



Who Sees the Delay? Student, Parent and Teacher Perspectives on Adolescents' Time Management in Indian Junior Colleges

Prajakta Mahendra Shirude, Dr. Swapnil Laxman Kate, Dr. Manoj Chaitram Patil.

Research Scholar, Associate Professor

KCE IMR, Jalgaon, Dept. of Statics, Kavayitri Bahinabai Chaudhari North Maharashtra University

Abstract

Purpose. Most research on students' time management relies on students' own reports. This study compared how students, parents and teachers judge the same time-management behaviours, the support students receive and students' academic performance.

Methods. Three independent samples were drawn from junior colleges in Jalgaon City, Maharashtra, India: 343 Class 11 and 12 students, 116 parents and 99 teachers. The three questionnaires contained parallel items on the same behaviours (for example, completing work on time, avoiding last-minute study and being distracted by phones). Twelve domains were matched across informants and graded as exact or close matches. Distributions were compared with Kruskal–Wallis and Mann–Whitney tests, with Benjamini–Hochberg correction across 18 pairwise comparisons, and effect sizes with bootstrap confidence intervals.

Results. Informants agreed about students' academic performance and about the support teachers and parents provide. They disagreed about time-management behaviour, and the disagreement grew with the informant's distance from the student. On avoiding last-minute study, 78% of students, 64% of parents and 34% of teachers gave a favourable rating (rank-biserial $r = .50$ between students and teachers). On completing work on time, students and parents agreed (82% and 84%) and teachers were less positive (63%). Only 50% of students reported being distracted by phones or social media, compared with 94% of teachers ($r = -.56$). Teachers almost unanimously endorsed the importance of time management (92%) but rated their students' actual time management low ($M = 3.03$ against 4.17 for importance).

Conclusions. Perspectives converge on outcomes and support but diverge on the behaviours through which students manage study time, especially behaviours that others observe more easily than students themselves. Research and practice that rely on student self-reports of time management may overstate students' self-regulation, and teacher perspectives offer information that self-reports lack.

Keywords: time management; multi-informant assessment; informant discrepancy; teacher perceptions; parental perceptions; procrastination; adolescents; India

1. Introduction

Time management, the set of behaviours through which people plan, prioritise and monitor their use of time in pursuit of goals (Claessens et al., 2007), is treated in self-regulated learning theory as a core strategy for managing the resources of study (Wolters & Brady, 2021; Zimmerman, 2002). Since early studies of college students (Britton & Tesser, 1991; Macan et al., 1990) it has been consistently associated with academic achievement (Aeon et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2026), and school-based programmes increasingly try to teach it. Almost all of the evidence on which these programmes rest comes from one source: students describing their own habits. Self-reports are convenient, and for many purposes they are adequate. Self-reported grades, for example, track actual grades reasonably well on average (Kuncel et al., 2005). But self-assessments of skill and behaviour are prone to systematic error. People tend to judge themselves more favourably than others judge them, and they are least accurate about behaviours whose consequences they do not see directly (Dunning et al., 2004).

In child and adolescent assessment, the standard answer to this problem is to collect reports from several informants. A large literature on informant discrepancies shows that parents, teachers and young people rarely agree closely, and that their disagreements are more than random noise (Achenbach et al., 1987). Informants observe the young person in different settings, and their reports reflect both what they see and their own perspective on it (De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2005). Discrepancies can therefore carry information about where and how a behaviour appears (De Los Reyes et al., 2015). In research on self-regulated learning, teacher ratings of students' strategy use have been shown to relate to students' own reports and to achievement (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1988), which suggests that teachers are a valid, if different, source.

Multi-informant evidence on time management is scarce, and for the Indian higher secondary stage we are not aware of any. In the two junior college years (Classes 11 and 12), students prepare simultaneously for the board examination and for competitive entrance tests, often attending private coaching alongside college. Students, parents and teachers all have strong views on how well students use their time, and each group sees a different part of the student's day: the student sees their own effort and intentions, parents see home study, and teachers see deadlines, classroom attention and the use of phones in college.

This study compares the three perspectives directly. Using three questionnaires designed with parallel items, we ask three questions:

1. Do students, parents and teachers agree in their judgements of students' time-management behaviours?
2. Do they agree about the support students receive and about students' academic performance?

3. Do teachers' beliefs about the importance of time management correspond to their judgements of students' actual time management?

