

Article history: Received 22 February 2024 Revised 29 April 2024 Accepted 17 May 2024 Published online 01 July 2024

# Journal of Assessment and Research in **Applied Counseling**

Volume 6, Issue 3, pp 133-144



# The Impact of Intelligence and Motivational Beliefs on Academic **Engagement Mediated by Academic Self-Concept**

Soraya. Vahid<sup>1</sup><sup>(b)</sup>, Ahmad Ali. Jadidian<sup>2\*</sup><sup>(b)</sup>, Davood. Jafari<sup>3</sup><sup>(b)</sup>

<sup>1</sup> PhD Student, Department of Psychology, Sanandaj Branch, Islamic Azad University, Sanandaj, Iran <sup>2</sup> Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, Kangavar Branch, Islamic Azad University, Kangavar, Iran <sup>3</sup> Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, Malayer Branch, Islamic Azad University, Malayer, Iran

\* Corresponding author email address: ahjadidi53@gmail.com

Article Info

Article type: Original Research

#### How to cite this article:

Vahid, S., Jadidian, A. A., & Jafari, D. (2024). The Impact of Intelligence and Motivational Beliefs Academic on Engagement Mediated by Academic Self-Concept. Journal of Assessment and Research in Applied Counseling, 6(3), 133-144.

http://dx.doi.org/10.61838/kman.jarac.6.3.15



© 2024 the authors. Published by KMAN Publication Inc. (KMANPUB), Ontario, Canada. This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0International (CC BY-NC 4.0) License.

# ABSTRACT

Objective: The objective of this research was to investigate the impact of intelligence and motivational beliefs on academic engagement mediated by academic self-concept.

Methods and Materials: The population of this study consisted of 2,500 female high school students in Hamadan. Based on Cochran's formula and the estimated population variance, the sample size was estimated at 300 participants. The sampling method used was multi-stage cluster sampling. The current research method was applied in terms of objective, and descriptive-correlational and survey in terms of nature and data collection methods. Data were collected through both library studies to examine literature and research background and field studies to achieve the research objective. For measuring intelligence beliefs, the questionnaire by Abdel-Fattah and Yates (2006) was used; for motivational beliefs, the questionnaire by Pintrich and De Groot (1999); for academic selfconcept, the questionnaire by Yessen Chen (2004); and for academic engagement, the questionnaire by Martin and Jackson (2005) was utilized. The data from the questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS 25 and LISREL 8.8 software.

Findings: The findings indicated that intelligence beliefs had a significant positive impact on academic engagement; motivational beliefs also had a significant positive impact on academic engagement; academic self-concept, in turn, positively affected academic engagement.

Conclusion: Ultimately, the results demonstrated that academic self-concept mediated the impact of intelligence beliefs on academic engagement as well as the impact of motivational beliefs on academic engagement.

Keywords: Intelligence beliefs, Motivational beliefs, Academic engagement, Academic self-concept.

ngagement is described as "a positive mental state where the individual is deeply immersed in a challenging activity with high arousal and complete focus" (Bakker, 2008; Liu et al., 2023; Mahmodi et al., 2023; Mäkikangas et al., 2010). Engagement results from a balance between the skills required for the activity and the challenges it presents (Chiang et al., 2011). Three conditions are essential for achieving engagement: firstly, a clear goal must be chosen to encourage activity; secondly, there should be a good balance between perceived challenge and task-related skills; and thirdly, the task must receive immediate and clear feedback (Abdolmaleki et al., 2023). Engagement can occur during any activity but is more likely when the task is performed for intrinsic goals (Javan Mojarad et al., 2022; Maleki, 2022). One of the newer variables in the field of education is academic engagement. Wallen (1999) believed that engagement is a suitable goal for education because it encourages children to participate in learning. When students are actively involved in learning environments, engagement is more likely. It is no wonder that students in non-traditional learning environments, which emphasize active learning, are more likely to experience engagement (Tatiana et al., 2022). There are three areas to enhance intrinsic motivation and engagement in students. First, the student themselves. Csikszentmihalyi introduced a concept called "overlearning," in which students practice new skills beyond basic mastery, leading to automatization. Overlearning enables the mind to focus on the desired performance as a unique, integrated act, thus increasing the individual's capacity for engagement. The second and third areas are the support structures of parents and teachers. Parents should provide two things: first, emotional support, acceptance, and traditions that bring the family together and let the child feel that their goals are supported. Second, challenge with high expectations in a way that provides opportunities for the child's personal and private growth (Chen & Zhang, 2022; Javan Mojarad et al., 2022).

