Undergraduates' reactions to errors mediates the association between growth mindset and
study strategies

Anastasia Chouvalova*, Department of Biological Sciences, Texas Tech University, 2901 Main
St., Lubbock, TX, 79409

Anisha S. Navlekar*, Department of Biological Sciences, Texas Tech University, 2901 Main St.,
Lubbock, TX, 79409

*Co-first authors

Devin J. Mills, Department of Community, Family, and Addiction Sciences, Texas Tech
University, 1301 Akron Ave, Lubbock, TX 79415

Mikayla Adams, Department of Biological Sciences, Texas Tech University, 2901 Main St.,
Lubbock, TX, 79409

Sami Daye, Department of Biological Sciences, Texas Tech University, 2901 Main St., Lubbock,
TX, 79409

Fatima De Anda, Department of Biological Sciences, Texas Tech University, 2901 Main St.,
Lubbock, TX, 79409

Lisa B. Limeri^, Department of Biological Sciences, Texas Tech University, 2901 Main St.,
Lubbock, TX, 79409

^ Corresponding author

ABSTRACT

Background: Students employ a variety of study strategies to learn and master content in their courses. Strategies vary widely in their effectiveness for promoting deep, long-term learning, yet most students use ineffective strategies frequently. Efforts to educate students about effective study strategies have revealed that knowledge about effective strategies is by itself insufficient for encouraging widespread and lasting changes. An important next step is to uncover factors that influence the decisions students make about study strategy use. We explored the association between beliefs about intelligence (mindset, universality, and brilliance) and study strategies. The most effective study strategies are error-prone, and beliefs about intelligence carry implications for whether errors are a normal and even beneficial part of the learning process (e.g., growth mindset) or signs of insufficient intelligence (e.g., fixed mindset). Therefore, we hypothesized that beliefs about and reactions to errors would mediate a relationship between beliefs about intelligence and study strategies. We tested this hypothesis by surveying 345 undergraduates enrolled in an introductory biology class at a public, research-active university in northwestern United States.

Results: Confirmatory factor analysis indicated that the internal structure of all measures functioned as expected in our sample. We fit a structural equation model to evaluate our hypothesized model. We found that mindset, but not universality nor brilliance, predicts variance in both beliefs about errors and reactions to errors. In turn, adaptive reactions to errors (but not beliefs about errors) are associated with the use of highly effective study strategies and spacing study sessions. There was a significant indirect relationship between growth mindset and spacing of study sessions.

Conclusions: Our results provide evidence for a mechanism explaining the association between

students' mindset beliefs and academic outcomes: believing that intelligence is improvable is

associated with more adaptive reactions to making errors, which correlates with choosing more

error-prone and therefore more effective study strategies. Future interventions aimed at

improving students' study strategies may be more effective if they simultaneously target

reacting adaptively to errors and emphasize that intelligence is improvable.

Key words: mindset beliefs; study strategies; error beliefs; error adaptivity; mediation model;

lay theories

INTRODUCTION

Undergraduates must engage with their class content outside the classroom (i.e., study)

in order to master the material. In undergraduate contexts, the manner and timing with which

students engage with the material outside of class is unstructured and managed by the student.

These decisions are highly consequential for students' mastery of material and their academic

outcomes. Yet, students rarely receive explicit training or guidance about the most effective

ways to study and there is great variation in student study strategies and patterns (McDaniel &

Einstein, 2020; Hartwig & Dunlosky, 2012; Karpicke et al., 2009; McDaniel & Einstein, 2020).

Research in cognitive psychology and neuroscience has generated an extensive body of

knowledge about the neurobiological mechanisms underpinning learning and the consequent

effectiveness of different study strategies (Ambrose et al., 2010; Brown et al., 2014; Dunlosky et

al., 2013; McGuire, 2018). When students use ineffective study strategies, they undermine their

academic potential (Lorch et al., 1995). Study strategies influence many features of student

learning, including the amount of time students spend studying, how effectively they use this

time, depth of conceptual understanding, and content mastery achieved (e.g., Pressley et al.,

1987; Runquist, 1983). Ineffective study strategies cost time and do not effectively help

students learn. Plant and colleagues (2005) surveyed undergraduates and asked them to log

their study time and activities. They found that the amount of time students spent studying

only influenced GPA when the effectiveness of the study strategies were accounted for (Plant et

al., 2005). Thus, academic outcomes could potentially be improved by helping students learn

about and ultimately adopt efficient study strategies. This may be particularly critical for

students who face time constraints in working towards their educational goals, such as those

with responsibilities to care for family and those who work outside of their studies.

Study strategy effectiveness

There are many learning activities students engage in when they study, and these

different study strategies vary substantially in how effectively they promote deep, long-term

learning (Dunlosky et al., 2013). Broadly speaking, highly effective strategies are those that

involve retrieving information from long-term memory, referred to as retrieval or recall practice

(Carpenter et al., 2008; Dunlosky et al., 2013; Roediger & Karpicke 2006). These strategies are

also referred to as deep learning strategies (e.g., Floyd et al., 2009; Sabah et al., 2023) because

they are associated with deep learning – that is, forming connections between new and

previous knowledge, reflecting on knowledge, and creating understanding (Biggs, 1987; Biggs &

Tang, 2011; Marton and Säljö, 1976). In contrast, strategies that involve more passive

engagement with material, such as re-reading and highlighting, are less effective at promoting

learning (Carpenter et al., 2008; Dunlosky et al., 2013; Roediger & Karpicke 2006). These

strategies are sometimes called surface learning strategies (e.g., Floyd et al., 2009; Good et al.,

2013) because they contribute to a shallow learning approach – that is, fixating on trivial details

and memorizing them, and lacking profound reflection (Schmeck, 1988).

The timing of study sessions, or study pattern, also impacts the effectiveness of studying

(Dunlosky et al., 2013). Massing (also called cramming), where students attempt to do a large

amount of studying in a short time period (especially the night before a test), is a common

practice. However, spacing out study sessions (also called distributed practice) is more effective

for learning and retention (Cepeda et al., 2006; Kornell, 2009). When students engage in

massed practice, they are working primarily from their short-term, or working memory. Spacing

study strategies is more effective because the passage of time allows the information to leave

working-memory and forces recall to activate and strengthen neural pathways in long-term

memory (Ambrose et al., 2010).

The study pattern (i.e., timing) and study strategies that students use relate to their

academic outcomes. Rodriguez and colleagues (2018) surveyed over 1,200 undergraduates in a

molecular biology course and found that those who reported self-testing and spacing had

higher course grades. Hartwig and Dunlosky (2012) surveyed 324 undergraduates about their

study strategies and academic outcomes. They found that students who reported self-testing

also reported higher GPA and that students who reported massing (vs. spacing) their study

sessions also reported using fewer overall study strategies. Williams and colleagues (2021)

surveyed incoming undergraduates about their study strategies and found that those who

reported self-testing also had significantly higher admissions GPA.

Undergraduates' study strategies

Literature characterizing undergraduates' study patterns indicates that students tend to

pack their studying time with inefficient study strategies while dedicating a disproportionally

low amount of time to more effective strategies (Carrier, 2003; Hartwig & Dunlosky, 2012;

Karpicke et al., 2009; Morehead et al., 2016; Rea et al., 2022; Van Etten et al., 1997). A meta-

analysis of students' use of study strategies indicates that students most commonly report

studying by re-reading and highlighting, which are less effective strategies (Miyatsu et al.,

2018). Hartwig and Dunlosky (2012) surveyed 324 undergraduates (78% freshmen) and found

that 66% of respondents reread their materials and 66% tend to cram the prior night.

Morehead et al. (2016) found similar patterns in a sample of 300 undergraduates; 67% of

participants reported rereading their materials and 53% of them tended to cram. In Karpicke

and colleagues' (2009) survey of 177 undergraduates, re-reading was the most commonly

reported study strategy. Studies of community college biology students report similar patterns;

students (n=52) reported re-reading material most frequently, followed by using flashcards and

then underlining or highlighting while reading (Vemu et al., 2022). When students engage in

inefficient study strategies, they are potentially suffering opportunity costs by spending time

learning inefficiently.

Errors are a critical part of effective learning

The process of generating errors is central to the process of learning (Mera et al., 2022).

