**Abstract**

Feedback is an emotional business in which personal disposition influences what is attended to, encoded, consolidated and, eventually retrieved. Here we examine the extent to which student’s perceptions of feedback and their personal dispositions can be used to predict whether students appreciate, engage with and act on the feedback that they receive. Framed in psychological theories of mindset (Dweck, 2002), defensive behaviours (Bandura, 1977) and new psychometric measures of the psychological integration of assessment feedback (Boudrias, Bernaud & Plunier, 2012). Results suggest that, in this University population, growth mindset students were in the minority. Generally students are fostering self-defensive behaviours that fail to nurture remediation following feedback. Recommendations explore the implications for students who engage in self-deception and the ways in which psychologists and academics may intercede to help student’s progress academically by increasing their self- awareness.

**Key words**

Feedback, defensive behaviours, mindset, student motivation, performance.

**Introduction**

The goal of good feedback is to help students become aware and to translate that awareness into fruitful behavioural change. Students place a high value on their feedback as they recognise it will improve their chances of success (Hemingway, 2011; Brown, Roediger & McDaniel, 2014). Research continually confirms the power of feedback on student motivation and performance (Orsmond, & Merry. 2011; Alderman, Towers, Bannah, 2012; Evans, 2013). However, feedback is consistently categorised by students as the least satisfactory aspect of the university learning experience (MacDonald, et al., 2007; Lew et al., 2010; Merry et al., 2013).

Feedback strategies that demonstrate the most success encourage an active learning approach, such as the setting of challenging goals (McAlpine, 2004; Elikai & Schuhmann, 2010; Richardson Abraham & Bond, 2012;), information about the task and how it could be done more effectively, feedback about student errors and how those errors can be avoided (Hattie, 2009) and feedback that draws on social-constructivist principles (See Evans for a review, 2013). Conceptualising these strategies within an active student-student and student-tutor dialogue, rather than a one-way transmission, will increase both the quality of the feedback and student responses to their feedback (Nicol, 2010). Carol Evans goes farther in her 2013 systematic review, by examining the nature of assessment feedback and comprehensively reviewing effective feedback and feed-forward practices. The author provides a pragmatic action plan for Universities which addresses feedback practice at a micro level, giving students clear guidance on how they can improve their work, and at a macro level, such as clarifying the role of the student in the feedback process, and ensuring that staff have opportunities for sharing best practice.

There are a number of non-intellectual factors that influence academic performance (Richardson et al., 2012; McKenny, 2014), student attitudes towards their feedback (Chalmers & Fuller, 1996; Gibbs and Simpson, 2004; Kohn, 2011; Pulfrey, Buch, & Butera, 2011) and the person who provided that feedback in the first place (Tippin, Lafreniere & Page, 2012). The purpose of this paper is to add to this body of literature by examining the psychological correlates of students’ academic performance: Specifically the ways in which the implicit beliefs that students hold about themselves influence the extent to which students respond to feedback, are able to integrate feedback, and are able to take deliberate action stemming from that information.

Carol Dweck (2002) has applied the term ‘mindset’ to explain the two divergent perspectives that people hold in regards to the innateness or malleability of their personal characteristics, with each mindset being reinforced by a motivational framework that consequentially guides behaviour. Those with a growth mindset are motivated to learn, they believe that their basic ability is incremental and that ability can be cultivated through application and experience. Those who foster a fixed mindset believe that they have a certain amount of intelligence that cannot be significantly developed through effort and learning. If intelligence is perceived as unchangeable, the meaning of failure is transformed from an action (I failed) to an identity (I am a failure).

The mindset literature focuses on the impact that an individual’s construct of ability has on their motivation and perceptions of their own and others achievements. This work draws heavily from theories of self-efficacy, which focuses on the amount of control an individual believes that they have over their ability. The ascending behaviours that stem from those beliefs influence the way in which individuals cope with challenges (Bandura, 1977). The more self-efficacious a person is, the more persistent they are and “those who cease their coping efforts prematurely will retain their self-debilitating and defensive behaviour” (Bandura, 1977, p. 288). Whilst there may be some cross-cultural differences in the manifestation of the mindset construct (Chen & Wong, 2014) and some arguments that the mindset hypothesis is unlikely to be a bivariate in nature (Tempelaar, Rienties, Giesbers & Gijselaers, (2015), the reach of Dweck’s work has increased exponentially in the past decade or so (Zhao, Dweck & Mueller, 1998; Dweck and Sorich 1999; Dweck 2002; Dweck and Molden 2005; Molden and Dweck 2006; Dweck and Master 2008; Plaks et al. 2009; Yeager and Dweck 2012). Theories that emerged from the examination of children’s core self-evaluations and their subsequent performance, have been demonstrated as having important explanatory power in the adult population, directly impacting on learning, academic success and ultimately work-related attitudes and behaviours (Burnette, O’Boyle, VanEpps & Pollock, 2013; McKenny, 2014).

