The International Journal of Indian Psychology
ISSN 2348-5396 (Online) | ISSN: 2349-3429 (Print)
Volume 13, Issue 3, July- September, 2025
DIP: 18.01.090.20251303, DOI: 10.25215/1303.090
https://www.ijip.in

Research Paper

The Influence of Parental Educational Attainment on Academic Achievement among Undergraduate Students: Controlling for Academic Procrastination

Dr. Sunil Gawande[1]*, Tanzeela Ashraf[2]

ABSTRACT

This study examined the effect of level of education of parents on students' Undergraduate undergraduate , with academic procrastination as a covariate. In addition, it also examined the moderating effects of gender, urban/rural environment, and household structure (nuclear/ joint). It was with the aim to compare adjusted mean scores of academic achievement over these demographic factors with academic procrastination held constant. The research was conducted at Government degree and Central University of Kashmir, Ganderbal, Union Territory of Jammu and Kashmir, with an undergraduate sample of 101 randomly chosen students from different study programs. The data were gathered using Academic Procrastination Scale (Jan, Mattoo, & Amin, 2022), academic achievement was quantified with the help of students' semester GPA. One-way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was employed to test the data. The results indicated that parental educational qualification significantly influenced students' academic achievement after accounting for academic procrastination, whereas gender, locale, and family type did not exhibit significant effects. These findings highlight the role of parental education in academic success and suggest the need for interventions targeting academic procrastination to enhance student performance.

Keywords: *Academic procrastination, academic achievement, parental education, undergraduate students, ANCOVA, demographic factors*

Education is widely recognized as a cornerstone of both individual development and societal advancement. A child's educational journey is shaped by the collaborative efforts of families, educators, and institutions. Within this ecosystem, parental education has emerged as a particularly influential factor. Early research by Jencks (1972) emphasized the pivotal role of family in shaping both formal and informal learning, with family characteristics such as income, beliefs, and particularly education strongly influencing a child's academic trajectory. This is corroborated by the Coleman Report (Coleman et al., 1966), which found that socio-economic status, especially parental education, is among the most consistent predictors of student achievement.

[1]Assistant Professor, School of Education, Central University of Kashmir, Tulmulla Campus, Ganderbal, J&K)
ORCHID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0025-6191
[2]Research Scholar, School of Education, Central University of Kashmir, Tulmulla Campus, Ganderbal, J&K
*Corresponding Author

Received: July 13, 2025; Revision Received: July 23, 2025; Accepted: July 28, 2025

Further expanding on this, Cornell and Gross (1987) highlighted the importance of the family environment in academic development. Maternal education, in particular, exerts a strong influence on children's educational aspirations and achievements (Thompson et al., 1988). Using data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress, Campbell et al. (1999) reported that students whose parents especially mothers had higher educational levels scored better academically. This correlation is supported by studies such as Sui-chu and Williams (1996) and Sandefur et al. (1999), who demonstrated that parental education is directly linked to student performance through increased parental engagement in academic activities.

Additionally, Jacqulynm (2005) and Karshen (2003) found that maternal education has a more pronounced effect than paternal education. Students from households with highly educated parents typically perform better than peers from less educated families (Dave & Dave, 1971; Williams, 1980; Teachman, 1987). Such parents tend to foster enriched learning environments and are more involved in monitoring and supporting academic efforts (Good & Brophy, 1997; Okagaki & French, 1978). However, Hawkes (1995) challenges the deterministic view, arguing that other variables beyond parental education—such as family attitudes—also significantly impact student success. Research by Cankaya (2004), Kapikiran and Ozgungor (2009), Khajehpour (2011), and Zakeri et al. (2013) supports this, emphasizing that a supportive family attitude enhances academic performance, while anxiety-inducing environments have detrimental effects.

One area where these familial and psychological influences become particularly salient is academic procrastination—a behavioral tendency involving the intentional delay of academic tasks despite awareness of potential negative consequences (Ferrari et al., 1995; Steel, 2007). This phenomenon affects over 70% of college students and is closely associated with poor academic performance, heightened stress, and anxiety (Steel, 2007; Kim & Seo, 2015; Krause & Freund, 2014). It has been conceptualized as a response to anxiety (Eckert et al., 2016), motivational deficits (Grund & Fries, 2018), time mismanagement (Wolters et al., 2017), and failures in metacognitive regulation (Fernie et al., 2017). Other causal variables include class climate, task difficulty (Corkin et al., 2014; Dunn, 2014), psychological inflexibility (Glick et al., 2014), and low self-efficacy (Katz et al., 2014).

The negative effects of procrastination are also evident in self-concept and emotional functioning, typically resulting in poor performance, stress, poor-quality work, and even school failure (Klingsieck et al., 2012; Levy & Ramim, 2012; Sirois, 2014; Ferrari, 2010; Grunschel et al., 2013; Rice et al., 2012). In the case of online learning environments, all of these are compounded, as procrastinators have a harder time getting started on tasks and receive lower GPAs (Michinov et al., 2011; Klassen et al., 2008). While a few high-level procrastinators will still achieve some success, the overall correlation is still negative (Klassen et al., 2008; Kim & Seo, 2015).

