RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ANXIETY, ACADEMIC PROCRASTINATION AND SELF-EFFICACY: THE MODERATING ROLE OF SELF-EFFICACY AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS KARACHI PAKISTAN

Zainab Akbar, Dr Sheeba Farhan

M Phil Scholar, Department of Psychology Federal Urdu University of Arts Science and Technology Abdul Haq Campus Karachi- Email: uniquefriend786@gmail.com

(Assistant Professor) Department of Psychology, Federal Urdu University of Arts Science and Technology Abdul Haq Campus Karachi- Email:sheeba.qazi@fuuast.edu.pk

DOI: https://doi.org/

Keywords (anxiety, academic procrastination, self-efficacy, gender differences, university students)

Article History

Received on 21 June 2025 Accepted on 24 July 2025 Published on 26 July 2025

Copyright @Author Corresponding Author: * Zainab Akbar

Abstract

This study aimed toward explore the connections amongst anxiety academic procrastination and self-efficacy in higher education students, with a moderating role of self-efficacy. A sample of 350 university students (189 males and 161 females), aged 18 to 25, participated in the study. The measures used included the Demographic Information Form, Academic Procrastination Scale-Students (Solomon & Rothblum, 1986), State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Charles, Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1964), and General Self-Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). Descriptive measurements, Pearson correlations, regression analyses and moderation models applied to investigate the data. The findings discovered major positive relationships amongst anxiety, self-efficacy and academic procrastination (r = .269, p < .01; r = .142, p < .01; r = .323, p < .01), supporting the first hypothesis. Regression investigates indicated, self-efficacy significantly weakened the relationship amongst anxiety and academic procrastination. Anxiety positively predicts procrastination; however, the significant interaction term suggests that higher self-efficacy weakens this relationship. The model explanations for 10% of the change in academic procrastination ($R^2 = .10$), with the interaction term explaining an additional 2% ($\Delta R^2 = .02$), pointing out the protecting role of self-efficacy (p < .001*), confirming the second hypothesis. Additionally, gender differences were studied in academic procrastination, state-trait anxiety, and general self-efficacy. The outcomes indicated no statistically major gender differences in academic procrastination, state-trait anxiety or general self-efficacy. The study points out the potential for targeted interventions, such as self-efficacy training and anxiety management programs, to improve academic performance and well-being.

INTRODUCTION

Anxiety and procrastination are general issues impacting people globally. WHO identify that anxiety disorders affect over 264 million adults global (WHO, 2017), whereas academic procrastination remains prevalent among college students, with up to 39.7% affected in China (Pang & Han, 2009). Procrastination is one of the most common faced bv students experiments approximately one-third of the general population identifying it as a major problem to learning (Steel & Ferrari, 2013). In the United States, 95% of college students admitted engaging academic to in procrastination with nearly half postponing at least 50% of their academic tasks (Ellis & Knaus, 1977; Balkis & Duru, 2007). Studies indicate that between 80% and 95% of students engage in procrastination with nearly half doing so habitually and to a problematic extent (Steel, 2007).

Some studies revealed that undergraduate students procrastinated more frequently on term papers (46%) compared to weekly readings (30%) and exam preparation (28%) (Solomon & Rothblum, 1984). Similarly, study reported that 83% of students spent at least an hour daily procrastinating with writing assignments being the most common source of delay.

This study, however, emphasizes internal contributing to procrastination (Klassen & Kuzucu, 2009). Another study explored the timing of procrastination during an academic semester discovering that students tended to procrastinate more during the middle of the semester than at the beginning or end (Moon & Illingworth, 2005). Academic postponement is measured unhealthy manners that disturbs the learning process, leading to poor academic performance and adverse emotional outcomes (Liu et al., 2020). The causes and effects of procrastination remain subjects of ongoing debate among psychologists. Some of its negative consequences include reduced self-confidence and self-efficacy, lost chances, failure to meet time limit and inadequate or substandard effort. Additionally, procrastination is often associated with heightened and levels anxiety stress (Klingsieck, 2013).

Self-efficacy an essential factor for goal achievement is found toward negatively associate with educational postponement (Przepiorka, 2019). Self-efficacy demarcated as the confidence in one's talent to do wanted goals, plays a vital part in motivating persons to pursue high achievements, reducing tendencies toward academic

procrastination (Syukur et al., 2020). Another study has revealed a major adverse self-efficacy connection amongst and educational postponement (Przepiorka, 2019). Current study explored difficult associations amongst anxiety, self-efficacy and procrastination, offering insights into the psychological mechanisms that influence these behaviors. By exploring these dynamics, the research seeks to support development of targeted strategies enhance self-efficacy, alleviate anxiety and the adverse effects of minimize procrastination.

Anxiety and Procrastination

Anxiety is described as an emotional response triggered by the perception of a threat, characterized by figurative, defensive and unclear aspects (Lazarus & Averill, 1972). It remains narrowly linked toward the distress of potential upcoming dangers otherwise risks (Reiss, 1991). Exploration demonstrated that nervousness can meaningfully educational impair presentation (Macher, Paechter, Papousek, & Ruggeri, 2012). Additionally, studies involving graduate students have shown a strong positive correlation between academic procrastination and anxiety, especially concerning tasks such as writing assignments, exam preparation and completing weekly

readings (Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Onwuegbuzie & Jiao, 2000).

Procrastination is performance of delaying otherwise postponing tasks (Oxford Dictionary), has deep historical roots. A researcher traces its origins back over 2,800 years to ancient Greece, suggesting that procrastination has long been recognized as a and pressing issue (Steel. common 2007). When considering the consequences of procrastination, this behavior has been linked to numerous adverse outcomes, including heightened stress levels, increased psychological strain, more frequent physical health issues, lower academic performance, missed deadlines, prolonged study durations (especially among college students), and greater instances of daily procrastination (measured in hours) as well as task-related delays (evaluated based on the time available versus the time a student starts assignment). Additionally, procrastination often leads to conflicts in personal relationships due to its negative effects (Steel, 2007; Tice & Baumeister, 1997; Grunschel & Schopenhauer, 2015; Klassen et al., 2008). Certain investigations suggest extra complex multifaceted relationship plus between anxiety and academic procrastination. For example, research with American college students has shown that procrastinators

than timeliness and here also seems to remain an adverse connection amongst unease and postponement early in the academic session. But academic session progresses, procrastinators tend to practice extra pressure and unease related to persons who don't postpone (Tice & Baumeister, 1997).

