CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND META ANALYSIS

- Theoretical overview of Cognitive Dissonance
- Studies related to Cognitive Dissonance
- Theoretical overview of Self Compassion
- Studies related to Self Compassion
- Theoretical Overview of Academic Procrastination
- Studies Related to Academic Procrastination
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter describes the underpinning theories of the variables and tries to provide better understanding of the concept and explores relationship between variables.

Review of related literature is an important part of any research. Review helps the researchers to gather up to date information about what has been done in the area of study. For any worthwhile study in any field of knowledge, the research worker needs an adequate familiarity to the work that has already been done in the area of his choice. Review of related literature avoids duplication of work that has already been done and it helps the investigation go deep into the problem at hand.

According to Good (1959) “review of related literature helps a researcher to give a deep insight to the design of the study. It helps to show whether the evidence already available solve the problem adequately without further investigation and others to avoid the risk of duplication.”

Identification of a problem, development of a research design, and determination of the size and scope of the problems, all depend to a great extent as the core and intensity with which a researcher has examined the literature related to the intended research. It also provide an insight into the method measures, subjects and approaches used by other research workers and can thus lead to significant improvement of the design.
The literature reviewed in the present study has been classified into the following heads.

- Theoretical overview of Cognitive Dissonance
- Studies related to Cognitive Dissonance
- Theoretical overview of Self Compassion
- Studies related to Self Compassion
- Theoretical Overview of Academic Procrastination
- Studies Related to Academic Procrastination

**Theoretical Overview of Cognitive Dissonance**

The term dissonance and consonance refer to relations which exists between pairs of elements. These elements refer to what has been called cognition, that is, the things a person knows about himself, about his behavior, about his surroundings. ‘These elements, then are “knowledges”, that is the plural form of the word. Some of these elements represent knowledge about oneself: what one does, what one feels, what one wants or desires, what one is, and the like. Other elements of knowledge concern the world in which one lives: what is where, what leads to what, what things are satisfying or painful or inconsequential or important etc’ (Festinger, 1957).

**Emergence of the concept**

Cognitive Dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) inspired an extraordinary amount of exciting research and theory, particularly during the two decades following its publication. Today, after a period of apparent waning, discussions and
revisions of dissonance theory are reappearing (e.g., Aronson, 1992, 1997; Beauvois & Joule, 1996; Goethals, 1992; Harmon-Jones, Brehm, Greenberg, Simon, & Nelson, 1996; Simon, Greenberg, & Brehm, 1995), and it has even been stated that the theory is set for a re-emergence (Aronson, 1992, 1997). The phenomenon of Cognitive Dissonance has been investigated through a long period of time, as it involves many areas of psychology such as attitudes and prejudice, moral cognition, decision making, happiness and therapy (Jones and Mills, 1999). However, despite deep interest, psychologists have only little understanding over Cognitive Dissonance up to date.

Festinger (1957) proposed the theory of Cognitive Dissonance. This theory centres around the idea that if a person knows various things that are not psychologically consistent with one another, he will, in a variety of ways, try to make them more consistent. The basic hypothesis of the theory stated as follows

1. The existence of dissonance, being psychologically uncomfortable, will motivate the person to try to reduce the dissonance and achieve consonance
2. When dissonance is present, in addition to trying to reduce it, the person will actively avoid situations and information which would likely increase the dissonance.

**Widening the concept**

Elliot Aronson, (1999) who was a student of Festinger, soon made some changes to the theory of Cognitive Dissonance. One of the changes he made was adding the idea that a person’s self-concept was at the heart of the conflicting
cognitions. Accordingly, “dissonance theory makes its strongest predictions when an important element of the self-concept is threatened, typically when a person performs a behavior that is inconsistent with his or her sense of self” (Aronson, 1999, p. 110). The concept of Cognitive Dissonance was also studied by Cooper and Fazio (1984). They proposed a different view of Cognitive Dissonance consisting of two parts; arousal and motivation. They explained how dissonance arousal is a "general and undifferentiated state of arousal" and how it was separate from the motivation to reduce dissonance (Cooper & Fazio, 1984, p. 256). Cooper and Fazio (1984) proposed that the motivation to reduce the dissonance is not due to conflicting cognitions, but instead occurs when the “individual labels his state of arousal negatively and attributes that arousal to his having freely produced an aversive consequence” (p. 256)

In other words, a person will only experience a tension, if they determine that what they are feeling is negative and that they also feel responsible for their actions causing unwanted negative results or foresee that their actions will cause unwanted negative results. Aronson (1999) states that he could never get himself to accept the idea that these aversive consequences were needed for the presence of dissonance. Later Aronson showed a study where participants were experiencing Cognitive Dissonance and no aversive consequences existed, thereby revalidating the original theory of conflicting cognitions as the cause of Cognitive Dissonance (Aronson, 1999, p. 120)
Cognitive Dissonance: unveiling core concept

Cognitive Dissonance is a condition that happens when an individual realizes they are holding two “inconsistent cognitions” (Festinger, 1957, p. 3). In example, a person could be thinking of two conflicting beliefs at the same time and experience Cognitive Dissonance. This Cognitive Dissonance then becomes a drive to reduce the dissonance and return to a state of harmony (Festinger, 1957). Festinger (1957) compares this to an individual feeling hunger and then becoming motivated to reduce their hunger. Cognitive Dissonance can happen when a person experiences new events or information which doesn’t match with an existing “knowledge, opinion or cognition concerning a behavior” (Festinger, 1957, p. 4). This can happen in decision making as well. When an individual makes a decision, their thinking about the steps they took will often conflict, to some degree, with their existing opinions or beliefs (Festinger, 1957, p. 5). Emergence of the Cognitive Dissonance presented in the following figure.
The inconsistency between Action and belief create dissonance. Either change belief or change action or change perception of action we can reduce the dissonance.

**Dissonance Elements**

Festinger (1957) saw dissonance and consonance as relationships between pairs of elements. He explained how “opinions” and “beliefs, values, or attitudes” are all examples of “knowledges” or “elements of cognition” (p. 10). These elements represent various different ideas. For example some elements represent "knowledge about oneself: what one does, what one feels, what one wants or desires, what one is, and the like", while other elements represent "knowledge concerning the world in which one lives: what is where, what leads to what, what things are satisfying or painful or inconsequential or important" (Festinger, 1957, p. 9). When comparing two elements, they need to be relevant to each other and the relationship between them is either “dissonant” or “consonant” (Festinger, 1957, p. 15). When looking at the dissonant relationship, Festinger explains that "two elements are in a dissonant..."
relation if, considering these two alone, the obverse of one element would follow from the other” (Festinger, 1957, p. 5). For example, when someone knows ‘I’m weak in public speaking’ but at the same time turn to speak in school assembly’. The cognitive element “I’m weak in public speaking” would then be in dissonance with the cognitive element “It is my turn to speak in school assembly”.

In Adlerian psychology this is similar to the concept of one’s private world, which Mosak and Maniacci (1999) explains as including the following: (a) thoughts, (b) attitudes, (c) beliefs, and (d) convictions (p. 121). Therefore if any of these cognitions are in conflict with each other Cognitive Dissonance would occur. For example one could have a belief ‘I believe that I have the ability to solve my problems without depending on others’ but the action is ‘I seek the guidance of others in some difficult situations’. Here action is contradict with belief. Festinger (1957) also gave an example of a person choosing to continue playing a card game and losing money while knowing that the others at the table are professionals. In this case, the knowledge about the professionals would be dissonant with cognition about the person’s behavior. It is thought that all individuals carry around conflicting beliefs in their belief system (Rokeach, 1960). However, these cognitions need to be held at the same time in order to create Cognitive Dissonance (Festinger, 1957)

**Categories for Inconsistencies**

There are many categories of cognitions or elements that can be in conflict with each other. Rokeach (1968) expanded this idea when he documented additional categories of beliefs and showed all the possible interactions that could create Cognitive Dissonance. Rokeach (1968) referenced Festinger as being mostly
focused on conflicts between attitude and cognitions about behavior (p. 21). Rokeach (1968) described his work as going above other consistency theories in that he was interested in all the different types of conflicting cognitions that a person might experience (p. 20). Rokeach (1968) describes seven different types of categories that could conflict with each other as follows: (a) Attitude, (b) Attitude system, (c) Instrumental value system, (d) Terminal value system, (e) Cognitions about own behavior, (f) Cognitions about significant others’ attitudes, values, motives, or behavior, and finally (g) Cognitions about behavior or non-social objects (p. 20).

**Magnitude of Dissonance**

When Cognitive Dissonance does occur, there is a way to measure the amount or how much is the intensity of dissonance. Festinger (1957) explains that the amount of dissonance is related to how many elements there are as well as how valuable each one is to a person. To use higher secondary school student, if this student put less value on the cognitive element that “I have interested in leadership and I can lead the group activities in our classroom. then the amount of dissonance would also be reduced. To use another example, It is necessary to attend all class in order to achieve great success. I can’t make use of many classes because of the interactions or entertainments with my fellow students or peers. Here probably be a large discrepancy between the importance of the belief in charity and the value of his behavior. He would then experience a large amount of Cognitive Dissonance.

All dissonant relations, of course, are not of equal magnitude. It is necessary to distinguish degrees of dissonance and to specify what determines how strong a
given dissonant relation is. We will briefly discuss some determinants of the magnitude of dissonance between two elements and then turn to a consideration of the total amount of dissonance which may exist between two clusters of elements.

Festinger (1957) notes that other cognitive elements also need to be taken into account when measuring amount of Cognitive Dissonance, such as “the total amount of dissonance that exists between two clusters of cognitive elements is a function of the weighted proportion of all relevant relations between the two clusters that are dissonant” (p. 18). Therefore, you would take into account all cognitive elements in a cluster when looking for the total amount of Cognitive Dissonance. The cognitive element that “I should be successful” on one side of the equation and the cognitive elements; “I am going to miss the deadline” and “I’m not going to graduate” might be on the other side. Then, accounting for the value placed on each element, one can calculate the amount of Cognitive Dissonance. This amount then determines the strength of the tension for an individual (Festinger, 1957).

Since Cognitive Dissonance can be from more than two conflicting cognitions, the amount of working memory could restrict the number of cognitions that can be held at one time (Gawronski, 2012). For example if you can only hold two cognitions at the same time then adding additional consonant cognitions to one side of the equation would not be an option. This could have implications for individuals with cognitive impairments In one study, a higher amount of Cognitive Dissonance was shown to be correlated with one choosing to respond with voidance mechanisms” to reduce dissonance (Kumpf & Gotz-Marchand, 1973, p. 5).
One might then wonder, since “avoidance mechanisms” are less likely to be selected when Cognitive Dissonance is low (compared to when Cognitive Dissonance is high), if this might leave room for “confrontation mechanisms” as a more available option. Freedman (1964) supported this concept when he studied the relationship between the amount of Cognitive Dissonance and the change of an individual’s opinion. More specifically, that when an individual placed a high value on an opinion, changing that opinion was easier at lower levels of Cognitive Dissonance than at higher levels.

In addition Freeman (1964) explained that when Cognitive Dissonance increased, changing one’s opinion became more difficult and thus it was easier to reject new information (p. 294). The “confrontation mechanisms” measured in the
Kumpf and Gotz-Marchand. (1973) study, were “changing one’s attitude (conformity)” and “devaluation of the importance of the issue” (p. 2). Kumpf and Gotz-Marchand (1973) explains other “confrontation mechanisms” as the following: (a) reduction of ego-involvement, (b) behavioral change, and (c) influence attempts (p. 256).

When the amount of Cognitive Dissonance increases, the use of “avoidance mechanisms” also increased. Kumpf and Gotz-Marchand. (1968) referenced Kelman and Baron (1968) in their discussion of avoidance versus confrontation mechanisms. Avoidance mechanisms are defined as “responses that imply ‘turning the back’ on the newly introduced inconsistency through distortion of reality or selective interpretation” (Kumpf & Gotz-Marchand, 1973, p. 256). This correlates well with the Adlerian idea that when events challenge a person’s lifestyle that they might use “selective perception” to “filter out, reconstruct, or reinterpret the events so that they do not threaten the cherished set of rules” (Shulman & Mosak, 1995, p. 19).

This study measured the avoidant mechanisms of “derogation of source” and “under recall (distortion of the result in a favorable direction)” (Kumpf & Gotz-Marchand, 1973, p. 259). Kumpf and Gotz-Marchand (1973) explain the other “avoidance mechanisms” as the following: (a) denial, (b) distortion, and (c) rationalization (p. 256). Individuals use “avoidance mechanism” to “distort reality” or “selectively interpret the new information” (Kumpf & Gotz-Marchand, 1973, p. 256). This idea of “avoidance mechanisms” fits well with the Adlerian perspective that people hold tight to their beliefs, because adjusting their beliefs might cause them to be seen by others as less than they already think themselves to be (Carlson
et al., 2006, p. 90). This also correlates well with belief systems theory in that one of the purposes of belief disbelief systems is to fight off “threatening aspects of reality” (Rokeach, 1960, p. 67).

In other words, when an individual is exposed to new information that conflicts with their existing beliefs it could be perceived as a threat and would then create Cognitive Dissonance. The more the amount of Cognitive Dissonance there is, the more psychological discomfort there would be (Elliot & Devine, 1994). If this individual had a high “need to ward off threat” they would then have a low “cognitive need to know” (Rokeach, 1960). As we now turn our attention to cognitive rigidity, it is important to note that Cognitive Dissonance or psychological discomfort has been correlated with state anxiety (Menasco & Hawkins, 1978). Anxiety in turn has been correlated with the cognitive distortion all-or-none thinking (Burns, 1980).

Most recently, Gawronski (2012) helped to bring the focus back to Festinger’s original theory of Cognitive Dissonance, reminding us that “inconsistencies serve as an epistemic cue for errors in one’s system of beliefs” (p. 653) and that the inconsistent elements “have to be understood as propositional beliefs about states of affairs” (p. 654). Gawronski (2012) also reminds us about dissonance and how it is “a desire to reduce the underlying inconsistency and to maintain a state of consonance” (p. 652). Overall, there appears to be many theories on Cognitive Dissonance, but regardless of what theory you look at, they all seem to agree that Cognitive Dissonance does exist.
Since the magnitude of dissonance is an important variable in determining the pressure to reduce dissonance, and since we will deal with measures of the magnitude of dissonance repeatedly in considering data, it may be well to summarize our discussion concerning the magnitude of dissonance.