More specifically, generative learning refers to the process of forming deep connections

between the new content and existing knowledge schemas, as well as rearrangement of neural

networks (Fiorella, 2023; Fiorella & Mayer, 2016). Making sense of new information involves

the generation of errors and of learning from these errors to address misconceptions, facilitate

conceptual change, and reinforce correct conceptions. Unsurprisingly, many of the effective

learning strategies linked to generative learning are the same, including self-testing, self-

explanation, and creating visualizations, all of which are essentially sense-making strategies

that result in deep learning (Fiorella & Mayer, 2016). Compared to passively reading materials,

errorful learning paired with corrective feedback is more beneficial to student learning and

retention (Mera et al., 2022; Overman et al., 2021).

Cognitive psychology research indicates that strategies that feel easy to students, such

as re-reading and highlighting, feel effective to students, yet are ineffective for actual learning

(Deslauriers et al., 2019; Dunlosky et al., 2013; Kirk-Johnson et al., 2019; Macaluso et al., 2022).

This false feeling of effectiveness is referred to as the fluency effect (Deslauriers et al., 2019;

Macaluso et al., 2022). In contrast, strategies that are highly effective, such as self-testing and

spacing, involve students making errors and can feel frustrating (Deslauriers et al., 2019;

Dunlosky et al., 2013; Kirk-Johnson et al., 2019; Macaluso et al., 2022). Because they feel

frustrating and are error-prone, these effective strategies can induce anxieties, negatively

impact self-efficacy, and be perceived as costly (Rea et al., 2022). The fluency effect explains

that if students passively engage with their material many times, which is how many students

choose to study (Carrier, 2003; Hartwig & Dunlosky, 2012; Karpicke et al., 2009; Miyatsu et al.,

2018; Morehead et al., 2016; Rea et al., 2022; Van Etten et al., 1997), they develop an *illusion of*

competency (Bjork, 1999; Kelley & Jacoby, 1996; Koriat & Bjork, 2005; Nyland & Sawarynski,

2017).

Numerous studies with undergraduates have supported the *misinterpreted effort*

hypothesis—that students misinterpret expending greater effort as a sign of lower efficacy

(Kirk-Johnson et al., 2019). Kirk-Johnson and colleagues (2019) conducted a series of four

survey-based studies in which they were able to demonstrate: (1) that students viewed

effective study strategies as more effortful and worse for learning, (2) mental effort indirectly

affected strategy choice via perceived learning, and (3) learners interpret high mental effort

required by effective strategies as a sign of poor learning. Deslauriers and colleagues (2019)

supported this hypothesis in a classroom-based experiment. They taught introductory physics

160 content to undergraduates using active-learning and traditional didactic methods. They found

161 that students taught by active learning learned more, but perceived that they learned less than

162 when they were taught by didactic methods. Similarly, Kornell (2009) found that students who

163 studied word-pairs learned more effectively with spaced practice, yet 72% of the participants

164 believed that cramming was more effective.

165  There is also evidence that students believe massing study sessions is more effective

166 than spacing them out because massing makes the study activities feel easier (Baddeley &

167 Longman, 1978). Because spacing forces recall to activate long-term memory, it causes errors

168 and can reduce performance levels during the study sessions (Bjork, 1999). Therefore, students

169 often believe that cramming is more effective because it can result in higher short-term

170 performance, which they mistake for long-term learning (Bjork, 1999).

171  Educators have long acknowledged the productive role of making errors in learning and

172 embedded them intentionally in instructional strategies. Bjork (1999) coined the term

173 "desirable difficulties" to describe learning conditions that increase the cognitive effort

174 required and thus lead to deeper and more long-lasting learning. Productive failure is a

175 pedagogical approach that intentionally embeds desirable difficulties into learning activities by

176 tasking students to solve difficult, complex problems before they have been taught all the

177 necessary tools and information (Kapur, 2008; Kapur & Bielaczyc, 2012). Struggling with these

178 initial challenging problems helps students better learn and remember the information when

179 they are subsequently taught it and increases later performance on similar problems (Kapur,

180 2008).

Study strategy interventions

Some educators and researchers have attempted to leverage findings from cognitive science to help students adopt more effective study strategies and thus reap better academic outcomes. Rodriguez and colleagues (2018) conducted light-touch interventions in an introductory biology course, consisting of a 10-min lecture about the benefits of self-testing and spacing and weekly reminders throughout the term that students should implement these strategies. Compared to students in control sections, students who received this light-touch intervention reported using self-testing and spacing at a higher frequency (Rodriguez et al., 2018). Vemu and colleagues (2022) conducted a similar intervention in a community college context, in which students received a brief lecture about effective study strategies and completed an assignment that prompted them to reflect on their study strategies after each exam. Students reported increasing using spacing and generating drawings as study strategies (Vemu et al., 2022).

However, not all study strategies interventions have been successful in shifting students' behaviors and improving academic outcomes (Hattie et al., 1996; McDaniel & Einstein, 2020). McDaniel and Einstein (2020) note that most study strategy programs and interventions fail to improve students' self-regulation and metacognition and that students fail to apply good study strategies across various content and contexts. They detail numerous barriers that students face in adopting effective strategies, including educational contexts focused on rote memorization that encourage surface-learning strategies, the lack of timely and accurate feedback available to studiers about the effectiveness of strategies they employ, and the un-intuitiveness of effective study strategies (McDaniel & Einstein, 2020). One study found that

over 80% of undergraduate psychology students reported that they do not follow their

instructor's study strategy suggestions (Kornell & Bjork, 2007). Another study of

undergraduates found that students report understanding the benefits of spacing, but still

massed their study sessions frequently and engaged in inefficient study strategies, like re-

reading (Susser & McCabe, 2013). Studies of undergraduates' metacognitive knowledge and

skills found that students sometimes choose to use study strategies that they know are

ineffective because they feel comforting during a stressful time (Dye & Stanton, 2017). In fact,

in their study, a student likened using familiar, ineffective study strategies to eating comfort

food (Dye & Stanton, 2017). Knowledge of the effectiveness of study strategies is not always

sufficient for students to change their habits, as many students make plans to study using

effective strategies which they are unable to follow through on (Stanton et al., 2015).

The current study

A major challenge to improving students' study strategies via interventions is that

knowledge of study strategies, by itself, does not spark widespread change in students' study

behaviors (Rea et al., 2022; Stanton et al., 2021). Effectively encouraging students to adopt

effective study strategies will require an approach informed by the factors that influence

students' decisions about how to study. Our study seeks to explore motivational factors

underpinning students' study strategy behaviors.

Since errors play a central role in the learning process, we hypothesize that students'

beliefs about errors and reactions to errors may influence how they choose to study. Prior work

has explored how students approach and respond to errors while learning. Tulis and colleagues

(2017) conceptualized and explored the beliefs students hold about learning from errors, called

error-related beliefs. Positive beliefs about errors reflect the attitude that one can benefit from

making errors in the learning process whereas negative beliefs about errors reflect the attitude

that errors are harmful and should be avoided.

Dresel and colleagues (2013) characterized two types of reactions that students have

towards errors: action-oriented and affective-motivational. They conceptualized action

adaptivity of error reactions as how individuals change their course of action in response to

making an error. For example, students may put in more effort next time and set goals, or on

the contrary, disengage and invest less effort. Affective-motivational adaptivity of error

reactions describes how making errors affects students' motivation and emotions, and is

associated with students' persistence, performance, and effort (Dresel et al., 2013; Grassinger

& Dresel, 2017; Kreutzmann et al., 2014). For example, a student may be more motivated and

have just as much fun in the class if they make errors, or they become less motivated and find

the class more threatening in the future.

To our knowledge, prior work has not connected error-related beliefs or reactions to

errors to students' choice of study strategies. Given the central role of errors in effective study

strategies, we hypothesize that positive beliefs about errors and positive reactions to errors

would be associated with using more error-prone and effective study strategies, like spacing

and self-testing (Figure 1).

