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UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

FACULTY OF SOCIAL AND HUMAN SCIENCE

School of Psychology

**Understanding Adolescent Shame and Pride in a School Context: The Impact of
Perceived Academic Competence and a Growth Mindset.**

by

Ellen Maria Cook

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Educational Psychology

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ABSTRACT

FACULTY OF SOCIAL AND HUMAN SCIENCE

Doctor of Educational Psychology

**UNDERSTANDING ADOLESCENT SHAME AND PRIDE IN A SCHOOL
CONTEXT: THE IMPACT OF PERCEIVED ACADEMIC COMPETENCE AND A
GROWTH MINDSET**

by **Ellen Maria Cook**

Shame has important implications in educational contexts for educators, children and young people. The first paper presented here is a review of the current literature on shame and explores the implications of this self-conscious achievement emotion within educational contexts. The systematic literature review demonstrated that shame experiences can have both a dysfunctional and functional role, are independent of acculturation status and are influenced by parental attitudes. Crucially, shame management can reduce bullying within schools. The review concludes by drawing attention to implications of these findings for educators and educational psychologists.

The second paper, reports empirical research carried out in the field of self-conscious achievement emotions. This study investigated whether holding a growth (intelligence) mindset could reduce shame experiences and/or promote pride experiences, within a secondary school context. The study also focused on the role of perceived academic competence (i.e. the perception that one has sufficient skills and knowledge) on young people's feelings of shame and pride. Secondary school students ($N = 121$, $M_{\text{age}} = 14.3$ years) completed the Scale of Personal Conceptions of Intelligence to measure their mindset, and then completed a 10-day online diary, to rate their daily shame and/or pride experiences. Participants also rated their daily perceptions of academic competence. Results revealed a negative relation between growth mindset and daily shame intensity, and a positive relation between growth mindset and daily pride intensity. Both associations were mediated by perceived academic competence. That is, a growth mindset predicted increased perceived academic competence, which, in turn, predicted reduced shame and increased pride. The findings have far-reaching implications for educators. This research also makes a novel connection between growth mindset, perceived academic competence and self-conscious emotions, within a school setting.

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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, **ELLEN COOK**

declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

Understanding Adolescent Shame and Pride in a School Context: The Impact of Perceived Academic Competence and a Growth Mindset

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. None of this work has been published before submission

Signed:

Date: **1st August 2015**.....

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*

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Definitions and Abbreviations

Shame Shame can be defined as: the painful feeling that you experience when you have done something dishonourable, improper, ridiculous, or foolish.

Pride Pride can be defined as: the pleasurable feeling that you experience when you have done something honourable, extraordinary, sensible or worthwhile.

AEQ	Achievement Emotions Questionnaire
AGQ-R	Achievement Goal Questionnaire-Revised
ARSMAI-I	Acculturation scale for Mexican-American Populations
BDI	Beck's Depression Inventory
CSCS	College Sense of Community Scale
CSS	The Compass of Shame Scale
EPs	Educational Psychologists
ESS	Experiential Shame Scale
HLM	Hierarchical linear modelling
ISS	Internalised Shame Scale
MOSS-SASD	Management of Shame State: Shame Acknowledgement and Displacement
MSLQ	The Motivation Strategies for Learning Questionnaire
OAS	Other As Shamer
PANAS	Positive and Negative Affect Schedule
PCI	The Scale of Personal Conceptions of Intelligence
PCP	Personal Construct Psychology
PCPR	Parental Conditional Positive Regard
SAQ	Self-Attributes Questionnaire
SAS	Statistical Analysis System
SBI	School Burnout Inventory
SES	Socio-Economic Status
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
STAI	State-trait Anxiety Inventory
TOSCA	The Test of Self-Conscious Affect
URL	Uniform Resource Locator

Chapter 1: Investigating the Role of Shame in Educational Contexts: A Systematic Review

1.1 Introduction and Background

This systematic review examines the role of shame within educational contexts. In this literature review, I will begin by exploring achievement emotions. Next, I will discuss current literature on one achievement emotion in particular: shame. I will then use this to answer the question: ‘What are the implications of shame in an educational context?’ I conclude that shame has both a dysfunctional and functional role, is independent of acculturation status, is influenced by parental attitudes and that shame management has a role to play in reducing bullying in educational contexts. Finally, I will draw attention to the implications findings have for those working within education.

Humans experience a spectrum of emotions, triggered across a range of situations. Love, joy, anger, anxiety and embarrassment are just a few examples which highlight the multi-faceted origins and presentations. In psychology, researchers who have studied the richness of human feelings have frequently suggested that emotions require organised management of affective (i.e. sentimental), cognitive (i.e. thinking), physiological, motivational and expressive elements (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; M. Lewis, 2000; Oatley, Keltner, & Jenkins, 2006; Pekrun & Stephens, 2010). Given the depth, complexity and intricacy of emotions, it is understandable that they are present in educational contexts, due, perhaps, to the often achievement-oriented ethos of these settings. For example, pupils may feel anxious before an exam or proud, having gained a target grade. Furthermore, emotions can play a role in developing and sustaining resilience (i.e. when social and/or academic challenges arise), impact upon student motivation and can have long-term impact (e.g. feeling nostalgic for joyful childhood school memories). These states have often been defined as ‘achievement emotions’ (Huang, 2011; Lichtenfeld

& Stupnisky, 2012; Mouratidis, Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Auweele, 2009; Pekrun, Goetz, Frenzel, Barchfeld, & Perry, 2011; Villavicencio & Bernardo, 2013). Empirical evidence supports the claim that achievement emotions affect many important elements in successful learning and education, including: concentration, motivation and the mastery of knowledge (Pekrun & Stephens, 2010). Taken together, it is, therefore, paramount that achievement emotions are comprehensively researched and understood, so that this developed knowledge can be applied (i.e. by educational staff including psychologists) in order to improve outcomes for children and young people.

1.2 Achievement emotions

Achievement emotions can be defined as the feeling(s) a student has when he or she is undertaking a learning-based task (Huang, 2011). Achievement emotions can be experienced in academic settings both on an activity (e.g. boredom/enjoyment) and outcome (e.g. pride/shame) level (Pekrun, Elliot, & Maier, 2009). Many researchers suggest that these emotions can be classified as momentary occurrences within a specific situation and time (*state* achievement emotions), as well as emotions that occur more habitually, when an individual engages in achievement activities and outcome-focused situations (*trait* achievement emotions) (Huang, 2011). Furthermore, according to ‘control-value’ theory proposed by Pekrun et al. (2009), achievement emotions are determined by the perceived facilitation power (i.e. control) one has on an achievement task and its outcomes, as well as the personal and social significance (i.e. value) placed upon these activities and outcomes. For example, mastery goals (i.e. aiming to demonstrate proficiency of learning objectives) were found to be linked to positive achievement emotions and the inhibition of dysfunctional achievement emotions (Pekrun et al., 2009).

Although recent research into achievement emotions has been viewed as influential (Howell & Buro, 2011; King & Areepattamannil, 2014; Lichtenfeld & Stupnisky, 2012),

this is not a new topic for academics. Weiner, Russell, and Lerman (1979), for example, reported that a variety of cognitions influence emotional reactions in achievement contexts. Similarly, J. H. McMillan and Spratt (1983), studied 75 undergraduate students and found that students' outcomes and effort were causally linked to affect. They also concluded that affective reactions could be influenced by attributions (i.e. ascribing credit and value), task importance and outcomes (J. H. McMillan & Spratt, 1983). Moreover, Nurmi (1991) studied 46 American undergraduates using questionnaires and found that students felt more positive achievement emotions (e.g. happiness/pride) after they credited a successful achievement to their effort and/or ability, rather than to the influence of others. They also reported that more dysfunctional achievement emotions (i.e. emotions that interfere or inhibit achievement/learning), such as shame and/or guilt, were experienced when they attributed achievement failure to a lack of effort, suggesting a very personal and self-judging role of achievement emotions in a rather socially-exposed domain.

Reinhard Pekrun's research has played an influential role in furthering our understanding of achievement emotions. For example, in one experimental study (N =153), high school students were given either self-focused, normative or no feedback, following a test. Students' achievement goals and emotions relating to the test were assessed using the Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (AEQ) (Pekrun et al., 2011). It was found that self-focused feedback led to more mastery-orientated goals and feedback condition predicted achievement emotions after the test, with achievement goals mediating this relation.

Likewise, Pekrun and his colleagues' subsequent and prior research (Pekrun, 2000; Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun, Elliot, & Maier, 2006; Pekrun et al., 2009; Pekrun & Stephens, 2010) also suggest that achievement goals (e.g. approach vs avoidance within a task, to learn 'for learning's sake' and/or to obtain an outcome) correlate with academic achievement and achievement emotions. However, from a critical perspective, beyond Pekrun's own work, mixed results have been found. For example, some studies have

demonstrated that performance-goals are positively correlated (albeit weakly) with negative achievement emotions (Chen, Gully, Whiteman, & Kilcullen, 2000; Harackiewicz, Barron, Pintrich, Elliot, & Thrash, 2002), yet other research also indicates no significant association with negative achievement emotions (Urdu, Pajares, & Lapin, 1997). Helpfully, Huang (2011) carried out a meta-analysis of the research evidence, in order to understand whether specific achievement goals are correlated with achievement emotions and in order to further explain why such diverse findings were being presented. Huang (2011) analysed 93 studies and found that some specific goals can strengthen positive achievement emotions or weaken negative ones. A meaningful association was found between achievement goals and emotions, in addition to the collated conclusion that mastery goals are beneficial and moderately associated with achievement emotions. Many of the studies analysed used college students as participants and results should be taken in light of this generalisation limitation. However, from this meta-analysis an overview of the research into achievement emotions can be accessed and current gaps in the literature helpfully identified. For instance, the majority of papers analysed (55) focused on the achievement emotion of anxiety, with much research looking at a range of achievement emotions collectively, therefore making it hard to fully understand the effects and/or impact of each achievement emotion in isolation. In order to begin to ameliorate the current ambiguity surrounding specific achievement emotions, this review will focus on one achievement emotion in particular: shame.

1.3 Shame

Shame plays a fundamental role in educational contexts. It is often described as an affective outcome when an individual feels that their 'self' has not met a desired and attainable goal and/or has been acting/thinking inadequately (Shane, 1980). In educational contexts students are in a position whereby they are aware of their weaknesses. They need to learn and develop skills, attributes and knowledge that they do not yet have and that they

are capable of developing. It could be viewed that, by acquiring these attributes, the self is becoming complete and a more 'ideal-self' is reached. Shame, therefore, is easily felt because for some individuals and within some educational environments, understanding and mastery may not always come easily or quickly (i.e. in comparison to others). Schools can be pressurised environments, for both staff and students. The need to produce respectable outcomes and achieve is high. It is not difficult to speculate that students may generally be more willing to share answers (i.e. outcomes) with others, but less likely to want to expose their possible 'inadequate self' by sharing their questions. If this is the case, shame could be seen as representing a barrier not only to open, social and authentic learning in educational contexts, but also to self-fulfilment. This is a fundamental concern for children and young people (and their future selves).

As previously highlighted, research suggests there is a vast range of achievement emotions, some of which have deleterious effects (Hareli & Weiner, 2002; Lichtenfeld & Stupnisky, 2012; Stoeber, Kobori, & Tanno, 2013; Storek & Furnham, 2013; Weiner et al., 1979). Yet, and specifically in the field of educational psychology, there is very little empirical backing for their importance and implications for children and young people. Moreover, empirical research focusing on shame is currently scarce. Shame has been described as an emotion that produces strong feelings of inferiority, exposure and a reduction of self-worth and importance (H. B. Lewis, 1971; Mills, 2005; Tangney & Dearing, 2004). It is considered an involuntary emotion which is often difficult to control (Gilbert, 1998a). As previously outlined, shame can be felt when personal standards are not met. Further antecedents to shame include low self-esteem, a loss of positive affect, making external attributions and experiencing failure (Gilbert, 1998a; Keltner & Buswell, 1996; Tracy & Robins, 2006). From a phenomenological perspective (i.e. how does shame feel?), shame can lead an individual to feel rejected, detached, and exposed (Gilbert, 1998a; H. B. Lewis, 1971; M. Lewis, 2000).

The need to consider the role of shame in educational contexts is important for at least three reasons: firstly, shame plays a fundamental part in the development of the healthy self (Shreve & Kunkel, 1991). One of the biggest consequences of shame for adolescents is suicide (Shreve & Kunkel, 1991). Furthermore, as adolescents struggle with pubertal and cognitive changes, their likelihood to experience shame also increases (Reimer, 1996). Given that young people spend a large part of their adolescence in schools, this is clearly a second fundamental reason to consider shame in educational contexts. Finally, theory and research into shame-proneness (i.e. how likely an individual is to experience shame following a possible trigger) indicates that higher levels of susceptibility can lead to the development of significant problems in later life such as: depression, social anxiety, anorexia and even immune-related health difficulties (Mills, 2005).

From the literature explored above, it is clear that shame has been associated with negative and potentially harmful behaviours and outcomes, especially for young people. The following literature review aims to further explore this important emotion by investigating shame specifically within the context of education. It is anticipated that this could provide helpful and important indicators for educators and other professionals, to better understand how to intervene to help children and young people attain and maintain wellbeing and success.

1.4 Methodology

The systematic literature search took place through two main databases: PsycINFO via EBSCO host and Web Of Science (WOS), between November 2014 and January 2015 and aimed to answer the following question: ‘What are the implications of shame in an educational context?’ In order to capture all of the studies relating to shame in an educational context, the thesaurus function of the database was utilised, where available. The search terms included a range of words relating to learning, education and academic

achievement to capture papers specifically related to this area of interest. These were combined with OR and then further combined with the term 'shame' using the AND function. For a full description of the search strategy and terms used, please refer to appendix A.

Only studies which were peer-reviewed (i.e. dissertations were excluded), written in English and used a human population were kept. The titles and abstracts of the remaining articles were then reviewed. A deeper scrutiny of the remaining full texts then took place. Articles were excluded based on three criteria: (1) shame not central to research, (2) shame not linked to educational/learning contexts and (3) an opinion based paper not providing empirical data. From this systematic search 12 publications in journals were retrieved (Ahmed & Braithwaite, 2012; Albu, 2014; Assor & Tal, 2012; Belsky & Domitrovich, 1997; Bibby, 2002; Cavalera & Pepe, 2014; De Hoyos & Ramirez, 2007; Johnson, 2012; Sargin, 2010; Thompson, Altman, & Davidson, 2004; Turner & Husman, 2008; Turner & Schallert, 2001), as represented in figure 1 below. For a summary table of the final papers utilised in this review, please refer to appendix B.

