NFC	ABILITY SELF	-CONCEPT AND	ACADEMIC	ACHIEVEMENT
mro.	ADILLI DELL'	-(/(///////////////////////////////////		

1

- On the interplay of motivational characteristics and academic achievement:
- The role of Need for Cognition

3 Abstract

- While intelligence and motivational variables are well-established predictors of academic
- 5 achievement, Need for Cognition (NFC), the stable intrinsic motivation to engage in and
- 6 enjoy challenging intellectual activity, has not yet been considered comprehensively in this
- ⁷ field of research approaches, especially not longitudinally. By applying latent change score
- 8 modelling, we examined the incremental value of NFC, considering well-established
- 9 motivational constructs as well as prior achievement in the prediction of academic
- achievement across different subjects in a longitudinal approach in a sample of secondary
- school students (N = 271 and 255, respectively). Correlations of NFC with grades were
- comparable to those of established predictors. NFC incrementally predicted academic
- achievement over and above prior achievement as well as ability self-concept. Furthermore,
- ¹⁴ a mutual influence of NFC and academic achievement was found pointing to
- skill-development as well as self-enhancement processes taken place in this interplay.
- ¹⁶ Consequently, we propose to include NFC in models for the comprehensive explanation of
- 17 academic achievement in school.
- 18 Keywords: Need for Cognition, Academic Achievement, Academic Self-Concept,
- 19 Latent Change Score Modeling, Longitudinal
- Word count: 5809

On the interplay of motivational characteristics and academic achievement: The role of Need for Cognition

In recent decades, a great deal of research has been conducted on the prediction of
academic achievement. While meta-analyses indicate that intelligence is the strongest
predictor for academic achievement (e.g., Deary, Strand, Smith, & Fernandes, 2007; Roth
et al., 2015; Zaboski, Kranzler, & Gage, 2018), motivational variables have consistently
been found to have incremental value for academic achievement (e.g., Kriegbaum, Becker,
& Spinath, 2018; Steinmayr, Weidinger, Schwinger, & Spinath, 2019). Concepts like ability
self-concept, hope for success and fear of failure, interest and values are well known and
equally established indicators (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010; e.g., Wigfield & Eccles, 2000)
that are subsumed under the umbrella term of achievement motivation (Steinmayr et al.,
2019).

Over the last years, an additional predictor of academic achievement came into the 33 focus of research in this field: the personality trait Need for Cognition (NFC), defined as 34 the stable intrinsic motivation of an individual to engage in and enjoy challenging 35 intellectual activity (Cacioppo, Petty, Feinstein, & Jarvis, 1996). Investment traits (von Stumm & Ackerman, 2013) such as NFC determine how individuals invest their cognitive 37 resources and how they deal with cognitively challenging material. It has been shown that NFC is related to academic achievement in different stages of academic life (e.g., Ginet & Py, 2000; Grass, Strobel, & Strobel, 2017; Luong et al., 2017; Preckel, 2014; for a meta-analytical review see von Stumm & Ackerman, 2013) and to behaviors associated with success in learning. As examples, NFC was found to be related to ability self-concept (e.g., Dickhäuser & Reinhard, 2010; Luong et al., 2017), interest in school (e.g., Preckel, 2014) or deeper processing while learning (Evans, Kirby, & Fabrigar, 2003; Luong et al., 2017).

The enjoyment of accomplishing something, the interest in task engagement, and the intrinsic value of working on a task have been suggested to be relevant to learning and

- academic achievement and have been integrated into models of achievement motivation

 (e.g., Wigfield & Eccles, 2000; see also Wigfield & Cambria, 2010 for a review).

 Surprisingly, the concept of a more general joy of thinking, that is NFC, has not yet been investigated systematically together with established motivational indicators or was integrated into models for the prediction of academic achievement, especially in school contexts. In particular, longitudinal studies are missing that have a comprehensive look at the interplay of all relevant variables.
- Only last year, a large longitudinal study examined intelligence, the Big Five, a range of different motivational measures together with NFC in order to determine their value in predicting academic achievement in school (Lavrijsen, Vansteenkiste, Boncquet, & Verschueren, 2021). Their results showed intelligence and NFC to be the strongest predictors of academic performance. The ability self-concept was the best predictor within the group of motivational variables. This underscores the importance to consider NFC along with established predictors in gaining a comprehensive picture of the prediction of academic achievement.
- To follow-up on these findings and to provide new insights in the interplay of
 academic achievement, NFC and motivational variables, we examined the incremental
 value of NFC, considering well-established motivational constructs as well as prior
 achievement in the prediction of academic achievement across different subjects in a
 longitudinal approach in a sample of secondary school students.

67 Achievement Motivation and its relation to academic achievement

Achievement motivation is operationalized through various variables and can be seen as an essential predictor of academic achievement (e.g., Hattie, 2009; Steinmayr & Spinath, 2009; Wigfield & Cambria, 2010). Well-established concepts such as ability self-concept, hope for success and fear of failure, or variables such as interests and values can be found under this term (Hulleman, Barron, Kosovich, & Lazowski, 2016; Steinmayr et al., 2019). These constructs are part of prominent motivational theories (cf., Eccles & Wigfield, 2020; Elliot & Church, 1997; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000), and they positively predict academic achievement (e.g., Steinmayr & Spinath, 2009; Steinmayr, Weidinger, & Wigfield, 2018), which is why they were included in this study as important motivational indicators. They are briefly introduced below.

Ability Self-concept. Ability self-concept can be described as generalized or 78 subject-specific ability perceptions that students acquire based on competence experiences 79 in the course of their academic life (Möller & Köller, 2004). They thus reflect cognitive 80 representations of one's level of ability (Marsh, 1990), which affects students' academic 81 performance (e.g., Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). A meta-analysis found moderate correlations with academic achievement (r = .34, Huang, 2011), whereas the association was lower 83 (r.20) when controlled for prior achievement (e.g., Marsh & Martin, 2011). Steinmayr et al. (2019) demonstrated that among several motivational indicators, domain-specific ability self-concept was the strongest predictor of academic achievement. Moreover, ability self-concept and academic achievement influence each other and can thus mutually reinforce or weaken each other (e.g., Guay, Marsh, & Boivin, 2003).

Hope for Success/Fear of Failure. Murray (1938) considered the Need for
Achievement as one of the basic human needs and as a relatively stable personality trait.
His concept was extended by McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953), who
differentiated the achievement motives hope for success (the belief of being able to succeed
accompanied by the experience of positive emotions) and fear of failure (worry about
failing in achievement situations and the experience of negative emotions). Such affective
tendencies in the context of achievement motivation are reflected, for instance, in the
choice of task difficulty, affinity for risk, and quality of task completion (Diseth &
Martinsen, 2003). Hope for success may facilitate knowledge acquisition, whereas fear of
failure may impede it (Diseth & Martinsen, 2003). A meta-analysis found achievement
motivation in the sense of hope for success weakly to moderately positively related to

academic achievement (r = .26, Robbins et al., 2004). For the association of fear of failure and academic achievement, findings from individual studies suggest a relationship of similar magnitude but in a different direction (e.g., r = -.26, Dickhäuser, Dinger, Janke, Spinath, & Steinmayr, 2016).

