Time Well Wasted?

Online Procrastination during Times of Unemployment

Abstract:

This article examines the argument regarding whether perceived social exclusion during unemployment leads to procrastination through online media, which in turn lessens the job search efforts of the unemployed. Based on data from 386 unemployed Internet users, we argue that online procrastination plays an important role in the lives of the unemployed but has no immediate effects on their perceived job search efforts. Contextual factors play an important role; that is, the amount of motivational control that the unemployed can muster exerts a strong effect on job search efforts. Generally, unemployed Internet users with low motivational control struggle more with their job search efforts. Thus, the recreational use of online media as such is not necessarily detrimental to the efforts invested in finding a job; instead, online skill-building and motivational support are key antecedents to better empower the unemployed to use the Internet productively for finding reemployment.

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Online Procrastination in Periods of Unemployment

1. Introduction

In recent years, discussions have increasingly focused on whether the Internet makes us more easily distracted and whether it leads to increased procrastination, which is "to voluntarily delay an intended course of action despite expecting to be worse off for the delay" (Steel, 2007, p. 66). A typical procrastination scenario is the needless delay of pending tasks with the excuse of carrying them out later. Such behaviour seems to be widespread; however, prior research has demonstrated that the frequent and habitual delay of actions and/or decisions is highly dysfunctional (Ferrari, Barnes, & Steel, 2009; Meier, Reinecke, & Meltzer, 2016b). Several studies on the motivations for media use have shown that procrastination is one reason why individuals use entertainment media (Hinsch & Sheldon, 2013; Meier, Meltzer, & Reinecke, 2016a; Meier et al., 2016b, Myrick, 2015; Panek, 2014; Quan-Haase & Young, 2010). Media is perceived as enjoyable and distracting, and it is frequently used during working and leisure time (see for an overview Reinecke & Hofmann, 2016). Regarding the Internet, research has revealed that online media is a frequently used but detrimental tool for procrastination (e.g. Hinsch & Sheldon, 2013; Meier et al., 2016a; Meier et al., 2016b). While research has examined procrastination in the workplace (Nguyen et al, 2013), few studies have evaluated such behaviour in the context of unemployment (Lay & Brokenshire, 1997; Van Hooft et al., 2005). Against this background, we seek to explore whether the Internet might tempt unemployed users to procrastinate online rather than searching for a new position. We thus seek to extend existing research on non-work-related Internet usage in the

workplace that shows the potential for anti-productive tendencies, such as cyberslacking or cyberloafing (Blanchard & Henle, 2008; Lim, 2002), to a situation that is similar but involves the opposite of "working" per se: unemployment.

Being unemployed is an open-ended situation in that an unemployed person typically has a substantial amount of free time with little structure. Searching and applying for reemployment may take some time, but there are also long stretches of the day spent waiting with much less tangible guidance on what activities to perform – particularly compared with being employed. Frequently, much time is spent at home, and this time is often filled with media usage. Historically, the classic case of media usage has been watching television (McIlwraith, 1998; Moskalenko & Heine, 2003). However, as computers and the Internet have become more important, online media has increasingly become a new pastime with new benefits and challenges. On the one hand, the Internet may contribute to alleviating the downside of being unemployed and help establish new possibilities to overcome unemployment's negative consequences by facilitating (or maintaining) online relationships and finding new employment opportunities. On the other hand, spending time online may also prove to be a double-edged sword. Many heavy Internet users experience problems in their (offline) interpersonal relationships and use the Internet as their primary means of alleviating stress and depression (Chou, 2001; Lin & Tsai, 2002).

