

The relationship between study habits and academic achievement: the case of Ethiopian adventist college

Mandado Gizachew¹

¹Arba Minch University, School of Pedagogy and Behavioural Sciences, Department of Pedagogical Sciences, Ethiopia

Abstract

This study explored the relationship between study habits and academic achievement among undergraduate Accounting and Finance students at Ethiopian Adventist College. Employing a descriptive survey design, data was collected from a random sample of 206 first- and second-year students using questionnaires and their first-semester GPA records obtained from the college registrar. Statistical analyses, including Pearson correlation, t-tests, one-way ANOVA, and linear regression, were conducted at a 0.05 significance level. The findings indicated a significant positive correlation between study habits and academic performance. Among the three subcategories of study habits—time management, study attitude, and study methods—time management emerged as the strongest predictor of academic success. Additionally, first-year students outperformed second-year students academically, and significant differences in study habits were observed across students with varying GPA levels. Based on these findings, the study recommends enhancing guidance and counseling services and revisiting evaluation mechanisms to foster effective study habits and improve academic outcomes.

ARTICLE HISTORY

Received 6 January 2025

Accepted 3 April 2025

KEY WORDS

Study habits; academic achievement, time management; undergraduate students, attitude towards study

INTRODUCTION

Effective study habits and a well-structured curriculum are key contributors to academic success in higher education. Study habits, including time management, self-testing, and active learning, have been shown to be more predictive of student performance than intelligence or standardised test scores (Credé & Kuncel, 2008). Meanwhile, curriculum design influences how students engage with their studies, shaping their learning experiences and determining their study strategies (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2017). A constructively aligned curriculum, which encourages critical thinking and problem-solving, fosters deeper learning and strengthens study habits (Biggs, 1999). Students who adopt effective learning strategies such as spaced repetition, note-taking, and concept mapping tend to retain knowledge better and perform higher academically (Dunlosky et al., 2013).

The interaction between study habits and curriculum difficulty significantly impacts student achievement. Challenging curricula demand greater cognitive effort, and students with poor study habits may struggle, while those with strong study routines navigate coursework more effectively (Nonis & Hudson, 2010). Institutional support—such as academic counselling, tutoring, and study workshops—can bridge curriculum expectations and study habits, helping students adapt and excel (Gettinger & Seibert, 2002). Moreover, cultural and disciplinary variations affect learning approaches, with STEM students requiring structured problem-solving strategies and

✉Corresponding author: gzmandado@gmail.com

humanities students benefiting from interpretive reading and writing techniques (Pashler et al., 2008). To optimise academic success, educators should integrate study skills development into curricula and emphasise metacognitive strategies that help students regulate their learning behaviours (Zimmerman, 2002). Institutions must ensure that curriculum structure and study habits are aligned, fostering long-term academic achievement and excellence.

Academic achievement in higher education is closely linked to effective curriculum implementation, which determines how instructional content, assessments, and teaching strategies are delivered. A well-structured curriculum with clear learning objectives and aligned assessments enhances students' ability to meet academic expectations (Biggs & Tang, 2011). Teachers play a crucial role in this process, as their instructional expertise and engagement directly affect student comprehension (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2017). Research has shown that inconsistencies in curriculum delivery can lead to performance gaps, while student-centred teaching approaches improve exam scores and course completion rates (Darling-Hammond et al., 2008).

Several challenges hinder curriculum implementation, including limited resources, teacher resistance, and misaligned assessments, all of which negatively impact academic outcomes (Yusuf & Adigun, 2010). Ensuring alignment between curriculum goals and evaluation practices is essential, as proper assessment reflects students' actual learning progress (Black & Wiliam, 1998). Additionally, engaging curricula that integrate real-world applications foster motivation and deeper learning (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000). Strong institutional leadership, ongoing faculty development, and structured academic support programs are necessary to improve implementation quality and maximise student success (Leithwood et al., 2004). By prioritising consistent and student-centred curriculum practices, higher education institutions can enhance academic achievement and foster long-term learning success.

As education is the formal process of acquiring knowledge at academic institutions, learning processes within this framework are often complex. Various psychologists define learning as the acquisition of knowledge through study, emphasising that strong study habits are developed through consistent effort rather than innate intelligence (Jato et al., 2014). Effective study habits play a crucial role in academic success, providing students with structured techniques to improve their learning processes. Unlike intelligence, study habits can be cultivated through dedication, ensuring students systematically enhance their knowledge and skills.

Study habits significantly impact academic performance by shaping students' engagement with their learning materials. Good study habits are regarded by educators as essential to developing wisdom and knowledge (Rabia, 2017). Effective study techniques lead to success, motivation, and confidence, whereas poor study habits hinder academic progress and contribute to frustration. Study techniques encompass the strategies that learners adopt to improve their comprehension and retention of knowledge, and their effectiveness determines a student's learning experience (International Encyclopedia of Education).

A student's study habits influence their overall academic achievement and personal fulfilment. Research indicates that students with structured study routines tend to perform better academically, reinforcing the importance of well-developed learning habits (Sansigry et al., 2017). Some scholars assert that study habits are among the most significant predictors of student success, often outweighing other external factors such as socioeconomic status or parental education levels (Singh, 2011). Supporting these studies, Ansari found that study habits and study skills are key predictors of student performance, while Onwuegbuzie et al. (2001) reported a positive correlation between structured study techniques and achievement. Various aspects of study habits, including notetaking, reading comprehension, and concentration, contribute to improved academic performance, with minimal differences observed between male and female students in their study approaches. Since numerous studies highlight a clear connection between study habits and academic success. Consequently, fostering effective study habits is essential for maximizing students' academic potential.

Furthermore, academic achievement is measured by the knowledge students gain from their education and the grades they earn during their studies. While high grades generally indicate better learning outcomes, numerous factors—including gender, study habits, socioeconomic background, and environmental influences—affect students' academic success (Akipan, 2015; Aijaz et al., 2014; Jato et al., 2014; Issa, 2012; Harpe, 2009). Since study habits directly influence students' academic performance, improving them is essential for raising the quality of education. Therefore, educators, parents, and policymakers must prioritize strategies that enhance students' study habits to foster overall academic success (Alsalem et al., 2017).

Moreover, stakeholders often attribute undergraduate students' increasing rate of low academic performance to factors such as instructors' qualifications, teaching methodologies, and external influences. However, research suggests that poor study habits are a significant underlying cause of students' subpar exam results. Many students fail to achieve academic success primarily due to ineffective study techniques, despite having the intellectual capacity to perform well (Balan et al., 2019). The lack of awareness and utilisation of proper study strategies contributes to their academic struggles, raising questions about the various factors influencing student achievement.

The extent to which a student performs academically is primarily determined by the study habits they adopt (Katelyn, 2013). Students with strong study habits generally achieve better academic outcomes than those without structured study routines. Despite its importance, many undergraduate students remain unaware of effective study practices, limiting their potential for success. This concern is supported by Mark and Howard (2009), who argue that the absence of effective study habits is a primary obstacle to academic achievement (Arul Lawrence, 2014). Additionally, inadequate study planning, such as failing to attend lectures, complete assignments, or adequately prepare for exams, may contribute to the declining academic performance observed in internal and external assessments.