1. If two cognitive elements are relevant, the relation between them is either dissonant or consonant.

2. The magnitude of the dissonance (or consonance) increases as the importance or value of the elements increases.

3. The total amount of dissonance that exists between two clusters of cognitive elements is a function of the weighted proportion of all relevant relations between the two clusters that are dissonant. The term “weighted proportion” is used because each relevant relation would be weighted according to the importance of the elements involved in that relation.

**Cognitive Dissonance as a motivational factor**

Elliot and Devine (1994) found that Cognitive Dissonance was felt as psychological discomfort and would eventually drive one to reduce dissonance. This supported Festinger’s (1957) original theory. The experimental study reveals that Cognitive Dissonance act as motivational factor. The results showed that Cognitive Dissonance was a motivational state. The study also concluded that individuals feel Cognitive Dissonance as psychological discomfort (Elliot & Devine, 1994)

In Adlerian psychology, a similar concept is seen in “inferiority feelings”. Inferiority feelings “evoke self-evaluation of the individual’s being worth less than
others” (Clark, 1999, p. 75). Adler (1935) explains how people respond to these feelings of inferiority by “striving to overcome” (p. 356). Clark (1999) also explains how Adler saw people as using “safeguarding tendencies” as a way to “rid themselves of those feelings of inferiority which threaten their self-esteem” (p. 75). For example one might use “selective perception” as a way to ignore certain aspects of an event so that it doesn’t challenge their lifestyle (Shulman & Mosak, 1995, p. 19). These Adlerian concepts correlate well with Cognitive Dissonance.

We have seen how Cognitive Dissonance is felt as psychological discomfort (or unpleasant emotion). Another study explains how defense mechanisms help to protect an individual from unpleasant emotions that are associated with threatening information. This study found that expressing one’s unpleasant emotions would actually bypass the need to use any defense mechanism as a way to reduce the amount of Cognitive Dissonance (Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Soloman, Sideris, & Stubing, 1993). The following figure represents the diagrammatic representation of how psychological discomfort arises.
Figure 3: Steps in Cognitive Dissonance

Reasons for Cognitive Dissonance:

The Cognitive Dissonance is a phenomenon that is based on having two opposing ideas or Incompatible on the same aspect. It may cause states of tension, discomfort or discomfort by not being able to harmonize what we think and what we do. The term of dissonance was coined by Leon Festinger in 1957 through the publication of his theory of Cognitive Dissonance. The central point of the work consisted in affirming that human beings seek a state of harmony in their cognitions, that is, in their thoughts, Opinions or Beliefs About the world and about themselves. The major reasons for Cognitive Dissonance as follows;
a) **Adding new information**

New events may happen or new information may be come known to a person, creating at least a momentary dissonance with existing knowledge, opinion, or cognition concerning behavior. Since a person does not have complete and perfect control over the information that reaches him and over events that can happen in his environment, such dissonances may easily arise. Also even in the absence of new, unforeseen events or information, the existence of dissonance is undoubtedly an everyday condition. Very few things are all black or all white; very few situations are clear cut enough so that opinions or behaviors are not to some extent a mixture of contradictions.

Where an opinion must be formed or a decision taken, some dissonance is almost unavoidably created between the cognition of the action taken and those opinions or knowledges which tend to point to a different action. In a wide variety of situations in which dissonance is nearly unavoidable. But it remains for us to examine the circumstances under which dissonance, once arisen, persists.

b) **Logical Inconsistency**

Dissonance could arise from logical inconsistency. If a person believed that man will reach the moon in the near future and also believed that man will not be able to build a device that can leave the atmosphere of the earth, these two cognitions are dissonant with one another. The observe of one follows from the other on logical grounds in the person’s own thinking process.
Another situation in dissonance arises because of cultural mores. If a person at a formal dinner uses his hands to pick up a recalcitrant chicken bone, the knowledge of what he is doing is dissonant with the knowledge of formal dinner etiquette. The dissonance exists simply because the culture defines what is consonant and what is not. In some other culture, these two cognitions might not be dissonant at all.

c) Opinion of Others

Dissonance may arise because one specific opinion is sometimes included, by definition, in a more general opinion. Thus, if a person is a Democrat but in a given election prefers the Republican candidate, the cognitive elements corresponding to these two sets of opinions are dissonant with each other because “being a Democrat” includes, as part of the concept, favoring Democratic candidates.

d) Past Experience

Dissonance may arise because of past experience. If a person were standing in the rain and yet could see no evidence that he was getting wet, these two cognitions would be dissonant with one another because he knows from experience that getting wet follows from being out in the rain. If one can imagine a person who had never had any experience with rain, these two cognitions would probably not be dissonant.
The Reduction of Dissonance

The strength of the pressure to reduce the dissonance is a function of the magnitude of the dissonance. The presence of dissonance leads to action to reduce it just as, for example, the presence of hunger leads to action to reduce the hunger. Also, similar to the action of a drive, the greater the dissonance, the greater will be the intensity of the action to reduce the dissonance and the greater the avoidance of situations that would increase the dissonance.

In order to be specific about how the pressure to reduce dissonance would manifest itself, it is necessary to examine the possible ways in which existing dissonance can be reduced or eliminated. In general if dissonance exists between two elements, this dissonance can be eliminated by changing one of those elements. The important thing is how these changes may be brought about. There are various possible ways in which this can be accomplished, depending upon the type of cognitive elements involved and upon the total cognitive context.

Changing Behavioral Cognitive Element

The simplest and easiest way in which this may be accomplished is to change the action or feeling which the behavioral element represents. Given that a cognition is responsive to “reality” (as we have seen), if the behavior of the organism changes, the cognitive element or elements corresponding to this behavior will likewise change. This method of reducing or eliminating dissonance is a very frequent occurrence. Our behavior and feelings are frequently modified in accordance with new information. If a person starts out on a picnic and notices that it has begun to
rain, he may very well turn around and go home. There are many persons who do stop smoking if and when they discover it is bad for their health.

**Changing an Environmental Cognitive Element**

Just as it is possible to change a behavioral cognitive element by changing the behavior which this element mirrors, it is sometimes possible to change an *environmental* cognitive element by changing the situation to which that element corresponds. This, of course, is much more difficult than changing one's behavior, for one must have a sufficient degree of control over one's environment - a relatively rare occurrence.

Changing the environment itself in order to reduce dissonance is more feasible when the social environment is in question than when the physical environment is involved. In order to illustrate rather dramatically the kind of thing that would be involved, it is possible by explaining an hypothetical example.

Whenever there is sufficient control over the environment, this method of reducing dissonance may be employed. For example, a person who is habitually very hostile toward other people may surround himself with persons who provoke hostility. His cognitions about the persons with whom he associates are then consonant with the cognitions corresponding to his hostile behavior.

If a cognitive element that is responsive to reality is to be changed without changing the corresponding reality, some means of ignoring or counteracting the real situation must be used. This is sometimes well-nigh impossible, except in extreme cases which might be called psychotic. If a person is standing in the rain
and rapidly getting soaked, he will almost certainly continue to have the cognition that it is raining no matter how strong the psychological pressures are to eliminate that cognition. In other instances it is relatively easy to change a cognitive element although the reality remains the same. For example, a person might be able to change his opinion about a political officeholder even though the behavior of that officeholder, and the political situation generally, remain unchanged. Usually, for this to occur, the person would have to be able to find others who would agree with and support his new opinion. In general, establishing a social reality by gaining the agreement and support of other people is one of the major ways in which a cognition can be changed when the pressure to change it are present. It can readily be seen that where such social support is necessary, the presence of dissonance and the consequent pressures to change some cognitive element will lead to a variety of social processes.

**Adding New Cognitive Elements**

It is clear that in order to eliminate a dissonance completely, some cognitive element must be changed. It is also clear that this is not always possible. But even if it is impossible to eliminate a dissonance, it is possible to reduce the total magnitude of dissonance by adding new cognitive elements. Thus, for example, if dissonance existed between some cognitive elements concerning the effects of smoking and cognition concerning the behavior of continuing to smoke, the total dissonance could be reduced by adding new cognitive elements that are consonant with the fact of smoking. In the presence of such dissonance, then, a person might be expected to actively seek new information that would reduce the total dissonance and, at the
same time, to avoid new information that might increase the existing dissonance. Thus, to pursue the example, the person might seek out and avidly read any material critical of the research which purported to show that smoking was bad for one's health. At the same time he would avoid reading material that praised this research. (If he unavoidably came in contact with the latter type of material, his reading would be critical indeed.)

Actually, the possibilities for adding new elements which would reduce the existing dissonances are broad. Our smoker, for example, could find out all about accidents and death rates in automobiles. Having then added the cognition that the danger from smoking is negligible compared to the danger he runs driving a car, his dissonance would also have been somewhat reduced. Here the total dissonance is reduced by reducing the importance of the existing dissonance.

The above discussion has pointed to the possibility of reducing the total dissonance with some element by reducing the proportion of dissonant as compared with consonant relations involving that element. It is also possible to add a new cognitive element which, in a sense, “reconciles” two elements that are dissonant. Let us consider an example from the literature to illustrate this. Spiro (Ghosts and Spiro, 1953) gives an account of certain aspects of the belief system of the Ifalluk, a non literate society. The relevant points for our purposes here are as follows:

1. In this culture there is a firm belief that people are good. This belief is not only that they should be good but that they are good.
2. For one reason or another, young children in this culture go through a period of particularly strong overt aggression, hostility, and destructiveness.
It seems clear that the belief about the nature of people is dissonant with the knowledge of the behavior of the children in this culture. It would have been possible to reduce this dissonance in any number of ways. They might have changed their belief about the nature of people or have modified it so that people are wholly good only at maturity. Or they might have changed their ideas about what is and what is not “good” so that overt aggression in young children would be considered good. Actually, the manner of reducing the dissonance was different. A third belief was added which effectively reduced the dissonance by “reconciliation.” Specifically, they also believe in the existence of malevolent ghosts which enter into persons and cause them to do bad things.

As a result of this third belief, the knowledge of the aggressive behavior of children is no longer dissonant with the belief that people are good. It is not the children who behave aggressively - it's the malevolent ghosts. Psychologically, this is a highly satisfactory means of reducing the dissonance, as one might expect when such belief are institutionalized at a cultural level. Unsatisfactory solutions would not be as successful in becoming widely accepted.

Before moving on, it is worth while to emphasize again that the presence of pressures to reduce dissonance, or even activity directed toward such reduction, does not guarantee that the dissonance will be reduced. A person may not be able to find the social support needed to change a cognitive element, or he may not be able to find new elements which reduce the total dissonance. In fact, it is quite conceivable that in the process of trying to reduce dissonance, it might even be increased. This will depend upon what the person encounters while attempting to reduce the
dissonance. The important point to be made so far is that in the presence of a dissonance, one will be able to observe the attempts to reduce it. If attempts to reduce dissonance fail, one should be able to observe symptoms of psychological discomfort, provided the dissonance is appreciable enough so that the discomfort is clearly and overtly manifested.

**Resistance to Reduction of Dissonance**

If dissonance is to be reduced or eliminated by changing one or more cognitive elements, it is necessary to consider how resistant these cognitive elements are to change. Whether or not any of them change, and if so, which one's will certainly be determined in part by the magnitude of resistance to change which they possess. It is, of course, clear that if the various cognitive elements involved had no resistance to change whatsoever, there would never be any lasting dissonances. Momentary dissonance might occur, but if the cognitive elements involved had no resistance to change, the dissonance would immediately be eliminated. Let us, then, look at the major sources of resistance to change of a cognitive element.

Just as the reduction of dissonance presented somewhat different problems depending upon whether the element to be changed was a behavioral or an environmental one, so the major sources of resistance to change are different for these two classes of cognitive elements.
Resistance to Change of Behavioral Cognitive Elements

The first and foremost source of resistance to change for any cognitive elements is the responsiveness of such elements to reality. If one sees that the grass is green, it is very difficult to think it is not so. If a person is walking down the street, it is difficult for his cognition not to contain an element corresponding to this. Given, this strong, and, sometimes overwhelming responsiveness to reality, the problem of changing a behavioral cognitive element becomes the problem of changing the behavior which is being mapped by the element. Consequently, the resistance to change of the cognitive element is identical with the resistance to change of the behavior reflected by that element, assuming that the person maintains contact with reality.

Certainly much behavior has little or no resistance to change. We continually modify many of our actions and feelings in accordance with changes in the situation. If a street which we ordinarily use when we drive to work is being repaired, there is usually little difficulty in altering our behavior and using a different route. What, then, are the circumstances that make it difficult for the person to change his actions?

1. The change may be painful or involve loss. A person may, for example, have spent a lot of money to purchase a house. If for any reason he now wants to change, that is, live in a different house or different neighborhood, he must endure the discomforts of moving and the possible financial loss involved in selling the house. A person who might desire to give up smoking must endure the discomfort and pain of the cessation in order to accomplish the change. Clearly, in such circumstances
there will be a certain resistance to change. The magnitude of this resistance to change will be determined by the extent of pain or loss which must be endured.

2. The present behavior may be otherwise satisfying. A person might continue to have lunch at a certain restaurant even though they served poor food if, for example, his friends always ate there. Or a person who is very domineering and harsh toward his children might not easily be able to give up the satisfactions of being able to boss someone, even if on various grounds he desired to change. In such instances, of course, the resistance to change would be a function of the satisfaction obtained from the present behavior.

3. Making the change may simply not be possible. It would be a mistake to imagine that a person could consummate any change in his behavior if he wanted to badly enough. It may not be possible to change for a variety of reasons. Some behavior, especially emotional reactions, may not be under the voluntary control of the person. For example, a person might have a strong reaction of fear which he can do nothing about. Also, it might not be possible to consummate a change simply because the new behavior may not be in the behavior repertory of the person. A father might not be able to change the way he behaves toward his children simply because he doesn't know any other way to behave. A third circumstance which could make it impossible to change is the irrevocable nature of certain actions. If, for example, a person has sold his house and then decides he wants it back, there is nothing that can be done if the new owner refuses to sell it. The action has been taken and is not reversible. But under circumstances where the behavior simply cannot change at all, it is not correct to say that the resistance to change of the
corresponding cognitive element is infinite. The resistance to change which the cognitive element possesses can, of course, not be greater than the pressure to respond to reality.

**Resistance to Change of Environmental Cognitive Elements**

Here again, as with behavioral cognitive elements, the major source of resistance to change lies in the responsiveness of these elements to reality. The result of this, as far as behavioral elements go, is to tie the resistance to change of the cognitive element to the resistance to change of the reality, namely, the behavior itself. The situation is somewhat different with regard to environmental elements. When there is a clear and unequivocal reality corresponding to some cognitive element, the possibilities of change are almost nil. If one desired, for example, to change one's cognition about the location of some building which one saw every day, this would indeed be difficult to accomplish.