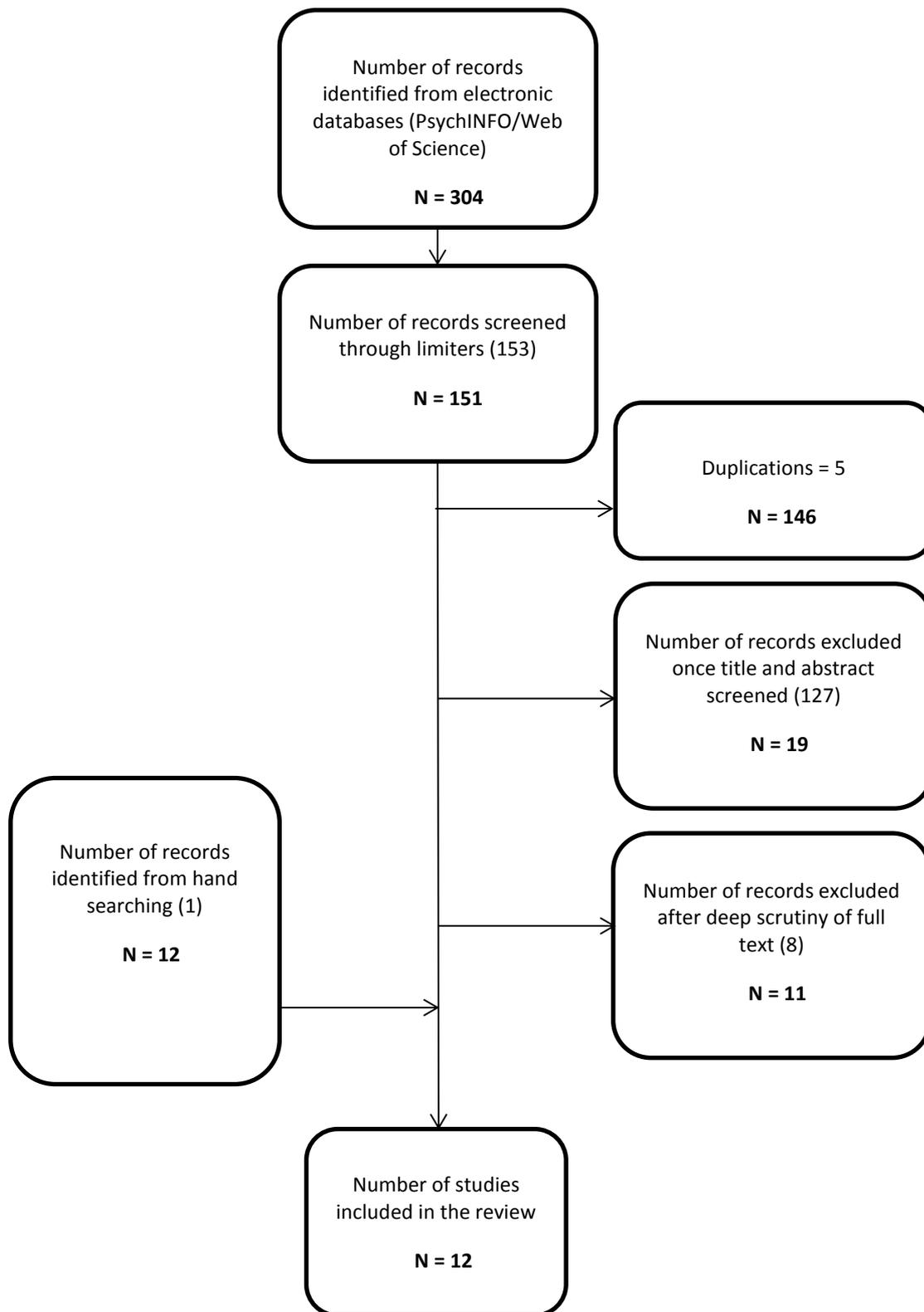


Figure 1. Flowchart showing stages of systematic literature review

1.5 Shame in an educational context

In summary, the studies found differed in sample sizes and ranged from the inclusion of 7 (Bibby, 2002) to 664 (Johnson, 2012) participants. Six studies used undergraduate participants (Cavalera & Pepe, 2014; De Hoyos & Ramirez, 2007; Johnson, 2012; Thompson, Altmann, & Davidson, 2004; Turner & Husman, 2008; Turner & Schallert, 2001), three used school-age students between the ages of 9 and 18 years old (Ahmed & Braithwaite, 2012; Assor & Tal, 2012; Sargin, 2010), one study looked into the early years whereby participants were 36-37 months old and their parents (Belsky & Domitrovich, 1997), and two studies used teachers (Albu, 2014; Bibby, 2002). Two studies were based on a United Kingdom (UK) sample with the rest studying participants from America and Turkey. From this search, three main categories of research focus were identified: (i) the dysfunctional vs functional effects of shame, (ii) parental influences on shame experiences, and finally, (iii) shame management within school-based bullying. Each theme will now be explored separately and the strengths and limitations of the research will be discussed.

1.6 The ‘dysfunctional’ vs ‘functional’ effects of shame

A large number of papers in this review looked at the impact of shame on achievement-related goals and outcomes as well as cognitive performance (Albu, 2014; Bibby, 2002; Cavalera & Pepe, 2014; Johnson, 2012; Thompson et al., 2004; Turner & Husman, 2008; Turner & Schallert, 2001). Most studies found harmful or negative effects of shame experiences. However, some research findings highlighted a more functional role of shame in educational contexts. A chronological exploration of these studies will now be presented for this identified category of research outcomes.

In the current achievement emotions literature, it has been suggested that students’ perceptions of their academic ability (i.e. how *certain* they are that they can do something) and how important that particular ability is to them, are significant, and can contribute to

how much worth an individual attributes to their self (Pekrun et al., 2006). This certainty is developed by gathering and judging evidence (i.e. the amount of evidence and whether or not it is consistent) used to make self-judgements. This is known as 'expectancy-related' judgements. Furthermore, the level of importance an individual places on an *ability* represents the emotional investment or 'value' in that ability (Pelham, 1991; as cited in Turner & Schallert, 2001). Turner and Schallert (2001) investigated expectancy-value predictors for experiencing shame following exam feedback, as well as the possible consequences of these shame responses. Eighty four upper-division undergraduate psychopharmacology students completed a baseline questionnaire on their first day of their course beginning. These measures assessed student characteristics, including: perceptions of academic ability and motivational predispositions, as well as ascertaining the participants' future academic goals. At a seven week follow up, students were then asked to complete questionnaires assessing their emotional reactions having just received exam feedback. Pelham and Swann's Academic Ability subscale of the Self-Attributes Questionnaire (SAQ) was used to assess the expectancy dimensions of academic ability (Pelham & Swann, 1989). The Motivation Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) (Pintrich, 1991) was utilised to assess expectancy-value related motivation for the course. Students were also asked their views on how useful and important the course acted towards pursuing their future career or academic goals, as well as the importance of their lecturer's opinion of them. This information was gathered via a 7 point Likert rating scale ranging from *quite unimportant* to *very important*. Participants were also asked to indicate their grade goals, as well as how much study time they had invested into preparing for the exam. Finally, experiences of shame were reliably measured (*Cronbach's alpha* =.86) using the Experiential Shame Scale (ESS) (Turner, 1998), a self-report measure containing 10 items across three reaction domains; physical, emotional and social (Andrews & Hunter, 1997).

It was found that baseline measures (student ratings) in expectancy-value variables were fairly high. In addition, the expectancy component was significantly related to shame reactions following the exam feedback. When the value-related motivation variables were added into the regression equation, a significant multiple regression was found. Finally, the instrumentality variables (i.e. how useful students rated the course) were entered into the regression equation, but it was found that these did not significantly add to the prediction of shame following exam feedback.

As an extension to this study, the researchers divided students who indicated a high shame score, into two subsequent groups: 'resilient' (those who were able to increase subsequent exam grades by eight points or more, $N = 14$) and 'non-resilient' (students whose additional exam scores did not increase, $N = 10$). However, only eight of these students had completed baseline measures and so participant numbers fell at this point, making generalisation of these results difficult. Due to these small numbers, t tests were used to explore group differences with regards to expectancy, value and instrumentality-related motivation variables, as assessed during the baseline. It was found that the high-shame resilient group rated themselves as more extrinsically motivated and valued coursework more highly compared to the high-shame non-resilient group. Further pertinent findings were that the resilient group were able to use their desire for higher grades to maintain motivated behaviours and reported that they had invested more effort into studying for the additional exams, compared to the non-resilient group members. Furthermore, the high-shame resilient group's final exam scores were significantly higher, compared to the high-shame non-resilient group. These findings suggest that having important future goals appeared to impact on whether a student, who had experienced shame, showed resilience in the form of increased motivated behaviour and/or higher academic scores, suggesting a somewhat positive or more functional effect of shame in an academic situation.

In summary, this research indicates that if students believe they are able and are committed to an important future goal (of which the course plays a vital role in reaching), then a shame reaction may helpfully signal to the student that learning strategies and/or their actions need to be adapted in order to progress (i.e. a functional role). This is interesting given that the wider shame-based literature (i.e. beyond educational contexts), suggests shame has a dysfunctional role and/or impact (e.g. depression). This research in particular has many strengths including the use of the ESS, which measures real-time shame reactions in a non-intrusive way. Favourably, this study is also based upon actual authentic emotional reactions, not just indirect or imagined emotional scenarios. However, the claims made by Turner and Schallert (2001) are bold, given that their study only looked at one sample of students attending one type of course (i.e. one academic context) and so generalising these results is, at this stage, difficult. Furthermore, given that participants volunteered to take part in the research, following an invitation, it is likely that there is a degree of self-selection bias. Therefore, the sample may not be representative of the population studied and findings may be exaggerated. In addition, confounding variables (e.g. gender and backgrounds) were not considered in this research and should not be overlooked.

A similar finding, that shame can act as a constructive force within an educational context, was also reported by Bibby (2002). In this study, Bibby (2002) extended the concept by highlighting the possible *difficulty* of a shame reaction leading to more functional thinking and/or actions. In her research, Bibby (2002) explored primary school teachers' opinions of shame, as a response to understanding and applying mathematics in their role as educators. She suggested that the product-focused nature of this subject provides peak opportunities for experiencing shame. This is largely due to the nature of mathematics, in which it can be experienced as a rather fixed and unquestionable subject, whereby opinions do not count and learners are driven by accuracy and closed questions.

This 'subject performance' then leads to mathematics being felt as a competitive and judgemental topic, both in a social and self-reflective manner (Bibby, 2002).

This was a small-scale qualitative study, which drew conclusions from the views, perspectives and opinions of seven self-selected inner-city teachers. Each participant took part in five to seven in-depth semi-structured interviews, which were transcribed and analysed using ethnographic and grounded theory analysis methods to investigate the teachers' personal and professional relationship with mathematics (Bibby, 2002). The interviews explored a range of areas including: personal histories with mathematics, the experience of doing mathematics in adulthood, teaching mathematics and understanding children's development of the subject. The participants also took part in mathematical challenges in front of the interviewer and were asked to reflect on this experience. It should be noted that one participant refused to take part in this element of the study, which is perhaps suggestive of a shame reaction leading to avoidant behaviour.

Bibby's (2002) research emphasises the possible dual role shame can take. The majority of participants reported a fear of being judged (and their abilities exposed) against set standards when teaching mathematics. This was reported to manifest itself as self-doubt and a fear of criticism from others thus reinforcing both the social and self-evaluative nature of shame, as explored previously. Overall, four major themes emerged from the data: exposure to judgement, the need to be right, the vulnerability associated with mathematical performance and turmoil. In summary, mathematics (and the teaching of this subject) was found to induce feelings of shame due to the interactions between several factors: the confidence an individual feels with whether or not their answer is right; a fear of using 'bad'[mathematical] methods that are not approved by others and finally, the notion that mathematics is the use of smart and effective strategies and whether or not an individual's mathematical performance would live up to these expectations (Bibby, 2002). The reactive and initial coping strategies employed by the teachers, when experiencing

shame, tended to be dysfunctional in nature (e.g. self-criticism and avoidance). However, Bibby (2002) also found that the shame experience could be viewed as positive because the overbearing feeling of shame and the need to repair social bonds can sometimes act as a motivational force to inspire positive action. That is to say, some of the teachers reported feeling personally inadequate when it came to mathematics, and from this wanting to ameliorate these traits through, for example, further training.

Further evidence that suggests shame may have a dual-role comes from research carried out by Thompson et al. (2004). They studied the relationship between shame-proneness and achievement behaviour, using 72 undergraduate students. To do this they utilised *The Test Of Self-Conscious Affect (TOSCA)* (Tangney, Wagner, & Gramzow, 1989) to indicate how prone to shame an individual was. Participants were selected from a wider sample of 319 students who completed the TOSCA correctly. These participants were then rank-ordered according to their ‘shame-based’ scores. The top and bottom third of participants in the distribution of scores were deemed eligible for participation. From this, 36 participants were classified as ‘high shame-prone’ and 36 were ‘low shame-prone’. Participants were then asked to carry out a cognitive task, which had been manipulated by the researchers, so that participants experienced either failure or success. Participants then completed the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) (Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970), and the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Watson & Clark, 1999) and finished by completing a predetermined pattern drawing task. The main findings from this study were that students who experienced success and were categorised as high shame-prone spent less time on the final drawing task, compared to low shame-prone students. Furthermore, students who experienced failure and were deemed to be high shame-prone spent less time practising and attempted fewer drawing tasks, compared to low shame-prone students. This may be because of the type of failure induced by the researchers. In a ‘face-saving failure’ condition, high shame-prone participants performed badly relative to

low shame-prone participants unlike in the ‘humiliating-failure’ condition, whereby these two participant groups performance did not differ. However, these results were only at a low significance level ($p=0.053$), so it is difficult to generalise this finding more broadly at this stage. In their findings, low shame-prone students were much more likely to want to ameliorate their failure, compared to high shame-prone students who did not appear to demonstrate or experience the potentially functional benefit of a shame reaction. This research highlights the interesting point that shame can potentially be experienced at different levels, which is inkeeping with the complexity and multi-layered constructs of emotions as previously explored.

In addition, Thompson et al. (2004) also found that high shame-prone students reported higher anxiety and greater dysfunctional affect regardless of experimental condition, compared to low shame-prone students. Therefore, the researchers concluded that shame can be associated with avoidant (i.e. dysfunctional) patterns of behaviour and that reactions following the experience of a high level of shame can be extremely harmful, particularly in an educational context (i.e. feeling incompetent and appraising the academic self as worthless). The research base so far appears to be lacking strong generalisability, which makes understanding whether or not shame is dysfunctional or functional, difficult. Studies have largely been small-scale and based on undergraduate samples.

Continuing, there is very little evidence that currently investigates the relationship or association between cultural differences and shame reactions in educational contexts and none, to the author’s knowledge, that explores this construct within the UK. Within this review’s focus, only one American-based study was found to raise awareness and understanding around an individual’s identified culture and shame, within educational contexts (De Hoyos & Ramirez, 2007). De Hoyos and Ramirez (2007), examined the relationship between shame traits and acculturation status (i.e. the process by which members of one cultural group take on the attitudes and behaviours of another group)

within a sample of Chicano college students. According to Gonzalez (2013), education can impact acculturation status because educational contexts serve both a learning purpose (i.e. acquiring knowledge and new skills) but also play an influential social role for students (i.e. promoting social conformity), given the public nature education has (De Hoyos & Ramirez, 2007; Gonzalez, 2013).

Convenience sampling was used to recruit 90 undergraduate social work students. A survey questionnaire was then administered containing two measures: the Acculturation Scale for Mexican-American populations [ARSMAI-I] (Cuellar, Arnold, & Maldonado, 1995) and the Internalised Shame Scale [ISS] (Cook, 1994). The ARSMA-II contains Likert scale ratings (ranging from *all of the time* to *none at all*, as well as *very important* to *not at all important*), to ascertain Anglo orientation and/or Mexican orientation. The ISS consists of 24 shame items and six self-esteem items and captures the occurrence of feelings associated with shame (Cook, 1994).

It was found that, overall, participants' shame traits did not impact upon their orientations to either Mexican or Anglo cultures, suggesting that shame experiences may be independent of acculturation status (De Hoyos & Ramirez, 2007). It may also be that the very culture of this particular cohort of participants may influence their reporting of shame and therefore, perhaps, shame experiences needed to be captured in a more authentic and objective manner, in order to understand the implications of shame within different cultures or cultural transitions. However, it is hard to ascertain whether this claim is justified, given the current dearth of evidence in the existing literature.

De Hoyos and Ramirez (2007) also imply that adapting the educational environment to enable students to openly discuss shame-inducing situations may aid students to adapt to shame issues (i.e. feelings of self-doubt) that could be linked to learning. In agreement with previous studies, this would also suggest a functional role of shame. That is to say that

by not perpetuating dysfunctional shame within an educational context, environmental changes (e.g. group discussion) could enable more open and positive experiences of shame. They also conclude that, although shame traits were not strongly related to the Chicano students' acculturation, six out of the 24 shame traits could be (e.g. feelings of insecurity, comparison of self to others and loss of control), and this should not be ignored. Furthermore, it was found that students who were more aware of their ethnic background had lower shame scores. Critically speaking, however, convenience sampling, as employed by De Hoyos and Ramirez (2007) meant that the research sample consisted mainly of female participants, which threatens the study's validity, especially given the understanding the literature provides around the potential gender differences, as will be explored later in this review.