Task values - Interest. Another important motivational indicator that was also 104 included in the influential model of Wigfield and Eccles (2000); see also Eccles and 105 Wigfield (2020), describes task values. Such task values focus on importance, perceived 106 utility, and interest in a task and costs associated with it, whereas the latter is often 107 omitted (cf. Jacobs, Lanza, Osgood, Eccles, & Wigfield, 2002). Findings on relations 108 between task values and academic achievement point to reciprocal relationships between 109 them (Li, Huebner, & Tian, 2021). Furthermore, there is some evidence that the 110 interaction of task values and self-concept may be of special relevance for predicting 111 academic achievement, although the state of evidence on this is still mixed (Meyer, 112 Fleckenstein, & Köller, 2019). Specifically on the domain of interest, a number of papers 113 are available on the relationship with academic achievement in school, with correlations 114 being in a low to moderate range (for an overview, see Steinmayr et al., 2019). A 115 meta-analysis on the relationship between interest and achievement found moderate 116 positive correlations between these two variables (Schiefele, Krapp, & Winteler, 1992). 117

118 Need for Cognition and academic achievement

NFC describes the stable intrinsic motivation of an individual to engage in and
enjoy challenging intellectual activity (Cacioppo et al., 1996). While individuals with lower
NFC scores tend to rely more on other people, cognitive heuristics or social comparisons in
decision making, individuals with higher NFC scores show a tendency to seek, acquire and
reflect on information (Cacioppo et al., 1996). NFC, mirroring the typical cognitive
performance of a person, has been shown to be rather modestly related to intelligence and
its fluid (Fleischhauer et al., 2010) and crystallized (von Stumm & Ackerman, 2013)

126 components.

145

146

NFC correlates with academic achievement across different stages of school and 127 university: For example, Preckel (2014) reported a weak positive correlation primarily for 128 Math in secondary school. Ginet and Py (2000) found a mean correlation of r = .33129 between NFC and academic achievement in school across all school years studied, with 130 lower correlations in earlier and higher correlations in later school years, a pattern that can 131 also be found in Luong et al. (2017). Colling, Wollschläger, Keller, Preckel, and Fischbach 132 (2022) also report differences in the strength of the correlations with academic achievement 133 in school, here depending on the type of school, with the associations between NFC and 134 academic achievement being strongest in the highest and weakest in the lowest school 135 track. As regards university, low to medium correlations were found for NFC and average 136 grades (see Richardson, Abraham, & Bond, 2012; von Stumm & Ackerman, 2013). A 137 similar picture emerges for the correlation of NFC and university entrance tests results (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982; Olson, Camp, & Fuller, 1984; Tolentino, Curry, & Leak, 1990). Concerning the interplay of intelligence and NFC in the context of academic 140 achievement, Strobel, Behnke, Grass, and Strobel (2019) found that reasoning ability and

Concerning the interplay of intelligence and NFC in the context of academic achievement, Strobel, Behnke, Grass, and Strobel (2019) found that reasoning ability and NFC both significantly predicted higher grade point average (GPA). Interestingly, NFC also moderated the relation between intelligence and GPA: at higher levels of NFC, the relation of reasoning ability and GPA was diminished. Although this finding requires independent replication, it could point to a potentially compensating effect of NFC.

NFC and motivational aspects of learning

The increased willingness to invest mental effort and attention in task and information processing that is typical for individuals with higher NFC is also associated with positive correlations to various traits, behaviours and indicators relevant to learning.

Evans et al. (2003) found associations of NFC with deeper processing while learning.

Dickhäuser and Reinhard (2010) reported strong associations of NFC with the general

ability self-concept and smaller correlations with subject-specific ability self-concepts. 152 Luong et al. (2017) not only reported moderate to high correlations of NFC with aspects of 153 the ability self-concept, but also with learning orientation, processing depth and the desire 154 to learn from mistakes. Preckel (2014) found medium correlations of NFC with learning 155 goals and interest in various school subjects (for the latter association, see also Keller et 156 al., 2019). Furthermore, Elias and Loomis (2002) found NFC and efficacy beliefs to be 157 moderately correlated. Their results suggested that the relationship between NFC and 158 GPA was mediated by efficacy beliefs, in a way that individuals with higher NFC had 159 higher efficacy beliefs which in turn had a positive effect on academic achievement. Diseth 160 and Martinsen (2003) examined another indicator of performance motivation: In a student 161 sample, they found a high positive correlation between NFC and hope for success and a 162 medium negative relationship between NFC and fear of failure. Bless, Wänke, Bohner, Fellhauer, and Schwarz (1994) report comparable findings. In a large sample of 7th grade students, Lavrijsen et al. (2021) found a strong positive correlation with achievement 165 motivation and no relation of NFC to fear of failure. 166

Several studies examined NFC along with other motivational variables and found 167 NFC to explain variance in academic achievement beyond established motivational 168 variables such as learning orientation or ability self-concept (Keller et al., 2019; Luong et 169 al., 2017). Meier, Vogl, and Preckel (2014) examined potential predictors of the attendance 170 of a gifted class. They found that NFC, compared to other motivational constructs like 171 academic interests and goal orientations, significantly predicted the attendance of a gifted class even when controlling for cognitive ability and other factors like parental education 173 level or ability self-concept. Lavrijsen et al. (2021) examined the predictive value of intelligence, personality (Big Five and NFC) and different motivational constructs for 175 academic achievement and found intelligence, NFC, and the ability self-concept to be the 176 strongest predictors of Math grades and performance in standardized Math tests. 177

The present study

199

200

201

202

203

Overall, NFC has been proven to be a very promising predictor of academic 179 achievement over and above other motivational constructs. Yet, so far the evidence on its 180 incremental predictive value is limited by the mainly cross-sectional nature of available 181 studies and by the fact that only a few school subjects were considered. Furthermore, up to 182 now, prior achievement was not integrated as performance predictor in studies examining 183 NFC. This is a limitation insofar as besides students' cognitive abilities their prior 184 achievement is a relevant predictor of future academic achievement (e.g., Hailikari, Nevgi, 185 & Komulainen, 2007; Steinmayr et al., 2019). 186

With the present study, we aim at adding to the existing body of research by 187 examining NFC, motivational indicators (ability self-concept, hope for success and fear of 188 failure, interests, each of them general and subject-specific) and academic achievement 189 (assessed via GPA, and grades in German, Math, Physics, and Chemistry) at two points of 190 time. By considering GPA plus four subject grades we extend the existing literature on 191 predicting academic achievement in school not only in general and in the domains of math 192 and German (see Steinmayr & Spinath, 2009), but also on focusing on the further domains 193 Physics and Chemistry. By applying latent change score modelling, we will be able to 194 determine the influence of our different predictors on the change of academic achievement 195 in general and in different domains in school over time. At the same time, mutual influences 196 of changes in academic achievement, NFC and motivational constructs can be detected 197 (i.e., correlated change). We examine the following research questions and assumptions: 198

- 1. Is Need for Cognition able to predict changes in academic achievement over time?

 Because of evidence of relations of NFC with academic achievement in cross-sectional studies, we expect NFC to also be able to predict changes in academic achievement over time.
 - 2. What is the incremental value of Need for Cognition in the prediction of academic

achievement over and above different motivational constructs and prior achievement in school? Based on previous findings, we assume that NFC will predict academic achievement even when the influence of established motivational variables and prior achievement is controlled for.

3. Are longitudinal changes in motivational variables, Need for Cognition and academic achievement in school related? To our knowledge, there is no prior evidence on correlated change of NFC and the other variables examined here. Therefore, we can only speculate that NFC and academic achievement will mutually influence each other as has been observed for the interplay between motivational variables and academic achievement.