Based on the previous discussion, this study aimed to analyse the relationship between study habits and academic performance among first and second-year accounting students at Ethiopia Adventist College, seeking to identify key factors that influence student achievement and provide insights for educational improvements. In details, there are four objectives of this study, (1) to explore the relationship between study habits and academic achievement among undergraduate accounting students, (2) to identify the most influential factor among time management, attitude toward study, and study methods in predicting academic success, (3) to compare first-year and second-year students in terms of how study habits influence their academic performance, and (4) to assess the differences between male and female students regarding the impact of study habits on academic achievement. Therefore, this study will significantly contribute to the current discourse of study habits by providing detailed information about study habits, especially by promoting strategies to effectively foster students' study habits based on the empirical data.

LITERATURE REVIEW

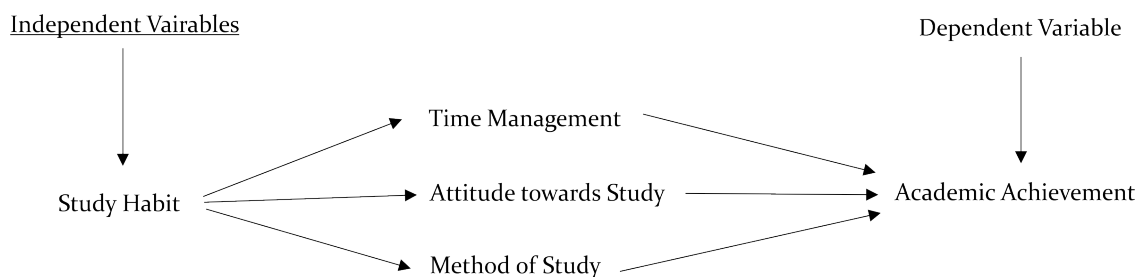
Relationship refers to the connection between students' study habits and academic achievement, highlighting how learning behaviours influence educational outcomes. Study habits encompass the approaches students take in studying, whether individually or in groups, at home or in school. These habits are systematically developed over time and contribute to learning and achievement. Academic achievement in this study refers explicitly to students' grades or cumulative GPA (CGPA) earned each semester, serving as an indicator of their academic performance.

The study builds upon two major theories, social cognitive theory and self-determination theory (Berv, 2000; Duffy, 1992). Social cognitive theory, introduced by Albert Bandura, emphasises how cognitive processes shape an individual's perception, behaviour, and decision-making. It suggests that academic success results from an interaction between students' personalities and their study behaviours, which are influenced by their expectations regarding study outcomes

(Saihi & Maiyo, 2015). Meanwhile, self-determination theory by Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan highlights the role of motivation in shaping study habits. It posits that individuals have an inherent drive toward self-improvement, influenced by both psychological needs and external factors (Berv, 2000).

Motivation is crucial in academic achievement, as it drives students' enthusiasm and perseverance in learning. Without motivation, students struggle to attain positive outcomes. External stimuli, such as a supportive educational environment, can foster motivation, thereby improving learning experiences. The study focuses on the impact of study habits as the independent variable, while academic achievement is the dependent variable. However, additional factors such as teachers' competence, college resources, and students' socioeconomic backgrounds are not included in this framework, though they may also influence academic performance (Akpan, 2015; Aijaz et al., 2014; Jato et al., 2014). Understanding how study habits affect academic success can help educators and students develop strategies to enhance learning outcomes.

Figure 1 Conceptual Framework of Study developed by researcher



Study habits encompass a broad range of concepts, including study attitude, study methods, and study skills, all of which contribute to academic success (Balan et al., 2019; Siahi & Maiyo, 2015; Aijaz et al., 2014; Harpe, 2009). A student's attitude—formed through experiences—plays a crucial role in their approach to learning. Study habits are intentional and structured techniques that help students master academic subjects and succeed in exams. The purpose of studying goes beyond memorization; it involves gaining knowledge, refining judgment, developing new ideas, and acquiring skills for future challenges. Consequently, studying systematically is essential for effective learning and academic achievement.

Different students adopt distinct study habits, and ineffective study strategies often lead to poor academic performance. Many students struggle due to a lack of proper study techniques and an inability to structure their learning processes. Successful students generally engage in independent study and utilize effective methods tailored to their strengths. Maintaining good health, sleep patterns, and study environments significantly influences study outcomes (Katelyn, 2013). Key components of study habits include time management, concentration, note-taking, and test preparation, all of which contribute to better learning and academic performance (Congos, 2010; Ayesha & Khurshid, 2013; Osa-Edoh & Alutu, 2012; Numan & Hasan, 2017).

The relationship between study habits and academic performance has been extensively studied, with research showing a positive correlation between structured study methods and student success. Ergene (2011) found that students with effective study habits tend to have higher GPAs, while poor study habits predict lower academic performance. Additional studies confirm that skills such as note-taking, maintaining a study schedule, and minimizing distractions contribute to improved learning outcomes (Tschumper, 2006; Sadia, 2005; Akpan & Salome, 2015). A study of students from Govt. Allama Iqbal College for Women and Govt. Technical College for Boys in Sialkot revealed a significant link between study habits and performance using chi-square analysis (Rabia, 2017). These findings reinforce the importance of study habits in achieving academic success.

Study habits consist of various interconnected components, including time management, attitude towards study, and study methods. These elements influence students' academic success by shaping their approach to learning. Other contributing factors, such as parental involvement, school reinforcement, motivation, and library usage, also play a role. However, for the purpose of this study, the focus is primarily on time management, attitude towards study, and study methods, which are considered essential in establishing effective learning habits.

Time management is a crucial component of study habits, determining how well students allocate their time to learning activities. Proper time management helps students prioritize tasks, balance their workload, and stay on track academically. Research highlights that students who develop structured time management skills tend to achieve better academic outcomes (Morgan & Deese, 1973). Establishing a routine that includes scheduling study sessions, setting goals, and adapting to unforeseen circumstances fosters discipline and enhances productivity (Aijaz et al., 2014; Arul Lawernce, 2014). Without effective time management, students may struggle to maintain consistency in their studies, leading to difficulties in meeting academic expectations.

Attitude towards study significantly impacts students' motivation and ability to learn. A positive study attitude fosters enthusiasm, persistence, and focus, while a negative outlook can lead to disengagement and poor academic performance. Scholars categorize attitude into three dimensions: affective (emotional response), cognitive (thoughts and beliefs), and behavioral (actions taken toward learning) (Akupan, 2015; Issa, 2012; Rabia, 2017). Students who maintain a constructive study attitude often develop strong learning habits, allowing them to absorb knowledge effectively and perform well in academic settings.

Study methods refer to the techniques and strategies students use to process and retain information. Many students struggle with effective studying due to a lack of proper techniques, leading to reduced comprehension and academic difficulties. Established strategies such as note-taking, test preparation, time management, and library use help students enhance their learning experience (Bhan, 2010; Katelyn, 2013; Balan et al., 2019). One proven method, SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review), enables students to engage with study material actively and systematically. Effective study methods not only improve academic performance but also encourage students to develop lifelong learning habits.

