

Understanding Procrastination Behavior among Pre-Service ICT Teachers: Identifying Factors and Developing Intervention Strategies

Pramod S^{1*}, Dr.Devendra Kumar²

¹ Research Scholar, Lords University, Alwar

² Supervisor, Department of Education, Lords University, Alwar

Abstract - A teacher is contrasted with a candle that consumes itself to edify understudies. Thus, the exhibition of a teacher turns into a crucial issue in this period. Thus, Performance of colleges stays a middle region for the scientist. Human components have been concentrated now and again by different scientists, straightforwardly or in a roundabout way connected with hierarchical execution. It is apparent that human conduct related components like inspiration, stress, initiative, demeanour, burnout, personality, culture and procrastination and so forth adds to hierarchical execution. Relatively few examinations zeroing in on the web dependence and its connection to procrastination among undergrads who have a place with Information and Communication Technology related offices. Utilizing PC related innovations more than the others; such divisions might be more defenceless against web habit and procrastination. Considering what is happening, the motivation behind this exploration study is to look at pre-service ICT teachers' web compulsion levels and its connection to two procrastination estimates which are characterized as scholarly procrastination and general procrastination. To compare the motivational factors and personality features of high and low procrastinators in academic and non-academic fields and to conduct an analysis of the elements that cause students to engage in procrastination. The comparison of high and low procrastinators on academic and non-academic tasks, the comparison of motivational factors in academic and non-academic procrastinators, and the comparison of personality traits of academic and non-academic procrastinators were the primary focuses of the findings of the study, which were presented as a result

Keywords - Procrastination , Behaviour , Pre-Service , ICT, Teachers , Factors , Developing Intervention

-----X-----

INTRODUCTION

Teacher Self-Efficacy

Teachers' self-efficacy has dynamically acquired a significant job in school brain science research because of its suggestions for showing viability, educational practices, and for understudies' scholastic accomplishment (Klassen et al., 2009; Klassen and Tze, 2014). Impressive exploration has shown that teachers with undeniable degrees of self-efficacy experience more elevated levels of occupation fulfillment, lower levels of occupation related pressure and face less hardships in managing understudies' mischievous activities (Caprara et al., 2003). In this way, understanding the fundamental precursors of self-efficacy might have significant settlements in working for teachers' prosperity and school viability and improvement.

The idea of self-efficacy gets from Bandura's social-mental hypothesis of conduct change (Bandura, 1977). It alludes to an educator's confidence in his/her

capacity to effectively adapt to errands, commitments and difficulties connected with his/her expert job (e.g., didactical undertakings, overseeing discipline issues in the class, and so on) (Caprara et al., 2006).

Procrastination Behaviour among Teachers

Advanced education arrangement of India is the one of the biggest framework on the planet as around 70 million understudies has been signed up for the most recent twenty years (IBEF, 2016). The job of the teacher is vital for a country. A teacher is contrasted with a candle that consumes itself to edify understudies. Thus, the exhibition of a teacher turns into a crucial issue in this period. Thus, Performance of colleges stays a middle region for the scientist. Human components have been concentrated now and again by different scientists, straightforwardly or in a roundabout way connected with hierarchical execution. It is apparent that human conduct related components like inspiration, stress, initiative, demeanor, burnout, personality, culture and

procrastination and so forth adds to hierarchical execution. Baumeister and Scher, (1988) portrayed procrastination as it as a sluggish, self-liberal propensity for procrastinating on things for no great explanation.

The review showed that it was self-overcoming conduct that brought down the nature of execution, since one wound up with less an ideal opportunity to work. A contending three sided model has separated procrastination into evasion, excitement, and decisional (Steel, 2010). Avoidant slackers are the individuals who have dread of disappointment and they stay away from the undertakings. Also decisional slackers are the individuals who can never decide or postpone choices. Excitement slackers are the people who complete or make a move on the last development. Procrastination is the deferring of activities or undertakings to a future time.