Adding to the empirical support for shame as a 'dual-role' emotion, research conducted by Turner and Husman (2008) had 106 psychopharmacology students complete questionnaires after receiving (authentic) exam feedback on two separate occasions. The ESS was utilised to measure shame reactions in participants. It was reported that 25 students highlighted that they had experienced shame after gaining their exam feedback in the first instance (exam 1). After gaining feedback on a subsequent exam (exam 2), students who reported experiencing shame after exam 1 were placed into one of three categories: those who achieved a higher score on exam 2 and did not experience shame, those who achieved a very similar score on exam 2 compared to exam 1 but did not feel shame, and, finally, those who achieved an almost identical second exam score and experienced shame a second time. Two weeks prior to a final exam, eight students participated in a semi structured interview, whereby they were able to reveal their emotional and motivational experiences, as well as their study strategies implemented throughout the semester.

Grounded-theory data analysis was implemented and this led to the construction of a model of dynamical systems perspective of students' characteristics, emotions, and goal-striving regulation. Although it is not within the scope of this review to analyse this model in-depth, the main findings were that 'ongoing conditions' (i.e. unique knowledge, goals, values and appraisals the student brings to a course) and 'cognitive dissonance' (i.e. the difference between perceived effort [high] in preparing for an exam and the end grade [low]) all influenced these student's propensity to experience achievement emotions following performance feedback (i.e. shame).

Overall, Turner & Husman's research highlights that shame, although immediately experienced as an uncomfortable and perhaps damning emotion, could potentially lead to more functional self-regulatory behaviour, depending on students' subsequent appraisals and/or historical and continuous factors (e.g. prior academic success). In a similar way to the broader literature around achievement emotions (Pekrun, 1992, 2000; Pekrun et al., 2006, 2009; Pekrun, Goetz, Titz, & Perry, 2002), this empirical research implies that future goals influence the intensity of students' perceived failure and experienced shame. This may subsequently facilitate more efficient cognitions and behaviours. A strength of this research is the qualitative component, which provides additional depth and detail of participants' experiences. However, very few participants took part in this part of the study so it is less easy to generalise findings and make appropriate systemic comparisons. Perhaps it may have been useful to have recruited more participants as well as gather further data from observations (e.g. of student study strategies and emotional experiences), in order to gather more robust and objective data.

Sargin (2010) explored the relationship between adolescent depression and feelings of shame and guilt, with a focus on gender, age, school performance and education levels, and only discovered the detrimental effects of shame. In this particular study, Sargin used two secondary schools in Turkey. 187 students with ages ranging from 14 to 17 years were

studied, with 52.9% male and 47.1% female participants. Students were asked to complete the Guilt-Shame Scale (Sahin, 1992). This is a 24-item measure using a five point Likert scale and with an alpha value for reliability of 0.81 for Guilt, and 0.80 for Shame.

Participants also completed the Beck's Depression Inventory (BDI; Beck (1967)). This is a self-report measure consisting of 21 categories of symptoms (e.g. hopelessness), within which each has four sub-items and is commonly used to assess the severity of depression.

A significant difference between gender and each of the three variables (depression, guilt and shame) was found. Of particular interest to this review is the significant finding that feelings of shame were found to be more prevalent among girls compared to boys ($t = -3.74, p < .01$). Sargin's (2010) results also demonstrate that depression levels significantly increased with age. Age, on the other hand, was not found to be a significant variable for shame. In terms of an educational focus, no significant relationship was found between academic achievement levels and participants' reported depression, guilt and shame levels. It could be said that developmental characteristics of adolescence (e.g. dealing with a range of emotions at once) may have been a factor influencing these results. However, a significant finding was reported for the impact of maternal education levels on participants reported feelings of shame. That is to say, shame levels were higher for those participants whose mothers had a primary school education only, compared to those whose mother had achieved a secondary or further education qualification. This suggests that, for this particular participant sample, their shame levels increased as their mother's level of education decreased. Interestingly, the education level of participants' fathers was not demonstrated to be significant (Sargin, 2010). Overall, this research highlights that there may be protective and risk factors associated with shame experiences, yet this conclusion cannot necessarily be generalised to the adolescent population in the UK. For instance, although the sample consisted of low, middle and high-income groups, the majority of participants (65%) were considered to be in the middle-income group, and this majority

should not be overlooked when interpreting findings. In addition, it should be noted that these researchers did not gather measures that would allow measurement of functional use of shame and so a full understanding of the role of shame in education cannot be inferred.

Correspondingly, research carried out by Johnson (2012) also only suggested dysfunctional effects of shame. This was a large-scale study (N = 664) investigating the relations between students' feelings of shame, sense of community within an educational context (university), levels of burnout (i.e. long-term exhaustion and/or a reduced interest in work), achievement goals, ways of managing shame and academic achievement. Undergraduate students ($M_{\text{age}} = 19.9$ years old) completed a self-report survey. The measures carried out by participants included: the Other as Shamer Scale [OAS] (Goss, Gilbert, & Allan, 1994), the College Sense of Community Scale [CSCS] (D. W. McMillan & Chavis, 1986), the School Burnout Inventory [SBI] (Salmela-Aro, Kiuru, Leskinen, & Nurmi, 2009), the Achievement Goal Questionnaire-Revised [AGQ-R] (Elliot & Murayama, 2008), the Compass of Shame Scale [CSS] (Elison, Lennon, & Pulos, 2006), as well as standard demographic information (Johnson, 2012).

Johnson (2012) found no significant associations between reported socio-economic class, performance-avoidance goals and shame. Feelings of shame varied negatively with sense of community. Furthermore, reported burnout (i.e. long-term exhaustion) increased when reported levels of shame also increased. Shame was also found to significantly negatively relate to mastery-approach (i.e. an intrinsic motivation to progress and learn in order to reach mastery), mastery-avoidance (i.e. avoid highlighting intrapersonal incompetence) and performance-approach (i.e. extrinsically motivated and outcome focused) achievement goals. Each of these variables were associated with lower levels of shame. This study also demonstrated that maladaptive ways of responding to and dealing with shame failed to protect the student and that the amount of shame reported was closely related to participants' scores on the compass of shame measure, particularly with

withdrawal and self-attack. Additionally and in line with Sargin's (2010) findings, females reported significantly more shame than males (.08, $p < .05$). However, deeper scrutiny of these results revealed that the actual correlation is very low, suggesting the generalisability of this finding beyond the utilised participant sample may be problematic, as is a recurring theme in this literature-base.

Similar results have been found in a recent study using undergraduate female students, in terms of suggesting that shame impacts negatively on the types of skills and attributes that are important for education (Cavalera & Pepe, 2014). This study looked at the relation between social emotions and cognitive performances. In particular, the impact of shame on working memory was explored (Cavalera & Pepe, 2014). Working memory is the term used to describe the part of the cognitive (memory) system that is used to temporarily store, manipulate, manage and apply information (Alloway, 2010; Alloway, Gathercole, Kirkwood, & Elliott, 2009). Our working memory operates over only a few seconds, is involved in the temporary storage and handling of information and, due to its close link with our central executive (an internal management system that controls cognitive functions), has a role in focusing our attention (Alloway, 2006). Working memory is, therefore, highly important in educational and learning contexts. As Alloway (2006) suggests, working memory plays an important and long-term role in supporting children's education over the school years and into adulthood and is used for complex skill and knowledge acquirement. Children and young people with an impeded working memory often have their learning unsettled and/or delayed and will often fail (Alloway, 2006; Alloway et al., 2009; Dehn, 2011). Given these harsh outcomes, the importance of Cavalera and Pepe's (2014) research should not be underestimated.

Cavalera and Pepe (2014) studied 60 undergraduate students who completed an initial self-report measure of shame dispositions (TOSCA; Tangney, Wagner & Gramzow, 1989) followed by a paper and pencil dual-task and a digit recall (i.e. working memory)

task. Participants were also randomly assigned to a writing disclosure task, one of which included the elucidation of shame. In this condition, participants were instructed to write about a dysfunctional experience that had happened to them, in which they felt so bad about themselves they wanted to evade, escape from or deny it. Finally, participants completed the Shame and Guilt State Scale (SGSS) (Marschall, Sanftner, & Tangney, 1994), so that levels of shame and guilt could be gathered after the students had performed the writing test (Marschall et al., 1994).

This study found that shame predicted impairment in the dual-task retest (i.e. working memory performance). Furthermore, individuals that were shown to be more ‘shame-prone’ were found to perform lower in the working memory tests compared to ‘guilt-prone’ individuals, which is in agreement with Thompson et al. (2004), who also suggested that shame is a multi-layered and purposeful emotion. On the one hand however, there are limitations to this study that should be considered when synthesising these results critically. Firstly, this research draws from a convenience sample of undergraduate female-only students, therefore reducing its generalisability to other populations. Secondly, the results rely heavily on the participant’s ability to access personal experiences and write about these accurately. Taken together however, these findings do begin to suggest that shame can play a hugely interfering role on this particular cognitive function, and this should not be overlooked.

Furthermore, the theme that shame may be purely a dysfunctional emotion in educational contexts is further raised by Albu (2014) in another recent study which looked into teacher perceptions of the functions of shame (rather than the actual functions of shame). This researcher used teacher-completed questionnaires to propose that shame can contribute to the healthy development and maintenance of a secure social environment, within an educational context. Albu (2014) studied high school teachers’ attitudes towards

shame feelings and the role of this emotion in developing and teaching younger generations in schools. Albu (2014) argues that:

Shame is a feeling that forces us to be attentive to our thoughts, words, attitudes and behaviours. [...] It encourages us to have a decent language and behaviour; it is the feeling that tells us when to stop, where we can no longer afford a certain behaviour. Shame (always) draws our attention to the fact that we are not alone in the world. (Albu, 2014, p. 84)

This suggests that a life without shame experiences and reactions might look very different and may, indeed, risk more disrespect and primitiveness.

In this particular study, 100 teachers completed a questionnaire-survey containing three items with pre-coded response options. Albu (2014) found that 40% of respondents consider shame to have a censoring role in individual behaviour, 20% felt shame aids the adaption of behaviour to social environments, whilst 18% reported that shame can change the healthy development of personality in relation to interpersonal relations. Interestingly, 20% of respondents considered shame to be a necessity to perform as a good teacher, and 9% consider shame to play a role in instigating a teacher's authority. Overall, Albu's findings suggest that some teachers view shame as an obstacle, potentially blocking students from reaching their full potential in school, yet a fifth of teachers also viewed shame as a necessary emotion, fundamental to efficient functioning within a school environment. From this research, it can be inferred that shame may indeed play a dual-role: both an uncomfortable part of teaching and learning but also a more functional role, by which it tends to encourage constructive and cooperative behaviours. Albu (2014) suggests that shame can be learned indirectly, by the civilised behaviour of the teacher, prosocial attitudes and by acknowledging and dealing with regrettable words and actions in a positive manner.

To summarise this section of the review, shame may have a dual-role and has the potential to be experienced on different levels (i.e. dysfunctional and functional) (Albu, 2014; Bibby, 2002; Thompson et al., 2004; Turner & Husman, 2008; Turner & Schallert, 2001), is suggested to negatively impact on working memory (Cavalera & Pepe, 2014) and has an important role to play in highlighting the need to change learning strategies in order to reach (important) future goals (Turner & Husman, 2008). These conclusions are significant to educators and young people but the nature of the research and data needs to be scrutinised if these conclusions are to have appropriate impact. This group of studies have a number of important limitations. Firstly, the majority of findings and therefore conclusions are drawn from undergraduate student populations, making it hard to generalise beyond this participant group. Secondly, although both qualitative and quantitative studies contribute to our understanding of shame in educational contexts, it is questionable whether the current research captures the true essence of individual shame experiences. More qualitative research is needed to further capture the detailed personal experiences of this emotion. Finally, although robust and reliable measures were used in the majority of the studies (e.g. ESS, ISS, TOSCA), the findings are largely reliant on questionnaire-based data. Data based on self-reports can be tenuous for several reasons. Firstly, participants may only report what they believe is expected of them. Secondly, they may only report what reflects them in a positive light and finally, this method relies heavily on participants' ability to accurately recall past behaviours or emotions. However, the range of research across educational contexts is a strength of the literature explored so far, all of which is beginning to heighten our understanding of the implications of shame in educational contexts.

1.7 Parental Influences on Shame Experiences

Although the majority of papers focus on shame within students, a dyad of studies have also looked closely at the impact parents can have on students' experiences of shame,

within the context of education and achievement (Assor & Tal, 2012; Belsky & Domitrovich, 1997). Assor and Tal (2012), for example, looked at Parental Conditional Positive Regard (PCPR) and its association with the promotion of academic achievement and maladaptive self feelings and coping in adolescents. In this study, PCPR refers to parents giving their children positive regard on the basis that they (the children) achieve outcomes or enact behaviours valued by the parent. Assor and Tal (2012) studied 153 fifteen to eighteen year olds, who were asked to complete a 5-point Likert scale rating-based questionnaire (*Cronbach's alpha* =.91) (Roth, Assor, Niemiec, Ryan, & Deci, 2009), created by the researchers, about parental conditional (dysfunctional and positive) regard (e.g. 'When I succeed at school my worth in my mum's eyes increases'). Only 'mother-based' regard was investigated. A range of variables were measured, for example Psychological control (of the mothers) was assessed using the eight-item Psychological Control Scale Youth Self Report (Barber, 1996).

The researchers found that PCPR was significantly associated with maladaptive self feelings and coping responses, within educational contexts. Adolescent perceptions that their mothers were demonstrating PCPR were associated with promoting shame in adolescents following failure, which led to some participants then reporting to demonstrate compulsive over-investment (e.g. intense hours spent trying to achieve). This therefore suggests that PCPR could potentially lead to an unstable sense of self within adolescents who experience this type of parental pressure, within an academic achievement driven context. This is a large-scale study with some significant results, however, this research does have limitations which should not be overlooked. For example, the findings are based only on subjective self-report by the participants, so generalisation (i.e. to wider populations within educational contexts) is difficult. In addition, the correlational nature of the study means that it is not possible to fully infer causality, at this stage. Only mothers' views were assessed and perhaps a downfall of this research, and the current literature

available, is the lack of understanding of the impact fathers may be having on student shame experiences. Finally, findings may be biased and specific because the researchers used a measure based on their own work, rather than a robust and reliable method.

The second parental-themed study was carried out by Belsky and Domitrovich (1997), who studied 110 (first born) boys between the ages of 36 and 37 months by exploring individual differences in shame reactions, their parenting antecedents and infant temperament within Early years settings (e.g. nursery). This was a longitudinal study with data having been gathered over a 27 month period. When the boys were ten months old, parents were asked to complete a questionnaire pack which included a measure of infant temperament (The Infant Behaviour Questionnaire) (Rothbart, 1986). In addition, each child was videotaped on two occasions, once with their mother and once with their father. Six experimental probes were implemented during these sessions, in order to induce positive and dysfunctional infant emotion (e.g. The Strange Situation; Ainsworth & Bell, 1970) of which the intensity of these emotions were rated by the researchers. Furthermore, naturalistic observations of parenting and family interactions within the participant's home were carried out on four occasions (i.e. when the boys were 15, 21, 27 and 33 months old). Each observation lasted approximately 90 minutes and after every fifteen minutes had lapsed, the observer completed a set of ratings based on the parents' behaviour towards the child (e.g. positive/dysfunctional affect measured through voice tone, facial expression and/or hostile behaviours).

To assess shame, the researchers visited the children on two occasions (i.e. at 36 and 37 months). The researchers had the children complete various timed games (e.g. 'beat the buzzer') that were directly described as easy or difficult and intended to evoke infant shame. To measure shame, the researchers used the guidance from Geppart (1986), which trained them to pick up on verbal, postural and facial indicators of shame. For example, little eye contact, downward mouth and covering of the face. In this Early Years study,

Belsky and Domitrovich (1997) found that shame reactions were greater in the boys after an easy task was failed, compared to the failure of a difficult task. Early temperament appeared to be unrelated to shame. In addition, parents who took a more negative approach to parenting had sons who displayed less shame. One possible explanation for this finding in particular, is the fact that this study only recruited male children, and thus gender differences may be at play. A strength of this research is the depth and quality the researchers have achieved due to the longitudinal nature of the study,; a rare finding within the found literature. Despite this, there are a number of limitations which inhibit generalisation, including: only sampling males and utilising, although naturalistic, a rather subjective measure of shame, which may have led to subjective bias and therefore unverifiable results.