The theory of engagement is closely related to the concept of motivation. For example, according to Chen and Ahern (1999), engagement explains how the structure of an activity in terms of challenge, purpose, feedback, focus, and control has significant effects on intrinsic motivation. Engagement nurtures basic psychological needs including competence, autonomy, and relatedness, which are significantly linked to increased affection, pleasure, and intrinsic motivation (Robayo-Tamayo et al., 2020; Rossi et al., 2017). Csikszentmihalyi (1990) believes that "engagement represents the ultimate form of motivation on the path of internalization and intrinsic motivation. Also, the pleasure derived from an activity, the intrinsic motivation to perform an activity, and becoming completely absorbed in it are important aspects of the engagement experience" (Mahmodi et al., 2023).

Motivational beliefs refer to a set of personal and social standards that individuals refer to for performing or avoiding an action. These motivational standards are formed by the approval or disapproval of significant people in one's life. However, internal standards can also form in various ways such as identification, modeling, direct teaching, personal experience, encouragement, and punishment (Green et al., 2007). Research has shown that the use of a person's talents depends on their motivation. It has often been seen that students with very similar learning abilities and talents differ greatly in academic progress (Burić & Kim, 2020; Dehghani & Hekmatiyan Fard, 2020; Zhang & Liu, 2019). In terms of motivational beliefs, important research has shown that students' beliefs about their abilities are important for their progress and academic motivation (Green et al., 2007; Smit et al., 2017). The study by Pintrich and De Groot (1990) indicated a difference between genders in terms of selfefficacy. These researchers showed that boys have a higher sense of self-efficacy than girls, but there are no differences between boys and girls in terms of academic performance, cognitive strategies, and intrinsic motivation (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990).

On the other hand, an individual's belief in their abilities can affect both their social cognition and their academic engagement. People's beliefs about their abilities have different emotional, cognitive, and behavioral outcomes (Bandura, 1997). Intelligence is one of the abilities that people have different beliefs about. According to the cognitive-social approach by Dweck & Leggett (1998), Dweck & Molden (2005), and Dweck (2011), people's intelligence beliefs include incremental beliefs and innate beliefs. According to Dweck (2000), intelligence beliefs are semantic systems that direct an individual's behavior and make predicting their behavior for others possible. In fact, according to her, it is these beliefs that organize the world around us, lead to greater understanding of the social environment and surroundings, give meaning to our experiences, and generally form each person's behavioral and semantic system, making their behaviors predictable. Dweck (2000) believes that intelligence beliefs are related to students' academic achievements. In behavioral sciences and within the framework of examining relationships between a set of variables, conditions are such that the impact of



context-related variables cannot be ignored, as these contextual factors can play a unique role in determining the nature and quality of these relationships (Dweck, 2013).

On the other hand, over the past two decades, self-concept has been recognized as an important and influential motivational behavior on individuals' academic progress (Huang, 2011; Marsh et al., 1991; Mohajeran et al., 2017; Pinxten et al., 2015; Skaalvik & Valås, 2001; Zahed Babolan et al., 2017). Self-concept is a general concept that refers to a person's perceptions of their abilities, capabilities, and limitations. This perception encompasses various performance-related areas. Part of the self-concept is academic self-concept, which has a significant impact on students' behavior. Academic self-concept refers to a student's perception of their competence regarding academic learning (Mohajeran et al., 2017) and means one's perception of their academic capabilities and limitations, which plays an important role in understanding students' learning, growth, and success in school (Martin & Liem, 2010). In fact, a strong academic self-concept has many educational outcomes for students and positively predicts students' academic success (Chevalère et al., 2023). Pekrun et al. (2011) defined academic self-concept as the process of forming self-evaluations influenced by students' evaluative experiences and interpretation of the educational environment. Academic self-concept gradually takes shape in the early years of schooling, and over time, the individual forms a positive or negative perception of themselves in academic matters as academic self-concept. Individuals who feel more confident and capable in academic tasks compared to others have a higher academic self-concept, and consequently, such self-concepts lead to the growth and academic progress of the individual and prevent the emergence of negative emotions (Basharpoor & Heidari, 2022; Kocaj et al., 2018; Lohbeck & Moschner, 2021; Miao et al., 2018; Mousavi & Badri, 2016; Nasiri et al., 2017; Zahed Babolan et al., 2017).

Given what has been said and considering that students spend most of their time in school, they are constantly exposed to social interactions and are evaluated. These evaluations, whether direct or indirect, have their effects on the person, and it is through these evaluations that the individual gains a perception of their academic status (Zahedbabolan, Karimian Pour, Dashti, 2018). Therefore, this thesis seeks to investigate how the impact of intelligence and motivational beliefs on academic engagement is mediated by academic self-concept (Case Study: High Schools in Hamadan City)?

#### 2. Methods and Materials

#### 2.1. Study Design and Participants

The current research method was applied in terms of its objectives and descriptive-correlational and survey-based in terms of its nature. The study population consisted of all female high school students in Hamadan during the 2021-2022 academic year, totaling 2,500 according to statistics from the Hamadan Department of Education. Based on Cochran's formula and the estimated population variance, the sample size was estimated at 300. The sampling method employed was multi-stage cluster sampling.