Defensive behaviours are behaviours that occur when an individual perceives or anticipates a threat. As individuals become increasingly defensive they are less and less effective at accurately perceiving and integrating the information they are receiving. The individual will devote time and energy deflecting that threat, and some times that behaviour can be self-destructive. Chan and Lam's (2010) findings for example, demonstrate the similarities between work of Dweck and the theories defensive behaviours outlined by Bandura. Chinese students received either summative feedback or formative feedback detailing how they could improve. Feedback that was summative in nature lead to students perceiving less control over their performance, an increased interest in comparative performances, and defensive behaviours. Nussbaum & Dweck (2008) also found evidence of defensive behaviours when they gave undergraduates the opportunity to engage with an upward or downward comparison between their work and the works of others. Whilst upward comparisons offered an opportunity for the participating students to learn from the success of others, downward comparison allowed for self-esteem repair. For the incrementally focused student, upward comparisons acted as a self-esteem restoring mechanism, with the opposite occurring for those with a fixed mindset. For fixed mindset students, restoration through the employment of defensive behaviours comes at a high price, as they sacrifice valuable learning opportunities such as formative feedback, dismissing it as unimportant or finding ways to devalue it (Chinn & Brewer, 1993). The detrimental impact of a fixed mindset lies with the replacement of active learning opportunities with self-restoring mechanisms that protect self-esteem.

Whilst the mindset frameworks have attracted a great deal of general interest over the past decade, the proportion of empirical literature concerning the relationship between mindsets and feedback is fairly minimal. Where it has featured, the methodology employed tends to involve the manipulation of participant mindset followed by the observation of subsequent behaviour. Though mindset manipulation is useful for the purpose of research, it is also artificial and temporary. Whilst there are some problems with self-report measures, they do have some advantages in understanding the attitudes, values, beliefs and behaviours in observational and experimental studies (McDonald, 2008).

The existing research suggests that fixed mindset individuals should engage less with the academic feedback that they receive, as they believe that attempts at improvement will be futile. Such attempts also come with the risk of exposure to self-esteem deflating events (Crocker, Brook, Niiya & Villacorta, 2006). We are not aware of any empirical work that investigates the triadic relationship between feedback, mindset and types of defence mechanism in University students. However, understanding the typical behavioural tendencies of students who do not adaptively engage with their feedback could potentially guide educators on how to better support students who, possibly naively, are engaging in self-sabotaging behaviours. It would seem that being defensive or proactive about feedback would depend on your view of yourself and the strategies that you use to engage with (or avoid) the messages contained within that feedback (Richardson et al., 2012). Acceptance and increased awareness relies on students integrating the message into their self-concept, and this process is critical for the self-regulatory behaviours that are indicative of persistent effort and goal achievement (McKenny, 2014). According to the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), those attitudes, together with behavioural intentions, predict the extent to which someone will take action.

Boudrias, Bernaud & Plunier (2014) have identified 4 feedback antecedents to acceptance and integration:

Face Validity: This is the legitimacy of the feedback procedures. To what extent does this assessment procedure and this feedback example accurately reflect my achievements, knowledge or personal characteristics? For example, Tippin, et al., (2012) report that students place an unrealistically high value on professors acknowledging the effort that they put into their work. They will judge professors as unfair when the perceived effort they have invested in an assignment, does not in some way compensate for their poor performance.

Source creditability: Research constantly demonstrates that trust in the individual assessing you is of critical importance to feedback acceptance (see Boudrais et al., for a review). Students will sift for quality and utility based on how they perceive the status of the ‘tutor’ and the learners prior experience (Boud & Molloy, 2013). For example, if a PhD student is marking a student paper, is their intention to help the undergraduate student learn and develop, or is their motivation to help themselves in the progression of their career. As academics we may feel that the intention should be both, but some students will give more weight to their individual self-perceptions of the PhD students competency and selfish motivations.

Message Valence: Simply put this is the extent to which the message is positive or negative, with students responding more positively to the former because it will be more consistent with their self image. Ideas around message valence are possibly the major motivator for the ‘feedback sandwich’; bad news buried in good, which undermines the feedback message (Schwarz, 2013; Stone & Heen, 2014).