214 Methods

5 Openness and transparency

We report how we determined our sample size, all data exclusions, all
manipulations, and all measures in the study (cf. Simmons, Nelson, & Simonsohn, 2012)
and follow JARS (APA Publications and Communications Board Working Group on
Journal Article Reporting Standards, 2008). Data were analyzed using R (version 4.1.1, R
Core Team, 2018). All data and code for reproducing our analyses are permanently and
openly accessible at https://osf.io/34yav/?view_only=3bf5e46b6a444bd8b69300041f838523
(project blinded for review, and to ensure blind review, please do not follow the "View this
file on GitHub" link). This study was not preregistered.

224 Participants

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

Sample size was determined by pragmatic considerations, i.e., to collect as many participants given existing time constraints and the longitudinal nature of the project. We eventually managed to recruit a sample of N=277 participants (60% women) at the first measurement occasion (T1) of which N=251 participants (61% women) also took part at

the second measurement occasion (T2) that took place 53-59 weeks later. Students attended eleventh grade at two academic-track schools in Baden-Württemberg at T1. Age range was 14-19 years (median = 17 years) at T1 and 15-20 years (median = 18 years) at T2. With the sample size accomplished at T2, we were able to detect correlations of $r \ge$.18 at $\alpha = .05$ (two-sided) and $1-\beta = .80$. Yet, we tried to impute missing values to raise power (see below, Statistical analyses).

Material Material

We used the following self-report measures to assess the measures of interest for the present study.

Academic achievement We assessed school grades in general, i.e., Grade Point
Average (GPA), and grades in German, Math, Physics, and Chemistry via self-report. In
Germany, school grades range from 1 (excellent) to 6 (insufficient). For better
interpretability, we reversed this coding via 6 - grade, so the values we used for statistical
analyses ranged from 0 (insufficient) to 5 (excellent).

Need for Cognition (NFC) was assessed with the 16-item short version of the
German NFC scale (Bless et al., 1994). Responses to each item (e.g., "Thinking is not my
idea of fun", recoded) were recorded on a four-point scale ranging from -3 (completely
disagree) to +3 (completely agree) and were summed to the total NFC score. The scale has
a comparably high internal consistency, Cronbach's $\alpha > .80$ (Bless et al., 1994;
Fleischhauer et al., 2010), and retest reliability, $r_{tt} = .83$ across 8 to 18 weeks
(Fleischhauer, Strobel, & Strobel, 2015).

Hope for Successs and Fear of Failure were assessed using the Achievement Motive
Scales (German version: Göttert & Kuhl, 1980). For the present study, we used a short
form measuring each construct with seven items. All items were answered on a four-point
scale ranging from 1 (does not apply at all) to 4 (fully applies). Example items for the two
scales are "Difficult problems appeal to me" and "Matters that are slightly difficult

disconcert me". Both scales exhibit high internal consistencies, Cronbach's $\alpha \geq .85$ (Steinmayr & Spinath, 2009).

The Ability Self-Concept in school in general and in the four subjects German,

Math, Physics, and Chemistry were assessed with four items per domain using the Scales

for the Assessment of Academic Self-Concept (Schöne, Dickhäuser, Spinath, &

Stiensmeier-Pelster, 2002) (example item: "I can do well in . . . (school, Math, German,

Physics, Chemistry)."). Items were answered on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (does not

apply at all) to 5 (fully applies). The scales' internal consistency, Cronbach's $\alpha \geq .80$, and

retest reliability, $r_{tt} \geq .59$ across six months, can be considered as high.

Interest in school in general and in the above four subjects were measured using
Interest subscales of the Scales for the Assessment of Subjective Values in School
(Steinmayr & Spinath, 2010). Answers to three items per domain (example item: "How
much do you like ... (school, Math, German, Physics, Chemistry).") were recorded on a
5-point scale ranging from ranging from 1 (does not apply at all) to 5 (fully applies). The
scales have high internal consistency, Cronbach's $\alpha \geq .89$, and retest reliability, $r_{tt} = .72$ across six months (Steinmayr & Spinath, 2010).

71 Procedure

Testing took place during a regular school day between March 2008 and 2009. Tests were administered at school during a regular class, which was scheduled for our study. Parents of underaged students (age < 18) provided informed consent. As the school actively supported the study participation rate was very high (96%). However, some students could not participate at measurement point 1 or 2 due to illness or other reasons (T1: n = 18; T2: n = 26). Students were separated into groups of about 20 and tested by trained research assistants. The test sessions lasted approximately 45 minutes.

Statistical analysis

We used RStudio (Version 2021.9.0.351, RStudio Team, 2016) with R (Version 4.1.1; 280 R Core Team, 2018) and the R-packages lavaan (Version 0.6.10; Rosseel, 2012), naniar 281 (Version 0.6.1; Tierney, Cook, McBain, & Fay, 2021), psych (Version 2.1.9; Revelle, 2018), 282 and pwr (Version 1.3.0; Champely, 2018). This manuscript was created using R Markdown 283 with the packages papaja (Version 0.1.0.9997, Aust & Barth, 2018), knitr (Version 1.37, Xie, 284 2015), and shape (Version 1.4.6, Soetaert, 2018). Additionally, the packages renv (Version 285 0.14.0, Ushey, 2021) and here (Version 1.0.1, Müller, 2020) were employed to enhance the 286 reproducibility of the present project (see https://github.com/alex-strobel/NFC-Grades). 287

First the variables were separated into four sets, each containing the T1 and T2 288 measurements of the variables Hope for Success (HfS), Fear of Failure (FoF), and Need for 289 Cognition (NFC) as well as either GPA, overall ability self-concept regarding school, and 290 general interest in school, or domain-specific grades, ability self-concept and interest in 291 German, Math, Physics, and Chemistry. All measures were initially analyzed with regard 292 to descriptive statistics, reliability (retest-reliability r_{tt} as well as Cronbach's α), and 293 possible deviation from univariate and multivariate normality. Almost all relevant variables 294 deviated from univariate normality as determined using Shapiro-Wilks tests with a 295 threshold of $\alpha = .20$, all $p \le .089$ except for NFC at T2, p = .461. Also, there was 296 deviation from multivariate normality as determined using Mardia tests, all p_{skew} and 297 $p_{kurtosis} < .001$. Therefore, we used robust variants for the statistical tests to be performed, i.e., Spearman rank correlations (r_s) for correlation analyses and Robust Maximum 299 Likelihood (MLR) for regression analyses and latent change score modeling. 300

Possible differences between the measurement occasions T1 and T2 were
descriptively assessed via boxplots but not considered further given the scope of the
present report. Correlation analyses were performed separately for the five sets of data (see
Table 1 and Supplementary Tables S1 to S4). Where appropriate, evaluation of statistical

significance was based on 95% confidence intervals (CI) that did not include zero.

Evaluation of effect sizes of correlations was based on the empirically derived guidelines for personality and social psychology research provided by Gignac and Szodorai (2016), i.e.,

correlations were regarded as small for r < .20, as medium for $.20 \le r \le .30$, and as large for r > .30.