Students' attitudes towards and reactions to learning challenges have been tightly

linked to students' beliefs about the malleability of their intellectual abilities (termed mindset;

Dweck, 1999). Mindset beliefs influence how students interpret their performance, including

failures and negative feedback (Burnette et al., 2013; Haimovitz & Dweck, 2016; Hong et al.,

1999; Smiley et al., 2016; Schroder et al., 2014; Sun & Huang, 2023; Tabibnia & Radecki, 2018;

Waller & Papi, 2017; Yao & Zhu, 2022). In fact, Yeager and Dweck (2020) wrote in a recent

commentary that "mindset is a theory about response to challenges and setbacks, not about

academic achievement." When students believe that their intellectual abilities are fixed and

unchangeable (i.e., a fixed mindset), they interpret negative feedback about errors as an

indictment of themselves and their ability, and as a personal threat (Burnette et al., 2013;

Haimovitz & Dweck, 2016; Hong et al., 1999; Smiley et al., 2016). This leads students to

withdraw from the threatening situation and reduces persistence (Burnette et al., 2013;

Haimovitz & Dweck, 2016; Hong et al., 1999; Smiley et al., 2016). Thus, if students receive

negative feedback about their mastery of the content while engaging in error-prone learning

strategies, those with a fixed mindset might choose to discontinue using those strategies. In

contrast, students who believe their abilities can improve (i.e., a growth mindset) see negative

feedback about their mastery as a normal part of the learning process and useful information to

direct their efforts (Burnette et al., 2013; Haimovitz & Dweck, 2016; Hong et al., 1999; Smiley et

al., 2016; Sun & Huang, 2023; Waller & Papi, 2017; Yao & Zhu, 2022). This trend is also

supported by neuroimaging evidence. Students with a growth mindset have shown higher error

positivity waveform response, which is the neural correlate of being more aware of one's own

errors, more receptive of feedback, and having greater post-error accuracy (Mangels et al.,

2006; Moser et al., 2011; Ng, 2018; Tirri & Kujala, 2016). In contrast, those with a fixed mindset

perceive critical feedback as a threat to their self-perceptions of ability and fail to demonstrate

deep processing of the feedback, leading to more subsequent errors (Mangels et al., 2006).

These findings inform the so-called "social cognitive neuroscience" model (Mangels et al.,

2006).

Based on these theoretical linkages and prior work, we also hypothesized that students'

mindset beliefs would be associated with their beliefs about errors and reactions to errors

(Figure 1). Specifically, we hypothesize that students with growth mindset would hold positive

beliefs about errors and react positively to errors, which should be related to their adoption of

highly effective, error-prone study strategies. In contrast, students with a fixed mindset would

hold more negative beliefs about errors and react negatively to making errors, and thus avoid

using error-prone study strategies which are highly effective.

Mindset describes only one type of beliefs students hold about abilities (called "lay

theories"). Two other lay theories have been described in educational literature more recently

and are consequently less thoroughly studied. Universality refers to beliefs about whether

everyone (universal belief) or only some individuals (non-universal belief) hold the potential to

reach the highest levels of intellectual ability (Rattan et al., 2012; 2018). Brilliance belief refers

to belief about the degree to which an innate, high ability (brilliance) is required for success in a

given field (Leslie et al., 2015; Meyer et al., 2015). Mindset, universality, and brilliance all

describe beliefs regarding intellectual abilities and success. Prior work has shown that they are

distinct beliefs and each uniquely predicts undergraduates' psychosocial and academic

outcomes (Limeri et al., 2023). This prior work revealed that universality and brilliance

predicted variance in most psychosocial and academic outcomes related to mindset beyond

what mindset alone was able to predict. While less work has been done on universal and

brilliance beliefs, the theoretical underpinnings suggest they may relate to how students

interpret and respond to errors. Students with a non-universal belief might view errors as a sign

that they are not one of the special people with unique potential. Thus, they may view errors as

threatening (similar to those with a fixed mindset) and have lower acceptance and poorer

response to errors than those with a universal belief. Similarly, we reasoned that students with

a strong brilliance belief may view errors as a sign that they do not have the brilliance required

for success. This view would make errors threatening and may motivate students to avoid and

have a negative attitude towards errors and react poorly to them.

Based on this theoretical connection, we also hypothesized that brilliance and

universality beliefs may influence students' beliefs about and reactions to errors, and thus

study strategy choices (Figure 1). Specifically, we hypothesize that students with a universal

belief would hold positive beliefs about errors and react positively to errors, which should be

related to their adoption of highly effective, error-prone study strategies. In contrast, students

endorsing the non-universal and brilliance beliefs would hold more negative beliefs about

errors and react negatively to making errors, and thus avoid using error-prone study strategies

which are highly effective.

The current study aims to clarify the relationships among beliefs about abilities, error-

related beliefs and reactions, and study strategies. This work advances the field in several

important ways. First, to our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the potential role

of beliefs about errors and reactions to errors as mediating factors between mindset and study

strategies. Second, we use a newly developed, context-specific measure of mindset for

undergraduate STEM students which has extensive evidence of validity and has shown higher

predictive capacity than previously available measures (the ULTrA survey; Limeri et al., 2023;

unpublished data). Third, this work expands the limited literature on the role of universality and

brilliance beliefs – these are beliefs about abilities that have recently shown unique predictive

utility in explaining various undergraduate psychosocial and academic outcomes (Limeri et al,

2023).

METHODS

318   We conducted a quantitative study to test our hypothesized model (Figure 1). We

surveyed undergraduate students (n = 345) from an introductory biology course at a university

in the northwestern United States. The survey included measures of students' beliefs about

abilities (lay theories: mindset, universality, and brilliance), beliefs about errors, adaptivity to

errors, and also asked students to report the study strategies and patterns they use. The study

protocol was reviewed and approved by the Texas Tech University Institutional Review Board

(IRB2022-150). Consent was obtained from participants on the first page of the survey.

Participants

326   We surveyed students enrolled in an introductory biology course at a public, selective,

very high research activity, primarily white university located in Northwestern United States.

The course enrolls ~500 students who are typically about half first-year students and half

upper-level students (~25% second-year students, ~25% third- and fourth-year students).

Students were awarded a small amount of extra credit for completing the survey (or alternative

assignment).

We received 413 responses to the survey. We removed 13 incomplete responses. The

survey included two attention-check items (e.g., "This is a control question. Please select

"Strongly disagree"), located at approximately 1/3 and 2/3 of the way through the survey. Fifty-

five responses failed to select the directed response to one or both checks and were removed,

resulting in a final sample size of n = 345. Our sample was mostly white (75%), contained

disproportionately more women (68%) than other genders, and included more continuing-

generation students (70%) than first-generation students (Table 1).

Table 1. Demographics information of study participants.

Demographics	Number of participants (n = 345)	Percent of sample (%)
Gender		
Woman	235	68.1
Man	100	29.0
Non-binary	5	1.45
Not listed above	2	0.58
Race or ethnicity		
African American or Black	13	3.8
East Asian (e.g., China and Japan)	33	9.6
South Asian (e.g., the Indian sub-continent)	3	0.9
Southeast Asian (e.g., Vietnam)	25	7.2
Latinx or Hispanic	53	15.4
Middle Eastern or North African	6	1.7
Native American or Alaskan Native	8	2.3
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	7	2.0
White	257	74.5
College generation status		
First-generation	100	29.0
Continuing generation	243	70.4
Prefer not to respond	2	0.6

First-generation is defined as neither of the student's parents/guardians having earned a four-

year college degree. Continuing generation status is defined as having at least one

parent/guardian who has earned a four-year college degree. Note that counts may not add up

to the total number of participants if respondents declined to answer the question or selected

more than one identity (e.g., for race/ethnicity).

Data collection methods

The survey included measures of beliefs about abilities, beliefs about errors, error

adaptivity, and study strategies. The survey also included two attention check questions and

four demographic questions. The complete item set can be found in Supplemental Material

Section 1.

Beliefs about abilities. We measured mindset, universality, and brilliance beliefs using

the Undergraduate Lay Theories of Ability (ULTrA) Survey (Limeri et al., 2023). This survey was

developed specifically for use with undergraduate STEM students and is supported by multiple

types of validity evidence (Limeri et al., 2023). The ULTrA is a 25-item measure of growth

mindset (5 items, e.g., "I can become excellent at applying knowledge to solve challenging

problems"), fixed mindset (5 items, e.g., "At the end of college, my ability to analyze

information will be at about the same level that it is now"), universal belief (5 items, e.g.,

"Anyone could become as effective at learning as highly successful STEM students"), non-

universal belief (5 items, e.g., "Only people with a natural talent can become good enough at

applying knowledge to solve the most difficult problems"), and brilliance belief (5 items, e.g.,

"Becoming a top student in STEM requires an innate talent that just can't be taught").