Most advice, no matter how it is framed, runs a significant risk of being ignored. Nobody likes being told something they know they should change, or something they have heard before, and the first response is almost always to defend the existing position (Rogers, 2012). Challenge interventions are experiences that push students beyond the protection of their current position and lead students towards new perspectives and experiences. This will take the form of learning that confronts students, in a constructive manner, to think about their blind spots, in other words, congruence between their thoughts, actions and success within a given context (Boudrais et al., 2012; Stone & Heen, 2014).

These 4 antecedents influence awareness gained from feedback or the extent to which feedback contributes to better self-understanding of one’s performance and knowledge, the extent to which one is prepared to accept feedback and the extent to which one is prepared to act on that information (Boudrais et al., 2012).

Here we examine the extent to which student’s perceptions of feedback can be used to infer whether students appreciate and engage with the feedback that they receive. Feedback is an emotional business in which personal disposition influences what is attended to, encoded, consolidated and, eventually retrieved. By investigating the predictors of their behavioural change, through an understanding of defence mechanism tendencies, we can strive to make students more acutely aware that good learning involves a temporary destabilisation of their world-view. That their learning will be less effectual if they spend time monitoring the extent to which they make mistakes, because they will have less cognitive resources available to solve the problems and questions posed upon them. Given the poor satisfaction that students within the higher education sector are expressing in relation to their feedback (Merry et al., 2013) this research would seem timely. We hypothesise that when integrating their psychological feedback, fixed mindset students will report more maladaptive tendencies and defensive behaviours than growth mindset students.

**Methodology**

Ethical approval was granted by the appropriate university committee for the examination of student attitudinal and behavioural responses to feedback, their mindset and defence mechanisms (IPHS-1415-153).

Students were not paid for their participation, they were encouraged to participate voluntarily through the online survey hosting website, ‘Qualtrics’ which the University of Liverpool subscribes to for the hosting of survey type studies. The online nature of the data collection makes survey completion more convenient for students and it reduces the resource waste associated with paper and pen administration. The online questionnaire was distributed to potential participants by the use of an anonymous link guaranteeing anonymity for the participants. No financial incentives were given to participate. Participation was purely voluntary and participants could withdraw at any time. Information about anonymity and the purpose of the study was made clear in the information page and consent form. None of the questions concerned sensitive topics such as sexuality, crime, drug use, religious beliefs or political views. Race and ethnicity were not measured as they are considered ethically sensitive.

220 undergraduate students in the United Kingdom initially responded but only 151 (113 females and 38 males) completed the entire set of questionnaires. Students described themselves as being from the following disciplines: Social Sciences (n94), Science (n24), Maths & Engineering (n15), Arts and Languages (n9) and Business (n9). All completed likert type questionnaires using a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 6 (strongly disagree).

Mindset was measured using a combination of two questionnaires consisting of a total of 20 items. An 8-item implicit-theories measure developed by Levy and Dweck (1998) depicting intelligence as a fixed entity, “your intelligence is something very basic about you that you can’t change very much”, or intelligence as malleable, “no matter how much intelligence you have, you can always change it quite a bit”. The original scale contains only 8 items and was devised for the evaluation of school-aged children. It has however, been reported as having good reliability (Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999) in university students (α.80). Psychometrically sufficiently long scales are preferable over overly brief scales (Furr, 2011). Given the brevity of the Dweck scale, a second scale ([Tomsett](https://www.scribd.com/john_tomsett" \t "_blank), 2014) was piloted. The Tomsett scale consists of twelve statements. Six of the items reflected an entity theory of intelligence and six reflected an incremental view. Since no reliability analysis is available for Tomsett, reliability analysis was performed before any subsequent inferential analysis.

The psychological assessment feedback questionnaire (Boudrias, Bernaud & Plunier, 2014) measures eight dimensions of attitudes towards feedback; message valence, assessment face validity, challenge interventions (which is the extent to which someone is destabilised in a good way from their feedback), feedback acceptance, awareness gained from feedback, motivational intention and two outcome measures, behavioural changes and developmental activities (alpha scales from α .65 to .90). This measure was originally devised for use following one-to-one psychometric evaluation, as such source credibility was not assessed because there was no way of controlling variation in coursework assessor.