Because the computer is typically easily accessible, it may be tempting to use it to procrastinate. Subjectively, procrastination might be a reasonable activity; if searching for a job is considered frustrating, online procrastination might help by detaching from the situation. On the other hand, the ubiquitous availability of media content is linked to challenges for media users' self-control capacity (Panek, 2014). Distraction from important but unpleasant tasks can be easily achieved through the Internet, inhibiting the achievement of long-term goals and obligations (Reinecke & Hofmann, 2016). Thus, media can be potentially threatening for self-

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control and goal achievement in everyday life (Reinecke & Hofmann, 2016). On that account, media related procrastination is prevalently conceptualized as a behavioural outcome of failed self-regulation (e.g. Meier et al., 2016b; Reinecke & Hofmann, 2016; Sirois & Psychyl, 2013; Steel, 2007). A low self-control capacity increases the likelihood of giving in to short-term temptations instead of engaging in intended but postponed rewarding activities (Meier et al., 2016a). Online procrastination may thus disadvantage the unemployed due to a failure of self-control.

Against this background, the present study aims to better understand the Internet usage of the unemployed and whether they risk using the medium to spend too much time procrastinating online. More specifically, we are interested in the following: finding the antecedents of online procrastination during unemployment and the points of influence as well as determining the outcomes of online procrastination in terms of paving the way for reemployment through efforts spent on searching for a new position.

2. Literature and Research Model

Periods of unemployment, particularly those that last longer than six months, are associated with significant deleterious effects on psychological and physical well-being (Paul & Moser, 2009; Wanberg, 2012). Unemployment is linked to mental health problems, including depression, somatisation, anxiety, and substance abuse (e.g., Johnson & Jackson, 2012; Mandemakers & Monden, 2013; Reininghaus et al., 2008; Sadeh & Karniol, 2012). Unemployment creates a psychological void that people aim to fill by finding different outlets for self-expression and attempting to maintain their psychological well-being (Fryer & Payne, 1984; Van Hoye & Lootens, 2013). Among other deprivations, unemployment creates a lack of identity and time structure, and many unemployed people miss the sense of purposeful and structured time use

that they had as part of the labour market (Gabriel et al. 2013; Wanberg et al., 1997). When unemployed, individuals tend to feel their best when they try to keep busy, continue their routines, and maintain a sense of purpose that approximates a work situation and that provides them with latent benefits related to higher psychological well-being (Van Hoye & Lootens, 2013).

Some unemployed individuals may use the Internet for procrastination purposes to reduce stress and alleviate the negative feelings that may be associated with unemployment. Some research has shown that increased Internet usage may be associated with decreased levels of loneliness and depression as well as increased levels of social support and self-esteem (Shaw & Gant, 2002). However, turning to the Internet to procrastinate may oftentimes lead to the overuse of the medium, which can be to the detriment of everyday functionality (Kim & Seo, 2015; Morahan-Martin & Schuhmacher, 2003; Sirois & Kitner, 2015; Steel, 2007; Thatcher, Wretschko, & Fridjhon, 2008).

From a displacement perspective, Internet use may detract from the time that is available for more traditional social activities – such as face-to-face socialising – because time is a limited resource that must be budgeted among competing activities (Stepanikova et al., 2010). However, from a coping perspective, we might argue for a more positive interpretation of media procrastination than its traditional understanding. According to Reinecke and Hofmann (2016), the almost permanent availability of media content is associated with many benefits for self-regulation: media exposure offers the possibility of regulating mood and arousal (Zillmann, 1988), supports intrinsic need satisfaction (Reinecke, Vorderer, & Knop, 2014; Wirth, Hofer, & Schramm, 2012), and facilitates recovery from stress and strain (Reinecke, Klatt, & Krämer, 2011). Problem-focused coping involves seeking to change or eliminate the stressor itself, whereas emotion-focused coping involves seeking to reduce or manage the emotional consequences associated with the stressor. In nearly all stressful occurrences, both

approaches are employed. The question is whether the emotional coping response of online procrastination is detrimental to the job search process that aims at solving the problem of unemployment. In the following, we propose the following hypothesis model.