The idea of procrastination is the deferring of an undertaking that was initially arranged regardless of hoping to be more terrible off for the postponement (Van Eerde, 2003). Procrastination in the scholarly domain holds many unfortunate results, including lost time, expanded pressure, lower grades, less fortunate wellbeing, diminished longterm learning and lower self-esteem. (Hoover, 2005). Procrastination can be characterized as silly deferral of the conduct. The areas of neuroscience and social financial matters highlight procrastination as a silly postponement, where we put off regardless of being more awful off. Baumeister and Scher, (1988) portrayed procrastination as it as an apathetic, self-liberal propensity for procrastinating on things for not a great explanation.

General Procrastination among Pre-Service ICT Teachers

As of late a study on Information and Communication Technology Usage showed that PC and web use on families and people expanded drastically in Himachal. By 2013, the extent of normal web use among people matured somewhere in the range of 16 and 74 was viewed as 39.5 % (Turkstat, 2013). Similarly, in USA, a new review on web utilize uncovered that 86 % of American grown-up clients use web effectively. In view of the 2011 review, 74 % of the web clients go online for no particular reason, only for having some good times or killing time (Pew Internet, 2013).

Such high reception rates could be credited to the additional opportunities given by the web which can possibly get, make and disperse information without any problem. To a degree, clearly web has many advantages for the understudies. Then again, the web could have likewise impeding consequences for understudies in the event that it isn't utilized as expected (Yang and Tung, 2007; Odaci, 2011). In this sense, Davis (2001) made a differentiation between the details of solid and undesirable web use. Solid web use alludes to involving web for a particular reason and a sensible timeframe. In spite of this, unfortunate

web use alludes to investing unusual measures of energy in an obsessive manner in the web with having no particular purposes. This sort of web use is viewed to be as a mental issue with likely humanistic impacts. For instance, individuals who abuse the web accept that web is simply the main spot where they feel in a condition of prosperity. Also, these individuals are preoccupied with web while they are disconnected, anticipate more web-based time and burn through unreasonable measure of cash for web related exercises (Davis, 2001).

Many individuals wind up on the web as surfing while they should be working or contemplating on a particular assignment (Lavoie and Pychyl, 2001). These individuals put off their work or scholastic related liabilities and invest unnecessary measure of energy on the web (Davis, 2001). This sort of conduct was viewed as current kind of procrastination interceded by the web in the greater part of the exploration (Lavoie and Pychyl, 2001; Davis, 2001; Thatcher, Wretschko and Fridjhon, 2008). Studies showed that both web compulsion and procrastination are so normal among undergrads (Solomon and Rothblum, 1984; Lay, 1986 ; Yang and Tung, 2007, Tice and Baumeister, 1997; Kandell, 1998). Anyway there are relatively few examinations zeroing in on the web dependence and its connection to procrastination among undergrads who have a place with Information and Communication Technology related offices. Utilizing PC related innovations more than the others; such divisions might be more defenseless against web habit and procrastination. Considering what is happening, the motivation behind this exploration study is to look at pre-service ICT teachers' web compulsion levels and its connection to two procrastination estimates which are characterized as scholarly procrastination and general procrastination.

- **Academic Stress**

Understudy execution is molded by numerous outside factors, like the teacher, the attributes of the climate, or the learning open doors. There are likewise other inner elements that assume a significant part, particularly personality or scholastic pressure. The last option can be characterized as the state felt or saw by the person as an outcome of the cooperation of the relative multitude of outside factors that influence absolutely scholarly matters. In those cases where this state is pessimistic and undermines their psychosocial prosperity, it produces in them sensations of "awkwardness" to confront various circumstances of their educational interaction and even prompts physical and substantial side effects like nervousness, dietary issues, loss of the sensation of control of the circumstance, or a sleeping disorder .

- **Self-Concept**

Self-idea is a multi-faceted build that has been generally contemplated in the area of brain science

and education. It tends to be characterized as the picture that an individual has of him/herself in various features of his/her life. Self-idea includes emotional, mental, and social viewpoints, so it can't be characterized as an assessment liberated from subjectivity. This self-discernment reacts both to saw characteristics of the individual and to their level of skill to perform different assignments pretty much agreeably, as well as their capacity to adapt to and deal with the requests and necessities of the climate in which they live. Creators, for example, Kaur et al. have distinguished three parts inside the selfconcept. Initially, there is the picture or character apparent by the person about him/herself, that is to say, the conviction that he/she has about the picture he/she projects in his/her current circumstance.