1.8 Shame Management within School-Based Bullying

So far, this review has highlighted two main categories of empirical research findings, when using the current literature base to explore the question: ‘What are the implications of shame in an educational context?’, these being: the ‘dysfunctional vs functional effects of shame’ and ‘parental influences on shame experiences’. The final theme to come out of this review is the way shame can be managed and the role it plays in potentially preventing school-based bullying. According to Ahmed and Braithwaite (2012) the management of shame can play a vital role in restorative justice within educational contexts. To develop this concept, Ahmed and Braithwaite (2012) carried out a large-scale study on the development of shame management in children and how this implicates school bullying cultures. Ahmed and Braithwaite (2012) purport that shame is an emotion that can be experienced following a bullying episode. That is to say, when someone is caught or is accused of carrying out bullying (i.e. an unkind act that persistently hurts another and/or others), this individual may feel a discrepancy between their ethical identity (i.e. their thinking that they are a ‘good’ person) and their observable (unkind) actions.

Additionally, they argued that when shame is experienced in this context, it needs to be eliminated to prevent lasting damage or dysfunctional affect, which may potentially escalate the situation further (Ahmed & Braithwaite, 2012).

An interesting insight put forward by Ahmed and Braithwaite (2012), given the discussed social nature of shame, is that shame is managed in different ways by different people. For example, in a socially acceptable manner (i.e. acting out to resolve a conflict) or a less socially adaptive way (i.e. deflecting dysfunctional shame feelings onto others, in order to save the self). Ahmed and Braithwaite (2012) argue that the latter way risks making the situation worse and escalating potential interpersonal conflict. In their research they propose two components of shame management: *acknowledgement* and *displacement*. If an individual recognises and accepts that they have ‘wronged’ someone or carried out an inappropriate action and this leads to them wanting to make amends, they are within the ‘acknowledgement’ domain of shame management. On the other hand, if an individual blames others or uncontrollable environmental factors, they are said to be within the ‘displacement’ realm, which is largely associated with bullying situations.

In time 1 (T1) of their large-scale study, 32 co-educational schools were recruited, which lead to data being collected from 1,402 children, aged between 9 and 12 years (Ahmed & Braithwaite, 2012). A three year follow up was then carried out at time 2 (T2). At this stage, 335 children participated and analysis was based on this cohort. Participants were required to complete the ‘Life At School’ survey, as put together by the researchers. This enabled them to gain data on self-reported bullying status (i.e. how often they were bullied and how often they had taken part in the bullying of others). The term ‘bullying’ was operationalised by Ahmed and Braithwaite (2012) through the use of a common definition as provided by Olweus (1993). In summary the term *bullying* was said to be purposeful hurting or scaring of others weaker than themselves, either physically (i.e. kicking) or psychologically (i.e. name-calling). Based on their responses, children were

classified into different bullying status groups: bully (i.e. bullies not victims), victims (i.e. victims not bullies) and bully-victim (i.e. both victims and bullies), and a nonbully-nonvictim group, as well as residual group (i.e. those that were classified as provoking the bullying, which did not fit the constructs of bullying of interest to the researchers).

Participants completed the Management of Shame State: Shame Acknowledgement and Shame Displacement [MOSS-SASD] (Ahmed, 2001) assessment, which presents eight bullying-based scenarios to the respondent. This was completed at both T1 and T2. This measurement was created by the researchers themselves and it was reported the alpha reliability coefficients, based on the four scores that make up the shame acknowledgement scale, were .67 at T1 and .78 at T2. The alpha reliability coefficients for the shame displacement scale were reported to be .62 at T1 and .68 at T2, thus suggesting good reliability as a measure. Ahmed and Braithwaite (2012) took a two-step approach to their analysis. Firstly, they used cross-tabulation, an appropriate method given the categorical nature of the data collected, to represent the differences of bullying status at T1 to T2 and to establish trends of change over the three year period. Then, groups with different bullying pathways over the three years were compared using their mean scores on shame acknowledgement/displacement (T1 and T2), perceptions of culture tolerant to bullying (T1 and T2) and personality dispositions of shame-proneness, acting without due thought and externalisation (T1).

Overall, Ahmed and Braithwaite (2012) found that children tended to remain in the same bullying roles, over the three years studied. Personality was only found to be an important variable for the bully-victims group. However, shame acknowledgement and displacement were significant for movement between these groups in four of the construed groups. Furthermore, a culture that was tolerant to bullying was only important in two of these groups. Therefore, their research is suggesting that how shame is managed and perceived bullying-tolerance can lead children and young people into a culture of bullying

or away from it, but that this can be dependent on their experiences of bullying and/or victimization. They conclude their work by highlighting the link between restorative behaviour management (justice) and shame management, in terms of this process incorporating adaptive shame management practices not as a discrete intervention but rather as part of daily living and social skill development in schools.

This research has much strength including the large sample size, longitudinal nature, the inclusion of reliable measures and the accurate implementation of appropriate analysis. From this research, a number of conclusions can be drawn including the implications shame has for bullying behaviours in schools and the need to move towards an ethos-shift within educational settings. However, these findings need to be taken in light of the limitations of this evidence. For example, data were based solely on self-reported changes in bullying experiences, which may have led to responses being exaggerated (or understated) and subject to social desirability bias.

1.9 Summary and Conclusions

The present literature has highlighted the importance of studying shame within educational contexts. In terms of the implications of shame, there are several conclusions that can be drawn. Firstly, shame has both a dysfunctional role (e.g. interference on working memory, an antecedent for other dysfunctional emotions and a facilitator of avoidant patterns of behaviour) and a positive role (e.g. outcomes of shame leading to more functional self-regulatory behaviour and shame acting as an indicator to students to adapt learning strategies and actions) within educational contexts. As is the case with all emotions, shame has evolved to serve certain functions, for example to motivate individuals to adhere to appropriate norms or standards. Therefore, shame, might play a role in motivating students to work harder (e.g. in order to avoid painful feelings of shame that might follow from failure).

Secondly, shame experience, within educational contexts, may be independent of acculturation status, however shame levels have been found to be higher for females. Moreover, parental attitudes (i.e. regard conditional to achievement) can affect shameful experiences. It has been suggested that adapting educational environments to openly discuss shame may lead to learning benefits. In addition, shame management (i.e. acknowledgment and displacement) may have a role to play in restorative justice and bullying reduction within schools (Ahmed & Braithwaite, 2012).

The conclusions highlighted need to be taken in light of limitations of the research found, as discussed throughout. In summary, the majority of studies relied upon self-report questionnaire measures of shame, with many variations being used. This leads to the consideration of ‘shame authenticity’ and for one to question how well is the research community currently equipped to accurately measure shame? In addition, the majority of studies only recruited undergraduate student samples, within the context of higher education and with some focusing solely on one gender. With these limitations in mind, it is hard to generalise these conclusions beyond the samples used and further research into this area is paramount.

Overall, a firm conclusion that can be drawn from the current literature-base is that we are only beginning to understand the implications of shame within educational contexts. This literature search highlights the current dearth of reliable and consistent evidence around shame in educational contexts, particularly with child and adolescent populations.

1.10 Future Directions and Implications for Education

Following on from the outcomes of this review, future research should focus on widening participant samples beyond undergraduate students. In addition, given the significant implications of shame in young people (e.g. suicide), it will be vital for

researchers to study adolescent samples and in particular, vulnerable groups within this pool (e.g. children who are looked after). Furthermore, given the highlighted relationship between shame and working memory, a focus on other cognitive functions (e.g. attention and problem solving) will be beneficial. Future research should continue to attend to the possible protective/risk factors associated with shame within educational contexts (e.g. student ability-mindsets and the impact of fathers' attitudes). Finally, there are few studies that look into the implications of shame in educational contexts over time. Therefore, more longitudinal research will be vital.

Although research is currently scarce and this review may be subject to publication bias, each of the studies explored makes an important contribution to our developing understanding of shame in educational contexts. From the outcomes of this review, there are a number of implications for educational practice, in order to improve outcomes for children and young people. First, this review has highlighted the importance of achievement emotions on educational outcomes (e.g. wellbeing and academic success), which I feel is often overlooked by educational management teams. Secondly, this review promotes the importance of developing resilience in children and young people. It is this resilience that can lead to more functional shame experiences (e.g. self-regulatory behaviour and adopting effective learning strategies) and/or more positive achievement emotion experiences. Educators, including educational psychologists (EPs), should be more aware of possible shame traits and expressions within students, in order to consider when to reduce dysfunctional and facilitate functional benefits of this achievement emotion (i.e. through Emotional Literacy interventions and promotion).

Third, educators need to understand that shame may impact negatively on working memory. This should also be considered by EPs who often assess students for working memory difficulties. Perhaps a more dynamic approach to assessing working memory abilities should be taken, so as to allow for flexibility of testing and intervention, in

consideration to students achievement emotions and subsequent behaviour (i.e. interpreting test performance). Furthermore, shame has been found to be associated with avoidant behaviours. An additional implication would be to teach students to notice, understand and regulate their achievement emotions, and from this develop their motivation and efficient learning strategies that may stem from the functional nature of some shame experiences. For example, adapting learning environments so that they promote open discussions about emotions such as shame.

EPs are in a good position to be able to develop young people's positive conceptualisations and resilience around harmful achievement emotions, such as shame. For example, by supporting young people to reconsider their dysfunctional conceptualisations of achievement emotions (e.g. shame) through the use of Personal Construct Psychology (PCP) (Kelly, 1955). The basis of PCP is that our current perceptions, insights and understandings are open to question and reconsidering. This method of engagement could enable psychologists to explore the more functional benefits of shameful experiences with students, so that they are aware that change is possible and to promote more resilience and therefore functional reactions (e.g. pride).

Furthermore, and as highlighted by this review, future goals are highly relevant to this process and it may be beneficial for EPs to encourage educators to develop resources and lessons around students 'future selves' (e.g. see Baker, 2015). Another implication involves considering the role shame can play in behaviour change, particularly within the realms of restorative justice and reducing bullying. For example, teaching adaptive shame management within schools.

Finally, EPs are in a strong position to be able to contribute to the current research base and begin to fill the gaps in current knowledge around the implications of shame in educational contexts. EPs have postgraduate qualifications and therefore high level

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research skills. Additionally, they have access to a wide range of educational settings and participants, which should be capitalised on, especially as EPs strive to be evidence-based practitioners. In all, in what has previously been a neglected area, it is time for educators to shine a spotlight on the implications of shame within educational settings.

Chapter 2: Understanding Adolescent Shame and Pride in a School Context: The Impact of Perceived Academic Competence and a Growth Mindset

2.1 Introduction

Students experience and manage a range of emotions within school. Indeed, many of these emotions are categorised as ‘achievement emotions’. More generally, these emotions can be defined as the feeling(s) a student has when he or she is engaged in a learning and often outcome-driven activity (Huang, 2011). There is evidence to suggest that achievement emotions can be conceptualised and measured as state (i.e. a context-specific, momentary occurrence of an emotion) and trait (i.e. a habitual emotion linked to achievement-related activities) (Pekrun et al., 2009; Perry, 2011). Some achievement emotions are also further categorised as ‘self-conscious’ emotions (e.g. guilt, shame and pride). It is these emotions that play a key part in the monitoring of an individual’s thoughts and actions, so that they are led to behave in a morally and socially acceptable manner (Muris & Meesters, 2014; Tangney & Tracy, 2012).

In this chapter, I will explore shame and pride and discuss the impact of these self-conscious achievement emotions in educational contexts. Next, I will go on to discuss the role of these emotions in relation to intelligence mindsets, as well as students’ perceived academic competence. I will then introduce the design and findings of the current study. This research, drawing from a UK adolescent population, investigated the impact of holding a growth mindset on shame and pride experiences, and the relation perceived academic competence had to these experiences.

Achievement Emotions

Certain achievement emotions have long been an interest for theorists, researchers and applied practitioners (Cichy, Lefkowitz, Davis, & Fingerman, 2013; Dewar, Kavussanu, & Ring, 2013; Lau et al., 2014; Lichtenfeld & Stupnisky, 2012; Pekrun, 1992, 2000; Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun, Cusack, Murayama, Elliot, & Thomas, 2014; Stoeber et al., 2013; Villavicencio & Bernardo, 2013; Weiner et al., 1979). Anxiety is one example of an achievement emotion that has received large amounts of academic and applied interest, particularly within educational psychology (Daniels et al., 2008; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Huang, 2011; A. M. Ryan, Patrick, & Shim, 2005; R. M. Ryan, Connell, & Plant, 1990; Sideridis, 2008). However, there is evidence to suggest that there is a far wider range of achievement emotions that are having negative effects (Hareli & Weiner, 2002; Lichtenfeld & Stupnisky, 2012; Stoeber et al., 2013; Storek & Furnham, 2013; Weiner et al., 1979). Two important self-conscious achievement emotions are shame and pride. There has been little attention paid to the impact of these emotions in educational contexts, particularly within the adolescent age range. Due to potentially devastating effects (of both a long and short term nature), it is important to study achievement emotions of a self-conscious nature in educational settings. Shame, for example, has been associated with having an impeding influence on working memory (Cavalera & Pepe, 2014), as well as high shame-proneness leading to further dysfunctional affects such as depression (Thompson et al., 2004).

Shame

Shame is a complex and intricate emotion that serves an important role both at the social and self levels (Tangney & Dearing, 2004). Shame can be experienced and expressed internally. For example, when one makes a mistake, negative judgements on the self may be made. On the other hand, shame feelings and reactions may be expressed in

relation to others. For example, when an individual does not achieve the minimum grade, as set by national standards according to their age. Shame, therefore, may largely serve the purpose of evaluating and maintaining an ‘appropriate self,’ so as to be able to suitably function and contribute to our social environments and connections. Furthermore, shame has been described as an emotion that co-occurs with strong feelings of inferiority, exposure, a reduction of self-worth and tends to be an outcome-focused achievement reaction (Gilbert, 1997, 1998b; Mills, 2005).

According to research carried out by Tangney, Stuewig, Malouf and Youman (2013), shame can occur when an individual recognises their own negative attributes or unhelpful behaviours and is typically experienced as a painful and disruptive emotion. In order to report upon and fully understand a shame experience, key cognitive abilities (i.e. a sense of self separate from others) often need to be present (Fischer & Tangney, 1995; H. B. Lewis, 1971). Although, the experiences of shame can be reported and understood more during adolescence (i.e. because these key cognitive abilities are more established), shame is an emotion that can also be experienced during the early years. These early expressions of shame are important for successful emotional literacy development and therefore our understanding of shame as an emotion. This is often because adults have the ability to pick up on expressions of shame in babies and young children and will label this feeling, which in turn develops the child’s language, understanding and (self) experiences of this emotion (Fischer & Tangney, 1995). Taking influence from psychoanalytic self-psychology, Shreve and Kunkel (1991) suggested two critical consequences of shame in adolescents, the bigger being suicide and the other being the fundamental part the emotion plays in the development of the healthy self (i.e. being comfortable with who you are as a separate being from others). Furthermore, according to Reimer’s early review (1996), as adolescents struggle with pubertal and cognitive changes, their likelihood to experience shame also increases. Previous research into an individual’s proneness to shame indicates

that higher levels of susceptibility can lead to the development of significant problems in later life such as depression, aggression, social anxiety and even immune-related health difficulties (Mills, 2005).

Shame potentially plays a huge role in developmental psychopathological vulnerability in adolescents and can lead to severe psychological and behavioural disorders (e.g. anorexia) (Reimer, 1996). Furthermore, as suggested by Pekrun (2000), psychological maladjustment in adolescents, although clearly problematic in its own right, also significantly undermines students' learning and achievement in school, thus warranting further and immediate attention from professionals and researchers working with young people in educational contexts.

