

ORGANIZATIONAL ACTIVITIES, TIME MANAGEMENT AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AMONG ECONOMICS EDUCATION STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Student organizational involvement can support developmental learning, yet its academic value may depend on students' capacity to regulate competing demands. This study examined the associations of organizational activities and time management with academic achievement among Economics Education students. A quantitative cross-sectional survey was conducted with 104 respondents drawn from a population of 140 students using the sample-size procedure reported in the source manuscript. Data were collected primarily through five-point Likert-scale questionnaires and analyzed using simple and multiple linear regression. Organizational activities were positively associated with academic achievement in the simple model ($B = .788$, $\beta = .795$, $t = 13.217$, $p < .001$), as was time management ($B = .794$, $\beta = .803$, $t = 13.616$, $p < .001$). In the simultaneous model, time management remained a significant independent predictor ($B = .511$, $\beta = .516$, $t = 2.446$, $p = .016$), whereas organizational activities were no longer statistically significant ($B = .296$, $\beta = .299$, $t = 1.414$, $p = .160$). The overall model was significant, $F(2, 101) = 94.600$, $p < .001$, explaining 65.2% of the observed variance ($R^2 = .652$). The findings identify time management as the stronger unique correlate of the measured academic-achievement outcome and indicate that organizational involvement should be interpreted in relation to students' self-regulatory capacity rather than as an independent academic advantage.

Keywords: academic achievement, higher education, organizational activities, time management

INTRODUCTION

Higher education is expected to cultivate disciplinary knowledge while also developing students' capacity to communicate, collaborate, lead, solve problems, and manage themselves in increasingly complex academic and social environments. Student engagement research consistently shows that the quality and intensity of students' investment in educationally purposeful experiences are associated with learning and persistence, although the magnitude of these relationships depends on the kind of engagement and the context in which it occurs (Astin, 1984; Carini et al., 2006; Kahu, 2013; Kuh et al., 2008). From this perspective, student organizations are not merely extracurricular additions to formal study. They may function as developmental spaces in which students practice leadership, teamwork, responsibility, negotiation, and collective decision making.

Organizational participation can also contribute to psychosocial development and students' sense of purpose. Longitudinal and developmental research has reported that students who join or lead clubs and organizations often show stronger development in autonomy, interdependence, and purpose than less-involved peers (Foubert & Urbanski, 2006). More broadly, studies of extracurricular participation have documented associations with academic, social, civic, and psychological outcomes, while emphasizing that the effects are heterogeneous and partly shaped by self-selection, activity type, intensity, and individual characteristics (Feldman & Matjasko, 2005; Fredricks & Eccles, 2006). Therefore, organizational participation should not be assumed to generate academic benefits automatically; its value may depend on how students integrate the activity with their academic responsibilities.

The student-engagement literature supports this conditional interpretation. Engagement in educationally purposeful activities can be positively related to grades and persistence, but engagement is a multidimensional process rather than a simple count of activities (Kahu, 2013; Kuh et al., 2008). Pike and Kuh (2005), for example, showed that patterns of engagement differ across student groups and are connected with intellectual development. Tinto (1997) likewise

emphasized that social and academic integration operate through students' interactions and participation in learning communities. Organizational activities may thus provide meaningful opportunities for connection and development, but excessive or poorly coordinated commitments can also compete with coursework, assessment deadlines, and study time.

Time is a finite academic resource, making time management a central self-regulatory mechanism for students with multiple commitments. Time management generally refers to behaviors through which individuals set goals, establish priorities, plan activities, monitor schedules, and create a sense of control over the use of time. Classic studies among college students found that time-management practices and perceived control of time were associated with academic performance and lower stress (Britton & Tesser, 1991; Macan et al., 1990). Subsequent literature reviews and meta-analytic evidence indicate that time management is positively related to performance and well-being, although effects vary across measurement approaches and settings (Aeon et al., 2021; Claessens et al., 2007).