Two considerations guided the analysis. Self-assessments are typically more favourable than others' assessments (Dunning et al., 2004). Actors and observers also have access to different information: students know their intentions and circumstances, while parents and teachers see only the resulting behaviour, although the classic claim that this produces systematically different explanations of behaviour has received weaker support than once assumed (Malle, 2006). Together, these suggest that students will rate their own time management most favourably and teachers least favourably, and that the gap will be largest for behaviours whose effects are visible to others but easily discounted by the student, such as leaving work until the last minute or being distracted by a phone. We had no strong expectation for support and performance, where informants report on more concrete and public matters.

2. Method

2.1 Design and participants

The data come from a cross-sectional survey conducted between April and July 2026 in junior colleges in Jalgaon City, Maharashtra, as part of the first author's doctoral research. Three groups were recruited independently through the participating institutions: students, parents of junior college students, and junior college teachers. Responses were anonymous and were not linked across groups. The study therefore compares informant groups, not the reports of particular parents or teachers about particular students.

Students. Of approximately 700 Class 11 and 12 students invited, 343 responded (about 49%): 52.8% female, 77.3% in Class 12, 52.8% science stream, 72.6% in private colleges and 79.0% urban.

Parents. Of approximately 320 parents or guardians invited, 116 responded (about 36%): 54.3% fathers, 38.8% mothers and 6.9% other guardians. Of these, 40.5% held a postgraduate and 31.0% a graduate qualification.

Teachers. Of approximately 200 junior college teachers invited, 99 responded (about 50%). Most taught science subjects (58.6%), followed by arts (18.2%), commerce (14.1%) and other subjects (9.1%). Forty-five (45.5%) had more than 15 years of teaching experience, and 22 (22.2%) had five years or fewer.

2.2 Instruments and matched items

The three questionnaires were developed for the wider study and administered in English and Marathi on a five-point agreement scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). Students rated themselves, parents rated their own child, and teachers rated "students" in their classes in general.

Table 1 lists the twelve domains in which the questionnaires contain parallel items. Each match was graded exact when the items describe the same behaviour in the same frame (for example, "I complete my assignments and academic tasks on time" / "My child completes assignments on time" / "Students are punctual in

completing assignments”) or close when they describe the same behaviour in a different frame (for example, a student’s efficient use of time for study compared with a teacher’s judgement of students’ use of classroom time). Conclusions rest mainly on exact matches. Two domains, completing work on time and avoiding last-minute study, are exact matches across all three groups.

Table 1. Matched domains, items and match quality

Domain	Students	Parents	Teachers	Match
Completes work on time	I complete my assignments and academic tasks on time	My child completes assignments on time	Students are punctual in completing assignments	Exact
Avoids last-minute study	I avoid delaying academic tasks and try to complete them on time	My child avoids last-minute study habits	Students avoid last-minute preparation	Exact
Uses time effectively	I use my available time effectively for study	My child manages time effectively for studies	Students utilize classroom time effectively	Close
Follows a study schedule	I regularly prepare a daily or weekly study schedule		Students follow a proper study schedule	Close
Distracted by phone / social media	I get distracted by mobile phones or social media while studying		Students are distracted by mobile phones or social media	Exact
Difficulty balancing subjects	I find it difficult to balance time between different subjects		Students face difficulty in balancing time between subjects	Exact
Teacher guides study time	My teachers guide me in managing my study time effectively		I guide students in managing their study time	Exact
Teacher motivates	My teachers motivate me to improve my academic performance		I motivate students to follow proper study habits	Exact
Parent monitors routine	My parents monitor my study routine and academic progress	I regularly monitor my child’s study schedule		Exact
Parent guides	My parents guide me when I face difficulties in studies	I guide my child in managing study time effectively		Close
Performs well	I usually obtain good marks in my examinations	My child performs consistently well in academics		Close
Performance improving	My academic performance is improving over time	I have observed improvement in my child’s academic performance		Exact

The teacher questionnaire also contained three items on the perceived importance of time management (“Students with good time management perform better academically”, “Poor time management negatively affects academic performance”, “Students who plan their studies show better understanding”) and five items rating students’ time management. These were used to compare teachers’ beliefs with their observations.