Pride

Pride, as a self-conscious achievement emotion, has often been viewed in opposition to shame (Kornilaki & Chloverakis, 2004; Tracy & Robins, 2007). Indeed, pride has consistently been conceptualised as a highly positive emotion that is felt when an individual engages in valued behaviours or presents with positive characteristics (Castonguay, Gilchrist, Mack, & Sabiston, 2013) and has been linked to creative thinking (Damian & Robins, 2012). Recent empirical findings suggest that self-focused and self-enhancing actions, such as achieving, can be a source of pride (Nakamura, 2013). Furthermore, those experiencing pride will often show distinct non-verbal expressions, which can be recognised from as early as the age of four years old. These include; a small smile, tilted head, expanded posture and arms either above the head with hands in a fist shape or placed along the hips (Tracy, Robins & Lagattuta, 2005; Tracy, Shariff, Zhao & Henrich, 2013).

Unlike shame, pride experiences tend to be more self-focused, with the experience providing positive self-evaluative information (Haidt, 2003; Kronengold, 2013). In turn,

this encourages an individual to be more inclined to carry out pro-social behaviours, such as altruism, achievement and care giving (Nakamura, 2013; Tracy & Robins, 2007). Pride has, for example, been linked to subsequent task persistence and performance (Herrald & Tomaka, 2002). It can be said that there are two main antecedents to experiencing pride. Firstly, we can feel pride when we are responsible for a particular outcome occurring and secondly, this outcome should meet or exceed normative standards as set by or adhered to by ourselves (Harris, 1989). For example, in an educational context, if a student gains a distinction grade for a piece of work, they may feel pride because of the effort they have put into their own learning (i.e. responsibility) and that they have surpassed an average grading (i.e. above normative standards).

Taken together, it is therefore important to study shame and pride in educational contexts. This is because educational settings, such as schools, pose not only academic challenges for students but also social challenges (e.g. being included and respected by peers). In addition, children and young people spend a vast amount of their time in schools, developing knowledge and skills within these areas. As a result, this exposure to new challenges (including failure) and situations can lead to shame and/or pride (Tangney & Dearing, 2004). In particular, extending knowledge and understanding of potential protective and risk factors of shame and pride is paramount, as it could lead to the development of key interventions and attitudinal changes aimed at reducing maladaptive responses (i.e. those leading to suicide in young people) and promoting adaptive achievement emotions. Educational settings see large numbers of young people in attendance every day and should, therefore, be considered key contexts in which to promote emotional well-being.

Shame, Pride and Intelligence Mindset

Given the nature of shame and pride, an important question is what students will be more likely than others to experience these self-conscious emotions in educational contexts? Theoretically, they should be students who are inclined to invest their worth as a person in their academic achievements. That is to say, students whose self-worth is contingent upon their academic achievements. These perceptions are relevant to the concept that is more familiar and widely studied in educational psychology: the degree to which students hold fixed versus growth mindsets.

Mindset theory, as developed by Carol Dweck and colleagues (Dweck, 1986, 2006; Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995) suggests that the way an individual thinks about ability and/or intelligence can actually impact on important life and academic outcomes (e.g. wellbeing and academic success). Under this theory, mindset can be understood in light of two dimensions: growth (also referred to as *incremental*) or fixed (also referred to as *entity*). A growth mindset is an established set of attitudes held by an individual that encourages seeing failure as a starting point and where the focus is on effort (i.e. the process) rather than outcome (i.e. performance) (Dweck, 2006, 2007). In contrast, those with a fixed mindset view ability as static and failure a point at which to give up. According to Dweck (2010), fostering a growth mindset can decrease or even close achievement gaps. A growth mindset, therefore, could potentially act as a shield against significantly hazardous symptoms and outcomes of shame and may facilitate more frequent experiences of pride. An individual's fixed mindset may undermine motivation (i.e. to put effort into school-work) and consequently cultivate shame within an educational (often ability focused) context (Ricci, 2013). There has been much empirical support for mindset theory within educational contexts (Dweck, 1986, 2010; Dweck et al., 1995; Faria & Fontaine, 1997; Faria, Pepi, & Alesi, 2006; Licht & Dweck, 1984; Pepi, Alesi, Pecoraro, & Faria, 2015; Pepi, Faria, & Alesi, 2006; Pepi, Faria, Alesi, & Ciochină, 2012; Storek &

Furnham, 2013; Yeager & Dweck, 2012). Research has demonstrated the impact of students' mindsets on their academic and social resilience (Dweck, 2006; Dweck et al., 1995; Yeager & Dweck, 2012), with a growth mindset leading to positive outcomes for children and young people.

Perceived Academic Competence

Environments and situations in which students are likely to face challenges and setbacks (i.e. schools) may lead to students experiencing a range of achievement emotions, including shame and pride. Closely linked to intelligence mindset (henceforth, mindset) theory is the concept of academic competence (i.e. the belief that one is capable of carrying out a task although this may not be true). High academic competence can increase motivation, whilst believing that one has low or no academic competence can undermine this motivation (Cole, Martin, Peeke, Seroczynski, & Fier, 1999). This may result in challenges being avoided and less effort being invested in tasks, similar to the characteristics typically associated with individuals who hold a fixed mindset, as previously discussed. According to research, young children (6 – 8 years) tend to have optimistic perceptions of their academic abilities (Parsons & Ruble, 1977; Pressley, Levin, Ghatala, & Ahmad, 1987), however this positivity tends to decline during early adolescence, with students often drastically underestimating their capabilities in comparison to what others (e.g. teachers) estimate their academic competence to be (Anderman, Maehr, & Midgley, 1999; Eccles, Wigfield, Harold, & Blumenfeld, 1993). In terms of gender differences, there is evidence to suggest that boys maintain higher levels of academic competence about future success, compared to girls (Cole et al., 1999; Eccles et al., 1993).

Researchers have previously investigated possible causes of perceived academic competence in children and young people (Cole et al., 1999; Dweck, Goetz, & Strauss,

1980; Eccles et al., 1993; Wagner & Phillips, 1992). Teacher feedback, approaches to parenting and social stereotypes are examples of their findings. There is no empirical evidence, to the author's knowledge, exploring the possible direct relation between mindset and perceived academic competence. However, guided by mindset theory, it would be reasonable to suggest that individuals who hold a growth mindset believe that they can increase their perceived academic competence (i.e. by implementing effective learning strategies and choosing challenge), compared to those holding a fixed mindset, who would believe more that their perceived academic competence is static. Furthermore, those holding a growth mindset tend to adopt learning goals that are based on increasing their perceived academic competence (Pepi et al., 2015).

Theories of motivation, in relation to academic engagement and achievement, have often followed the 'expectancy-value' model (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). In summary, this model is made up of three main components: firstly, students' beliefs about their own capabilities (i.e. expectancy), secondly, students' own evaluations of whether they will succeed or fail (i.e. attributions) and finally, their goal-orientation and the importance the student places on the task (i.e. value) (Pintrich & de Groot, 1990). There is empirical evidence to suggest that this system of approaching learning is directly associated with school achievement in children and young people (Obach, 2003; Relich, Debus, & walker, 1986; Schunk, 1982; 1995, Schunk & Gunn, 1986). For example, an experimental study carried out by Schunk (1982), with a sample of 40 primary school children, found that when good performance was credited to students' effort (and this was fed back to the students), participants numeracy and perceived academic competence improved

Furthermore, Obach (2003) investigated the relations between perceived academic competence and motivational beliefs for learning, using American elementary school children across three grade phases. The scholastic competence subscale from the Self-

Perception Profile for Children (Harter, 1985) was used to assess perceived academic competence. In addition, final test grades (i.e. literacy and numeracy) for each student were obtained. It was found that children who adopted mastery goals were highly involved in monitoring their academic performance and persisted in the face of challenge or failure (i.e. characteristics of a growth mindset) and perceived themselves as more able to master academic content (i.e. high academic competence levels) (Obach, 2003). They also found that attributional beliefs held by students enhanced early development of an academic self-concept (i.e. one's composite view of oneself as a learner) and played a protecting role over time. However, despite these interesting and informative findings, recent evidence focusing on shame and pride and within the critical adolescent age range, has been lacking. In all, the link, therefore, between beliefs (i.e. mindsets), achievement emotions (e.g. shame) and subsequent student actions (i.e. avoid vs take on challenges) that may impact on students' wellbeing and academic attainment, is one that must not be overlooked. Given the gaps in the current evidence-base, it is therefore the aim of this present study to begin to ameliorate this shortage of empirical knowledge and focus on these two important achievement emotions, guided by the theory of mindset.

2.2 Aims of the present study and research questions

The aim of the present study was to further understand shame and pride in an adolescent sample, within an educational context. The study focused on how these self-conscious achievement emotions may impact on young people's feelings of perceived academic competence (i.e. 'I have sufficient skills and/or knowledge') with regards to their school-work. In addition, the present study was also designed to investigate whether or not holding a growth mindset could reduce significant shameful experiences and/or promote more experiences of pride.

In order to address these areas, this study posed the following research questions:

1. Does an intelligence mindset have an impact on adolescents' experiences of shame and pride within a school context?
2. Does an intelligence mindset have an impact on adolescents' perceived academic competence with their school-work?
3. Is there a relation between adolescents' perceived academic competence with their school-work and their experiences of shame and pride, above and beyond the relation of intelligence mindset with shame and pride?

2.3 Hypotheses

I hypothesised that participants with a growth mindset may experience less frequent and less intense feelings of shame and more frequent (and intense) experiences of pride, compared to those who identify more with the fixed mindset dimension. I further hypothesised that adolescents holding a growth (compared to fixed) mindset would experience higher levels of perceived academic competence. Finally, I predicted that feelings of perceived academic competence would predict reduced shame and enhanced pride, above and beyond the relation between growth mindset with shame and pride. That is, perceived academic competence should mediate the association of growth mindset with shame and pride (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

2.4 Method

The present study made up one component of a larger research project, currently being carried out by researchers at the University of Southampton. Furthermore, it is important to note that participants carried out a range of 11 scales as part of this larger project, of which 10 were not relevant to the focus of this thesis. In addition, the online diary consisted of some additional questions, which were also not relevant to this particular study and so have not been reported.

2.5 Pilot Study

The diary questions were created by a team of four researchers at the University of Southampton. The diary consisted of five main questions, and these were written by the research team. Brief definitions of shame, pride and competence were also displayed for the participants, so that these feelings could be objectively captured (please refer to appendix C for the full diary questionnaire, as used for this study). Following this, a short pilot study was carried out, in order to establish whether or not the final diary questionnaire was suitable for the participant age-range intended (i.e. in terms of language, accessibility and presentation). The final shame, pride and competence diary questionnaire was trialled on three students (aged 13 to 14 years). [It was hoped that this pilot would be with at least 15 participants, but unfortunately, only 3 parental consents were returned within our time frame]. Participants were asked to read through and complete the diary, which, on this occasion, was presented to them in a paper format. Two researchers then held a short focus group. The participants were asked for their opinions on the diary items and definitions provided. It was found that the participants were able to read through the whole of the diary with no assistance. The participants fed back that they understood all items and what was required of them. Overall, participants were positive about the diary and felt it would be suitable for adolescents to complete on a daily basis. They liked the idea that it would be presented online, rather than on paper. As an outcome of this focus group, no changes were made to the diary questionnaire.

2.6 Participants

In this study, we took a pragmatic approach to recruitment. 500 potential participants were approached from Year groups 9, 10 and 11 from two mainstream secondary schools in the south of England. Out of these 500, we obtained parental consent (please see appendix D) and student assent (please see appendix E) for 121 participants (N = 65

[46.3%] female, N = 56 [53.7%] male) aged between 13 and 16 years old (M = 14.3 years) (please see table 1 below for exact age distribution). The sample was restricted to this age group because there is very little evidence on adolescent experiences of shame/pride and it was felt that this age range targeted this developmental phase. The sample identified as predominantly British (N = 102 [84.3%]), with nine other nationalities being represented, including Portuguese, Polish and Nigerian. Other than parental consent and young person assent, age was the only exclusion criterion.

Table 1. *Summary of Age frequencies and Percentages for Participants*

Age (years)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
13	25	20.7
14	53	43.8
15	27	22.3
16	16	13.2

2.7 Design and Measures

This study used an experiential design to investigate daily shame, pride and competence within a school setting, against a participant’s reported mindset. The key independent variable (IV) in this study was the dimension of ‘intelligence mindset’ the participants identified the most with (i.e. fixed vs growth). The primary dependent variables (DV) were measures of shame/pride (i.e. frequency and amount) and reported levels of school-work competence (henceforth, competence). The measures used in the present study can be found in the appendices and are outlined below.

Intelligence Mindset

In order to measure what mindset participants held at the time of testing, the Scale of Personal Conceptions of Intelligence (PCI: (Faria & Fontaine, 1997) was used (please refer to appendix F). The PCI consists of 26-items which refer to several features of intelligence and to its function in learning and achievement, in everyday tasks. 11 of the items

represent domains of a dynamic (i.e. growth) mindset (e.g. ‘With effort I can change my basic intelligence’). The remaining 15 items represent a static (i.e. fixed) mindset conception (e.g. ‘I have certain amount of intelligence and I can’t do much to change it’). Participants were required to express their opinion about each item on a six point agreement scale, ranging from ‘*totally agree*’ to ‘*totally disagree*’. For each dynamic item, scores were reversed and a total score calculated. The higher the score, the more inclined individuals are to hold a growth mindset. The PCI was chosen because empirical research suggests this is a much broader and precise measure of mindset (Faria & Fontaine, 1997; Faria et al., 2006; Pepi et al., 2006; Pepi et al., 2012). The PCI extends the commonly used mindset measure created by Dweck (2015), which is limited due to only being made up of 4 items. The PCI has previously been validated, with results of factor analyses highlighting the presence of two distinct factors: static and dynamic, which together explained 40% of the total variance observed (Faria & Fontaine, 1997; Faria et al., 2006). In the current study, a high level of internal consistency and reliability was found for this scale ($\alpha = .86$, $M = 4.09$, $SD = .56$).

Shame and Pride Experiences

A daily online (quantitative) diary was used to measure the participants’ experiences of shame and pride. This was created by the research team (please refer to appendix C) and presented to participants via ‘Lime Survey’ (<https://www.limesurvey.org/en/>): an open-sourced software application for surveys. Please also refer to appendix G for an example of the online diary format, as presented to participants. A structured diary method was chosen because this ultimately allowed for the collection of important self-reported information on emotion experiences close to the time they occurred. A diary method also allowed for an aggregation of responses, increasing the validity and reliability of the measure. Furthermore, presenting the questions online was felt to be more appealing and accessible to the chosen age participant age group, which meant completion was quick, thus

encouraging regular responses. It also resulted in data being entered immediately online and harvested via Lime Survey, reducing (data input) human error. In addition, a diary method was implemented because it was felt it would facilitate access to personal information about emotional experiences that may not have been revealed using other methods (e.g. interviews/observations).

Perceived Academic Competence

The extent to which participants felt competent with their school-work on a particular day was rated by participants on a 10-point Likert scale with the following question; ‘how competent (‘I have sufficient skills and/or knowledge’) did you feel about your school-work today?’ A rating of 1 meant participant’s felt ‘not competent at all’ and a rating of 10 meant ‘extremely competent.’ Although I could have used a structured competence scale, the Likert-rating scale was chosen for the following reasons: this is a universal method which would be easily understood by participants (with consideration to their age range), responses were easily quantifiable, it allowed for neutral responses from participants and finally, it was a quick and efficient method of data collection.

2.8 Ethical Considerations

A number of ethical considerations were taken into account prior to the study taking place. Opt-in parental and school consent followed by young-person assent was utilised. Information sheets were given out, in order for parents and participants to fully understand the study and their involvement prior to agreeing to take part (please refer to appendices D and E). A participant’s right to withdraw was made clear to them at the start of the study. In addition, due to the possibility of recalling experiences of shame having a negative effect on participants, the pride-based questions of the diary were structured as the final questions, so as to act as a mood-enhancer for participants. Furthermore, participants were given a daily online debrief after each diary was completed. Ethical approval was granted

by the University of Southampton ethic committee as well as the research governance team (please refer to appendices H and I)

2.9 Procedure

With the consent of school head teachers, the research team made contact with parents of students in Years 9 to 11, via an information sheet and consent form. Once parental consent had been established, the following procedure took place:

In part one of the present study, participants were given a pack of measures to complete. This included the PCI. Participants carried this out using pen and paper and this took place within a session run by the research team at the school for approximately 40 minutes. The measures pack was completed by the participants individually and in silence, so as not to have any external influence (e.g. peers) on their responses and so that high levels of concentration could be maintained.