Within educational psychology, time management is also embedded in the broader framework of self-regulated learning. Self-regulated learners proactively set goals, select strategies, monitor progress, regulate effort, and reflect on outcomes (Pintrich, 2004; Zimmerman, 2002). Meta-analytic evidence on study skills and motivational strategies has shown that academic-related skills, effort regulation, motivation, and related self-management constructs make meaningful contributions to collegiate performance beyond prior academic indicators (Credé & Kuncel, 2008; Credé & Phillips, 2011; Robbins et al., 2004). A systematic review of online higher education similarly identified time management, metacognition, effort regulation, and critical thinking as among the self-regulated learning strategies most consistently associated with academic achievement (Broadbent & Poon, 2015).

Time management is especially relevant when students face competing academic and non-academic roles. Empirical studies in higher education have found that students with stronger time-management behaviors tend to report or demonstrate better academic outcomes, though associations are not always large and may depend on specific dimensions such as perceived control of time (Adams & Blair, 2019; Garzón Umerenkova & Gil Flores, 2018). This nuance is important because time management is not simply the amount of time spent studying. It involves prioritization, realistic scheduling, monitoring deadlines, and protecting goal-directed activity from interruptions and competing demands.

Failures of time regulation can manifest as procrastination, which is consistently associated with poorer performance and self-regulatory difficulties. Meta-analytic research has linked procrastination with lower conscientiousness, self-efficacy, and performance (van Eerde, 2003; Steel, 2007). Experimental evidence further suggests that deadlines can help individuals manage self-control problems, although externally structured deadlines may be more effective than poorly designed self-imposed ones (Ariely & Wertenbroch, 2002). More recent meta-analytic work continues to show that passive procrastination is negatively associated with academic performance, reinforcing the importance of proactive task regulation and deadline management (Kooren et al., 2024).

Academic achievement itself is multidetermined. Large-scale reviews indicate that performance in higher education is associated with prior achievement, academic self-efficacy, motivation, study skills, personality, learning strategies, and instructional characteristics (Richardson et al., 2012; Schneider & Preckel, 2017). Self-discipline and effort regulation are also repeatedly identified as important correlates of successful academic functioning (Duckworth & Seligman, 2005; Credé & Phillips, 2011). Consequently, neither organizational activity nor time management should be interpreted as an isolated cause of achievement. Rather, they are elements within a larger network of behavioral, motivational, contextual, and prior-achievement factors.

The practical tension arises because student organizations can be developmentally valuable while simultaneously increasing the number of tasks that must be scheduled and coordinated. A student who participates actively in organizations may gain leadership and social capital but may also experience deadline congestion, role overload, or reduced study time. Conversely, students with strong self-management skills may be better positioned to capture the developmental benefits of organizational participation without sacrificing academic responsibilities. This suggests that organizational activities and time management should be analyzed together rather than only in separate bivariate relationships.

The source manuscript reports that approximately 78% of students in the Economics Education program were involved in student organizations in 2025, while only a subset achieved high academic outcomes. This local pattern provides an empirical rationale for examining whether organizational involvement is independently associated with achievement or whether the association is attenuated when time management is considered simultaneously. The question is relevant for academic advisers and student-affairs units because institutional policy should distinguish between the developmental value of participation and the self-regulatory conditions under which participation is academically sustainable.

A further methodological issue concerns how regression findings are interpreted. A predictor can show a strong and statistically significant association when analyzed alone but lose statistical significance after another correlated predictor is introduced. Such attenuation does not mean that the first variable is unimportant in all respects; it means that the available data do not demonstrate a unique statistical contribution after shared variance is considered. This distinction is particularly important in studies of engagement and self-regulation, where constructs may overlap conceptually and behaviorally.