2.3 Ethical considerations

Permission was obtained from the heads of all participating institutions. Participation was voluntary and anonymous for all three groups. Each questionnaire stated the purpose of the study and the right to withdraw, and no identifying information was collected. Respondents indicated their willingness to take part by choosing

to complete the questionnaire. For students, all of whom were enrolled in Class 11 or 12, permission for data collection was granted by the heads of their institutions. The data are reported only in aggregate.

2.4 Analysis

For each domain, we report the percentage of each group agreeing (4 or 5) and disagreeing (1 or 2), together with the mean and standard deviation. For the two three-informant domains and the one close three-informant domain, a Kruskal–Wallis test (with ε^2) preceded pairwise comparisons. All pairwise comparisons used the Mann–Whitney U test with the rank-biserial correlation (r_{rb}) as the effect size, where positive values indicate higher ratings from the first-named group. Mean differences are reported with 95% percentile bootstrap confidence intervals (5,000 resamples). The Benjamini–Hochberg procedure controlled the false discovery rate across all 18 pairwise comparisons. Teachers’ belief and observation composites were compared with the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, because both were rated by the same teachers. Analyses used Python 3.12 (SciPy, pandas).

3. Results

3.1 Time-management behaviours

Figure 1 shows the full response distributions and Table 2 the tests. In all four time-management domains, teachers were the least favourable informants.

The two exact three-informant matches showed a gradient. On avoiding last-minute study, 78% of students, 64% of parents and 34% of teachers gave a favourable rating ($H = 71.26$, $p < .001$, $\varepsilon^2 = .12$). All three pairwise differences were significant. The student–teacher gap was one full scale point (mean difference 1.00, 95% CI [0.77, 1.23]; $r_{rb} = .50$), and even parents rated their children less favourably than the children rated themselves (difference 0.42 [0.20, 0.64]; $r_{rb} = .23$). On completing work on time, students and parents agreed closely (82% and 84% favourable; $r_{rb} = .04$, $p_{BH} = .622$), and teachers were less favourable (63%; student–teacher $r_{rb} = .35$, parent–teacher $r_{rb} = .33$, both $p_{BH} < .001$).

The close matches followed the same pattern. On using time effectively, students and parents agreed (74% and 81% favourable) and teachers were less favourable about classroom use of time (60%; $r_{rb} = .21$ against both). On following a study schedule, 64% of students and 52% of teachers gave a favourable rating ($r_{rb} = .18$, $p_{BH} = .007$).

Table 2. Informant comparisons by domain

Domain (match)	Students % agree (<i>M</i>)	Parents % agree (<i>M</i>)	Teachers % agree (<i>M</i>)	Pair	Mean diff. [95% CI]	<i>r_{rb}</i>	<i>p_{BH}</i>
Completes work on time (exact)	82.2 (3.99)	84.5 (3.97)	62.6 (3.39)	S–P	0.01 [–0.17, 0.19]	.04	.622
				S–T	0.59 [0.38, 0.81]	.35	< .001
				P–T	0.58 [0.34, 0.82]	.33	< .001
Avoids last-minute study (exact)	77.8 (3.86)	63.8 (3.44)	34.3 (2.86)	S–P	0.42 [0.20, 0.64]	.23	< .001
				S–T	1.00 [0.77, 1.23]	.50	< .001
				P–T	0.58 [0.30, 0.86]	.30	< .001
Uses time effectively (close)	73.8 (3.79)	81.0 (3.81)	59.6 (3.40)	S–P	–0.02 [–0.20, 0.15]	.01	.914
				S–T	0.38 [0.16, 0.61]	.21	.002
				P–T	0.41 [0.16, 0.65]	.21	.004
Follows a study schedule (close)	63.6 (3.55)		51.5 (3.19)	S–T	0.36 [0.11, 0.61]	.18	.007
Distracted by phone / social media (exact)	50.4 (3.20)		93.9 (4.40)	S–T	–1.20 [–1.39, –1.02]	–.56	< .001
Difficulty balancing subjects (exact)	58.9 (3.48)		80.8 (3.86)	S–T	–0.38 [–0.57, –0.18]	–.19	.004
Teacher guides study time (exact)	86.0 (4.13)		96.0 (4.29)	S–T	–0.17 [–0.31, –0.03]	–.03	.720
Teacher motivates (exact)	88.9 (4.15)		99.0 (4.35)	S–T	–0.20 [–0.33, –0.07]	–.07	.351
Parent monitors routine (exact)	83.4 (4.08)	78.5 (3.87)		S–P	0.21 [0.01, 0.43]	.12	.052
Parent guides (close)	78.4 (3.92)	82.8 (3.96)		S–P	–0.04 [–0.23, 0.15]	.02	.808
Performs well (close)	76.7 (3.87)	80.2 (3.88)		S–P	–0.00 [–0.18, 0.18]	.02	.808
Performance improving (exact)	83.1 (3.95)	94.0 (4.16)		S–P	–0.21 [–0.35, –0.06]	–.10	.092