#### 2.2. Measures

For the measurement of intelligence beliefs, the 14-item questionnaire by Abdel-Fattah and Yates (2006) was used (Hejazi et al., 2009); for motivational beliefs, the 22-item questionnaire by Pintrich and De Groot (1999); for academic self-concept (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990), the 15-item questionnaire by Yessen Chen (2004); and for academic engagement, the 9-item questionnaire by Martin and Jackson (2005) was utilized (Hejazi et al., 2009). The research questionnaires used a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Agree (5)" to "Strongly Disagree (1)." The validity of the questionnaires was confirmed through content validity and expert consultation with university professors and also through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in the analysis section. The reliability of the questionnaires was calculated using Cronbach's alpha, resulting in an overall reliability coefficient of 0.923, which is much higher than the standard number of 0.7, indicating excellent reliability of the research questionnaire. The reliability coefficient for each of the four research variables and the eight related dimensions was also above 0.7, which is very satisfactory.

### 2.3. Data analysis

The data from the questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS 25 and LISREL 8.8 software and SEM method.

#### 3. Findings and Results

The analysis of demographic data showed that regarding fathers' education, 124 individuals had fathers with below a high school diploma, 85 had fathers with a high school diploma, 48 had fathers with a bachelor's degree, 37 had fathers with a master's degree, and 6 had fathers with a doctorate or higher. Regarding mothers' education, 100



individuals had mothers with below a high school diploma, 103 had mothers with a high school diploma, 60 had mothers with a bachelor's degree, 34 had mothers with a master's degree, and 3 had mothers with a doctorate or higher. Concerning the type of family residence, 5 lived in relatives' homes, 11 in organizational housing, 56 in mortgaged homes, 37 in rented homes, and 191 in privately owned

#### Table 1

Descriptive	Indices of	<sup>e</sup> Variables	and Dimensio	ons of the Study
-------------	------------	------------------------	--------------	------------------

homes. In terms of household income, 37 individuals had an income of less than 5 million tomans, 163 between 5 to 10 million tomans, 81 between 10 to 20 million tomans, and 19 had more than 20 million tomans. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, variance, and total scores) for the variables and dimensions of the study for the research sample.

Variable	Dimension	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Intelligence Beliefs	Innate Intelligence Beliefs	3.71	1.114	1.243
	Incremental Intelligence Beliefs	4.18	1.113	1.241
	Total	3.94	0.881	0.778
Motivational Beliefs	Self-efficacy	4.37	0.877	0.771
	Intrinsic Valuation	4.37	0.879	0.773
	Test Anxiety	4.41	1.045	1.093
	Total	4.38	0.721	0.520
Academic Self-Concept	General	4.46	1.024	1.050
	Laboratory	5.33	0.909	0.828
	Non-Laboratory	6.01	1.185	1.405
	Total	5.27	0.733	0.538
Academic Engagement	-	4.77	1.094	1.198

As can be observed in Table 1, the overall mean for the variable "Intelligence Beliefs" is 3.94, which is slightly below the midpoint (i.e., the number 4 on a 7-point Likert scale); the overall mean for the variable "Motivational Beliefs" is 4.38, slightly above the midpoint; the overall mean for the variable "Academic Self-Concept" is 5.27, which is substantially above the midpoint; and finally, the overall mean for the variable "Academic Engagement" is 4.77, slightly above the midpoint. Among the dimensions of "Intelligence Beliefs," the "Incremental Intelligence Beliefs"

dimension with a mean of 4.18 is higher than the "Innate Intelligence Beliefs" dimension with a mean of 3.71. Among the dimensions of "Motivational Beliefs," the "Test Anxiety" dimension ranks first with a mean of 4.41, followed by both "Self-efficacy" and "Intrinsic Valuation" with a mean of 4.37 each. Among the dimensions of "Academic Self-Concept," the "Non-Laboratory" dimension scored the highest with a mean of 6.01, followed by the "Laboratory" and "General" dimensions with means of 5.33 and 4.46, respectively.

# Table 2

Pearson Correlation Matrix Between the Four Research Variables

Variable	Academic Engagement	Academic Self-Concept	Motivational Beliefs	Intelligence Beliefs
Intelligence Beliefs	.521	.566	.492	1.000
Motivational Beliefs	.601	.482	1.000	-
Academic Self-Concept	.458	1.000	-	-
Academic Engagement	1.000	-	-	-

According to Table 2, all pairwise relationships are significant at the 99% level (Sig = .000). The highest correlation coefficient is between "Motivational Beliefs" and "Academic Engagement" (.601); the lowest correlation coefficient is between "Academic Self-Concept" and "Academic Engagement" (.458). The coefficient of determination is .223 ( $R^2 = .4722$ ), meaning that the three

variables "Intelligence Beliefs," "Motivational Beliefs," and "Academic Self-Concept" together can predict approximately 22% of the variance in the dependent variable "Academic Engagement."