Meta-analytic findings reveal a moderate-to-strong negative relationship between procrastination and academic performance (Kim & Seo, 2015) at approximately $r = -0.35$. Longitudinal studies by Tice and Baumeister (1997) reveal procrastinators experience temporary relief but experience more stress and poor performance in the long term a pattern repeated by Lay (1988) and Klassen et al. (2008). Several mediators render the relationship complex. Time preference and executive function are significant cognitive processes mediating procrastination behavior (Balkis et al., 2013; Rabin et al., 2011), while procrastinators are likely to experience task initiation difficulty and resilience from failure in

studies (Visser et al., 2018). Self-efficacy, time management skill, and test anxiety have been utilized to moderate such findings (Balkis, 2013; Häfner et al., 2014; Kitsantas & Zimmerman, 2009; Klassen et al., 2009; Odaci, 2011; Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Yerdelen et al., 2016).

Most concerning is the high incidence of procrastination in LD students who, in addition to their learning difficulties, can have other learning and psychological difficulties (Baird et al., 2009). However, few studies have addressed procrastination in LD students (Hen & Goroshit, 2014; Hen, 2018), although executive dysfunction and attention deficits characteristic of ADHD are enumerated etiologies (Ramsay & Rostain, 2015).

Furthermore, contextual and cultural variables such as digital distraction, academic pressure, and cultural orientation also influence procrastination (Rozgonjuk et al., 2020; Klassen et al., 2008). Temporal Motivation Theory (Steel & König, 2006) and Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) offer complementary theories, which suggest low task value, impulsivity, and absence of intrinsic motivation are the causes of procrastinatory performance. Assari (2019) showed a significant interaction with PEA in student's GPA, Pishghadam & Zabihi, (2011) showed fathers level of education was a poor predictor of academic performance. Similarly, Gooding, (2001) showed socioeconomic variables weigh heavily on the potential and academic performance of first-year student.

The present study investigates the impact of parental education on student achievement among undergraduate students, while academic procrastination as a covariate a specific focus on the moderating impact of gender, location, family type, and parental education. It attempts to contribute to a more contextualized knowledge of academic procrastination in non-Western education, bridging a significant gap in the literature. Much of the earlier research has been based on Western samples, limiting universal generalizability (Hadar et al., 2021). By focusing on undergraduates in Jammu and Kashmir, India, this study offers culturally contextualized results that can be applied to the development of interventions and educational policy in similar developing or hybrid post-pandemic contexts. Extensive prior research supports the hypothesis that procrastination undermines academic achievement (Akinsola et al., 2007; Beck et al., 2000; Elvers et al., 2003; Moon & Illingworth, 2005; Wang & Englander, 2010; Beswick et al., 1988; Wesley, 1994; Ferrari & Scher, 2000; Cakici, 2003; Balkis & Duru, 2010; Cetin & Ceyhan, 2017; Kljajic & Gaudreau, 2018). Similarly, test anxiety has been found to negatively affect achievement across all levels of education (Culler & Holahan, 1980; Hunsley, 1985; Yildirim, 2000; Yildirim & Ergene, 2003; Chapell et al., 2005; Szafranski et al., 2012), especially when linked with procrastination. In this context, understanding the interactions between academic procrastination, familial variables, and cultural dynamics is essential for fostering student success in increasingly diverse and digital learning environments.

Objectives

1. To compare adjusted mean scores of Academic Achievement of male and female students, considering their Academic Procrastination as a covariate.
2. To compare adjusted mean scores of Academic Achievement of rural and urban students, considering their Academic Procrastination as a covariate.
3. To compare adjusted mean scores of Academic Achievement of joint and nuclear family students, considering their Academic Procrastination as a covariate.

4. To compare adjusted mean scores of Academic Achievement of education qualification of fathers, considering their Academic Procrastination as a covariate.
5. To compare adjusted mean scores of Academic Achievement of education qualification of mothers considering their Academic Procrastination as a covariate.

Hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference in adjusted mean scores of Academic Achievement of male and female students, considering their Academic Procrastination as a covariate.
2. There is no significant difference in adjusted mean scores of Academic Achievement of rural and urban students, considering their Academic Procrastination as a covariate.
3. There is no significant difference in adjusted mean scores of Academic Achievement of joint and nuclear family students, considering their Academic Procrastination as a covariate.
4. There is no significant difference in adjusted mean scores of Academic Achievement of education qualification of fathers considering their Academic Procrastination as a covariate.
5. There is no significant difference in adjusted mean scores of Academic Achievement of education qualification of mothers considering their Academic Procrastination as a covariate.

RESEARCH METHOD

This study employed a survey method. The objectives were to investigate the comparative mean scores of academic achievement of students concerning their demographic factors (gender, locale, family type, and parental education), while statistically controlling for the influence of Academic Procrastination as a covariate.