Effective study habits provide numerous benefits, including improved academic performance, enhanced retention of concepts, and better time management. Students who consistently follow structured study routines tend to score higher on exams and develop greater confidence in their abilities, reducing test anxiety (Alsalem et al., 2017; Berv, 2000; Duffy, 1999). Additionally, well-planned study habits enable learners to prepare for future academic challenges, ensuring steady progress toward their educational goals (Sansigry et al., 2017; Jato et al., 2014). In contrast, poor study habits can hinder academic success, leading to remedial classes, falling behind, or even school dropout. Research highlights that students who actively engage in their studies, plan effectively, and monitor their academic progress are more likely to excel in their coursework and achieve their academic aspirations (Siahi & Maiyo, 2015).

METHOD

This study employed a descriptive survey design to examine the correlation between study habits and academic performance among undergraduate students at Ethiopia Adventist College (EAC). The college in Kuyera, Oromia Regional State, operates as a non-profit institution under the Seventh Day Adventist Church. It was accredited by the Ethiopian Ministry of Education in 1998 and offers undergraduate programs in various disciplines, including Accounting and Finance, Business Management, Educational Planning and Management, and Theology. The research utilised primary and secondary data sources—questionnaires completed by students and GPA records from the college registrar—to comprehensively analyse study habits and academic success.

The study population comprised first- and second-year accounting and finance students, with researchers selecting a random sample of 229 students from 305. The questionnaire was distributed to all selected participants, and 206 completed responses were collected. The remaining 23 students, male and female participants from different academic years, either submitted incomplete questionnaires or failed to return them. Through a structured data collection and analysis process, this research aims to highlight the impact of study habits on students' academic performance, offering valuable insights into factors affecting success in higher education.

Table 1 Population and Sampling

| year | Population | | | Sample | | | Sample Percentage |
|---------|------------|--------|-------|--------|--------|------------|-------------------|
| | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female | Total | |
| Year I | 99 | 55 | 154 | 69 | 47 | 116(75.3%) | 66.9% |
| Year II | 91 | 60 | 151 | 67 | 46 | 113(74.8%) | 68.2% |
| Total | 190 | 115 | 305 | 136 | 93 | 229(75%) | 67.5% |

To ensure reliability in data collection, the study employed a pilot testing phase using a questionnaire with a five-point Likert scale. A sample of 40 students participated, resulting in a reliability score of 0.802. Cronbach's alpha values for the three key subscales time management (0.78), attitude towards study (0.79), and methods of study (0.75) indicated strong internal consistency. To improve the reliability of the time management subscale, researchers modified four existing items and introduced three new ones, ultimately including 12 items on time management, 13 items on attitude towards study, and 15 items on methods of study (Aijaz et al., 2014; Olofu, 2017).

The study used both primary and secondary data sources. Primary data was gathered from students via structured questionnaires, while secondary data first-semester GPA records from the 2023/24 academic year was obtained from the college registrar. GPAs were categorized into three achievement levels: low (2.00–2.56), medium (2.57–2.94), and high (2.95–4.00), helping to facilitate a systematic analysis of study habits in relation to academic performance (Singh, 2011; Arul Lawrence, 2014). Researchers personally distributed and collected questionnaires to ensure comprehensive student participation and provided orientations on objectives, instructions, and response methods.

For data analysis, both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were applied using SPSS version 24. Descriptive statistics—such as frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation—were used to assess study habits and academic performance trends (Best & Kahn, 2006; Creswell, 2018). Inferential statistical methods, including T-tests, chi-square tests, linear regression, and one-way ANOVA, were employed to explore relationships between variables, allowing for deeper insights into study habits and their impact on academic success (Donald et al., 2010).

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. Findings of the Study

The research participants' basic data included year of entry of students, sex and age. These data were presented on the table below by employing frequency and percentage.

Table 2 Year of Entry and Gender of the Respondents

| No | Year | Male | | Female | | Total | |
|----|--------|-------|------|--------|------|-------|-----|
| | | Freq. | % | Freq. | % | Freq. | % |
| 1 | First | 60 | 58.2 | 43 | 41.8 | 103 | 50 |
| 2 | Second | 62 | 60.2 | 41 | 39.8 | 103 | 50 |
| 3 | Total | 122 | 59.2 | 84 | 40.8 | 206 | 100 |

As shown in the table above, 60 (58.2%) male and 43 (41.8%) female of the total respondents are first year students, and 62 (60.2%) male 41 (39.8%) female are second year students. The percentage of first year and second year students is 50% for each category. Regarding sex of the respondents 122(59.2%) are male 84(40.8%) are female from both first- and second-year respondents.

Table 3a presents the correlation between students' academic achievement and study habits, specifically focusing on time management. The analysis indicates that the correlation between these two variables is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed) for items 1, 5, 9, and 10. This suggests a strong relationship between students' ability to adhere to a study schedule, dedicate sufficient time to understanding difficult course materials, avoid distractions such as social media during study sessions, and utilise free time for academic review, all contributing positively to academic performance. Additionally, the remaining items in the study habits subscale show a significant correlation at the 0.01 level (two-tailed) with students' academic achievement or college GPA, with a degree of freedom of 206. These findings emphasise the importance of effective time management strategies in enhancing students' academic success. Properly structured study routines and disciplined time usage are crucial elements that support improved learning outcomes.

Table 3a Pearson Correlations of GPA and Items of Time Management (N = 206)

| No. | Item | GPA | Sig(two-tailed) |
|-----|---|---------|-----------------|
| 1 | I find it easy to stick to a study schedule. | 0.15* | 0.031 |
| 2 | When I decide to study, I can start and keep going | 0.191** | 0.006 |
| 3 | I keep weekly schedule of my classes and activities. | 0.203** | 0.003 |
| 4 | I have enough time to study. | 0.163 | 0.019 |
| 5 | I spend enough time to understand difficult portions in the courses I take. | 0.316* | 0.000 |
| 6 | I schedule my study time for different courses. | 0.290** | 0.000 |
| 7 | I finish my study before the date of examination. | 0.245** | 0.000 |
| 8 | I take enough time to understand what I have studied. | 0.310** | 0.000 |
| 9 | I do not use internet or face book during my study time. | 0.140* | 0.045 |
| 10 | I use my free time between classes for reading or reviewing. | 0.179* | 0.010 |
| 11 | I balance my study time with recreation and leisure times. | 0.216** | 0.002 |
| 12 | I use weekends to revise what I studied during the week. | 0.260** | 0.000 |

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level(two-tailed) ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)

Table 3b presents the correlation between students' academic achievement and study habits, specifically focusing on attitude towards study. The results indicate a significant correlation at the 0.05 level (two-tailed) for items 13, 18, and 20, with a degree of freedom of 206. This suggests a meaningful relationship between students' ability to study subjects they do not particularly enjoy, their interest in classroom discussions, and their tendency to set high academic standards for themselves, all of which contribute positively to their GPA. Additionally, the remaining items in the attitude towards study subscale exhibit a significant correlation at the 0.01 level (two-tailed) with students' academic achievement, reinforcing the impact of study attitudes on performance. These findings highlight the importance of a positive and disciplined study approach, which plays a crucial role in students' overall academic success.