In many instances, however, the reality corresponding to the cognitive element is by no means so clear and unambiguous. When the reality is basically a social one, that is, when it is established by agreement with other people, the resistance to change would be determined by the difficulty of finding persons to support the new cognition.

There is another source, of resistance to change of both behavioral and environmental cognitive elements. We have postponed discussion of it until now, however, because it is a more important source of resistance to change for environmental elements than for others. This source of resistance lies in the fact that
an element is in relationship with a number of other elements. To the extent that the element is consonant with a large number of other elements and to the extent that changing it would replace these consonances with dissonances, the element will be resistant to change.

The above discussion is not meant to be an exhaustive analysis of resistance to change or a listing of conceptually different sources. Rather, it is a discussion which attempts to make distinctions that will help operationally rather than conceptually. In considering any dissonance and the resistance to change of the elements involved, the important factor in the attempt to eliminate the dissonance by changing an element is the total amount of resistance to change; the source of resistance is immaterial.

**Limits of the Magnitude of Dissonance**

The maximum dissonance that can possibly exist between any two elements is equal to the total resistance to change of the less resistant element. The magnitude of dissonance cannot exceed this amount because, at this point of maximum possible dissonance, the less resistant element would change, thus eliminating the dissonance.

This does not mean that the magnitude of dissonance will frequently even approach this maximum possible value. When there exists a strong dissonance that is less than the resistance to change of any of the elements involved, this dissonance can perhaps still be reduced for the total cognitive system by adding new cognitive elements. In this way, even in the presence of very strong resistances to change, the total dissonance in the system could be kept at rather low levels.
Consider an example of a person who spends what for him is a very large sum of money for a new car of an expensive type. Let us also imagine that after purchasing it he finds that some things go wrong with it and that repairs are very expensive. It is also more expensive to operate than other cars, and what is more, he finds that his friends think the car is ugly. If the dissonance becomes great enough, that is, equal to the resistance to change of the less resistant element, which in this situation would probably be the behavioral element, he might sell the car and suffer whatever inconvenience and financial loss is involved. Thus the dissonance could not exceed the resistance the person has to changing his behavior, that is, selling the car.

Consider the situation where the dissonance for the person who bought a new car was appreciable but less than the maximum possible dissonance, that is, less than the resistance to change of the less resistant cognitive element. None of the existing cognitive elements would then be changed, but he could keep the total dissonance low by adding more and more cognitions that are consonant with his ownership of the car. He begins to feel that power and riding qualities are more important than economy and looks. He begins to drive faster than he used to and becomes quite convinced that it is important for a car to be able to travel at high speed. With these cognitions and others, he might succeed in rendering the dissonance negligible.

It is also possible, however, that his attempts to add new consonant cognitive elements would prove unsuccessful and that his financial situation is such that he could not sell the car. It would still be possible to reduce the dissonance by what also amounts to adding a new cognitive element, but of a different kind. He can admit to
himself, and to others, that he was wrong to purchase the car and that if he had it to do over again, he would buy a different kind. This process of divorcing himself psychologically from the action can and does materially reduce the dissonance. Sometimes, however, the resistances against this are quite strong. The maximum dissonance which could exist would, in such circumstances, be determined by the resistance to admitting that he had been wrong or foolish.

**Avoidance of Dissonance**

The discussion thus far has focused on the tendencies to reduce or eliminate dissonance and the problems involved in achieving such reduction. Under certain circumstances there are also strong and important tendencies to avoid increases of dissonance or to avoid the occurrence of dissonance altogether. Let us now turn our attention to a consideration of these circumstances and the manifestations of the avoidance tendencies which we might expect to observe. The avoidance of an increase in dissonance comes about, of course, as a result of the existence of dissonance. This avoidance is especially important where, in the process of attempting to reduce dissonance, support is sought for a new cognitive element to replace an existing one or where new cognitive elements are to be added. In both these circumstances, the seeking of support and the seeking of new information must be done in a highly selective manner. A person would initiate discussion with someone he thought would agree with the new cognitive element but would avoid discussion with someone who might agree with the element that he was trying to change. A person would expose himself to sources of information which he expected
would add new elements which would increase consonance but would certainly avoid sources which would increase dissonance.

If there is little or no dissonance existing, we would not expect the same kind of selectivity in exposure to sources of support or sources of information. In fact, where no dissonance exists there should be a relative absence of motivation to seek support or new information at all. This will be true in general, but there are important exceptions. Past experience may lead a person to fear, and hence to avoid, the initial occurrence of dissonance. Where this is true, one might expect circumspect behavior with regard to new information even when little or no dissonance is present to start with.

The operation of a fear of dissonance may also lead to a reluctance to commit oneself behaviorally. There is a large class of actions that, once taken, are difficult to change. Hence, it is possible for dissonances to arise and to mount in intensity. A fear of dissonance would lead to a reluctance to take action - a reluctance to commit oneself. Where decision and action cannot be indefinitely delayed, the taking of action may be accompanied by a cognitive negation of the action. Thus, for example, a person who buys a new car and is very afraid of dissonance may, immediately following the purchase, announce his conviction that he did the wrong thing. Such strong fear of dissonance is probably relatively rare, but it does occur. Personality differences with respect to fear of dissonance and the effectiveness with which one is able to reduce dissonance are undoubtedly important in determining whether or not such avoidance of dissonance is likely to happen. The
operational problem would be to independently identify situations and persons where this kind of a priori self-protective behavior occurs.

**Studies Related to Cognitive Dissonance**

Guerra and Wubbena (2017) conducted a study on Teacher Beliefs and Classroom Practices Cognitive Dissonance in High Stakes Test-Influenced Environments. In this study, the authors qualitatively investigate, through the theoretical perspective of Cognitive Dissonance, the relationship between teacher beliefs and their associated teacher practices at two public elementary schools with diverse student populations. The study revealed that beliefs (culturally proficient beliefs, deficit beliefs) do teachers hold about teaching students, the relationship among culturally proficient beliefs, deficit beliefs, and teacher practices in the classroom.

Oduh (2016) conducted a study on Dimensions of Cognitive Dissonance and the Level of Job Satisfaction among Counsellors in Delta and Edo States, Nigeria. This study was conducted by three research questions and one null hypothesis. The design of the study was correlational survey. The sample of the study was 158 practicing counselors in public secondary schools in Delta and Edo states. The tool used for data collection was the Counsellor's Dissonance and Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (CDJSQ). The result shows that the dimensions of Cognitive Dissonance are significantly related to the level of satisfaction of counsellors on the job.
Rose (2015) conducted a study on Resistance Is Futile: Cognitive Dissonance, Temporal Refusal, and the E-Learning Environment as Cyborg. Two social scientific concepts are revisited in this analysis: Cognitive Dissonance (social psychology) and temporal refusal (critical sociology). In this study revealed that a critical reflexivity in teachers to identify and take advantage of opportunities to resist the absorption of distinctiveness in the online educational environment.

Al Qtaibi (2015) conducted a study on Cognitive Dissonance and its Relationship to Self-Concept and Academic Achievement among Male and Female Students of Umm Al-Qura University. The present study addressed a number of goals, most important of which is to know the nature of the relationship between the dimensions of Cognitive Dissonance, self- concept and academic achievement among students of Umm Al-Qura University. The final sample consisted of (330) male and female students at the University of Umm Al Qura. The study used the DISS-R (Chow, Cassel &amp; Reiger, 2001) and the Self-Concept of Minsi(1987) along with the GPA of all the students. Results shows that on inverse correlation between Cognitive Dissonance, self- concept and academic achievement.

Corradi Clarebout and Elen (2015) conducted a study on Cognitive Dissonance as an Instructional Tool for Understanding Chemical Representations this study was conducted on 133 learners. The results provide insight into three separate mechanisms of learning with MER. (1) A memory (number of ideas reproduced) and (2) an accuracy (correctness of these ideas) effects occur when two representations are presented in a sequence. An accuracy and a (3) redundancy (number of redundant ideas remembered) effects occur when three representations
are presented in a sequence. The identified effects are analyzed in terms of the concept of Cognitive Dissonance.

Cincera (2013) conducted a study on Managing Cognitive Dissonance: Experience from an Environmental Education Teachers' Training Course in the Czech Republic. This study was conducted on a qualitative evaluation of seven in-service environmental education teacher training courses conducted in the Czech Republic in 2009-2011. The evaluation applied a grounded theory approach. 14 focus groups, 13 interviews and two post-programme questionnaires were used. The evaluation describes a process of managing Cognitive Dissonance between the participants' concepts of effective teaching and environmental education and concepts presented by the courses. The paper discusses the strategies applied by the course managers for facilitating a conflict and defensive mechanisms used by the participants. The paper also discusses the implication of this experience for future courses.

Allahyani(2012) studied The Relationship between Cognitive Dissonance and Decision-Making Styles in a Sample of Female Students at the University of Umm Al Qura with 263 female students at Umm Al-Qura University. The tools used by the study were the Cognitive Dissonance scale (Cassel, Chow & Reiger, 2001) and the Scott and Bruce (Bruce Scott &., 1995) scale for decision-making styles. The most eminent result of the study, as of magnitude of Cognitive Dissonance, is that (40.3) of the total sample size reflect Cognitive Dissonance which suggests that the total Cognitive Dissonance present is below the average. The results of the study also showed a positive relationship of statistical function
between the internal personal dimension in the Cognitive Dissonance scale and the overall and sub scores for the following decision-making styles (the intuitive, the spontaneous, & the avoidant style).

Al Otaibi (2012) conducted a study The Relationship between Cognitive Dissonance and the Big-5 Factors Model of the Personality and the Academic Achievement in a Sample of Female Students at the University of Umm Al-Qura. This study was conducted on 253 female students from Umm Al-Qura University measured by Cognitive Dissonance scale (Cassel, Chow & Reiger, 2001) and the Big-Five Factors scale (Abdullah Al-Roait'e, 2007), together with the academic achievement scores. The main results of the study were the existence of direct correlation between the Cognitive Dissonance and neuroticism and the overall score of the Big-five factors scale. Result revealed that the overall Cognitive Dissonance and its different dimensions and the academic achievement are inverse relationship.

Glatz Stattin and Kerr (2012) conducted a study on A Test of Cognitive Dissonance Theory to Explain Parents' Reactions to Youths' Alcohol Intoxication. In this study used a longitudinal, school-based sample of 494 youths (13 and 14 years, 56% boys) and their parents. General Linear Model (GLM) analyses were used to test the main hypotheses. The findings of the study suggest that to eliminate the dissonance between their strict attitudes against youth drinking and their knowledge of their own youths' drinking, parents changed their attitudes and became more lenient.
Linenberger and Bretz (2012) conducted a study on Generating Cognitive Dissonance in Student Interviews through Multiple Representations. In this study explores what students understand about enzyme-substrate interactions, using multiple representations of the phenomenon. In this paper authors describe their use of the 3 Phase-Single Interview Technique with multiple representations to generate Cognitive Dissonance within students in order to uncover misconceptions of enzyme-substrate interactions. Findings from 25 student interviews are interpreted through the lens of multiple theoretical frameworks, including personal constructivism and coherence formation. The importance of classroom teachers engaging students in dialogue about representations was discussed.

Liu (2008) conducted a study on Expectation matters: The effect of Cognitive Dissonance on Self- Esteem Academic Disengagement, Achievement and associated emotions. This study examined the effect of achievement dissonance on academic disengagement, academic achievement, self-esteem and associated emotions. The main objective of this study was to investigate if a discrepancy between desired achievement and actual achievement would affect the motivation to study. Participants were 124 undergraduate students. Academic dissonance did have effects on the motivation of studying. The role of self-esteem had important influences on the dissonance process.

Alford (2010) conducted study on Cognitive Dissonance Experienced by Secondary General Education Teachers When Teaching Inclusion Classes .The findings from this qualified phenomenological research study involved 20 secondary general education teachers who taught inclusion classes. The research study
investigated the lived experiences and perceptions of teachers through in-depth interviews and using a modified van Kaam method of data analysis. At last 6 software, and Microsoft Excel to corroborate involvement between teacher efficacy and dissonance. All the emerged themes influenced the quality of teacher efficacy. Result revealed that enhanced meaningful professional development for teaching in the inclusion setting that will produce optimal results for students.

Becker Smith and Ciao (2006) conducted a study on Peer-Facilitated Eating Disorder Prevention: A Randomized Effectiveness Trial of Cognitive Dissonance and Media Advocacy. The study aims to find out the effectiveness of 2 interventions in reducing eating disorder risk factors under naturalistic conditions in sororities. On the basis of previous research, the campus sororities chose to implement a semimandatory, 2-session eating disorder prevention program to all new sorority members (N = 90) during sorority orientation. Results indicate that a semimandatory format does not reduce effectiveness.

Dechawatanapaisal and Siengthai (2006) studied The Impact of Cognitive Dissonance on Learning Work Behavior. Primary data were obtained through a questionnaire survey of 162 respondents from three organizations that had recently experienced an array of changes. Study revealed that psychological discomfort is a condition that blocks people from acquiring and learning new knowledge during the transformation period. The results also confirm the "normative perspective" of organizational learning that the effective learning process can be driven by some underlying factors including Cognitive Dissonance and HR practices.

Ruiz and Tanaka (2001) conducted a study on the relationship between
cognitive dissonance and helping behavior. Experimental method is used for this study. Participants are ninety-five female Japanese university undergraduate students. The findings of the study suggested that Cognitive Dissonance heightened the disposition to help; the dissonant women exposed to mood-neutral tape recording were found to be the most helpful in gathering the computer cards.

The summary of the studies on Cognitive Dissonance as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author &amp; year</th>
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**Theoretical Overview of Self Compassion**

This part is explains the development of Self Compassion.

**Etymology of Self Compassion**

In these first decades of the twenty-first century, compassion and Self Compassion are increasingly being researched and applied as active, empirically supported process variables in psychotherapy. This might not seem surprising, given that compassion has been at the center of contemplative practices for emotional
healing for at least 2,600 years. Shakyamuni, or Gautama Buddha, taught that cultivating compassion could transform the mind, and his philosophical descendants have built upon his observations and insights ever since. Furthermore, most of the world’s major religions have specific prayers and imagery practices that involve the experience of compassion as a source of emotional comfort or redemption. In terms of psychotherapy, for some sixty years, starting with the work of Carl Rogers (1965), it has been proposed that empathy is central to psychotherapy. Since Rogers’s work, different therapies have explored the value of warmth and empathy in the psychotherapeutic relationship (Gilbert & Leahy, 2007; Greenberg & Paivio, 1997).