Unemployment often leads to both material and social deprivation. Being unemployed is financially straining, and money-related sorrows are common. Socially, being unemployed makes it increasingly difficult to maintain contact with friends, particularly work colleagues (Wanberg, 2012). Social isolation, which is a correlate of subjectively experienced loneliness, is a stressor and risk factor for mental health problems (Prince et al, 1997). Studies have noted that feeling powerlessness or meaninglessness or feeling ideologically or socially isolated – and deprived – leads to the desire to escape; frequently, mass media are the means used to satisfy this desire (Gonser & Möhring, 2010). In periods of unemployment, with more time available during the day – but with limited financial resources, friends at their jobs and (often) damaged self-esteem – much time is spent at home and using media. By combining the findings of prior research, we expect the perceived exclusion experienced through unemployment to lead to higher levels of online procrastination. Therefore, we formulate the following hypothesis:

H1.
Social exclusion is positively related to procrastination.

In the literature, there is no clear evidence that social exclusion is directly caused by unemployment, but it appears to be contingent upon broader cultural patterns (Gallie et al., 2003). However, for those unemployed individuals who feel excluded because of a lack of social support networks or general hopelessness about the (lack of) success of their job search, exclusion may negatively affect happiness and well-being (Baumeister et al., 2005; Cacioppo et al., 2003). These negative effects may be detrimental to the speed and success of finding reemployment; thus, research on reemployment has shown that positive emotions such as en-

thusiasm, energy, and alertness are good for motivational control and that maintaining a positive self-perception as well as keeping one's options open for finding reemployment leads to greater commitment to the job search process (Parker et al., 2010; Turban et al., 2013). Research has also shown that individuals who feel excluded show distorted time perceptions, an emphasis on the present rather than on the future, lethargic passivity, and an avoidance of self-awareness (Twenge et al., 2003). There are different hypotheses regarding the effects of such perceived exclusion. One opinion, the reconnection hypotheses, posits that individuals respond to exclusion with increased motivation to build social bonds (Maner et al., 2007). However, this motivational drive is only favoured when conditions exist for actual interaction to occur or when such interaction is anticipated to occur (Twenge & Campbell, 2003); of course, these conditions do not characterise the reemployment process but might apply to online contacts that might not be employment related. We thus assume that perceived exclusion has predominately negative effects both on motivational control as an antecedent and on job search effort as an outcome; accordingly, we propose the following two hypotheses:

H2.
Social exclusion is negatively related to motivational control.

H3.
Social exclusion is negatively related to job search effort.

Finding employment and emerging from unemployment requires extensive self-regulation in terms of both effort and emotion. Self-regulation of effort is needed to sustain a job search over time, despite continued rejections and the monotony of the process. Self-regulation of emotion is needed when individuals feel discouraged, angry, worried, or frustrated about the multiple stressors involved in searching for a job and in unemployment in general (Creed et al., 2009; Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997; Wanberg et al., 1999; Wanberg et al., 2010). To abstain from procrastination and maintain high levels of effort and persistence in an activity, unem-

ployed individuals must adopt self-initiated processes, such as goal setting, planning, and envisioning goal accomplishment (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997; Turban et al., 2013). According to Turban et al. (2013), unemployed individuals with stronger motivational control tend to show goal-directed behaviour and are less likely to procrastinate. Based on these findings, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4.
Motivational control is negatively related to procrastination.

During a job search, job seekers must use self-regulation strategies to manage thoughts and behaviours, to accomplish job search tasks in a timely manner and to maintain effort during the job search (Kanfer et al., 2001; Turban et al., 2013; Van Hooft et al., 2012). Motivational control is important in situations in which motivation tends to fade, such as during an extended job search (Sansone & Thoman, 2006; Turban et al., 2013), and this control is positively related to job search intensity (Creed et al., 2009; Wanberg et al., 1999). Self-regulation is needed particularly with respect to the attainment of distal goals that involve lengthy processes consisting of tasks low on intrinsic (activity-related) motivation and high on extrinsic (outcome-related) motivation (Van Hooft et al., 2012). The stronger a job seekers' motivation to obtain a job, the more likely it is that he/she will allocate the resources needed to self-regulate and to conduct a high-quality search (Van Hooft et al., 2012). Consistent with these findings, we formulate the following hypothesis:

H5.
Motivation control is positively related to job search effort.