To examine which variables measured at T1 would be significant predictors of 310 academic achievement at T2, we ran five regression analyses with the GPA and the four 311 subject-specific grades as criterion. We then used the results of the first regression analysis 312 (with the domain-general Ability Self-Concept, Interest in School, Hope for Success and 313 Fear of failure, and NFC measured at T1 as predictors and GPA at T2 as criterion) to 314 select the variables for latent change score modeling. Significant predictors in this model 315 were used for all latent change score models even if, for certain subjects, the predictors 316 were not significant in the respective regression models. Regression models were fitted via 317 lavaan, using MLR as estimation technique and—because missing data were missing 318 completely at random (MCAR), all $p \geq .169$ —the Full-Information Maximum Likelihood 319 (FIML) approach to impute missing values. Due to missing patterns, this resulted in an 320 effective sample size of N=271-276. To assess whether a model that included NFC was superior to a model that included established predictors of academic achievement, we (1) evaluated the fit of the respective models based on the recommendations by Hu and 323 Bentler (1999), with values of CFI \geq .95, RMSEA \leq .06, and SRMR \leq 0.08 indicating 324 good model fit, and (2) performed χ^2 -difference tests between the former and the latter 325 model (and all other variables' loadings fixed to zero). 326

In the final step, latent change score modeling was applied. In this approach (see Kievit et al., 2018), one can examine (1) whether true change in a variable has occurred via a latent change score that is modeled from the respective measurements of this variable at different measurement occasions, here T1 and T2, (2) to what extent the change in a variable is a function of the measurement of the *same* variable at T1 (self-feedback), and

(3) to what extent the change in this variable is a function of the measurement of other 332 variables in the model at T1 (cross-domain coupling). Thereby, cross-domain effects, i.e., 333 whether the change in one domain (e.g., academic achievement) is a function of the 334 baseline score of another (e.g., NFC) and vice versa can be examined. In addition, 335 correlated change in the variables of interest can be examined, i.e., to what extent does the 336 change in one variable correlate with the change in another variable. Fig. 1A provides an 337 example of a bivariate latent change score model. For latent change score modeling, again 338 MLR estimation and imputation of missing values via FIML was employed. 339

Results

Domain-general grades

Table 1 gives the descriptive statistics and intercorrelations of the variables of interest in this analysis step, i.e., the T1 and T2 measurements of GPA, domain-general ability self-concept, and general interest in school as well as the variables Hope for Success, Fear of Failure, and NFC. As can be seen in the diagonal and the upper right of the correlation table, all variables exhibited good internal consistency, Cronbach's $\alpha \geq .83$, and retest reliability, $r_{tt} \geq .56$. Among the predictors at T1, GPA at T1 showed the strongest relation to GPA at T2, $r_s = .75$, followed by the domain-general ability self-concept, $r_s = .53$, and NFC at T1, $r_s = .46$, all p < .001. The other variables at T1 showed significant correlations with GPA at T2 as well, $|r_s| \geq .20$, $p \leq .004$.

A multiple regression analysis involving all measures at T1 (see Table 2) showed that apart from GPA at T1, B=0.61, 95% CI [0.49, 0.73], p<.001, the only significant predictors were the domain-general ability self-concept, B=0.12, 95% CI [0.01, 0.22], p=.031, and NFC, B=0.09, 95% CI [0.01, 0.17], p=.024. Model fit was better for a model that included GPA, the ability self-concept, and NFC at T1 (while all other predictors were set to zero), $\chi^2(3)=3.68$, p.299, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .03 with 90% CI [0.00, 0.11], SRMR = .01, than a model that included GPA and the ability self-concept

only, $\chi^2(4)=10.91,\ p$.028, CFI = 0.96, RMSEA = .08 with 90% CI [0.02, 0.14], SRMR = .02. A χ^2 -difference test supported the superiority of the former compared to the latter model, $\chi^2(1)=6.34,\ p=.012.$

We therefore further examined a trivariate latent change score model involving 361 academic achievement, the ability self-concept, and NFC. Fig. 1B gives the results of the 362 latent change score modeling with regard to the prediction of change and correlated change 363 in overall academic achievement, i.e., GPA. While the best predictor of change on GPA was 364 GPA at T1 (i.e., self-feedback via prior achievement), B = -0.37, 95% CI [-0.48, -0.25], 365 $p < .001, \beta = -.55$, there was also evidence for cross-domain coupling, as the overall ability 366 self-concept and NFC at T1 also significantly predicted change in GPA, $B=0.13,\,95\%$ CI 367 $[0.02, 0.24], p = .020, \beta = .19, \text{ and } B = 0.08, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.02, 0.15], p = .009, \beta = .19,$ 368 respectively. Correlated change was observed for GPA and the ability self-concept, B =369 0.03, 95% CI [0.01, 0.05], $p = .001, \beta = .22$, and the ability self-concept and NFC, B = .22370 0.05, 95% CI [0.02, 0.08], $p.001, \beta = .22$, while the correlated changes in GPA and NFC did 371 not reach significance, B = 0.03, 95% CI $[0.00, 0.05], p = .053, \beta = .14$. 372

373 Domain-specific grades

For the four subjects examined, i.e., German, Math, Physics, and Chemistry, similar 374 results were obtained with regard to correlation analyses (see Supplementary Tables S1 to 375 S4). As regards multiple regression analyses (see Table 3), for all subjects, grades at T1 376 were significant predictors of grades at T2, p < .001. The subject-specific ability 377 self-concept at T1 was a significant predictor of grades at T2 in German only, B = 0.29, 95% CI [0.15, 0.43], p < .001. NFC at T1 was a significant predictor of T2 grades in 379 German, B = 0.18, 95% CI [0.05, 0.32], p = .007 and physics, B = 0.22, 95% CI [0.07, 380 [0.37], p = .004. In both cases, models with NFC as predictor together with grades at T1 381 and ability self-concept were superior to models with grades at T1 and ability self-concept 382 only, German: $\chi^2(1) = 9.31$, p = .002, physics: $\chi^2(1) = 13.49$, p = < .001. 383

As regards the latent change score models, there was evidence for significant 384 self-feedback for all subjects, all p < .001. With regard to the subject-specific ability 385 self-concept, cross-domain coupling with changes in grades was observed for German, B =386 0.28, 95% CI [0.16, 0.40], $p < .001, \beta = .36$, and Chemistry, B = 0.09, 95% CI [0.00, 0.18], 387 $p = .042, \beta = .14$. NFC at T1 showed cross-domain coupling with grades at T2 for 388 German, B = 0.13, 95% CI [0.04, 0.21], p = .005, $\beta = .17$, Physics, B = 0.23, 95% CI [0.13, 380 0.33], p < .001, $\beta = .24$, and Chemistry, B = 0.10, 95% CI [0.00, 0.20], p = .047, $\beta = .13$. 390 Correlated change between grades and the subject-specific ability self-concept was observed 391 for all subjects, while correlated change between grades and NFC was observed for 392 German, Math, and Physics only (see Fig. 1C-F). 393

Discussion

The present study was conducted to provide new insights into the interplay of 395 academic achievement, motivational variables and NFC. In a sample of secondary school 396 students, we examined the incremental value of NFC, considering ability self-concept, 397 interest (general and domain-specific), hope for success and fear of failure as well as prior 398 achievement in the prediction of academic achievement (assessed via GPA and grades in 399 German, Math, Physics, and Chemistry. By applying latent change score modelling, we 400 determined the influence of these predictors on the change of academic achievement over 401 one year. At the same time, we examined mutual influences of change in these variables. 402 The main results are discussed below. 403

404 Predictive value of NFC

Concerning associations of all predictors examined and academic achievement, we found typical correlation patterns: In line with former findings (Hailikari et al., 2007;
Steinmayr et al., 2019), prior achievement showed a strong relation to GPA at the second time of assessment. Also mirroring previous findings (Steinmayr et al., 2019), among the motivational variables, ability self-concept showed the highest correlations with academic

achievement, and this held for general as well as domain-specific ability self-concept.