Gilbert (2009a) defines the essence of compassion as “a basic kindness, with deep awareness of the suffering of oneself and of other living things, coupled with the wish and effort to relieve it” (p. 13). This definition involves two central dimensions of compassion. The first is known as the psychology of engagement and involves sensitivity to and awareness of the presence of suffering and its causes. The second dimension is known as the psychology of alleviation and constitutes both the motivation and the commitment to take actual steps to alleviate the suffering we encounter (Gilbert & Choden, 2013). Here we will briefly conceptualize this definition of compassion and its two dimensions in terms of acceptance and commitment processes, and in accord with functional contextual assumptions.

Several psychologists have tried to introduce alternative conceptualizations of a healthy attitude and relationship to oneself, such as self respect (Seligman, 1995), self-efficacy (Bandura, 1990), true self-esteem (Deci & Ryan, 1995), or
personal character (Damon, 1995). Another useful alternative may be found by drawing upon an important concept in Buddhist philosophy—selfcompassion (Bennett-Goleman, 2001; Brown, 1999; Hanh, 1997; Kornfield, 1993; Rosenberg, 2000; Rutledge, 1997; Salzberg, 1997; Wallace, 1999). While the concept of Self Compassion has existed in Eastern philosophical thought for centuries, it is a relatively new concept for Western psychology (though it is related to other Western psychological concepts, a point that will be taken up shortly). The past decade has seen an increasing interchange of ideas between Buddhism and psychology (Epstein, 1995; Molino, 1998; Nisker, 1998; Rubin, 1996; Watson, Batchelor, & Claxton, 1999), broadening our existing understanding of mental well-being and leading to new ways of researching and treating mental disorders (e.g., Kabat-Zinn’s mindfulness-based stress-reduction programs; Kabat-Zinn & Chapman-Waldrop, 1988; Kabat-Zinn, Massion, Kristeller & Peterson, 1992).

**Self Compassion: Core concept**

Self Compassion is defined as a healthy sense of self-acceptance, indicates the acceptance and adoption of unpleasant aspects of life and self and include caring and compassionating of self in the face of Perceived difficulties and failures. Self Compassion means emotional acceptance of what happens in a moment in human. When talking about compassionate of people toward each other, this subject is considered evident. But about Self Compassion concept, it is different. At first glance, Self Compassion and compassion for others seems a little more complicated. in fact, it is no difference between Selfcompassion and compassion for others (Germer, 2009).
According to Neff (2003) Self Compassion involves interaction among the following three components that can be useful for:

A) Self-kindness vs. self-judgment (which tend to have a vision for their care compared to judgments about their traumatic judgment).

B) Common humanity versus isolation (feeling that sometimes, all men may fail and because of this failure should not be discontinued relationships with others).

C) Mindfulness versus over identification (being aware of the current experiences, in a way that, it would not be under the extreme influence of certain emotions), (Raes, 2010).

Components of Self Compassion is represented in the following figure: 4

\[\text{Figure : 4, Components of Self Compassion}\]

Self Compassion requires that when a person suffer, fail, or feel inadequate, rather than flagellating himself with self-criticism, and be kind, warm and understanding toward himself (Neff, 2010). Common humanity involves
recognizing that the human condition is imperfect. With Self Compassion, however, we take the stance of a compassionate “other” toward ourselves, allowing us to adopt a broader perspective on ourselves and our lives. When individuals feel compassion for others, they allow themselves to be touched by another’s experience of suffering. When this occurs, feelings of kindness and caring for the person’s welfare spontaneously arise. So that when faced with difficult life experiences instead of not reaching to pick their ideal angry, they tend to be treated with kindness (Sbarra et al., 2012).

**Interrelationship with other variables**

One of the variables associated with Self Compassion studies have been considered recently, is procrastination. For example Neff et al. (2005) suggest that Self Compassion may be effective in coping and adaptive behavior in the field of education which is required to enjoy learning. Procrastination as a common and serious problem, affect not only on mental health but also physical health and well-being (Siros, 2007). Results showed that this structure explain cognitive, emotional and motivational factors (Rebetez et al., 2015) and has adverse effects on human performance (De Paola and Scoppa, 2014). In fact, procrastination is described as lack of self regulation and desire to delay or avoid doing unnecessary assignments to be completed. Procrastination is a barrier to academic achievement, as with stress and negative consequences in the lives of students, led to reduce the quality and quantity of educational achievement (Akinsola et al., 2007; Tan et al., 2008; Meirav and Goroshit, 2012).
Studies showed that, Self Compassion is associated with procrastination. Williams, Stark and Foster (2008) studied the impact of Self Compassion on procrastination. Results indicate that procrastination is largely associated with lower levels of Self Compassion. Alexander (2011), by studying the impact of Self Compassion on procrastination showed that Self Compassion has a Moderator role on procrastination scores. The results of Siros research (2013) showed that Self Compassion is a moderator between procrastination and stress. Depression with symptoms such as low self-esteem, loss of motivation, difficulty in concentrating and making decisions, fear of failure, humiliation and low scores, has an important role on procrastination. Depression is the most common mood disorder and major depression and emotional disorders in century. Depression is a psychological response to biological stress of life (Mehryar, 2003). This disorder affects important aspects of people’s lives, and includes: depressed mood, loss of interest and pleasure, nutrition, and sleep problems, difficulty concentrating and making decisions, and decreased psychomotor activity (Psychiatric Association of America, 2013). So depression can be related to procrastination (Beck et al., 1998; Steel, 2007). Karami (2009) investigated the relationship between depression and procrastination and showed that the procrastination of students is related with depression.

Evidences show that people who have higher Self Compassion, experience less depression and rumination challenging tasks (Neff, 2003). Pauley and Mc Pherson (2010) studied experience and sense of compassion and Self Compassion in patients with depression, the results of this study showed that participants act with
kindness and compassion by having two main features, they reported that selfcompassion in relation to their experiences is important and useful. Although participants believed that Self Compassion was important in relating to their experiences, it is difficult for them because of their perception of the experience of illness and mental disorder. This has a negative effect on their ability to Self Compassion. Raes (2010), states that selfcompassion is predictive for depression, anxiety and rumination. In another study, Raes (2011) studied selfcompassion effect on depressive symptoms in a nonclinical sample. The results showed that selfcompassion as a potentially important factor for the protection and conservation problems of depression. Yamaguchi et al. (2014) in studying the effect of selfcontrol thoughts, self-critical and Self Compassion among 1,200 graduates and 420 students at Kyoto University in Japan found that Self Compassion is along with less severe depressive symptoms Brown et al. (2014) studied the role of Self Compassion in daily functioning and depressive symptoms of 206 women 40 to 60 years old, who had recently uncomfortable experience.

The results showed that Self Compassion has a direct effect on depressive symptoms. Basharpour and Isazadegan (2012) found that Self Compassion is negatively correlated with depression and 16 percent of the variance is expected in depression in non-clinical samples and students through Self Compassion components. So, Self Compassion requires that, when a person damage, failure or feel incompetence stopped the suffering endured rather than ignore or criticized, would be kind to himself understand himself (Neff, 2010). The evidence shows that Self Compassion is a positive force and positive human qualities such as kindness to
his generosity, dignity, empathy and a sense of unity with others to bring and helps when dealing with difficult people to hope and meaning in their life and loving life again (Neff, 2003). By considering the strong components of cognitive selfcompassion and the fact that procrastination affect, self-distraction, impulsivity, self-control and organizational behavior and foster individuals as passive lazy, passively led to growth tend to delay in them (Mohammad Amini, 2013) and the lack of a full study on the in country, the importance of relationship between procrastination and depression is necessary. This study aimed to investigate the role of selfcompassion and depression in students is predicted procrastination.

Cutting edge view of Self Compassion

The latest view of Self Compassion developed by Neff. Self Compassion has received increased research attention lately, with over 200 journal articles and dissertations examining the topic since 2003, the year that the first two articles defining and measuring Self Compassion were published (Neff, 2003a; Neff, 2003b). So what is Self Compassion exactly? In order to better understand what Self Compassion is, it is useful to first consider what it means to feel compassion more generally.

From the Buddhist point of view, compassion is given to our own as well as to others’ suffering. We include ourselves in the circle of compassion because to do otherwise would construct a false sense of separate self (Salzberg, 1997). Compassion involves sensitivity to the experience of suffering, coupled with a deep desire to alleviate that suffering (Goetz, Keltner, & Simon-Thomas, 2010). This means that in order to experience compassion, you must first acknowledge the
presence of pain. Rather than rushing past that homeless woman as you’re walking down the busy street, for example, you must actually stop to consider how difficult her life must be. This involves pausing, stepping out of your usual frame of reference, and viewing the world from the vantage point of another. The moment you see the woman as an actual human being who is in pain, your heart resonates with hers (compassion literally means “to suffer with”). Instead of ignoring her, you find that you’re moved by her situation, and feel the urge to help in some way. And rather than looking down at the woman or believing that she is somehow separate and disconnected from yourself, you realize that all human beings suffer and are in need of compassion – “there but for fortune go I.” Self Compassion is simply compassion directed inward, relating to ourselves as the object of care and concern when faced with the experience of suffering (Neff, 2003a).

**The Three Components of Self Compassion**

Drawing on the writings of various Buddhist teachers (Brach, 2003; Kornfield, 1993; Salzberg 1997), Neff (2003b) has operationalized Self Compassion as consisting of three main elements: kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness. These components combine and mutually interact to create a Self Compassionate frame of mind. Self Compassion is relevant when considering personal inadequacies, mistakes, and failures, as well as when struggling with more general life situations that cause us mental, emotional, or physical pain.
Self-kindness

Western culture places great emphasis on being kind to others, but not so much to our selves. When we make a mistake or fail in some way, we often use harsh, critical internal language – “You’re so stupid and lazy, I’m ashamed of you!” We would be unlikely to say such things to a close friend, or even a stranger for that matter. When asked directly, most people report that they are kinder to others than themselves (Neff, 2003a), and it is not unusual to encounter extremely kind and compassionate people who continually beat themselves up. And even when our problems stem from forces beyond our control, such as losing our job or getting in a car accident, we often don’t give ourselves the sympathy we would give to a friend in the same situation. With self-kindness, however, we are supportive and understanding toward ourselves. Our inner dialogues are gentle and encouraging rather than harsh and belittling. This means that instead of continually punishing ourselves for not being good enough, we kindly acknowledge that we’re doing the best we can. Similarly, when external life circumstances are challenging and difficult to bear, we soothe and nurture ourselves. We are moved by our own distress so that warm feelings and the desire to ameliorate our suffering emerge.

Common humanity

The sense of common humanity central to Self Compassion involves recognizing that everyone fails, makes mistakes, and gets it wrong sometimes. We do not always get what we want and are often disappointed – either in ourselves or in our life circumstances. This is part of the human experience, a basic fact of life shared with everyone else on the planet. We are not alone in our imperfection.
Rather, our imperfections are what make us card-carrying members of the human race. Often, however, we feel isolated and cut off from others when considering our struggles and failures, irrationally feeling that it’s only “ME” who is having such a hard time of it. We think that somehow we are abnormal, that something has gone wrong, and we forget that falling flat on our face now and then actually is normal. This sort of tunnel vision makes us feel alone and isolated, making our suffering even worse (Neff, 2011). With Self Compassion, however, we take the stance of a compassionate “other” toward ourselves, allowing us to take a broader perspective on our selves and our lives. By remembering the shared human experience, we feel less isolated when we are in pain. For this reason, selfcompassion is quite distinct from self-pity. Self-pity is a “woe is me” attitude in which people become immersed in their own problems and forget that others have similar problems. Selfcompassion recognizes that we all suffer, and therefore fosters a connected mindset that is inclusive of others.

**Mindfulness**

Self Compassion entails mindful awareness of our negative thoughts and emotions so that they are approached with balance and equanimity. When we are mindful, we are experientially open to the reality of the present moment without judgment, avoidance, or repression (Bishop et al., 2004). Why is mindfulness an essential component of Self Compassion? First, we must be willing to turn toward and experience our painful thoughts and emotions in order to embrace ourselves with compassion. While it might seem that our pain is blindingly obvious, many people do not acknowledge how much pain they’re in, especially when that pain
stems from their own inner self-critic. Or when confronted with life challenges, people often get so lost in problem-solving mode that they do not pause to consider how hard it is in the moment.

Mindfulness of our negative thoughts and feelings means that we do not become “overidentified” (Neff, 2003b) with them, getting caught up and swept away by our aversive reactions (Bishop et al., 2004). Rather than confusing our negative self-concepts with our actual selves, we can recognize that our thoughts and feelings are just that – thoughts and feelings – helping us to drop our unquestioning belief in the storyline of our inadequate, worthless selves. Neff (2003b) proposes that the three components of Self Compassion are conceptually distinct, they also overlap and tend to engender one another. For instance, the accepting stance of mindfulness helps to lessen self-judgment and provide insight needed to recognize our common humanity. Similarly, self-kindness lessens the impact of negative emotional experiences, making it easier to be mindful of them. And realizing that suffering and personal failures are shared with others lessens the degree of self-blame, while also helping to quell the process of over identification. Thus, Self Compassion is best understood as a single experience composed of interacting parts

Measurements

The Self Compassion Scale

The Self Compassion Scale (SCS) was designed by Neff (2003b) to measure selfcompassion in individuals. The SCS has been used in a number of studies within the past decade amid developments in the applications of meditation and
mindfulness in western psychology. The result has been a growing interest in the
topic of Self Compassion and its relationship to psychological functioning and
phenomena. Since 2003, scores of studies have used the SCS as a measure of Self
Compassion with respect to a variety of psychological phenomena, measures, and
tests. The SCS is informed by Buddhist psychology and understanding of the self.
This is evident in the phrasing of items on the scale and the structure of the measure.
Furthermore, during its development factor analysis dictated that it be divided into
six subscales including: self-kindness, self-judgment, common humanity, isolation,
mindfulness, and over-identification (Neff, 2003b).

Thus, the six subscales are the result of both theoretical and empirical
findings. A total SCS score and subscale scores can be derived from the measure
providing detail regarding the construct and its theoretical makeup. Furthermore,
these subscales offer clinicians more precise attributes of the construct to be
measured. The inventory offers flexibility and breadth in its utilization. Research
findings regarding the SCS subscales illustrate this notion. Empirical use of
individual SCS subscales has yielded some interesting results.