The Defence-Style Questionnaire (DSQ 60) derived by Thygesen, Drapeau, Trijsburg, Lecours and de Roten (2008), measures 30 defence mechanisms (see Burgo, 2013 for further reading), which form three defences; image distorting, affect regulation and adaptive style. Image distorting is the tendency to grossly reshape reality to meet your internal needs. Thygesen et al., measure this construct as the composite of the defensive constructs of ‘rejecting’, ‘complaining’, ‘splitting’ and ‘projection’. Splitting is the tendency to divide experiences into either all-good or all-bad experiences and ‘projection’ involves attributing one’s own unacknowledged emotions and thoughts onto another. The second mechanism was named ‘affect regulating’ and contained the defences of ‘intellectualisation’, ‘dissociation’, and ‘isolation’. Intellectualisation occurs when individuals focus on the academic/intellectual aspects of a situation as a way of avoiding their emotions. Dissociation is what occurs when someone is able to drastically modify their character to distance themselves from emotional experiences and isolation is when they are able to completely separate feelings and ideas from an event. The remaining factor was called the adaptive style and consisted of healthy defensive styles including ‘self-observation’, ‘self-assertion’, ‘anticipation’, ‘sublimation’, and ‘humour’. Scales are calculated by taking the means of the items belonging to each subscale. The three defences are calculated by calculating the means of items belonging to the 3 factors reported by Thygesen et al., (2008). Reliability statistics for these three scales (Cronbach Alpha) were reported as α.64, .72 and.61.

**Results**

The Tomsett (2014) scale rendered an unacceptability low reliability analysis and was as such removed from the analysis (Cronbach’s alpha .46). The Dweck scale presented much lower reliability (.60) than in previously reported studies, however given that the scale has been demonstrated elsewhere as having reliabilities in the range of .80 it was felt to be stable enough to permit fixed and growth mindset classification. Histograms presented the expected fixed-growth bi-modal distribution and students were classified according to their position in the distribution. 86 students in the sample were identified as having a fixed mindset and 65 were growth.

Given the unequal cases, a Mann Whitney test was selected. Fixed mindset students are much more likely to exhibit defensive behaviours (Table 1) on image distorting factors U = 1458.00, p < .01, *z* = -2.96, and negative affect regulating factors than growth mindset individuals U = 1624.00, p < .05, *z* =.-2.25. They score lower on positive adaptive factors than growth mindset individuals U = 1623.00, p <.05, z=-2.25, motivational intention (U=1305.00, p<.01, z=-3.68) and challenge Interventions U= 1973.50, z=-2.99, p<. 01. No differences were found for gender or discipline.

**Table 1: Ranks and inferential analysis for feedback variables by Mindset.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Mean  Rank | Message Valance | Assessment of Face Validity | Feedback Acceptance | Challenge Intervention | Motivational Intention | Awareness Gained | Behavioural Changes | Developmental  Activities |
| Fixed | 72.65 | 73.50 | 72.46 | 70.13 | 68.55 | 72.31 | 72.32 | 71.91 |
| Growth | 85.96 | 83.45 | 86.54 | 93.46 | 98.16 | 86.97 | 86.95 | 88.18 |
| Z | -1.66 | -1.23 | -1.77 | \*\*-2.99 | \*\*-3.68 | -1.95 | -1.83 | -2.00 |

\*\*p<.01.

**Table 2: Ranks and inferential analysis for defence mechanism variables by Mindset**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Mean  Rank | Image Distorting | Affect Regulating | Adaptive  Style |
| Fixed | 82.10 | 80.62 | 71.37 |
| Growth | 57.87 | 62.25 | 89.78 |
| Z | \*\*-2.96 | \*-2.25 | \*-2.25 |

\*\*p<.01, \*p<.05

Given the smaller sample size for students with a growth mindset regression analysis focuses only on the fixed mindset group. Each of variables where regressed onto the two dependent variables, behavioural changes and developmental activities. For behavioural changes, 46% (Adj R squared) of the variance F(9,141) 10.42, p<.01, was explained by positive motivational intention [β.47, t (141) 6.02, p<.01], followed by affect regulation (negative) [β-.32, t (141), 3.82, p<.01]. Low scores indicating that the fixed mindset student is inhibiting or modulating their feelings and thoughts. For the second outcome variable, the likelihood of taking part in developmental activities, 26% (Adj R squared) of the variance F(9,141) 4.64, p<.01 was explained by motivational intention [β.37, t (141) 4.01, p<.01] and image distortion [β.26, t (113) 2.95, p<.01].

**Discussion**

The results from the study provide some support for the two frameworks proposed by Dweck and her colleagues, demonstrating that the way in which students interpret their ability impacts their attitudes towards feedback and their behaviour. Instead of fostering remediation following feedback, those who perceive their intelligence as a fixed entity are more likely to adopt defensive behaviours that will operate to protect their self-esteem. Fixed mindset students have higher scores for the maladaptive defence mechanisms of image distortion and negative affect regulation and lower on adaptive style (Table 2). Fixed mindset students score lower than growth mindset students across all the feedback related variables (Table 1).

