact of drugs on memory, for example research by Smith et al.,  
257 (2014) which suggested that students who had smoked marijuana showed decreases in the  
258 size of the thalamus and striatum, areas that are important for processing rewards, learning  
259 and working memory and that they also performed poorly on a memory test. Therefore,  
260 this session focussed on research into memory techniques and how it can be hindered via  
261 drugs. It was important that the experience of the control group was as similar as possible  
262 to the intervention group or it could be argued that the extra information the intervention  
263 group had received or techniques for improving memory could have impacted students'  
264 learning and achievements rather than the focus on theory of intelligence.

265 All students then completed an activity based on research by Mantyla (1986). Students  
266 were asked to listen to a list of 20 words and write down two words which they associated  
267 with them. Students were then asked to try to remember the words without their cues.  
268 After attempting this, they were allowed to use their cues to remember the words. The  
269 activity was then explained slightly differently depending on the group participants were in.  
270 Those in the experimental group were told that the reason the cues helped was that they  
271 helped them to remember what they were thinking about when they learned the  
272 information. This then was explicitly linked to how neurones form connections when we  
273 learn new information and therefore linked the activity to brain plasticity. Those in the  
274 control group were simply told that we remember things better when we link ideas together  
275 and this was presented as a memory technique.

276 **Questionnaire**

277           The students completed questionnaires before the presentation. The questionnaire  
278 was repeated immediately following the intervention. The questionnaires were also  
279 repeated across the course of the year at times when students received feedback on  
280 summative assessments. However, this data will not be presented here as data analysis is  
281 still in progress.

282           The questionnaire consisted of a number of sections. The first of these included  
283 demographic questions such as date of birth and gender. As well as this, participants were  
284 asked questions about what grade they would like to get in their degree and also what  
285 grade they thought that they would get in their degree. To answer these questions,  
286 students circled a grade classification from 1<sup>st</sup> class to 3<sup>rd</sup>. Students were also asked to  
287 answer the question ‘What factors do you think will influence your success at university?’  
288 This was a free response question and was asked before students could complete the rest of  
289 the questions to avoid biasing their responses.

290           Theory of intelligence was measured by asking students to complete an equation  
291 showing what percentage of intelligence was due to effort and what percentage was due to  
292 ability. They were reminded that the numbers needed to add up to 100%. This was  
293 adapted from Mueller and Dweck (1997).

294           In order to examine students’ goal orientation, a measure was taken directly from  
295 Grant and Dweck (2003). Students were asked 12 questions relating goals. An example  
296 item for performance goals is: “I really want to get good grades in my classes” and an  
297 example item for learning goals is: “I strive to constantly learn and improve in my courses”.  
298 These 12 items were answered on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

299           In order to examine their behavioural intentions, students were given a scenario. It  
300 said:

301 “In your next seminar your tutor describes the principles of research design and  
302 choosing the best statistical test. Your tutor then gives you the option of two tasks.  
303 Task 1 is something you could do very easily; you would probably get all the answers  
304 right but wouldn’t learn anything new. Task 2 is something you couldn’t do very easily;  
305 you would probably get some answers wrong but would learn something new.”

306 Students were asked how likely they would be to choose each task on a scale of 1 (very  
307 unlikely) to 6 (very likely). This procedure was adapted from Mueller and Dweck (1998)  
308 where participants were asked to choose simple or complex tasks to complete in future.

309 Immediately following the presentation, students repeated the questionnaire. They  
310 again answered the same questions on their theory of intelligence, goals and task choice.

### 311 **Procedure**

312 Participants in seminar groups were recruited in the first week of term. Three  
313 seminar groups were randomly assigned to the intervention group and three to the control  
314 group, giving a total of 36 students in the intervention group and 44 in the control group.