Beliefs about errors and error adaptivity. We used the measure that Tulis and colleagues

(2017) developed and collected supporting validity evidence for use with undergraduates. This

survey measures beliefs about learning from errors (5 items, e.g., "Errors are important for

getting better in my class"), affective-motivational adaptivity of error reactions (6 items; "When

I say something wrong in my class, the class is still just as fun for me as always"), and action

adaptivity of error reactions (7 items, e.g., "When something is too hard for me in my class,

then it's clear that I need to prepare better for class").

Study strategies. We measured students' study strategies using a measure adapted by

Rodriguez et al. (2018). This measure was originally developed by Morehead, Rhodes, and

DeLozier (2016) and was adapted by Rodriguez et al. (2018) and used with undergraduates.

Students' use of study strategies is measured by asking students to select the top three

strategies they use from a provided list: "Absorbing lots of information the night before a test;

condensing/Summarizing your notes; Make diagrams, charts, or pictures; Recopy your notes

from memory; Recopy your notes word-for-word; Reread chapters, articles, notes, etc.; Study

with friends; Test yourself with questions or practice problems; Underlining or highlighting

while reading; Use flashcards; Watch/listen to recorded lessons either by instructor or from

outside source (Khan Academy, YouTube, etc.); Other: write in." Then, a separate item asks

students to select which better describes their study patterns, "I most often space out my study

sessions over multiple days/weeks" or "I most often do my studying right before the test." We

classified students' study pattern as spacing or cramming based on their responses to these two

questions. Students are classified as using spacing if they selected the spacing option to the

second item and did **not** select "Absorbing lots of information the night before a test" as one of

their top three study strategies in the prior item.

We had relatively low rates of endorsement for many of the study strategies. Therefore,

we created an indicator variable to indicate whether a participant selected that they used any

highly effective study strategy. Based on prior literature on effective study strategies, we

identified self-testing, recopying notes from memory, and creating visuals as the highly

effective study strategies in the provided list. Therefore, a participant was classified as using

highly effective study strategies if they selected any of these 3 study strategies as one of their

top 3 study strategies.

Data analysis methods

Analyses were conducted in Mplus version 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). First, a

measurement model was estimated to confirm the factor structure of the eight latent variables:

(1) fixed mindset, (2) growth mindset, (3) universal beliefs, (4) non-universal beliefs, (5)

brilliance beliefs, (6) error beliefs, (7) affective-motivational adaptivity to errors, and (8) action

adaptivity to errors. The measurement model also included two indicator variables, (1) spacing

study sessions and (2) using highly effective study strategies. Both indicators were coded as Yes

= 1 and No = 0. From this measurement model, bivariate correlations were derived to

preliminarily assess the associations among all variables.

Following this, the hypothesized mediation model (Figure 1) was tested via a fully latent

structural equation model (SEM) using Robust Maximum Likelihood (MLR) estimator. MLR

adjusts the model fit indices to account for non-normality, which is commonly found within

data using response scales of agreement, and was observed within the present data (Li, 2016;

Zhong & Yuan, 2011). Covariances among error beliefs, action adaptivity, and motivational-

affective adaptivity were freely estimated. To evaluate the fit of the data to the model, we

examined several goodness-of-fit indices. Specifically, the chi-square statistic, the Comparative

Fit Index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

(RMSEA), the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), and the Chi-square/ Degrees of

Freedom (DF) ratio. A CFI and TLI value close to or above 0.90, an RMSEA below 0.06, an SRMR

below 0.08, and a Chi-square/DF ratio of less than 2 typically indicate a good model fit (Hu &

Bentler, 1999). Indirect effects were assessed using percentile bootstrap confidence intervals by

recalculating the model with 1,000 resamples. In so doing, the indirect effect is based on the

distribution of the resampled estimates versus a single product value, and thus, is likely to be

more reliable than alternative estimates (Tibbe & Montoya, 2022).

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics

More than half of our participants (208/345; 60%) indicated they use at least one highly

effective study strategy: self-testing, recopying notes from memory, or creating visuals. The

most common study strategy reported by our participants was self-testing (167/345; 48%),

followed by re-reading material (141/345; 41%), condensing/summarizing notes (131/345;

38%), and watching lectures and videos (125/345; 36%). The least commonly used strategies

were recopying notes from memory (26/345; 7.5%), recopying notes word-for-word (47/345;

14%), creating visuals (47/345; 14%), underlining and highlighting while reading (49/345; 14%),

and using flashcards (97/345; 28%). A minority of our participants (119/338; 35%) indicated

that they space their study sessions out across time.

Preliminary Results – Measurement Model

The measurement model fit the data adequately: $\chi^2(902) = 1,517.95$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df =$

1.68; RMSEA = 0.044, 90% CI [0.041, 0.048]; CFI = 0.91; TLI = 0.90; SRMR = 0.05, with all item

loadings at or above 0.48. This provides evidence of validity based on internal structure,

suggesting that our measures functioned as expected in our sample. We assessed reliability by

estimating the McDonald's Omega, which describes the proportion of the covariances among

the indicators accounted for by the latent variable (McDonald., 1999). The omega of each

measure used in this study was > 0.6, demonstrating acceptable reliability (Table 2; Hayes &

Coutts, 2020).

Table 2 presents the bivariate correlations from the measurement model. The

associations were largely in the expected directions. All five lay theories correlated in the

predicted directions with beliefs about errors and both types of reactions to errors.

Additionally, fixed and growth mindset both significantly correlated in the expected directions

with the use of both spacing study patterns and highly effective study strategies. Action

adaptivity was positively associated with both spacing study patterns and using highly effective

study strategies. Interestingly, affective-motivational adaptivity was only positively associated

with spacing study patterns. Counter to our expectations, beliefs about errors were not

associated with either the use of spacing study patterns or high utility study strategies.

Find table 2 in landscape orientation at end of document

Primary Analysis – Mediational Model

Our hypothesized model fit the data adequately: $\chi^2(912)$ = 1,535.90, p < .001, χ^2/df =

1.68; RMSEA = 0.045, 90% CI [0.041, 0.048]; CFI = 0.91; TLI = 0.90; SRMR = 0.05. Significant

parameter estimates are presented in Figure 2 and all parameter estimates are available in

Supplemental Material Section 2. As we hypothesized, fixed mindset was negatively associated

with error beliefs and growth mindset was positively associated with both action and affective-

motivational adaptivity. However, contrary to our hypothesis, universality, non-universality,

and brilliance beliefs were not associated with error beliefs or adaptivity, either action or

affective-motivational.

In alignment with our hypothesized model, action adaptivity was significantly positively

associated with spacing out study sessions and using effective study strategies. However,

contrary to our relationship, neither affective-motivational adaptivity nor error beliefs related

to spacing or using highly effective study strategies.

We evaluated the indirect effects between growth mindset and spacing and using

effective study strategies via traditional hypothesis testing as well as percentile bootstrap

confidence intervals. We found that growth mindset significantly contributed to students'

spacing their study sessions through their action adaptivity toward errors (β = 0.06, 95%

CI[0.02, 0.13], p = 0.028). Growth mindset contributed to students' use of highly-effective study

strategies through their action adaptivity toward errors (β = 0.05, 95% CI[0.01, 0.12], p = 0.073).

Importantly, due to the non-significant p-value for the second indirect effect, caution is merited

in interpreting this finding.

DISCUSSION

Our results illuminate factors that relate to students' use of effective study strategies.

We found that growth mindset indirectly related to students' study patterns, and that this

relationship is mediated by their adaptivity to errors. However, contrary to our hypothesis,

universality and brilliance beliefs did not relate to students' beliefs about errors, reactions to

errors, or study strategies, and students' beliefs about errors and motivational-affective

adaptivity did not relate to their study patterns or strategies.

