1 Effects of emotional intelligence and supportive text messages on academic outcomes in

- 2 first year undergraduates
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- 20
- 21 **Running head:** Supportive intervention and student outcomes
- 22
- **23 Word count:** 5876 words.

24 Abstract

An increase in the number of students entering higher education has intensified the need for 25 targeted strategies to support a wider range of student requirements. Current research suggests 26 27 that emotional intelligence (EI) may be associated with academic success, progression and retention in university students but the use of EI screening as a prospective measure of success 28 requires further investigation. This study evaluates the utility of prospective EI screening to 29 30 predict progression rates, mean grades, attendance and online engagement in a sample of first 31 year undergraduate students enrolled on the same degree programme (n=358). A supportive 32 text messaging intervention was employed during potentially stressful periods of the academic year in a subsection of participants (n=60) that demonstrated low total EI scores relative to the 33 34 cohort. Results showed no effects of EI classification on progression rates, mean grades, 35 attendance and online engagement (all P>0.418). Alternatively, the text messaging intervention 36 was associated with significant improvements compared with a matched control group for progression rates (P=0.027), mean grades (P=0.026) and attendance (P=0.007). The frequency 37 38 of access to the virtual learning environment also tended to be higher in the intervention group compared with the control group (P=0.059). In conclusion, this study did not identify any 39 40 benefits of EI screening as a prospective indicator of student success but provides encouraging indications that a text messaging support intervention could help to improve progression rates, 41 42 mean grades, attendance and online engagement in first year undergraduate students. Further 43 research is warranted to develop these proof-of-concept findings.

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Key words: engagement; attendance; grades; progression, support; academic achievement

47 Introduction

The past two decades have witnessed a significant increase in the number of students entering 48 higher education (HE) in the UK. This is demonstrated by the Higher Education Statistics 49 Agency (HESA) who recorded a rise in the number of students enrolling for their first degree 50 from 313,589 in 1996 to 542,575 in 2015 (HESA 1998, 2017). Such widening participation in 51 52 HE has been maintained in recent years despite the majority of institutions increasing undergraduate tuition fees to £9000 per year and it appears that numbers will remain high for 53 the foreseeable future. In this regard, the continued recruitment of a large number of 54 55 undergraduate students has been encouraged by the relaxation of government controls over the number of students recruited by institutions, with the complete removal of government controls 56 on recruitment in 2015 being associated with a further small rise of 3% for the number of first 57 58 degree enrolments (HESA 2017). The increased diversity of university students that accompanies these increased student numbers is acknowledged to broaden the range of student 59 support needs to maximise engagement, progression and academic success (Crozier et al. 2008; 60 Harper & Quaye 2014). 61

The positive relationship between student engagement, retention and success during HE is 62 well-established and has stimulated a growing focus for institutions to develop evidence-63 informed resources to enhance the engagement of university students (Thomas 2012; Trowler 64 2010). This focus has been particularly aimed at first year students due to the elevated risk of 65 low levels of engagement with the learning environment and increased attrition in this cohort 66 during the transition from school to university (Schneider 2010; Trotter & Roberts 2006). In 67 addition to institutions shaping the HE context to facilitate academic engagement, a growing 68 body of evidence has explored the influence of students' existing emotional and social 69 competencies in aiding them in the transition into, and through, university-level study (Keefer 70 et al. 2012; Richardson et al. 2012). 71

72 The definitions of academic achievement and academic success remain debated and these concepts are often used interchangeably within the research literature. Acknowledged 73 definitions of student success are typical broad, as described by Kuh et al. (2006, p.5) as 74 75 "academic achievement, engagement in educationally purposeful activities, satisfaction, acquisition of desired knowledge, skills and competencies, persistence, attainment of 76 educational outcomes, and post-college performance". The focus of EI research on student 77 78 outcomes during their first year at university often precludes the assessment of post-college performance but instead focus on the mean grade achieved by students during an academic 79 80 year and/or the progression rates of students to the subsequent year of study (Parker et al. 2004, 2005, 2006; Qualter et al. 2009). This also aligns with the findings of a recent literature review 81 which identified that academic achievement is the most frequently used assessment of 82 83 academic performance in previous research and that this was almost entirely measured as the 84 grades achieved by the students (York et al. 2015). In accordance with the definition provided above, measures of progression and engagement were also frequently identified within the 85 literature (York et al. 2015). The use of these most commonly employed assessment methods 86 were prioritised in the present study to facilitate comparisons with previous research within the 87 topic and due to the easily quantifiable and accessible nature of these data. 88