Additionally, a pilot study by some researchers confirmed the correlation between anxiety and procrastination and identified potential neurobiological evidence linking the two. The study showed that both unease and characteristic postponement were associated with activity in the right hippocampus, and a positive correlation was found between the right hippocampal grey matter volumes and both trait anxiety and procrastination (Zhang al., 2020). et Academic life, both in schools and universities, is often characterized by tight deadlines and heavy workloads. Students are required to manage these academic pressures while coping with stress and anxiety related to their studies (Misra & McKean, 2000). some researchers noted that academic procrastination frequently involves significant levels of anxiety (Rothblum, Solomon & Murakami, 1986). While numerous studies have identified a positive correlation amongst educational postponement and educational nervousness, it does not establish a direct fundamental link between the two (Onwuegbuzie, 2000).

Anxiety leads individuals to delay tasks, with procrastination becoming more pronounced as deadlines approach, often leading to last-minute delays. However, few repeated measures studies have examined by what method this relationship occur over time about unease and procrastination (Steel., 2007). Researchers found that individuals with high levels of procrastination tended to experience more anxiety throughout the semester, although they reported decrease anxiety earlier quantities of term (Rothblum et al., 1986). Further schoolwork found related outcomes, indicating that correlation between postponement and unease increases toward close the education session (Assur, 2003; Lay & Schouwenburg, 1993). Transect correlation investigates in these research discloses a significant progressive connection among postponement and anxiety, particularly quiz and lecture anxiety. However, most of the studies have measured this correlation at a single point in time, limiting the scope of the findings to specific moments. Interestingly, other research interrelated procrastination to declines in bodily and psychological health, suggesting

that procrastinators may experience higher levels of stress and illness, particularly toward close the education session (Tice & Baumeister, 1997).

Self-Efficacy as a Moderating Factor

Previous research has pointed out the role of self-efficacy in academic procrastination. Bandura defines self-efficacy as individuals' beliefs in their ability to organize and carry out actions required to manage future situations. Self-efficacy, a key component of Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory, posits that people are more likely to attempt tasks they believe they can succeed at. Those with high self-efficacy view difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered, remain committed to their goals, and recover quickly from setbacks (Bandura, 1995). On the other hand, individuals with low self-efficacy tend to avoid challenging tasks, believing they lack the ability to complete them, and often focus on negative outcomes. Thus, it is likely that persons with little self-efficacy are more disposed to postponement since they struggle with setting goals and managing tasks effectively. Active procrastinators, however, may share self-efficacy beliefs similar to nonprocrastinators (Chu & Choi, 2005).

The origin source of procrastination often falsehoods in a person's lack of sureness in his talent to finish a mission, a

concept Albert Bandura termed efficacy" (Bandura, 1977; Barrows et al., 2013). Study highlighted scholars with great self-efficacy in understanding and script adopt strategic learning approaches, focusing on time management, effective study habits, and thoughtful engagement with their academic work. students having little selfefficacy incline to take a more relaxed, careless approach to their studies, investing less time and effort in academic tasks (Prat-Sala & Redford, 2010). Meta-analysis of 104 student studies involving populations revealed a significant negative correlation between self-efficacy and procrastination, this finding suggests that the lower individual's self-efficacy, the more likely they are to procrastinate (Van Eerde's, 2003). Similarly, a researcher found self-efficacy to be a strong and consistent predictor of procrastination across 216 studies. He argued that fear of failure is closely linked to low self-efficacy and procrastination, but even independently of fear of failure, selfefficacy directly influences academic procrastination. Steel also hypothesized that procrastination could lead poorer performance, which in turn lowers selfefficacy and results in more procrastination (Steel, 2007). In many studies, self-efficacy has been connected to self-regulation in

relation to procrastination. Low self-efficacy for self-regulation has been identified as a predictor of higher procrastination. Self-efficacy for self-regulation was a stronger interpreter of procrastination than self-regulation alone, though low self-efficacy for self-regulation was only associated with higher procrastination in girls (Klassen & Kuzucu, 2009).

The theoretical outline of this study delivers the groundwork for understanding the psychological factors manipulating academic procrastination, anxiety and selfefficacy. Appraisal Anxiety Theory (Lazarus Folkman, 1984) recommends that procrastination arises from how individuals cognitively calculate tasks, mostly when they feel powerless of handling challenges due to low self-esteem formed by past experiences. Bandura's Self-Efficacy Theory underlines that persons' belief in their abilities stimuli their task choices, effort and perseverance those with high self-efficacy are more likely to recruit and continue in tasks, while those with low self-efficacy have a tendency to avoid them. Cognitive Theory further describes procrastination as a result of the communication between personal thoughts, behaviors and the learning atmosphere, all of which influence inspiration and academic appointment. Attribution Theory discovers

how individuals understand success and disappointment, which in turn disturbs their attribute motivation those who disappointment to inner, stable reasons may become more disposed to procrastination. Lastly, Temporal Motivation Theory (TMT) suggestions a complete view by mixing origins from self-efficacy, motivation, task aversiveness and time awareness, explaining why persons delay tasks even when they know their position. Together, these outlines deliver a complete understanding of the compound interaction amongst cognition, emotion and behavior in academic situations.

Gender and Contextual Factors

Anxiety remains common psychological experience, but research suggests that gender differences exist in the prevalence and intensity of anxiety across various domains. Several studies have explored these differences, particularly in academic and general anxiety levels among male and female students. Researchers found that adolescent females reported higher levels of anxiety compared to adolescent males, indicating a greater vulnerability to anxietyrelated challenges among females. This trend has been observed in academic settings as well, particularly in mathematics related anxiety (Lewinsohn et al., 1998).

Researchers investigated research self-efficacy and academic performance among postgraduate students at Tehran University of Medical Sciences. Their findings revealed no significant difference in research selfefficacy between male and female students, suggesting that gender doesn't performance a main character in determining research related self-efficacy at postgraduate level (Tiyuri et al, 2018). Similarly, others researchers found no gender differences in research self-efficacy among students at Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, reinforcing the idea that self-efficacy in research activities is not significantly influenced by gender (Ashrafi-Rizi et al, 2015). Researchers conducted a study exploring the relationship between personality traits and academic procrastination. Their findings revealed no significant differences in procrastination levels between male and female students, suggesting that gender alone is not a determining factor in procrastination behaviors. Instead, they found that conscientiousness and neuroticism played a more prominent role in predicting academic procrastination (Johnson & Bloom, 1995). However, studies in other academic areas present a different perspective. Self-efficacy, academic engagement and achievement in

among Ethiopian high school biology students. Their results indicated that female students had lower self-efficacy in biology than their male counterparts, who also demonstrated higher academic engagement and achievement in the subject (Mohammadi, Bytamar, Saed, & Khakpoor, 2020). Gender disparities in self-efficacy have also been observed in STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) fields. Zeldin and his colleagues found that men's selfefficacy beliefs in STEM careers were primarily shaped by mastery experiences, whereas women's self-efficacy was more influenced by social persuasions and vicarious experiences (Zeldin, Britner, & Pajares, 2008). Similarly, another study found that males generally had higher mathematics self-efficacy than females (Pajares, 2005), a trend further supported by Huang's meta-analysis, which confirmed that males tend to exhibit higher self-efficacy in math, science, and technology subjects, while females demonstrate higher self-efficacy in language and humanities disciplines (Huang, 2013). Moreover, some researchers studied speaking self-efficacy and found that male students exhibited higher speaking selfefficacy than female students, although no significant gender differences were observed in English speaking ability (Sundari &