Besides, there is self-esteem or the worth that an individual puts on him/herself, or at least, on his/her characteristics, assets, shortcomings, or sentiments. At long last, there is the conduct part, where the self-idea shapes an individual's approaches to acting. The progressive and diverse model of self-idea thinks about that the general self-idea comprises of four aspects: the scholastic self-idea, the social self-idea, the passionate self-idea, and the actual self-idea. In our review, the emphasis was on the scholarly self-idea, thinking about its significant job in understudy accomplishment in accordance with previous examinations. Legitimately, an individual's self-idea will affect their exhibition. In the educational setting and with the end goal of accomplishing more elevated levels of scholarly achievement, it is essential for understudies to have a solid self-idea, mirroring their true capacity, to acquire the self-certainty and self-confirmation they need to obtain the abilities and abilities they expect to pass their time of education.

- **Job Satisfaction And Job Stress**

In spite of reports of undeniable levels of teachers' work pressure (Chaplain, 2008; Schwarzer and Hallum, 2008), numerous teachers track down private fulfillment in their work. Work fulfillment view of satisfaction got from everyday work exercises is related with more significant levels of occupation execution (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton, 2001). Caprara et al. (2003) considered work fulfillment a "unequivocal component" (p. 823) affecting teachers' mentalities and execution and viewed self-efficacy as a significant supporter of teachers' work fulfillment. Teachers report that work fulfillment is acquired from the idea of everyday classroom exercises, for example, working with kids, seeing understudies make improvement, working with steady partners, and generally school environment (Cockburn and Haydn, 2004).

Teachers who are disappointed with their work show lower responsibility and are at more serious gamble for leaving the calling (Evans, 2001; Ingersoll, 2001). Liu and Ramsey (2008) observed that pressure from unfortunate work conditions had the most grounded

effect on teachers' work fulfillment and noticed that lacking time for arranging and preparation and a weighty showing responsibility diminished fulfillment from instructing. Educating may bring individual fulfillment, yet it additionally brings pressure, with requests from managers, associates, understudies, and guardians compounded by work over-burden, understudy mischief, and an absence of acknowledgment for achievements (Greenglass and Burke, 2003).

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To study on General Procrastination among Pre-Service ICT Teachers
2. To study on Procrastination Behaviour among Teachers

RESEARCH METHOD

Research Method

In this study, the descriptive research approach was used since the goal of the study was to simply investigate the association between gender and academic successes of potential teachers' self-efficacy, self-esteem, thinking patterns, and decision-making styles.

Population

The term "population" refers to the complete group from which a representative sample is taken. In this particular instance, the target demographic consists of all of the B.Ed. College students in Himachal Pradesh. However, the population that is available comes from the private B.Ed. institutes that are associated with Himachal Pradesh University.

Sampling

A representative portion of the population is called a sample. According to Pandey (1983), a sample is a fraction of a population that is picked for the purpose of research. This means that the sample is a more concise depiction of the whole group. A good sample assures three things: that it is free from bias, that it is representative of the features of the population, and that it is adequate in terms of the attributes of the population. 960 secondary prospective teachers (B.Ed. Students) from one college in each district of Himachal Pradesh were selected at random to participate in the study and make up the sample for the research project. These topics are covered by both male and female students, and they come from the fields of art, science, and business respectively. It is decided at random which two pieces to choose from each of the institutions. Therefore, the selection of the individuals is carried out using the approach of random clustering.

Table 1 The Adapted Version of the General Self-Efficacy Scale's Concurrent Validity Index (N = 120)

Co-efficient of "r" correlation for the scores of English versions	
8: Adapted version of General Self-Efficacy Scale	
Adapted Version of GSES	r
English Version of GSES	.706**

** Statistically significant at the .01 level of confidence

Table 1 makes it abundantly clear that a value of .706 for concurrent validity was obtained, and this value was found to be highly significant (p .01). In addition to this, the test-retest reliability of the modified version was verified. This modified version of the General Self-Efficacy Scale was given to 120 subjects who were chosen at random from the two institutions that were mentioned before. It was given to them twice, with a two-week gap in between each administration. Between the two different groups of scores, a coefficient of correlation was able to be determined (Scores obtained in two occasions have been given in appendix-B).