89 Emotional intelligence (EI) has generated significant attention as an explanatory variable for 90 important life outcomes, including the extent to which students succeed and progress during 91 their studies at university (Parker et al. 2011). The exact definition of EI and the most appropriate methods for assessing this construct remain highly debated, with some authors 92 considering EI to be an ability-based measure (e.g., Mayer et al. 2008), while others have 93 94 promoted EI as a trait-based measure (e.g., Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki 2007). In accordance 95 with these perspectives, ability-based measures of EI focus on emotion-related cognitive skills, whereas trait-based measures of EI are assessed using self-report questionnaires, similar to 96

97 other personality variables. Although the broad and varied definitions of EI have attracted criticism from some scholars (e.g., Locke 2005), both the ability and trait aspects of EI have 98 been linked with substantive outcome criteria. The focus of the current investigation will be on 99 100 trait EI due to the established relationship between trait EI and academic success in North American universities (Parker et al. 2004, 2005). In this regard, high achieving first year 101 university students demonstrated greater self-reported EI scores on enrolment to university 102 compared with lower achieving students (Parker et al. 2004, 2005). These findings are based 103 on assessments using the EQ-i:S (Bar-On 2002) which comprises four broad EI dimensions of 104 105 intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, and stress management. The subsequent validation of these scales in undergraduate students (Parker et al. 2011) further supports this approach to 106 107 assessing EI, which may accordingly be defined as: "the interrelated emotional and social 108 competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and 109 express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands" (Bar-On 2006, p.3). The development of such self-report methods also allows for large cohorts 110 to be screened which may help to prospectively identify students with lower levels of EI upon 111 entry to university and enable targeted interventions to provide further support during their 112 studies. 113

114 In addition to maximising academic performance, screening students for EI at the beginning of 115 their university studies could also be beneficial for identifying students with an increased risk 116 of attrition to enable more targeted support interventions. In this regard, preliminary evidence from individual UK and Canadian universities has demonstrated higher total self-reported EI 117 scores in students who progressed from the first to second year of university study compared 118 119 with students who withdrew from their respective degree programme (Parker et al. 2006; 120 Qualter et al. 2009). Although EI is likely to be only one aspect of a multitude of reasons for differences between students' progression and attrition rates, this represents an easily 121

quantified variable that can be targeted to improve student outcomes. When considering other 122 factors that influence progression and attrition rates, it is widely acknowledged that the 123 motivation and opportunity for students to succeed within education is considerably influenced 124 by the context of an individual's personal and social circumstance (Cartney & Rouse 2006; 125 Haggis 2004). Specifically, the extent to which students feel socially integrated and connected 126 within the university environment is positively associated with student progression (Christo & 127 128 Oyinlade 2015; Lockhart 2004; Wilcox et al. 2005). The socio-economic circumstances of students have also been shown to be predictive of progression and academic achievement as 129 130 recently reported by Crawford (2014). This report evaluated English-domiciled students who attended any UK university for the first time at age 18 or 19 between 2004-05 and 2009-10, 131 with each cohort including between 180,000 and 235,000 HE participants. The socio-economic 132 133 background of students was established by combining individual and neighbourhood level data, with the findings demonstrating that students from the highest socio-economic quintile group 134 were approximately 3.4 percentage points less likely to withdraw from their studies, 5.3 135 percentage points more likely to complete their degree and 3.7 percentage points more likely 136 to graduate with a First or 2:1 degree classification than those from the lowest socio-economic 137 quintile group. Similar degree completion rates and attrition differences between socio-138 economic groups have been reported in Australian universities which demonstrates the 139 140 international relevance of this issue (Edwards & McMillan 2015). Although EI is the focus of 141 the present study, further research should aim to develop interventions to support students in relation to these other predictors of progression and academic achievement. 142

Targeted interventions to support students with lower EI scores on entry to university are promising and have primarily focussed on peer-mentoring from older students at the university. In a Canadian university, this approach has been shown to reduce attrition in students who received peer-mentoring either during the summer break at the end of their first year of study or throughout the full academic year (Philippi, Kristensen, and Taylor 2012). These beneficial
effects were substantial with an attrition rate approximately 10% lower than a control group of
students with similar EI scores that did not receive peer-mentoring. These findings have been
further substantiated at a UK university where peer mentoring and the completion of activities
to improve EI in students with low baseline scores increased retention rates by approximately
25% compared with a cohort that did not receive the intervention (Qualter et al. 2009).