Furthermore, comparable to associations reported by Ginet and Py (2000) or Luong et al.

(2017), moderate to strong associations were found for academic achievement and NFC

pointing to the relevance of this variable in the school context.

Incremental value of NFC

The importance of NFC becomes even more apparent when looking at the 415 prediction models: Multiple regression analyses showed NFC to incrementally predict 416 academic achievement as reflected in GPA, German and Physics grades over and above 417 prior achievement and the general or domain-specific ability self-concept. A more 418 differentiated picture is provided by the latent change score models. For GPA, German and 419 Chemistry, prior achievement positively predicted changes in grades, as did general, or 420 domain specific ability self-concept, respectively, and NFC. Concerning Physics, only NFC 421 was found to predict changes in grades for this subject alongside with prior achievement, 422 while for Math grades, prior achievement was the only relevant predictor. The findings are 423 thus slightly varying within the school subjects, with the results for Maths being particular 424 different from the others. It is noteworthy that the stability of the Maths grade is lower 425 than that of the other subjects included. There could be many possible reasons for this 426 finding. For example, there could have been a change of teachers or changes in the 427 conditions in the different subjects. However, we are not able to draw firm conclusions on 428 the basis of the available information: Since the examination of individual subjects was not 429 the core of the study and we investigated a convenience sample, no further information about the teaching (e.g., via diary entries) was collected. This should be addressed in further studies. Apart from this limitation, with regard to all grades examined and comparable to the results of Lavrijsen et al. (2021), NFC proved to be a valuable predictor 433 that should be considered alongside established motivational variables in order to gain a 434 comprehensive picture of the factors that influence grades. 435

Interplay of all predictors

By applying latent change score modelling, we were also able to gain insights into 437 the interplay of prior achievement, ability self-concept, and NFC. For all three variables, 438 their level at the first measurement occasion predicted changes in their respective level at the second time of assessment. Changes in NFC could also be predicted by prior achievement (with the exception of Physics) while for changes in ability self-concept, prior achievement was only predictive for GPA and German grades. Furthermore, concerning correlated change, the amount of change in grades at the second measurement occasion 443 correlated with changes in ability self-concept for GPA and all subjects, that is, changes in grades were accompanied by changes in ability self-concept and vice versa. This is a 445 plausible interplay as ability self-concept is subject to change through feedback and the 446 experience of success or failure (e.g., Marsh, Trautwein, Lüdtke, Köller, & Baumert, 2005; 447 Spinath & Spinath, 2005). The same association was observable for changes in grades and 448 NFC in German, Math and Physics. Thus, change in grades was accompanied by larger 449 change in the enjoyment of and motivation for thinking, particularly in these subjects. 450 Changes in ability self-concept and NFC, in turn, were correlated for GPA and Chemistry. 451 Taken together, this lends support to self-enhancement and skill-development processes for 452 both, ability self-concept and NFC. While such reciprocal relations of academic 453 achievement and the ability self-concept are well-confirmed (Marsh & Martin, 2011; Möller, 454 Retelsdorf, Köller, & Marsh, 2011; Möller, Zitzmann, Machts, Helm, & Wolff, 2020), to our 455 knowledge, this has not yet been demonstrated for NFC as well. Academic achievement and NFC appear to mutually strengthen or weaken each other. Therefore, fostering NFC at school can be an essential part of ensuring that children can develop their full intellectual potential. The findings of Meier et al. (2014) support this assumption: for the 459 attendance of a gifted class, the level of NFC played a pivotal role even after controlling for 460 cognitive ability or ability self-concept.

Limitations and further directions

Some limitations of our study have to be noted. We assessed all data in a 463 convenience sample, and while it was large enough to have adequate power to detect small 464 to medium correlations, it was not representative for the German population of 465 adolescents. Furthermore, there were missing values in the data and we had to impute 466 them in order to increase power for our analyses. Yet, the FIML approach to treat missing 467 values employed here was shown to lead to adequate estimates for the standard error of 468 regression estimates (Larsen, 2011). Also, we did not have the opportunity to examine the 460 predictive value of intelligence together with the predictors in our study. Although we 470 assessed prior achievement as a relevant predictor also mirroring intellectual potential, 471 further studies should also assess intelligence in order to gain a more comprehensive picture 472 of the interplay of all variables of relevance. Furthermore, because of the trait-character of 473 NFC, hope for success and fear of failure, we did not assess these variables in a 474 domain-specific way. As research concerning NFC showed that there is also a 475 domain-specific component for this variable (Keller, Strobel, Martin, & Preckel, 2019) which is especially relevant in Math, it could be worthwhile to incorporate domain-specific measures at least of NFC in future research. This could also be helpful to further clarify the reasons for the observed differences in results for the subjects examined here. As a last aspect, it would be interesting to longitudinally investigate the potential of NFC together 480 with established motivational variables in school especially in *critical* stages of school life, 481 for instance when decisions about school tracks are made. 482

Conclusion Conclusion

Taken together, using a longitudinal approach and including a large set of
established predictors of academic achievement, the present study shows that NFC is of
incremental value when aiming at a comprehensive picture on the prediction of academic
achievement. Associations of NFC with grades were comparable or even stronger than for

- well-established motivational variables. In the prediction of grades over time, NFC could
- largely consistently prove its predictive value over and above prior achievement.
- Furthermore, a mutual influence of NFC and academic achievement could be demonstrated
- with first evidence for skill-development as well as self-enhancement processes taken place
- in this interplay. To sum up, we propose that NFC should be included in models aiming at
- comprehensively explaining academic achievement in school. In addition, we consider
- fostering the general joy of thinking and conquering cognitively challenging tasks a
- worthwhile endeavor to help children to unfold their intellectual potential.

References 496 APA Publications and Communications Board Working Group on Journal Article 497 Reporting Standards. (2008). Reporting standards for research in psychology: 498 Why do we need them? What might they be? American Psychologist, 63, 499 839-851. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.63.9.839 Aust, F., & Barth, M. (2018). papaja: Create APA manuscripts with R Markdown. 501 Retrieved from https://github.com/crsh/papaja 502 Bless, H., Wänke, M., Bohner, G., Fellhauer, R. L., & Schwarz, N. (1994). Need for 503 Cognition: Eine Skala zur Erfassung von Engagement und Freude bei 504 Denkaufgaben [Need for Cognition: A scale measuring engagement and 505 happiness in cognitive tasks. Zeitschrift für Sozialpsychologie, 25, 147–154. 506 Cacioppo, J. T., & Petty, R. E. (1982). The need for cognition. Journal of 507 Personality and Social Psychology, 42, 116–131. 508 https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.42.1.116 509 Cacioppo, J. T., Petty, R. E., Feinstein, J. A., & Jarvis, W. B. G. (1996). 510 Dispositional differences in cognitive motivation: The life and times of 511 individuals varying in Need for Cognition. Psychological Bulletin, 119(2), 512 197–253. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.119.2.197 513 Champely, S. (2018). Pwr: Basic functions for power analysis. Retrieved from 514 https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=pwr 515 Colling, J., Wollschläger, R., Keller, U., Preckel, F., & Fischbach, A. (2022). Need 516 for cognition and its relation to academic achievement in different learning environments. Learning and Individual Differences, 93, 102110. 518 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2021.102110 519 Deary, I. J., Strand, S., Smith, P., & Fernandes, C. (2007). Intelligence and 520 educational achievement. *Intelligence*, 35(1), 13–21. 521