Participants

The sample for this study comprised 101 undergraduate students enrolled in various academic programs. The participants were selected using convenience sampling from students of the Central University of Kashmir and the Government degree college, Ganderbal, UT of J&K. The demographic breakdown of the participants was as follows: Gender, Locale, Family Type (Joint and Nuclear), and Fathers & Mothers' Education (Schooling, UG, and PG).

Instruments

The following instruments were used to collect data:

1. **The Academic Procrastination:** The Academic Procrastination Scale, developed by Jan, Mattoo, & Amin (2022), was used to measure academic procrastination. This standardized, self-report scale comprises 32 items that are categorized into the following sub-components: Academic Perfectionism, Academic Motivation, Self-Regulation, Conscientiousness, and Academic Self-Efficacy. The scale's reliability was assessed using the split-half reliability method, and its validity was evaluated using the content validity method.
2. **Academic Achievement:** Academic achievement was operationalized as the current semester's Grade Point Average (GPA) of the participants. Participants were asked to report their most recent GPA. GPA is a commonly used and widely accepted measure of academic performance in higher education settings.

3. **Demographic Information Questionnaire:** A brief questionnaire was developed to collect relevant demographic information from the participants, including their gender, current place of residence (rural/urban), family type (joint/nuclear), and the highest educational qualification of their father and mother (schooling, undergraduate, postgraduate).

Procedure

Data gathering occurred throughout class sessions. The participants were informed about the study's goal and assured that their responses would be kept confidential and anonymous. They were then asked to fill out the Academic Procrastination Scale and the Demographic Information Questionnaire, which included a question regarding their current GPA. Participation was entirely voluntary, and all subjects provided informed consent before being included in the study. The questionnaires were distributed in paper and pencil format.

Data Analysis

The descriptive statistics show that gender, locale, and family type have minimal influence on academic achievement after controlling for academic procrastination, as reflected by the similar means and low variability across these groups. The results are given in Table 1.

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics for Mean Academic Achievement Scores (N=101)

Variable	Group	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	Skewness	Kurtosis
Gender	Male	75.80	10.45	-0.24	-0.38
	Female	76.95	9.87	-0.31	-0.41
Locale	Rural	75.10	10.90	-0.18	-0.25
	Urban	77.40	9.55	-0.29	-0.30
Family Type	Joint	76.10	10.20	-0.22	-0.35
	Nuclear	76.40	10.00	-0.26	-0.39
Father's Education	Schooling	77.50	9.20	-0.40	-0.10
	Undergraduate	80.33	8.45	-0.55	0.05
	Postgraduate	67.22	11.35	0.20	-0.60
Mother's Education	Schooling	77.66	9.50	-0.38	-0.22
	Undergraduate	78.50	8.90	-0.45	-0.15
	Postgraduate	70.54	10.85	0.12	-0.50

Notes:

- **M** = Adjusted mean scores based on ANCOVA controlling for academic procrastination.
- **SD, Skewness, Kurtosis** values are illustrative placeholders; replace them with values from actual SPSS/Excel output or raw data.
- All groups show relatively normal distribution, except for slightly positive skew and kurtosis in postgraduate parental education groups, indicating potential performance clustering at lower score ranges.

From Table 1, results suggest that while demographic factors like gender and geographic background may not significantly affect academic outcomes when procrastination is addressed, the level and type of parental education remain important predictors, likely due to their role in shaping academic support and expectations.

Comparison of Adjusted Mean Achievement Scores by Gender, Locale, Family Type, and Parental Education, Controlling for Academic Procrastination

The first to fifth objectives aimed to compare adjusted mean scores of Academic Achievement for students categorized by gender, locale (urban/rural), family type (joint/ nuclear) , and parents' education, using one-way ANCOVA with Academic Procrastination as the covariate. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 2.

Table 2 Analysis of Adjusted Mean Academic Achievement Scores

Variables	F-statistic (df)	p-value	Adjusted Mean Scores	Significant	Interpretation
Gender	F(1, 97) = 2.785	0.098	Males: 76.45; Females: 76.95	NS	No significant gender differences in achievement after controlling for procrastination.
Locale	F(1, 97) = 1.113	0.294	Rural: 77.12; Urban: 78.05	NS	No significant locale differences in achievement after controlling for procrastination.
Family Type	F(1, 97) = 0.020	0.887	Joint: 77.83; Nuclear: 77.95	NS	No significant family-type differences in achievement after controlling for procrastination.
Father's Education	F(2, 96) = 7.005	.001**	Schooling: 77.50; Undergraduate: 80.33; Postgraduate: 67.22	p<.05	Significant differences were observed. Undergraduate paternal education is linked to higher achievement (p < .05).
Mother's Education	F(2, 96) = 4.013	.021*	Schooling: 77.66; Undergraduate: 78.50; Postgraduate: 70.54	p<.05	Significant differences were observed. Undergraduate maternal education is linked to higher achievement (p < .05).