The benefits of peer-mentoring for students with low EI scores is encouraging. However, it 153 must be acknowledged that this intervention has resource implications regarding staffing and 154 time commitments which may not be feasible for all institutions. Recent developments within 155 the field of physical activity has demonstrated the utility of targeted text messages to increase 156 participants' feelings of support and improve the continuation of increased physical activity 157 levels in response to an exercise intervention (Kinnafick, Thøgersen-Ntoumani, and Duda 158 2016). These findings demonstrate the potential application of a supportive, yet generic, text 159 messaging intervention to improve persistence with a new behaviour within an unfamiliar 160 environment. This has many similarities with the behavioural changes required for an effective 161 transition and learner success in an unfamiliar HE environment (Briggs et al. 2012) and 162 163 subsequently it seems feasible that similar interventions could also assist students during their transition to university and through their first year of study. This would also represent a cost-164 165 effective method to highlight the support that is available to students and encourage students to seek assistance if required. 166

167 The purpose of the present study was to further investigate the relationship between the EI 168 scores of students on enrolment to university and measures of academic attainment, 169 engagement and retention during their first year of study. From this sample, we also aimed to 170 establish whether a text messaging intervention can improve student outcomes in those who 171 demonstrated low EI scores on enrolment. This research will add to the limited understanding 172 of the relationship between EI scores and academic outcomes in UK universities, as well as evaluating the effectiveness of a novel low cost intervention to improve academic outcomes in 173 students with low EI scores. In contrast to previous research, this study utilised a cohort of 174 students that were enrolled on the same degree programme in the same year and who were 175 required to complete the same six 20 credit modules for their first year of study. This novel 176 population allowed further investigation into the role of EI on student outcomes without the 177 confounding influence of students having different enrolment dates, studying different modules 178 or studying for different degree programmes. We hypothesised that students with higher EI 179 180 scores on enrolment would achieve higher grades and have higher levels of engagement and retention than students with lower EI scores. We also hypothesised that the provision of 181 supportive text messages would improve academic attainment, engagement and retention in 182 183 those students with low EI scores on enrolment.

184 Materials and methods

185 Participants

All first year BSc Sport & Exercise Science students at the same university in the UK were 186 invited to participate in the study in October 2015. From the cohort of 420 students, 358 187 students provided written informed consent for their data to be used within the study. All 188 189 participants would be expected to graduate from their three year degree programme in 2018. To ensure that students did not feel coerced into giving consent, they were informed that student 190 IDs would be used to store data and to track student activity and engagement with support and 191 192 Virtual Learning Environment (VLE) services. Ethical approval for the study was granted by the Faculty Local Research Ethics Committee. 193

195 *Context*

This research was embedded within one of the six compulsory 20 credit first year modules on 196 the BSc Sport & Exercise Science course titled 'Introduction to Research and Study Skills' 197 (IRSS). The module spanned both semesters and focused on developing academic and study 198 skills in semester one, while providing an introduction to research methods and data analysis 199 200 in semester two. The module structure included biweekly keynote lectures and weekly seminars delivered to each group by their personal tutor. Each tutor group contained approximately 20 201 students and there were 20 tutor groups for the cohort (groups A-T). Staff teaching on the 202 module were briefed about the research study and its use as a stimulus for students' personal 203 reflection and planning during the IRSS module. 204

205 **Procedures**

206 Emotional Intelligence Profiling

207 During the first week of semester one, all participants completed an online version of the EQi:S (Bar-On 2002) during their IRSS seminar session. Based on its factor structure and 208 associations with conceptually similar measures (ability-based EI and alexithymia), Parker et 209 210 al. (2011) have demonstrated the conceptual and theoretical integrity and the discriminant and convergent validity of the EQ-i:S.. For total EI scores and individual subscales, test-retest 211 correlation coefficients, obtained from administrations six months apart, of 0.60 and above 212 supported its temporal reliability, and, Cronbach's alpha values over 0.75 indicated the 213 measure's internal reliability. This measure has been associated with academic success and 214 retention in universities in North America (Parker et al. 2004, 2005, 2006). 215