As indicated in, all correlation coefficients between the variables (dimensions and subscales of the desire for, selfdifferentiation, ego strength, and irrational beliefs) are



positive and significant at the .05 level. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was applied to concurrently test the presumed relationship constructs in the current hypothesis. Table 3 shows the structural model, paths, and theirstandardizations in the final hypothesis model.

# Table 3

Pearson Correlation Test Results Among the Eight Dimensions of the Study and Academic Engagement

Variable	Innate Intelligence Beliefs	Incremental Intelligence Beliefs	Self- Efficacy	Intrinsic Valuation	Test Anxiety	General	Laboratory	Non- Laboratory	Academic Engagement
Innate Intelligence Beliefs	1	.253	.115	.233	.231	.326	.329	.256	.241
Incremental Intelligence Beliefs		1	.370	.154	.235	.247	.200	.231	.331
Self-Efficacy			1	.470	.286	.303	.126	.115	.648
Intrinsic Valuation				1	.432	.331	.122	.218	.510
Test Anxiety					1	.473	.449	.421	.513
General						1	.116	.245	.312
Laboratory							1	.468	.441
Non-Laboratory								1	1
Academic Engagement									1

According to Table 3, all pairwise relationships are significant at the 99% level (Sig = .000). The highest correlation coefficient is between "Self-Efficacy" and "Academic Engagement" (.648); the lowest correlation

coefficients are between "Innate Intelligence Beliefs" and "Self-Efficacy" as well as between "Self-Efficacy" and "Non-Laboratory," both at .115.

# Table 4

Fit Indices for Structural Equation Modeling

Fit Indices	Research Values	Ideal Values	Fit Result
	1.774	≥.5	Excellent Fit
Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	.080	≥.1	Excellent Fit
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	.84	≤.9	Excellent Fit
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	.94	≤.9	Excellent Fit
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	.94	≤.9	Excellent Fit
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.95	≤.9	Excellent Fit
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	.95	≤.9	Excellent Fit
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	.90	≤.9	Excellent Fit
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.045	≥.05	Excellent Fit
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	.033	≥.05	Excellent Fit

According to Table 4, the model fit indices are in a very favorable state. After confirming the appropriateness of the fit indices, the structural equation model is presented; it is important to show this model in a significant state to confirm

that the paths are significant. Figure 1 shows the structural equation model in a significant state.

The values on the path in the structural equation model represent the t-statistic. If this statistic is outside the range of



 $\pm 1.96$ , the relationship is significant at the 95% level; if it is outside the range of  $\pm 2.58$ , it is significant at the 99% level. As observed in Figure 2, all t-statistics are outside the range of  $\pm 2.58$ ; therefore, all relationships are significant at the 99% level. We now turn to the presentation of the structural equation model in its standardized form. Figure 2 shows this model in its standardized state.

The structural equation model shown in Figure 2 consists of two parts: A) Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) or the measurement model, and B) Path Analysis or the structural model.

A) Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Figure 2 includes four (4) measurement models or confirmatory factor analyses, consisting of: 1) the latent variable of intelligence beliefs with its 14 related items connected by arrows, 2) the latent variable of motivational beliefs with its 22 related items connected by arrows, 3) the latent variable of academic selfconcept with its 15 related items connected by arrows, and 4) the latent variable of academic engagement with its 9

#### Table 5

Testing Hypotheses 1 to 5 in Research

related items connected by arrows. The numbers on the paths between the items (manifest variables) and the latent variable (four research variables) are called "factor loadings." As shown in Figure 3, all factor loadings for the 60 items of the study are above 0.3, indicating that the items (manifest variables) have a high explanatory effect and a strong relationship with their respective latent variables, which demonstrates the construct validity and high reliability of the model and the questionnaire items that measure the independent, mediating, and dependent variables effectively.

B) Path Analysis: In structural equation modeling, path analysis is used to test the research hypotheses. In structural equation modeling, the path coefficient or beta ( $\beta$ ) is the number that shows how much the dependent variable changes (increases, decreases, stays the same) with a one-unit increase in the independent variable. Table 5 shows the results of the hypothesis testing using structural equation modeling (SEM) and specifically path analysis (PA).

Hypothesis	Hypothesis	Independent Variables	Dependent	Path Coefficient	t-Statistic	Hypothesis
Туре	Group		Variables	or β		Outcome
Direct	Sub-	Intelligence Beliefs	Academic	.76	14.88	Confirmed
	hypothesis 1		Engagement			
Direct	Sub-	Motivational Beliefs	Academic	.84	15.26	Confirmed
	hypothesis 2		Engagement			
Direct	Sub-	Academic Self-Concept	Academic	.72	14.50	Confirmed
	hypothesis 3		Engagement			
Indirect	Sub-	Intelligence Beliefs $\rightarrow$ Academic Self-	.453 (.72*.63)	(14.50)(13.98)	Confirmed	
	hypothesis 4	$Concept \rightarrow Academic Engagement$				
Indirect	Sub-	Motivational Beliefs $\rightarrow$ Academic Self-	.497 (.72*.69)	(14.50)(14.10)	Confirmed	
	hypothesis 5	Concept $\rightarrow$ Academic Engagement				





Vahid et al.