In part two of the study, participants were invited to complete a short online daily diary questionnaire, for a two week period, Monday to Friday (i.e. ten school days). Participants were asked to provide tick box responses to questions about whether or not they had experienced shame and/or pride that day, and the intensity to which they experienced it. A brief definition of both shame and pride were provided for the participants, at the start of each online diary. For participants whose responses were 'no' to the shame/pride items, alternative questions were used so as to reduce participant haste when completing the diary each day (i.e. a 'no' response had the same amount of questions as a 'yes' response). Participants were able to access the online diaries via a unique Uniform Resource Locator (URL) website link via Lime Survey, which was emailed out to them on a daily basis. This link was associated with their participant identification number so that their data could be tracked along the 10 day period. If participants had not

completed the online diary measure by the evening, the research team were able to email them a reminder.

As a token of appreciation for their participation, if students completed part one of the study they received a free pen. If they then went on to complete at least 80% of the online diary, they received a £20 amazon voucher, as a thank you for their ongoing participation. A prize draw of £50 in amazon vouchers was also held at the end of the study, for all participants who completed 100% of the online diary.

2.10 Analytic Approach

In total, 121 participants completed the study. For each of the 10 days, data were downloaded from Lime Survey and placed into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Scores for the scale of PCI were then scaled for each participant. Data were then transferred into Statistical Analysis System (SAS). The diary study yielded a hierarchical data structure, with days (level 1) nested within students (level 2). The key hypotheses for this study concerned relations between growth mindset, a student-level or level-2 variable (i.e. a trait) and the following daily or level-1 variables: daily shame, daily pride, and daily perceived academic competence. Dependence among daily ratings by the same students was controlled for by estimating a random intercept for students (i.e. treating students as a random effect) (Singer, 1998).

2.11 Results

The data were checked for the assumptions of normal distribution using SPSS. For daily shame and daily pride intensity, these were found to be positively skewed. For daily perceived academic competence, this assumption was met. This does not clarify assumptions about the variables, but rather that the errors are normally distributed.

However, the regression procedures I used to analyse the data are robust enough to handle the skewness found.

Descriptive Statistics

One hundred and twenty-one students participated in the 10-day diary study. If all participants completed the diary on each day, this would yield ratings for 1210 days. However, some students did not complete the diary each day, resulting in missing data. I obtained shame ratings for 803 days and pride ratings for 802 days. In total, on 144 out of a possible 803 days participants reported having experienced shame (17.9%). In total, on 302 out of a possible 802 days participants reported having experienced pride (38%). When participants reported having experienced shame and/or pride, they were next instructed to rate the intensity of these emotions on a 1-5 scale. When participants reported not having experienced shame/pride, they were assigned an intensity rating of zero. In this way, it was possible to assign an intensity rating to each participant, including for those days in which they reported not having experienced shame/pride. This gave a more accurate estimate of the shame/pride intensity participants experienced from day to day. Descriptive statistics for shame intensity (0-5), pride intensity (0-5) and school-work competence (1-10) are reported in Table 2.

Table 2. *Descriptive Statistics of daily shame, pride and school-work competence*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Daily shame intensity	.44	1.07
Daily pride intensity	1.21	1.68
Daily perceived academic competence	6.88	1.81

2.12 Preliminary Analysis: Correlations

To initially analyse the data, I computed some correlations, in order to understand the degree of association between each measurement. The following table shows these initial findings.

Table 3. *Correlations Matrix*

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Mindset	-				
2. Perceived academic competence	.26***	-			
3. Shame intensity	-.10*	-.13***	-		
4. Pride intensity	.11**	.28***	-.01	-	
5. Gender	-.35***	-.25***	.10**	-.07*	-

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. Gender was coded 0 = male, 1 = female.

Through running these correlations it was found that holding a growth mindset and perceived academic competence were weakly positively correlated. That is to say, the more a participant identified with a growth mindset, the higher their perceived academic competence rating was. It was also found that growth mindset and shame intensity were weakly negatively correlated. That is to say, the more participants held a growth mindset, their feelings of reported shame tended to be less intense. Another key correlation was found between growth mindset and pride intensity. These were weakly positively correlated. Finally, shame and pride were uncorrelated, suggesting these emotions can be experienced concurrently. Note that these correlational analyses did not control for the dependence among daily ratings made by the same student. I addressed this issue in the hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) analyses reported below.

The next stage of my analysis procedure followed a three step approach to mediation for both shame and pride (intensity), as recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986) and extended by Hayes (2009). These steps are represented in table 4 and the findings are

reported below. I used HLM analyses, treating growth mindset as a student-level or level-2 variable. Daily shame, daily pride and daily school-work competence were treated as level-1 variables. I controlled for the dependence among daily ratings by the same students by estimating a random intercept for students (Singer, 1998).

Table 4. *The Steps Taken for Mediation Analyses*

Step	Analysis undertaken	Pathway Reference
1	Mindset to competence [mediator]	X - M
2	Mindset to shame intensity [outcome]	X - Y
3	Mindset to shame intensity controlling for perceived academic competence	X - M - Y

2.13 The Relation Between Intelligence-mindset and Shame: Mediation to Perceived Academic Competence

In the first step, I regressed daily shame intensity (the outcome variable) on growth mindset (the predictor). Results revealed a negative relation between growth mindset and daily shame intensity, $B = -0.20$, $SE = 0.09$, $t(691) = -2.32$, $p = .021$. In the second step, I regressed perceived academic competence (the mediator) on growth mindset. This analysis showed that growth mindset predicted increased perceived academic competence, $B = 0.89$, $SE = 0.22$, $t(683) = 4.13$, $p < .001$. In the final step, I regressed daily shame intensity on both growth mindset and perceived academic competence. In this analysis, perceived academic competence predicted reduced daily shame intensity, above and beyond growth mindset, $B = -.07$, $SE = .02$, $t(682) = -3.20$, $p = .001$. As illustrated by Figure 2, the positive association between growth mindset and perceived academic competence (i.e. the mediator) was statistically significant, as was the association between perceived academic competence and daily shame intensity (i.e. the outcome variable), controlling for growth mindset (i.e. the predictor). In all, perceived academic competence mediated the relation between growth mindset and daily shame intensity.

To corroborate the mediation pattern, I used the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013, model 4) to test the indirect effect (denoted as ab) of growth mindset on daily shame intensity via perceived academic competence (10,000 bootstrap samples). This analysis confirmed that the indirect effect of growth mindset on daily shame via perceived academic competence was significant (i.e. the 95% confidence interval [CI] did not include 0), $ab = -0.05$, $SE = 0.02$, 95% CI = -0.10 / -0.01. The direct effect of growth mindset on daily shame, controlling for perceived academic competence, was marginal, $B = -0.14$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(782) = -1.92$, $p = .055$, 95% CI = -0.27 / 0.003. I repeated these analyses, controlling for gender. The key indirect effect of growth mindset on daily shame via perceived academic competence remained significant when controlling for gender, $ab = -0.04$, $SE = 0.02$, 95% CI = -0.08 / -0.008.

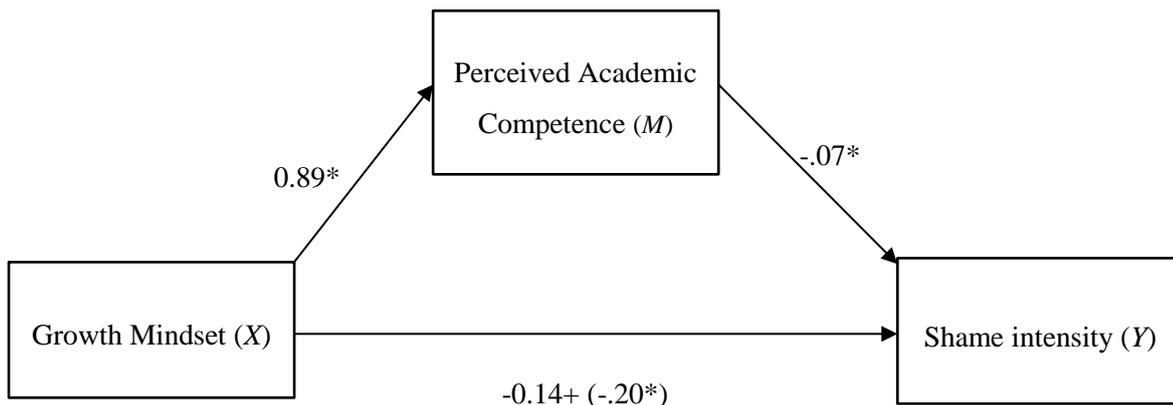


Figure 2. Mediation model predicting daily shame from growth mindset (predictor) and perceived academic competence (mediator). Path coefficients are unstandardized regression coefficients. The coefficient in parentheses represents the total relation between growth intelligence and daily shame (not controlling for perceived academic competence). + $p < .10$; * $p < .05$

2.14 The Relation Between Intelligence-mindset and Pride: Mediation to Perceived Academic Competence

A positive relation between growth mindset and daily pride intensity was found, $B = 0.37$, $SE = 0.18$, $t(690) = 2.07$, $p = .039$. This relation was also found to be mediated by perceived academic competence. That is, growth mindset predicted increased perceived

academic competence, $B = 0.89$, $SE = 0.22$, $t(683) = 4.13$, $p < .001$. In turn, perceived academic competence predicted increased daily pride intensity, above and beyond growth mindset, $B = 0.23$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(682) = 6.62$, $p < .001$. As illustrated by Figure 3, the positive association between growth mindset and perceived academic competence (i.e. the mediator) was statistically significant, as was the association between perceived academic competence and daily pride intensity (i.e. the outcome variable), controlling for growth mindset (i.e. the predictor). In all, the results for both shame and pride outcomes, met the three conditions for mediation specified by (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

To verify the mediation pattern, I again used the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013, model 4) to test the indirect effect of growth mindset on daily pride intensity via perceived academic competence (10,000 bootstrap samples). The indirect effect of growth mindset on daily pride via perceived academic competence was significant, as confirmed by this analysis (i.e. the 95% confidence interval [CI] did not include 0), $ab = 0.22$, $SE = 0.04$, 95% CI = 0.15 / 0.30. The direct effect of growth mindset on daily pride, controlling for perceived academic competence, was not significant, $B = 0.11$, $SE = 0.11$, $t(782) = -1.06$, $p = .290$, 95% CI = -0.10 / 0.32. I repeated these analyses, controlling for gender. The crucial indirect effect of growth mindset on daily pride intensity via perceived academic competence remained significant when controlling for gender, $ab = 0.17$, $SE = 0.04$, 95% CI = 0.10 / 0.27.

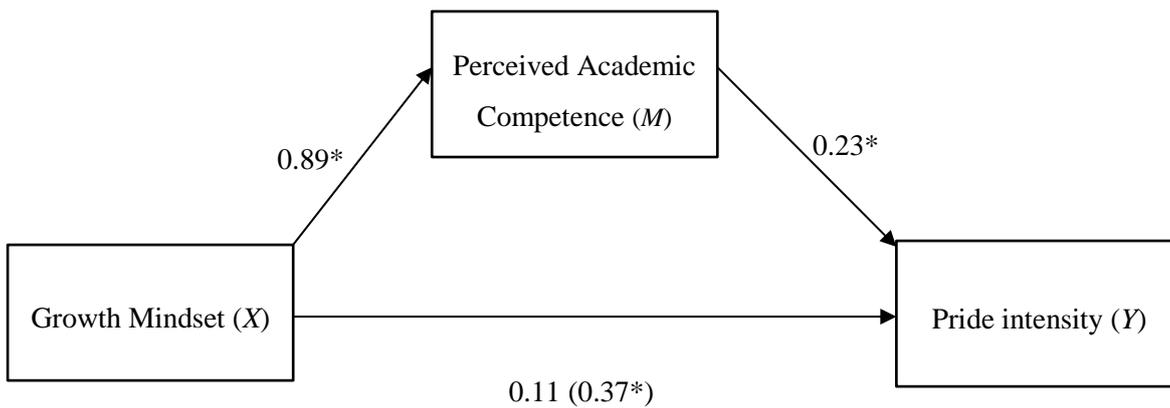


Figure 3. Mediation model predicting daily pride from growth mindset (predictor) and perceived academic competence (mediator). Path coefficients are unstandardized regression coefficients. The coefficient in parentheses represents the total relation between growth mindset and daily pride (not controlling for perceived academic competence). * $p < .05$

2.15 Examining Change Over Time

I also tested whether perceived academic competence predicted the shame intensity on the following day, above and beyond growth mindset orientation. Although results were in predicted direction (i.e. perceived academic competence on day^N predicting reduced shame on day^{N+1}), the relation was found not to be significant [$B = -0.03$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(521) = -1.15$, $p = .252$]. For pride, a similar pattern emerged. That is, perceived academic competence predicted a small numerical increase in pride intensity on day^{N+1}, but this relation was also not significant [$B = 0.02$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(520) = 0.46$, $p = .644$].

2.16 Discussion

This study used an experiential design to add to our understanding of adolescents' daily shame, pride and perceived academic competence within a school setting, against a participant's reported mindset. The findings support the current literature about the possible relation between intelligence mindsets and perceived academic competence. In summary, it was found that participants holding a growth mindset tended to experience less intense shame and more intense pride. In addition, participants' perceived competence

around their school-work mediated the relationship between holding a growth mindset and experiencing reduced shame and increased pride. For this study, three main research questions were posed. These will each be discussed below, in light of the key findings.

The first question this study proposed to answer was ‘does an intelligence mindset have an impact on adolescents’ experiences of shame and pride, within a school context?’ It was hypothesised that participants with a growth mindset would experience less frequent and less intense feelings of shame and more frequent (and intense) experiences of pride, compared to those who identify more with the fixed mindset dimension. The presented findings support this hypothesis. That is to say, that within an educational context, a significant relation between mindset dimension and the intensity of shame/pride felt was found. Specifically, a higher score on the PCI scale reflected a growth mindset and it was this mindset dimension that was significantly related to less intense experiences of shame and more intense pride experiences. This result is consistent with Dweck’s theory of mindsets (Dweck, 2006; 2010) because those fostering a growth mindset tend to be more resilient and proactive in the face of challenge or setback (i.e. potentially shame-inducing situations) and so it is appropriate to speculate that these students may report less intensity when experiencing shame. This result would suggest that holding a growth mindset may act as a protective factor against dysfunctional shame experiences. Furthermore, these results support previous research findings that suggest experiencing pride is linked to task persistence and performance (Herrald & Tomaka, 2002) which are characteristics of a growth mindset. In addition, these results would imply that participants who identified with the fixed mindset dimension, for example, when exposed to new challenge (including failure), would experience more intense feelings of shame and less intense pride.

The next question this study proposed was, ‘does an intelligence mindset have an impact on adolescents’ perceived academic competence with their school-work?’ It was hypothesised that adolescents holding a growth (compared to fixed) mindset would

experience higher levels of perceived academic competence. Indeed, a significant relation between holding a growth mindset and perceived academic competence was found. The data supports the idea that holding a growth mindset predicts higher perceived academic competence in adolescents. Previous research has found that individuals who persist in the face of challenge and put effort into monitoring and developing their own learning (i.e. hold a growth mindset) tend to perceive themselves as more academically able (Obach, 2003), which my data corroborates. Furthermore, previous research has also stated that perceived academic competence tends to decline during the adolescent period (Anderman et al., 1999; Eccles et al., 1993). Therefore, given the found relation between mindset and perceived academic competence, holding a growth mindset could potentially protect against these negative self-judgements. However, *believing* that you can increase your competence may not necessarily be the same as *experiencing* high competence. Critically speaking, although empirical methods offer many opportunities, the boundaries of this methodology may have impacted on what can be inferred from the findings. The empirical methods used may not have allowed for this distinction (i.e. between beliefs and experiences of competence) to be made.