The EQ-i:S includes 51 items that represent six subscales, four of which were used to determine a total EI score in accordance with previous research (Keefer et al. 2012). These four subscales (comprising 35 items) were used in the current study and are as follows: Interpersonal skills (10 items assessing social awareness and ability to establish and be part of social relationships);
Intrapersonal skills (10 items assessing self-awareness and the ability to recognise and
effectively manage one's self-expression); Stress management (8 items assessing the ability to
manage and regulate emotions); and Adaptability (7 items measuring the ability to adapt to
change and solve personal and interpersonal problems).

Example items from each subscale are: 'I like helping people' (Interpersonal); 'I'm unable to express my ideas to others' (Intrapersonal; reverse scored item); 'It is a problem controlling my anger' (Stress Management; reverse scored item); 'My approach in overcoming difficulties is to move step by step' (Adaptability). Respondents indicate their responses using a 5-point Likert scale anchored by 1 (*Very seldom true of me*) and 5 (*Very often true of me*).

Students confidentially received their individual EQ-i:S results during the fourth IRSS seminar 229 230 in semester one. This session also provided an explanation of the concept of emotional and social skills, the different elements that the scores on the EQ-i:S represented, and evidence 231 supporting the link between emotional intelligence and outcomes in academia. Students were 232 encouraged to consider the relevance of these skills to help them manage the transition to 233 university and to reflect on their personal profiles to establish areas of strength and areas for 234 235 improvement. It is important to note that the entire cohort for the degree programme completed the EQ-i:S and attended the feedback session as part of the IRSS module provision but data 236 237 was only used in the present study for those who provided consent.

238 *Group Allocation*

The participants were separated into thirds based on their total EQ-i:S scores (i.e. highest, middle and lowest thirds). Students in the lowest third for EQ-i:S scores were selected for the intervention based on evidence that lower scores increase the risk for attrition and lower academic performance (Parker et al. 2004, 2006), therefore suggesting that these students may

benefit most from the intervention. To robustly investigate the effects of the intervention, 243 students in the lowest third were quasi-randomised into either a control or intervention group 244 based on their tutor group. In this regard, those in the lowest third in tutor groups A-J received 245 the intervention, while those in the lowest third in tutor groups K-T acted as control participants 246 without any intervention. The assignment of these students to a non-intervention control group 247 enabled accurate assessment of the text messaging intervention but also provided the 248 249 opportunity to investigate the relationship between EI scores and student outcomes without there being any contamination of the data from the intervention. In this regard, the 168 students 250 251 from tutor groups K-T provided a large sample of students to accurately assess differences in student success outcomes across the different EI tertiles without any intervention. The control 252 and intervention groups were matched for EQ-i:S scores (mean (SD); Intervention: 103 (4); 253 254 Non-intervention: 103 (5)) and 60 participants were included in each group.

255 Intervention

Participants in the intervention group received three text messages from the Faculty Student 256 Liaison Officer (SLO) at pre-identified time points throughout the year. These time points 257 represented potentially stressful periods for the students and were as follows: November 2015 258 (prior to the semester one assessment period); February 2016 (the beginning of semester two 259 and at the time of results feedback from semester one); and April 2016 (prior to the assessment 260 period for semester two). The text message reminded students of the pastoral, academic and 261 personal support that was available within the faculty and the university with a hyperlink to 262 details about these services. The message also invited students to 'drop-in' or make an 263 appointment to see an SLO using the hyperlink provided. Messages were tailored to match the 264 time of year at which they were sent, for instance, referring to preparing for examinations, 265 considering assessment results and preparing for the upcoming semester. Although these 266

services were available to all students within the faculty, the intervention highlighted theavailability of the services and made an explicit offer for the students to use this support.

269 *Monitoring of Outcomes*

Attendance registers were collected during all seminar sessions for the IRSS module and 270 collated at the end of the academic year. The number of times that the participants accessed the 271 IRSS module content on the VLE was also monitored and collated throughout the year as a 272 marker of student engagement. The mean grade achieved by the participants for their first year 273 modules and the successful completion of first year studies for progression to the second year 274 of the degree programme were obtained from the annual examination board statistics. 275 Progression to the second year of the degree required a mean grade of 40% or higher for the 276 277 first year modules, with a minimum grade of 40% in five modules and a minimum grade of 278 30% in the remaining one module.