Given the larger numbers of fixed mindset students identified in this sample the results are somewhat worrying. The majority of the students in this sample perceived their talents and abilities as static. These students are less likely to challenge themselves; they may be overly concerned about making mistakes and be highly results focused. Grades fix student attention on their performance, their interest becomes diminished in what they are doing, they skim books seeking out what they “need to know” and they loose the desire to learn for its own sake (Kohn, 2011). This process lowers self-efficacy. It promotes a fear of failure that may consequentially evoke a disregard for feedback (Chalmers & Fuller, 1996; Gibbs and Simpson, 2004; Pulfrey et al., 2011) and the unrealistic expectation that hard work over mastery should be rewarded (Tippin et al., 2012).

Students with a growth mindset scored higher on “challenge interventions”, this means that these students are more likely to perceive the person who assessed them as outstanding in their ability to draw them out of their comfort zones, to recognise that that individual could destabilise them in a positive way, and to see this experience as a positive aspect of their learning. Their motivation to act on their feedback and engage in developmental activities was higher. Conversely, fixed mindset students were more likely to exhibit defensive behaviours such as distorting the facts of feedback, dividing the experience into either all good, or all bad, and have weaker adaptive defensive styles; for example, being less able to self monitor or defuse negative experiences with humour.

However, it would be wrong to automatically assume that students who are fixed mindsets are not learning motivated. These results demonstrate that fixed mindset students are demonstrating significant levels of motivation. They are however, reporting maladaptive behaviours in the way in which they dissociate themselves from the thoughts and feelings surrounding their feedback. Defence mechanisms play a key role in helping us tolerate difficult situations by controlling anxiety and protecting our self-esteem, however they become counterproductive when awareness becomes clouded and reality undermined. The increased prevalence of defensive behaviours in fixed mindset student’s is of particular concern because student responses to feedback are perhaps more likely to elicit mechanisms that may act to restore and protect their self-esteem, mechanisms which will operate at the expense of learning opportunities (Crocker et al., 2006). Whereas, students who practice positive affect regulation, through processes of reflection, direction of focus, confidence in expressing their views, planning and a general sense of keenness, are likely in some way to be more motivated to change their behaviour in response to feedback. Those students will feel more self-assured when their points of view, or world-view is challenged in a supportive way.

Evaluating the results of the regression analysis within the framework of the theory of planned behaviour presents a puzzle. Behavioural changes are predicted in the fixed mindset student by positive motivational intention and negative affect regulation, with the individual inhibiting or modulating their feelings and thoughts. This suggests that fixed mindset students are motivated to engage with changing their behaviour in response to feedback, however they are working hard to dissociate themselves from the thoughts and feelings surrounding that feedback. Similarity, the two key predictors, motivational intention and image distortion, also suggest that in order for students to seek out developmental activities they have to some how reshape reality. This is a critical mismatch for enhancing student achievement because we know that from goal setting literature that it is critical to be in touch with the thoughts and feelings surrounding planned behavioural change (Locke & Latham, 2006).

The goal of good feedback is to help students become aware and to translate that awareness into fruitful behavioural change. Here we examined the emotional and cognitive reactions to feedback and two behavioural outcomes, changes in behaviour and the uptake of developmental activities. For our fixed mindset students, motivation along with the ability to inhibit and modulate their thoughts and feelings is key for them to be able to translate their feedback into behavioural change. The likelihood of these students taking part in developmental activities was similarity influenced by motivational intention but image distortion also plays an important role. This is an unexpected combination. Image distortion is the tendency to grossly reshape reality to meet your internal needs. It is composed of the tendency to split experiences into all good, or all bad, the tendency to project unbearable experiences or feelings onto others, to complain and to reject help from others. To reject help and complain, yet these mechanisms trigger the fixed mindset student into seeking out what they see as opportunities to seek help and development.

“*The test of a first rate intelligence is the ability to hold two opposed ideas in the mind at the same time, and still retain the ability to function*” (F. Scott Fitzgerald, 1945, p. 60). This quote somewhat explains the occurrence of splitting. Splitting means we do not need to try and to hold two conflicting ideas. Splitting permits us to make up our minds and stop obsessing over a situation, person or an experience. However, as a result of splitting, we are often left with some ‘not-so-nice bits’ that we need to do something with. This is where projection comes in. Projection is a way of disowning the parts we don't want to hold onto by placing them outside of us and frequently onto others. Projection causes anxiety and to escape this anxiety people will go to some lengths to convince themselves that their projection is valid. For example, characteristically students may complain and/or make repetitious requests for help. Ultimately such developmental attempts are futile because students are trapped in a circle of rejecting what they are told, continually seeking out what they hope will be different point of view. From this perspective, the fixed mindset student’s attempt at developmental opportunities is then futile. Their tendency for image distortion means they may well become trapped in a circle of requests for help but continue to ignore and fail to act on that good advice.