Dasmo, 2014). These findings suggest that . gender differences in self-efficacy are domain specific rather than universal. While research related self-efficacy appears to be similar . across genders, disparities are evident in STEM fields, mathematics, and language related skills. This highlights the need for . targeted interventions to boost self-efficacy in areas where gender disparities exist, ensuring equal academic opportunities for both male and female students.

Several students in Pakistan suffer from anxiety and procrastination, which harmfully disturb their academics and psychological health (Khan et al., 2006; Ahmad et al., 2013). Related patterns are seen in further Asian countries such as India, China and South Korea (Singh et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2016). Whereas self-efficacy plays a main character in motivation (Chen et al., 2019), it stills under investigated in Pakistan and Bangladesh (Hossain et al., 2022). This study discovers how anxiety, procrastination and self-efficacy connected among university students and highlights ways to improvement their academic routine and psychological wellbeing. It aims to provide responsiveness that can support educators and professionals in speak to these challenges successfully.

Hypotheses

- There would be a significant relationship between Anxiety, academic Procrastination and self-efficacy among university students.
- Self-efficacy would play a moderating role between anxiety and academic procrastination.
- There would be gender difference in the level of anxiety, academic procrastination and selfefficacy

METHODOLOGY

Study Design

The investigation design of this research was correlation, which collected data from a sample of university students from Karachi Pakistan at a single point in time. This study employed amongst selfefficacy, anxiety and educational procrastination among institution of higher education scholars. A survey design was used, where participants completed questionnaire that measured self-efficacy, anxiety, and academic procrastination. This study utilized quantitative methods to collect and analyze data and statistical analysis was used to examine the relationships between variables.

Sample Size

The sample of the present study was comprised of 350 students (189 males and 161females). The sample was recruited from different departments and various academic

year students who were studying in the university. The age range of the entire sample started from 18 years to 25 years.

Sampling Technique

Students were nominated using a simple random sampling method based on designated criteria.

Procedure

Participants were recruited from different departments and locations from the university in Karachi Pakistan. Initially, a consent form was introduced. Participants were invited to examine the permission form and any queries were talked to the concerned authority and carried out to assess the for possibility intended purposes. Disadvantage and advantage analysis was talked to the applicants. Once obtaining agreement, the procedure of employment was introduced. Students were nominated using a simple random sampling method based on designated criteria. Participants were informed about the purpose of the schoolwork and were guaranteed that the documents would be used purely for investigation purposes and their identities would not be revealed to anyone. The participants (students) were requested to sign the consent form if they approved their willingness to participate. After completing the standardized the consent form,

questionnaires, Academic Procrastination Scale, State Trait Anxiety Inventory and The General Self-Efficacy Scale were administered. After the completion of questionnaires, the examiner thanked all participants.

Measures

Academic Procrastination Scale-Students (Solomon & Rothblum, 1986)

PASS is a 33-item scale; each answered on a 1 to 5 Likert scale. Item cover changed features of academic procrastination behavior. Test retest reliability is 0.8 over a 2-week period and convergent validity is 0.73 and divergent validity is 0.10. Item scores are summed to produce a total score ranging from a minimum of 20 to a maximum of 80, with greater scores signifying greater procrastination tendencies.

State Trait Anxiety Inventory (Charles, Spielberger, Richard, Gorsuch & Robert, 1964)

The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) is a widely validated self-report instrument consisting of 20 items rated on a 4-point Likert scale (1-4) with total scores ranging from 20 to 80. Greater scores show greater levels of anxiety, it is designed to measure both state and trait anxiety. Originally developed in 1964 by Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene, the STAI has been translated into more than 30 languages for

use in cross-cultural research and clinical settings (Sesti, 2000). Multiple studies have evaluated the STAI's reliability and validity confirming its effectiveness as a tool for assessing anxiety in both research and clinical applications (Sesti, 2000).

The General Self-Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995)

It established by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995) is a 10-item measure. Each

item is rated on a 4-point Likert scale (1–4) covering various dimensions of general self-efficacy. The test-retest reliability of the GSES has been reported to range from 0.75 to 0.91 over intervals of two to six months indicating strong consistency over time. The total possible scores on the GSES range from 10 to 40 with greater scores showing greater levels of self-efficacy.

RESULTS

 Table 1

 Demographic statistics of the study characteristics

Characteristic	N	%
	14	/0
Age	172	40.4
18-21	173	49.4
22-25	177	50.6
Gender		
Male	189	54
Female	161	46
Qualification		
Intermediate	69	19.7
Graduation	225	64.3
Master	45	12.9
M.Phil.	11	3.1
Marital Status		
Single	330	94.3
Married	19	5.4
Divorced	1	.3
Family Structure		
Joint Family System	157	44.9
Nuclear Family System	193	55.1
Socio Economic		
Lower Class	10	2.9
Upper Middle	77	22.0
Middle	226	64.6
Lower Middle	12	3.4
Upper Class	25	7.1
Employment		
Employed	107	30.6
Unemployed	243	69.4

Note N=350 **Table 2**Descriptive statistic of demographic

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	1	2	1.51	.501
Gender	1	2	1.46	.499
Qualification	1	5	2.98	.698
marital status	1	3	1.06	.250
family structure	1	2	1.55	.498
socio-economic	1	5	2.90	.804
Employment	1	2	1.69	.461

Table 3Descriptive Statistics of scale

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
APTotal	33	124	78.55	15.062
STAITotal	20	77	47.95	7.564
GSETotal	10	40	26.76	5.579

Note: AP (Academic Procrastination), STAI (State Trait Anxiety Inventory), GSE (General Self-Efficacy)

Table 3 shows total number pf participants (350), AP Minimum 33 and Maximum 124 with M=78.55 and SD= 15.06, STAI Minimum 20 and Maximum 77 with

M=47.95.55 and SD=7.56 and GSE Minimum 10 and Maximum 40 with M=26.76 and SD=5.57.