279 Data Analysis

Data were analysed using IBM SPSS statistics version 22 for Windows and all data are presented as mean (SD). Participants were divided into tertiles based on their ranked total EI score to produce highest, middle and lowest thirds. The threshold values for each third were calculated based on the scores from the entire cohort of the degree programme. Where the threshold value for each third contained multiple participants all participants were retained within the relevant third.

One-way ANOVA with post-hoc independent samples t-tests was used to assess differences between tertiles for EI subscales, attendance, VLE access and the mean grade achieved during the year. Differences between the intervention and non-intervention groups for attendance, VLE access and the mean grade achieved during the year were assessed using independent samples t-tests. Progression and withdrawal data were entered in binary form and compared between tertiles and between the intervention and non-intervention groups using the Chisquared test. Statistical significance for this study was accepted as P < 0.05.

293

294 **Results**

295 Baseline data

Total EI scores for the A-J and K-T tutor groups were comparable at baseline (Highest third: 122 (6) vs. 125 (6); Middle third: 112 (2) vs. 113 (2); Lowest third: 103 (4) vs. 103 (5) for the A-J and K-T tutor groups, respectively). The number of students in the A-J and K-T tutor groups was also similar at baseline (Highest third: 53 vs. 50; Middle third: 77 vs. 58; Lowest third: 60 vs. 60 for the A-J and K-T tutor groups, respectively). The scores for each subscale of the EQ-i:S were significantly different between tertiles in accordance with the total EI scores (all P < 0.0005; Table 1).

303 Progression rates

Chi-squared test revealed a trend towards a difference in progression rates to the second year 304 305 of the degree programme between tertiles when assessed as an entire cohort. This indicated higher progression rates in the lowest third than the highest and middle thirds (P = 0.077; 306 Highest third: 67%; Middle third: 67%; Lowest third: 78%; Figure 1a). This trend was 307 consistent within tutor groups A-J (P = 0.092; Highest third: 72%; Middle third: 73%; Lowest 308 third: 87%; Figure 1c) but not tutor groups K-T (P = 0.419; Highest third: 62%; Middle third: 309 59%; Lowest third: 70%; Figure 1d). This difference appears to be the result of higher 310 progression rates in the intervention group (i.e., the lowest third of tutor groups A-J) compared 311 with the non-intervention group (i.e., the lowest third of tutor groups K-T) (P = 0.027; 312 Intervention: 87%; Non-intervention: 70%; Figure 1b). 313

The number of students that withdrew from the degree programme before the end of the academic year was not different between tertiles (P = 0.490; Highest third: 7 students; Middle third: 13 students; Lowest third: 7 students). There was also no difference between tertiles in the number of withdrawals for tutor groups A-J (P = 0.610) or K-T (P = 0.381), or between intervention and non-intervention groups (P = 0.697).

319 Mean grade

One-way ANOVA revealed no significant difference in mean grade between tertiles when 320 assessed as an entire cohort (P = 0.129; Figure 2a). Alternatively, mean grade was significantly 321 different between tertiles for tutor groups A-J (P = 0.032), with post-hoc analysis demonstrating 322 significantly higher grades in the lowest third compared with the highest third (P = 0.010) and 323 a trend for higher grades in the lowest third compared with the middle third (P = 0.087) (Figure 324 325 2c). There was no difference between tertiles for tutor groups K-T (P = 0.678; Figure 2d). These contrasting findings appear to be the result of higher mean grades in the intervention group 326 327 compared with the non-intervention group (P = 0.026; Figure 2b).

328 Attendance

One-way ANOVA revealed no significant difference in attendance between tertiles when assessed as an entire cohort (P = 0.375; Figure 3a), tutor groups A-J (P = 0.490; Figure 3c) or tutor groups K-T (P = 0.885; Figure 3d). Attendance was significantly higher in the intervention group than the non-intervention group (P = 0.007; Figure 3b).

333 VLE access

One-way ANOVA revealed no significant difference in the frequency of VLE access between tertiles when assessed as an entire cohort (P = 0.652; Figure 4a), tutor groups A-J (P = 0.935; Figure 4c) or tutor groups K-T (P = 0.500; Figure 4d). There was a trend towards a higher frequency of VLE access in the intervention group compared with the non-intervention group (P = 0.059; Figure 4b).