**Studies Related to Self Compassion**

Fontana, Fry and Cramer (2017) conducted a study on Exploring the
Relationship between Athletes' Perceptions of the Motivational Climate to Their
Compassion, Self Compassion, Shame, and Pride in Adult Recreational Sport. In
this study examine the relationships between athletes' perceptions of the
motivational climate (caring, task-, and ego-involving) to their levels of compassion,
Self Compassion, pride, and shame in a recreational sport setting. 164 Athletes in a
competitive Wiffle Ball tournament completed a survey. A canonical correlation analysis revealed one significant function indicating that athletes' perceptions of a caring and task-involving motivational climate were associated with higher levels of authentic pride and lower levels of hubristic pride. Results suggest adult recreational sport participants may benefit from experiencing a positive and supportive team climate.

Ozdemir and Seef (2017) Conducted a study on Examining the Factors of Self Compassion Scale with Canonical Commonality Analysis: Syrian Sample. The study aims to examine the psychological structure of Self Compassion and to determine the relationship between the sub-dimensions (or factors) of the Self Compassion-scale and the contribution of each factor to the construct. The contribution of this study is assumed to be substantial since it examines the relationship between the several factors of Self Compassion and determines the unique and common contribution of each factor to the Self Compassion construct. This study employed a relational survey method. A purposive sampling technique was used in order to determine the study group which consisted of 593 university students from Damascus University, Syria. Findings of the study based on canonical correlation analysis "mindfulness" was the most important among the positive factors set, while "over-identified" was the most important among the negative factors set. On the other hand, common variance of "common-humanity" and "self-kindness" was quite large, indicating multi co linearity between these two factors. Additionally, the contribution of "common humanity" was negligibly small;
therefore, it can be excluded from the model with a small sacrifice in explained variance.

Arslan (2016) studied Interpersonal Problem Solving, Self Compassion and Personality Traits in University Students. The aim of this study was to investigate interpersonal problem solving in terms of Self Compassion and personality traits. 570 students (274 females and 296 males) who participated in the research voluntarily. The mean age of the participants was 21.54 years (between 17-32 years old) with a standard deviation of 2.68 years. Data were collected using Interpersonal Problem Solving Inventory, Adjective Based Personality Scale, Self Compassion Scale and personal information form. To analyze the data, Pearson conduct moment correlations, and multiple hierarchical regression analysis technique were used. As a result of the study, it was found that there was a significant negative relationship between approaching problems in a negative way and Self Compassion, extraversion, openness to experiences, agreeableness and responsibility. It was found that there was a significant negative relationship between lack of self-confidence and Self Compassion, extraversion, openness to experiences, agreeableness and responsibility. It was found that there was a significant negative relationship between unwillingness to take responsibility and Self Compassion, extraversion, openness to experiences, agreeableness and responsibility. Also it was found that there was a positive relationship between constructive problem solving and Self Compassion, extraversion, openness to experiences, agreeableness and responsibility.
Bengtsson, Söderström and Terjestam (2016) studied the Structure and Development of Dispositional Compassion in Early Adolescence. Compassion may be directed at a broad range of targets. The present study investigated interrelations among other-directed compassion, Self Compassion, and environmental compassion in early adolescence (age = 12-14; n = 256) and examined how the different manifestations of compassion related to age and gender during this age period. Dispositional compassion directed at different targets was assessed through self-reports and peer nominations. Structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis supported a model that portrayed dispositional compassion toward self, others, and the environment as three distinct but interrelated factors. Other-directed compassion and environmental compassion were higher in girls than in boys. There was a decrease in all forms of compassion with age. The drop in Self Compassion was linked to negative self-perceptions in 13- and 14-year-old girls. The roles of experience and cognitive factors in linking different forms of dispositional compassion are discussed.

Mehr and Adams (2016) studied Self Compassion as a Mediator of Maladaptive Perfectionism and Depressive Symptoms in College Students. The purpose of the study was to examine the relationships among maladaptive perfectionism, Self Compassion, and depressive symptoms in college students. It was hypothesized that Self Compassion would mediate the relationship between maladaptive perfectionism and depressive symptoms, with maladaptive perfectionism related to lower levels of Self Compassion, and lower levels of Self Compassion related to greater endorsement of depressive symptoms. Results
supported partial mediation, indicating that Self Compassion partially accounts for the relationship between maladaptive perfectionism and depressive symptoms. Implications for practice and research are discussed.

Aydin (2015) conducted a study on Identifying the Relationship of Teacher Candidates’ Humor Styles with Anxiety and Self Compassion Levels This study aims to identify the relationship between teacher candidates’ humor styles, anxiety, and Self Compassion levels, and to investigate these levels from the perspective of gender and grade variables. In this research study, a multiple regression analysis was applied in order to explore the relationship between candidate teachers’ humor styles and their anxiety as well as Self Compassion levels. The sample of the study is comprised of a total of 1008 students studying in the following departments of the Atatürk Education Faculty at Marmara University: early childhood education, primary school teaching, psychological counseling and guidance, and special education. As data collection instruments, the Self Compassion Scale, the Humor Styles Questionnaire, and the State and Trait Anxiety Scale were used. The findings of the study, the t values calculated to find the significance of the regression coefficients indicate that isolation and self-judgment sub-dimensions have significant predictiveness for affiliated humor. Self-kindness, common humanity, isolation, and over-identification sub-dimensions have significant predictiveness for self-enhancing humor. It is also suggested that if some aspects of such programs are found to be positive in such studies, they should be incorporated into the optional courses or practice-based applications in the programs of education faculties.
Sahranç (2015) studied Self Compassion as a Predictor of Psychological Entitlement in Turkish University Students. The purpose of this study is to examine the predictive role of Self Compassion on psychological entitlement. Participants were 331 university students (205 women, 126 men, M age = 20.5 years.). In this study, the Self Compassion Scale and the Psychological Entitlement Scale were used to assess Self Compassion and psychological entitlement. The relationships between Self Compassion and psychological entitlement were examined using correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis. Data were analyzed by SPSS 11.5. In Correlation analysis, mindfulness, common humanity, and self-kindness factors of Self Compassion were found negatively and over-identification, isolation, and self-judgment factors of Self Compassion were found positively related to psychological entitlement. According to regression results, psychological entitlement was predicted positively by over-identification, isolation, and self-judgment. Further mindfulness and self-kindness predicted psychological entitlement in a negative way. Self Compassion has explained 28% of the variance in psychological entitlement.

Gottlieb (2014) studied Self-Awareness, Self Compassion, and Cultural Competence: Implications for Social Work Education and Practice. The objective of the present study was to examine the relationships among the constructs of self-awareness, Self Compassion, and cultural competence within the NYU MSW student population, as measured by three separate scales. An anonymous Qualtrics survey containing the three scales and five demographic questions was sent via university e-mail to the entire student body, with a 33% rate of return (N = 376).
Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) through AMOS 20 and SPSS 21 regression resulted in identifying a positive correlation between Self Compassion and self-awareness, a moderating effect of Self Compassion on the relationship between self-awareness and cultural competence, and a positive correlation between Self Compassion and cultural competence. A correlative relationship between self-awareness and cultural competence was not identified. Implications for and limitations of the study are discussed, with recommendations of directions for future theory, pedagogy, practice, and research.

Aydin and Kuzu (2013) conducted a study on Teacher Candidates' Attitudes towards Inclusion Education and Comparison of Self Compassion Levels. This study has been figured for the purpose of comparing attitudes of teacher candidates toward inclusion education in terms of several variables and Self Compassion levels. Sampling of the study consists of Grade 4 students of (547) Marmara University Ataturk, Faculty of Education and Faculty of Science and Letters. In this study, a personnel information questionnaire is used to collect the demographic data of the participants. Also, to measure participants' attitudes towards inclusion "Attitudes" toward Mainstreaming Scale is used. Besides, to measure Self Compassion levels, a SCS (Self Compassion Scale) developed by Neff (2003a) and adopted to Turkish by U. Akin, A. Akin, and Abaci (2007) is used. Self Compassion levels were at medium levels. It has been found that Self Compassion total scores and sub-dimension scores affected attitudes towards to inclusion education.

Saricaoglu and Arslan (2013) conducted a study on An Investigation into Psychological Well-Being Levels of Higher Education Students with Respect to
Personality Traits and Self Compassion The purpose of this study is to investigate the correlation between psychological well-being, personal traits and Self Compassion levels, and to find out whether personal traits and Self Compassion level significantly predict psychological well-being. The study sample is composed of 232 (36.5%) students from Education Faculty of Selçuk University, 195 (30.7%) students from Cumhuriyet University, 209 (32.9%) students from Ahi Evran University. There were totally 636 randomly selected students in the study group, 405 of them (%67.5) being females and 231 of them (32.5%) being males. The data were collected using Psychological Well-being Scale, Adjective Based Personality Scale, Self Compassion Scale and personal information form. To analyze the data, Pearson conduct moment correlations, and stepwise regression analysis technique were used. It was seen that there was a significant positive correlation between all subscales of psychological well-being and Self Compassion. There was a negative correlation between psychological well-being and neuroticism and a positive correlation between psychological well-being and other personality traits, whereas no significant correlation was found between autonomy and agreeableness. Personal traits and Self Compassion significantly predict all subscales of psychological well-being. It was found that the most significant predictor of positive relations with others as a subscale of psychological well-being is extroversion; that the most prominent predictor of autonomy, environmental mastery, and purpose in life and self-acceptance subscales is Self Compassion, and that the variable which predicts the subscale of personal growth best is openness to experience as personal traits.
Wong and Mak (2013) conducted a study on Differentiating the Role of Three Self Compassion Components in Buffering Cognitive-Personality Vulnerability to Depression among Chinese in Hong Kong. Research shows that sociotropy, autonomy, and self-criticism are cognitive-personality vulnerability styles contributing significantly to the development of depression symptoms, but little is known about the factors that may protect sociotropic, autonomous, and self-critical individuals against mental health problems. The present study examined Self Compassion components (i.e., self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness) as potential moderators to protect these individuals from developing depression. On the basis of survey data from 345 Chinese adults in Hong Kong, the relationships between cognitive-personality vulnerability styles, Self Compassion components, and depression were examined. The results of the present study show that when the effect of gender and the two other Self Compassion components were controlled, self-kindness and mindfulness could moderate the association between autonomy and depression, and the association between self-criticism and depression, while common humanity could moderate the association between self-criticism and depression. Unexpectedly, interaction between sociotropy and mindfulness was found, with the association between sociotropy and depression being stronger among individuals with high mindfulness than it was with individuals with low mindfulness. These results suggest the differentiating role of the three Self Compassion components in buffering autonomous and self-critical individuals from depression. Applications of Self Compassion and the hypothesized moderation model in future psychological interventions are discussed.
Akin (2012) conducted a study on Self Compassion and Automatic Thoughts. The aim of this research is to examine the relationships between Self Compassion and automatic thoughts. Participants were 299 university students. In this study, the Self Compassion Scale and the Automatic Thoughts Questionnaire were used. The relationships between Self Compassion and automatic thoughts were examined using correlation analysis and the hypothesis model was tested through structural equation modeling. In correlation analysis, self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness factors of Self Compassion were found negatively related to automatic thoughts. On the other hand, self-judgment, isolation, and over-identification factors of Self Compassion were found positively correlated to automatic thoughts. According to path analysis results, automatic thoughts were predicted negatively by self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness. On the other hand, self-judgment and over-identification predicted automatic thoughts in a positive way. However, the path from isolation to automatic thoughts wasn't significant. Results were discussed in the light of the related literature.

Newsome, Waldo and Gruszka (2012) studied Mindfulness Group Work: Preventing Stress and Increasing Self Compassion among Helping Professionals in Training. This study examined the effects a 6-week mindfulness group had on 31 college students who were intending to enter helping professions (e.g., nursing, social work, counseling, psychology, and teaching). Group activities included meditation, yoga, a body scan exercise, and qi gong. The group members completed the Perceived Stress Scale, the Mindfulness Attention Awareness Scale, and the Self Compassion Scale at pre-pre, pre, post, and follow-up intervals. Perceived stress
significantly decreased, and mindfulness and Self Compassion significantly increased in response to the group. Group members’ comments on their experience are reported. Implications for future research and practice are explored.

Seo (2012) studied The Role of Self Compassion and Emotional Approach Coping in the Relationship between Maladaptive Perfectionism and Psychological Distress among East Asian International Students. This study investigated the mediating and moderating roles of Self Compassion and emotional approach coping in the relationship between maladaptive perfectionism and psychological distress among East Asian international students. Data were collected through an online survey completed by 255 East Asian international students in a large public Midwestern university. It was hypothesized that Self Compassion and emotional approach coping would predict psychological distress, and would both mediate and moderate the relationship between maladaptive perfectionism and psychological distress among the sample of East Asian international students. Hierarchical regression analyses showed that maladaptive perfectionism and Self Compassion were strong predictors for depression and anxiety for the sample of East Asian international students, while emotional approach coping did not contribute unique variance in the prediction of depression and anxiety. An exploratory factor analysis for the Self Compassion Scale yielded two factors: the Self Compassion factor (i.e., Self-Kindness, Common Humanity, and Mindfulness), and the Self-Disrespect factor (i.e., Self-Judgment, Isolation, and Over-Identification). Additionally, emotional approach coping was not significantly correlated with psychological distress; thus, emotional approach coping did not serve as a mediator or a moderator.
Taken together, the original model was revised to incorporate two Self Compassion factors as separate mediators in the relationship between maladaptive perfectionism and psychological distress, with Emotional Approach Coping as an exogenous variable. Results from Structural Equational Modeling (SEM) showed that Self-Disrespect partially mediated between maladaptive perfectionism and psychological distress. The finding indicates that East Asian international students with maladaptive perfectionism can alleviate psychological distress. They can do this by being less self-judgmental and socially isolated, and by not over-identifying with their own negative thoughts and emotions, which develops Self Compassion. In addition, Self-Disrespect moderated the relationship between maladaptive perfectionism and psychological distress, indicating that East Asian international students with maladaptive perfectionism seem to suffer from greater psychological distress when experiencing high levels of Self-Disrespect (i.e., being self-judgmental, isolated, and over-identifying). Implications for counseling and future research directions are discussed.

Iskender (2011) studied The Influence of Self Compassion on Academic Procrastination and Dysfunctional Attitudes In the present study, aims were (1) to determine gender differences in Self Compassion, Academic Procrastination, and dysfunctional attitudes and (2) to examine the relationships between Self Compassion, Academic Procrastination, and dysfunctional attitudes. Participants were 251 university students who completed a questionnaire package that included the Self Compassion Scale, the Academic Procrastination Scale, and the Dysfunctional Attitudes Scale. Results showed that there were no significant gender
differences in Self Compassion, Academic Procrastination, and dysfunctional attitudes. In correlation analysis, Self Compassion correlated positively with Academic Procrastination and negatively with dysfunctional attitudes. Similarly there were no significant relationships between Academic Procrastination and dysfunctional attitudes.