Overcoming unemployment is a process that requires many actions on the part of the unemployed, including searching for employment opportunities (sometimes in slightly different sectors and vocations), acquiring information about such opportunities, and actively applying for job openings (Blau, 1994). Job search behaviour is a major determinant of finding em-

ployment (Kanfer et al., 2001). Job seekers must engage in goal-directed behaviours, including completing applications and replying to potential employers in a timely manner (Turban et al, 2013). Based on prior research on the relationship between online procrastination and detrimental outcomes (e.g., Hinsch & Sheldon, 2013; Meier et al., 2016a; Meier et al., 2016b), we assume that online procrastination is largely detrimental to the job search process. The process of seeking a job is largely self-organised and self-managed and involves setting a goal, then planning, monitoring, and evaluating the progress made towards the goal (Turban et al., 2009). Kanfer et al. (2001) noted that job search behaviour can be evaluated with respect to intensity of effort (i.e., the frequency and effort of job search activity) and content direction (i.e., the type of activities engaged in and the quality of these activities). Additionally, the type and quality of job search activities performed is an important dimension of a job search (Van Hooft et al., 2012). Job search activities are rarely considered enjoyable and entertaining. Instead, the job search process is generally experienced as difficult and filled with negative emotions (Wanberg et al., 2010). Based on the above considerations, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H6.
Procrastination is negatively related to job search effort.

3. Methods

3.1. Sample Description

Accessing the client database of the German Federal Employment Agency, we conducted an analysis to determine how those seeking work use the Internet in general and social media in particular to re-enter the job market and to determine which factors affect the job search efforts of the unemployed. Data were collected from clients of the German Federal Employment Agency who were randomly selected from a database that included all unemployed people in

Germany at that time and who were invited to participate in a telephone-based survey during February and March 2012. No incentive was offered to the participants. Overall, 2,414 unemployed individuals completed a computer-assisted telephone survey.

From the representative sample, we were looking for regular Internet users among the unemployed. Of all participants, 386 were identified as regular users; these participants were characterised by broad experience, a high frequency of use, and a wide range of applications. The remaining participants were identified as inexperienced and infrequent users, utilizing few applications; therefore, they were not considered in the analysis.

Compared with the overall sample, in which a gender and region composition of the sample that was representative of the German general population was ensured by defining quotas for these attributes, the resulting sub-sample of the regular users differs in its socio-demographic composition: male participants are overrepresented at 57.0%. Age is below the population average: 67.4% of participants are between 18 and 25 years old, and 26.9% are between 26 and 40 years of age. Most respondents hold a high school diploma that allows no direct access to a university or college (68.1%). The sub-samples were further tested for differences in job importance and self-efficacy. Table 1 summarises the profiles and demographics of the respondents.

TABLE 1 Sample Profile ABOUT HERE

The questionnaire was based on measures on Internet usage, job search experience, and social psychology in the literature. The scale for perceived exclusion was adapted from Bude and Lantermann (2006). Motivational control was measured using the personal mastery subscale of the Motivational Trait Questionnaire (Heggestad & Kanfer, 2000; Kanfer & Ackermann, 2000). The procrastination construct was derived from Davis et al. (2002). The scale for job search behaviour was adapted from Caplan et al. (1989). The precise phrasing of all items was

adjusted based on a pilot test in which 40 unemployed persons were asked to comment on the wording of the listed items. Each item was rated by the survey participants based on a five-point Likert scale (from 1 = absolutely applies to 5 = does not apply at all).

3.2. Measurement Model

Overall, we considered four latent constructs with a total of 15 items in the measurement model. First, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to test for uni-dimensionality and scale reliability on the item and construct levels. On the construct level, we used Cronbach's alpha (α), composite reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE) to assess the internal consistency of the scales. Table 2 lists the results of this assessment. After this procedure, one item (JSE_1) was eliminated from the job search scale because its inclusion decreased the reliability coefficients. After this adjustment, the results from the α, CR, and AVE tests were above the required criterion values. As shown in Table 3, the measurement model has discriminant validity. Overall, these statistics indicate a good fit for the model.