339

340 **Discussion**

341 Higher education institutions typically rely on personal tutoring programmes to provide both academic and pastoral support to students. However, there is a need to adopt additional 342 strategies to support students during their transition to a university learning environment and 343 to retain students in accordance with the UK performance indicators of HE (HESA 2016; 344 Pollard et al. 2013). Although recent research has used EI screening as a tool to identify 345 students that may require additional support during the transition to university (Philippi, 346 Kristensen, and Taylor 2012; Qualter et al. 2009), the present study did not observe any 347 association between EI scores and academic performance or progression rates in a cohort of 348 349 first year undergraduate students. However, this study did demonstrate improved outcomes for a subsection of the participants that received a targeted text messaging support intervention. 350

In addition to investigating the effects of a supportive text messaging intervention, the present 351 study design enabled further exploration of the relationship between EI and progression rates, 352 achieved mean grade, attendance and VLE access in first year undergraduate students. This 353 354 was achieved through the use of a control group for students within the lowest third of total EI scores who were in tutor groups K-T. Subsequently, the lack of any intervention for the 168 355 students in tutor groups K-T across all EI tertiles provided the opportunity to investigate these 356 357 relationships without any contamination from experimental interventions. Our findings demonstrated that progression rates, achieved mean grade, attendance and VLE access did not 358 significantly differ across the three tertiles of EI. These results do not appear to support the 359 notion suggested by others that higher emotional intelligence is associated with greater 360

361 likelihood to progress (Parker et al. 2006; Qualter et al. 2009), higher academic attainment (Parker et al. 2004, 2005; Pope, Roper, and Qualter 2012) and greater engagement with 362 learning (Arguedas, Daradoumis, and Xhafa 2016). One potential explanation for such 363 364 conflicting results is the method of data analysis performed within the studies. In this regard, positive associations between EI and academic outcomes have typically been observed via 365 retrospective analysis of EI scores after the participants have been separated into categories of 366 367 academic achievement or progression at the end of the monitoring period (Parker et al. 2004, 2005, 2006; Pope, Roper, and Qualter 2012; Qualter et al. 2009). In contrast, the purpose of 368 369 the present study was to evaluate the effectiveness of EI screening as a prospective measure to identify students that might benefit from additional support during their first year at university. 370 371 The categorisation of participants into tertiles based on total EI scores follows a similar 372 approach to Qualter et al. (2009) who also failed to observe a relationship between EI and progression rates when participants were prospectively categorised. 373

374 A particularly novel aspect of the present study was the targeted provision of a text messaging intervention to raise students' awareness of university support services at key time points 375 during the academic year. Although the present study may be regarded as a pilot intervention, 376 377 the initial results are encouraging. In this regard, compared with a matched control group, the 378 students receiving the intervention demonstrated significantly higher progression rates, higher 379 mean grades, higher attendance, and a trend towards greater VLE access. These seemingly 380 beneficial effects occurred despite the absence of any responses from the intervention group to seek appointments with the Student Liaison Officer after receiving the text messages. The 381 reasons for students not responding to the offered support are unknown but their reluctance to 382 383 engage with support services corresponds with previous literature. In this regard, university students have shown significant heterogeneity in their support seeking behaviours, with 384 students commonly not seeking help for academic (Ryan et al. 1998), counselling (Morgan et 385

386 al. 2003) career guidance (Graef et al. 2010), and mental health support (Eisenberg et al. 2007) even when the help is available and required. Findings specifically from UK universities 387 highlight that many students do not seek support even when experiencing a problem (Christie 388 389 et al. 2004), which is particularly concerning based on data from more than 450 campus-based 390 and open university students that all students within this sample reported some difficulty when entering HE (Gutteridge 2001). In the present study we attempted to reduce the barriers to 391 392 support seeking by directly reminding students of the support available within the university. Further investigation of the reasons underlying the lack of help seeking behaviours was beyond 393 394 the scope of this study but represents an important avenue for future research to establish how to develop future support mechanisms that are most appropriate for the student population. 395