Table 3b Pearson Correlations of GPA and Items of Attitude towards Study (N = 206)

| No. | Items | GPA | Sig(two-tailed) |
|-----|---|---------|-----------------|
| 13 | I am able to study subjects/courses that I don't really like. | 0.141* | 0.044 |
| 14 | I attend revision classes when offered. | .217** | 0.002 |
| 15 | I concentrate well when studying. | 0.237** | 0.001 |
| 16 | I am able and willing to ask for help when I need it. | 0.236** | 0.000 |
| 17 | I can focus my attention without too much effort. | 0.193** | 0.005 |
| 18 | I am interested in classroom discussions. | 0.123* | 0.078 |
| 19 | I feel I will get passing grades whether I study or not. | 0.084 | 0.230 |
| 20 | I set high standards for myself in the college I study. | 0.250* | 0.000 |
| 21 | I continue studying when it is boring or challenging. | 0.254** | 0.000 |
| 22 | I always work hard to earn good grades. | 0.302** | 0.000 |
| 23 | I have a regular study area free of disturbance. | 0.198** | 0.004 |
| 24 | I take breaks while I study. | 0.229** | 0.001 |
| 25 | I always look for the main ideas from what I study. | 0.244** | 0.000 |

Table 3b presents the correlation between students' academic achievement and study habits, specifically focusing on attitude towards study. The results indicate a significant correlation at the 0.05 level (two-tailed) for items 13, 18, and 20, with a degree of freedom of 206. This suggests a meaningful relationship between students' ability to study subjects they do not particularly enjoy, their interest in classroom discussions, and their tendency to set high academic standards for themselves, all of which contribute positively to their GPA. Additionally, the remaining items in the attitude towards study subscale exhibit a significant correlation at the 0.01 level (two-tailed) with students' academic achievement, reinforcing the impact of study attitudes on performance. These findings highlight the importance of a positive and disciplined study approach, which plays a crucial role in students' overall academic success.

Table 3c Pearson Correlations of GPA and Items of Methods of Study

| No. | Items | GPA | Sig(two-tailed) |
|-----|---|---------|-----------------|
| 26 | I read notes and reference materials before class. | 0.091 | 0.193 |
| 27 | I review notes shortly after class. | 0.217** | 0.020 |
| 28 | I stop reading sometimes and check my understanding. | 0.123 | 0.078 |
| 29 | I prepare and answer questions to test myself. | 0.156* | 0.025 |
| 30 | I connect ideas from one lecture to another. | 0.250 | 0.000 |
| 31 | I do review questions or practice problems. | 0.242* | 0.000 |
| 32 | I translate what I'm studying into my own words. | 0.254** | 0.000 |
| 33 | I answer practice questions to study. | 0.287** | 0.000 |
| 34 | I can summarize the main points of course material effectively. | 0.248** | 0.000 |
| 35 | I study in a group, or with a friend. | 0.203** | 0.003 |
| 36 | While studying, I give priority to the portion that is difficult to understand. | 0.227** | 0.001 |
| 37 | When studying for an exam, I review it several times. | 0.240** | 0.001 |
| 38 | I review for exams by explaining concepts to others. | 0.149* | 0.032 |
| 39 | I take short notes when I read handouts and references. | 0.242** | 0.000 |
| 40 | I read headings and introductions of reference materials before I decide to study | 0.206** | 0.003 |

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level(two-tailed) ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)

Table 3b presents the correlation between students' academic achievement and study ha-

bits, specifically focusing on attitude towards study. The results indicate a significant correlation at the 0.05 level (two-tailed) for items 13, 18, and 20, with a degree of freedom of 206. This suggests a meaningful relationship between students' ability to study subjects they do not particularly enjoy, their interest in classroom discussions, and their tendency to set high academic standards for themselves, all of which contribute positively to their GPA.

Additionally, the remaining items in the attitude towards study subscale exhibit a significant correlation at the 0.01 level (two-tailed) with students' academic achievement, reinforcing the impact of study attitudes on performance. These findings highlight the importance of a positive and disciplined study approach, which plays a crucial role in students' overall academic success.

Table 4 Pearson Correlations of GPA and Sub-Components of Study Habits

| No. | Sub scale of study habit | GPA | N | Df |
|-----|--------------------------|-------|-----|-------|
| 1 | Time management | 0.322 | 206 | 0.000 |
| 2 | Attitude towards study | 0.315 | 206 | 0.000 |
| 3 | Method of study | 0.295 | 206 | 0.000 |
| | Total items | 0.326 | 206 | 0.000 |

Table 4 presents the correlation between the combined subscales of study habits and college GPA. The analysis reveals a positive correlation across all three study habit components and the overall study habits score with GPA. However, the correlation coefficient (r-value) is low, indicating that while study habits contribute to academic achievement, other factors may have a greater influence. The results, which are statistically significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed), suggest that additional variables impact students' performance beyond study habits alone. Among the three study habit components examined in this study, time management exhibits a slightly stronger correlation with academic achievement compared to the other two factors.

Table 5a T-test of Time Management

| No | Items | Mean | | Stand Dev, | | t-test | Sig (two -tailed) |
|----|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------|----------------------|
| | | Y ₁ | Y ₂ | Y ₁ | Y ₂ | | |
| 1 | I find it easy to stick to a study schedule. | 3.39 | 3.20 | 1.22 | 1.20 | 1.09 | 0.277 |
| 2 | When I decide to study, I can start and keep going. | 3.41 | 3.33 | 1.23 | 1.18 | 0.461 | 0.645 |
| 3 | I keep a weekly schedule of my classes and activities. | 3.51 | 3.27 | 1.19 | 1.23 | 1.383 | 0.168 |
| 4 | I have enough time to study. | 3.43 | 3.12 | 1.32 | 1.17 | 1.784 | 0.076 |
| 5 | I spend enough time understanding difficult portions in the courses I take. | 3.51 | | 1.04 | 1.13 | 3.407 | 0.001 |
| 6 | I schedule my study time for different courses. | 3.37 | 3.34 | 1.28 | 1.20 | 0.168 | 0.866 |
| 7 | I finish my study before the date of examination. | 3.38 | 3.31 | 1.34 | 1.28 | 0.371 | 0.711 |
| 8 | I take enough time to understand what I have studied. | 3.47 | 3.21 | 1.29 | 1.36 | 1.366 | 0.174 |
| 9 | I do not use the internet or Facebook during my study time. | 3.36 | | 1.28 | 1.31 | 1.665 | 0.097 |
| 10 | I use my free time between classes for reading or reviewing. | 3.22 | 3.11 | 1.40 | 1.25 | 0.577 | .565 |
| 11 | I balance my study time with recreation and leisure times. | | 3.12 | 1.27 | 1.22 | 1.680 | 0.094 |
| 12 | I use weekends to revise what I studied during the week. | 3.45 | 3.20 | 1.40 | 1.20 | 1.609 | 0.109 |

Y₁, Y₂* first year and second year of students/respondents

The above table 5a included both descriptive and inferential statistics to compare means of first year and second year students and to make analysis of generalization for population of study by using items of study habits regarding time management. Concerning the mean, all items mean that first year students are greater than second year students. In the case of the T-test, there is statistically significant difference between means of first year and second year students on time management in the case of item number four (I have enough time to study) at 0.05 level of significance (two-tailed) with 206 degrees of freedom. On the other hand, with all remaining items of time management, there is no statistically significant difference between means of first year and second year students because the values on table presented significance (two-tailed) is greater than 0.05 for these items.