Statistical Techniques Used

In this inquiry, the following statistical approaches were used in order to do an analysis on the data:

Two - way ANOVA and t- test

The Second Procedure: ANOVA Step 2 1. Calculate the sum of each group's scores (EX) and squared scores (EX²), then insert the results into a separate table in the format indicated in Table 2.

Table 2 The means and standard deviations of the different groupings.

	High Achievers		Average Achievers		Low Achievers		Total X For rows
	Column 1	Column 2	Column 3				
Male	X ₁	(x ₁) ²	X ₂	(x ₃) ²	x ₂	(x ₃) ²	
	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	Σ	Σ	Σ	Σ	Σ	Σ	Σ

Female	X ₄	(x ₄) ²	XX ₅ X ₆ X ₇	(x ₅)(x ₅)(x ₅) ²	X ₆ ² X ₆ ²	(x ₆) ²	
	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	Σ	Σ	Σ	Σ	Σ	Σ	Σ
Total X for column							

total X₁+X₂+X₃+X₄ X₅+X₆

total X₁²+X₂²+ X₃²+X₄² X₅²+X₆²

DATA ANALYSIS

Academic Success and Gender: Main and Combined Effects on Prospective Teachers' Self-Efficacy

Two-way ANOVA, mean comparisons, and t-tests were carried out in order to determine the main and interaction effects of gender and academic success on self-efficacy. Tables 4.1 include a synopsis of the same information that was previously stated (a). 4.1 (b) and (c), in their respective places.

Table 3 The Results of a Two-Way Analysis of Variance Carried Out on the Scores of Self-Efficacy Obtained by Prospective Teachers

Source of Variation	SS	Df	Ms	F-ratio
Factor A (Gender)	40.70	1	40.70	12.50**
Factor B (Academic Achievement)	738.85	2	369.42	113.46*
Interaction (A X B)	21.90	2	10.95	3.36*
Within groups	1543.22	474	3.25	
Between groups	826.02	5	165.20	
Total	2369.24	479		

**= Significant at .01 level. *= Significant at .05 level, NS= Not Significant at .05 level

Table 4 The following table presents the mean and standard deviation of self-efficacy scores for a number of different groups formed by gender and academic achievement.

Gender (A)	Academic Achievement			Total
	High (B ₁)	Average (B ₂)	Low (B ₃)	
Male (A ₁)				
N	120	240	120	480
M	32.97	31.92	29.77	31.64
S.D.	1.22	2.01	1.28	2.03
Female(A ₂)				
N	120	240	120	480
M	32.90	30.81	29.10	30.90
S.D.	1.43	2.28	1.52	2.34
Total				
N	240	480	240	960
M	32.93	31.36	29.43	31.27
S.D.	1.32	2.21	1.44	2.22

**= Significant at .01 level, *= Significant at .05 level, NS= Not Significant at .05 level

Table 3 Presents the Means and Standard Deviations of Self-Efficacy Scores Obtained by Individuals Classified According to Gender and Academic Achievement It is clear from looking at table 4 that the F-ratio used to compare the levels of self-efficacy of prospective male and female

teachers turned out to be 12.50, which is significant at a level of confidence of .01 with dfs 1 and 474. This suggests that the major effect for factor A, which was gender, had a very large impact on the self-efficacy of prospective teachers. It also indicates that men and women who are interested in becoming teachers have considerably different levels of self-efficacy in comparison to one another. As a result, the study hypothesis on the substantial disparities in the self-efficacy of prospective male and female teachers was accepted.

It is possible to observe from table 3 that the mean score for the male group was 31.64, and the standard deviation was . as 2.03, while the mean and standard deviation for the female group was 30.90. as 3.82. As a result, the male group had a higher mean score on the self-efficacy test than the female group did. Alternately, it might be claimed that male prospective teachers had a greater degree of self-efficacy than their female counterparts, who were also in the same position.