Although the text messaging intervention did not promote help seeking behaviours from the 396 397 students, it seems feasible that the receipt of the text messages alone may have benefitted the students. This effect is supported by previous evidence that a text messaging intervention 398 increased participant perceptions of support and persistence with new behaviours in a physical 399 activity setting (Kinnafick, Thøgersen-Ntoumani, and Duda 2016). Furthermore, in a sports 400 performance context the mere perception of support has been shown to evoke an increased 401 402 sense of confidence and reassurance coupled with a reduction in stress and anxiety (Freeman 403 and Rees 2010). These findings suggest that an increased perception of support may have been 404 gained from the text messaging intervention to help students cope and persist with the demands 405 of an unfamiliar HE environment. The observed improvements in progression rates may be particularly relevant for HE institutions in the UK considering the increased focus on student 406 407 retention as a key marker of success for universities and the need for high retention rates to 408 fulfil financial aims via the income generated from tuition fees (Bennett, Kottasz, and 409 Nocciolino 2007; Owen 2002; Simpson 2005). Retention is also important to maximise the prospects of enrolled students based on evidence that compared with non-graduates, university 410

graduates lead healthier lifestyles (Baum, Ma, and Payea 2013) and experience better outcomes
in both lifetime earnings and employability (Day and Newburger 2002; Universities UK 2014).
However, further research is required to substantiate the findings of the present study and to
assess student perceptions of support in response to this form of intervention.

The findings from the present study provide a number of implications and future directions for 415 416 both research and practice that require consideration. First, considering the novelty of the text messaging intervention within this context, it is crucial that further research is performed to 417 investigate similar time- and cost-effective interventions to improve student outcomes in a 418 419 larger sample of students and across a range of institutions. It must also be acknowledged that 420 EI is considered to be a dynamic construct with the potential to fluctuate over the course of a student's experiences within HE (Parker et al. 2004). Subsequently, the findings of the present 421 422 study may be limited by the assessment of EI at a single baseline time point and future research may benefit from the longitudinal assessment of EI and its association with relevant outcomes 423 throughout university degree programmes. Second, future research should also consider the 424 most appropriate outcomes to assess as a measure of student engagement. Although the present 425 study used the most appropriate proxy measurements for student engagement (attendance and 426 427 VLE access), a more targeted and comprehensive investigation is required in future research 428 to examine the qualitative aspects of this concept (Kuh 2009). Third, EI was assessed in the 429 present study using a validated and reliable EI questionnaire (Parker et al. 2011) in order to 430 screen a large cohort of students with limited resources. This method successfully differentiated the EI of students and provided further insights into the relationship between EI and student 431 success outcomes, as well as enabling our investigation into the effects of a text messaging 432 433 intervention for those students with the lowest EI scores on entry to university. The quantitative 434 findings gained from the present study provide important insights into the potential utility of prospective EI screening as a predictor of student success. These findings have also 435

demonstrated the potential benefits of supportive text messaging to improve student outcomes.
It would be beneficial for future research to develop these findings through the addition of
qualitative data to better understand optimal support interventions and for the development of
other novel or adapted approaches to support the diverse needs of university students.

An additional fundamental consideration in relation to the present study is that the definition 440 441 of academic success and achievement remains a debated topic and we did not assess all aspects of this concept. In this regard, a recent review has suggested that additional aspects beyond 442 those assessed in the present study should be considered when measuring academic 443 achievement (York et al. 2015). This includes distinctly assessing the attainment of learning 444 objectives and the acquisition of desired skills and competencies of students during their degree 445 programme as a marker of learning rather than focussing solely on performance ability. Student 446 447 satisfaction has also been considered as an outcome for student success based on the acknowledged relationship between student wellbeing and academic performance (Beghetto 448 2004; York et al. 2015), and ultimately the post-college performance of students should be 449 integrated within measures of academic success (York et al. 2015). Subsequently, although the 450 present study measured the most commonly used markers of academic success, it must be 451 452 acknowledged that this provided relatively narrow criteria for academic success and it would be beneficial for future research to evaluate the effectiveness of support interventions on 453 454 student success when measured more holistically.

Despite these limitations, we can state with confidence that the participants did not respond adversely to the intervention performed in the present study and the observed positive effects associated with such a low-cost initiative suggests that staff within HE environments may be in a position to harness novel time- and cost-effective support mechanisms to benefit student outcomes. It must also be considered that this approach could be used in conjunction with, rather than as a replacement for, peer-mentoring schemes if these are already established within 461 institutions. Such use of multiple student support initiatives may be beneficial considering that
462 peer-support networks have been advocated as a useful intervention for students in HE but that
463 an optimal approach has not yet been established (Crisp and Cruz 2009).