Table 5b T-test of Items of Attitude towards Stud

| No | Items | Mean | | Stand. Dev. | | t-test | Sig (two -tailed) |
|----|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------|----------------------|
| | | Y ₁ | Y ₂ | Y ₁ | Y ₂ | | |
| 13 | I am able to study subjects/courses that I don't really like. | 3.26 | 2.85 | 1.26 | 1.24 | 2.341 | 0.020 |
| 14 | I attend revision classes when offered. | 3.23 | 3.02 | 1.30 | 1.16 | 1.585 | 0.115 |
| 15 | I concentrate well when studying. | 3.56 | 3.22 | 1.09 | 1.20 | 2.176 | 0.031 |
| 16 | I am able and willing to ask for help when I need it. | 3.43 | 3.30 | 1.31 | 1.13 | 0.852 | 0.395 |
| 17 | I can focus my attention without too much effort. | 3.50 | 3.04 | 1.27 | 1.31 | 2.323 | 0.021 |
| 18 | I am interested in classroom discussions. | 3.35 | 3.12 | 1.26 | 1.20 | 1.985 | 0.048 |
| 19 | I feel I will get passing grades whether I study or not. | 3.06 | 2.66 | 1.38 | 1.26 | 2.160 | 0.032 |
| 20 | I set high standards for myself in the college I study. | 3.48 | 3.09 | 1.33 | 1.24 | 1.172 | 0.031 |
| 21 | I continue studying when it is boring or challenging. | 3.53 | 3.03 | 1.25 | 1.26 | 2.881 | 0.004 |
| 22 | I always work hard to earn good grades. | 3.61 | 3.20 | 1.29 | 1.32 | 2.243 | 0.026 |
| 23 | I have a regular study area free of disturbance. | 3.51 | 3.04 | 1.19 | 1.27 | 2.771 | 0.006 |
| 24 | I take breaks while I study. | 3.42 | 2.98 | 1.28 | 1.34 | 2.397 | 0.017 |
| 25 | I always look for the main ideas from what I study. | 3.51 | 3.22 | 1.36 | 1.39 | 1.516 | 0.131 |

Y₁, Y₂* first year and second year of students/respondents

The above table 5b included both descriptive and inferential statistics to compare the means of first-year and second-year students and to make an analysis of the generalisation for the population under study by using items of study habits regarding attitude towards study habits. Concerning the mean, all items mean that the first-year students' mean is greater than the second-year students' mean. In the case of the T-test, there is a statistically significant difference between the means of first-year and second-year students on attitude towards study in the case of item number 13,15,17,18,19,20,21,22 and 23 at 0.05 level of significance(two-tailed) with 206 degrees of freedom. On the other hand, of all items of attitude towards study, there is no statistically significant difference between the means of first-year and second-year students because the values in the table presented significance(two-tailed) is greater than 0.05 for these items.

The above table 5c included both descriptive and inferential statistics to compare the means of first-year and second-year students and to make an analysis of the generalisation for the population of the study by using items of study habits regarding attitude towards study habits. Concerning the mean, all items mean that the first-year students' mean is greater than the second-year students' mean. In the case of T-test, there is statistically significant difference between means of

first year and second year students on method study in the case of items number 29, 30, 34, and 36 at 0.05 level of significance(two-tailed) with 206 degree of freedom and item 31 and 32 are nearer to significance. On the other hand, of all items of the method study, there is no statistically significant difference between the means of first-year and second-year students because the values in the table presented significance(two-tailed) is greater than 0.05 for these items

Table 5c T-test of Items of Sub-Component Method of Study

| No | Items | Mean | | Stand. Dev. | | t-test | Sig (two -tailed) |
|----|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------|----------------------|
| | | Y ₁ | Y ₂ | Y ₁ | Y ₂ | | |
| 26 | I read notes and reference materials before class. | 3.59 | 3.56 | 1.31 | 1.08 | 0.174 | 0.862 |
| 27 | I review notes shortly after class. | 3.44 | 3.38 | 1.27 | 1.13 | 0.347 | 0.729 |
| 28 | I stop reading sometimes and check my understanding. | 3.64 | 3.40 | 1.14 | 1.09 | 1.560 | 0.120 |
| 29 | I prepare and answer questions to test myself. | 3.63 | 3.28 | 1.28 | 1.14 | 2.072 | 0.039 |
| 30 | I connect ideas from one lecture to another. | 3.65 | 3.21 | 1.14 | 1.13 | 2.752 | 0.006 |
| 31 | I do review questions or practice problems. | 3.34 | 3.01 | 1.20 | 1.25 | 1.934 | 0.055 |
| 32 | I translate what I'm studying into my own words. | 3.47 | 3.13 | 1.24 | 1.28 | 1.932 | 0.055 |
| 33 | I answer practice questions to study. | 3.43 | 3.22 | 1.35 | 1.28 | 1.109 | 0.269 |
| 34 | I can summarize the main points of course material effectively. | 3.56 | 2.98 | 1.35 | 1.22 | 3.251 | 0.001 |
| 35 | I study in a group, or with a friend. | 3.42 | 3.27 | 1.27 | 1.15 | 0.920 | 0.359 |
| 36 | While studying, I give priority to the portion that is difficult to understand. | 3.55 | 3.13 | 1.19 | 1.20 | 2.515 | 0.013 |
| 37 | When studying for an exam, I review over several times. | 3.46 | 3.24 | 1.34 | 1.18 | 1.212 | 0.227 |
| 38 | I review for exams by explaining concepts to others. | 3.54 | 3.40 | 1.38 | 1.16 | 0.929 | 0.354 |
| 39 | I take short notes when I read handouts and references. | 3.53 | 3.40 | 1.32 | 1.13 | 0.793 | 0.428 |
| 40 | I read headings and introductions of reference materials before I decide to study | 3.55 | 3.47 | 1.30 | 1.27 | 0.488 | 0.628 |

Y₁, Y₂* first year and second year of students/respondents

Table 6 Summary of T-test of Study Habits of Students by Year of Entry

| No | Sub scales of items/variables | t-test | Df | Sig (2-tailed) |
|----|-------------------------------|--------|-----|----------------|
| 1 | Time management | 1.854 | 204 | 0.065 |
| 2 | Attitude towards study habit | 3.123 | 204 | 0.002 |
| 3 | Method of study | 2.035 | 204 | 0.043 |
| | Total items | 2.457 | 204 | 0.015 |

The summary of sub-scales of study habits of the T-test for first-year and second-year students was presented in the above table. It shows that there is no statistically significant mean difference between first-year and second-year students on the first sub-component (time management) of study habits because the corresponding values of the T-test are significantly (2-tailed) greater than 0.05, which is 0.065. On the contrary, there are statistically significant difference between means of first-year and second year student's response of items under the study habit category attitude towards study, method of study and total items at 0.05 level of significance with 204 degree of freedom because calculated T-test corresponding significance(two-tailed) for each of it less than 0.05.

