

The Secret to Raising Smart Kids
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The Secret to Raising Smart Kids

by Carol S. Dweck

1 A brilliant student, Jonathan sailed through grade school. He completed his
2 assignments easily and routinely earned As. Jonathan puzzled over why
3 some of his classmates struggled, and his parents told him he had a special
4 gift. In the seventh grade, however, Jonathan suddenly lost interest in
5 school, refusing to do homework or study for tests. As a consequence, his
6 grades plummeted. His parents tried to boost their son's confidence by
7 assuring him that he was very smart. But their attempts failed to motivate
8 Jonathan (who is a composite drawn from several children). Schoolwork,
9 their son maintained, was boring and pointless.

10 Our society worships talent, and many people assume that possessing
11 superior intelligence or ability—along with confidence in that ability—is a
12 recipe for success. In fact, however, more than 30 years of scientific
13 investigation suggests that an overemphasis on intellect or talent leaves
14 people vulnerable to failure, fearful of challenges and unwilling to remedy
15 their shortcomings.

16 The result plays out in children like Jonathan, who coast through the early
17 grades under the dangerous notion that no-effort academic achievement
18 defines them as smart or gifted. Such children hold an implicit belief that
19 intelligence is innate and fixed, making striving to learn seem far less
20 important than being (or looking) smart. This belief also makes them see
21 challenges, mistakes and even the need to exert effort as threats to their
22 ego rather than as opportunities to improve. It causes them to lose
23 confidence and motivation when the work is no longer easy for them.

24 Praising children's innate abilities, as Jonathan's parents did, reinforces this
25 mind-set, which can also prevent young athletes or people in the workforce
26 and even marriages from living up to their potential. On the other hand, our
27 studies show that teaching people to have a "growth mind-set," which
28 encourages a focus on effort rather than on intelligence or talent, helps make
29 them into high achievers in school and in life.

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30 **The Opportunity of Defeat**

31 I first began to investigate the underpinnings¹ of human motivation—and
32 how people persevere after setbacks—as a psychology graduate student
33 at Yale University in the 1960s. Animal experiments by psychologists
34 Martin Seligman, Steven Maier and Richard Solomon of the University of
35 Pennsylvania had shown that after repeated failures, most animals
36 conclude that a situation is hopeless and beyond their control. After such
37 an experience, the researchers found, an animal often remains passive
38 even when it can affect change—a state they called learned
39 helplessness.

40 People can learn to be helpless, too, but not everyone reacts to setbacks
41 this way. I wondered: Why do some students give up when they encounter
42 difficulty, whereas others who are no more skilled continue to strive and
43 learn? One answer, I soon discovered, lay in people’s beliefs about why
44 they had failed.

45 In particular, attributing poor performance to a lack of ability depresses
46 motivation more than does the belief that lack of effort is to blame. In 1972,
47 when I taught a group of elementary and middle school children who
48 displayed helpless behavior in school that a lack of effort (rather than lack of
49 ability) led to their mistakes on math problems, the kids learned to keep
50 trying when the problems got tough. They also solved many of the problems
51 even in the face of difficulty. Another group of helpless children who were
52 simply rewarded for their success on easy problems did not improve their
53 ability to solve hard math problems. These experiments were an early
54 indication that a focus on effort can help resolve helplessness and
55 engender² success.

56

¹ **underpinnings:** foundations

² **engender:** produce or cause

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57 Subsequent studies revealed that the most persistent students do not
58 ruminate³ about their own failure much at all but instead think of mistakes as
59 problems to be solved. At the University of Illinois in the 1970s I, along with
60 my then graduate student Carol Diener, asked 60 fifth graders to think out
61 loud while they solved very difficult pattern-recognition problems. Some
62 students reacted defensively to mistakes, denigrating their skills with
63 comments such as “I never did have a good rememory,” and their problem-
64 solving strategies deteriorated.