Iskender and Ahmet (2011) conducted a study on Self Compassion and Internet Addiction. The purpose of this research is to examine the relationship of Self Compassion and internet addiction. Participants were 261 university students who completed a questionnaire package that included the Self Compassion Scale and the Online Cognition Scale. The hypothesis model was tested through structural equation modeling. In correlation analysis, self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness factors of Self Compassion were found negatively related to internet addiction. On the other hand, self-judgment, isolation, and over-identification factors of Self Compassion were found positively correlated to internet addiction. According to path analysis results, internet addiction was predicted negatively by self-kindness and mindfulness. Further self-judgment, isolation, and over-identification predicted internet addiction in a positive way. Results were discussed in the light of literature.

Raque-Bogdan, Ericson, Jackson, Martin and Bryan (2011) studied Attachment and Mental and Physical Health: Self Compassion and Mattering as Mediators. Research shows a strong link between adult attachment and mental and physical health, but little is known about the mechanisms that underlie these relationships. The present study examined Self Compassion and mattering, two
constructs from positive psychology literature, as potential mediators. Using survey data from a sample of 208 college students, relationships among attachment, Self Compassion, mattering, and functional health were explored. Correlational analyses indicated that attachment anxiety and avoidance were strongly related to the mental health component of functional health. Mediation analyses indicated that mattering and Self Compassion mediated the relationships between attachment orientation (i.e., levels of avoidance and anxiety) and mental health. These findings suggest that individuals’ abilities to be kind toward themselves and their sense of belonging and being important to others are pathways through which attachment orientation relates to mental health.

Tanaka, Wekerle, Schmuck, Paglia-Boak and Angela (2011) conducted a study on The Linkages among Childhood Maltreatment, Adolescent Mental Health, and Self Compassion in Child Welfare Adolescents Objectives: Childhood maltreatment is a robust risk factor for poor physical and mental health. Child welfare youths represent a high-risk group, given the greater likelihood of severe or multiple types of maltreatment. This study examined the relationship between childhood maltreatment and Self Compassion—a concept of positive acceptance of self. While not applied previously to a child welfare sample, Self Compassion may be of value in understanding impairment among maltreatment victims. This may be most pertinent in adolescence and young adulthood, when self-identity is a focal developmental process. Methods: The present sample was drawn from the Maltreatment and Adolescent Pathways (MAP) Longitudinal Study, which followed randomly selected adolescents receiving child protection services across two years
within an urban catchment area. Child maltreatment was assessed at baseline using the Childhood Trauma Questionnaire. Mental health, substance and alcohol use problems, suicide attempt, and Self Compassion were assessed at the two-year follow-up point. There were 117 youths, aged 16-20 years (45.3% males) who completed the Self Compassion scale (Neff, 2003). Bivariate correlations were computed between adolescent Self Compassion and each form of self-reported maltreatment (physical abuse, sexual abuse, emotional abuse, emotional neglect, and physical neglect). Finally, hierarchical, stepwise regression was used to examine unique contributions of child maltreatment subtypes in predicting adolescent Self Compassion, as well as maltreatment-related impairment. Results: Higher childhood emotional abuse, emotional neglect, and physical abuse were associated with lower Self Compassion. Controlling for age and gender, emotional abuse was significantly associated with reduced Self Compassion, even when the effects of emotional neglect and physical abuse were taken into account. Youths with low Self Compassion were more likely to have psychological distress, problem alcohol use, and report a serious suicide attempt, as compared with those with high Self Compassion. A number of maltreatment-related areas of impairment, identified by screening instruments, were significantly associated with lower Self Compassion. Conclusion: Self Compassion may be a fruitful aspect of research to pursue in an effort to better understand the impact of childhood emotional abuse on adolescent functioning, particularly considering the under-researched group of those receiving child protective services.
Akin (2010) studied Self Compassion and Interpersonal Cognitive Distortions. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationships between Self Compassion and interpersonal cognitive distortions. Participants were 338 university students. In this study, the Self Compassion Scale and the Interpersonal Cognitive Distortions Scale were used. The relationships between Self Compassion and interpersonal cognitive distortions were examined using correlation analysis and the hypothesis model was tested through structural equation modeling. In correlation analysis, self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness factors of Self Compassion were found negatively and self-judgment, isolation, and over-identification factors of Self Compassion were found positively related to interpersonal cognitive distortions. According to path analysis results, interpersonal cognitive distortions were predicted negatively by self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness. Further self-judgment, isolation, and over-identification predicted interpersonal cognitive distortions in a positive way. Results were discussed in the light of the related literature.

Newsome (2010) studied Effects of a Mindfulness Course on Helping Professionals in Training: Examining Levels of Perceived Stress, Mindfulness, and Self Compassion. This study focused on the effects of a six-week mindfulness course on college students intending to enter a helping profession (e.g., nursing, social work, counseling, psychology, and teaching). The 31 participants ranged in age from 21 to 54 with a mean age of 29.26 years. There were 27 females and 4 males. The participants enrolled in a one to three credit course on mindfulness that included six weekly sessions of mindfulness training. The training utilized
meditation, yoga, a body scan exercise, and qi gong. The participants completed the Perceived Stress Scale, the Mindful Awareness Attention Scale, and the Self Compassion Scale. Perceived stress significantly decreased between pre-intervention and post-intervention and stayed stable between post-intervention and follow-up. Mindfulness significantly increased between pre-intervention and post-intervention and significantly increased between post-intervention and follow-up. Self Compassion significantly increased between pre-intervention and post-intervention and stayed stable between post-intervention and follow-up. Implications for future research and practice are explored.

Ying (2009) studied Contribution of Self Compassion to Competence and Mental Health in Social Work Students. This study examined the potential contribution of Self Compassion to perceived competence and mental health in master's of social work students (N=65). It was hypothesized that the components of Self Compassion (i.e., mindfulness, common humanity, self-kindness, over identification, isolation, and self-judgment) would impact perceived competence (sense of coherence), which in turn would mediate mental health (depressive symptom level). Students completed the Self Compassion Scale, the Sense of Coherence Questionnaire, and the California Psychological Inventory-Depression Scale. Results showed that over identification directly and indirectly (as mediated by decreased coherence) affected depressive symptom level. Implications for social work education are discussed.
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Theoretical Overview of Academic Procrastination

Procrastination is a universal bane of life. People put things off until tomorrow, and when tomorrow comes, they put them off until the next tomorrow. They subscribe to a system of unrealistic thinking where they fiddle away the present in a futile hope for a better tomorrow. Since this fantasy rarely translates into action, few of the activities that get put off get done in a timely fashion; some just don’t get done. People afflicted with procrastination often create elaborate excuses to cover their delays, or even make jokes about their own procrastination. But a pattern of procrastination often leads to a sense of helplessness, feelings of being overwhelmed, and a lack of a sense of accomplishment. That’s why procrastination is no joke.

Definitions of Procrastination

A couple of hundred years ago, Benjamin Franklin shared with the world the secret of his success. “Never leave that till tomorrow which you can do today.” This is the man who discovered electricity. For different life reasons, people procrastinate. While some people think that putting things off until the last minute might evoke excitement, individuals’ lives are more negatively affected by procrastination and its negative consequences may not feel this way. We have all heard proverbs from our grandparents warning us about wasting time. The early bird catches the worm. A stitch in time saves nine. He who hesitates is lost. We can’t pretend we haven’t been told about the effects of procrastination. We’ve all heard the proverbs, philosophers, and our grandparents warning us about wasting time, and heard the poets urging us to seize the day. Still sometimes we have to see for
ourselves until we finally understand for ourselves what Benjamin Franklin really meant about being careful about spending our time..

The English term procrastinate comes from the Latin verb “procrastinatus”, a combination of “pro”, an adverb implying for or forward motion, and “crastinus”, belonging to tomorrow (Merriam Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary, 1993) means “putting forward until tomorrow.”

In the last few decades, due to increased use of technology and time pressure, people put off things more in their lives. There are truly negative influences and consequences of procrastination, which affect people to different degrees. The study of procrastination and its consequences has received increased empirical attention within the field of psychology over the past several decades. In general, procrastination has long been identified as a negative behavior and procrastinators perceive this behavior as a problem that they wanted to reduce because of its serious negative outcomes (Ferrari, 1991a; Solomon & Rothblum, 1984).

Procrastination may be defined as a way to avoid or escape from undesirable tasks. The procrastinator usually justifies his action by saying that "This is a boring assignment," or "I will do it later". In another definition, the procrastination has been described as an intentional, unreasonable postponement of the taken decisions, being unaware of the fact that this will bring about certain negative consequences. Procrastination is a widespread problem related to self-regulation, which is realized as deferral of the beginning and completing the important, necessary assignments. Procrastination may produce important negative consequences such as anxiety and depression, regarding the personality. Depending on its cognitive, affective or...
behavioral components, procrastination will have different manifestations including academic, decisional, neurotic or compulsive procrastination. The most common form, however, is Academic Procrastination. It is defined as pervasive and permanent desire on the part of learner to postpone academic activities, which almost always is accompanied by anxiety. Deferring study to the night just before the exam and the accompanied anxiety and haste can be described as the most obvious and familiar instance of this form of procrastination.

**Academic Procrastination: An off shot**

Academic Procrastination is a special form of procrastination that occurs in the academic settings. It involves knowing that one needs to carry out an academic task or undertake an academic activity, such as writing a term paper, studying for examinations, finishing a school related project, or undertaking the weekly reading assignments, but, for one reason or another, failing to motivate oneself to do so within the expected time frame (Ackerman and Gross, 2005). Procrastination is a common event and is often unavoidable because there are thousands of potential tasks that we could be doing at any time. However, procrastination has been found to be domain-specific. Researchers have identified six different aspects/domains of life where people procrastinate: academic and work, everyday routines and obligations, health, leisure, family and partnership, and social contacts (Gröpel & Kuhl, 2006; Klingsleck, 2013). Each domain possesses different prevalence rate and correlations with other constructs, reasons, and consequences. Thus, each domain should be analyzed independently to fully understand its characteristics, impact, and
theoretical approaches. This review will focus specifically on the domain of Academic Procrastination.

Academic Procrastination is the most researched procrastination domain (Jorke, Thau, Fries, 2011). This form of situational procrastination occurs when a person is passive in completing academically related tasks such as studying for an exam or talking to an instructor. People who procrastinate academically may be consciously or unconsciously aware they are engaging in the behavior. The most accepted definition used for Academic Procrastination is “intentionally delaying or deferring work that must be completed” (Schraw et al, 2007). This definition is similar to that which has been proposed for general procrastination in that it incorporates the aspects of intending to delay, lack of productivity, and avoidability, but this definition relates to the academic domain.

Academic Procrastination might have a detrimental impact on a student’s life due to the multitude of examinations, term papers, and projects during his or her scholarly career. Academic Procrastination is similar to general procrastination in that it is negatively related to self-efficacy and life satisfaction and also positively related to stress and mental health (Klingsleck, 2013). However, research has shown that Academic Procrastination has a more significant impact than the other domains to an individual’s well-being (Jorke et al., 2011) and is related to depression (Solomon & Rothblum, 1984), anxiety (Rothblum et al., 1986; Stöber & Joormann, 2001), guilt (Pychyl, Lee, Thibodeau, & Blunt, 2000), neuroticism (Watson, 2001), irrational thinking (Bridges & Roig, 1997), and low self-esteem (Ferrari, 2000). Academic Procrastination also has a harmful impact on academic achievement
including lower grades, cheating, and lower grade point averages (Beck et al., 2000; Clark & Hill, 1994; Ellis & Knaus, 1977; Harriott & Ferrari, 1996; Roig & De Tommaso, 1995; Solomon & Rothblum, 1984; Wesley, 1994). Clearly, procrastination has a negative impact on an individual, but the actual profile of a person who procrastinates varies. Thus, due to the wide range of characteristics, there may be no typical profile of academic trait procrastinators, but there are some similarities that occur.

**Reasons of Academic Procrastination**

Rothblum, Solomon and Murakami (1986) define this concept as postponing academic duties such as preparing for exams and delaying homework sometimes or constantly. On the other hand, according to Ferrari, Johnson and McCown (1995), Academic Procrastination behavior is the behavior of avoiding academic duties which cause students have academic failure. Similarly, it can be said that, Academic Procrastination behavior is to postpone academic duties in a way that that is causes failure, academic unhappiness and stress. There are many studies showing that students who make Academic Procrastination face with various negative results of this behavior (Burka and Yuen, 1983). Academic Procrastination behavior has negative results such as academic failure (Burka and Yuen, 1983; Ferrari, Johnson and McCown, 1995; Knaus, 1998), falling behind in the class (Rothblum, Solomon and Murakami, 1986), not attending the school and dropping out the school (Knaus, 1998). The main reasons of Academic Procrastination are Evaluation Anxiety, Perfectionism, Poor time Management, Dependency and help seeking, lack of Self
Confidence, Laziness, Lack of assertion and Peer influence. Details of each component are explained as follows.

*Evaluation Anxiety*

It is a combination of physiological over arousal tension, fear of failure that occur before or doing test situation.

*Perfectionism*

It is a personality trait by which a person strives for excessively high performance standards, accompanied by critical self evaluations and concerns regarding others evaluations.

*Poor time management*

It is the disability to plan and control how you spend the hours in your day to effectively accomplish your goals. Poor time management can be related to procrastination, as well as problem with self control.

*Dependency and help seeking*

Help seeking is a term that is generally used to refer to the behavior of actively seeking help from other people. It is about communicating with other people to obtain help in terms of understanding advice, information, treatment and general support in response to a problem or distressing experience.

*Lack of Self confidence*

One’s degree of confidence is called self confidence, is the trust or faith that have in everyone’s abilities. Losing confidence is no longer trusting in the ability to
perform. It may be reasonable as the result of past failure to perform, or unreasonable, because one “just has a feeling “ about something or having doubt. Those who lack self confidence expect failure, which may lead to the extremes of over achieving or under achieving.

Laziness

Laziness is the habit of spend free time relaxing, when actually want to do complete the work but haven’t finished. It is resulting from dislike to do work.

Lack of Assertion

Inability or difficulty in expressing feeling or thoughts in right situations in a right way. In some situations we may find ourselves not really expressing how we felt or taught and feeling upset or frustrated with ourselves.

Peer influence

It is the influence on a peer group, observers or individual exerts, that encourages others to change their attitudes, values or behavior to conform to groups.