Table 4Person Correlation in Academic Procrastination State Trait Anxiety Inventory and Self-Efficacy(N=350)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3
.Academic Procrastination	78.55	15.06	1		
State Trait Anxiety Inventory	47.95	7.56	.269**	1	
General Self-Efficacy	26.76	5.57	.142**	.323**	1

^{**}b<.01

The table 4 indicate a significant positive correlation between anxiety and academic procrastination (r = .269, p < .01). A smaller, yet significant positive correlation was found between self-efficacy and academic **Table 5**

procrastination (r = .142, p < .01). Anxiety and self-efficacy also showed a moderate positive correlation (r = .323, p < .01), indicating these variables are interrelated.

Regression Coefficient of Academic Procrastination, State Trait Anxiety Inventory and General Self-Efficacy (N=350)

Variable	В	SE	T	Þ	95%CI
Constant	7.35	16.41	.44	.654	[-24.93, 39.65]
State Trait Anxiety Inventory	1.43	.35	4.03	.000	[.73, 2.13]
General Self-Efficacy	1.82	.61	2.96	.006	[.61, 3.03]
Interaction Term	036	.013	-2.773	.006	[06,01]

Note CI=Coefficient Interval

Table 5 shows the regression coefficient of state trait anxiety, self-efficacy and Academic procrastination. The R² value of. 09 the predictors explained 9% change in the conclusion variable with F (12.219), p<.01 the result discovered that state trait

anxiety inventory (β =.72, p<.001), self-efficacy (β =.67, p<.01) positively predicted academic procrastination and interaction term (β =.89, p<.01) negatively predicted academic procrastination.

Table 6Moderation of Self-Efficacy between Anxiety and academic Procrastination

Predictor	SE	р	LL	UL	R	R ²	ΔR ²
Constant	.78	.00	42.48	64.25			
Anxiety	.82	.00	.26	.69			
Self-Efficacy	.82	.49	18	.39			
Anxiety and Self-Efficacy	.55	.00	-2.58	44	.31	.10	.O2

Note: SE= Standard Error, LL= Lower Limit, UL= Upper Limit, R2 = R- Squared, Δ R2 = Adjusted R-Squared

The table no 6 shows moderation analysis results, indicating that self-efficacy significantly moderates the relationship between anxiety and academic procrastination. Anxiety positively predicts procrastination, however, the significant interaction term suggests that higher self-

efficacy weakens this relationship. The model accounts for 10% of the variance in academic procrastination (R^2 = .10), with the interaction term explaining an additional 2% (ΔR^2 = .02), highlighting the buffering role of self-efficacy. p< .001.

Table 7Difference between Male and Female University Students on Academic Procrastination Independent Samples Test

					95%CL		
Variables	N	M	SD	t	P	LL	UL
Male	189	77.89	14.15	88	.37	4.60	1.74
Female	161	79.32	16.07	88	.37	-4.60	1.74

Note.N=350.M=mean; SD=standard deviation; p=probability value (significance), LL=Lower Level, UL=Upper Level

The table no 7 indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in academic procrastination between males (M = 77.89, SD = 14.15) and females (M = 79.32, SD = 16.07), t = 0.88.df=348, p > 0.05.95% for the mean difference ranged from 4.60 to

1.74, suggesting that any potential difference in procrastination scores is not meaningful. These findings indicate that gender does not significantly impact academic procrastination among university students.

Table 8

Difference between Male and Female University Students on State Trait Anxiety Independent Samples Test

						95%	CL
Variables	N	M	SD	t	P	LL	UL
Male	189	48.22	7.57	.72	.46	-1.00	2.18
Female	161	47.63	7.56	.72	.46	-1.00	2.18

Note.N=350.M=mean; SD=standard deviation; p=probability value (significance), LL=Lower Level, UL=Upper Level

The table no 8 indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in state-trait anxiety between males (M = 48.22, SD = 7.57) and females (M = 47.63, SD = 7.56), t= 0.72.df=348, p > 0.05.95% for the mean

difference ranged from -1.00 to 2.19, suggesting that gender does not have a significant impact on state-trait anxiety levels among university students.

Table 9

Difference between Male and Female University Students on General Self-Efficacy Independent Samples Test

						95% CL		
variables	N	M	SD	t	P	LL	UL	
Male	189	26.48	5.86	-1.0	.30	-1.78	.56	
Female	161	27.09	5.22	-1.0	.30	-1.78	.56	

Note.N=350.M=mean; SD=standard deviation; p=probability value (significance), LL=Lower Level, UL=Upper Level

The table no 9 indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in general self-efficacy between males (M = 26.48, SD = 5.86) and females (M = 27.09, SD = 5.22), t = -1.00.df = 348, p > 0.05.95% for the mean difference ranged from -1.78 to 0.56, suggesting that gender does not have a significant impact on general self-efficacy among university students.

Table 10 KMO and Bartlett's Test

ampling Adequacy.	.751
Approx. Chi-Square	5326.120
Df	1953
Sig.	.000
	Approx. Chi-Square

KMO test and Bartlett's test of sphericity were conducted to assess the suitability of the data for factor analysis. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was .751, indicating a moderate level of factorability, as values above .70 are considered acceptable for factor analysis. *Table 11*

Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (χ^2 = 5326.12, df=1953 p < .001) suggesting that the data were appropriate for factor analysis. These results indicate that the sample was adequate and the data met the necessary assumptions for conducting exploratory factor analysis.

Rotated Component Matrix

	Compone	Component		
	1	2	3	
ap1	.380	.148	073	
ap2	.291	.294		
ap3	.385	.167	.138	
ap4	.340	.281	.159	
ap5	.359	.172	.145	
ap6	.350	.119	.168	
ap7	.412		.065	
ap8	.453	.130	.069	
ap9	.451			
ap10	.439			
ap11	.268	.221		
ap12	.295	.249	.116	
ap13	.513			
ap14	.520		061	
ap15	.464		.106	
ap16	.512	087	.109	
ap17	.503	067	.097	
ap18	.355	.116	.143	
ap19	.316	.165		
ap20	.299	.160		
ap21	.359	.096	.115	
ap22	.449		.178	
ap23	.540	056	056	
ap24	.257	.190		
ap25	.358	.143	257	

	22.5		
p26	.526		
p27	.451	132	.222
p28	.503	214	
p29	.591	138	
p30	.450		
up31	.476		.110
pap32	.367	128	.185
p33	.386	.142	
tai2	.066	.492	125
tai 3	.114	.115	.343
tai4	.160	183	.408
tai5		.379	
stai6	.136	170	.502
stai7	.051	.079	.418
tai8	.057	.478	120
tai9	.116		.425
tai10	.172	192	.546
tai11	.104	.355	
tai12	.059		.509
tai13	.091	148	.476
tai14			.442
tai 15		.362	
tai 16		.448	.102
tai 17	152	.247	.463
tai 18		.091	.580
tai 19		.253	.401
tai 20		.461	
se 1		.569	131
gse2	116	.543	.064
rse3	.157	.371	
yse4		.382	.188
gse5	.055	.362	.217
yse6	093	.576	
yse7	.061	.427	
yse8		.564	
gse9		.474	
gse10		.517	
stai 1		.521	055

The principal component method is used to obtain the rotated component matrix and the rotation matrix was Varimax. The factor loadings were reported in table 11.