Table 3 Contains further evidence showing that the second F-ratio (113.46), which was tested with dfs 2 and 474, was found to be statistically significant. According to this, prospective teachers' levels of self-efficacy were significantly affected by their previous levels of accomplishment. As a result, the study hypothesis involving a substantial difference in the level of self-efficacy held by high, average, and low performing prospective teachers was shown to be true. According to the information shown in Table 2, the high-achieving group, the average-achieving group, and the low-achieving group each had a mean score of 32.93, 31.36, and 29.43 accordingly. T-tests were done on self-efficacy, and the acquired result has been shown in table 4 Because ratio does not reveal the actual source of the difference between two means, these tests were performed (c).

Table 5 The Means and Standard Deviations of the Self-Esteem Scores of the Many Different Groups That Were Formed Based on Gender and Academic Achievement

Gender (A)	Academic Achievement			
	High (B1)	Average (B2)	Low (B3)	Total
Male (A1)				
N	120	240	120	480
M	23.85	21.87	20.50	22.03
S.D.	2.02	2.66	1.86	2.61
Female(A2)				
N	120	240	120	480
M	22.02	21.53	19.95	21.26
S.D.	2.68	2.46	1.76	2.48
Total				
N	240	480	240	960
M	22.93	21.70	20.22	21.64
S.D.	2.54	2.57	1.83	2.58

It is clear from looking at table 5 that the F-ratio used to compare the levels of self-esteem of male and female prospective teachers turned out to be 16.06. This result is highly significant at a level of confidence of .01 with dfs 1 and 474. It reveals that the primary effect for factor A, which was gender, had a very substantial impact on the self-esteem of potential teachers. It also indicates that potential teachers, both male and female, have considerably different levels of self-esteem from one another. Because of this, the study hypothesis that connected to substantial disparities in the self-esteem of male and female prospective teachers was accepted.

It is possible to observe from table 5 that the mean score for the male group was 22.03, and the standard deviation was . as 2.61, while the mean and standard deviation for the female group was 21.26. as 2.48. As a result, the male group had a higher mean score on the self-esteem survey than the female group did. Alternately, it may be claimed that male prospective teachers had a greater degree of self-esteem than their female counterparts, who were also in the same position. Additional evidence that the second F-ratio (39.83) turned out to be significant may be seen in Table 5 (at .01 levels with dfs 2 and 474). This lends credence to the idea that accomplishment has a substantial impact on the self-esteem of aspiring educators. As a result, the study hypothesis about the significantly different levels of self-esteem held by high, medium, and poor performing potential teachers was shown to be true.

According to the information shown in Table 5, the high-achieving group, the average-achieving group, and the low-achieving group each had a mean score of 22.93, 21.70, and 20.22 accordingly. Because the F-ratio does not pinpoint the precise reason for the disparity between the two means, t tests were carried out on self-esteem, and the findings are summarised in table 4.6 below.

Table 6 A table illustrating the importance of the differences in mean self-esteem ratings between high-achieving, average, and low-achieving prospective teachers.

Sr. No.	Group	Mean	S.D.	Comparison	df	't' value	Sig.
1	High Achieving (N= 120)	22.93	2.54	Gm vs Gp2	358	4.29	NS
2	Average Achieving (N= 480)	21.70	2.57	Gm vs Gp3	238	9.46	**
3	Low Achieving (N= 120)	20.22	1.83	Gp2 vs Gp3	358	5.62	**

** = significant at .01 level, * = significant at .05 level, NS = Not significant at .05 level

In table 6, it is possible to see that the initial Y value of 4.29 was determined to be insignificant when compared to df 358. As a result of this, it was

determined that there was not a significant difference between the high and medium achieving groups' levels of self-esteem. In addition, the results of table 6 demonstrate that the Y value of 9.46 was statistically significant when compared to df 238 at the.01 level of significance. As a result of the fact that the mean of the high achieving group (22.93) was higher than the mean of the low achieving group (20.22), it is possible to conclude that the prospective teachers who had achieved a high level of academic success had a higher level of self-esteem than the low achievement group. The third Y value (5.62), which was also examined with dfs 358, was found to be significant at the.01 level of confidence. It indicates that there was a considerable gap in the levels of self-esteem between the average and poor achieving groups. Because the group with average achievement had a mean score of 21.70, which was the highest. It is possible to claim that those with medium achievement had much greater levels of self-esteem than those with poor achievement.