This study contributes to the growing literature base exploring mechanisms through

which beliefs about abilities influence students' academic outcomes. There is extensive prior

research on the mechanisms through which beliefs about the malleability of intelligence

(mindset) influence academic outcomes. These mechanisms include self-regulatory processes

including goal setting, operating, and monitoring (Burnette et al., 2013; Yan & Wang, 2021), and

willingness to accept feedback (e.g., Sun & Huang, 2023). Our results add to growing evidence

for a new mechanism: students' reactions to errors and study strategies. Our results suggest

that students who believe their intellectual abilities can improve are more likely to respond

adaptively to making errors in the learning process and are more likely to space their study

sessions out and use highly effective, error-prone study strategies. This finding corroborates

prior work by Yan and Wang (2021) which found that intelligence mindset was indirectly related

to studying behaviors, linked by goal orientation, which positively related to both growth

mindset and use of effective study strategies. Our findings also build on prior work by Ng

(2018), which provided neuroscientific evidence that individuals with stronger growth mindset

pay more attention to errors and learn more from them.

Our study also explored possible effects of beliefs about distribution of potential

(universality beliefs) and whether high intellectual ability is required for success (brilliance

belief) on study strategies. Contrary to our expectations, we found that neither universality nor

brilliance were related to beliefs about and reactions to errors as well as study patterns and

strategies. Our results indicate that some beliefs about abilities relate to study strategy use, but

not others. This corroborates prior research indicating that mindset, universality, and brilliance

uniquely relate to different psychosocial and academic outcomes (Limeri et al., 2023). Our

results provide further evidence that these beliefs have different modes of action (mediators)

through which they impact students' outcomes. Future work should continue to explore which

mediators and outcomes are influenced by each of the three lay theories about abilities and

explore the mechanisms underlying these differential connections.

These results may potentially be used to inform the design of study strategy

interventions to improve students' academic success by encouraging students to respond

adaptively to making errors during their learning. Interventions targeting study strategies have

had mixed success (McDaniel & Einstein, 2020). Research has found that educating students

about the effectiveness of strategies is by itself insufficient to motivate behavioral change

(Biwer et al., 2020; Dye & Stanton, 2017; Morehead et al., 2016; Rea et al., 2022). McDaniel and

Einstein (2020) conceptualized the knowledge, belief, commitment, and planning (KBCP)

framework, which posits that knowledge is only a first step, but students must also be

persuaded that effective study strategies will work better, commit to using effective strategies,

and create a feasible plan for using effective strategies (McDaniel & Einstein, 2020). Our results

suggest that helping students respond positively to making errors may be another important

part of helping them adopt effective learning strategies. Incorporating elements about

responding adaptively to making errors while learning and growth mindset may increase the

efficacy of interventions. It will be important to test if incorporating these elements into

interventions will increase their success.

Our results suggest that future studies investigating student learning and study

strategies should consider students' views of their abilities and their adaptive reactions to

errors. Rea et al. (2022) found that despite recognizing the benefits of more effective study

strategies like pretesting and interleaving, participants reported relying primarily on passive

strategies. Rea et al. (2022) identified barriers to adopting effective study strategies, including

perceptions that they are too time-consuming, require excessive effort, or having low self-

efficacy for using these strategies well. They also identified barriers to effective metacognitive

strategies (i.e., goal setting, help-seeking, study planning, and focus of time and effort), the

primary barrier being psychological cost (i.e., these strategies would induce nervousness and

anxiety). Future research should explore whether helping students develop positive beliefs

about and reactions to errors may reduce some of these perceived barriers or increase

students' confidence that making errors is an indicator that they are studying effectively. Our

results suggest that simultaneously targeting growth mindset beliefs may prove fruitful since

they relate to students' error adaptivity. Future work could develop and implement

interventions that target study strategies, the positive role of errors in studying, as well as

promote a growth mindset. This is promising because prior work indicates that mindsets are

malleable, even for undergraduates (Limeri et al., 2020).

Helping students shift away from time-consuming, ineffective strategies towards

efficient and effective study strategies can benefit all students. We propose it is possible that

these efforts may yield disproportionate benefits for students who face the most barriers in

their educational journeys. While more privileged students may be able to compensate for

using inefficient study strategies by increasing the total amount of time they spend studying,

this option may not be available for students who face constraints, such as working to support

themselves and their family, or those with caretaking responsibilities. Thus, students who are

low-income and/or are caretakers for family may have the least time available for studying and

thus may stand the most to gain from using their time as efficiently as possible. There is some

evidence that study strategies may be particularly important for students who face additional

barriers in their education. DiBenedetto (2010) surveyed 248 undergraduates and found that

there was a stronger relationship between self-regulated learning strategies and college GPA

for first-generation students than for continuing-generation students.

There is some promising evidence that metacognitive interventions that teach students

about effective study strategies have potential to improve equity in student achievement

(Muteti et al., 2023; Rodriguez et al., 2018). Muteti and colleagues (2023) found that first-

generation students reported using self-testing and practice problems less often than

continuing generation students, but that a 50-minute lesson about metacognition reduced this

gap. Rodriguez and colleagues (2018) found that the performance gap between white and

underrepresented minority (URM) students was higher when URM students did not self-test,

and reduced when URM students engage in self-testing. They also found that their light-touch

intervention was successful in encouraging all students, including URM students, to engage in

self-testing more frequently (Rodriguez et al., 2018)

Limitations and Future Directions

Our study is cross-sectional and as such we are unable to draw conclusions about

causality among the variables studied. We hypothesize a mediation model based on theoretical

linkages. For example, although we hypothesize that students' mindset beliefs influence their

reactions to errors, it is possible that the reverse is true. Perhaps frequently engaging in self-

testing and making errors teaches students that their abilities can improve and consequently

strengthens their growth mindset beliefs. Future work could improve on this by collecting data

longitudinally to investigate causal relationships. Alternatively, future work could take a

qualitative approach to gain more insight into students' reasoning for choosing their study

strategies and the role that errors play in their choices about studying.

Our study was conducted in a biology class at a single, primarily white university located

in the United States. Thus, our sample is limited in demographic diversity. Caution should be

taken in generalizing these findings to other student populations, including students in other

STEM disciplines, at different institution types (e.g., teaching-focused, community colleges,

minority-serving), with different racial/ethnic identities, and in different countries. For example,

previous studies have indicated that study strategy use differs across disciplines (Chouvalova et

al., 2022; Lawson, 1979). Engineering students placed greater emphasis (relative to biology

students) on the importance of self-correction, and making multiple approaches and attempts

(Chouvalova et al., 2022). It is possible that epistemic differences and differences in types of

problems typically encountered between fields relate to different beliefs about abilities and

approaches to studying. Future work should examine how the patterns identified here may

generalize to other populations and explore how these variables and processes interact with

students' intersectional identities.

An important limitation is that we dichotomized study strategies as either highly

effective or not. An underlying assumption that we are making is that students who are using

study strategies traditionally identified as being ineffective, like using flashcards and rereading

material, are indeed using them ineffectively. Cognitive processes occurring during passive

study strategies that are traditionally categorized as ineffective, such as using flashcards and

rereading material, may involve higher orders of cognition like making connections and

retrieving prior knowledge. Miyatsu et al. (2018) identify some ways to implement flashcards

effectively, such as practicing flashcards several times before dropping them and having

multiple episodes of successful retrieval in order to strengthen their memory and reinforce the

content, as well as overcome the likelihood of inaccurate metacognition, and spacing out their

flashcard study sessions (Kornell, 2009). Even flashcards may be used effectively in some

limited circumstances (Kornell et al., 2009; Miyatsu et al., 2018; Schmidmaier et al., 2011;

Senzaki et al., 2017). We took a conservative approach of classifying study strategies that could

be used ineffectively as not highly effective, since their use is not a reliable sign of using

effective study strategies. With flash card use in particularly, studies suggest that most of the

time, students will stop practicing a flashcard if it is successfully retrieved once (Miyatsu et al.,

2018) and typically, students resort to flashcards for lower-order processes like memorizing

vocabulary, instead of gaining a detailed understanding of a concept or knowledge application.

In fact, Hartwig and Dunlosky (2012) concluded that flashcard use is not related to students'

GPA.

Likewise, we are also assuming that students who report using study strategies

identified as being effective, like retrieval and spacing, are indeed using them effectively.

However, with effective study strategies, certain nuances may undermine their effectiveness.