Note. S = students (*n* = 343), P = parents (*n* = 116), T = teachers (*n* = 99). % agree = percentage answering 4 or 5. Mean difference = first-named group minus second. *r_{rb}* = rank-biserial correlation. *p_{BH}* = Benjamini–Hochberg adjusted across the 18 pairwise comparisons. For “distracted” and “difficulty balancing”, agreement indicates a problem, so negative differences mean that students report the problem less often than teachers.

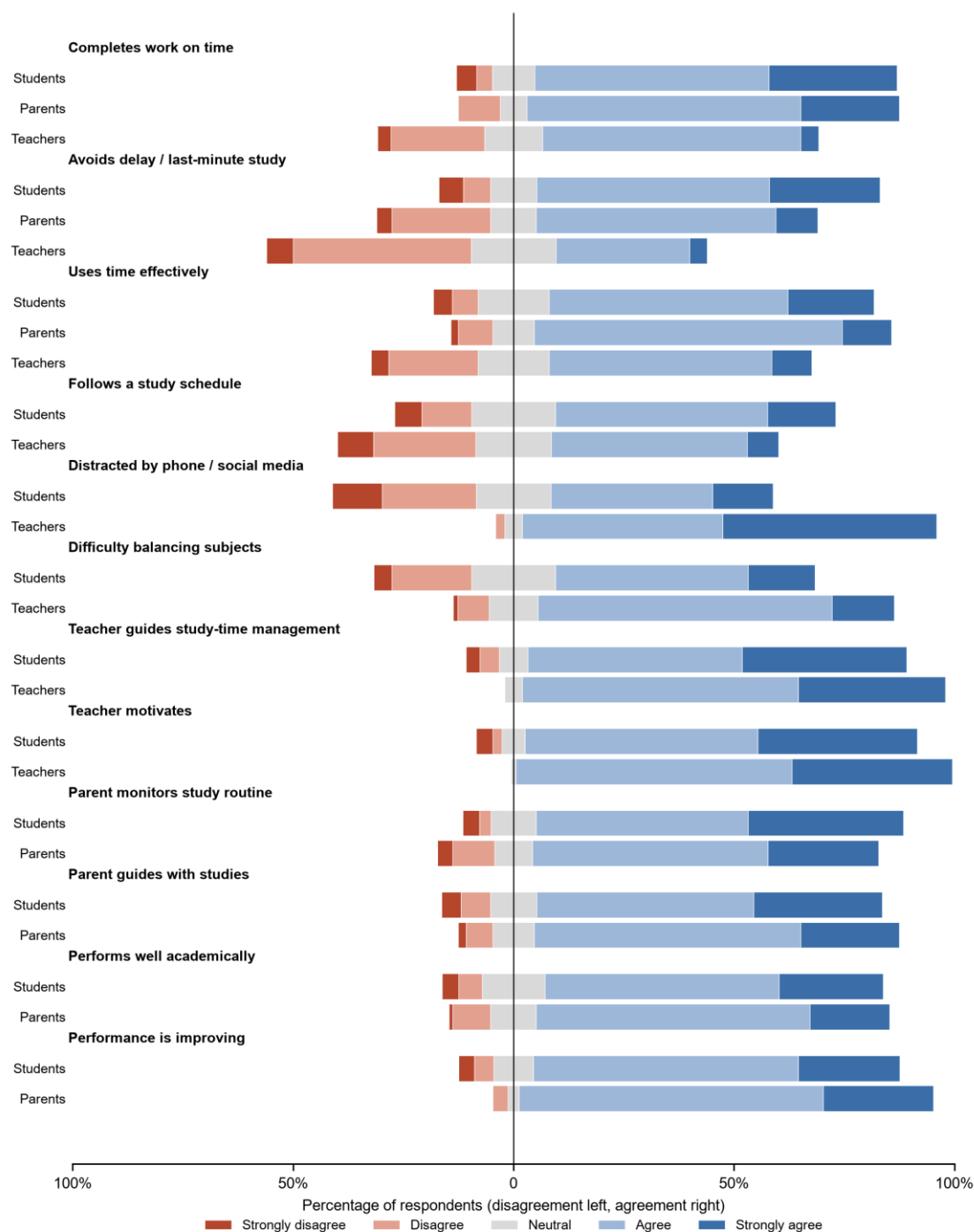


Figure 1. Distribution of responses by informant for each matched domain. Bars are centred on the neutral category; disagreement extends left and agreement right. For the phone-distraction and subject-balancing domains, agreement indicates a problem.

3.2 Obstacles

The largest discrepancy in the study concerned phone and social media distraction. Half of the students (50%) agreed that they were distracted by phones or social media while studying, while 94% of teachers said this of their students (mean difference $-1.20 [-1.39, -1.02]$, $r_{tb} = -.56$). Teachers were also more likely than students to report that students had difficulty balancing their time across subjects (81% against 59%; $r_{tb} = -.19$).

3.3 Support and performance

In contrast to the behavioural domains, informants agreed about support. Students and teachers gave almost identical distributions for teachers' guidance on managing study time (86% and 96% favourable; $r_{tb} = -.03$, $p_{BH} = .720$) and for teachers' motivation ($r_{tb} = -.07$, $p_{BH} = .351$). The mean differences, although small (about 0.2 of a scale point), favoured teachers' own accounts, and teachers were more uniformly positive, with almost no teacher disagreeing. Students and parents also agreed on parental guidance ($r_{tb} = .02$), and students reported parental monitoring slightly more often than parents did ($r_{tb} = .12$, $p_{BH} = .052$).

Students and parents agreed about academic performance. Their ratings of good performance were indistinguishable ($r_{tb} = .02$, $p_{BH} = .808$), and parents were, if anything, more likely than students to report improvement (94% against 83%; $r_{tb} = -.10$, $p_{BH} = .092$).

Overall, 10 of the 18 pairwise comparisons remained significant after correction. Every one of them involved a time-management behaviour or obstacle; none involved support or performance.

3.4 Composite comparison