Accordingly, the present study contributes a context-specific test of organizational activities and time management within the same predictive model. Its novelty lies not in proposing that these factors are entirely new predictors, but in distinguishing their unadjusted associations from their unique contributions among Economics Education students. The study addresses three questions: whether organizational activities are associated with academic achievement, whether time management is associated with academic achievement, and whether the two variables jointly predict academic achievement. Consistent with the literature, positive associations were expected, while all findings are interpreted as associational rather than causal because the design is observational and cross-sectional.

METHOD

The study used a quantitative cross-sectional survey design to examine the associations of organizational activities (X1) and time management (X2) with academic achievement (Y). The unit of analysis was the individual student. Because all variables were measured within a single observational study period, the regression coefficients estimate statistical associations and should not be interpreted as causal effects or as evidence of temporal precedence.

The study population consisted of 140 students in the Economics Education program, and the source manuscript reports a sample of 104 respondents determined using the Slovin formula with a 5% error level. The manuscript describes the sampling approach as random sampling. However, the exact sampling frame, randomization mechanism, response rate, non-response handling procedure, participant eligibility criteria, academic cohort, and semester are not reported in the source document. These details should be verified from the original research records and inserted before journal resubmission because transparent sampling procedures are necessary for evaluating representativeness and reproducibility.

Data collection was reported to involve questionnaires, observation, and documentation. The questionnaire used a five-point Likert response format and produced numeric scores for organizational activities, time management, and academic achievement. The revised

manuscript retains the numerical outcome structure displayed in the source tables and regression output. Importantly, the source document contains an internal inconsistency: the method describes a questionnaire-based outcome, whereas an earlier narrative referred to grade-point-average categories. For coherence with the displayed score range of 35–104 and the regression tables, the present revision treats academic achievement as a composite score. The authors must verify this operational definition against the original instrument and dataset before publication.

The source manuscript reports item-validity testing using product-moment correlations, with all items exceeding a reported critical value of $r = .195$. Internal consistency was reported using Cronbach's alpha, yielding $\alpha = .991$ for organizational activities, $\alpha = .990$ for time management, and $\alpha = .990$ for academic achievement. Although these coefficients indicate extremely high internal consistency, values approaching 1.00 can also occur when items are highly redundant; reliability should therefore be interpreted alongside item content, scale length, and construct-validity evidence (Taber, 2018). The number of items, dimensions, source or adaptation procedure, scoring rules, and item-level diagnostics were not included in the source manuscript and require author verification.

Data analysis was performed using SPSS. Descriptive frequency distributions were used to summarize score patterns. Simple linear regression was used to estimate the separate association of organizational activities with academic achievement and the separate association of time management with academic achievement. Multiple linear regression was then used to estimate the unique coefficients of both predictors when entered simultaneously. Individual coefficients were evaluated with t statistics, overall model fit with an F test, and explained variance with R^2 . Statistical significance was interpreted at $p < .05$, and values reported by SPSS as .000 are expressed as $p < .001$.

The original manuscript states that normality was examined with a Kolmogorov–Smirnov test but does not report the test statistic or exact probability value. The available multiple-regression output includes a Durbin–Watson statistic of 2.318. Other diagnostics needed for a complete regression assessment—including linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity (tolerance and variance inflation factor), influential observations, and residual diagnostics—were not available in the source material. These values should be added from the original SPSS output before publication. The source manuscript also provides no ethics approval number, informed-consent procedure, confidentiality protocol, or data-governance statement; these elements must be completed from the actual study records and have not been invented in this revision.

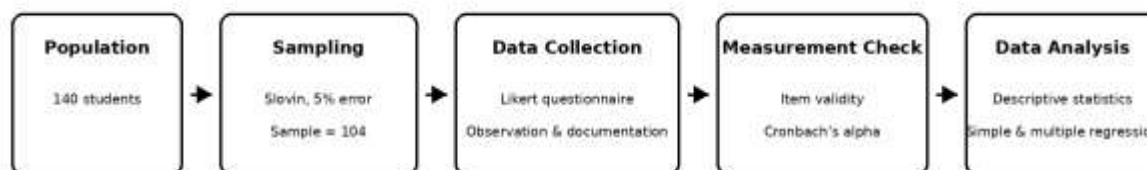


Figure 1. Research Procedure

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Descriptive Findings and Measurement Caution