With retrieval testing, Wooldridge et al. (2014) found that this method is only useful for

questions that are repeated on the practice test and actual test but not for topically related

items, which indicates that perhaps retrieval testing is not as effective for transferring

knowledge. For example, a student using retrieval testing may be memorizing the questions

and solutions and in doing so, engaging in lower orders of cognition. Future studies could

investigate how students implement their study strategies and the factors that relate to the

quality of implementation of effective strategies.

CONCLUSION

We find partial support for our hypothesized mediation model. In alignment with our

hypothesis, we find that students' growth mindset beliefs are positively associated with

reacting adaptively to making errors, which is in turn positively associated with spacing study

sessions and using highly effective study strategies. In contrast, we did not find support for

relationships between other types of beliefs about abilities (universality and brilliance beliefs)

and reactions to errors or study strategies These results build on the literature base exploring

the mechanisms through which students' mindset beliefs influence their academic outcomes.

Our results also add new knowledge about the motivational factors that relate to students'

choices about how and when to study. This knowledge could be used to inform the design of

future study strategy interventions, focusing not just on informing students about the

effectiveness of strategies, but motivating them to adapt positively to errors and enable them

to adopt effective strategies more readily.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CFA   Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFI   Comparative Fit Index

DF   Degrees of Freedom

MLR   Robust Maximum Likelihood

RMSEA   Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation

SD   Standard Deviation

SEM   Structural Equation Model

SRMR   Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual

STEM   Science, technology, engineering, and mathematics

TLI   Tucker-Lewis Index

ULTrA   Undergraduate Lay Theories of Abilities Survey

DELCARATIONS

Availability of data and materials

The dataset supporting the conclusions of this article is included within the article and its

additional files.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Funding

This work was supported by start-up funds from Texas Tech University (TTU) and student

support was provided by The Center for Transformative Undergraduate Experiences at TTU.

Funders had no role in the conceptualization, design, data collection, analysis, decision to

publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Authors' contributions

AC contributed to data analysis and interpretation, and drafting the manuscript. AN contributed

to data analysis and interpretation, and drafting the manuscript. DJM contributed to data

analysis and interpretation, and drafting the manuscript. MA contributed to conceptualizing

and designing the study and data collection. SD contributed to conceptualizing and designing

the study and data collection. FDA contributed to conceptualizing and designing the study and

data collection. LBL contributed to conceptualizing and designing the study, data collection,

analysis, and interpretation, and drafting and substantially revising the writing. All authors read

and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the instructor who taught the course for assisting with disseminating

the study and providing extra credit as incentive.

REFERENCES

Ambrose, S. A., Bridges, M. W., DiPietro, M., Lovett, M. C., & Norman, M. K. (2010). *How

learning works: Seven research-based principles for smart teaching*. John Wiley & Sons.

Baddeley, A. D., & Longman, D. J. A. (1978). The influence of length and frequency of training

session on the rate of learning to type. *Ergonomics, 21*, 627–635.

Biggs, J. B. (1987). *Study Process Questionnaire Manual. Student Approaches to Learning and

Studying*. Australian Council for Educational Research Ltd., Hawthorn, Australia.

Biggs, J. B., & Tang, C. (2011). *Teaching for quality learning at university: what the student does*

(Vol. 418). McGraw-Hill Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University

Press.

Biwer, F., Egbrink, M. G. A. O., Aalten, P., & De Bruin, A. B. H. (2020). Fostering effective

learning strategies in higher education—A

mixed-methods study. *Journal of Applied Research in Memory and Cognition*, *9*(2), 186–

203.   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jarmac.2020.03.004

Bjork, R. A. (1999). Assessing our own competence: Heuristics and illusions. In D. Gopher & A.

Koriat (Eds.), *Attention and performance XVII: Cognitive regulation of performance:*

Interaction of theory and application. 435–459. The MIT Press.

Brown, P. C., Roediger, H. L., & McDaniel, M. A. (2014). *Make it stick: The science of successful*

learning. Harvard University Press.

Burnette, J. L., O'Boyle, E. H., VanEpps, E. M., Pollack, J. M., & Finkel, E. J. (2013). Mind-sets

matter: A meta-analytic review of implicit theories and self-regulation. *Psychological*

Bulletin, 139(3), 655–701. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029531

Burnette, J. L., Russell, M. V., Hoyt, C. L., Orvidas, K., & Widman, L. (2018). An online growth

mindset intervention in a sample of rural adolescent girls. *The British Journal of*

Educational Psychology, *88*(3), 428–445. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjep.12192

Carpenter, S.K., Pashler, H., Wixted, J.T. and Vul, E. (2008). The effects of tests on learning and

forgetting. *Memory and Cognition, 36*(2), 438-448.

Carrier, L. M. (2003). College students' choice of study strategies. *Perceptual and Motor Skills,*

96(1), 54–56. https://doi.org/10.2466/PMS.96.1.54-56

Cepeda, N. J., Pashler, H., Vul, E., Wixted, J. T., & Rohrer, D. (2006). Distributed practice in

verbal recall tasks: A review and quantitative synthesis. *Psychological Bulletin, 132*, 354–

380.

Chouvalova, A., DeDecker, S., Clemmer, R., Vale, J., & Gordon, K. (2022). Problem-solving in

biology vs. engineering: What can engineering educators learn from biology educators.

Proceedings of the Canadian Engineering Education Association (CEEA).

Deslauriers, L., McCarty, L. S., Miller, K., Callaghan, K., & Kestin, G. (2019). Measuring actual

learning versus feeling of learning in response to being actively engaged in the

classroom. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of*

America, *116*(39), 19251–19257. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1821936116

DiBenedetto, M. K. (2010). *Do self-regulated processes such as study strategies and satisfaction*

predict grade point averages

for first and second generation college students? Paper presented at the annual meeting

of the American Educational Research Association, Denver, CO.

Dresel, M., Schober, B., Ziegler, A., Grassinger, R., & Steuer, G. (2013). Affective-motivational

adaptivity and action adaptivity reactions to errors during learning . *Zeitschrift für*

pädagogische Psychologie, *27*(4), 255–271. https://doi.org/10.1024/1010-

0652/a000111

Dunlosky, J., Rawson, K. A., Marsh, E. J., Nathan, M. J., & Willingham, D. T. (2013). Improving

students' learning with effective learning techniques: Promising directions from

cognitive and educational psychology. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, *14*(1),

4–58. https://doi.org/10.1177/1529100612453266

Dye, K. M., & Stanton, J. D. (2017). Metacognition in upper-division biology students:

Awareness does not always lead to control. *CBE-Life Sciences Education*, *16*(2), ar31.

https://doi.org/10.1187/cbe.16-09-0286

Dweck, C. S. (1999). *Self-theories: Their role in motivation, personality, and development.*

Psychology Press.

Fiorella, L. (2023). Making Sense of Generative Learning. *Educational Psychology Review*, *35*(2),

50.

Fiorella, L., & Mayer, R. E. (2016). Eight ways to promote generative learning. *Educational*

Psychology Review, *28*, 717-741.

Floyd, K. S, Harrington, S. J, & Santiago, J. (2009). The effect of engagement and perceived

course value on deep and surface learning strategies. *Informing Science*, *12*, 181–190.

https://doi.org/10.28945/435

Grassinger, R., & Dresel, M. (2017). Who learns from errors on a class test? Antecedents and

profiles of adaptive reactions to errors in a failure situation. *Learning and Individual*

Differences, *53*, 61–68. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2016.11.009

Haimovitz, K., & Dweck, C. S. (2016). Parents' views of failure predict children's fixed and

growth intelligence mind-sets. *Psychological Science, 27*(6), 859–

869. https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797616639727.

Hartwig, M. K., & Dunlosky, J. (2012). Study strategies of college students: are self-testing and

scheduling related to achievement? *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, *19*(1), 126–134.

https://doi.org/10.3758/s13423-011-0181-y

Hattie, J., Biggs, J., & Purdie, N. (1996). Effects of learning skills interventions on student

learning: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, *66*(2), 99–136.

https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543066002099

Hayes, A. F., & Coutts, J. J. (2020). Use omega rather than Cronbach's alpha for estimating

reliability. But…. *Communication Methods and Measures*, *14*(1), 1-24.