# Figure 1

Model with T-Values







### Figure 2

Model with Beta Values



HOOSH = Intelligence Beliefs; ANGIZESH= Motivational Beliefs; PENDAREH = Academic Self-Concept; SHIFTEGI = Academic Engagement

In structural equation modeling, acceptance or rejection of hypotheses depends on the t-statistics; if these values are outside the range of  $\pm 1.96$ , the hypothesis is accepted at the 95% level, and if outside the range of  $\pm 2.58$ , it is accepted at the 99% level. According to Table 5, since the t-statistics for all five direct research hypotheses and also the two indirect hypotheses are outside the range of  $\pm 2.58$ , all seven research hypotheses are significant at the 99% level, and thus are confirmed.

### 4. Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, we aimed to explore the impact of intelligence and motivational beliefs on academic engagement mediated by academic self-concept among



female high school students in Hamadan. After designing an appropriate structural equation model (SEM) and verifying the suitability of the measures, we distributed and collected 300 questionnaires to assess the four research variables. Following the collection of the questionnaires, the designed constructs were tested through structural equation modeling (SEM) and, after achieving satisfactory model fit, the research hypotheses were tested, yielding the following results:

The result of the first hypothesis of the study indicated that "intelligence beliefs" with a beta coefficient ( $\beta$ ) of 0.76 have a significant positive impact on "academic engagement" among female high school students in Hamadan. This finding is implicitly consistent with the prior research results (Hejazi et al., 2009). In explaining the findings from this hypothesis, it can be said that students who hold incremental beliefs about intelligence typically emphasize improving their competencies and acquiring new knowledge and strive to overcome past failures. They prefer tasks that are challenging and new. Conversely, individuals with innate intelligence beliefs tend to choose performanceoriented goals and prefer tasks that they can perform without error. Students who see intelligence as malleable and incremental exert more effort compared to those who believe in fixed intelligence. Students with incremental beliefs prefer challenging tasks (Chen & Zhang, 2022; Hejazi et al., 2009).

The result of the second hypothesis of the study showed that "motivational beliefs" with a beta coefficient ( $\beta$ ) of 0.76 significantly positively affect "academic engagement" among these students. This finding coincides, implicitly, with the findings from prior studies (Bakker, 2008; Burić & Kim, 2020; Dehghani & Hekmatiyan Fard, 2020; Dweck, 2013; Green et al., 2007; Kocaj et al., 2018; Lohbeck & Moschner, 2021; Mäkikangas et al., 2010; Martin & Liem, 2010; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Smit et al., 2017; Zhang & Liu, 2019). In elucidating this finding, it can be stated that motivation is a three-dimensional phenomenon that includes an individual's beliefs about the reasons for performing a behavior and the emotional response to it. Educational motivation refers to behaviors that lead to learning and progress. Motivation encompasses three dimensions: intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation. In intrinsic motivation, the task itself is pleasurable for the individual, whereas in extrinsic motivation, the task is seen as a means to achieve another goal, and in amotivation, there is no link between behavior and its outcomes, and the individual attributes the cause of the behavior to forces outside their control (Martin

& Liem, 2010; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Smit et al., 2017). People with high intrinsic motivation perform better than others and consider the utility and value of tasks and skills, as well as improving knowledge, overcoming weaknesses, and enhancing cognitive strengths as important and necessary. Consequently, these individuals increase their level of attention and effort, resulting in better outcomes (Green et al., 2007). Students with high intrinsic academic motivation pursue competence and mastery of academic subjects, feel responsible for achieving success, have high perseverance, and redouble their efforts in case of failure; on the other hand, extrinsic motivation involves behavior regulated to obtain positive outcomes or avoid negative consequences, essentially motivated by external environment and aimed at achieving external desires. Therefore, it can be said that these two variables stem from the same source, and the more successful an individual is in achieving external standards and expectations, the higher their extrinsic motivation becomes. Furthermore, in explaining this finding, it can be said that students with high extrinsic motivation are more goal-oriented towards external factors such as obtaining grades, excelling, receiving approval from teachers or peers, or even avoiding the consequences of failure, obtaining a diploma, achieving a better and preferred job, and preparing for a future career (Lohbeck & Moschner, 2021). Therefore, it is expected that motivational beliefs of students can directly affect their academic engagement.