The source manuscript presents frequency distributions for organizational activities, time management, and academic achievement. In each table, the largest frequency occurs in the score interval 65–74 ($n = 19$; 18.26%). However, the three distributions are numerically identical across every interval. This is unusual for conceptually distinct variables and should be verified against the original dataset. The distributions are retained below to preserve the submitted

evidence while making the uncertainty explicit. No new descriptive values have been fabricated.

Table 1. Frequency Distribution of Organizational Activities (X1)

Score interval	Frequency	Relative (%)	Cumulative (%)
35–44	10	9.61	9.61
45–54	14	13.46	23.07
55–64	17	16.34	39.41
65–74	19	18.26	57.67
75–84	18	17.30	74.97
85–94	15	14.42	89.39
95–104	11	10.57	100.00
Total	104	100.00	—

Table 2. Frequency Distribution of Time Management (X2)

Score interval	Frequency	Relative (%)	Cumulative (%)
35–44	10	9.61	9.61
45–54	14	13.46	23.07
55–64	17	16.34	39.41
65–74	19	18.26	57.67
75–84	18	17.30	74.97
85–94	15	14.42	89.39
95–104	11	10.57	100.00
Total	104	100.00	—

Table 3. Frequency Distribution of Academic Achievement (Y)

Score interval	Frequency	Relative (%)	Cumulative (%)
35–44	10	9.61	9.61
45–54	14	13.46	23.07
55–64	17	16.34	39.41
65–74	19	18.26	57.67
75–84	18	17.30	74.97
85–94	15	14.42	89.39
95–104	11	10.57	100.00
Total	104	100.00	—

The descriptive tables should therefore be treated as provisional rather than as definitive evidence about the distributions of the three constructs. This caution is especially important for academic achievement because the source document alternates between a composite score interpretation and a GPA interpretation. A validated operational definition is necessary before descriptive categories can be interpreted substantively. The same concern applies to the very high reliability coefficients, which may reflect excellent consistency but can also indicate overlapping or repetitive items when scale construction is insufficiently differentiated (Taber, 2018).

Organizational Activities and Academic Achievement

When organizational activities were entered as the sole predictor, the regression coefficient was positive and statistically significant ($B = .788$, $SE = .060$, $\beta = .795$, $t = 13.217$, $p < .001$). The corresponding equation was $Y = 10.267 + 0.788X_1$. Within this unadjusted model, higher organizational-activity scores were associated with higher academic-achievement scores. The magnitude of the standardized coefficient indicates a strong association in the observed sample, but it does not establish that organizational participation caused the academic outcome.

Table 4. Simple Regression of Organizational Activities on Academic Achievement

Predictor	B	SE	β	t	p
Constant	10.267	3.211	—	3.198	.002
Organizational activities (X1)	.788	.060	.795	13.217	< .001

The positive simple-regression result is conceptually compatible with theories of student involvement and engagement. Astin (1984) argued that development depends on the quantity and quality of students' investment in the collegiate experience, while later empirical studies showed that engagement can be related to learning, grades, and persistence (Carini et al., 2006; Kuh et al., 2008). Organizational participation can provide structured opportunities for leadership, interpersonal communication, collaborative problem solving, and responsibility. Foubert and Urbanski (2006) similarly found that club and organizational involvement was associated with psychosocial development, particularly when students moved beyond passive attendance to joining and leading activities.

Nevertheless, the broader extracurricular literature cautions against interpreting participation as uniformly beneficial. Reviews have found that extracurricular activities are often associated with positive developmental and academic outcomes, but these relationships vary by activity type, intensity, prior student characteristics, and contextual conditions (Feldman & Matjasko, 2005; Fredricks & Eccles, 2006). Students who choose organizational roles may already differ in motivation, confidence, social support, or self-regulatory skill. Consequently, a strong unadjusted coefficient may reflect both the developmental opportunities provided by organizations and pre-existing or co-occurring characteristics that enable students to participate successfully.