The table shows the results of the Rotated Component Matrix from the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation. The analysis reveals a three-factor solution, with distinct loadings for Academic Procrastination, Self-Efficacy and Anxiety. Items related to academic procrastination (AP) primarily loaded onto Component 1, while self-efficacy (GSE) items loaded onto Component 2, and anxiety (STAI) items

loaded onto Component 3. Some cross-loadings were observed, but the majority of items loaded strongly onto a single factor, indicating a clear distinction between the constructs. These outcomes confirm that the three-factor construction appropriately represents the underlying variables and is suitable for further analysis.

DISCUSSION

The present investigation meant to inspect the relationship between anxiety, academic procrastination and self-efficacy among university students in Karachi, while Pakistan, also exploring the moderating role of self-efficacy in the association among anxiety plus academic procrastination. The findings provided insights valuable into how these psychological constructs interact and influence academic behaviors, contributing to the present form of literature on student performance plus well-being.

The results in table 4 demonstrated a significant positive correlation between anxiety and academic procrastination, suggesting that students experiencing higher anxiety levels tend to procrastinate extra on educational responsibilities. This finding is reliable with previous researchers (Beutel et al., 2016; Carden, 2004; Ko & Chang, 2019; Vahedi et al., 2012; & Haycock et al., 1998, Milgram & Toubiana , 1999; & Rosario et al.,

2008, Tice & Baumeister, 1997), all of whom identified anxiety as a major forecaster of academic procrastination. A researcher also discovered that procrastination was strongly and consistently predicted by selfefficacy. He maintained that procrastination and low self-efficacy are closely connected to fear of failure, but that self-efficacy keep a direct influence on academic procrastination even when fear of failure is not present (Van Eerde's, 2003, Steel, 2007). Research considered the connection among selfefficacy, depression plus anxiety. The results indicated a adverse association between anxiety and depression and self-efficacy. One cognitive precondition for anxiety and depression is self-efficacy (Comunian, 1989). According to research, anxiety and selfefficacy are inversely correlated, indicating that lower anxiety is linked to higher levels of self-efficacy (Tahmassian & Jalali Moghadam, 2011, Barrows, Dunn, & Lloyd 2013).

Table 5 highlights the predictive relationships between anxiety, self-efficacy and academic procrastination. Conclusions recommend that while both anxiety and self-efficacy independently contribute to procrastination, their interaction has a moderating effect. Self-efficacy was also observed to be a significant forecaster of academic procrastination. study supports

Bandura's Self-Efficacy Theory, which recommends that persons with great selfefficacy exhibit greater confidence and persistence in task completion, reducing their tendency procrastinate to (Bandura, 1995). Researchers meta-analysis and their review further confirm a strong negative correlation amongst self-efficacy plus procrastination (Van Eerde, 2003; Steel, 2007). Similarly, research by researchers highlighted self-efficacy as a key determinant self-regulated academic behavior, reinforcing the meaning of confidence in academic achievement (Klassen& Kuzucu, 2009; Haycock et al. 1998).

Table 6 presents the outcomes of the moderation investigation examining the role of self-efficacy in the relationship between anxiety and academic procrastination. The findings indicate that anxiety meaningfully forecasts educational procrastination, higher anxiety levels are associated with increased academic procrastination. These findings align with prior research emphasizing selfefficacy as a defensive feature against anxiety related procrastination behaviors. The results were consistent with present works that demonstrated a positive correlation between anxiety and procrastination (Beutel et al;2016, Carden ;2004, Ko & Chang; 2019 & Vahedi et al; 2012, Haycock et al. 1998). Additionally, researches connected with this study, confirming that scholars with higher anxiety levels procrastinate more academic tasks (Milgram& Toubiana 1999; & Rosario et al. 2008, Tice & Baumeister, 1997). Regarding self-efficacy, the findings aligned with Bandura's Self-Efficacy Theory, which suggests that persons with great selfefficacy are extra confident and persistent in task completion, reducing procrastination tendencies (Bandura, 1995, Van Eerde, 2003; Steel, 2007, Klassen & Kuzucu ,2009; Haycock et al. 1998). The study's findings validated both hypotheses and reinforced the compound interaction amongst anxiety, procrastination and self-efficacy. These results underline the value of addressing psychological plus behavioral factors in educational interventions aimed at reducing educational procrastination amongst institution of higher education scholars. The current finding contributes to the growing body of literature emphasizing the protective role of self-efficacy in academic settings.

Table 7 shows that here is no major difference in academic procrastination between male and female university pupils. This finding is reliable with earlier research suggesting that educational procrastination is influenced more by personality traits and psychological factors rather than gender.

Researchers also found no major differences in educational procrastination levels between male and female pupils (Johnson & Bloom, 1995, Hess, Sherman, & Goodman, 2000). Additionally, emotional instability was known as a mediating influence, with individuals high in emotional instability being more prone to procrastination. These findings reinforce the disagreement that individual differences in personality and behavioral patterns play a more substantial role in procrastination than gender (Haycock, McCarty, & Skay, 1998). These findings support the decision that gender does not play major role in educational procrastination (Ferrari, 1991, Johnson & Bloom, 1995). Hess and his colleagues found that individual changes such as eveningness (a preference for late sleep and wake times) emotional instability were significant forecasters of procrastination than gender (Hess, Sherman, & Goodman, 2000, Haycock, McCarty, & Skay ,1998).