The result of the third hypothesis showed that "academic self-concept" with a beta coefficient ( $\beta$ ) of 0.72 has a significant positive impact on "academic engagement" among these students. This finding is implicitly consistent with the prior studies (Basharpoor & Heidari, 2022; Chevalère et al., 2023; Huang, 2011; Kocaj et al., 2018; Lohbeck & Moschner, 2021; Miao et al., 2018; Mousavi & Badri, 2016; Nasiri et al., 2017; Pinxten et al., 2015; Zahed Babolan et al., 2017). Individuals who consider themselves more effective, confident, and capable in performing tasks compared to others will have a higher academic selfconcept, which consequently leads to growth and future academic progress, increased interest and motivation in them, and thus greater academic engagement (Mousavi & Badri, 2016; Pinxten et al., 2015). Accordingly, individuals who start their education with a positive perception of themselves and their capabilities foster this positive thinking, leading to their academic progress. Moreover, their academic progress provides positive feedback to their selfconcept and the accuracy of their perception of themselves



and their capabilities. According to Bandura's theory (2000), self-concept is a constructive power that effectively organizes cognitive, social, emotional, and behavioral skills to achieve various goals. Students form their academic selfconcept in each subject using two judgments. The first is an external judgment, where an individual's skills in a subject are compared with those of other students, and the second is an internal judgment, where an individual's skills in one subject are compared with their skills in other subjects (Chevalère et al., 2023; Huang, 2011). According to the theory of academic learning, cognitive entry behaviors such as an individual's previous learning history, general intelligence, overall aptitude, verbal ability, and learning style, and emotional entry characteristics such as interests, attitudes, and emotions play a significant role in the formation and shaping of their academic self-concept (Lohbeck & Moschner, 2021).

The result of the fourth hypothesis showed that "intelligence beliefs" with a beta coefficient ( $\beta$ ) of 0.453 have a significant positive impact on "academic engagement" among students mediated by "academic selfconcept." This finding is implicitly consistent with the prior studies (Abdolmaleki et al., 2023; Chen & Zhang, 2022; Hejazi et al., 2009). In explaining the findings from the fourth hypothesis, it can be said that, according to the control-value theory, intelligence beliefs are a type of cognitive evaluation that affects the mental control and value people place on activities and academic outcomes. Individuals with incremental beliefs think that they can enhance their competence level through substantial effort (Smit et al., 2017). Hence, striving for success is valuable. These individuals have a higher sense of mental control over learning and its outcomes, which leads to pride and satisfaction from performance. As a result, the propensity for academic engagement increases. While individuals with innate beliefs assume that their abilities and competences are fixed, and effort and struggle do not play a role in changing their abilities. These individuals believe they have no, or very little, control over activities. Learning is not only important in itself, but external reinforcers such as good grades, others' encouragement, and rank advancement are valued (Abdolmaleki et al., 2023). Therefore, academic engagement increases. In this situation, academic selfconcept can influence the relationship between intelligence beliefs and increased academic engagement.

The result of the fifth hypothesis showed that "motivational beliefs" with a beta coefficient ( $\beta$ ) of 0.497 have a significant positive impact on "academic

engagement" among students mediated by "academic selfconcept." This finding is implicitly consistent with the prior studies (Kocaj et al., 2018; Lohbeck & Moschner, 2021; Martin & Liem, 2010; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Smit et al., 2017; Zhang & Liu, 2019). When an individual has a good perception of themselves, they feel capable and think confidently, thus they strive to ensure their behavior is associated with success, which later contributes to an increased sense of self-worth. Conversely, a student who considers themselves unsuccessful will perform academically below the level of their inherited talent and ability (Lohbeck & Moschner, 2021). That is, this student is capable of succeeding but cannot reach the expected level due to factors other than intelligence because they believe they are incapable (Kocaj et al., 2018). Thus, it can be claimed that students with a better self-concept, who trust in their academic abilities and capabilities, exert more effort in academic matters, which likely leads to greater interest in academic matters and student success. In such conditions, a student envisions greater motivational beliefs for their education and future academic purposes, which in turn enhances their academic engagement.

# 5. Limitations & Suggestions

Given the significant role of intelligence and motivational beliefs in students' academic performance, it is recommended that schools conduct training workshops to familiarize students, teachers, administrators, and parents with intelligence and motivational beliefs and their role in students' academic engagement. Moreover, considering the mediating role of academic self-concept in the relationship between motivational and intelligence beliefs and students' academic engagement, teachers should enhance academic engagement by creating the necessary conditions to elevate students' motivation, especially intrinsic motivation. To this end, teachers should be as flexible as possible in their classroom programs and avoid rigid, unchangeable plans. They should also assign tasks that are associated with personal success; or by demonstrating successful performance, provide similar and appropriate role models to reduce students' negligence and fatigue.

# Acknowledgments

We would like to express our appreciation and gratitude to all those who cooperated in carrying out this study.



# **Declaration of Interest**

The authors of this article declared no conflict of interest.