315 Participants were told that the researcher was interested in their experiences of  
316 transitioning to university level study and the presentation and activities, as well as the  
317 questions they would be asked would allow them to reflect on this. The participants were  
318 given an information sheet and after reading it, signed a consent form if they wanted to  
319 participate. It was made clear to students that the questionnaire element was entirely  
320 optional but the presentation would be useful in their development and understanding of  
321 the course. Participants then listened to the presentation which was delivered by the same  
322 female teacher to all groups, and participated in the activity. Immediately following this,  
323 participants completed a second questionnaire.

324 Students were asked to give their date of birth on the questionnaire. This allowed  
325 their responses across time points to be matched, but maintained anonymity. This was  
326 made clear to participants. This also meant that if students wished to withdraw their data  
327 they could give the experimenter their date of birth and their information could be  
328 removed. After they had completed all the questionnaires across the year, participants  
329 were debriefed and given the opportunity to ask questions.

### 330 **Results**

331 To begin, the grades which the students wanted to achieve and believed they could  
332 achieve in their degree were examined. Descriptive statistics for overall aspirations and  
333 beliefs across all students are shown in Table 1. Furthermore, results examining individuals'  
334 responses suggested that only 26% of students felt that they would achieve the grade they  
335 wanted (whether that was a first or a 2:i) while 70% indicated that they would achieve a  
336 grade lower than they would like and 5% predicted they would get two grades lower than  
337 they would like (4% missing values).

338 INSERT TABLE 1 HERE

339 The free response question asked students what led to success at university. Due to  
340 the fact that most participants wrote only a sentence in answer to this, a light touch content  
341 analysis was performed to give a flavour of the common responses. A more detailed  
342 qualitative analysis would not have been appropriate due to the small extracts. To begin,  
343 participants' responses were read a number of times until common clusters (categories) of  
344 similar answers became apparent (e.g., effort / teachers / peers). I noted down the number  
345 of times each cluster of answers was mentioned. Participants discussed a wide variety of  
346 reasons for what might impact their success at university. For example, the largest  
347 proportion of 26% mentioned effort as being important in predicting their success at

348 university. Half of these were in the intervention and half were in the control group.  
349 Similarly, 15% of students mentioned that the number of hours they put into studying  
350 would impact their success. This again suggests an incremental view. Interestingly, only 4%  
351 mentioned ability as being important to their success at university. The second most  
352 commonly mentioned factor was friends (24%). Friends were thought to influence success  
353 both in a positive way, for example discussing courses and giving support, but as well as this,  
354 students recognised that friends could actually lead them to be less successful by distracting  
355 them. This leads on to the third most commonly mentioned element, time management  
356 which was mentioned by 19% of students. Motivation was also seen as important by 17% of  
357 participants. Finally, good teachers were seen as key by 17%.

358 To examine students' learning goals, questions relating to performance goals were  
359 reverse coded, then the average goal including both learning and performance goal  
360 measures was calculated. Therefore, a higher number indicates more learning-focused  
361 goals and less performance-related goals.

362 Next, a one way ANOVA with group (intervention or control) as the IV and measures  
363 of theory of intelligence, behavioural intentions and goals as DVs was conducted to examine  
364 whether there were any significant differences between the two groups before the  
365 presentation. Results from this analysis were not significant for theory of intelligence  
366  $F(1,74)=1.132, p=.291$ , choosing an easy task  $F(1,79)=.181, p=.672$ , choosing a complex task  
367  $F(1,79)=.534, p=.467$  or goal orientation  $F(1,78)=.290, p=.592$  (See Table 2 for descriptive  
368 statistics). This suggests that before the presentation, there were no differences between  
369 the intervention and the control group.

370 The changes from pre- to post-intervention, based on group were then examined.  
371 Means and standard deviations are presented in Table 2. A difference score was calculated



372 by subtracting scores at pre-test from scores at the post-test. A one way ANOVA with  
373 condition (intervention or control) as the IV and the theory of intelligence difference score  
374 as the DV revealed that immediately following the presentation, those in the intervention  
375 group came to view intelligence in a more incremental fashion, but the control group did  
376 not  $F(1,72)=56.23, p<.001$ .