**Recommendations**

The majority of students sampled in this study presented with a fixed mindset. According to the work of Dweck (2002) and others, this means they may be afraid of challenges and unwilling to take a chance on the unknown. They may be trapped in rigid and unreliable study routines, unable to self-monitor and unwittingly ignoring useful feedback or distorting the facts of that feedback. Such behaviours are defence mechanisms against the unknown. They support an artificial sense of control; regulating the student’s view of the knowledge, developing and reinforcing their misunderstanding of how learning is actually taking place. Through this ‘unwitting self deception’ students confuse familiarity with course materials with mastery of content (Brown et al., 2014). Little wonder then that students go on to reject, avoid and defend themselves from what can seem like unfair, untrue or at times completely unexpected feedback.

Students cannot escape the discomfort or frustration of disappointment that comes with receiving unfulfilling feedback. Whilst we recognise that giving good individualised feedback takes time and few academics today have the time to sit down with highly anxious students and attend to their personal and emotional needs during a feedback session. That being said, academics ought to be more mindful in considering how highly emotive feedback, is delivered. We recommend that students be prepared early in their academic career through lectures and seminars, with information about feedback theory and practice and in particular, the goal of feedback in challenging students, confronting them to take new perspectives on their current approach and ideas. Such interventions will help students recognise that they need a degree of stress and emotion to perform well (Elikai & Schuhmann, 2010).

Having a fixed attitude about your performance is not particularly conducive with effective learning, however given the large numbers of students identified as such in this study, we can conclude that the fixed mindset is more characteristic of what most students feel at one time or another. K. Patricia Cross said that; “*The task of the excellent teacher is to stimulate “apparently ordinary” people to unusual effect. The problem is not identifying the winners: it is in making winners out of ordinary people*” (K. Patricia Cross, 1984, p6). With this in mind, we recommend that academics work to benefit those students by making them more aware of self-sabotaging behaviours and educating them in how to manage intelligently their emotional experiences to feedback by growing and developing alternative strategies that support the student in self vigilance and reflection. A negative reaction to performance feedback is normal, it is unavoidable, but it is also transient. It is a transient experience, which if not handled intelligently, will inevitably impact on future judgements and behaviours. As part of this emotional education we must find strategies in which students become more willing to experience, and stay with the emotional experience of failure.

The push towards anonymous, online marking can mean that personal feedback sessions are an incompatible part of the assessment and feedback loop. Anonymous marking it disruptive to the process, because it prevents the tutor from giving connected guidance to students on their progress (Boud & Molloy, 2013). It is however, still possible to provide a safe and respectful environment by providing feedback that is timely, accessible, legible and constructive, to the point that the students know what they need to do to improve. At the very least we owe our students a strategy for improvement and sense making, not a set diagnostic criteria highlighting what the student has done wrong (Nichol, 2010). For example, action-orientated interventions such as coaching, mentoring and tuition, which are designed to challenge maladaptive behaviours and dispositions, we can educate students to become more cognate to and develop strategies to manage their self-sabotaging behaviours. Similarity, by pollinating the curriculum with opportunities for students to take risks we can encourage students to become comfortable with the emotional experience of ‘possibility’ and ‘failure’. Through such activities students can come to realise that just because they are feeling a particular way, it does not follow that emotion is a reliable guide to objective truth (Burgo, 2012).

**Critique**

All studies based on self-report measures, even psychometrically valid measures such as those reported here, have potential problems. In general students in the social sciences are showered with requests to take part in studies and there can often be little motivation to take the time necessary to engage with the questionnaire honestly. Even if students are trying to be honest, they may lack the reflective capacity to answer in a meaningful and accurate way. They may not understand the meaning or interpretation of questions, or be predisposed to answering in a particular way, for example responding to all questions by drawing only on one particular experience. It is important to acknowledge such limitations when we consider concepts such as defence mechanisms, which are largely thought to operate at a subconscious level. The question would be then, do students at this stage know enough about themselves to accurately report what their defence mechanism tendencies actually are. That being said, no method is perfect; the value of self-report comes from our ability as researchers to integrate information in both a practical, meaningful and valid way.

**Conclusion**

Understanding how students think about and respond to their feedback is critically important because it empowers us as academics to create positive experiences for our students. In line with Dweck’s mindset theory, results reported here imply that student’s self-beliefs influence their subsequent behaviour in regard to accepting and acting on their feedback. The large numbers of fixed mindset students identified in this study suggest that, Psychology will play an important role in exploring the underlying factors that influence how students avoid the emotional pain that is part of human experience and highlighting ways in which academics can support students in the development of their self-esteem.