# **Ethical Considerations**

The study protocol adhered to the principles outlined in the Helsinki Declaration, which provides guidelines for ethical research involving human participants.

# **Transparency of Data**

In accordance with the principles of transparency and open research, we declare that all data and materials used in this study are available upon request.

# Funding

This research was carried out independently with personal funding and without the financial support of any governmental or private institution or organization.

# **Authors' Contributions**

All authors equally contributed in this article.

### References

- Abdolmaleki, S., Pirani, Z., & Zanganeh, F. (2023). Designing an Academic Self-Regulation Model based on Basic Psychological Needs and Family Communication Pattern with the Mediation of Academic Engagement. Sociology of Education, 9(1), 325-336. https://doi.org/10.22034/ijes.2023.552971.1303
- Bakker, A. B. (2008). The work-related flow inventory: Construction and initial validation of the WOLF. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 72(3), 400-414. https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S00018791 07001236
- Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy the exercise of control. New York: H. Freeman & Co. Student Success, 333, 48461. https://scholar.google.com/scholar?q=4.+Bandura,+A.+(199 7).+Self-

efficacy:+The+exercise+of+control.+Macmillan&hl=en&as\_ sdt=0&as\_vis=1&oi=scholart

- Basharpoor, S., & Heidari, F. (2022). The model of structural relationships of family cohesion /adaptability, academic selfconcept and social acceptability with school adjustment: the mediator role of educational engagement. *Journal of School Psychology*, *11*(2), 6-20. https://www.magiran.com/paper/2485315
- Burić, I., & Kim, L. E. (2020). Teacher self-efficacy, instructional quality, and student motivational beliefs: An analysis using multilevel structural equation modeling. *Learning and Instruction*, 66, 101302. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2019.101302
- Chen, H., & Zhang, M. H. (2022). The Relationship Between Basic Psychological Needs Satisfaction and University Students' Academic Engagement: The Mediating Effect of Emotional

Intelligence. *Frontiers in psychology*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.917578

- Chevalère, J., Cazenave, L., Wollast, R., Berthon, M., Martinez, R., Mazenod, V., Borion, M.-C., Pailler, D., Rocher, N., & Cadet, R. (2023). The influence of socioeconomic status, working memory and academic self-concept on academic achievement. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 38(1), 287-309. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10212-022-00599-9
- Chiang, Y.-T., Lin, S. S., Cheng, C.-Y., & Liu, E. Z.-F. (2011). Exploring Online Game Players' Flow Experiences and Positive Affect. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology-TOJET*, *10*(1), 106-114. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ926559
- Dehghani, Y., & Hekmatiyan Fard, S. (2020). Investigation Role of Educational Optimism, Metacognitive Beliefs and Cognitive Emotion Regulation in Prediction of Self-Handicapping in Students with Special Learning Disabilities. *Psychology of Exceptional Individuals*, 10(37), 135-159. https://doi.org/10.22054/jpe.2020.50285.2112
- Dweck, C. S. (2013). Self-theories: Their role in motivation, personality, and development. Psychology press. https://www.taylorfrancis.com/books/mono/10.4324/978131 5783048/self-theories-carol-dweck
- Green, C. L., Walker, J. M. T., Hoover-Dempsey, K. V., & Sandler, H. M. (2007). Parents' motivations for involvement in children's education: An empirical test of a theoretical model of parental involvement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99(3), 532-544. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.99.3.532
- Hejazi, E., Rastegar, A., Gholami, L. M., & GHORBAN, J. R. (2009). Intelligence beliefs and academic achievement: Mediating role of academic goals and academic engagement. https://www.sid.ir/paper/565367/en
- Huang, C. (2011). Self-concept and academic achievement: A meta-analysis of longitudinal relations. *Journal of School Psychology*, 49(5), 505-528. https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S00224405 11000537
- Javan Mojarad, A., Aliakbar, S., Zaynali, H. P., & Abbas, A. (2022). The efficacy of forgiveness therapy in the happiness and quality of academic life of students. *Journal of Educational Psychology Studies*, 19(45), 28-41. https://www.magiran.com/paper/2483966
- Kocaj, A., Kuhl, P., Jansen, M., Pant, H. A., & Stanat, P. (2018). Educational placement and achievement motivation of students with special educational needs. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 55, 63-83. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2018.09.004
- Liu, S., Wang, X., Ying, J., Shi, J., & Wu, X. (2023). Emotional Involvement Matters, Too: Associations Among Parental Involvement, Time Management and Academic Engagement Vary With Youth's Developmental Phase. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjep.12605
- Lohbeck, A., & Moschner, B. (2021). Motivational Regulation Strategies, Academic Self-Concept, and Cognitive Learning Strategies of University Students: Does Academic Self-Concept Play an Interactive Role? European Journal of Psychology of Education. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10212-021-00583-9
- Mahmodi, A., Yarahmadi, Y., & Moradi, O. (2023). Designing a Reverse Learning Model and Investigating the Effectiveness of the Created Educational Program on Academic Engagement and the Sense of Belonging to School of Senior High School Students. *Iranian Journal of Learning and Memory*, 5(20), 5-17. https://doi.org/10.22034/iepa.2023.170293