According to Table 4, the F-ratio (4.18), which measures the interaction between the AxB factor and the dfs 2 and 474, was significant. This indicates that a relationship between academic success and gender exists with regard to potential teachers' perceptions of their own self-esteem. This indicates that the difference in the mean score of general self-esteem between male (Ai) and female (A2) prospective instructors was substantially different for the three levels of accomplishments, namely high (B1), average (B2), and poor (B2) (B3). Alternately, one may argue that the differences in the mean scores of self-esteem among prospective instructors who had high, medium, or poor levels of accomplishment were not comparable between the sexes, namely male (Ai) and female (A2). Therefore, it is possible to begin with the assumption that the study hypothesis of substantial interaction was accepted.

Table 7 Comparison of the averages and standard deviations of high and low levels of academic and nonacademic procrastination for the neurotic personality characteristic.

Variables	Levels	N	M	SD
Academic	High	200	25.79	5.78
Procrastination	Low	200	23.67	5.51
Non-academic	High	300	25.51	5.54
Procrastination	Low	200	23.89	5.84

Table 8 ANOVA summary table for personality trait- neuroticism.

Source	SS	df	MS	F
A (Academic Procrastination)	671.85	1	671.85	21.46**
B(Non-academic Procrastination)	394.94	1	394.94	12.62**
AxB	0.35	1	0.35	0.01ns
Withincell	18655.88	596	31.30	

**p< 0.01, ns=non-Significant

The mean scores and standard deviations for neuroticism are shown in table 8 below. The comparisons of mean scores and standard deviations for neuroticism in relation to academic and non-academic procrastination are shown in Table 8. As can be seen in the table, the mean score of high academic procrastinators on the neuroticism scale is higher than the mean score of low academic procrastinators, which comes in at 23.67 and has a standard deviation of 5.51. On the same note, the mean neuroticism score of high non-academic procrastinators is higher (M=25.51, SD=5.54) than the mean neuroticism score of low non-academic procrastinators (M=23.89, SD=5.84). Table 8 provides a summary of the results of an analysis of variance performed on the differences between individuals who scored high and low on academic procrastination and those who scored high and low on procrastination that was not related to academics. There is a statistically significant difference in neuroticism between those who are high academic procrastinators and those who are low academic procrastinators (F (1, 596) = 21.46, p 0.01, 2 =0.034). Additionally, there is a significant difference in the F-ratio of neuroticism between high and low non-academic procrastinators (F (1,596) =12.62, p 0.01, 2 =0.020). The AB interaction is not statistically significant.

Table 9 Summary table for the frequency and proportion of causes of academic procrastination in decreasing order.

Rank	Reasons	Responses(N=400)		Percentageofsubjects sayingyes
		No	Yes	
1	Laziness	301	99	33.00
2	Time management	301	99	33.00
3	Indecisiveness	303	97	32.33
4	Peer pressure	306	94	31.33
5	Dependency	313	87	29.00
6	Taskaversiveness	319	81	27.00
7	Risk taking	332	68	22.67
8	Perfectionism	332	68	22.67
9	Lackofassertiveness	334	66	22.00
10	Evaluation anxiety	337	63	21.00
11	Lowself-esteem	348	52	17.33
12	Rebellionagainstcontrol	357	43	14.33
13	Fearofsuccess	379	21	7.00

During the course of the inquiry into the factors that contribute to procrastination, the percentage analysis was utilised. The frequency and proportion of reasons for academic procrastination are listed in descending order in Table 9, which gives an overview of the information. It appears that the selected group of participants' primary reasons for their habit of procrastinating are a lack of motivation (33%) and an inability to effectively manage their time (33%). Fear of Success was the reason that was chosen the least (7%).