Combining the three time-management domains available from all three groups (completing work on time, avoiding last-minute study and using time effectively) gave composite means of 3.88 for students, 3.74 for parents and 3.22 for teachers ($H = 69.75$, $p < .001$, $\epsilon^2 = .12$). The student–teacher difference (0.66; $r_{tb} = .53$) and the parent–teacher difference (0.52; $r_{tb} = .44$) were large, and the student–parent difference was small (0.14; $r_{tb} = .15$, $p = .012$). The composites had modest internal consistency ($\alpha = .78$, $.58$ and $.47$ for students, parents and teachers), so the item-level results in Table 2 are the primary evidence.

3.5 Teachers' beliefs and observations

Teachers strongly endorsed the importance of time management. Ninety-two percent agreed that students with good time management perform better, 84% that poor time management harms performance, and 89% that students who plan their studies understand better (belief composite $M = 4.17$, $SD = 0.64$). Their ratings of students' actual time management were much lower ($M = 3.03$, $SD = 0.64$), and 72% agreed that students often do not plan their study time properly. For 90% of teachers, the belief score exceeded the observation score (Wilcoxon $p < .001$; mean difference 1.14 scale points). Teachers' ratings of students' time management did not differ by teaching experience ($p = .286$) or subject taught ($p = .145$).

4. Discussion

Students, parents and teachers agreed about outcomes, meaning how well students perform and whether they are improving, and about the support students receive from teachers and parents. They disagreed about the behaviours through which students manage their time. The disagreement was ordered by distance from the student: students rated their own time management most favourably, parents somewhat less favourably, and teachers least favourably.

4.1 Why informants disagree about behaviour

The pattern matches what research on self-assessment and informant discrepancy would predict. People evaluate themselves more favourably than others do, particularly on behaviours that are open to interpretation (Dunning et al., 2004). A student who starts an assignment the evening before it is due may count that as completing it on time, while a teacher who receives rushed work counts it as last-minute preparation. The student knows the intentions and constraints behind the behaviour; the teacher sees the behaviour itself. The two exact three-informant matches support this reading. On the concrete outcome of completing work on time, students and parents agreed. On avoiding last-minute study, which concerns *how* the work is done, students were more favourable than their own parents.