- Mäkikangas, A., Bakker, A. B., Aunola, K., & Demerouti, E. (2010). Job resources and flow at work: Modelling the relationship via latent growth curve and mixture model methodology. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(3), 795-814. https://bpspsychub.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1348/ 096317909X476333
- Maleki, B. (2022). Causal model of academic Engagement based on Academic support and psychological capital of university students. *Journal of Educational Psychology Studies*, 19(46), 144-127. https://jeps.usb.ac.ir/article\_6968\_en.html?lang=fa
- Marsh, H. W., Craven, R. G., & Debus, R. (1991). Self-concepts of young children 5 to 8 years of age: Measurement and multidimensional structure. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83(3), 377-392. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.83.3.377
- Martin, A. J., & Liem, G. A. D. (2010). Academic personal bests (PBs), engagement, and achievement: A cross-lagged panel analysis. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 20(3), 265-270.

https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S10416080 10000026

- Miao, H., Li, Z., Yang, Y., & Guo, C. (2018). Social Comparison Orientation and Social Adaptation Among Young Chinese Adolescents: The Mediating Role of Academic Self-Concept [Original Research]. Frontiers in psychology, 9. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01067
- Mohajeran, b., akbari, t., hassani, m., Musavi, M. N., & sameri, m. (2017). The investigation of the relationship between belief development and self-concept and citizenly behavior: a gender comparison. *Journal of Islamic Education*, 12(24), 119-137. https://doi.org/10.30471/edu.2017.1309
- Mousavi, F., & Badri, O. (2016). Investigating the relationship between Metacognitive awareness and academic self-concept, attitude toward school and social adjustment of students. *Journal of New Approaches in Educational Administration*, 7(25), 177-190.

https://jedu.marvdasht.iau.ir/article\_1882.html

https://jedu.marvdasht.iau.ir/article\_1882\_67b46b478ad18460fd8 63b1be6c92e26.pdf

- Nasiri, M., Micaeli Manee, F., & Issazadegan, A. (2017). Structural Relationship between Perceived Difficulty, Social Comparison and Academic Self-Concept with Academic Adjustment of BA Students Urmia University. *Research in School and Virtual Learning*, 5(1), 9-22. https://etl.journals.pnu.ac.ir/article\_4081.html
- https://etl.journals.pnu.ac.ir/article\_4081\_68ee929d711145bac768 f6cbd739bd29.pdf
- Pintrich, P. R., & De Groot, E. V. (1990). Motivational and selfregulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(1), 33-40. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.82.1.33
- Pinxten, M., Wouters, S., Preckel, F., Niepel, C., De Fraine, B., & Verschueren, K. (2015). The formation of academic selfconcept in elementary education: A unifying model for external and internal comparisons. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 41, 124-132. https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0361476 X14000769
- Robayo-Tamayo, M., Blanco-Donoso, L. M., Román, F. J., Carmona-Cobo, I., Moreno-Jiménez, B., & Garrosa, E. (2020). Academic engagement: A diary study on the mediating role of academic support. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 80, 101887. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2020.101887

Rossi, F., Rosli, A., & Yip, N. (2017). Academic engagement as knowledge co-production and implications for impact: Evidence from Knowledge Transfer Partnerships. *Journal of Business Research*, 80, 1-9.

Skaalvik, E. M., & Valås, H. (2001). ACHIEVEMENT AND. Self perception, 2, 221. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/269985028\_Achiev ement\_and\_selfconcept\_in\_mathematics\_and\_verbal\_arts\_A\_study\_of\_Relat ions

- Smit, K., de Brabander, C. J., Boekaerts, M., & Martens, R. L. (2017). The self-regulation of motivation: Motivational strategies as mediator between motivational beliefs and engagement for learning. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 82, 124-134. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2017.01.006
- Tatiana, B., Kobicheva, A., Tokareva, E., & Mokhorov, D. (2022). The relationship between students' psychological security level, academic engagement and performance variables in the digital educational environment. *Education and Information Technologies*, 27(7), 9385-9399. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-022-11024-5
- Zahed Babolan, A., Karimianpour, G., & Dashti, A. (2017). Role of Life Quality in School and Academic Self-Concept on Academic Engagement in Salas babajani fifth and Sixth Grade Students. New Educational Approaches 12(1), 75-91. https://doi.org/10.22108/nea.2017.21751
- Zhang, S., & Liu, Q. (2019). Investigating the relationships among teachers' motivational beliefs, motivational regulation, and their learning engagement in online professional learning communities. *Computers & Education*, 134, 145-155. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2019.02.013