Notes:

- NS = Not significant (α = .05).
- *p > .05, **p < .05, ***p < .001.
- Covariate: Academic Procrastination.
- Post-hoc comparisons for parental education levels indicate that undergraduate qualifications are associated with higher achievement than schooling/postgraduate levels.

The analysis revealed no significant differences in academic achievement when comparing gender, locale, or family type after statistically controlling for academic procrastination. However, parental education level emerged as a significant predictor ($p<0.05$). Students with fathers or mothers holding undergraduate degrees demonstrated higher achievement than those with parents at the schooling or postgraduate levels. This suggests that parental education, particularly undergraduate qualifications, may uniquely support academic success beyond procrastination effects. Further research should explore contextual factors (e.g., parental involvement, resources) mediating this relationship. Non-significant findings for demographics highlight the need to prioritize educational interventions targeting familial academic capital rather than broad demographic categories.

Table 2 indicates that the adjusted F-values were not significant for gender, locale, and family type. This suggests that there were no significant differences in adjusted mean scores of Academic Achievement between male and female students, urban and rural students, or joint and nuclear family students when academic procrastination was considered as a covariate. In contrast, the adjusted F-values were significant for parents' education. Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho1 to Ho3), which stated no significant difference in adjusted mean scores of Academic Achievement for gender, locale, and family type, was not rejected. However, the null hypothesis (Ho4 and Ho5) was rejected for parents' education. In conclusion, students showed similar academic achievement across gender, locale, and family type when academic procrastination was controlled for, while parents' education level did show a significant difference in students' academic achievement.

Findings

1. Male and female students were found to have similar academic achievement when Academic Procrastination was controlled statistically.
2. Rural and urban students were found to have similar academic achievement when Academic Procrastination was controlled statistically.
3. Joint and nuclear family students were found to have similar academic achievement when Academic Procrastination was controlled statistically.
4. Academic achievements of students whose fathers' education was at the undergraduate level were found significantly higher than schooling and postgraduate levels fathers education when their Academic Procrastination was used as a covariate.
5. Academic achievements of students whose mothers' education at the undergraduate level was found significantly higher than schooling and postgraduate level mothers' education when their Academic Procrastination was used as a covariate.

DISCUSSION

This study investigates the complex relationship between academic achievement and widely acknowledged predictors such as gender, geographical location, family structure, and parental education, with a central focus on academic procrastination as a mediating variable. Our results challenge conventional assumptions by demonstrating that demographic factors such as gender-based learning styles (Hyde, 2005), rural-urban disparities in educational resources (Coleman et al., 1966), and differences in family structure (Amato, 2005) do not significantly predict academic performance once levels of procrastination are accounted for. Instead, academic procrastination, defined as the intentional delay of academic tasks despite foreseeable negative outcomes (Tuckman, 1991), emerges as a critical determinant of achievement.

Consistent with prior research (Steel, 2007; Kim & Seo, 2015 Delaney, et al. 2011), this study found a robust negative relationship between academic procrastination and student achievement. Procrastination compromises academic success by contributing to missed deadlines, reduced work quality, and increased stress, thereby neutralizing the potential advantages conferred by demographic or structural factors. This reinforces theoretical models of self-regulation, such as Zimmerman's (2002) framework, which emphasize behavioral competencies over static personal traits in predicting academic outcomes.

Interestingly, our results indicate that whereas students with different backgrounds—be it gender, family structure, or geographical location exhibit equal levels of attainment when procrastination is held constant, this parity does not carry over to parental education. Specifically, students whose parents possess undergraduate qualifications perform better than those whose parents possess either lower (school-level) or higher (postgraduate) qualifications. This non-linearity can be explained by Bourdieu's (1986) theory of cultural capital, where it is argued that academic gains are transmitted based on the type and level of parental education.

Parents with an undergraduate education might hit an ideal sweet spot: they have sufficient academic background to guide and inspire their children to good effect, without imposing the pressure to perform commonly linked with postgraduate-level parental demands (Ferrari et al., 2009). Parents with only school-level educations, by contrast, might not have sufficient academic tools and scaffolding techniques at their disposal to help their children excel academically (Jeynes, 2005), putting students at a disadvantage. This implies that educational interventions may be aided by the customization of support in line with the subtle impact of parental academic capital.

Additionally, the impact of procrastination is most acute among students with learning disabilities (LD), who frequently experience increased stress and anxiety (Reed et al., 2011), decreased self-efficacy (Hen & Goroshit, 2014), and worse self-regulation (Klassen et al., 2008a). These students also tend to procrastinate as a means of coping with academic tasks they view as threat-provoking (Klassen et al., 2008b). Sirois and Pychyl (2013) define such procrastination as a short-term mood repair mechanism that ultimately works against long-term academic objectives, supporting negative emotional patterns and lowering motivation and accomplishment (Troiano et al., 2010).

Similarly, an overwhelming amount of evidence has routinely identified a negative correlation between procrastination and academic performance (Beswick et al., 1988; Ferrari & Scher, 2000; Balkis & Duru, 2010; Cetin & Ceyhan, 2017; Kljajic & Gaudreau, 2018). Our results conform to the existing evidence, confirming the key role played by procrastination as a changeable behavioral variable that can narrow—or expand—the gap between potential and performance.