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intell.2006.02.001

522

Dickhäuser, O., Dinger, F. C., Janke, S., Spinath, B., & Steinmayr, R. (2016). A 523 prospective correlational analysis of achievement goals as mediating constructs 524 linking distal motivational dispositions to intrinsic motivation and academic 525 achievement. Learning and Individual Differences, 50, 30–41. 526 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2016.06.020 527 Dickhäuser, O., & Reinhard, M.-A. (2010). How students build their performance 528 expectancies: The importance of need for cognition. European Journal of 529 Psychology of Education, 25(3), 399-409. 530 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10212-010-0027-4 531 Diseth, A., & Martinsen, Ø. (2003). Approaches to learning, cognitive style, and 532 motives as predictors of academic achievement. Educational Psychology, 23(2), 533 195–207. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410303225 534 Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (2020). From expectancy-value theory to situated 535 expectancy-value theory: A developmental, social cognitive, and sociocultural 536 perspective on motivation. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 61, 101859. 537 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2020.101859 538 Elias, S. M., & Loomis, R. J. (2002). Utilizing need for cognition and perceived 539 self-efficacy to predict academic performance. Journal of Applied Social 540 Psychology, 32(8), 1687–1702. 541 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2002.tb02770.x 542 Elliot, A. J., & Church, M. A. (1997). A hierarchical model of approach and 543 avoidance achievement motivation. Journal of Personality and Social 544 Psychology, 72(1), 218–232. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.72.1.218 545 Evans, C. J., Kirby, J. R., & Fabrigar, L. R. (2003). Approaches to learning, need 546 for cognition, and strategic flexibility among university students. British Journal 547 of Educational Psychology, 73(4), 507–528. 548 https://doi.org/10.1348/000709903322591217 549

Fleischhauer, M., Enge, S., Brocke, B., Ullrich, J., Strobel, A., & Strobel, A. (2010). 550 Same or different? Clarifying the relationship of Need for Cognition to 551 personality and intelligence. Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin, 36(1), 552 82–96. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167209351886 553 Fleischhauer, M., Strobel, A., & Strobel, A. (2015). Directly and indirectly assessed 554 Need for Cognition differentially predict spontaneous and reflective information 555 processing behavior. Journal of Individual Differences, 36(2), 101–109. 556 https://doi.org/10.1027/1614-0001/a000161 557 Gignac, G. E., & Szodorai, E. T. (2016). Effect size guidelines for individual 558 differences researchers. Personality and Individual Differences, 102, 74–78. 559 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.06.069 560 Ginet, A., & Py, J. (2000). Le besoin de cognition: Une échelle française pour 561 enfants et ses conséquences au plan sociocognitif. L'année Psychologique, 562 100(4), 585–627. https://doi.org/10.3406/psy.2000.28665 563 Göttert, R., & Kuhl, J. (1980). AMS — Achievement Motives Scale von Gjesme 564 und Nygard — Deutsche Fassung [AMS — German version]. In F. Rheinberg & 565 S. Krug (Eds.), Motivationsförderung im Schulalltag [Enhancement of 566 motivation in school context (pp. 194–200). Göttingen: Hogrefe. 567 Grass, J., Strobel, A., & Strobel, A. (2017). Cognitive investments in academic 568 success: The role of need for cognition at university. Frontiers in Psychology, 8, 569 790. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00790 570 Guay, F., Marsh, H. W., & Boivin, M. (2003). Academic self-concept and academic 571 achievement: Relations and causal ordering. Journal of Educational Psychology, 572 95, 124–136. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.95.1.124 573 Hailikari, T., Nevgi, A., & Komulainen, E. (2007). Academic self-beliefs and prior 574 knowledge as predictors of student achievement in mathematics: A structural 575

model. Educational Psychology, 28, 59–71.

576

```
https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410701413753
577
           Hattie, J. A. C. (2009). Visible learning: A synthesis of 800 + meta-analyses on
578
              achievement. Oxford: Routledge.
579
           Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance
580
              structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. Structural
581
              Equation Modeling-A Multidisciplinary Journal, 6(1), 11–55.
582
              https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118
583
           Huang, C. (2011). Self-concept and academic achievement: A meta-analysis of
584
              longitudinal relations. Journal of School Psychology, 49(5), 505–528.
585
              https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2011.07.001
586
           Hulleman, C. S., Barron, K. E., Kosovich, J. J., & Lazowski, R. A. (2016). Student
587
              motivation: Current theories, constructs, and interventions within an expectancy
588
              value framework. In A. A. Lipnevich, F. Preckel, & R. D. Roberts (Eds.),
589
              Psychological skills and school systems in the 21st century (pp. 241–278). Basel:
590
              Springer International. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-28606-8 10
591
           Jacobs, J. E., Lanza, S., Osgood, D. W., Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (2002).
592
              Changes in children's self-competence and values: Gender and domain
593
              differences across grades one though twelve. Child Development, 73(2), 509–527.
594
              https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00421
595
           Keller, U., Strobel, A., Martin, R., & Preckel, F. (2019). Domain-specificity of need
596
              for cognition among high school students. European Journal of Psychological
597
              Assessment, 35(5), 607–616. https://doi.org/10.1027/1015-5759/a000437
598
           Keller, U., Strobel, A., Wollschläger, R., Greiff, S., Martin, R., Vainikainen, M.-P.,
599
              & Preckel, F. (2019). A need for cognition scale for children and adolescents.
600
              European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 35(1), 137–149.
601
              https://doi.org/10.1027/1015-5759/a000370
602
           Kievit, R. A., Brandmaier, A. M., Ziegler, G., van Harmelen, A.-L., de Mooij, S. M.
```

603

M., Moutoussis, M., ... Dolan, R. J. (2018). Developmental cognitive 604 neuroscience using latent change score models: A tutorial and applications. 605 Developmental Cognitive Neuroscience, 33, 99–117. 606 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dcn.2017.11.007 607 Kriegbaum, K., Becker, N., & Spinath, B. (2018). The relative importance of 608 intelligence and motivation as predictors of school achievement: A meta-analysis. 609 Educational Research Review, 25, 120–148. 610 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2018.10.001 611 Larsen, R. (2011). Missing data imputation versus full information maximum 612 likelihood with second-level dependencies. Structural Equation Modeling: A 613 Multidisciplinary Journal, 18(4), 649–662. 614 https://doi.org/10.1080/10705511.2011.607721 615 Lavrijsen, J., Vansteenkiste, M., Boncquet, M., & Verschueren, K. (2021). Does 616 motivation predict changes in academic achievement beyond intelligence and 617 personality? A multitheoretical perspective. Journal of Educational Psychology. 618 https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000666 619 Li, X., Huebner, E. S., & Tian, L. &. (2021). Relations between achievement task 620 values and academic achievement and depressive symptoms in chinese 621 elementary school students: Variable-centered and person-centered perspectives. 622 School Psychology, 36(3), 167–180. https://doi.org/10.1037/spq0000384 623 Luong, C., Strobel, A., Wollschläger, R., Greiff, S., Vainikainen, M.-P., & Preckel, 624 F. (2017). Need for cognition in children and adolescents: Behavioral correlates 625 and relations to academic achievement and potential. Learning and Individual 626 Differences, 53, 103–113. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2016.10.019 627 Marsh, H. W. (1990). Causal ordering of academic self-concept and academic 628 achievement: A multiwave, longitudinal panel analysis. Journal of Educational 629 Psychology, 82, 646-656. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.82.4.646 630