The third question this study aimed to explore was ‘Is there a relation between adolescents’ perceived academic competence with their school- work and their experiences of shame and pride, above and beyond the relation of intelligence mindset with shame and pride?’ It was hypothesised that feelings of perceived academic competence would predict reduced shame and enhanced pride, above and beyond the relation between growth mindset with shame and pride. The results show that perceived academic competence predicted reduced daily shame intensity, as well as increased daily pride intensity. That is to say, those participants who reported perceiving their competence as high tended to also report lower levels of shame experiences and greater levels of pride experiences across the ten day period, compared to those participants who reported lower perceived academic

competence. Furthermore, perceived academic competence was found to mediate (i.e. connect indirectly) the association of growth mindset with shame and pride. Given mindset theory and previous research into shame/pride, this indirect effect is plausible. In terms of a mediational model (Baron & Kenny, 1986) these results demonstrate that perceived academic competence mediated the negative relation between growth mindset and shame. That is, a growth mindset predicted increased perceived academic competence, which in turn predicted reduced shame intensity.

With these findings in mind, it should be acknowledged that the degree to which participants shared similar definitions of shame and pride may have varied. It could be argued that some participants' understanding of these emotions may have been quite different to others. However, the construct of both shame and pride are considered to have high face-validity and there are prototypical aspects of these emotions that adolescents should be able to recognise. Keltner (1995), for example, suggests that shame has a distinct non-verbal display that can be recognised by lay people (e.g. not academic researchers). In addition, we provided the participants with a *possible* definition of both shame and pride, on which to base their responses on. Therefore it was hoped that shame and pride were suitably captured.

Critical Considerations and Limitations of the Current Study

Previous work has largely focused on the links between children's intelligence mindsets, competence and student motivation, as well as more popular achievement emotions, such as anxiety. My research has extended this by exploring two key self-conscious achievement emotions, shame and pride, within an educational context and with an adolescent sample. There has been limited research looking at this particular relation between mindset, perceived academic competence and shame/pride, and our significant results are promising. However, the results should be taken in light of the context in which

the data was collected. Although we approached 500 potential participants, we only had responses from 121 participants (largely due to a lack of completed parental consent). This may have had a bearing on the external validity and therefore generalisability of this research and my findings. It is also possible that the final sample may not have been fully representative of a typical secondary school population (i.e. the students who participated may have been those that were motivated to take part in research, more inclined to be comfortable to reflect on shame/pride and potentially more highly educated). Furthermore, participants who were more likely to experience shame, may not have wished to reflect on it daily and therefore may not have completed all 10 days of the diary. This may have meant that our chosen method lost potentially key data, which should be considered when interpreting the findings.

There may also have been environmental issues that could have confounded the results. The two schools I recruited from are both considered to be in an area of high socio-economic status (SES). Therefore experiences of shame/pride may have been different if I had sampled from different areas. Furthermore, although I included a succinct definition of shame within the daily diary, conceptions of shame may have been different across participants, depending on what meaning they inferred from the definition and from their own previous experiences of self-conscious emotions and backgrounds.

Findings should also be taken in light of a number of limitations. Firstly, the findings are reliant on self-reported data. Although this method was chosen because of its direct nature and because it would enable information to be gathered from the participants perspective in a private manner, there are a number of validity problems related with this method (i.e. participants may deceive themselves or others and give false responses). Furthermore, participants were not able to provide any additional detail to their responses, beyond the focus of this study.

A second limitation is the participant sample size. Participants were only drawn from two secondary schools and only data from 121 young people was obtained. Therefore, generalisations need to be made with caution. For example, it is unlikely that these two schools embody the diversity of UK student backgrounds and the level at which emotional literacy (including growth mindsets) is valued within the setting. A third limitation is that this study did not gather any detail of participant's shame/pride experiences. That is to say, when participants experienced these emotions, what did it look and/or feel like within an educational setting?

Finally, the type of analysis chosen should be critically considered. As the prominent aim of this research was to understand the empirical relations between mindset, perceived academic competence and feelings of shame/pride beyond correlational insights, mediation analysis was chosen. On the one hand, this type of analysis is considered an important psychological research tool (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Fiedler, Schott, & Meiser, 2011; Hayes, 2009, 2013). That is to say, this analysis enabled me to demonstrate the effect of growth mindset on shame/pride intensity, accounting for the intervening mediator variable (perceived academic competence). However, my findings should be considered within the limitations of mediation analysis. Mediation analysis can test the significance of a mediator. However, mediation analysis does not explain the sustainability of the notion that the assumed intervening variable strictly is the mediator (Fiedler et al., 2011). Therefore, the theoretical inferences based on these results need to be considered with caution.

Future Directions for Research

Taken together, this study builds on the currently limited literature around adolescent shame/pride experiences within educational contexts and raises the importance of the relation between these emotions and perceived academic competence and intelligence

mindsets. In order to continue this, and given the discussed limitations (yet easily replicable nature of this study), future research should focus on four main areas. Firstly, a mixed-methods approach (i.e. include qualitative data) should be taken, in order to supplement the self-reported data. This addition to the research approach may enable researchers to explore the antecedents and phenomenology of shame/pride experiences, within schools. In doing so, a more developed and shared understanding of what shame is, particularly for adolescents within schools, could be established. Furthermore, in light of the findings from this study, it would be beneficial to draw out more in-depth information and detail on a participant's perceived academic competence experiences and/or their beliefs, in relation to their mindset. A qualitative approach (e.g. extending the diary to have open-ended questions so that students can reflect in-depth on their experiences and feelings) may capture this information.

Secondly, a larger sample size should be obtained and participants recruited from more than two secondary schools. Third, researchers and educators should go beyond the age range I studied and, for example, consider the research questions within college and higher education settings. This may give a much broader understanding of shame across the full adolescent age range. Future research could also take a more longitudinal approach to data collection (i.e. conduct the diary data collection across more than one '10-day' time point throughout the academic year), as well as looking at the impact of mindset, perceived academic competence and shame/pride experiences on participants' academic achievements (i.e. final year grades).

Finally, future research should look at other potential causal pathways leading to shame/pride intensity (i.e. $X \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$ may not be the only mediating pathway). That is to say, there may be other genuine mediators that were not included in this particular study (e.g. academic self-concept, self-esteem etc.). This research could, for example, be strengthened by considering shame/pride's impact on perceived academic competence, a

longitudinal analysis of shame/pride intensity and the inclusion of a control mechanism and additional influential variables.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study extends previous knowledge in the field of educational psychology by demonstrating the relation between mindset, perceived academic competence and shame/pride intensity. It is the first study, to the author's knowledge, to demonstrate that perceived academic competence could have a mediating role between a growth mindset and intensity of shame/pride experiences, within an educational context. These results are consistent with the current literature around mindsets and competence. The findings extend current knowledge and understanding of the role of two critical self-conscious achievement emotions within these theoretical frameworks.

Implications for Practice

The findings of the present study have a number of implications for educational practice. Given that holding a growth mindset significantly impacts upon both perceived academic competence and experiences of shame/pride, educational settings should consider adopting practices that foster growth mindsets in students. For example, creating a risk-tolerant learning zone (i.e. celebrate mistakes, emphasise the value in challenge and learn from failure), providing feedback based on the process of learning (i.e. effort) rather than solely on the outcome and introduce students to the concept of dynamic theories of intelligence (i.e. that intelligence can grow through effort) (Dweck, 2006, 2007, 2010). This could be carried out through staff training days, systemic changes to emotional literacy promotion within classrooms, as well as small group or individualised support programmes for young people who may be experiencing high levels of shame within school. The creation of a growth mindset and academic competence focused Emotional

Literacy Support Assistant (ELSA) intervention is one example of what this might look like in practice.

In addition, a further implication would be for educators to discuss the mediating role between holding a growth mindset, perceived academic competence and feelings of shame and pride, particularly with students. However, to extend this beyond the sharing of knowledge and to impact on applied educational and psychological practice, educators should promote growth mindset practice in the classroom (as discussed above). Furthermore, it will be important for support staff and educators to implement interventions on developing a positive academic self-concept, with a focus on raising perceived academic competence and reducing shame in young people. Educational psychologists are well-positioned (given their acquired knowledge, understanding and application of psychology) to be able to support educators to implement attitudinal and environmental changes, in order to foster these positive changes within children, young people and their environment.

In addition, for researchers interested in the role of emotions in education, this study continues to highlight the important link between affect and learning. Those working in and managing educational settings should consider implementing teaching approaches and learning environments that develop a supportive, growth mindset inducing and inclusive setting. Developing an understanding of achievement emotions and their impacts, and acting proactively with this knowledge may positively impact on the outcomes of many children and young people, which is an opportunity that should not be ignored.

Appendices

Appendix A: Search Terms and Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria

Appendix B: A Summary Table of the Final Papers Utilised in This Review

Appendix C: Daily Online Diary Questionnaire

Appendix D: Parent Information Sheet and Consent Form

Appendix E: Participant Information Sheet and Assent Form

Appendix F: The Scale of Personal Conceptions of Intelligence

Appendix G: Example of Lime Survey Daily Online Diary

Appendix H: Research Ethics Committee Approval

Appendix I: Research Governance Approval

Appendix A

Search Terms and Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria

The following table represents the search strategy and terms used within each database between November 2014 and January 2015. The search terms included a list of specific keywords generated by the authors of key articles, and related keywords generated using the thesaurus from each database.

Table A5. *Search Strategy for the Systematic Literature Review*

<p>PsycINFO</p> <p><i>Achieve* OR Achievement OR Achievement Motivation OR Achievement Potential OR Academic achievement OR Educational attainment OR Educational attainment level OR Learn* OR Learning ability OR Learning strategies OR Learning rate</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;">AND</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Shame</i></p>	<p>Web of Science</p> <p><i>Achieve* OR Achievement OR Achievement Motivation OR Achievement Potential OR Academic achievement OR Educational attainment OR Educational attainment level OR Learn* OR Learning ability OR Learning strategies OR Learning rate</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;">AND</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Shame</i></p>
<p>Limiters Applied</p> <p><i>English</i></p> <p><i>Exclude Dissertations</i></p> <p><i>Peer reviewed</i></p> <p><i>Human population</i></p> <p>N=47</p>	<p>Limiters Applied</p> <p><i>English</i></p> <p><i>Exclude Dissertations</i></p> <p>N = 104</p>
Combined (151) and then excluded by:	
Duplications	5
Book chapters without original research	10
Not relevant to the aims of this literature review (i.e. 'Shame' not central to research and/or not linked to educational/learning context)	116
Opinion based paper not dealing with empirical data	8

Appendix B

A Summary Table of the Final Papers Utilised in This Review

Authors	Year	Participant numbers	Participants/ Age range	Investigated	Method	Findings	Critical analysis of study
Belsky, Domitrovich, Crnic	1997	110	Boys 36 and 27 months	Examined individual differences in shame reactions and their temperamental and parenting antecedents.	27 month period -Parent report measure of infant temperament -Home visit (naturalistic observations of parenting) -Visits to research lab by parents and children-children were videoed during 6 probes (e.g. strange situation) -Researchers trained to code shame reactions -Infant Behaviour Questionnaire (IBQ) (alpha coefficients = .82 and .87)	Shame reactions were greater following failure on the easy task, compared to difficult task. Early temperament was unrelated to shame. Children, whose parents were more dysfunctional in their parenting, displayed less shame.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Male participants only • Subjective measure of shame • Naturalistic
Turner & Schallert	2001	84	Undergraduate students	Expectancy-value predictors (and consequences) for shame experiences from test feedback	Baseline measures – questionnaires to assess student characteristics and future academic goals. Seven weeks follow up – students	High levels of shame were experienced following exam feedback. Those that experienced shame, mixed– high achievers and some with high initial self-	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-report • Only one academic context and age range. • Undergraduate sample

Appendix

					received test feedback; they then filled out questionnaires to assess their emotional reactions.	perceptions of competence/efficacy. Having intrinsic and extrinsic goals along with self-doubt may have placed students at-risk of shame experiences. Shame as a functional emotion (acts as a signal to change actions)	
Bibby	2002	7	Teachers (Primary school)	Experiences of shame within a mathematical context	Semi-structured and structured interviews and mathematical problems (in front of interviewer)	Shame can also act as a positive motivational force – but not easy to do this.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only 7 participants • Experiential • Qualitative (personal and more authentic)
Thompson, Altmann & Davidson	2004	72	19-43yrs Undergraduate students	The relations between shame-proneness and achievement behaviour	Pre-screening measures (e.g. TOSCA), cognitive tasks.	Following success, high shame-prone students spent less time on cognitive tasks; following failure, shame-prone students traced less, spent less time practising, attempted (lack of functional benefit) fewer tasks and solved fewer than low-shame prone students.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mock situation of shame feelings • TOSCA reliable

<p>De Hoyos & Ramirez</p>	<p>2007</p>	<p>90</p>	<p>20-60yrs Undergraduate students</p>	<p>The relations between shame traits and the acculturation status of Chicano students.</p>	<p>Survey questionnaire ARSMA Psychometrics Measure of shame = ISS (test-retest correlation .84)</p>	<p>Six out of 24 shame traits were significantly related to acculturation status.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Although half of participants were in their 20's, sample consisted of a vast age range. • Raises the issue of Shame being experienced differently across cultures-impacts on educators diverse school setting's • Raises issue of educators own propensity to experience shame.
<p>Turner & Husman</p>	<p>2008</p>	<p>106 – questionnaires 25 experiences shame, 8 of these were interviewed</p>	<p>American Psychopharmacology students</p>	<p>Dynamics involved in students' shame experiences and recovery.</p>	<p>Questionnaire, semi structured interviews Measured shame using ESS. (Cronbach's alpha = .86)</p>	<p>Depending on shame reaction, self-regulatory paths were affected. Future goals can have a powerful influence for modifying the intensity of perceived failure, shame and facilitating a change in thinking and behaviours</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Manifestation of shame not covered • Questionnaire reliant • Large sample size (initially)
<p>Sargin</p>	<p>2010</p>	<p>187</p>	<p>Students, 14-17</p>	<p>Relations between guilt, shame and depression, gender, age, personal achievements</p>	<p>Self report scales -Guilt-Shame Scale</p>	<p>Depression levels for girls higher. Shame levels found to be higher in girls.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not necessarily going to find a relationship between healthy population and shame/depression.

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				and parental education levels.	-Becks Depression Inventory	<p>17 year olds had higher levels of depression.</p> <p>No significant relationship between academic achievement and shame.</p> <p>Shame levels of participants had increased as their mother's education level decreased. (No sig diffs for father).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implications highlighted in research • Reliant on self-report
Johnson	2012	664	University students mean age 19 years	Relationships between students' feelings of shame: sense of (university) community, levels of burnout, reports of achievement goals, ways of managing shame and academic achievement.	Student survey	<p>Women reported significantly more shame than men.</p> <p>Burnout varies directly with shame (burnout increases with reported levels of shame increasing).</p> <p>No significant relationship between performance-avoidance goals and shame.</p> <p>Shame was significantly negatively related to mastery-approach, mastery-avoidance and performance-approach</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reliant on self report • Undergraduate university sample only

						<p>achievement goals (they are associated with lower levels of shame)</p> <p>Shame was closely related to withdrawal and attack.</p> <p>Maladaptive ways of responding to shame failed to protect the student.</p>	
Ahmed & Braithwaite	2012	335	9-15 yrs.	Development of shame management in children and the role that it plays in preventing school bullying	Self-report measures TN, follow up surveys, (Life At School survey)	<p>Children remained in the same bullying roles over 3 years.</p> <p>Context made a difference to shame management. Shame management – may prove useful in resisting or moving out of a bullying school culture.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strong definition of bullying used • Longitudinal study • Reliant of self-report measures • Large sample size
Assor & Tal	2012	153	Adolescents 15-18 yrs	Psychological implications of Parental Conditional Positive Regard (PCPR) in an academic achievement context. They explored the links between PCPR and	Self Report Questionnaires	PCPR was associated with maladaptive self feelings and coping responses. Adolescent's perceptions of their mothers as using PCPR to promote achievement in the academic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adolescent self-report. Cannot generalise to other ages. • Correlational nature of the study – not possible to infer causality. • Only views on mothers were assessed.