377 Other ANOVAs showed that students in the intervention group became significantly  
378 more likely to choose a complex task  $F(1,69)=4.27, p=.043$ . In terms of choosing a simple  
379 task, the effect was not significant, but means tended in the hypothesised direction  
380  $F(1,69)=3.37, p=.071$ . Students also came to hold more learning than performance related  
381 goals  $F(1,60)=6.74, p=.012$ .

382

383 INSERT TABLE 2 HERE

384

385

## Discussion

386 Results from the current evaluation suggest that the intervention was successful in  
387 changing students' theory of intelligence in the short term and that this also changed  
388 students' goal orientation and behavioural intentions around choosing complex tasks.  
389 Furthermore, the intervention group became less likely to choose simple tasks and effects  
390 may have been significant with a larger sample size.

391 This is in line with previous studies which suggest that theory of intelligence can be  
392 changed. Previous research has changed theory of intelligence to a more incremental view  
393 in the short term by giving process feedback (Mueller & Dweck, 1998, Kamins & Dweck,  
394 1999). Similarly, Blackwell et al., (2007) and Aronson, Fried and Good (2002) were able to  
395 change theory of intelligence in the longer term with a targeted intervention. This also

396 changed motivation and achievement. The current paper tentatively suggests that theory of  
397 intelligence can be changed by a short term intervention. Future evaluation of this  
398 intervention will examine whether these effects are found in the longer term across the  
399 academic year. It will also examine whether this intervention has also had an impact on  
400 academic performance and dropout rates.

401         A strength of this intervention is that it was targeted at first-year students. Upon  
402 entering a new educational establishment there is the opportunity to change perceptions  
403 and behaviours. Students are unclear as to what 'success' looks like in the new  
404 establishment and what they need to do to perform well. This is therefore a good time for  
405 interventions to be delivered which suggest to students what will lead to success at  
406 university. Promoting an incremental theory at this important time may encourage  
407 students to feel that effort and techniques will be key to their success at university and this  
408 is likely to lead to positive academic behaviours and, in turn, improved long term  
409 achievement (Dweck, 1999). This sort of intervention may also help to negate some of the  
410 variables which are associated with student drop out, such as feelings of not fitting in and  
411 concern about achieving future aspirations (What Works? 2012).

412         The intervention also formed part of the usual classes and drew on psychological  
413 research to make it appear to be a 'normal' seminar activity. What Works? (2012) suggests  
414 that setting interventions within the curriculum can enhance their efficacy, thus also  
415 illustrating a strength to the current approach. Additionally, the intervention was only one  
416 hour long and is easy to administer. If it is found to be successful in influencing perceptions,  
417 behavioural intentions and performance in the longer term it could therefore form part of  
418 early curriculum activities for students.

419           However, it is unlikely that a one hour intervention will be successful in changing  
420 perceptions and behaviours across an entire academic year. It will be important to repeat  
421 the intervention in some way to ensure that an incremental theory continues to be  
422 promoted. This may be particularly important when students receive grades for their work  
423 as at this time they are likely to try to understand why they have achieved the mark they  
424 did. The intervention could therefore be ‘topped up’ when student performance is being  
425 evaluated by using process feedback. This could be delivered both verbally on tasks, for  
426 example in small group teaching and also in written feedback on essays. As previously  
427 discussed, process feedback has been found to be very effective in promoting an  
428 incremental view of intelligence, and in turn learning goals and a mastery response to  
429 failure (Mueller & Dweck, 1998, Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Thus, combining an intervention  
430 and feedback may lead to a stronger and longer term impact. Again this also has the  
431 benefit of fitting easily into existing practice.