**References**

Alderman, L., Towers, S., & Bannah, S. (2012). Student feedback systems in higher education: A focused literature review and environmental scan. *Quality in Higher Education*, *18*(3), 261–280

Ajzen, I. (1991). "The theory of planned behavior". *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* **50** (2): 179–211

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.

Boud, D & E. Molloy (2013) *Feedback in Higher and Professional Education.* Abingdon: Routledge.

Boudrias, J.S., Bernaud, J.L., & Plunier , P. (2014) . Candidates' integration of individual psychological assessment feedback, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 29(3), 341 – 359.

Brown, P.C., Roediger 3rd, H.L., & McDaniel, (2014*) Make it stick, the science of successful learning*, Belknap, London, England.

Burgo, J. (2013) *Why did I do that, psychological defence mechanisms and the way they shape our lives*, New Rise, Chapel Hill, NC.

Burnette, J, L., O'Boyle, E, H., VanEpps, E, M., Pollack, J, M., Finkel, Eli J., (2013). Mind-sets matter: A meta-analytic review of implicit theories and self-regulation. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol 139(3), pp. 655-701

Chalmers, D. & Fuller, R. (1996). *Teaching for learning at university*. London: Kogan Page.

Chan, J.C.Y., & Lam, S. (2010). Effects of different evaluative feedback on students’ self-efficacy in learning, *Instructional*Science, 38(1), 37–58.

Chen, W,W & Wong, Y, L. (2015) Chinese : theories of intelligence, goal orientation and academic achievement in Hong Kong students, *Educational Psychology*, 35:6, 714-725, DOI: 10.1080/01443410.2014.893559

Chinn, C. A., & Brewer, W. F. (1993). The role of anomalous data in knowledge acquisition: A theoretical framework and implications for science instruction, *Review of Educational Research*, 63, 1-49.

Cross, P. K. (1984) Societal Imperatives: Needs for an Educated Society, Prepared for *The National Conference on Teaching Excellence*, Austin, Texas; May 23. 1984. <https://diva.sfsu.edu/collections/kpcross/bundles/210862>, Retrieved October 15th 2015.

Crocker, J., Brook, A. T., Niiya, Y., & Villacorta, M. (2006). The pursuit of self-esteem: Contingencies of self-worth and self-regulation, Journal of Personality, 74, 1749-1771.

Dweck, C. S. (2002). The development of ability conceptions. In A. Wigfield & J. Eccles (Eds.), *The development of achievement motivation* (pp. 57–88). New York: Academic Press.

Dweck, C. S., & Master, A. (2008). Self-theories motivate self-regulated learning. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 31–51). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dweck, C. S., & Molden, D. C. (2008). Self-theories: Their impact on competence motivation and acquisition. In A. J. Elliot & C. S. Dweck (Eds.), *Handbook of competence and motivation* (pp. 122–140). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Dweck, C. S., & Sorich, L. (1999). Mastery-oriented thinking. In C. R. Snyder (Ed.), *Coping* (pp. 232–251). New York: Oxford University Press.

Elikai, F and Schuhmann, P.W. (2010) An Examination of the Impact of Grading Policies on Students’ Achievement. *Issues in Accounting Education*: November 2010, Vol. 25, No. 4, pp. 677-693.

Evans, C. (2013). Making sense of assessment feedback in higher education, *Review of Educational Research*, 83, 1 70-120.

Fitzgerald, F.S. (1945) *The Crack-Up,* New Directions, UK.

Furr, M (2011). *Scale Construction and Psychometrics, for social and personality psychology*, Sage, UK.

Gibbs, G. & Simpson, C. (2004) Conditions under which assessment supports student learning, *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education,* 1, 3-31.

Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible Learning: A Synthesis of Over 800 Meta-Analyses Relating to Achievement*. Routledge: London

Hemingway, A. P. (2011). How Students’ Gratitude for Feedback Can Identify the Right Attitude for Success: Disciplined Optimism, *19 Perspectives: Teaching Legal Res. & Writing*, 169

Hong, Y., Chiu, C., Dweck, C. S., Lin, D. M., & Wan, W. (1999). Implicit theories, attributions, and coping: A meaning system approach, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77, 588-599.

# Kohn, A. (2011). The case against grades. *Educational Leadership*. Retrieved from <http://www.alfiekohn.org/teaching/tcag.htm>

Locke, E. A., & Latham, G.P. (2006) New Directions in Goal-Setting Theory, *Current Directions in Psychological Science,* October, 15: 265-268.