This interpretation is also consistent with Kahu's (2013) conceptualization of engagement as a dynamic psychosocial process shaped by structural and individual influences. Organizational activity may be one behavioral expression of engagement, but it should not be equated with engagement itself. A student may hold a formal organizational role yet be academically disengaged, whereas another student may be deeply engaged in learning without participating in formal organizations. The present regression therefore captures a statistical

relationship between measured scores, not a universal developmental effect of student organizations.

Time Management and Academic Achievement

When time management was examined as the sole predictor, the coefficient was also positive and statistically significant ($B = .794$, $SE = .058$, $\beta = .803$, $t = 13.616$, $p < .001$). The regression equation was $Y = 10.512 + 0.794X_2$. In the unadjusted model, students with higher time-management scores tended to have higher academic-achievement scores, and the standardized coefficient was slightly larger than that for organizational activities.

Table 5. Simple Regression of Time Management on Academic Achievement

Predictor	B	SE	β	t	p
Constant	10.512	3.103	—	3.387	.001
Time management (X ₂)	.794	.058	.803	13.616	< .001

This result aligns with a substantial literature connecting time regulation with academic functioning. Early research showed that time-management practices predicted college grades and that perceived control of time was associated with stronger performance and lower stress (Britton & Tesser, 1991; Macan et al., 1990). A later review concluded that time-management behaviors are consistently related to perceived control and well-being, though relationships with objective performance vary across studies (Claessens et al., 2007). The most comprehensive meta-analysis to date reported moderate positive relationships between time management and both performance and well-being, reinforcing the construct's practical relevance while also showing that it should not be treated as a universal performance guarantee (Aeon et al., 2021).

Studies focused on university populations provide a similar pattern. Garzón Umerenkova and Gil Flores (2018) found that higher-performing university students tended to display stronger self-regulatory time-management behaviors, particularly perceived control of time. Adams and Blair (2019) also reported meaningful associations between time-management behaviors and undergraduate engineering performance. These findings support the interpretation that successful students often do more than allocate hours: they prioritize, sequence tasks, monitor progress, and protect time for academically important work.

The self-regulated learning literature provides a mechanism for this association. Pintrich (2004) and Zimmerman (2002) conceptualize effective learning as a cyclical process involving goal setting, strategic action, monitoring, and reflection. Time management operates within this system by translating goals into schedules and protecting goal-directed activity from competing demands. Broadbent and Poon's (2015) systematic review found that time management, metacognition, effort regulation, and critical thinking were among the strategies most consistently associated with achievement in online higher education. Likewise, Credé and Phillips (2011) found that effort regulation within the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire had comparatively strong validity for predicting grades.

The negative side of this mechanism is procrastination. Students who fail to initiate or complete tasks in a timely manner may experience deadline compression, reduced opportunity for revision, sleep disruption, and increased stress. Meta-analytic evidence identifies procrastination as a self-regulatory failure related to lower performance and weaker conscientiousness and self-efficacy, while short-term mood regulation can reinforce the decision to delay tasks despite longer-term costs (Sirois & Pychyl, 2013; Steel, 2007; van Eerde,

2003). Ariely and Wertenbroch (2002) showed experimentally that deadlines can improve performance by constraining procrastination, though externally structured deadlines were often more effective than self-imposed ones. Recent meta-analytic findings further distinguish active from passive procrastination, with passive delay showing the more clearly adverse academic pattern (Kooren et al., 2024).

Joint Contribution of Organizational Activities and Time Management

The central finding emerges from the simultaneous model. When organizational activities and time management were entered together, the regression equation was $Y = 9.673 + 0.296X_1 + 0.511X_2$. Time management remained a statistically significant independent predictor ($B = .511$, $SE = .209$, $\beta = .516$, $t = 2.446$, $p = .016$), whereas organizational activities did not ($B = .296$, $SE = .209$, $\beta = .299$, $t = 1.414$, $p = .160$). Thus, the significant bivariate association of organizational activities should be distinguished from its non-significant unique coefficient after adjustment for time management.