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				maladaptive self evaluative and coping processes.		domain, predicted adolescent's self-aggrandisement after success, and self derogation and shame following failure. This then predicted compulsive over-investment. PCPR is likely to promote an unstable sense of self.	
Cavalera & Pepe	2014	60	Undergrad females	The relation between social emotions and working memory (cognitive performance)	Questionnaire (TOSCA), then paper and pencil dual-task, then WM task (digit recall); write a personal dysfunctional experience (in shame condition) or control.	Shame-prone participants were more likely to experience higher levels of anxiety. Plausible association between shame-prone people and worse WM performance after experiencing emotional discomfort. Individual's experiencing shame – large dysfunctional effect on WM. Severity of shame experience predicts worse WM performance.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Convenience sample. • Undergraduate females sample only • Pioneering study, for implications of shame in educational context and learning abilities.

<p>Albu</p>	<p>2014</p>	<p>100</p>	<p>Teachers</p>	<p>An analysis of high school teacher's attitudes towards the feelings of shame and its place and role in developing and influencing students</p>	<p>Questionnaire</p>	<p>In school-Shame can be learned and instilled by the behaviour of the teacher. Majority of participants consider shame to be 'editing' individual behaviour with interpersonal relations. Majority of participants appreciated that shame can be a barrier to student potential. Shame is necessary to the good functioning of school life. Teachers have a role in shame in the classroom.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Large sample size • Interesting perspective (i.e. from the educator) • Reliant on self-report and participant-opinion based data.
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Appendix C

Daily Online Diary Questionnaire

The following questions were displayed within the domain of Lime Survey.

<https://www.limesurvey.org/en/>

Daily Welcome Message for Participants

Welcome! Please answer the following questions. Remember, we are interested in your experiences, so there are no right or wrong answers. Please complete ALL questions. Many thanks

Definition of shame displayed for participants

Shame can be defined as: the painful feeling that you experience when you have done something dishonourable, improper, ridiculous, or foolish.

Question 1

1. Did you experience feelings of shame today?

(Yes/No response; If 'yes' continue to question 1b, if 'No' continue to question 1c)

1b. How much Shame did you experience today?

1= not a lot, 2=a little, 3=moderate, 4=quite a bit, 5=a lot

1c. 'NO' questions

1. Today I made choices based on my own interests and values, or did things that express my interests and values (yes/no)
2. Today I took on and mastered hard challenges, or other things happened that made me feel capable (yes/no)
3. Today I felt close and connected with other people, or I felt a strong sense of intimacy with other people (yes/no)
4. Today someone close to me supported me, or I felt he/she cared deeply about me (yes/no)
5. Today I felt nostalgic

Appendix C

To what extent did you experience the feelings below today? (on a scale of 1-5). Today I felt...

1. as if I was my true self
2. authentic (I felt "real", like the person I really am inside)
3. as if I was really being me
4. good about myself
5. as if I value myself more
6. connected with my past
7. as if important aspects of my personality remain the same across time
8. ready to take on new challenges
9. optimistic about my future
10. connected to loved ones
11. loved
12. as if life is meaningful
13. as if life is worth living
14. inspired
15. filled with inspiration
16. energetic
17. purposeful
18. nervous
19. on edge
20. uneasy
21. unable to concentrate
22. sad
23. discouraged
24. hopeless
25. happy
26. in a good mood
27. joy
28. calm

Appendix C

Definition of pride displayed for participants

Pride can be defined as: the pleasurable feeling that you experience when you have done something honourable, extraordinary, sensible or worthwhile.

Question 2

2. Did you experience feelings of pride today?

(Yes/No response; If 'yes' continue to question 2b, if 'No' end of diary)

2b. How much pride did you experience today?

1= not a lot, 2=a little, 3=moderate, 4=quite a bit, 5=a lot

Question 3

3. How competent ('I have sufficient skills and/or knowledge') did you feel about your school-work today?

1 = Not competent at all, 5 = Neither competent nor incompetent, 10 = Extremely competent

Daily Debrief For Participants

Thank you for taking part in this questionnaire today. Don't forget to do the same again tomorrow, for your chance to win a further £50 in Amazon vouchers! We would like to remind you that your individual data will remain strictly confidential and that only group data will be reported. We hope that you have enjoyed taking part in our research today, but if you feel that you have been affected in any way by remembering your experiences of shame, you can get in touch with your school counsellor who will be able to help you. Alternatively, you can contact national support services on: <http://www.youthaccess.org.uk>
http://www.youngminds.org.uk/for_children_young_people

Appendix D

Parent Information Sheet and Consent Form



Study Information Sheet for Parents (*Version 1*)

Study Title: Understanding Adolescent Shame and Pride in a School Context

Ethics Reference: 12511

Researchers: Ellen Cook, Alicia Halton-Nathan, DEdPsych Students

Supervisors: Dr Sander Thomaes – Senior Lecturer & Dr Tim Wildschut - Senior Lecturer

What is the study about?

The aim of this study is to investigate and understand what causes teenagers to feel ashamed and proud.

Why has my child been chosen?

Your child is invited to take part in this study because we are interested in the experiences of 13-17 year old adolescents. The headteacher has granted permission for us to conduct our research in their school; your child has not been singled out to take part.

Does my child have to take part?

Participation in the study is completely voluntary and children cannot participate without consent from their parent/guardian. At the beginning of the study, once consent has been given by you, we will explain what the study involves to your child. If they are happy to take part after hearing about it, they can begin. **Please complete and return the attached parental consent form to confirm your consent to your child's participation.**

What does the study involve?

During school time, your child will be presented with a questionnaire on a range of psychological measures including mindset, sense of belonging within school, attachment to parents and peers, self-esteem, nostalgia, narcissism and shame and guilt. They will be asked to complete all of the questionnaires; this should take approximately 30-40 minutes.

After completion of the initial questionnaires your child will be invited (via email) to complete an online daily questionnaire, for a two week period (10 school days). They will be asked to provide tick box responses to questions about when they have experienced shame or pride that day.

Upon completion of the study, all children will be debriefed and given information to take away with them about the aims and purpose of the research. This will include information about how to contact the researchers after the study has finished.

How will my child's information be used?

All information provided by your child will only be used by the researchers for the purpose of this study. All responses are confidential and will be stored in a locked cabinet, along with consent forms signed by parents, in the School of Psychology at the University of Southampton.

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What will happen to the results of the study?

Our results will be written up into a report, which will be submitted for publication in the appropriate psychology journals. Results may also be presented at scientific conferences. Individual participants will not be identified or recognisable in the report because only group data will be reported. If you would like to receive a copy of the completed report, please contact us using the contact details below after completion of the study.

What if something goes wrong?

If your child becomes distressed at any point during the research they will be signposted to local counselling services. It is highly unlikely that taking part in this study could cause harm to your child. However, if you do have any reason to complain about any aspect of the study, you can do so by contacting the Chair of the Ethics Committee, Department of Psychology, University of Southampton, Southampton, SO17 1BJ; (023) 8059 5578; slb1n10@soton.ac.uk

What benefits will there be for the students who take part?

Every student who completes the initial questionnaire will receive a free pen. Every student who then completes the daily shame and pride questionnaire (for at least 80% of the requested two weeks, 10 school days) will receive a £20 Amazon voucher. In addition, every student who completes 100% of the daily shame and pride questionnaire will also be entered into a prize draw, to have the chance of winning an additional £50 in Amazon vouchers.

Ethical Approval

This study has been approved the University of Southampton Ethics Committee.

Contact Information

If you would like any more information about the study, please contact:

Student Researcher: Ellen Cook

Emc1g12@soton.ac.uk

Appendix D

PARENTAL CONSENT FORM (Version 1)

Study title: Understanding Adolescent Shame and Pride in a School Context

Researcher names: Ellen Cook, Alicia Halthon-Nathan

Supervisors: Dr. Sander Thomaes & Dr Tim Wildschut

Ethics reference: 12511

Please initial the boxes if you agree with the statements below:

I have read and understood the study information sheet (Version 1.0, 28/09/2014).

I agree to my child taking part in this research project and agree for their data to be used for the purpose of this study

I understand my child's participation is voluntary and they may withdraw at any time without their legal rights being affected

Data Protection

I understand that information collected about my child during their participation in this study will be completely confidential, stored on a password protected computer and will only be used for the purpose of this study.

Child's Name.....Class.....

Parent's Name.....Date.....

Parent's Signature.....

Appendix E

Participant Information Sheet and Assent Form



Participant Information Sheet (*Version 1.0*)

Study Title: Understanding the Triggers and Consequences of Shame and Pride in Adolescents

Ethics Reference: 12511

Ethics Committee: slb1n10@soton.ac.uk

Researchers: Ellen Cook, Alicia Halton-Nathan, DEdPsych Students

Supervisors: Dr Sander Thomaes & Dr Tim Wildschut

Please read the following information carefully.

The aim of this study is to investigate and understand what causes teenagers to feel ashamed and proud.

What does the study involve?

The study is formed of two parts:

- **Part 1**

During school time you will be presented with a questionnaire on a range of topics including mindset, sense of belonging within school, attachment to parents and peers, self-esteem, nostalgia, narcissism and shame and guilt. You will be asked to complete all of the questionnaires; this should take approximately 30-40 minutes.

- **Part 2**

You will be invited to complete an online daily questionnaire, for a two week period Monday to Friday (10 school days), the weekends are not included. You will be asked to provide tick box responses to questions about whether you have experienced shame or pride that day. You will be asked to complete this questionnaire in your own time, either at home or at school and you can log on via a web link that we will email to you. This task should take less than five minutes each day.

What will happen to the questionnaires I complete?

All information provided by you will only be used by the researchers for the purpose of this study. All responses are strictly confidential. Please let the researcher know if you feel uncomfortable or

Appendix E

would like to stop for any reason. All data will be entered into an electronic file which will be password protected and can only be accessed by the research team. You can withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences.

What are the benefits of taking part in this study?

- Every student who completes part 1 of the study will get a free pen.
- Every student who completes the two week shame and pride questionnaire (part 2) for at least 80% of the time, will receive a £20 Amazon voucher.
- In addition, every student who completes 100% of the daily shame and pride questionnaire will also be entered into a prize draw with the chance of winning an additional £50 amazon voucher.

What happens if I feel uncomfortable or unhappy about anything during the study?

During part 1 of the study, two researchers will be present and you can ask them questions about the study and your participation at any point. At the end of part 1, you will be provided with information about a member of school staff who you can speak to about the study if you are feeling unhappy about it and information about how to access local counselling services for young people. You will also be provided with information of who you can speak to within your school about the study, if you are feeling unhappy about it. In addition, you can contact the research team at any point during the study on the email addresses given below.

Ethical Approval

This study has been approved the University of Southampton Ethics Committee.

Contact Information

If you would like any more information about the study, please contact:

Student Researcher: Ellen Cook

Emc1g12@soton.ac.uk



Please feel free to ask any questions at any time. If you are happy to take part in this study, please complete the student assent form given to you by the researchers.

Thank you!

Appendix E



Participant Assent FORM (Version 1)

Study title: Understanding Adolescent Shame and Pride in a School Context: A Pilot Study

Researcher names: Ellen Cook, Alicia Halthon-Nathan

Supervisors: Dr. Sander Thomaes & Dr Tim Wildschut

Ethics reference:12511

Please initial the boxes if you agree with the statements below:

I have read and understood the participant information sheet (Version 1, 28/09/2014).

I agree to take part in this Pilot research project and agree for my data to be used for the purpose of this study, as outlined in the participant information sheet (Version 1, 28/09/2014).

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without my legal rights being affected

Data Protection

I understand that information collected about me during my participation in this study will be completely confidential, stored securely at the University and will only be used for the purpose of this study.

Participant's Name.....Class.....

Date.....

Participant's Signature.....



Appendix F

The Scale of Personal Conceptions of Intelligence

The following sentences refer to several aspects of intelligence and to its role in learning and achievement in everyday tasks. There is no right or wrong answers. **Please express your opinion about each of these sentences. Please read each sentence carefully and express your degree of agreement, and circling your choice.**

1 TOTALLY AGREE	2 AGREE	3 MODERATELY AGREE	4 MODERATELY DISAGREE	5 DISAGREE	6 TOTALLY DISAGREE
-----------------------	------------	--------------------------	-----------------------------	---------------	--------------------------

1	I have a certain amount of intelligence and I can't do much to change it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	The difficulties and the challenges I encounter prevent me from developing my intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Effort enables me to become more intelligent.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	What I learn with the tasks I make is more important than the results obtained.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Failure in a task can make me feel less intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	The mistakes I make can be an opportunity to develop my intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	However much I try, I'll never be able to change my basic intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	The search for new solutions or strategies to solve a task shows that I can't control it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I can become more intelligent if I wish.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Good performance in a task is a way of showing others that I am intelligent.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	The challenges and difficulties that I face help me to develop my intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I can learn new things but I can't really change my basic intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	With effort I can change my basic intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	The good preparation for a task I have to make may be a way of proving to others that I am intelligent.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I can't increase my inborn intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	When I make an effort, I show that I'm not very intelligent.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	When I learn new things, my basic intelligence increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	If I'm not as intelligent as I wish, I can't do much to change this.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Getting good results in the tasks I make, proves my intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	The mistakes/errors I make must be forgotten because they show that I am not very intelligent.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Accomplishing a task well may enable me to develop my intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I can't change my intelligence much.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	The good preparation for a task I have to make may be a way to develop my intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	Intelligence is something I can increase as much as I want.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	The results obtained with the tasks I perform are more important than what I learn with these tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I can do something to change my intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix G

Example of Lime Survey Daily Online Diary

Shame and Pride Questionnaire Day 1

0% 100%

*** Did you experience feelings of shame today?**

Yes No

[Next >](#)

Shame and Pride Questionnaire Day 1

0% 100%

*** How much Shame did you experience today?**
Choose one of the following answers

Appendix H

Research Ethics Committee Approval

Submission Number 12511

Submission Title Main Study: Understanding Adolescent Shame and Pride in a School

The Research Governance Office has reviewed and approved your submission

You can begin your research unless you are still awaiting specific Health and Safety approval (e.g. for a Genetic or Biological Materials Risk Assessment) or external ethics review (e.g. NRES). The following comments have been made:

Date : 19 Nov 2014

Created by : Ellen Cook

This is to confirm that the work detailed in your protocol and Ethics Application will be covered by the University of Southampton insurance programme. As Chief or Principle Investigator you are responsible for the conduct of the study and you are expected to:

1. Ensure the study is conducted as described in the protocol/study outline approved by this office
2. Advise this office of any amendment/change to the protocol, methodology, study documents, research team, participant numbers or start/end date of the study
3. Report to this office as soon as possible any concern, complaint or adverse event arising from the study

Failure to do any of the above may invalidate your ethics approval and therefore the insurance agreement, affect funding and/or sponsorship of your study; your study may need to be suspended and disciplinary proceedings may ensue.

On receipt of this letter you may commence your research but please be aware other approvals may be required by the host organisation if your research takes place outside the University. It is your responsibility to check with the host organisation and obtain the appropriate approvals before recruitment is underway in that location.

May I take this opportunity to wish you every success for your research

ERGO : Ethics and Research Governance Online
<http://www.ergo.soton.ac.uk>

Appendix I

Research Governance Approval

University of
Southampton

Miss Ellen Cooke,
Psychology
University of Southampton

Date: 30th October 2014

Dear Ellen,

Professional Indemnity and Clinical Trials Insurance

Project Title: Main Study: Understanding Adolescent Shame and Pride in a School Context

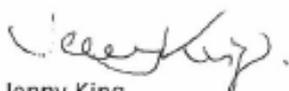
ERGO Ref: 12511

Participant Type	Number of participants	Participant age group
Healthy Volunteers	250	Minors

Thank you for submitting the completed questionnaire and attached papers.

Having taken note of the information provided, I can confirm that this project will be covered under the terms and conditions of the above policy, subject to written informed consent being obtained from the participating volunteers or their parent, guardian, next of kin as appropriate.

If there are any changes to the above details, please advise us as failure to do so may invalidate the insurance.



Mrs Jenny King
Senior Insurance Services Assistant

Tel: 023 8059 2417
email: jsk1n08@soton.ac.uk
Finance Department, University of Southampton, Highfield Campus, Southampton
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