Levy, S., & Dweck, C. S. (1998). Trait-focused and process-focused social judgment, *Social Cognition*, 16(1), 151-172.

# Lew, M. D. N., Alwis, W. A. M., & Schmidt, H. G. (2010). Accuracy of students’ self- assessment and their beliefs about utility. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *35*, 135–156

MacDonald, M., Williams, J., Kane, D., Gorman, P., Smith, E., Sagu, S. and Cappuccini-Ansfield, G. (2007). The 2007 Report on the Student Experience at UCE Birmingham. Birmingham: University of Central England Birmingham.

Merry, S., Price, M., Carless, D., & Taras, M. (Eds.). (2013). *Reconceptualising Feedback in Higher Education.* Abingdon, Routledge. U.K.

McAlpine, L. (2004). Designing learning as well as teaching. A research-based model for instruction that emphasizes learner practice. Active Learning in Higher Education, 5(2), 119-134.

McDonald, J. D. (2008), Measuring Personality Constructs: The Advantages and Disadvantages of Self-Reports, Informant Reports and Behavioural Assessments. *Enquire*, Volume 1, Issue 1, June 2008 1

McKenny, A.P. (2014). Impact of student goal orientation and self-regulation on learning outcomes, *Journal of Organizational Psychology*, vol, 14, 2, 66-76.

Molden, D. C., & Dweck, C. S. (2006). Finding “meaning” in psychology: A lay theories approach to self-regulation, social perception, and social development. *American Psychologist*, *61*, 192–203.

Nicol, D (2010) From monologue to dialogue: improving written feedback in mass higher education, *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 35(5), 501-517.

Nussbaum, A.D., & Dweck, C.S. (2008). Defensiveness versus remediation: Self-theories and modes of self-esteem maintenance, *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 34, 599-612.

Orsmond, P., and S. Merry. (2011). Feedback alignment: Effective and ineffective links between tutors’ and students’ understanding of coursework feedback. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 36: 125–36.

Plaks, J. E., Levy, S. R., & Dweck, C. S. (2009). Lay theories of personality: Cornerstones of meaning in social cognition. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, *3*, 1069–10981.

# Pulfrey, C., Buch,. C., & Butera, F. (2011). Why grades engender performance avoidance goals: the mediating role of autonomous motivation, *Journal of Educational Psychology* , 103 (3), 683-700.

# Richardson, M., Abraham, C., & Bond, R. (2012). Psychological Correlates of University Students' Academic Performance: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *138*(2), 353-387*,* 103, 683-700.

# Rogers, J. (2012). *Coaching Skills, a handbook, 3rd eds*, Open University Press, UK.

Schwarz, R. (2013). The sandwich approach undermines your feedback, *The Harvard Business Review.* <https://hbr.org/2013/04/the-sandwich-approach-undermin/>

Stone, D. & Heen, S. (2014) *Thanks for the feedback, the science and art of receiving feedback well*, Portfolio Penguin, USA.

Tempelaar, D, T.; Rienties, B, Giesbers, B & Gijselaers, W, H. (2015). The pivotal role of effort beliefs in mediating implicit theories of intelligence and achievement goals & academic motivations. *Social Psychology of Education*, 18(1) pp. 101–120.

Thygesen, K.L., Drapeau, M., Trijsburg, R.W., Lecours, S., & de Roten, Y. (2008). Assessing Defense Styles: Factor Structure and Psychometric Properties of the New Defense Style Questionnaire 60 (DSQ-60), *International Journal of Psychology and Psychological Therapy*, 8(2), 171-181.

[Tippin](http://alh.sagepub.com/search?author1=Gregory+K.+Tippin&sortspec=date&submit=Submit), G, K., Lafreniere, K.D., & Page, S. (2012). Student perspectives of grading in physical education, *European Physical Education Review November* 1, 2015 21: 409-420

Tomsett, J. (2014, Nov). Developing a growth mindset questionnaire for staff v3. Retrieved from [www.scribd.com/doc/248217794/Developing-a-Growth-Mindset-Questionnaire-for-Staff-v3](http://www.scribd.com/doc/248217794/Developing-a-Growth-Mindset-Questionnaire-for-Staff-v3).

Yeager, D. S., & Dweck, C. S. (2012). Mindsets that promote resilience: When students believe that personal characteristics can be developed. *Educational Psychologist*, *47*, 302–314

Zhao, W., Dweck, C.S., & Mueller, C. (1998). Implicit theories and depression-like responses to failure, *Unpublished manuscript*, Columbia University, New York.