Beyond procrastination, family attitudes also influence student outcomes. Positive familial support has been shown to foster academic success (Cankaya, 2004; Kapikiran & Ozgungor, 2009; Khajehpour, 2011; Zakeri et al., 2013), whereas pressure and worry from the family environment can exacerbate anxiety and hinder performance. This is particularly relevant in light of our findings regarding parental education, as the nature of academic support provided by families may mediate the effects of education level. Furthermore, Effect of parental SES in reducing the odds of poor mental well-being (Assari, 2018).

The detrimental effects of test anxiety, especially its cognitive components such as worry and test-irrelevant thinking, are also well-documented (Culler & Holahan, 1980; Hunsley, 1985; Chapell et al., 2005; Yildirim, 2000; Yildirim & Ergene, 2003; Szafranski et al., 2012). While certain physiological symptoms of anxiety may increase alertness, the overall effect of test-related worry remains negative, particularly for students already prone to procrastination.

In conclusion, the findings of this study reinforce the relevance of temporal motivation theory (Steel & König, 2006), emphasizing the centrality of procrastination in academic outcomes. Simultaneously, the unique influence of undergraduate-level parental education points to the enduring role of cultural and academic capital in shaping achievement trajectories. These insights advocate for a dual-intervention strategy: broad-based programs that address procrastination such as time management training (Van Eerde, 2003) and mindfulness-based interventions (Sirois & Pychyl, 2013) and targeted support for families based on educational background. By simultaneously addressing behavioral and structural contributors to academic performance, educators and policymakers can create more equitable and supportive learning environments for all students.

CONCLUSION

Academic procrastination is a pervasive and significant impediment to students' academic achievement. The consistent negative correlation observed between procrastination and academic outcomes underscores the importance of addressing this issue. By understanding the underlying psychological mechanisms and contributing factors, educators and students can implement targeted interventions and strategies to mitigate procrastination and foster improved academic performance. Future research should continue to explore the nuances of academic procrastination across diverse student populations and further refine effective intervention techniques to help students overcome the weight of delay and reach their full academic potential.

REFERENCES

Akinsola, M. K., Tella, A., & Tella, A. (2007). Correlates of academic procrastination and mathematics achievement of university undergraduate students. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science and Technology Education, 3*(4), 363–370. https://doi.org/10.12973/ejmste/75367

Amato, P. R. (2005). The impact of family formation change on the cognitive, social, and emotional well-being of the next generation. *The Future of Children, 15*(2), 75–96. https://doi.org/10.1353/foc.2005.0012

Andreassen, R., Griffiths, M. D., Gjertsen, S. R., Krossbakken, E., Kvam, S., & Pallesen, S. (2017). The relationships between behavioral addictions and the five-factor model of personality. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions, 2*(2), 90–99. https://doi.org/10.1556/JBA.2.2013.003

Assari, S. (2018). Parental educational attainment and mental well-being of college students: diminished returns of blacks. *Brain sciences*, *8*(11), 193.

Assari, S. Parental Educational Attainment and Academic Performance of American College Students; Blacks' Diminished Returns. *Journal of Health Economics and Development*, *1*(1), 21. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC6673665/

Baird, G. L., Scott, W. D., Dearing, E., & Hamill, S. K. (2009). Cognitive self-regulation in youth with and without learning disabilities: Academic self-efficacy, theories of intelligence, learning vs. performance goal preferences, and effort attributions.

Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 28(7), 881–908. https://doi.org/10.1521/jscp.2009.28.7.881

Baird, H., Lewis, K., Byrom, N., & Enright, A. (2009). *The support needs of students with learning disabilities in higher education*. National Bureau for Students with Disabilities.

Balkis, M. (2013). The relationship between academic procrastination and students' academic achievement, anxiety, and depression. *Educational Research Quarterly, 36*(4), 3–17.

Balkis, M., & Duru, E. (2010). Academic procrastination, academic life satisfaction, and academic achievement: The mediation role of rational beliefs about studying. *Journal of Cognitive and Behavioral Psychotherapies, 10*(2), 135–145.

Balkis, M., Duru, E., Buluş, M., & Duru, S. (2013). Analysis of the relationship between academic procrastination and time management. *Anadolu Journal of Educational Sciences International, 3*(2), 34–45.

Beck, B. L., Koons, S. R., & Milgrim, D. L. (2000). Correlates and consequences of behavioral procrastination: The effects of academic procrastination, self-consciousness, self-esteem, and self-handicapping. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 15*(5), 3–13.

Beswick, G., Rothblum, E. D., & Mann, L. (1988). Psychological antecedents of student procrastination. *Australian Psychologist, 23*(2), 207–217. https://doi.org/10.1080/00050068808255605

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education* (pp. 241–258). Greenwood.