Measurement of Academic Procrastination

Most studies on procrastination use self-report instruments to measure procrastination (Schraw et al., 2007; Steel, 2007; Van Eerde, 2000). These inventories can be categorized in several different ways. The first is by the context in which procrastination takes place; that is Academic Procrastination or general procrastination (Ferrari, Johnson, & McCown, 1995). Academic Procrastination inventories include the Procrastination Assessment Scale-Students (Soloman &
Rothblum, 1984), the Aitken Procrastination Inventory (Aitken, 1982), and the Tuckman Procrastination Scale (Tuckman, 1991). General procrastination inventories include the General Procrastination Scale (GP; Lay, 1986), the Adult Inventory of Procrastination (McCown & Johnson, 1989), and the Decisional Procrastination Questionnaire (Mann, 1982). A second categorization can be made by further dividing general procrastination inventories by the motivation underlying their task delay, as in arousal procrastination or avoidance procrastination. Arousal procrastination refers to situations in which individuals procrastinate as a thrill seeking, or “rush” experience (i.e. sensation seeking), whereas avoidant procrastination refers to situations in which individuals procrastinate as a tactic to avoid task information about personal ability (situations perceived as unpleasant) in order to protect self esteem (Ferrari, 1992). Lay’s (1986) GP assesses arousal procrastination, while McCown and Johnson’s (1989) AIP assesses avoidant procrastination. General procrastination scales can also be categorized as behavioural procrastination and decisional procrastination. Both the GP and AIP are considered behavioural measures, while Mann’s (1982) Decisional Procrastination Questionnaire (DPQ) is considered a decisional measure.

Lastly, inventories can be divided by the type of procrastination they measure: positive or negative procrastination. All inventories mentioned thus far measure negative aspects of procrastination. The only procrastination inventory to measure positive aspects of procrastination is Chu & Moran’s (2009) Active Procrastination Scale (APS). The APS distinguishes between active and passive procrastinators. Passive procrastinators are procrastinators by the traditional
definition whereas active procrastinators are a positive type of procrastinators who
make deliberate decisions to procrastinate and experience positive personal
outcomes including high academic achievement. The APS assesses four dimensions
of active procrastination: outcome satisfaction, preference for pressure, intentional
decision, and ability to meet deadlines.

**Studies Related to Academic Procrastination**

Akpur (2017) conducted a study on Predictive and Explanatory Relationship
Model between Procrastination, Motivation, Anxiety and Academic Achievement.
The purpose of this study is to determine the predictive and explanatory relationship
model between procrastination, motivation, anxiety and academic achievement of
university students. In this study, a causal research design was used. The study
group consisted of 211 participants. In order to determine their motivation levels,
Academic Motivation Scale (AMS); their anxiety levels, Foreign Language
Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and their procrastination levels, Aitken
Procrastination Inventory (API) were all applied. Students' grades during the term
were considered as the criteria for academic achievement. Data were obtained
through Structural Equation Model (SEM). Findings reveal that, there is not a
significant relationship between anxiety and academic achievement. However, both
the relationship between Academic Procrastination and academic achievement and
the relationship between motivation and academic achievement are significant.
According to findings, the relationship between Academic Procrastination and
motivation is significant and negative. Considering the findings, the predictive and
explanatory relationship pattern between procrastination, motivation anxiety and academic achievement was suggested as a model.

Bekleyen (2017) conducted a study on Understanding the Academic Procrastination Attitude of Language Learners in Turkish Universities. The prevalence of Academic Procrastination has long been the subject of attention among researchers. However, there is still a paucity of studies examining language learners since most of the studies focus on similar participants such as psychology students. The present study was conducted among students trying to learn English in the first year of their university education. 144 male and 169 female students from four different Turkish universities participated in the study. The main purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between the procrastination levels of language students and variables like gender, department, age, self-reported motivational levels, and satisfaction with majors. The findings of the study suggested that men reported significantly higher procrastination behavior. The participants who reported higher motivation procrastinated less while age was not found to be related to procrastination.

Boysan and Kiral (2017) conducted a study on Associations between Procrastination, Personality, Perfectionism, Self-Esteem and Locus of Control. The purpose of the study was to provide a more profound understanding of the relations between procrastination, perfectionism, big five personality, locus of control and self-esteem. Young adults (162 women, 80 men: M = 20.98) completed measures of Academic Procrastination, self-esteem, big five personality, perfectionism and locus of control. Parental criticism was a significant correlate of procrastination, while
personality traits of conscientiousness, agreeableness and organisation were inversely associated with procrastination behaviour. These findings suggest that personality-based intervention approaches with the inclusion of family can be more influential in procrastination prevention and treatment.

Çapri, Gündüz and Akbay (2017) conducted a study on Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-Student Forms’ (UWES-SF) Adaptation to Turkish, Validity and Reliability Studies, and the Mediator Role of Work Engagement between Academic Procrastination and Academic Responsibility. The primary goal of this study is to complete the adaptation, validity and reliability studies of the long (17 items) and short (9 items) forms of UWES-SF. The secondary goal of this study is to study the mediating role of work engagement between Academic Procrastination and academic responsibility in high school students. The study group consists of 597 students, who are enrolled into various high schools in Mersin during the academic year of 2013-2014. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used in order to investigate the factor structure of UWES-SF; Pearson moment coefficient was used for the correlation values between the hidden variables observed in the criterion-related validity study; Cronbach Alpha coefficient was used to determine internal consistency reliability coefficients; inter-item correlation and total-item correlation was calculated to determine item validity and homogeneity. Multiple regression analysis was also used for the mediation test. The results for the Turkish forms of the UWES-SF shows that it can be used in a valid and reliable way on the high school students within the country. Along with this, it was clearly seen in this study that work engagement has a mediating effect between academic responsibility and Academic Procrastination.
Wang, Zhou, Yu, Ran, Liu and Chen (2017) conducted a study on Acceptance and Commitment Therapy and Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy as Treatments for Academic Procrastination: A Randomized Controlled Group Session. This study tested the efficacy of Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT), compared with Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy (CBT), in alleviating Academic Procrastination. A total of 60 (53.3% male) undergraduates suffering from Academic Procrastination were randomly assigned to two treatment groups (ACT and CBT) and a control group. The procrastination symptoms and related psychological mechanisms were assessed immediately after the closure of treatment and at 3-month follow-up (FU). Both therapies showed remarkable short-term effects in decreasing procrastination, but ACT had a better long-term effect. Participants achieved self-esteem enhancement through treatment of both ACT and CBT. While ACT significantly decreased negative affect and improved neuroticism, CBT had a stronger effect on time management. The findings suggest that both CBT and ACT are effective interventions for procrastinators but may have different therapeutic mechanisms.

Wu and Fan (2017) conducted a study on Academic Procrastination in Linking Motivation and Achievement-Related Behaviours: A Perspective of Expectancy-Value Theory. The objective of this study was to investigate the relationships among college students' achievement motivation (subjective task value and academic self-efficacy), Academic Procrastination (delay and missing deadlines) and achievement-related behaviours (effort and persistence). More specifically, the study investigated the mediating role of Academic Procrastination
in linking college students' achievement motivation to their effort and persistence from the perspective of the expectancy-value theory. A total of 584 college students enrolled in a large southern urban university completed a self-report survey for the study. The study suggested two possible pathways that motivate students to persist and put forth greater effort, rooting in students' academic self-efficacy and subjective task value through their relationships with students' Academic Procrastination.

Yilmaz (2017) conducted a study on The Relation between Academic Procrastination of University Students and Their Assignment and Exam Performances: The Situation in Distance and Face-to-Face Learning Environments. The relation between assignment and exam performances of the university students and their Academic Procrastination behaviors in distance and face-to-face learning environments was investigated in this study. Empirical research carried out both in face-to-face and online environments have generally shown a negative correlation between Academic Procrastination and academic performance. However, the effect of Academic Procrastination on assignments in distance learning setting has not been analyzed extensively. To understand the interaction between Academic Procrastination and the learning environment; assignment and exam performances of eighty-eight university students in face-to-face (FtF) and distance learning (DL) environments were investigated. According to the findings of the study, students' Academic Procrastination and assignment scores were negatively correlated in both environments but especially in DL setting. Contrary to this, Academic Procrastination and exam scores were correlated to each other only in FtF environment. On the other hand, there was no correlation between total assignment
and exam scores for DL group, while a medium positive correlation was found in FtF group. The findings of binary logical regression analysis demonstrated that predictive value of the DL environment for assignment score is much stronger than Academic Procrastination behavior of students.

Düsmez and Barut (2016) studied Rational Emotive Behavior Based on Academic Procrastination Prevention: Training Programme of Effectiveness. The research is an experimental study which has experimental and control groups, and based on pre-test, post-test, monitoring test model. Research group consists of second and third grade students of Primary School Education and Psychological Counseling undergraduate programmes in Giresun University Faculty of Educational Sciences. The research group was formed among the students whose Academic Procrastination tendency is middle or high, by using Academic Procrastination scale. 60 students, whose Academic Procrastination tendencies are medium and high level, were identified. 24 students, who volunteered to participate to the study, were appointed randomly to the experimental and control groups. Academic Procrastination scale was used to collect data. Scales were given to experiment and control groups as pre-test. A prevention of Academic Procrastination program which developed by the researcher based on Rational Emotive Behavioral Approach was applied to the experimental group. Control group was not given any training. After the training the of experiment group, post-test measurements were taken. And also 30 days after the experimental training, follow-up measurements were taken. Data were analyzed using Analysis of Nonparametric. In the result of the applied program, a significant difference was found in favor of experiment group in Academic Procrastination. The results were interpreted in the light of the
literature considering effects of Rational Emotive Behavioral Approach on Academic Procrastination.

Kim, Alhaddab, Aquino and Negi (2016) studied Delaying Academic Tasks? Predictors of Academic Procrastination among Asian International Students in American Universities Existing body of research indicates that both cognitive and non-cognitive factors contribute to college students’ tendency of Academic Procrastination. However, little attention has been paid to the likelihood of Academic Procrastination among Asian international college students. Given the need for empirical research on why Asian international students engage in delaying academic tasks, the purpose of our study was to determine what key factors are associated with Academic Procrastination among Asian international students. Using the survey data collected from 226 Asian international students enrolled at four different U.S. universities, study indicates that collective coping, avoidance coping, and language ability are the three strongest predictors of procrastination in Asian international students.

Ocak and Boyraz (2016) studied Examination of the Relation between Academic Procrastination and Time Management Skills of Undergraduate Students in Terms of Some Variables. Academic Procrastination is seen to be quite common among undergraduates and time management is thought to be one of the possible reasons of it. Two surveys, Academic Procrastination and time management, were given to 332 undergraduate students in this correlational research. Students’ Academic Procrastination is explained through frequencies and percentages and a correlation is questioned between Academic Procrastination and time management.
Regression analysis is used to find out if time management predicts Academic Procrastination in a statistically significant way. Besides, students' level of time management (low, medium, high) is examined and covariance analysis has been carried out to see if time management level and gender, time management level and housing type (private or state dormitory or house), time management level and their major and time management level and where they live have a common effect on Academic Procrastination. Results indicate that students are generally indecisive about their behaviors of procrastination in academic tasks and are in middle level in terms of time management skills. There is a moderate level, negative sided and statistically significant correlation between Academic Procrastination and time management. Not a common effect of mentioned above variables is seen.

Ocal (2016) conducted a study on Predictors of Academic Procrastination and University Life Satisfaction among Turkish Sport Schools Students. The purpose of this study was to examine the role of burnout, academic self-efficacy and academic success in predicting procrastination and university life satisfaction among sports schools students. The study sample comprised of 224 participants aged from 18 to 30 years with a mean age of 21.71 (SD = 1.94) who were attending various departments of sport school in a public university. A quantitative research survey method was used in the study. Clustered sampling procedure was utilized in order to get a more representative sample. Pearson's product moment's correlation coefficient, hierarchical regression analysis, the independent t-test and one-way ANOVA were used for data analysis. Significance was set at a minimum of .05. Results indicate that academic burnout, academic self-efficacy and academic success are significant predictors of procrastination. According to these results, burnout
seems to be the strongest predictor which explains 32.3% of the variance in procrastination. On the other hand, efficacy dimension of burnout was the only significant predictor of university life satisfaction among Turkish sports schools students.

Yerdelen, McCaffrey and Klassen (2016) studied Longitudinal Examination of Procrastination and Anxiety, and Their Relation to Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulated Learning: Latent Growth Curve Modeling. This study investigated the longitudinal association between students' anxiety and procrastination and the relation of self-efficacy for self-regulation to these constructs. Latent Growth Curve Modeling was used to analyze data gathered from 182 undergraduate students (134 female, 48 male) at 4 times during a semester. Our results showed that procrastination significantly increased over the semester, while academic anxiety decreased. Students' procrastination and anxiety were positively correlated at the beginning of the semester; however, the trajectories of procrastination and anxiety were not predicted from initial levels of these variables. Moreover, at the initial measurement period, high levels of anxiety and procrastination were significantly related to low levels of self-efficacy for self-regulation, whereas the rate of change in anxiety and procrastination over time were not predicted by students' initial levels of self-efficacy for self-regulation.

Ebadi and Shakoorzadeh (2015), conducted a study on Investigation of Academic Procrastination Prevalence and Its Relationship with Academic Self-Regulation and Achievement Motivation among High-School Students in Tehran City. The present study was carried out with the aim of Investigation of Academic
Procrastination prevalence and its relationship with academic self-regulation and achievement motivation among high-school students in Tehran city. The sample included 624 high school students (312 Boys & 312 Girls) from different areas and regions that selected using random cluster-multistage sampling method. Procrastination Assessment Scale-Student (Solomon & Rothblum, 1984), Self-Regulated Learning Strategies questionnaire (Zimmerman & Pons, 1982) and Achievement motivation test (Hermans, 1970) were used in this study. Data were analyzed in two parts, descriptive and inferential statistics. The results of Academic Procrastination prevalence using descriptive statistic showed that over half of students nearly always or always procrastinate. Also, results showed that boys and girls procrastinate with the same rate, in general. And boys more than girls procrastinate only on preparing academic tasks. The result of regression analysis also showed that academic self-regulation and achievement motivation predict Academic Procrastination significantly.