Table 7 t-test of GPA by Year of Entry

| No. | Year | MEAN | SD | T-test | Df | sig(two-tail) |
|-----|-------------------|------|--------|--------|----|---------------|
| 1 | First year total | 2.90 | 0.4653 | 2.73 | 2 | 0.006 |
| 2 | Second year total | 2.73 | 0.4311 | | | |

The above table shows that the GPA of first-year students (2.90) is greater than the second-year students' mean (2.71). Moreover, there is a statistically significant difference between means with a T-test of 2.73 with a degree of freedom of 2 because significance (two-tailed) is 0.006, which is less than the 0.05 level of significance of this study.

Table 8 Coefficient of Regression of the Sub-Scale Variables of the Study

| No | Sub-scales of the study | Standardised coefficient β |
|----|-------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1 | Time management | 0.196 |
| 2 | Attitude towards study | 0.149 |
| 3 | Method of study | 0.001 |

The purpose of the above table analysis is to identify which sub-scale of study habits predicts more on students' academic achievement in general and college GPA for this study. It is possible to compare the standardised coefficient of β . Time management is more than attitude towards study and method of study in predicting students' college GPAs. This study found that the corresponding value of the standardised coefficient β of time management is greater than two sub-scales of the study in this research.

Table 9 Categories of Students According to GPA

| Level | Range of GPA | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------|--------------|-----------|------------|
| 1 | 2.00-2.56 | 66 | 32% |
| 2 | 2.57-2.94 | 68 | 33% |
| 3 | 2.95-4.00 | 72 | 35% |

Students were categorised according to GPA into three categories in this study. these are 2.00-2.56, 2.57-2.94 and 2.95-4.00. The number of students is 66(32%), 68(33%) and (72)35%. This table has advantages for the next activities of the study (Table 10a-10d). One-way ANOVA is based on this level to identify the means of study habits of students.

Table 10a One-Way ANOVA for Time Management in the Case of Students' Level Based on GPA

| Models | | Sum of squares | Df | Mean square | F | Sig |
|-----------------|--------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------|
| Time management | Between sums | 2349.858 | 2 | 1174.929 | 12.144 | 0.000 |
| | Within sums | 19640.977 | 203 | 96.754 | | |
| | Total | 21990.835 | 205 | | | |

Table 10b One-Way ANOVA for Attitudes towards Study in the Case of Students' Level Based on GPA

| Models | | Sum of squares | Df | Mean square | F | Sig |
|------------------------|--------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------|
| Attitude towards Study | Between sums | 3331.560 | 2 | 1665.780 | 14.673 | 0.000 |
| | Within sums | 23045.877 | 203 | 113.526 | | |
| | Total | 26377.437 | 205 | | | |

Table 10c One-Way ANOVA for Method of Study in the Case of Students' Level Based on GPA

| Models | | Sum of squares | Df | Mean square | F | Sig |
|-----------------|--------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------|
| Method of study | Between sums | 4210.343 | 2 | 2105.172 | 13.295 | 0.005 |
| | Within sums | 32142.958 | 203 | 158.340 | | |
| | Total | 36353 | 205 | | | |

Table 10d One-Way ANOVA for Total Items of the Study in the Case of Students' Level Based on GPA

| Models | | Sum of squares | Df | Mean square | F | Sig |
|-------------|--------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------|
| Total items | Between sums | 29159.894 | 2 | 14549.947 | 15.005 | 0.000 |
| | Within sums | 197247.543 | 203 | 971.663 | | |
| | Total | 226407.437 | 205 | | | |

Tables 10a to 10d are about the three levels of students' study habit differences. It is possible to conclude that by inspecting the F-test and corresponding significance that there is a statistically significant difference among the means of the three-level students' study habit/s sub-scales and total items of study habits, because each significance is less than 0.05 with 205 degrees of freedom.

B. Discussion

This study found a positive correlation between students' study habits and their academic achievement, as measured by GPA. Among the three subscales examined—time management, attitude towards study, and study methods—time management showed the strongest correlation with academic performance. The findings suggest that effective time management is a key predictor of academic success, playing a more significant role than the other two study habit components. Research by Marc (2011) supports this conclusion, stating that strong study habits lead to better grades, which in turn improve students' chances of college admissions and scholarships. Furthermore, Marc emphasises that developing study discipline is essential for success at any educational level.

Additional studies reinforce this relationship between study habits and academic achievement. Onwuegbuzie (2001) found a positive correlation between study habits and academic success, a conclusion further validated by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (Omotere, 2011). Congos (2010) identified six key study skills—textbook reading, memory, time management, note-taking, test preparation, and concentration—all of which contribute to stronger academic performance. His research aligns with this study's findings, particularly in time management, study attitude, and study methods. Similarly, Richards et al. (1999) explored the impact of study habits on first year engineering students, concluding that study routines strongly influence academic success, mirroring the trend found among first-year students in this study.

Time management is consistently highlighted as a critical factor in student achievement. Sail et al. (2006) emphasise that GPA is widely used to assess academic progress, and time management significantly impacts this metric. Effective goal setting, prioritisation, and structured study sessions contribute to academic success (Alsalem et al., 2017). Given its strong correlation with academic performance, time management should be a primary focus in efforts to improve students' learning outcomes and college assessment results.

The second part of the data analysis focuses on differences in study habits based on students' academic achievement and university entry level. Students were categorised into first-year and second-year groups based on their entry year and further classified into three GPA categories: low (2.00–2.56), medium (2.57–2.94), and high (2.95–4.00). To determine whether significant differences existed in study habits among these groups, a T-test was conducted for the three subscales: time management, attitude towards study, and study methods.

The results revealed no statistically significant difference in time management between first- and second-year students at the 0.05 significance level (two-tailed). However, there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups in attitude towards study and study methods, suggesting that these factors play a stronger role in differentiating students' study habits upon entering college. This indicates that students' approach to learning and their study techniques evolve over time, potentially affecting their academic performance.

A One-Way ANOVA was conducted to further analyse the differences among students in the three GPA categories. The findings showed significant variations in study habits across low, medium, and high achievers at the 0.05 significance level (two-tailed), with 205 degrees of freedom. The results suggest that students with higher GPAs tend to have better-developed study habits, reinforcing the importance of effective study strategies in academic success. These variations highlight the need for tailored interventions to support students in developing strong study habits regardless of their academic level.