CONCLUSION

The purpose of the current study was to compare the motivational factors and personality features of high and low procrastinators in academic and non-academic fields and to conduct an analysis of the elements that cause students to engage in procrastination. The comparison of high and low procrastinators on academic and non-academic tasks, the comparison of motivational factors in academic and non-academic procrastinators, and the comparison of personality traits of academic and non-academic procrastinators were the primary focuses of the findings of the study, which were presented as a result. In addition to that, it intended to investigate the factors that contribute to postponing tasks. This chapter discusses the findings of the study in light of the research that came before it and the present hypothesis that was formulated; the conclusion of the specific data analysis and its generalization with limitations and future research orientations; and the conclusion of the specific data analysis. The tables that show the findings of the statistical analysis done in this research have been supplied, and they can be found in the chapter that came before this one. In light of the goals of the research and the hypothesis that was developed for it, we will now proceed to examine the findings. A comparison of high academic procrastinators and low academic procrastinators with regard to non-academic chores Procrastination is often seen as a widespread habit, which indicates that a high procrastinator will be postponing any activity regardless of the sector or field. It was also shown that general procrastination was a significant predictor of academic procrastination (Sirin, 2021). In order to conduct this analysis, a t-test was used to compare the levels of general procrastination among high academic procrastinators and low academic procrastinators (non-academic). On the General Procrastination Scale, the findings show that there is a statistically significant gap between the mean score of high procrastinators and the mean score of low procrastinators (GPS). This suggests that 81 strong academic procrastinators and low academic procrastinators vary in their tendency for non-academic procrastinating.

REFERENCES

1. Ramazan Cansoy (2017) "Examining the Relationship between Pre-Service Teachers' Critical Thinking Disposition, Problem Solving Skills and Teacher Self-Efficacy" *International Education Studies*; Vol. 10, No. 6; 2017 ISSN 1913-9020 E-ISSN 1913-9039.
2. Dr. Aashiq Ahmad Thoker (2018) "Occupational Efficacy of Secondary School Teachers with Special Reference to Type of School" *IJSRD - International Journal for Scientific Research & Development* | Vol. 6, Issue 04, 2018 | ISSN (online): 2321-0613
3. Zangenehvandi, M., Farahian, M., & Gholami, H. (2019). On the relationship between

- EFL teachers' critical thinking and self-efficacy. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods*, 4(2), 286-293.
4. Robert, M. (2010). Effects on Teachers Self-Efficacy and Job Satisfaction: Teacher Gender, Years of Experience, and Job Stress. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, American Psychological Association, Vol. 102. No. 3. Pp. 741-756
5. Zee, M., & Koomen, H. M. Y. (2021). Teacher self-efficacy and its effects on classroom processes, student academic adjustment, and teacher well-being: A synthesis of 40 years of research. *Review of Educational Research*, 20(10), 1-35.
6. Yasmin J., Rashmi C. & Mahima C. (2019). Relationship between Employees Self-Efficacy Belief and Role Stress. (Unpublished Ph. D Thesis), Department of Business Management. University of Horticulture and Forestry Nauni, Solan, Himachal Pradesh, India
7. Srisawad, K., Ratanaolarn, T., & Kiddee, K. (2016). The development of structural equation model of critical thinking among nursing students. *Walailak Journal of Science and Technology (WJST)*, 14(1), 65-73.
8. Ambrosetti, A., & Dekkers, J. (2010) The Interconnectedness of the roles of mentors and mentees in pre-service teacher education mentoring relationships. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35, 42-55.
9. Winston, K. A. & Kwesi, N. W. (2019). Teachers' Self-efficacy on School Improvement: A Comparative Analysis of Private and Public Junior High Schools in the Takoradi. *US-China Education Review B*. Vol. 3. No. 12. Pp. 903-913.
10. Nosich, M. N. (2012). Eleştirel düşünme ve disiplinlerarası eleştirel düşünme rehberi (Çev. Birsal Aybek).
11. Neha, J. (2014). The Effect of Job Value on Occupational Self Efficacy of Secondary School Teachers. *Journal for Interdisciplinary Approach*, Vol. 2. No. 4. Pp. 332.
12. Neha, J. (2014). The Effect of Job Value on Occupational Self Efficacy of Secondary School Teachers. *Journal for Interdisciplinary Approach*, Vol. 2. No. 4. Pp. 332

Corresponding Author

Pramod S*

Research Scholar, Lords University, Alwar