Table 8 displays that there is no major change in general self-efficacy between male and female university pupils. This conclusion supports with earlier research signifying that gender may not be a influential factor in self-efficacy across several academic and professional domains. Tiyuri and his colleagues likewise informed no

major difference in investigation self-efficacy amongst male and female postgraduate students, indicating that self-efficacy in academic settings may be influenced more by individual experiences and learning situations than by gender (Tiyuri et al, 2018, Ashrafi-Rizi et al. 2015). Some studies have knowledgeable gender changes in specific self-efficacy. For of areas example, investigation by Huang found that males generally shown higher self-efficacy in mathematics, science and technology subjects, while females recognized higher self-efficacy in verbal and humanities. Conversely, the study also mentioned no significant gender differences in social and health subjects, suggesting that gender disparities in selfefficacy are context dependent rather than universal (Huang, 2013, Zeldin, Britner, & 2008, Mohammed Pajares, et.al,2020, Sundari & Dasmo, 2014, Tiyuri et al, 2018 & Ashrafi-Rizi et al, 2015).

Table 9 shows that there is no major difference in state-trait anxiety amongst male and female university students. This result aligns with prior research suggesting that while anxiety levels may differ in specific contexts, overall state-trait anxiety does not significantly vary based on gender. A Researcher found no statistically significant differences in the anxiety levels of male and

female pupils, supporting the notion that anxiety is not inherently tied to gender (Akbayır 2019). Similarly, another study reported conflicting findings regarding mathematics anxiety, stating that while female students exhibited higher levels of mathematics anxiety particularly in more challenging subjects there was finally no statistically significant change in general math anxiety between male and female scholars. This reinforces the idea that while context-specific variations in anxiety may anxiety levels exist. general remain comparable across genders (Keshavarzi & Ahmadi, 2013).

Some studies have reported higher anxiety levels among females (Lewinsohn et al., 1998; Keshavarzi & Ahmadi, 2013), though these findings largely pertain to specific anxiety disorders or subject-specific anxieties, such as mathematics anxiety. The broader picture of general state-trait anxiety, as highlighted in the current study, suggests no significant gender differences, which supports with the findings of a researcher (Akbayır 2019). Although research indicates that women have a higher prevalence of diagnosed anxiety disorders with a male to female ratio of 1:1.7 to 1:1.79, this does not necessarily indicate a difference in everyday state-trait anxiety levels among students. The outcomes of the current study recommend that male and female students may experience similar levels of general anxiety reinforcing the idea that anxiety-related tendencies are influenced by factors beyond gender alone.

Lastly, the study found no significant change in state-trait anxiety between male and female scholars. This supports with findings by some researchers (Akbayır, 2019; Keshavarzi & Ahmadi, 2013), who reported no significant gender changes in overall anxiety levels, although some context specific variations were observed. While research indicates that women may have a higher prevalence of diagnosed anxiety disorders (Lewinsohn et al., 1998), this does not necessarily translate to differences in general state-trait anxiety among students.

Taken together, these findings suggest that while gender-based differences in anxiety may appear in specific academic or clinical contexts, state-trait anxiety as a general psychological characteristic does not significantly differ between males and females.

Table 10 displays the outcomes of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test and Bartlett's test of sphericity, which approve the suitability of the dataset for factor study. The KMO measure of test group sufficiency (.751)

indicates a moderate level of factorability telling that the data is suitable for identifying underlying factor structures. According to Kaiser (1974), KMO values above .70 are considered acceptable for factor analysis, supporting the adequacy of the sample in this study. Furthermore, Bartlett's test of sphericity was major ($\chi^2 = 5326.12$, df = 1953, p < .001), representative that the correlation matrix is not a uniqueness matrix, thus justifying application of factor analysis. These results recommend that the dataset meets the statistical essential assumptions for conducting exploratory factor analysis (EFA), ensuring that meaningful latent constructs can be extracted. Consequently, the results support the reliability of the data structure and its potential to reveal underlying dimensions related to the study variables.

Table 11 shows the results of the principal component analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation was led to discover the fundamental factor structure of the dataset. The rotated component matrix revealed a three-factor solution, indicating distinct constructs. The first component consisted primarily of academic procrastination (AP) items with strong factor loadings (e.g., ap13 = .513, ap14 = .520, ap29 = .591), suggesting that this factor represents Academic Procrastination. The second component

included general self-efficacy (GSE) and some State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) items with notable loadings (e.g., gse1 = .569, gse6 = .576, stai1 = .521), indicating that this factor represents Self-Efficacy. The third component was primarily composed of STAI items with high loadings (e.g., stai10 = .546, stai18 = .580, stai6 = .502), suggesting that this factor represents Anxiety. Although some items exhibited cross-loadings (e.g., stai4 = .160 on Factor 1, -.183 on Factor 2, and .408 on Factor 3), the majority of items loaded strongly onto a single factor, supporting the distinctiveness of the three components. These conclusions recommend that the three-factor structure effectively represents the constructs of Academic Procrastination, Self-Efficacy, and Anxiety, validating their use in subsequent analyses.

Taken together, the outcomes of this exploration emphasize complex interplay among anxiety, self-efficacy and academic procrastination. The outcomes high point the importance of nurturing self-efficacy in students to moderate the adverse effects of anxiety on procrastination. Moreover, the lack of significant gender differences suggests that academic procrastination, self-efficacy and anxiety are best understood through psychological and behavioral factors rather than inherent gender distinctions. Future

research should accept a longitudinal design to explore how anxiety, self-efficacy and academic procrastination interrelate and change over time. Experimental studies are also suggested to calculate the helpfulness of self-efficacy teaching programs in decreasing both procrastination and anxiety among students. To develop the applicability of future researches conclusions. should contain applicants from diverse cultural, socioeconomic and educational backgrounds. Furthermore, researchers should investigate larger psychological concepts including motivation, personality traits, perfectionism and resilience to improve an extra complete awareness of the influences contributing to procrastination.

Conclusion

The present study examined the relationships between anxiety, academic procrastination and self-efficacy amongst institution of higher education pupils in Karachi, Pakistan, while also exploring the

moderating part of self-efficacy in the connection between anxiety and academic procrastination. The conclusions exposed that greater levels of anxiety remained significantly connected with greater than before academic procrastination, approving investigation suggesting that previous students who involvement anxiety rise to delay academic tasks. As well, self-efficacy was found to moderate this relationship, its mean that students with greater self-efficacy were well talented to manage anxiety and procrastinate less. These findings match with prior studies suggesting that psychological traits rather than gender, show a more major part in influencing academic procrastination and anxiety. The results underline the importance of self-efficacy in moderating the negative influence of anxiety on academic behaviors, suggesting that interventions meant at improving self-efficacy could be helpful in decreasing procrastination amongst students.

References

Ahmad, A.; Safaria, (2013) T. Effects of Self-Efficacy on Students' Academic performance. J.