65 Others, meanwhile, focused on fixing errors and honing their skills. One
66 advised himself: “I should slow down and try to figure this out.” Two
67 schoolchildren were particularly inspiring. One, in the wake of difficulty,
68 pulled up his chair, rubbed his hands together, smacked his lips and said, “I
69 love a challenge!” The other, also confronting the hard problems, looked up
70 at the experimenter and approvingly declared, “I was hoping this would be
71 informative!” Predictably, the students with this attitude outperformed their
72 cohorts in these studies.

73 **Two Views of Intelligence**

74 Several years later I developed a broader theory of what separates the two
75 general classes of learners—helpless versus mastery-oriented. I realized
76 that these different types of students not only explain their failures differently,
77 but they also hold different “theories” of intelligence. The helpless ones
78 believe that intelligence is a fixed trait: you have only a certain amount, and
79 that’s that. I call this a “fixed mind-set.” Mistakes crack their self-confidence
80 because they attribute errors to a lack of ability, which they feel powerless to
81 change. They avoid challenges because challenges make mistakes more
82 likely and looking smart less so. Like Jonathan, such children shun effort in
83 the belief that having to work hard means they are dumb.

84 The mastery-oriented children, on the other hand, think intelligence is
85 malleable and can be developed through education and hard work. They

³ **ruminate:** think or ponder at length

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86 want to learn above all else. After all, if you believe that you can expand
87 your intellectual skills, you want to do just that. Because slipups stem from a
88 lack of effort, not ability, they can be remedied by more effort. Challenges
89 are energizing rather than intimidating; they offer opportunities to learn.
90 Students with such a growth mind-set, we predicted, were destined for
91 greater academic success and were quite likely to outperform their
92 counterparts.

93 We validated these expectations in a study published in early 2007.
94 Psychologists Lisa Blackwell of Columbia University and Kali H. Trzesniewski
95 of Stanford University and I monitored 373 students for two years during the
96 transition to junior high school, when the work gets more difficult and the
97 grading more stringent, to determine how their mind-sets might affect their
98 math grades. At the beginning of seventh grade, we assessed the students'
99 mind-sets by asking them to agree or disagree with statements such as
100 "Your intelligence is something very basic about you that you can't really
101 change." We then assessed their beliefs about other aspects of learning and
102 looked to see what happened to their grades.

103 As we had predicted, the students with a growth mind-set felt that learning
104 was a more important goal in school than getting good grades. In addition,
105 they held hard work in high regard, believing that the more you labored at
106 something, the better you would become at it. They understood that even
107 geniuses have to work hard for their great accomplishments. Confronted
108 by a setback such as a disappointing test grade, students with a growth
109 mind-set said they would study harder or try a different strategy for
110 mastering the material.

111 The students who held a fixed mind-set, however, were concerned about
112 looking smart with little regard for learning. They had negative views of
113 effort, believing that having to work hard at something was a sign of low
114 ability. They thought that a person with talent or intelligence did not need to
115 work hard to do well. Attributing a bad grade to their own lack of ability,
116 those with a fixed mind-set said that they would study less in the future, try

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117 never to take that subject again and consider cheating on future tests.

118 Such divergent⁴ outlooks had a dramatic impact on performance. At the start
119 of junior high, the math achievement test scores of the students with a
120 growth mind-set were comparable to those of students who displayed a fixed
121 mind-set. But as the work became more difficult, the students with a growth
122 mind-set showed greater persistence. As a result, their math grades overtook
123 those of the other students by the end of the first semester—and the gap
124 between the two groups continued to widen during the two years we followed
125 them.

126 Along with Columbia psychologist Heidi Grant, I found a similar relation
127 between mind-set and achievement in a 2003 study of 128 Columbia
128 freshman premed students who were enrolled in a challenging general
129 chemistry course. Although all the students cared about grades, the ones
130 who earned the best grades were those who placed a high premium on
131 learning rather than on showing that they were smart in chemistry. The focus
132 on learning strategies, effort and persistence paid off for these students.