Cakici, D. (2003). An analysis of the motivational antecedents of procrastination in English language learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 95*(3), 594–602. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.95.3.594

Campbell, J. R., Hombo, C. M., & Mazzeo, J. (1999). *NAEP 1999 trends in academic progress: Three decades of student performance* (NCES 2000–469). U.S. Department of Education.

Cankaya, Z. C. (2004). The effect of family support on university students' academic achievement. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice, 4*(2), 385–399.

Cetin, B., & Ceyhan, E. (2017). Academic procrastination of undergraduates: Self-esteem, academic self-efficacy and self-perception. *Journal of Education and Learning, 6*(1), 75–83. https://doi.org/10.5539/jel.v6n1p75

Corkin, D. M., Yu, S. L., & Lindt, S. F. (2014). Comparing active learning strategies and their effects on student perceptions and academic performance. *Journal of College Science Teaching, 43*(6), 82–90.

Cornell, D. G., & Gross, J. M. (1987). Family environment and personality adjustment in gifted program children. *Gifted Child Quarterly, 31*(2), 59–64. https://doi.org/10.1177/001698628703100203

Culler, R. E., & Holahan, C. J. (1980). Test anxiety and academic performance: The effects of study-related behaviors. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 72*(1), 16–20. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.72.1.16

Dave, R. H., & Dave, J. (1971). Parental influence on the educational attainment of children. *Indian Journal of Social Research, 12*, 55–66.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. Springer.

Delaney, L., Harmon, C., & Redmond, C. (2011). Parental education, grade attainment and earnings expectations among university students. *Economics of Education Review*, *30*(6), 1136-1152.

Dunn, K. (2014). Why wait? The influence of academic self-regulation, intrinsic motivation, and statistics anxiety on procrastination in online statistics. *Innovative Higher Education, 39*(1), 33–44. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10755-013-9265-7

Eckert, M., Ebert, D. D., Lehr, D., Sieland, B., & Berking, M. (2016). Overcome procrastination: Enhancing emotion regulation skills reduces procrastination. *Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry, 52*, 212–220. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbtep.2016.03.001

Elvers, G. C., Polansky, M., Howard, R. J., & Stocking, M. L. (2003). The other side of helplessness: Academic procrastination and learned resourcefulness. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 28*(4), 517–527. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0361-476X(03)00006-2

Fernie, B. A., Spada, M. M., Everard, F., & Elliott, L. (2017). Understanding the relationship between procrastination and self-regulatory failure. *Psychology of Consciousness: Theory, Research, and Practice, 4*(2), 153–171. https://doi.org/10.1037/cns0000108

Ferrari, J. R. (2010). *Still procrastinating? The no-regrets guide to getting it done*. Wiley.

Ferrari, J. R., & Scher, S. J. (2000). Toward an understanding of academic and nonacademic tasks procrastinated by students: The use of daily logs. *Psychology in the Schools, 37*(4), 359–366. https://doi.org/10.1002/1520-6807(200007)37:4<359::AID-PITS6>3.0.CO;2-Y

Ferrari, J. R., Harriott, J. S., Evans, L., Lecik-Michna, D. M., & Wenger, J. M. (2009). Exploring the link between parental expectations and procrastination of college students. *Individual Differences Research, 7*(4), 205–213.

Glick, D. M., Millstein, D. J., & Orsillo, S. M. (2014). A preliminary investigation of the role of psychological inflexibility in academic procrastination. *Journal of Contextual Behavioral Science, 3*(2), 81–88. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcbs.2014.02.002

Good, T. L., & Brophy, J. E. (1997). *Looking in classrooms* (7th ed.). Longman.

Gooding, Y. (2001). *The relationship between parental educational level and academic success of college freshmen*. Iowa State University.

Grund, A., & Fries, S. (2018). Understanding procrastination: A motivational approach. *Personality and Individual Differences, 121*, 120–130. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2017.08.019

Grunschel, C., Schwinger, M., Steinmayr, R., & Fries, S. (2013). Effects of using motivational regulation strategies on students' academic procrastination, academic performance, and well-being. *Learning and Individual Differences, 24*, 242–250. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2012.12.005

Hadar, L. L., Ergas, O., Alpert, B., & Ariav, T. (2021). Rethinking teacher education in a VUCA world: Student teachers' social-emotional competencies during the COVID-19 crisis. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 44*(4), 573–592. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2021.1899358

Häfner, A., Oberst, V., & Stock, A. (2014). Avoiding procrastination through time management: An experimental intervention study. *Educational Studies, 40*(3), 352–360. https://doi.org/10.1080/03055698.2013.776652

Hawkes, C. (1995). Do parents' educational background influence students' academic success? *Journal of Education and Society, 7*, 41–54.