Phone distraction is the most striking case. Students and teachers answered almost identically worded items, and the gap between them was larger than on any other domain. Teachers see phones in corridors and classrooms across many students, whereas each student judges only whether their own phone use interferes with their own study, a judgement that is easy to make in one's own favour. Overall screen time is not consistently associated with academic performance, but specific uses such as video gaming are associated with lower achievement in adolescents (Adelantado-Renau et al., 2019). The distance between how students and teachers see phone use is therefore worth taking seriously.

Reference frames also differ. Teachers rated “students” in general, and a general judgement may be shaped by the most salient cases, those who submit late or use phones in class. Parents rated their own child, whom they know well and may view favourably. Informant discrepancies of this kind are expected, and they tell us something about the setting and the observer as well as about the student (De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2005; De Los Reyes et al., 2015). The data cannot say which group is correct, and none may be. What they show is that the answer to “how well do students manage their time?” depends a great deal on who is asked.

4.2 Agreement about support and performance

We had expected some self-serving bias from teachers and parents when they described the support they give, so the agreement here is worth noting. It is also practically important, since students' perceptions of teacher and parent support are associated with their motivation and engagement (Wentzel, 1998; Wang & Eccles, 2012), and parental involvement that structures study is associated with achievement in adolescence (Hill & Tyson, 2009). Teachers reported guiding and motivating students, and students largely confirmed it. The small mean differences favoured teachers' accounts, and teachers' ratings were more uniform, but the distributions were not significantly different. Agreement about performance is consistent with the relative validity of self-reported attainment (Kuncel et al., 2005): marks and improvement are public and concrete, and informants have similar information about them.

4.3 Teachers' beliefs and observations

Teachers almost unanimously believed that time management matters for achievement, and they rated their students' time management as mediocre. The gap means that teachers see a problem they consider important, which is a precondition for doing something about it. It also raises a question. Students confirmed that teachers give guidance, yet teachers do not see the behaviours they are trying to change. The guidance may be too general, advising students to plan without showing them how, or it may not reach the behaviours, such as last-minute preparation and phone use, that teachers find most problematic.

4.4 Implications for research and practice

For research, the findings caution against relying on student self-reports alone when time management is the construct of interest. Self-reports may overstate students' self-regulation, and particularly their avoidance of procrastination, the behaviour most closely tied to performance (Steel, 2007; Kim & Seo, 2015). Study habits predict academic performance independently of ability (Credé & Kuncel, 2008), so the way they are measured affects what studies conclude. Studies that estimate the association between time management and achievement from self-reports alone may therefore misstate its size. Collecting teacher or parent reports, or behavioural indicators such as submission times, would give a fuller picture (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1988).

For practice, the findings suggest that interventions should begin by narrowing the perception gap. Brief activities that let students compare their own estimates of study habits with objective records, such as the time an assignment was actually started or daily screen time, can make the gap visible to students. Teachers' guidance may work better when it targets the specific behaviours they see as weak, last-minute preparation and phone use, instead of time management in general. Communication with parents can draw on the fact that parents already see their children's delay more clearly than the children do.

4.5 Limitations

The samples were independent and anonymous, so we could compare groups but not the reports of specific parents, teachers and students about the same child. Informant correlations, the standard index of agreement in multi-informant research (Achenbach et al., 1987), could not be computed, and the group differences could partly reflect differences in who chose to respond. Teachers rated students in general and parents rated their own child, so differences between groups combine differences of perspective with differences of reference frame. The matched items were written for the wider study and not for this comparison, and some matches are close instead of exact. Responses were collected in one city, with self-selected samples and response rates between about 36% and 50%. Within each group, all ratings came from a single informant on one occasion, so shared method variance may affect comparisons within a group (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Finally, social desirability may have affected each group differently: students may present their habits favourably, and teachers may present their own guidance favourably.

5. Conclusion

Students, parents and teachers in Indian junior colleges agree about how well students perform and about the support they receive, but not about how well students manage their time. Students view their own time management most favourably and teachers least favourably, and the gap is widest for last-minute study and phone distraction, behaviours that others observe more easily than students do. Teachers believe that time management matters and see much to improve in their students. Researchers who measure time management, and practitioners who try to improve it, should not rely on students' own accounts alone.