133 **Confronting Deficiencies**

134 A belief in fixed intelligence also makes people less willing to admit to errors
135 or to confront and remedy their deficiencies in school, at work and in their
136 social relationships. In a study published in 1999 of 168 freshmen entering
137 the University of Hong Kong, where all instruction and coursework are in
138 English, three Hong Kong colleagues and I found that students with a growth
139 mind-set who scored poorly on their English proficiency exam were far more
140 inclined to take a remedial English course than were low-scoring students
141 with a fixed mind-set. The students with a stagnant⁵ view of intelligence were
142 presumably unwilling to admit to their deficit and thus passed up the
143 opportunity to correct it.

144

⁴ **divergent:** widely differing

⁵ **stagnant:** unchanging; not developing

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145 A fixed mind-set can similarly hamper communication and progress in the
146 workplace by leading managers and employees to discourage or ignore
147 constructive criticism and advice. Research by psychologists Peter Heslin and
148 Don VandeWalle of Southern Methodist University and Gary Latham of the
149 University of Toronto shows that managers who have a fixed mind-set are
150 less likely to seek or welcome feedback from their employees than are
151 managers with a growth mind-set. Presumably, managers with a growth
152 mind-set see themselves as works-in-progress and understand that they
153 need feedback to improve, whereas bosses with a fixed mind-set are more
154 likely to see criticism as reflecting their underlying level of competence.
155 Assuming that other people are not capable of changing either, executives
156 with a fixed mind-set are also less likely to mentor their underlings. But after
157 Heslin, VandeWalle and Latham gave managers a tutorial on the value and
158 principles of the growth mind-set, supervisors became more willing to coach
159 their employees and gave more useful advice.

160 Mind-set can affect the quality and longevity of personal relationships as
161 well, through people's willingness—or unwillingness—to deal with
162 difficulties. Those with a fixed mind-set are less likely than those with a
163 growth mind-set to broach problems in their relationships and to try to
164 solve them, according to a 2006 study I conducted with psychologist Lara
165 Kammrath of Wilfrid Laurier University in Ontario. After all, if you think that
166 human personality traits are more or less fixed, relationship repair seems
167 largely futile. Individuals who believe people can change and grow,
168 however, are more confident that confronting concerns in their
169 relationships will lead to resolutions.

170 **Proper Praise**

171 How do we transmit a growth mind-set to our children? One way is by telling
172 stories about achievements that result from hard work. For instance, talking
173 about math geniuses who were more or less born that way puts students in a
174 fixed mind-set, but descriptions of great mathematicians who fell in love with
175 math and developed amazing skills engenders a growth mind-set, our

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176 studies have shown. People also communicate mind-sets through praise.
177 Although many, if not most, parents believe that they should build up a child
178 by telling him or her how brilliant and talented he or she is, our research
179 suggests that this is misguided.

180 In studies involving several hundred fifth graders published in 1998, for
181 example, Columbia psychologist Claudia M. Mueller and I gave children
182 questions from a nonverbal IQ test. After the first 10 problems, on which
183 most children did fairly well, we praised them. We praised some of them for
184 their intelligence: “Wow . . . that’s a really good score. You must be smart at
185 this.” We commended others for their effort: “Wow . . . that’s a really good
186 score. You must have worked really hard.”

187 We found that intelligence praise encouraged a fixed mind-set more often
188 than did pats on the back for effort. Those congratulated for their intelligence,
189 for example, shied away from a challenging assignment—they wanted an
190 easy one instead—far more often than the kids applauded for their effort.
191 (Most of those lauded for their hard work wanted the difficult problem set from
192 which they would learn.) When we gave everyone hard problems anyway,
193 those praised for being smart became discouraged, doubting their ability. And
194 their scores, even on an easier problem set we gave them afterward, declined
195 as compared with their previous results on equivalent problems. In contrast,
196 students praised for their effort did not lose confidence when faced with the
197 harder questions, and their performance improved markedly on the easier
198 problems that followed. . . .

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