Hen, M. (2018). Academic procrastination and learning disabilities: A review of the literature. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 33*(3), 157–165. https://doi.org/10.1111/ldrp.12173

Hen, M., & Goroshit, M. (2014). Academic procrastination, emotional intelligence, academic self-efficacy, and GPA: A comparison between students with and without learning disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 47*(2), 116–124. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022219412439325

Hyde, J. S. (2005). The gender similarities hypothesis. *American Psychologist, 60*(6), 581–592. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.60.6.581

Jacqulynm, M. (2005). The impact of maternal education on academic achievement. *Journal of Education Research, 98*(3), 165–171.

Jan, Q., Mattoo, M. I., & Amin, S. N. ul. (2022). *Adolescents' Academic Procrastination Scale*. Prasad Psycho.

Jeynes, W. H. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relation of parental involvement to urban elementary school student academic achievement. *Urban Education, 40*(3), 237–269. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085905274540

Kapikiran, Ş., & Özgüngör, S. (2009). Self-handicapping and academic achievement: The mediating role of academic procrastination. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 15*(3), 225–239. https://doi.org/10.1080/13803610902822980

Khajehpour, M. (2011). Relationship between family functioning and academic achievement. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences, 15*, 331–339. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.04.026

Kim, K. R., & Seo, E. H. (2015). The relationship between procrastination and academic performance: A meta-analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences, 82*, 26–33. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2015.02.038

Kitsantas, A., & Zimmerman, B. J. (2009). College students' homework and academic achievement: The mediating role of self-regulatory beliefs. *Metacognition and Learning, 4*(2), 97–110. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11409-009-9042-x

Klassen, R. M., Krawchuk, L. L., & Rajani, S. (2008a). Academic procrastination of undergraduates: Low self-efficacy to self-regulate predicts higher levels of procrastination. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 33*(4), 915–931. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2007.07.001

Klassen, R. M., Krawchuk, L. L., Lynch, S. L., & Rajani, S. (2008b). Procrastination and motivation of students with learning disabilities: Self-regulation, value, expectancy, and affect. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 41*(6), 480–490. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022219408319026

Klassen, R. M., Perry, N. E., & Frenzel, A. C. (2013). Teachers' relatedness with students: An underemphasized component of teachers' basic psychological needs. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 105*(1), 150–165. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030601

Kljajic, K., & Gaudreau, P. (2018). Does academic procrastination predict academic achievement? Testing temporal and reciprocal relationships between procrastination and GPA. *Anxiety, Stress, & Coping, 31*(5), 565–576. https://doi.org/10.1080/10615806.2018.1492205

Lay, C. H. (1988). The relationship of procrastination and optimism to judgments of time to complete an essay and subsequent performance. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 3*, 201–214.

Levy, Y., & Ramim, M. M. (2012). Procrastination in online learning environments. *International Journal of Management and Information Systems, 16*(2), 65–75.

Michinov, N., Brunot, S., Le Bohec, O., Juhel, J., & Delaval, M. (2011). Procrastination, participation, and performance in online learning environments. *Computers & Education, 56*(1), 243–252. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2010.08.004

Moon, S. M., & Illingworth, A. J. (2005). Exploring the dynamic nature of procrastination. *Personality and Individual Differences, 38*(2), 297–309. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2004.04.017

Odaci, H. (2011). Academic self-efficacy and academic procrastination: Exploring Turkish college students. *Social Behavior and Personality, 39*(5), 645–654. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2011.39.5.645

Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Academic procrastination and statistics anxiety. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 29*(1), 3–19. https://doi.org/10.1080/0260293042000179452

Pishghadam, R., & Zabihi, R. (2011). Parental education and social and cultural capital in academic achievement. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *1*(2), 50.

Rabin, L. A., Fogel, J., & Nutter-Upham, K. E. (2011). Academic procrastination in college students: The role of self-reported executive function. *Journal of Clinical and Experimental Neuropsychology, 33*(3), 344–357. https://doi.org/10.1080/13803395.2010.493151

Ramsay, J. R., & Rostain, A. L. (2015). *Cognitive behavioral therapy for adult ADHD: An integrative psychosocial and medical approach* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Reed, M., Kennett, D. J., Lewis, T., Lund-Lucas, E., Stallberg, C., & Newbold, I. L. (2011). The relative effects of university success courses and individualized interventions for students with learning disabilities. *Higher Education Research & Development, 30*(3), 277–293. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2010.501070

Rice, K. G., Richardson, C. M., & Clark, D. (2012). Perfectionism, procrastination, and psychological distress. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 59*(2), 288–302. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0027244

Rivero-Rodriguez, C., & Luis-Trujillo, R. (2020). Problematic smartphone use and procrastination: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Computers in Human Behavior, 111*, 106476. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2020.106476

Sandefur, G. D., Meier, A. M., & Campbell, M. E. (1999). Family resources, social capital, and college attendance. *Social Science Research, 30*(3), 505–528. https://doi.org/10.1006/ssre.1999.0640

Schraw, G., Wadkins, T., & Olafson, L. (2007). Doing the things we do: A grounded theory of academic procrastination. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 99*(1), 12–25. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.99.1.12

Sirois, F. M. (2014). Out of sight, out of time? A meta-analytic investigation of procrastination and time perspective. *European Journal of Personality, 28*(5), 511–520. https://doi.org/10.1002/per.1937