Marsh, H. W., & Martin, A. J. (2011). Academic self-concept and academic 631 achievement: Relations and causal ordering. British Journal of Educational 632 Psychology, 81, 59–77. https://doi.org/10.1348/000709910X50350 633 Marsh, H. W., Trautwein, U., Lüdtke, O., Köller, O., & Baumert, J. (2005). 634 Academic self-concept, interest, grades, and standardized test scores: Reciprocal 635 effects models of causal ordering. Child Development, 76(2), 397–416. 636 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2005.00853.x 637 McClelland, D. C., Atkinson, J. W., Clark, R. A., & Lowell, E. L. &. (1953). The 638 achievement motive. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts. 639 Meier, E., Vogl, K., & Preckel, F. (2014). Motivational characteristics of students in 640 gifted classes: The pivotal role of need for cognition. Learning and Individual 641 Differences, 33, 39–46. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2014.04.006 Meyer, J., Fleckenstein, J., & Köller, O. (2019). Expectancy value interactions and 643 academic achievement: Differential relationships with achievement measures. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 58, 58–74. 645 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2019.01.006 646 Möller, J., & Köller, O. (2004). Die Genese akademischer Selbstkonzepte |The 647 genesis of academic self-concepts]. Psychologische Rundschau, 55(1), 19–27. 648 https://doi.org/10.1026/0033-3042.55.1.19 649 Möller, J., Retelsdorf, J., Köller, O., & Marsh, H. W. (2011). The reciprocal 650 internal/external frame of reference model: An integration of models of relations 651 between academic achievement and self-concept. American Educational Research 652 Journal, 48(6), 1315–1346. https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831211419649 653 Möller, J., Zitzmann, S., Machts, N., Helm, F., & Wolff, F. (2020). A meta-analysis 654 of relations between achievement and self-perception. Review of Educational 655 Research, 90(3), 376-419. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654320919354 656

Müller, K. (2020). Here: A simpler way to find your files. Retrieved from

657

```
https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=here
658
           Murray, H. A. (1938). Explorations in personality. Oxford University Press.
659
           Olson, K. R., Camp, C. J., & Fuller, D. (1984). Curiosity and need for cognition.
660
              Psychological Reports, 54(1), 71–74. https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1984.54.1.71
661
           Preckel, F. (2014). Assessing Need for Cognition in early adolescence: Validation of
662
              a german adaption of the Cacioppo/Petty scale. European Journal of
663
              Psychological Assessment, 30(1), 65-72.
664
              https://doi.org/10.1027/1015-5759/a000170
665
           R Core Team. (2018). R: A language and environment for statistical computing.
666
              Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing. Retrieved from
667
              https://www.R-project.org/
668
           Revelle, W. (2018). Psych: Procedures for psychological, psychometric, and
              personality research. Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University. Retrieved from
670
              https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=psych
671
           Richardson, M., Abraham, C., & Bond, R. (2012). Psychological correlates of
672
              university students' academic performance: A systematic review and
673
              meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 138(2), 353–387.
674
              https://doi.org/10.1037/a0026838
675
           Robbins, S. B., Lauver, K., Le, H., Davis, D., Langley, R., & Carlstrom, A. (2004).
676
              Do psychosocial and study skill factors predict college outcomes? A
677
              meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 130, 261–288.
678
              https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.130.2.261
679
           Rosseel, Y. (2012). lavaan: An R package for structural equation modeling. Journal
680
              of Statistical Software, 48(2), 1–36. Retrieved from
681
              http://www.jstatsoft.org/v48/i02/
682
           Roth, B., Becker, N., Romeyke, S., Schäfer, S., Domnick, F., & Spinath, F. M.
683
              (2015). Intelligence and school grades: A meta-analysis. Intelligence, 53,
684
```

```
118–137. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intell.2015.09.002
685
           RStudio Team. (2016). RStudio: Integrated development environment for R.
686
              Boston, MA: RStudio, Inc. Retrieved from http://www.rstudio.com/
687
           Schiefele, U., Krapp, A., & Winteler, A. (1992). Interest as a predictor of academic
688
              achievement: A meta-analysis of research. In K. A. Renninger, S. Hidi, & A.
689
              Krapp (Eds.), The role of interest in learning and development (pp. 183–212).
690
              Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
691
           Schöne, C., Dickhäuser, O., Spinath, B., & Stiensmeier-Pelster, J. (2002). Die
692
              Skalen zur Erfassung des schulischen Selbstkonzepts (SESSKO) — Scales for
693
              measuring the academic ability self-concept. Göttingen: Hogrefe.
694
           Simmons, J. P., Nelson, L. D., & Simonsohn, U. (2012). A 21 word solution.
695
              https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2160588
           Soetaert, K. (2018). Shape: Functions for plotting graphical shapes, colors.
697
              Retrieved from https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=shape
698
           Spinath, B., & Spinath, F. M. (2005). Development of self-perceived ability in
699
              elementary school: The role of parents' perceptions, teacher evaluations, and
700
              intelligence. Cognitive Development, 20(2), 190–204.
701
              https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogdev.2005.01.001
702
           Steinmayr, R., & Spinath, B. (2009). The importance of motivation as a predictor
703
              of school achievement. Learning and Individual Differences, 19(1), 80–90.
704
              https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2008.05.004
705
           Steinmayr, R., & Spinath, B. (2010). Konstruktion und erste Validierung einer
706
              Skala zur Erfassung subjektiver schulischer Werte (SESSW) - [Construction and
707
              first validation of a scale for the assessment of subjective values in school.
708
              Diagnostica, 56, 195–211. https://doi.org/10.1026/0012-1924/a000023
709
           Steinmayr, R., Weidinger, A. F., Schwinger, M., & Spinath, B. (2019). The
710
              importance of students' motivation for their academic achievement - Replicating
711
```

```
and extending previous findings. Frontiers in Psychology, 10.
712
              https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01730
713
           Steinmayr, R., Weidinger, A. F., & Wigfield, A. (2018). Does students' grit predict
714
              their school achievement above and beyond their personality, motivation, and
715
              engagement? Contemporary Educational Psychology, 53, 106–122.
716
              https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2018.02.004
717
           Strobel, A., Behnke, A., Grass, J., & Strobel, A. (2019). The interplay of
718
              intelligence and need for cognition in predicting school grades: A retrospective
719
              study. Personality and Individual Differences, 144, 147–152.
720
              https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2019.02.041
721
           Tierney, N., Cook, D., McBain, M., & Fay, C. (2021). Naniar: Data structures,
722
              summaries, and visualisations for missing data. Retrieved from
723
              https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=naniar
724
           Tolentino, E., Curry, L., & Leak, G. (1990). Further validation of the short form of
725
              the need for cognition scale. Psychological Reports, 66(1), 321-322.
726
              https://doi.org/10.2466/PR0.66.1.321-322
727
           Ushey, K. (2021). Renv. Project environments. Retrieved from
728
              https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=renv
729
           von Stumm, S., & Ackerman, P. (2013). Investment and intellect: A review and
730
              meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 139, 841–869.
731
              https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030746
732
           Wigfield, A., & Cambria, J. (2010). Students' achievement values, goal orientations,
733
              and interest: Definitions, development, and relations to achievement outcomes.
734
              Developmental Review, 30(1), 1-35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2009.12.001
735
           Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. S. (2000). Expectancy-value theory of achievement
736
              motivation. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25(1), 68–81.
737
              https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1015
738
```