Table 6. Multiple Linear Regression Predicting Academic Achievement

Predictor	B	SE	β	t	p
Constant	9.673	3.145	—	3.076	.003
Organizational activities (X1)	.296	.209	.299	1.414	.160
Time management (X2)	.511	.209	.516	2.446	.016

The overall model was statistically significant, $F(2, 101) = 94.600$, $p < .001$, with $R = .807$, $R^2 = .652$, and adjusted $R^2 = .645$. The two predictors therefore accounted for 65.2% of the observed variance in the measured academic-achievement score in this sample. The Durbin–Watson statistic was 2.318. This level of explained variance is substantial within the sample, but R^2 is a descriptive property of the fitted model and must not be interpreted as the percentage of academic achievement that is causally produced by the two predictors.

Table 7. Multiple-Regression Model Summary

Model statistic	Value
R	.807
R^2	.652
Adjusted R^2	.645
Standard error of estimate	10.172
$F(2, 101)$	94.600
p	< .001
Durbin–Watson	2.318

The attenuation of the organizational-activities coefficient from $B = .788$ in the simple model to $B = .296$ in the multiple model suggests that part of its unadjusted relationship with academic achievement overlaps with variance associated with time management. One plausible

substantive interpretation is that organizational participation is academically compatible when students possess the self-regulatory capacity to coordinate competing responsibilities. In this view, organizations can provide developmental opportunities, but time management helps determine whether those opportunities coexist productively with coursework. This interpretation is consistent with the broader evidence that engagement can support achievement while academic-related skills and self-regulation provide additional predictive value (Kuh et al., 2008; Robbins et al., 2004).

However, this interpretation must remain tentative because the source manuscript does not report the zero-order correlation between organizational activities and time management, nor does it provide variance inflation factors or tolerance statistics. Without those diagnostics, the degree of overlap between the predictors cannot be quantified confidently. The change in coefficients is informative, but it is not sufficient by itself to diagnose multicollinearity or to establish a mediation mechanism. A stronger follow-up study would explicitly model the relationships among organizational participation, time-management behavior, engagement, stress, and academic outcomes using validated measures and a longitudinal design.

The finding that time management retained a significant unique coefficient is consistent with broader syntheses of academic performance. Richardson et al. (2012) and Schneider and Preckel (2017) show that achievement in higher education is shaped by multiple psychological, behavioral, and instructional factors, with self-regulatory and motivational variables making important contributions alongside prior achievement. Credé and Kuncel (2008) similarly demonstrated that study habits, skills, and attitudes represent an important pillar of collegiate performance. Time management can be understood as one practical manifestation of these broader self-regulatory capacities.

The result should therefore not be interpreted as evidence that organizational participation is academically irrelevant. Rather, the adjusted model indicates that the present data do not show a statistically significant unique effect after time management is held constant. Organizational participation may still contribute to outcomes not measured here, including belonging, leadership competence, social networks, civic engagement, employability, and psychosocial development. Tinto (1997) and Pike and Kuh (2005) emphasize that integration and engagement influence students through complex academic and social processes. A single academic-achievement score cannot represent the full developmental value of organizational involvement.

Practical Implications

The practical implication is not to discourage students from joining organizations, but to integrate self-management support into co-curricular participation. Student-affairs units and academic advisers can help students map fixed academic obligations, identify peak workload periods, establish realistic weekly schedules, and anticipate conflicts between organizational events and assessment deadlines. Leadership training for student organizations can also incorporate workload planning, delegation, meeting efficiency, and deadline management. Such practices are consistent with evidence that time-management interventions can improve perceived control and with self-regulated learning frameworks that emphasize planning, monitoring, and adaptation (Aeon et al., 2021; Zimmerman, 2002).