Educ. Health Commun. Psychol, 2, 22-29.

Akbayır, K. (2019). An Investigation About High School Students' Mathematics Anxiety

Level According To Gender. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 7(7), 4201. doi: 10.11114/jets.v7i7.4201.

Ashrafi-Rizi, H., Najafi, N. S. S., Kazempour, Z., & Taheri, B. (2015). Research self-efficacy among students of Isfahan University of Medical Sciences. *Journal of Education and Health Promotion*, 4(1), 26.

Assur, A. M. (2003). The relationship of academic procrastination to affective and cognitive components of subjective well-being (Doctoral dissertation, The New School for Social Research, New York). Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: the Sciences & Engineering, 63(8-B), 3968, US Univ Microfilms International.

Balkis, M,. & Duru, E. (2007). The evaluation of the major characteristics and aspects of the procrastination in the framework of psychological counseling and guidance. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, 2007.

Bandura, A (1977). Social learning theory. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura A. (1985). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory.

Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1995). Exercise of personal and collective efficacy in changing societies. In A.

Bandura (Ed.), Self-efficacy in changing societies (pp. 1-45). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Retrieved from

http://books.google.com/books?id=JbJnOAoLMNEC

Bandura A. (1997). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. New York, NY: Worth Publisher.

Barrows, J., Dunn, S., & Lloyd, C. A. (2013, October 1). Anxiety, Self-Efficacy, and College

Exam Grades. Universal Journal of Educational Research.

https://www.hrpub.org/journals/article_info.php?aid=559

Barrows, J., Dunn, S., & Lloyd, C. A. (2013, October 1). Anxiety, Self-Efficacy, and College

Exam Grades. Universal Journal of Educational Research.

https://www.hrpub.org/journals/article info.php?aid=559

Beutel, M. E., Klein, E. M., Aufenanger, S., Brähler, E., Dreier, M., Müller, K. W., ... &

Wölfling, K. (2016). Procrastination, distress and life satisfaction across the age range-a German representative community study. PloS one, 11(2), e0148054

Brownlow, S., & Reasinger, R. D. (2000). Putting off until tomorrow what is better done today: academic procrastination as a function of motivation toward college work. *Journal of Social Behavior & Personality*, 15(5).

Carden, R, BryantC, and Moss,R (2004). Locus of control, test anxiety, academic procrastination, and achievement among college students. Psychological Reports.

Charles D. Spielberger, Richard L. Gorsuch, and Robert E. Lushene in (1964) Copyright: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Chen, G., et al. (2019). Self-efficacy and academic motivation among Chinese students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 111(4), 631-641

Chu, A. H., & Choi, J. N. (2005). Rethinking procrastination: positive effects of "active" procrastination behavior on attitudes and performance. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 145, 245-264. doi:10.3200/SOCP.145.3.245-26.

Comunian, A. L. (1989). Some characteristics of relations among depression, anxiety, and self-efficacy. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 69(3-1), 755-764.

Ellis, A., & Knaus ,, W.J. (1977). Overcoming procrastination. New York: Signet Books.

Ferrari, J. R. (1991). Self-handicapping by procrastinators: Protecting self-esteem, social esteem, or both? *Journal of Research in Personality*, 25, 245-261.

Gredler, M. E. (1992). Learning and instruction: Theory into practice.

Grunschel, C., & Schopenhauer, L. (2015). Why Are Students (Not) Motivated to Change

Academic Procrastination? An Investigation Based on the Transtheoretical Model of Change.

Journal Of College Student Development, 56(2), 187-200. http://dx.doi.org/10.1353/csd.2015.0012

Haycock, L. A., McCarthy, P., & Skay, C. L. (1998). Procrastination in college students: The role of self-efficacy and anxiety. *Journal of counseling & development*, 76(3), 317-324.

Hess, B., Sherman, M. F., & Goodman, M. (2000). Eveningness predicts academic procrastination: The mediating role of neuroticism. *Journal of Social Behavior & Personality*, 15(5),61-74.

Hossain, M., Alam, A., Masum, M. H. (2022). Prevalence of anxiety, depression, and stress

among students of jahangirnagar University in Bangladesh. Health Science Reports, 5(2), published bywiley Periodicals LLC. https://doi.org/10.1002/hsr2.559

Huang, C. (2013). Gender differences in academic self-efficacy: A meta-analysis. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 28(3), 931-945.

Johnson, J. L., & Bloom, A. M. (1995). An analysis of the contribution of the five factors of personality to variance in academic procrastination. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 18(1), 127-133.

Keshavarzi, A., & Ahmadi, S. (2013). A comparison of mathematics anxiety among students by gender. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 83, 542-546.

Khan, M.S., Mahmood, S., Badshah, A., Ali, S. U., & Jamal, Y. (2006). Prevalence of depression, anxiety and their associated factors among medical students in Karachi, Pakistan. *Journal of the Pakistan Medical Association*, 56(12), 583.

Klassen, R., Krawchuk, L., & Rajani, S. (2008). Academic procrastination of undergraduates:

Low self-efficacy to self-regulate predicts higher levels of procrastination. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 33(4), 915-931.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2007.07.001

Klassen, R. M., & Kuzucu, E. (2009) Academic procrastination and motivation of adolescents in Turkey. *Educational Psychology*, 29, 69-81.

doi: 10.1080/01443410802478622.

Klingsieck, K. B. (2013). Procrastination. When good things don't come to those who wait.

European Psychologist, 18, 24-34. doi: 10.1027/1016-9040/a000138.

Klingsieck, K.B., (2013). Procrastination. European psychologist.

Klingsieck, K. (2013). Procrastination in Different Life-Domains: Is Procrastination Domain Specific? *Current Psychology*, 32(2), 175-185.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s12144-013-9171-8

Ko, C.A & Chang,Y (2019). Investigating the relationships among resilience, social anxiety, and procrastination in a sample of college students. *Psychological Reports*.

Lay, C. H., & Schouwenburg, H. C. (1993). Trait procrastination, time management, and academic behavior. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 8, 647–662.