Hong, Y., Chiu, C., Dweck, C. S., Lin, D. M. S., & Wan, W. (1999). Implicit theories, attributions,

and coping: A meaning system approach. *Journal of Psychology and Social Psychology*,

77(3), 588–599.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis:

Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A*

Multidisciplinary Journal, *6*(1), 1–55. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118

Kapur, M. (2008). Productive failure. *Cognition and instruction*, *26*(3), 379-424.

Kapur, M., & Bielaczyc, K. (2012). Designing for productive failure. *Journal of the Learning*

Sciences, *21*(1), 45-83.

Karpicke, J. D., Butler, A. C., & Roediger, H. L., 3rd. (2009). Metacognitive strategies in student

learning: do students practise retrieval when they study on their own? *Memory*, *17*(4),

471–479. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658210802647009

Kelley, C. M., & Jacoby, L. L. (1996). Adult egocentrism: Subjective experience versus analytic

bases for judgment. *Journal of Memory and Language, 35*(2), 157–175.

https://doi.org/10.1006/jmla.1996.0009

Kirk-Johnson, A., Galla, B., & Fraundorf, S. (2019). Perceiving effort as poor learning: The

misinterpreted-effort hypothesis of how experienced effort and perceived learning

relate to study strategy choice. *Cognitive Psychology*, *115*, 101237.

Koriat, A., & Bjork, R. A. (2005). Illusions of competence in monitoring one's knowledge during

study. *Journal of experimental*

psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, *31*(2), 187.

Kornell, N. & Bjork, R. A. (2007) The Promise and Perils of Self-Regulated Study. *Psychonomic*

Bulletin & Review, 14(2), 219–224.

Kornell, N. (2009). Optimising learning using flashcards: Spacing is more effective than

cramming. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, *23*(9), 1297–1317.

https://doi.org/10.1002/acp.1537

Kreutzmann, M., Zander, L., & Hannover, B. (2014). Managing mistakes on the class and

individual level: Interrelations with students' self-efficacy, effort investment, and joy of

learning. *Zeitschrift für Entwicklungspsychologie und Pädagogische Psychologie, 46*,

101–113. https://doi.org/10.1026/0049-8637/a000103

Lawson, B. R. (1979). Cognitive Strategies in Architectural Design. *Ergonomics*, *22*(1), 59–68.

https://doi.org/10.1080/00140137908924589

Leslie, S.-J., Cimpian, A., Meyer, M., & Freeland, E. (2015). Expectations of brilliance underlie

gender distributions across academic

disciplines. *Science, 347*(6219), 262–265. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1261375

Li, C.-H. (2016). Confirmatory factor analysis with ordinal data: Comparing robust maximum

likelihood and diagonally weighted least squares. *Behavior Research Methods*, *48*(3),

936–949. https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-015-0619-7

Limeri, L. B., Carter, N. T., Choe, J., Harper, H. G., Martin, H. R., Benton, A., & Dolan, E. L. (2020).

Growing a growth mindset: characterizing how and why undergraduate students'

mindsets change. *International Journal of STEM Education*, *7*(1).

https://doi.org/10.1186/s40594-020-00227-2

Limeri, L., Carter, N. T., Lyra, F., Martin, J., Mastronardo, H., Patel, J., & Dolan, E. L. (2023).

Undergraduate Lay Theories of Abilities: Mindset, universality, and brilliance beliefs

uniquely predict undergraduate educational outcomes. *CBE – Life Sciences Education, in*

press.

Macaluso, J. A., Beuford, R. R., & Fraundorf, S. H. (2022). Familiar Strategies Feel Fluent: The

Role of Study Strategy Familiarity in the

Misinterpreted-Effort Model of Self-Regulated Learning. *Journal of Intelligence*, *10*(4),

83.

https://doi.org/10.3390/jintelligence10040083

Mangels, J. A., Butterfield, B., Lamb, J., Good, C., & Dweck, C. S. (2006). Why do beliefs about

intelligence influence learning success? A social cognitive neuroscience model. *Social*

Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience, *1*(2), 75–86. https://doi.org/10.1093/scan/nsl013

Marton, F., & Säljö, R. (1976). On qualitative differences in learning: I-outcome and process. *The*

British Journal of Educational Psychology, *46*(1), 4–11. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-

8279.1976.tb02980.x

McDaniel, M. A., & Einstein, G. O. (2020). Training learning strategies to promote self-regulation

and transfer: The knowledge, belief, commitment, and planning framework.

Perspectives on Psychological Science, 15(6), 1363–1381.

https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691620920723

McDonald, R. P. (1999). Test theory: A unified treatment. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

McGuire, S. Y. (2018). *Teach yourself how to learn: Strategies you can use to ace any course at*

any level. Stylus Publishing, LLC.

Mera, Y., Rodríguez, G., & Marin-Garcia, E. (2022). Unraveling the benefits of experiencing

errors during learning: Definition, modulating factors, and explanatory theories.

Psychonomic Bulletin & Review, *29*(3), 753–765. https://doi.org/10.3758/s13423-021-

02022-8

Meyer, M., Cimpian, A., & Leslie, S.-J. (2015). Women are underrepresented in fields where

success is believed to require brilliance.

Frontiers in Psychology, 6, 235. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.00235

Miyatsu, T., Nguyen, K., & McDaniel, M. A. (2018). Five popular study strategies: Their pitfalls

and optimal implementations. *Perspectives on Psychological Science: A Journal of the*

Association for Psychological Science, *13*(3), 390–407.

https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691617710510

Morehead, K., Rhodes, M. G., & DeLozier, S. (2016). Instructor and student knowledge of study

strategies. *Memory*, *24*(2), 257–271. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658211.2014.1001992

Moser, J. S., Schroder, H. S., Heeter, C., Moran, T. P., & Lee, Y.-H. (2011). Mind your errors:

evidence for a neural mechanism linking growth mind-set to adaptive posterror

adjustments: Evidence for a neural mechanism linking growth mind-set to adaptive

posterror adjustments. *Psychological Science*, *22*(12), 1484–1489.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797611419520

Muteti, C. Z., Jacob, B. I., & Mutambuki, J. M. (2023). Metacognition instruction enhances

equity in effective study strategies across demographic groups in the general chemistry I

course. *Chemistry Education Research and Practice*.

https://doi.org/10.1039/d3rp00103b

Muthén, L., & Muthén, B. (2017). *Mplus user's guide (version 8.0)*.

Ng, B. (2018). The neuroscience of growth mindset and intrinsic motivation. *Brain Sciences*,

8(2). https://doi.org/10.3390/brainsci8020020

Nyland, R. L., & Sawarynski, K. E. (2017). Setting students up for success: a short interactive

workshop designed to increase effective

study habits. *MedEdPortal*, *13*, 10610.

Overman, A. A., Stephens, J. D., & Bernhardt, M. F. (2021). Enhanced memory for context

associated with corrective feedback:

evidence for episodic processes in errorful learning. *Memory*, *29*(8), 1017-1042.

Plant, E. A., Ericsson, K. A., Hill, L., & Asberg, K. (2005). Why study time does not predict grade

point average across college students:

Implications of deliberate practice for academic performance. *Contemporary*

Educational Psychology, *30*(1), 96-116.

Pressley, M., Borkowski, J. G., & Schneider, W. (1987). Cognitive strategies: Good strategy users

coordinate metacognition and

knowledge. In R. Vasta & G. Whitehurst (Eds*.). Annals of child development, 5*, 89-129).

New York, NY: JAI Press.

Rattan, A., Savani, K., Komarraju, M., Morrison, M. M., Boggs, C., & Ambady, N. (2018). Meta-

lay theories of scientific potential drive

848 underrepresented students' sense of belonging to science, technology, engineering, and

849 mathematics (STEM). *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 115*(1), 54–75.

850 https://doi.org/10.1037/pspi0000130

851 Rattan, A., Savani, K., Naidu, N. V. R., & Dweck, C. S. (2012). Can everyone become highly

852 intelligent? Cultural differences in and

853 societal consequences of beliefs about the universal potential for intelligence. *Journal of*

854 *Personality and Social Psychology, 103*(5), 787–803. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029263

855 Rea, S. D., Wang, L., Muenks, K., & Yan, V. X. (2022). Students can (mostly) recognize effective

856 learning, so why do they not do it? *Journal of Intelligence*, *10*(4), 127.