432           Additionally, the current evaluation measured behavioural intentions using a  
433 scenario. Scenarios have been used in educational research to examine students’ responses  
434 to a range of stimuli. These have often been used for ethical reasons, for example in  
435 examining the impact of teacher criticism (Skipper & Douglas, 2015). Similarly, scenarios  
436 can allow us to examine behavioural intentions in a large number of participants easily.  
437 However, intentions do not necessarily become behaviours. Therefore future research  
438 should examine real task choice and behaviours in students rather than simply hypothetical  
439 choices.

440           It is also interesting to note that most students believed that they would receive a  
441 grade lower than they would like in their final degree. It could be that the students wanted  
442 a first class degree, but that they were being realistic in the goal they felt they could

443 achieve. However, another possible reason for this could be that they do not want to set a  
444 challenging goal which they may then fail to achieve. This could indicate an entity view of  
445 intelligence as it minimises the risks of failure. Additionally, if someone truly holds an  
446 incremental view of intelligence then they should believe that they can achieve a higher  
447 grade than they currently are achieving. In later stages of this evaluation, students will be  
448 asked about their current grades and the grades they think they can achieve in their final  
449 degree. Based on the literature (e.g. Dweck, 1999) it would be expected that students who  
450 hold an incremental theory of intelligence should believe that they can achieve a higher  
451 grade than they are currently achieving. Measuring this will then provide further evidence  
452 as to the efficacy of the intervention in changing theory of intelligence.

453           However, it is also important to consider the broader educational and social  
454 environment in which students find themselves. Teachers can have a strong impact on  
455 students by giving feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007) or delivering an intervention such as  
456 the one described above. Teacher behaviours can also enhance student motivation and  
457 enjoyment of classes (Hattie, 2012) and this was discussed by students in the content  
458 analysis. However, peers and classmates can also have a strong impact on student  
459 academic performance (Hattie & Yates, 2013). In fact, due to limited contact hours and  
460 teaching from a large number of staff, peers are likely to have a stronger impact on  
461 students' perceptions and their performance than teachers. The content analysis in the  
462 current study showed that many students raised the point that friends could help them to  
463 achieve more, for example by encouraging them to work hard. However, it was also noted  
464 that peers can distract them and they need to find a balance between work and social life.

465           Additionally, other students' beliefs about intelligence may influence their peers.  
466 For example, those who hold an entity theory may downplay down the amount of time they

467 spent on a task in order to make themselves seem more intelligent while incremental  
468 theorists may emphasise their effort levels or techniques (Dweck, 1999). Therefore,  
469 students may unconsciously promote their own view of intelligence to their peers. Explicitly  
470 discussing these implicit theories and encouraging students to reflect on them may lead  
471 them to better understand the effects their beliefs have on their own behaviour. This may  
472 help to minimise the potential negative impact of comments such as these from peers.  
473 However, the broader learning community is clearly key in fully understanding students'  
474 perception and performance.

475         The current paper suggests that this intervention was successful in changing  
476 students' theory of intelligence, goal orientation and behavioural intentions in the short  
477 term. However, further research is needed to examine whether these changes can be  
478 maintained over a longer time period and perhaps how this could be combined with  
479 feedback in order to have a long term impact on students' theory of intelligence and  
480 therefore performance in first year at university.

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561 Table 1: Students' predictions of the grades they hope to achieve and the grades they  
 562 feel that they will achieve in their degree  
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	Percentage of students stating that they hoped to achieve this grade	Percentage of students stating that they thought they would achieve this grade
First	74	13
2:i	23	70
2:ii	0	15
Third	0	0
Missing	3	2

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567 Table 2: Means and standard deviations pre and post-test measures of theory of  
 568 intelligence, behavioural intentions and goals  
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	Intervention Group				Control Group			
	Pre test		Post test		Pre test		Post test	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Incremental Intelligence	51.77	13.51	65.32	17.36	54.81	13.90	54.37	13.74
Easy task	3.64	1.11	3.21	1.29	3.65	1.32	3.61	1.31
Complex task	4.27	1.13	4.54	1.03	4.15	1.00	4.13	1.11
Goal	4.26	.65	4.41	.67	4.09	.61	4.05	.64

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