Academic achievement in higher education is influenced by various factors, with study habits playing a crucial role in student success. Effective study habits—such as time management, structured note-taking, and self-testing—help students organise and retain information, ultimately leading to improved academic performance (Credé & Kuncel, 2008; Nonis & Hudson, 2010). Research highlights that students with goal-oriented and disciplined study routines tend to achieve higher grades, whereas poor study habits—such as cramming, procrastination, and multitasking—are linked to lower academic outcomes (Mushtaq & Khan, 2012). Additionally, digital distractions significantly affect students' ability to focus, further impacting their academic success (Junco, 2012). Studies also show that students who receive structured guidance and support in developing study habits perform better academically than those without such interventions (Gettinger & Seibert, 2002). Institutions can improve student learning outcomes by offering workshops, academic counselling, and skill-building programs focused on study strategies. By promoting effective study habits, time management, and active learning techniques, educators can enhance students' academic achievements and equip them with essential lifelong learning skills.

Time management and study habits play a critical role in academic achievement, influencing students' ability to meet learning demands effectively. Proper time management involves prioritisation, self-discipline, and balancing academic responsibilities, reducing stress and enhancing productivity (Britton & Tesser, 1991). Study habits, on the other hand, consist of strategies like notetaking, reviewing, and active learning, which help students retain information and improve comprehension (Credé & Kuncel, 2008). Research indicates that students who schedule study sessions and follow structured routines perform better in examinations (Misra & McKean, 2000). Additionally, poor time management often leads to procrastination, negatively affecting academic success (Steel, 2007). The relationship between self-regulation, time management, and study habits is well-documented. Students who actively regulate their study time show greater persistence and adaptability in academic tasks (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001). Gender and cultural differences also play a role, with female students often reporting better study behaviours than male students (Trueman & Hartley, 1996). While technology aids students in organising their schedules, excessive social media usage can hinder study efficiency (Junco, 2012). Institutions must provide academic counselling and workshops to improve students' study habits, ensuring long-term success (Gettinger & Seibert, 2002). Addressing challenges such as motivation, mental health, and work-life balance will help students develop consistent and effective study habits for academic achievement.

Effective study habits and structured study methods play a critical role in students' academic achievement in higher education. Study methods involve cognitive, metacognitive, and resource management strategies (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986), while study habits refer to the consistent behaviours and routines students follow when preparing for coursework (Credé & Kuncel, 2008). Active learning techniques—such as self-questioning, summarisation, and peer teaching—promote deeper understanding and long-term knowledge retention (Dunlosky et al., 2013). Additionally, time management and regular study schedules significantly enhance student performance by reducing procrastination and improving focus (Macan et al., 1990). The study environment also affects learning outcomes, with distraction-free settings improving concentration and comprehension (Raver et al., 2009).

The integration of technology can both support and hinder study habits, as digital tools enhance organisation, but excessive social media usage distracts students (Junco, 2012). Strong

empirical evidence confirms that students who use effective study methods and maintain structured study habits consistently perform better academically (Nonis & Hudson, 2010). Individual learning differences also play a role, with visual learners benefiting from diagrams and kinaesthetic learners preferring hands-on activities (Pashler et al., 2008). Developing metacognitive strategies, such as self-monitoring and adaptive learning techniques, fosters academic independence and resilience (Zimmerman, 2002). Universities can enhance student performance by providing workshops, coaching, and learning strategy programs (Gettinger & Seibert, 2002), ensuring students cultivate strong, personalised study habits to optimise their academic success.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study offer important insights into the relationship between study habits and academic achievement among students at Ethiopia Adventist College. A significant positive correlation was found between students' study habits and their college grade point average (GPA), affirming the crucial role that effective study practices play in academic success. Notably, time management emerged as the strongest predictor of students' GPA, exceeding the influence of attitudes toward study and study methods. While first-year and second-year students exhibited differences in their attitudes and study methods, time management skills were relatively consistent between the two groups. However, a notable limitation of the study is that a considerable proportion of students demonstrated suboptimal study habits, suggesting a general lack of alignment with effective learning strategies.

Based on these findings, several recommendations are proposed. College instructors and guidance counsellors should collaborate to support students in developing strong study habits that can enhance academic performance. Time management training should be prioritised to improve students' study efficiency and overall academic readiness. Furthermore, GPA assessments should emphasise students' academic effort to motivate the adoption of more effective learning behaviours. It is also recommended that second-year and senior students receive targeted awareness and counselling interventions to strengthen and sustain their study practices.

Future research should investigate additional factors that may influence academic achievement, including students' learning styles, socioeconomic status, academic background, instructor effectiveness, and institutional resources. Exploring these variables in relation to study habits may yield a more comprehensive understanding, particularly when comparing outcomes across public and private higher education settings. Moreover, studies conducted across a range of departments, academic programs (regular and extension), and institutions would allow for broader generalization of findings and a deeper understanding of the strengths and weaknesses in students' study habits.

REFERENCES

- Aijaz, B.N., et al. (2014). A Comparative Study of The Study Habit of The Students from Formal and Nonformal Systems of Education in Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, Volume 2, Number 14, 1-28.
- Akipan, A. N. (2015). Effects of Study Habit on Academic Achievement of Agricultural Science Students in Senior Secondary Schools. *international Journal of Education*, volume 1(18).
- Alsalem, Y. et al. (2017). The Effect of Time Management on Academic Performance Among Students of Jazan University. *The Egyptian Journal of Hospital Medicine*, Volume 69(8), 3043-3049.
- Arul Lawerence, A. S. (2014). Relationship Between Study Habits and Academic Achievement of Higher Secondary School Students. *Indian Journal of Applied Research*, Volume 4, Number 3, 3.
- Ayesha. (2013). The Relationship of Multiple Intelligences and Effective Study Skills with Academic Achievement among University Students. *Global Journal of Human Social Science*, volume