857 https://doi.org/10.3390/jintelligence10040127

858 Rodriguez, F., Rivas, M. J., Matsumura, L. H., Warschauer, M., & Sato, B. K. (2018). How do

859 students study in STEM courses? Findings from a light-touch intervention and its

860 relevance for underrepresented students. *PloS One*, *13*(7), e0200767.

861 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0200767

862 Roediger, H.L., III and Karpicke, J.D. (2006), "The power of testing memory: basic research and

863 implications for educational practice", *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *1*(3), 181-

864 210.

865 Runquist, W. N. (1983). Some effects of remembering on forgetting. *Memory & Cognition,*

866 *11*(6), 641–650. https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03198289

Sabah, S. H., Ban, H. M., & Areej, K. H. (2023). Impact of Deep Learning Strategy in Mathematics

Achievement and Practical Intelligence among High School Students. *International*

Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning, 18(6), 42-52.

https://doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v18i06.38615

Schmeck, R. R. (1988). Individual differences and learning strategies. In C. E. Weinstein, E. T.

Goetz, & P. A. Alexander (Eds.), *Learning and Study Strategies* (pp. 171–191). Elsevier.

Schmidmaier, R., Ebersbach, R., Schiller, M., Hege, I., Holzer, M., & Fischer, M. R. (2011). Using

electronic flashcards to promote learning in medical students: retesting versus

restudying: Efficacy of retesting versus restudying. *Medical Education*, *45*(11), 1101–

1110. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2923.2011.04043.x

Schroder, H. S., Moran, T. P., Donnellan, M. B., & Moser, J. S. (2014). Mindset induction effects

on cognitive control: A neurobehavioral investigation. *Biological psychology*, *103*, 27-37.

Senzaki, S., Hackathorn, J., Appleby, D. C., & Gurung, R. A. R. (2017). Reinventing flashcards to

increase student learning. *Psychology Learning & Teaching*, *16*(3), 353–368.

https://doi.org/10.1177/1475725717719771

Smiley, P. A., Buttitta, K. V., Chung, S. Y., Dubon, V. X., & Chang, L. K. (2016). Mediation models

of implicit theories and achievement goals predict planning and withdrawal after failure.

Motivation and Emotion, *40*(6), 878–894. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11031-016-9575-5

Stanton, J. D., Sebesta, A. J., & Dunlosky, J. (2021). Fostering metacognition to support student

learning and performance. *CBE Life Sciences Education*, *20*(2), fe3.

https://doi.org/10.1187/cbe.20-12-0289

Stanton, J. D., Neider, X. N., Gallegos, I. J., Clark, N. C., & Tomanek, D. (2015). Differences in

metacognitive regulation in introductory biology students: When prompts are not

enough. *CBE-Life Sciences Education*, *14*(2), ar15. https://doi.org/10.1187/cbe.14-08-

0135

Sun, Y., & Huang, Y. (2023). The Relationships among Chinese University EFL Learners'

Feedback-Seeking Behavior, Achievement Goals, and Mindsets. *Behavioral Sciences*,

13(2), 190.

Susser, J. A., & McCabe, J. (2013). From the lab to the dorm room: Metacognitive awareness

and use of spaced study. *Instructional Science*, *41*, 345-363.

Tabibnia, G., & Radecki, D. (2018). Resilience training that can change the brain. *Consulting

Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, *70*(1), 59.

Tibbe, T. D., & Montoya, A. K. (2022). Correcting the bias correction for the bootstrap

confidence interval in mediation analysis. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *13*.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.810258

Tirri, K., & Kujala, T. (2016). Students' mindsets for learning and their neural underpinnings.

Psychology, *7*(9), 1231–1239. https://doi.org/10.4236/psych.2016.79125

Tulis, M., Steuer, G., & Dresel, M. (2017). Positive beliefs about errors as an important element

of adaptive individual dealing with errors during academic learning. *Educational*

Psychology, *38*(2), 139–158. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2017.1384536

Van Etten, S., Freebern, G., & Pressley, M. (1997). College students' beliefs about exam

preparation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *22*(2), 192–212.

https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1997.0933

Vemu, S., Denaro, K., Sato, B. K., & Williams, A. E. (2022). Moving the Needle: Evidence of an

Effective Study Strategy Intervention in

a Community College Biology Course. *CBE—Life Sciences Education*, *21*(2), ar24.

https://doi.org/10.1187/cbe.21-08-0216

Waller, L., & Papi, M. (2017). Motivation and feedback: How implicit theories of intelligence

predict L2 writers' motivation and feedback orientation. *Journal of Second Language*

Writing, *35*, 54–65. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2017.01.004

Williams, A. E., Denaro, K., Dennin, M. B., & Sato, B. K. (2021). A survey of study skills of first-

year university students: the relationships of strategy to gender, ethnicity and course

type. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*, *13*(2), 446–465.

https://doi.org/10.1108/jarhe-10-2019-0272

Wooldridge, C. L., Bugg, J. M., McDaniel, M. A., & Liu, Y. (2014). The testing effect with

authentic educational materials: A cautionary note. *Journal of Applied Research in*

Memory and Cognition, *3*(3), 214-221.

Yan, V. X., & Wang, L. (2021). What predicts quality of learners' study efforts? Implicit beliefs

and interest are related to mastery goals but not to use of effective study strategies. In

Frontiers in Education (Vol. 6, p. 643421). Frontiers Media SA.

Yao, Y., & Zhu, X. (2022). Modeling chinese high school EFL writers' language mindsets, goal

orientations, and feedback-seeking

behavior: the interaction effect between language mindsets and writing competence.

Reading and Writing, 1-23.

Yeager, D. S., & Dweck, C. S. (2020). What can be learned from growth mindset controversies?.

American Psychologist, *75*(9), 1269.

Zhong, X., & Yuan, K.-H. (2011). Bias and Efficiency in Structural Equation Modeling: Maximum

Likelihood Versus Robust Methods. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *46*(2), 229–265.

https://doi.org/10.1080/00273171.2011.558736

Figure legends

Figure 1. Hypothesized mediation model. We hypothesize that beliefs about abilities (mindset, universality, and brilliance) will influence attitudes towards errors and their responses to errors, which in turn will influence the study strategies students use.

Figure 2: Structural Equation Modeling results showing standardized parameter estimates and 95% confidence intervals in parentheses. For simplicity, covariances and item loadings, as well as parameter estimates values non-significant at the p < 0.05 level are not shown. See full results in Supplemental Material section 2. Note: [*] $p < 0.05$; [**] $p < 0.01$; [***] $p < 0.001$

Table 2. *Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations.*

	M	SD	ω	*Bivariate Correlated Derived from Measurement Model*								
				1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*
1. Fixed Mindset	2.11	0.72	0.68									
2. Growth Mindset	4.35	0.73	0.91	-0.50***								
3. Universal Beliefs	4.10	0.88	0.87	-0.27***	0.44***							
4. Non-universal belief	2.31	0.88	0.89	0.41***	-0.30***	-0.62***						
5. Brilliance belief	2.30	0.96	0.90	0.40***	-0.23***	-0.47***	0.80***					
6. Error Beliefs	4.47	0.61	0.89	-0.39***	0.25***	0.22***	-0.23***	-0.26***				
7. Affective-Motivational Adaptivity	3.58	0.76	0.76	-0.35***	0.40***	0.17*	-0.32***	-0.32***	0.35***			
8. Action Adaptivity	4.15	0.61	0.84	-0.34***	0.37***	0.29***	-0.25***	-0.29***	0.42***	0.63***		
9. Spacing Study Pattern	0.35	0.48	n/a	-0.16*	0.21***	0.15**	-0.13*	-0.05	0.08	0.17**	0.27***	
10. Highly-effective Study Strategies	0.60	0.49	n/a	-0.18**	0.21***	0.15**	-0.13*	-0.13*	0.10	0.08	0.20***	0.25***

945 M = mean, SD = Standard Deviation, ω = MacDonald's Omega. Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

Predictors

Mindset

Universality

Brilliance

Mediators

Beliefs about errors

Reactions to errors
(error adaptivity)

Outcomes

Spacing
study sessions

Using effective
study strategies