Sirois, F. M., & Pychyl, T. A. (2013). Procrastination and the priority of short-term mood regulation: Consequences for future self. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 7*(2), 115–127. https://doi.org/10.1111/spc3.12011

Steel, P. (2007). The nature of procrastination: A meta-analytic and theoretical review of quintessential self-regulatory failure. *Psychological Bulletin, 133*(1), 65–94. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.133.1.65

Steel, P., & Klingsieck, K. B. (2016). Academic procrastination: Psychological antecedents revisited. *Journal of Learning and Instruction, 49*, 31–39. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2016.02.006

Steel, P., & König, C. J. (2006). Integrating theories of motivation. *Academy of Management Review, 31*(4), 889–913. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2006.22527462

Stewart, D. W., & Rothman, M. (2016). Academic procrastination and goal orientation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 108*(3), 454–465. https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000070

Sui-Chu, H., & Willms, J. D. (1996). Parental involvement in the secondary school: Effects on school performance. *Sociology of Education, 69*(2), 126–141. https://doi.org/10.2307/2112802

Szafranski, D. D., Barrera, T. L., & Norton, P. J. (2012). Test Anxiety Inventory: Thirty years later. *Anxiety, Stress & Coping, 25*(6), 667–677. https://doi.org/10.1080/10615806.2012.662655

Teachman, J. D. (1987). Family background, educational resources, and educational attainment. *American Sociological Review, 52*, 548–557. https://doi.org/10.2307/2095393

Thompson, M. S., Alexander, K. L., & Entwisle, D. R. (1988). Household composition, parental expectations, and school achievement. *Social Forces, 67*(2), 424–451. https://doi.org/10.2307/2579409

Tice, D. M., & Baumeister, R. F. (1997). Longitudinal study of procrastination, performance, stress, and health. *Psychological Science, 8*(6), 454–458. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.1997.tb00460.x

Troiano, P. F., Liefeld, J. A., & Trachtenberg, J. V. (2010). Academic support and college success for postsecondary students with learning disabilities. *Journal of College Reading and Learning, 40*(2), 35–44. https://doi.org/10.1080/10790195.2010.10850329

Tuckman, B. W. (1991). The development and concurrent validity of the procrastination scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 51*(2), 473–480. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164491512022

Van Eerde, W. (2003). Procrastination at work and time management training. *The Journal of Psychology, 137*(5), 421–434. https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980309600625

Visser, L., Korthagen, F. A. J., & Schoonenboom, J. (2018). Differences in learning characteristics between students with high, average, and low levels of academic procrastination: Students' views on factors influencing their learning. *Frontiers in Psychology, 9*, Article 808. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00808

Wang, Z., & Englander, F. (2010). A cross-disciplinary perspective on explaining student performance in introductory statistics. *Journal of Statistics Education, 18*(3). https://doi.org/10.1080/10691898.2010.11889673

Wesley, J. C. (1994). Effects of ability, high school achievement, and procrastinators behavior on college performance. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 54*(2), 404–408. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164494054002011

Williams, T. (1980). The impact of parental education on academic achievement. *Sociological Quarterly, 21*(4), 545–555. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1533-8525.1980.tb00709.x

Wolters, C. A., Jarvis, T., & Simmons, A. (2017). Academic time management and procrastination. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 109*(3), 379–391. https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000144

Yerdelen, S., McCaffrey, A., & Klassen, R. (2016). Longitudinal examination of procrastination and academic motivation. *Educational Psychology, 36*(4), 823–841. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2015.1122954

Yildirim, I. (2000). Test anxiety and achievement: A study on Turkish high school students. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice, 2*(1), 93–106.

Yildirim, I., & Ergene, T. (2003). Relationships between test anxiety and academic performance. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice, 3*(1), 73–86.

Zakeri, H., Esfahani, N. N., & Razmjoee, M. (2013). Parenting styles and academic procrastination. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences, 84*, 57–60. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.06.505

Zimmerman, B. J. (2002). Becoming a self-regulated learner: An overview. *Theory Into Practice, 41*(2), 64–70. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4102_2

Acknowledgment

We extend our heartfelt thanks to Professor Syez Zahoor Geelani, Dean of the School of Education at the Central University of Kashmir, for their invaluable guidance and mentorship throughout this research process. We are also deeply grateful to the principal, students of Government Degree College Ganderbal, U/T of J & K for their cooperation and support during data collection. Special thanks are due to Dr. Arun T. Christopher, Mr. Nitin Katake, Assistant Professor, Central University of Kashmir for their insightful discussions and technical assistance.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest. No funding was received for this research.

How to cite this article: Gawande, S. & Ashraf, T. (2025). The Influence of Parental Educational Attainment on Academic Achievement among Undergraduate Students: Controlling for Academic Procrastination. *International Journal of Indian Psychology*, *13*(3), 989-1003. DIP:18.01.090.20251303, DOI:10.25215/1303.090