- 13(1), 20–23.
- Balan, S. Katenga, E. J., Simon, J. (2019). *Reading Habits and Their Influence on Academic Achievement among Students at Asia Pacific International University*. Faculty of Education, Asia-Pacific International University, Thailand. E-ISSN: 2476-9606 Abstract Proceedings International Scholars Conference Volume 7 Issue 1, October 2019, pp. 1490-1516
- Berv, K. R. (2000). "Constructing Constructivism, Epistemological and Pedagogical", in D.C. Phillips, Ed., *Constructivism in Education, Ninety Ninth Book of the National Society for the Study of Education*. Chicago: Chicago University.
- Best and Khana. (2006). *Research in Education*. Chicago: Pearson.
- Bhan, K. A. (2010). Study Habits and Academic Achievement among the Students Belonging to Scheduled Cast and Non-Scheduled Cast Groups. *Journal of Applied Research in Education, Volume 15, Number 1*, 470–486.
- Biggs, J. (1999). *Teaching for Quality Learning at University*. Open University Press.
- Biggs, J., & Tang, C. (2011). *Teaching for Quality Learning at University* (4th ed.). McGraw-Hill Education.
- Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998). Assessment and classroom learning. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, 5(1), 7–74.
- Bransford, J. D., Brown, A. L., & Cocking, R. R. (2000). *How People Learn: Brain, Mind, Experience, and School*. National Academy Press.
- Britton, B. K., & Tesser, A. (1991). Effects of time-management practices on college grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83(3), 405–410.
- Congos, D. H. (2010). *Inventory of College Level Study Skills (SSI)*. Florida: University of Florida.
- 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.
- Creswell, J. W. (2018). *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*. California: Sage.
- Darling-Hammond, L., Wei, R. C., Andree, A., Richardson, N., & Orphanos, S. (2008). *Professional learning in the learning profession: A status report on teacher development in the United States and abroad*. National Staff Development Council.
- Donald, A. et al. (2010). *Introduction Research in Education* (8th. Wadsworth, Canada.
- Duffy, T. M. (1992). *Constructivism: Implications for Instructional Technology*.
- Dunlosky, J., Rawson, K. A., Marsh, E. J., Nathan, M. J., & Willingham, D. T. (2013). Improving students' learning with effective learning techniques. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 14(1), 4–58.
- Entwistle, N., & Ramsden, P. (1983). *Understanding Student Learning*. Croom Helm.
- Ergene. (2011). The Relationship Among Test anxiety, Study Habits, Achievement, Motivation and Academic Performance among Turkish high School Students. *Education and Science*, 1–36.
- Fullan, M. (2007). *The New Meaning of Educational Change* (4th ed.). Teachers College Press.
- Gettinger, M., & Seibert, J. K. (2002). Contributions of study skills to academic competence. *School Psychology Review*, 31(3), 350–365.
- Harpe, T. A. (2009). *Effective Study Habits*. Retrieved from www.arbeit.baetter.com. 12/3/2006. Haisen.
- Issa, A. A. (2012). Reading Interests and Habits of the Federal Polytechnic students. *International Journal of Learning and Development, Volume 2, Number 1*–9.
- Jato, M., Samuel, O., Ogunniyi, O. S. & Adeyemi, O.O. (2014). Study Habits, Use of School Libraries and Students' Academic Performance in Selected Secondary Schools in Ondo West Local Government Area Of Ondo State. *International Journal of Library and Information Science*. Vol 6 (4), pp. 57-64,
- Junco, R. (2012). The relationship between frequency of Facebook use and academic performance. *Computers & Education*, 58(1), 162–171.
- Katelyn, F. (2013). *College Study Habits*, Retrieved from www.studymode.com/essays, 12/04/2018.
- Leithwood, K., Harris, A., & Hopkins, D. (2004). Successful school leadership: What it is and how it influences student learning. *Education Review*, 1(1), 1–13.

- 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.
- Marc, K. (2011). *The Importance of Good Study Habits*. retrieved from www.answer.com, 12/3/2016.
- Mark, A. & Howard, C. (2009). How to Study. *Pschol. Sciences, Volume 20*(4), 516–522.
- Misra, R., & McKean, M. (2000). College students' academic stress and its relation to their anxiety, time management, and leisure satisfaction. *American Journal of Health Studies*, 16(1), 41–51.
- Morgan, T. & Deese, J (1973). *How to Study and Other Skills for Success in College*. 4th ed. McGraw-Hill.
- Mushtaq, I., & Khan, S. N. (2012). Factors affecting students' academic performance. *Global Journal of Management and Business Research*, 12(9), 17–22.
- Nonis, S. A., & Hudson, G. I. (2010). Performance of college students: Impact of study time and study habits. *Journal of Education for Business*, 85(4), 229–238.
- Numan, A. & Hasan, S. (2017). Effects test Anxiety and Academic Achievement of Undergraduate Students. *Journal Research and Reflection*, [http:// www.ue.edu.pk/jrre](http://www.ue.edu.pk/jrre), 1–13.
- O'Sullivan, M. C. (2006). Teaching large classes: The international evidence and a discussion of some good practices in Ugandan primary schools. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 26(1), 24–37.
- Olofu, U. E. (2017). *Study Habits and Their Impact on Secondary School Students' Academic Performance in Biology in The Federal Capital Territory, Abuja*. Abuja.
- Omotere, T. (2011). *The Effects of Study Habits on the Academic Performance of Students*. Ogun: Ego Booster Books.
- Onwuegbuzie, U. (2001). Correlation Between Study Habits and Students' Academic Success. *Journal of Education*, 27.
- Ornstein, A. C., & Hunkins, F. P. (2017). *Curriculum: Foundations, Principles, and Issues* (7th ed.). Pearson.
- Osa-Edon. (2012). A Survey of Students' Study Habits in Selected Secondary Schools: Implications for Counselling. *Current Research Journal of Social Sciences, Volume 4*(3), 1–14.
- Pashler, H., McDaniel, M., Rohrer, D., & Bjork, R. (2008). Learning styles: Concepts and evidence. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 9(3), 105–119.
- Rabia, M. A. (2017). A Study on Study Habits and Academic Performance of Students. *International Journal of Asian Social Sciences*, 891–897.
- Raver, C. C., et al. (2009). Understanding the Role of Classroom Contexts in the Development of Self-Regulation: Evidence from the Chicago School Readiness Project. *Child Development*, 80(3), 918–937.
- Richards, L., & D.C. Sheridan. (1999). Predicting Success in First-Year Engineering Course: The Role of Study Habits. *Paper presented at the Frontiers in Education Conference*. Frontiers.
- Sadia, B. (2005). *A Study of Factors Affecting the Performance of the Students in Government Secondary Schools for Girls in Rawalpindi City*. Islamabad: MA-thesis, International Islamic University.
- Sansigry S., et al. (2017). Factors That Affect Academic Performance among Pharmacy Students. *American Journal of Pharmacy Education, Volume 70*(5), 104–118.
- Siahi, E. A. & Maiyo, J. K. (2015). Study of the Relationship between Study Habits and Academic Achievement of Students: A case of Spicer Higher Secondary School, India. *International Journal of Educational Administration and Policy Studies*, 7 (7), 134–141.
- Singh, K. Y. (2006). *Fundamental of Research Methodologies and Statistics*. New Delhi, India: New Age International.
- Singh, Y. (2011). Academic Achievement and Study Habit of Higher Secondary Students. *International Referred Research journal*, 3(27), 2.
- Steel, P. (2007). The nature of procrastination: A meta-analytic and theoretical review of quintessential self-regulatory failure. *Psychological Bulletin*, 133(1), 65–94.
- Trueman, M., & Hartley, J. (1996). A comparison between the time-management skills and academic performance of mature and traditional-entry university students. *Higher*

- Education*, 32(2), 199–215.
- Tschumper. (2006). *Study Skills Instructions in High School Where O Where the High School Students Study skills Gone? Wisconsin*, USA: University of Wisconsin.
- Weinstein, C. E., & Mayer, R. E. (1986). The teaching of learning strategies. In Wittrock, M. C. (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (pp. 315–327).
- Yusuf, M. A., & Adigun, J. T. (2010). The influence of school variables on academic performance of secondary school students in Ilorin metropolis of Kwara State, Nigeria. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 1(2), 1–7.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2002). Becoming a self-regulated learner: An overview. *Theory into Practice*, 41(2), 64–70.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Schunk, D. H. (2001). *Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.