Data availability

The anonymised data and analysis scripts are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

References

1. Achenbach, T. M., McConaughy, S. H., & Howell, C. T. (1987). Child/adolescent behavioral and emotional problems: Implications of cross-informant correlations for situational specificity. *Psychological Bulletin*, 101(2), 213–232. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.101.2.213>
2. Adelantado-Renau, M., Moliner-Urdiales, D., Cavero-Redondo, I., Beltran-Valls, M. R., Martínez-Vizcaíno, V., & Álvarez-Bueno, C. (2019). Association between screen media use and academic performance among children and adolescents. *JAMA Pediatrics*, 173(11), 1058. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamapediatrics.2019.3176>
3. Aeon, B., Faber, A., & Panaccio, A. (2021). Does time management work? A meta-analysis. *PLOS ONE*, 16(1), e0245066. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0245066>
4. Britton, B. K., & Tesser, A. (1991). Effects of time-management practices on college grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83(3), 405–410. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.83.3.405>
5. Claessens, B. J. C., van Eerde, W., Rutte, C. G., & Roe, R. A. (2007). A review of the time management literature. *Personnel Review*, 36(2), 255–276. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00483480710726136>
6. Credé, M., & Kuncel, N. R. (2008). Study habits, skills, and attitudes: The third pillar supporting collegiate academic performance. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 3(6), 425–453. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-6924.2008.00089.x>
7. De Los Reyes, A., & Kazdin, A. E. (2005). Informant discrepancies in the assessment of childhood psychopathology: A critical review, theoretical framework, and recommendations for further study. *Psychological Bulletin*, 131(4), 483–509. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.131.4.483>
8. De Los Reyes, A., Augenstein, T. M., Wang, M., Thomas, S. A., Drabick, D. A. G., Burgers, D. E., & Rabinowitz, J. (2015). The validity of the multi-informant approach to assessing child and adolescent mental health. *Psychological Bulletin*, 141(4), 858–900. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038498>
9. Dunning, D., Heath, C., & Suls, J. M. (2004). Flawed self-assessment: Implications for health, education, and the workplace. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 5(3), 69–106. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1529-1006.2004.00018.x>

10. Hill, N. E., & Tyson, D. F. (2009). Parental involvement in middle school: A meta-analytic assessment of the strategies that promote achievement. *Developmental Psychology*, 45(3), 740–763. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015362>
11. Kim, K. R., & Seo, E. H. (2015). The relationship between procrastination and academic performance: A meta-analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 82, 26–33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2015.02.038>
12. Kuncel, N. R., Credé, M., & Thomas, L. L. (2005). The validity of self-reported grade point averages, class ranks, and test scores: A meta-analysis and review of the literature. *Review of Educational Research*, 75(1), 63–82. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543075001063>
13. Liu, B., Ma, P., & Jia, F. (2026). Systematic review and meta-analysis of the impact of time management on college students' learning outcomes. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 17, 1700298. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2026.1700298>
14. Macan, T. H., Shahani, C., Dipboye, R. L., & Phillips, A. P. (1990). College students' time management: Correlations with academic performance and stress. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(4), 760–768. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.82.4.760>
15. Malle, B. F. (2006). The actor-observer asymmetry in attribution: A (surprising) meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 132(6), 895–919. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.132.6.895>
16. Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879–903. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879>
17. Steel, P. (2007). The nature of procrastination: A meta-analytic and theoretical review of quintessential self-regulatory failure. *Psychological Bulletin*, 133(1), 65–94. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.133.1.65>
18. Wang, M.-T., & Eccles, J. S. (2012). Social support matters: Longitudinal effects of social support on three dimensions of school engagement from middle to high school. *Child Development*, 83(3), 877–895. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2012.01745.x>
19. Wentzel, K. R. (1998). Social relationships and motivation in middle school: The role of parents, teachers, and peers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90(2), 202–209. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.90.2.202>
20. Wolters, C. A., & Brady, A. C. (2021). College students' time management: A self-regulated learning perspective. *Educational Psychology Review*, 33(4), 1319–1351. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-020-09519-z>
21. Zimmerman, B. J. (2002). Becoming a self-regulated learner: An overview. *Theory Into Practice*, 41(2), 64–70. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4102_2
22. Zimmerman, B. J., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1988). Construct validation of a strategy model of student self-regulated learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80(3), 284–290. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.80.3.284>