In conclusion, this study did not identify any benefits of EI screening as a prospective indicator 464 of student success but provides encouraging indications that a text messaging support 465 intervention could help to improve attendance, mean grades and progression rates in first year 466 undergraduate students. Considering the novel nature of the intervention within this context, 467 these conclusions should be viewed as tentative, with further research warranted before they 468 are used as the basis for interventions being developed and implemented with student cohorts 469 on a wider scale. The authors of the present study recommend that colleagues at other 470 institutions consider opportunities for conducting additional studies that employ more 471 472 prolonged and intensive investigations to further investigate these proof-of-concept findings.

473

474 Acknowledgements

We would to thanks all of the staff who facilitated the completion of emotional intelligence
profiling during their IRSS seminar sessions. We would also like to thank the Student Liaison
Officers for their assistance with the project and Martin Pemberton for his assistance with the
administration of outcome monitoring.

479 **Conflict of interest**

480 The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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Table 1. Scores for each subscale of the EQ-i:S in each tertile.

	Highest third	Middle third	Lowest third	Р
Interpersonal skills	41 (3)	40 (3)	38 (4)	<0.0005
Intrapersonal skills	27 (5)	23 (4)	19 (4)	< 0.0005
Stress management	28 (5)	24 (4)	22 (3)	<0.0005
Adaptability	27 (4)	26 (3)	24 (4)	<0.0005

628 Values are mean (SD). P-values were determined using one-way ANOVA.

Figure 1. Progression rates from the first to second year of study for the entire cohort (a), the intervention and non-intervention groups (b), tutor groups A-J (c) and tutor groups K-T (d). Black bars represent the number of progressing students and the white bars represent the number of non-progressing students. *Significantly different between intervention and nonintervention groups.

Figure 2. Mean grade achieved during the first year of study for the entire cohort (a), the
intervention and non-intervention groups (b), tutor groups A-J (c) and tutor groups K-T (d).
*Significantly different between intervention and non-intervention groups. *Significantly
higher in the lowest third than the highest third. Values are mean (SD).

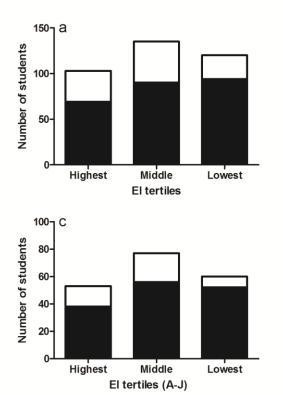
Figure 3. Seminar attendance within the IRSS module for the entire cohort (a), the intervention
and non-intervention groups (b), tutor groups A-J (c) and tutor groups K-T (d). *Significantly
different between intervention and non-intervention groups. Values are mean (SD).

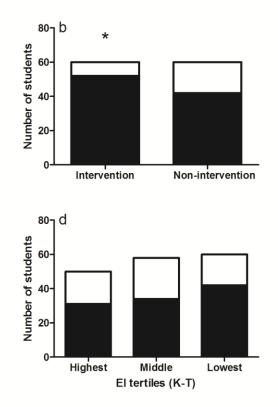
Figure 4. VLE access within the IRSS module for the entire cohort (a), the intervention and
non-intervention groups (b), tutor groups A-J (c) and tutor groups K-T (d). Values are mean
(SD).

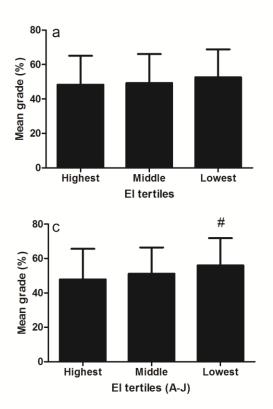
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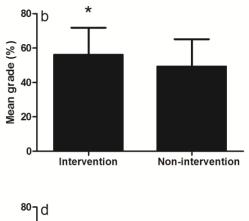
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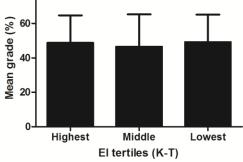
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658 Figure 3