At the individual level, students can be encouraged to use prioritization systems, semester-level deadline mapping, weekly planning, protected study blocks, and periodic review of commitments. The objective is not maximal scheduling but strategic control. Students who overfill their schedules may experience the very role conflict that undermines learning. The experimental evidence on deadlines and the meta-analytic evidence on procrastination suggest that external structure, interim milestones, and early task initiation can reduce the risks associated with delayed work (Ariely & Wertenbroch, 2002; Steel, 2007).

Institutions should also avoid using organizational participation as a simplistic proxy for student quality. Engagement research indicates that educationally purposeful involvement can benefit students, but the form and meaning of participation matter (Carini et al., 2006; Kahu, 2013). Advising should therefore focus on fit, intensity, and learning value rather than the number of organizations joined. A student holding one substantive role with clear developmental value may benefit more than a student accumulating numerous formal memberships that fragment attention.

Research Limitations and Future Directions

Several limitations constrain interpretation. First, the sample came from one academic program at one university, limiting generalizability to other disciplines, institutions, and student populations. Second, the cross-sectional observational design does not establish temporal order. Students with higher achievement may develop stronger time-management habits, stronger time management may support achievement, or both may be influenced by a third factor such as conscientiousness, motivation, prior achievement, or academic self-efficacy. The broader literature confirms that these variables are interrelated and that academic achievement is multidetermined (Richardson et al., 2012; Schneider & Preckel, 2017).

Third, important measurement information is incomplete. The source manuscript does not report item counts, dimensions, scale-development procedures, construct-validity evidence, or a clearly verified operational definition of academic achievement. The alpha coefficients above .99 are unusually high and should be examined for item redundancy and scale breadth (Taber, 2018). Fourth, the three descriptive frequency tables are identical and should be regenerated from the original dataset. Fifth, regression diagnostics are incomplete. Before publication, the authors should report residual normality information, linearity, homoscedasticity, VIF/tolerance statistics, and influential-case diagnostics.

Future research should use longitudinal or repeated-measures designs that can establish temporal sequencing and examine whether time management moderates or mediates relationships between organizational participation and academic outcomes. It would also be valuable to distinguish organizational participation by role intensity, leadership responsibility, hours per week, activity type, and perceived developmental quality. Because extracurricular participation can have heterogeneous effects (Feldman & Matjasko, 2005; Fredricks & Eccles, 2006), a simple aggregate participation score may conceal meaningful differences between low-intensity membership, active committee work, and demanding executive leadership.

Finally, future models should incorporate theoretically relevant covariates. Prior academic achievement, academic self-efficacy, motivation, self-discipline, procrastination, employment hours, socioeconomic constraints, course load, and psychological well-being are plausible factors. Meta-analytic evidence indicates that academic self-efficacy, achievement motivation, study skills, and effort regulation are important predictors of university performance (Credé & Kuncel, 2008; Credé & Phillips, 2011; Robbins et al., 2004). Including these variables would allow researchers to determine whether time management remains uniquely predictive after a more comprehensive set of student characteristics is controlled.

CONCLUSION

The study shows that organizational activities and time management were each positively associated with the measured academic-achievement outcome when examined separately among 104 Economics Education students. In the simultaneous model, however, only time management remained a statistically significant independent predictor, whereas organizational activities did not retain a significant unique coefficient. The model explained 65.2% of the observed variance in the measured outcome. These results indicate that the academic meaning of organizational involvement should be interpreted together with students' capacity to plan,

prioritize, and regulate competing commitments. The findings support institutional efforts to strengthen time-management and self-regulated learning skills while preserving the developmental opportunities available through student organizations. Because the design is cross-sectional and several sampling, measurement, ethical, descriptive, and diagnostic details require verification from the original research records, the results should be interpreted as associations rather than causal effects and should not be generalized beyond comparable settings without further evidence.

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