Xie, Y. (2015). Dynamic documents with R and knitr (2nd ed.). Boca Raton,
Florida: Chapman; Hall/CRC. Retrieved from https://yihui.name/knitr/
Zaboski, B. A., Kranzler, J. H., & Gage, N. A. (2018). Meta-analysis of the
relationship between academic achievement and broad abilities of the
cattell-horn-carroll theory. Journal of School Psychology, 71, 42–56.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2018.10.001

Table 1
Spearman correlations and descriptive statistics of the variables in the analyses on Grade Point
Average

	GRD1	ASC1	INT1	HFS1	FOF1	NFC1	GRD2	ASC2	INT2	HFS2	FOF2	NFC2
GRD1	_	.58	.38	.34	24	.44	.75	.52	.34	.40	23	.49
ASC1		.83	.49	.37	27	.38	.50	.60	.32	.34	18	.26
INT1			.88	.32	09	.35	.44	.47	.65	.31	05	.26
HFS1				.86	30	.62	.32	.38	.26	.57	17	.50
FOF1					.88	42	17	28	14	29	.59	43
NFC1						.89	.46	.43	.25	.62	32	.71
GRD2							_	.53	.34	.41	18	.48
ASC2								.84	.53	.45	25	.46
INT2									.88	.31	05	.34
HFS2										.87	28	.66
FOF2											.90	39
NFC2												.89
Mean	3.30	3.55	3.25	2.92	1.86	4.46	3.46	3.62	3.41	2.72	1.71	4.69
SD	0.55	0.54	0.83	0.57	0.61	0.84	0.52	0.56	0.82	0.56	0.61	0.87
Min	2.00	1.75	1.00	1.14	1.00	2.19	2.10	2.25	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.50
Max	5.00	5.00	5.00	4.00	4.00	6.94	5.00	5.00	5.00	4.00	3.71	6.88
Skew	0.17	0.09	-0.27	-0.23	0.45	0.16	0.31	0.33	-0.21	-0.02	0.89	0.07
Kurtosis	-0.09	0.24	-0.37	-0.07	-0.34	0.14	-0.11	-0.14	-0.42	0.17	0.47	-0.45

Note. N=193-259 due to missings; p<.05 for $|r_s|>.18$; coefficients in the diagonal are Cronbach's α , bold-faced coefficients give the 53-59 week retest reliability; GRD = Grade Point Average, ASC = Overall Ability Self-Concept, INT = Overall Interest in School, HFS = Hope for Success, FOF = Fear of Failure, NFC = Need for Cognition at measurement occasion 1, and 2, respectively

Table 2

Results of the multiple regression of academic achievement measured at T2 on predictors measured at T1

	В	SE	CI.LB	CI.UB	β	p
Intercept	0.488	0.231	0.034	0.941	.906	.035
GPA	0.606	0.061	0.485	0.726	.616	< .001
Ability Self-Concept	0.116	0.054	0.010	0.222	.117	.031
Interest	0.057	0.031	-0.005	0.118	.087	.072
Hope for Success	-0.028	0.050	-0.126	0.070	029	.578
Fear of Failure	0.013	0.039	-0.063	0.089	.015	.733
Need for Cognition	0.089	0.040	0.012	0.167	.140	.024

Note. N=276; coefficients are unstandardized slopes B with their standard errors SE and 95% confidence intervals (CI.LB= lower bound, CI.UB= upper bound), β is the standardized slope and p the respective p-vealues

Table 3 ${\it Multiple \ regressions \ of \ subject \ grades \ at \ T2 \ on \ predictors \ at \ T1}$

	В	SE	CI.LB	CI.UB	β	p
German						
Intercept	0.374	0.300	-0.214	0.962	.465	.213
Grade German	0.506	0.063	0.382	0.629	.499	< .001
Ability Self-Concept German	0.289	0.072	0.147	0.430	.294	< .001
Interest in German	-0.022	0.052	-0.124	0.079	027	.668
Hope for Success	-0.129	0.089	-0.303	0.045	091	.145
Fear of Failure	-0.044	0.061	-0.165	0.076	033	.470
Need for Cognition	0.183	0.068	0.050	0.316	.192	.007
Math						
Intercept	1.498	0.517	0.484	2.512	1.368	.004
Grade Math	0.493	0.089	0.318	0.667	.461	< .001
Ability Self-Concept Math	0.057	0.122	-0.182	0.295	.052	.643
Interest in Math	0.041	0.084	-0.124	0.207	.043	.625
Hope for Success	-0.083	0.140	-0.357	0.191	043	.552
Fear of Failure	-0.184	0.111	-0.401	0.033	102	.097
Need for Cognition	0.091	0.107	-0.118	0.300	.070	.392
Physics						
Intercept	-0.234	0.381	-0.979	0.512	252	.539
Grade Physics	0.533	0.064	0.407	0.658	.590	< .001
Ability Self-Concept Physics	0.062	0.096	-0.126	0.249	.066	.521
Interest in Physics	-0.035	0.068	-0.169	0.099	044	.610
Hope for Success	0.116	0.109	-0.098	0.330	.071	.288
Fear of Failure	0.117	0.092	-0.063	0.298	.076	.204
Need for Cognition	0.217	0.076	0.068	0.366	.197	.004
Chemistry						
Intercept	0.583	0.348	-0.098	1.265	.703	.093
Grade Chemistry	0.554	0.054	0.448	0.661	.633	< .001
Ability Self-Concept Chemistry	0.088	0.069	-0.048	0.223	.112	.205
Interest in Chemistry	-0.011	0.056	-0.120	0.098	016	.839
Hope for Success	-0.006	0.089	-0.180	0.168	004	.943
Fear of Failure	0.051	0.082	-0.111	0.213	.037	.536
Need for Cognition	0.122	0.062	-0.001	0.244	.124	.051

Note. N=271-275; coefficients are unstandardized slopes B with their standard errors SE and 95% confidence intervals (CI.LB= lower bound, CI.UB= upper bound), β is the standardized slope and p the respective p-vealues

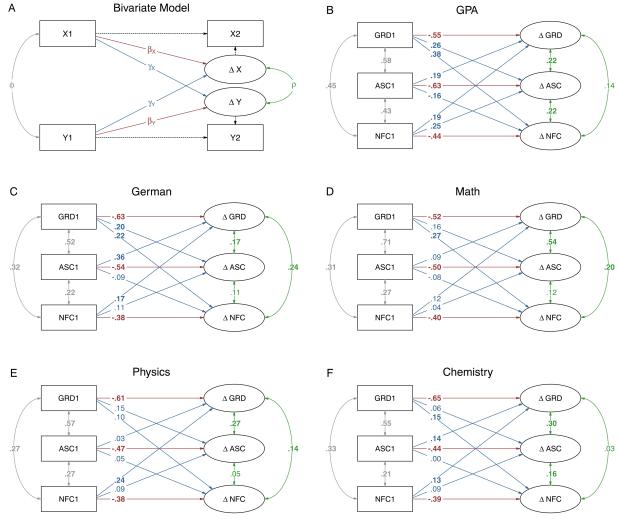


Figure 1

Latent change score models. (A) Example of a bivariate latent change score model (for details see text); legend to lines: dotted = loadings fixed to zero, red = self-feedback β , blue = cross-domain coupling γ , grey = correlation ϕ of predictors at T1, green = correlated change ρ ; (B) Grade Point Average (GPA) and (C) to (F) subject-specific changes in grades at T2 (indicated by prefix Δ) as predicted by their respective T1 levels as well as by Need for Cognition (NFC) and (overall as well as subject specific) Ability Self-Concept (ASC) at T1; coefficients are standardized coefficients.