Toker and Avci (2015) conducted a study on Effect of Cognitive-Behavioral-Theory-Based Skill Training on Academic Procrastination Behaviors of University Students. This study examined the effectiveness of a cognitive-behavioral theory (CBT) psycho-educational group program on the Academic Procrastination behaviors of university students and the persistence of any training effect. This was a quasi-experimental research based on an experimental and control group pretest, posttest, and followup test model. Twenty-six students participated in the research, with 13 each in the experimental and control groups. The Academic Procrastination Scale (APS), Melbourne Decision-Making Questionnaire I-II, Rosenbaum's Learned
Resourcefulness Scale, State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, and Beck Depression Inventory were administered for the synchronization of the two groups in the selection process. The APS was used to collect quantitative data from the participants. In the analysis of the quantitative data, analysis of covariance and t-test were used for statistical analyses. The qualitative data were collected via a general evaluation form of group processes, and thematic analysis was applied to the collected data. It was observed that CBT-based skill training decreased university students' Academic Procrastination behaviors and had a long-term effect on the students.

Drysdale and McBeath (2014) studied Exploring Hope, Self-Efficacy, Procrastination, and Study Skills between Cooperative and Non-Cooperative Education Students. The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between participation in cooperative education, and several psychological constructs believed to be related to success in both academic and professional settings. Participants, undergraduate cooperative (n = 1224) and non-cooperative education (n = 746) students in all years of study and from several academic faculties, completed a survey measuring the psychological constructs of hope, self-efficacy, procrastination, and study-skills. Results indicated significant differences in several study skill characteristics as a function of co-op, gender, and faculty. No significant differences emerged between co-op and non-co-op students on the hope, self-efficacy, or procrastination scales. Implications and recommendations for future research are discussed.
Kandemir, Ilhan, Ozpolat and Palanci (2014) conducted a study on Analysis of Academic Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem and Coping with Stress Skills Predictive Power on Academic Procrastination. The goal of this research is to analyze the predictive power level of academic self-efficacy, self-esteem and coping with stress on Academic Procrastination behavior. Relational screening model is used in the research whose research group is made of 374 students in Kirikkale University, Education Faculty in Turkey. Students in the research group are from different grades and demographic features. "Aitken Academic Procrastination Scale", "Academic Self-Efficacy Scale", "Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale" and "Coping with Stress Scale" are used in the research. Path analysis modeling is used in the research in order to test the hypothesis models. Results indicate that, it is determined that the Academic Procrastination behavior of students is explained by academic self-efficacy, self-esteem and coping with stress strategies in scope of a model. It is seen that active planning, one of the coping with stress strategies explains Academic Procrastination on a negative and meaningful level; biochemical avoidance strategies explain on a positive and meaningful level. Research results are discussed in the light of related literature.

Balkis, Duru and Bulus (2013) conducted a study on Analysis of the Relation between Academic Procrastination, Academic Rational/Irrational Beliefs, Time Preferences to Study for Exams, and Academic Achievement: A Structural Model. The purpose of this study was to investigate the relations between academic rational/irrational beliefs, Academic Procrastination, and time preferences to study for exams and academic achievement by using the structural equation model. The
sample consisted of 281 undergraduate students who filled in questionnaires at the 7-week-long summer course. Students responded to questionnaires assessing their levels of (a) Academic Procrastination, (b) academic rational/irrational beliefs, and (c) time preferences to study for exams and demographic information sheet. In general, the results showed that rational academic beliefs have a direct impact on Academic Procrastination and time preferences to study for exams. Academic rational beliefs also have an impact on academic achievement indirectly by mediation of Academic Procrastination and time preferences to study for exams. The results also showed that Academic Procrastination has an impact on academic achievement both directly and by mediation of time preferences to study for exams. This study suggested that there is a relation between Academic Procrastination and rational academic beliefs, which should be addressed further in counseling intervention. Knowledge about the role of irrational academic beliefs and their relations with Academic Procrastination may assist school/college counselors to develop interventions for students that suffer from delaying behaviors that negatively affect academic success.

Mohammed, Sherit, Eissa and Mostafa (2013) studied Academic Procrastination among College Students with Learning Disabilities: The Role of Positive and Negative Self-Oriented Perfectionism in Terms of Gender, Specialty and Grade. The purpose of this study was three folds: to explore whether there were relationship between Academic Procrastination and positive and negative self-oriented perfectionism of college students with learning disabilities, the extent to which positive and negative self-oriented perfectionism of college students with
learning disabilities predicts Academic Procrastination, and whether level of
Academic Procrastination tendency among college students with learning disabilities
differs according to demographic variables. The research is based on a convenience
sample of 80 undergraduate students from a variety of departments at Zagazig
Faculty of Education, Egypt. Findings indicated that there was a positive correlation
between Academic Procrastination and Positive Self-Oriented Perfectionism, while
no significant correlation was determined between Academic Procrastination and
Negative Self-Oriented Perfectionism. According to the multiple linear regression
analysis results, Positive Self-Oriented Perfectionism, and Negative Self-Oriented
Perfectionism account for 22% of Academic Procrastination. Positive Self-Oriented
Perfectionism made a positive contribution to the model, Negative Self-Oriented
Perfectionism made no significant contribution, which indicated that the only
significant predictor was Positive Self-Oriented Perfectionism. The independent t-
test showed that undergraduates' Academic Procrastination scores did not differ
significantly according to gender. One-way ANOVA showed that undergraduates'
Academic Procrastination scores did not differ significantly according to grade. The
independent t-test showed that undergraduates' Academic Procrastination scores did
not differ significantly according to Specialty.

Akça (2012) conducted a study on An Investigation into the Self-
Handicapping Behaviors of Undergraduates in Terms of Academic Procrastination,
the Locus of Control and Academic Success. The aim of this study was to investigate
the relationship between self-handicapping, Academic Procrastination, the locus of
control and academic success. The aim was also to determine whether these
variables predicted self-handicapping behavior. The population of the study consisted of 263 undergraduates studying in different departments of the Faculty of Education at Uludag University. The Self-Handicapping Scale (Akin, 2012), Academic Procrastination Scale (Çakici, 2003), and Locus of Control Scale (Dag, 1991) were used as data collection tools. Data was analyzed via Pearson correlation analysis and multi linear regression. As a result of the correlation analyses, a positively significant relationship was determined between self-handicapping, the external locus of control and Academic Procrastination. As a result of the regression analysis, it was concluded that Academic Procrastination, the locus of control and academic success predicted self-handicapping in terms of their explanation rates, respectively. Educators and psychological counselors discussed this issue and they made suggestions in line with the findings.

Jiao, DaRos-Voseles, Collins and Onwuegbuzie (2011) studied Academic Procrastination and the Performance of Graduate-Level Cooperative Groups in Research Methods Courses. This study examined the extent to which Academic Procrastination predicted the performance of cooperative groups in graduate-level research methods courses. A total of 28 groups was examined (n = 83 students), ranging in size from 2 to 5 (M = 2.96, SD = 1.10). Multiple regression analyses revealed that neither within-group mean nor within-group variability pertaining to levels of procrastination predicted the group product (i.e., quality of article critique). However, cooperative groups that attained the highest levels of procrastination due to task aversiveness, on average, tended to be those with the lowest levels of performance on the group product. Groups with the lowest levels of achievement tended to be those containing students who reported procrastinating most frequently.
on performing administrative tasks (26.4% of the variance explained), keeping up with weekly reading assignments (8.8% of the variance explained), and writing term papers (11.8% of the variance explained). These three procrastination variables together explained 46.9% of the variance in performance. This finding suggests that level of Academic Procrastination appears to play an important role among graduate students with respect to the performance of cooperative learning groups. (Contains 1 figure.)

Michinov, Brunot, Le Bohec, Juhel and Delaval (2011) conducted a study on Procrastination Participation, and Performance in Online Learning Environments. The present study focuses on a specific learner characteristic in the management of time-procrastination--, and its role in an online learning environment. More specifically, it was expected that procrastination would influence the successfulness of online learning and that this could be explained by the level of participation of learners in discussion forums. A study was conducted to test this hypothesis among a sample of learners taking a 10-week course on environmental and land use issues. As predicted, a negative relationship was found between procrastination and performance, and this relationship was mediated by the level of the learners’ participation in discussion forums. In other words, it appears that if high procrastinators are less successful online learners than low procrastinators, it is partly due to their lack of participation in discussion forums during the learning process. Additionally, some behavioral differences between high and low procrastinators were found in the times they decided to (re)start working at a distance, felt motivated to work on their course, and felt like dropping out of the
course. To conclude, some practical implications for tutoring online activities and for stimulating participation in online learning environments have been proposed.

Deniz, Tras and Aydogan (2009) studied An Investigation of Academic Procrastination, Locus of Control, and Emotional Intelligence. In this research, the effects of emotional intelligence on the Academic Procrastination and locus of control tendencies of a group of university students are investigated. The sample of this study consists of 435 university students including 273 female students and 162 male students who were randomly selected from the population of Selcuk University students. The age range of the students varies in between 17-21 years old and the mean age is 20.19 years old. A personal information form, the Emotional Intelligence Scale, the Academic Procrastination Scale and the Locus of Control Scale were administered to the sample. Research findings show that the sub-scales of the Emotional Intelligence Scale, adaptability and coping with stress, are highly correlated with the students' Academic Procrastination tendency scores (p less than .05). Secondly, it was found that the two sub-scales of the Emotional Intelligence Scale, adaptability and general mood, could significantly predict the students' locus of control scores (p less than .05). Lastly, a negative correlation was found between emotional intelligence skills and both Academic Procrastination (p less than .05) and locus of control (p less than .01). The results were discussed in the light of the related literature.

Collins, Onwuegbuzie and Jiao (2008) conducted a study on Reading Ability as a Predictor of Academic Procrastination among African American Graduate Students. The present study examined the relationship between reading ability (i.e.,
reading comprehension and reading vocabulary) and Academic Procrastination among 120 African American graduate students. A canonical correlation analysis revealed statistically significant and practically significant multivariate relationships between these two reading ability variables and graduate students' levels of Academic Procrastination. Specifically, the first canonical correlation analysis revealed a statistically significant and practically significant multivariate relationship between reading ability and Academic Procrastination resulting from fear of failure. The second canonical correlation analysis revealed a statistically significant and practically significant multivariate relationship between reading ability and Academic Procrastination associated with writing a term paper, performing administrative tasks, attending meetings, keeping up with weekly reading assignments, and, most notably, performing academic tasks. Implications are discussed in the context of designing and implementing strategies designed to improve African American student performance and instruction in graduate-level courses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author &amp; year</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Result</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Akpur (2017)</td>
<td>Predictive and Explanatory Relationship Model between Procrastination, Motivation, Anxiety and Academic Achievement.</td>
<td>Relationship between Academic Procrastination and motivation is significant and negative</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bekleyen (2017)</td>
<td>Understanding the Academic Procrastination Attitude of Language Learners in Turkish Universities.</td>
<td>Men reported significantly higher procrastination behavior</td>
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<td>Boysan and Kiral (2017)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Locus of Control.</td>
<td>conscientiousness, agreeableness and organisation were inversely associated with procrastination behaviour</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wang, Zhou, Yu, Ran, Liu and Chen (2017)</td>
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<td>ACT significantly decreased negative affect and improved neuroticism, CBT had a stronger effect on time management.</td>
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<td>Wu and Fan (2017)</td>
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<td>Two possible pathways that motivate students to persist and put forth greater effort, rooting in students' academic self-efficacy and subjective task value through their relationships with students' Academic Procrastination.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yilmaz (2017)</td>
<td>The Relation between Academic Procrastination of University Students and Their Assignment and Exam Performances: The Situation in Distance and Face-to-Face Learning Environments.</td>
<td>Students' Academic Procrastination and assignment scores were negatively correlated in both environments but especially in DL setting.</td>
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<td>Düsmez and Barut (2016)</td>
<td>Rational Emotive Behavior Based on Academic Procrastination Prevention: Training Programme of Effectiveness</td>
<td>A significant difference was found in favor of experiment group in Academic Procrastination.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kim, Alhaddab, OAquino and Negi (2016)</td>
<td>Delaying Academic Tasks? Predictors of Academic Procrastination among Asian International Students in American Universities</td>
<td>Collective coping, avoidance coping, and language ability are the three strongest predictors of procrastination in Asian international students.</td>
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<td>Ocal (2016)</td>
<td>Predictors of Academic Procrastination and University Life Satisfaction among Turkish Sport Schools Students.</td>
<td>Academic burnout, academic self-efficacy and academic success are significant predictors of procrastination.</td>
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<td>Yerdelen, McCaffrey and Klassen (2016)</td>
<td>Longitudinal Examination of Procrastination and Anxiety, and Their Relation to Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulated Learning: Latent Growth Curve Modeling.</td>
<td>High levels of anxiety and procrastination were significantly related to low levels of self-efficacy for self-regulation, whereas the rate of change in anxiety and procrastination over time were not predicted by students' initial levels of self-efficacy for self-regulation.</td>
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<td>Balkis, Duru and Bulus (2013)</td>
<td>Analysis of the Relation between Academic Procrastination, Academic Rational/Irrational Beliefs, Time Preferences to Study for Exams, and Academic Achievement: A Structural Model</td>
<td>Academic Procrastination has an impact on academic achievement both directly and by mediation of time preferences to study for exams.</td>
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<td>Mohammed, Sherit, Eissa and Mostafa (2013)</td>
<td>Academic Procrastination among College Students with Learning Disabilities: The Role of Positive and Negative Self-Oriented Perfectionism in Terms of Gender, Specialty and Grade</td>
<td>Undergraduates' Academic Procrastination scores did not differ significantly according to gender</td>
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<td>Akça (2012)</td>
<td>An Investigation into the Self-Handicapping Behaviors of Undergraduates in Terms of Academic Procrastination, the Locus of Control and Academic Success</td>
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<td>Collins, Onwueguzie and Jiao</td>
<td>Reading Ability as a Predictor of Academic Procrastination among African American Graduate</td>
<td>Significant and practically significant multivariate relationship between reading</td>
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</table>
The above reviews of related literature give a wider perspective of the present problems. The investigator reviewed the literature in great extent. Several studies reveal the nature of studies. The results found statistical function differences between the subjects of high and low Cognitive Dissonance in the score of the avoidant style dimension for the subjects of high Cognitive Dissonance. There are limited studies in the area of Cognitive Dissonance. Academic Procrastination appears to play an important role among graduate students with respect to the performance of cooperative learning groups. Significant negative relationship between lack of self-confidence and Self Compassion, extraversion, openness to experiences, agreeableness and responsibility. It was found that there was a significant negative relationship between unwillingness to take responsibility and Self Compassion, extraversion, openness to experiences, agreeableness and responsibility.

From the review of literature related to the variables, it is obvious that most of the studies on Cognitive Dissonance, Self Compassion and Academic Procrastination were conducted abroad. Apart from these, the investigator could not locate any study showing the Interaction of Cognitive Dissonance and Self Compassion on Academic Procrastination. In this context the present study is found significant.