Lazarus, R. S., & Averill, J. R. (1972). Emotion and cognition: With special reference to

- anxiety. In C. D. Spielberger (Ed.), Anxiety: Current trends in theory and research (pp. 241–283.). New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). Stress, appraisal, and coping. New York: Springer.
- Lee, P.C.; Mao, Z. (2016) The Relation among Self-Efficacy, Learning Approaches, and
- Academic Performance: An Exploratory Study. J. Teach. Travel Tour, 16, 178-194.
- Lewinsohn, P. M., Gotlib, I. H., Lewinsohn, M., Seeley, J. R., & Allen, N. B. (1998). Gender differences in anxiety disorders and anxiety symptoms in adolescents. *Journal of Abnormal*
 - Psychology, 107(1), 109-117.
- Liu, G., Cheng, G., Hu, J., Pan, Y., & Zhao, S. (2020). Academic Self-Efficacy and
- Postgraduate Procrastination: A Moderated Mediation Model. Frontiers in Psychology, 11(July), 1–9. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.0175
- Macher, D., Paechter, M., Papousek, I., & Ruggeri, K. (2012). Statistics anxiety, trait anxiety,
- learning behavior, and academic performance. European Journal of Psychological Education, 27, 483-498.
- Milgram.N & Toubiana, Y.E (1999). Academic anxiety, academic procrastination, and parental involvement in students and their parents. British *Journal of Educational PsychologyL*
- 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.
- Mohammadi Bytamar, J., Saed, O., & Khakpoor, S. (2020). Emotion Regulation Difficulties and Academic Procrastination. Frontiers in psychology, 11, 524588. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.524588
- Moon, S. M., & Illingworth, A. J. (2005). Exploring the dynamic nature of procrastination: A latent growth curve analysis of academic procrastination. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 38, 297–309. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2004.04.009.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Academic procrastination and statistics anxiety. Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 29(1), 3–19.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Jiao, Q. G. (2000). I'll go to the library later: The relationship between academic procrastination and library anxiety. College & Research Libraries, January, 45–54.
- Pajares, F. (2005). Gender differences in mathematics self-efficacy beliefs. In A. M.

Gallagher & J. C. Kaufman (Eds.), Gender differences in mathematics: An integrative psychological approach (pp. 294-315). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Pang, W. G., & Han, G. N. (2009). A Study on the Current Situation and Causes of Study Delay among College Students in China. *Tsinghua University Education Research*, 30, 59-65, 94. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1001-4519.2009.06.010.

Prat-Sala, M., & Redford, P. (2010). The interplay between motivation, self-efficacy, and approaches to studying. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80, 283–305. doi:10.1348/000709909X480563.

Przepiorka, A., Błachnio, A., & Siu, N. Y. F. (2019). The relationships between self-efficacy, self-control, chronotype, procrastination and sleep problems in young adults. *Chronobiology International*, 36(8), 1025–1035.

https://doi.org/10.1080/07420528.2019.1607370.

Reiss, S. (1991). Expectancy model of fear, anxiety, and panic. Clinical Psychology Review, 11, 141–153.

Rothblum, E. D., Solomon, L. J., & Murakami, J. (1986). Affective, cognitive, and behavioral differences between high and low procrastinators. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 33, 387–394.

Rosario, P. Nunez, J.C. Salgado, A. Gonz´alez-Pienda, J.A. Valle, A. Joly, C. &

Bernardo, A. (2008) [test anxiety: Associations with personal and family variables]. Psicothema,.

Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale. In J. Weinman, S.

Wright, & M.Johnston (Eds.), Measures in health psychology: Auser's portfolio. Causal and control beliefs (pp.35-37). Windsor, UK:NFER-NELSON.

Sesti, A. M. (2000). State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. In A. E. Kazdin (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of psychology* (Vol. 7, pp. 165–166). American Psychological Association & Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1037/10523-067

Singh, K., et al. (2018). Anxiety and academic performance among Indian students: A systematic review. *Journal of Educational Research*, 111(4), 419-428.

Solomon, L. J., & Rothblum, E. D. (1984). Procrastination Assessment Scale Students (PASS). In J. Fischer & K. Corcoran (Eds.), Measures for clinical practice (pp. 446-452). New York: The Free Press.

Solomon, L. J., & Rothblum, E. D. (1984). Academic procrastination: Frequency and cognitive-behavioural correlates. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 31, 503-509. Retrieved from

http://wwwrohan.sdsu.edu/~rothblum/doc_pdf/procrastination/AcademicProcrastinationFr equenc y.pdf

Solomon, L. J., & Rothblum, E. D. (1986). Procrastination: A review of the research.

Psychological Bulletin, 99(1), 46-64

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

Steel, P. (2012). The procrastination equation: How to stop putting things off and start getting stuff done. FT Press.

Steel, P., & Ferrari, J. (2013). Sex, education and procrastination: An epidemiological study of procrastinators' characteristics from a global sample. *European Journal of Personality*, 27, 51–58. doi:10.1002/per.1851.

Sundari, H., & Dasmo, D. (2014). The effect of speaking self-efficacy and gender in speaking activities. *Jurnal Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra*, 14(2), 205-215.

Syukur, F., Islam, U., & Walisongo, N. (2020). Internal Locus of Control. *Encyclopedia of Personality and Individual Differences*, 4(1), 2335–2335. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-24612-3-301360

Tahmassian, K., & Jalali Moghadam, N. (2011). Relationship between self-efficacy and symptoms of anxiety, depression, worry and social avoidance in a normal sample of students.

Iranian Journal of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, 5(2), 91.

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

Tiyuri, A., Saberi, B., Miri, M. R., Shahrestanaki, E., Bayat, B. B., & Salehiniya, H. (2018).

Research self-efficacy and its relationship with academic performance in postgraduate students of Tehran University of Medical Sciences. *Journal of Education and Health Promotion*, 7(1), 11

Vahedi,S. Farrokhi, F. Gahramani, & Issazadegan, A (2012). The relationship between procrastination, learning strategies and statistics anxiety among iranian college students: a canonical correlation analysis. *Iranian Journal of Psychiatry and Behavioral Science*.

Van Eerde, W. (2003) A meta-analytically derived nomological network of procrastination.

Personality and Individual Differences, 35, 1401-1418. doi: 10.1016/S0191-8869(02)00358-6

Wang, M., Qian, M. Y., Wang, W. Y., & Chen, R. Y. (2011). Effects of group counseling

based on self-efficacy for self-regulated learning in students with academic procrastination.

Chinese Mental Health Journal, 25, 921-926.

doi: 10.1037/t00741-000

World Health Organization. (2017). *Depression and other common mental disorders: Global health estimates* (WHO/MSD/MER/2017.2). World Health Organization.

https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/254610

Zeldin, A. L., Britner, S. L., & Pajares, F. (2008). A comparative study of the self-efficacy beliefs of successful men and women in mathematics, science, and technology careers. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 45(9), 1036-1058.

Zhang, R. Chen, Z. Xu, T. Zhang, L. and T. Feng, T (2020). The overlapping region in right hippocampus accounting for the link between trait anxiety and procrastination. Neuropsychologia, 2020.