TABLE 2 Measurement Model ABOUT HERE

TABLE 3 Means, SDs and Discriminant Validity ABOUT HERE

4. Results

4.1. Structural Model

Based on our hypotheses, we initially estimated the model shown in Figure 1 with the statistical software Mplus. The results include the standardised coefficients based on robust maximum likelihood estimation and the total variance explained (R^2) for each dependent construct for all participants without missing values. As shown in Table 4, the model provided good fitness indices. All but one of the hypothesised and estimated paths were significant.

In the overall model, we find strong confirmation for our hypotheses. Perceived exclusion positively affected both online procrastination and job search effort: perceived exclusion had a strong significant effect on online procrastination ($\beta = 0.372$, $p < 0.001$), although the effect on job search effort was both weaker and less significant ($\beta = 0.199$, $p < 0.05$). Perceived exclusion showed a negative effect on motivational control ($\beta = -0.191$, $p < 0.01$). In other words, perceived exclusion primarily influenced online procrastination, but its effects on job search effort and motivational control were also significant. The higher the perceived exclusion, the more the respondent was prone to online procrastination. Concurrently, but to a lesser extent, higher levels of perceived exclusion lead to higher levels of job search efforts and lower levels of motivational control. In regards to the effects of motivational control, we again find strong support for both online procrastination and job search effort. Motivational control negatively affected online procrastination ($\beta = -0.253$, $p < 0.001$) and positively affected job search effort ($\beta = 0.317$, $p < 0.001$). Participants with stronger motivational control were less prone to online procrastination and more active in seeking a new job than participants with weaker motivational control. We presumed job search effort to be more of a challenge in the context of online procrastination and therefore expected that online procrastination would have an effect on job search effort. However, online procrastination had no significant effect on job search effort, indicating that online procrastination is not detrimental for an unemployed individual's job-seeking efforts.

In total, the examined factors accounted for 3.6% of the observed variance in motivational control, 23.8% of the variance in online procrastination, and 11.6% of the variance in job search effort. Hence, of all the examined factors, our model has the highest explanatory power

for online procrastination, revealing that social exclusion and motivational control are important antecedents of online procrastination.

Discussion

Our analysis sought to determine whether the Internet and its opportunities for diversion have negative effects during periods of unemployment. The data indicated that online procrastination is present among the unemployed and is fuelled by their current situation. The perceived exclusion and motivational control of unemployed individuals are important factors in explaining eventual procrastination. Online procrastination is among the behaviours that are often implicitly regarded as problematic and detrimental for self-conscious emotions. Prior research has shown that for those engaging in procrastination, the impression of needlessly delaying tasks triggers more regret, apprehension, and feelings of guilt than enjoyment (Fee & Tangney, 2000; Ferrari, Barnes & Steel, 2009; Lavoie & Pychyl, 2001; Panek, 2014; Reinecke, Hartmann & Eden, 2014; van Eerde, 2003). Feelings of guilt, in turn, have been reported to frequently reduce recovery experience, media enjoyment and overall well-being after media use (Hinsch & Sheldon, 2013; Meier, Meltzer & Reinecke, 2016; Meier, Reinecke, & Meltzer, 2016; Reinecke & Hofmann, 2016). However, positive effects, such as the short-term satisfaction of hedonic needs or recovery from stress and strain with media used for procrastination, have also been observed (Reinecke, Klatt, & Krämer, 2011).

Since occasional online procrastination is an almost ubiquitous behaviour (Lavoie & Pychyl, 2001; Reinecke & Hofmann, 2016), it is important to question the extent to which procrastination is indeed problematic, not only with regards to self-conscious emotions but particularly concerning job search behaviour as a correlate for subsequent reemployment. The results of the structural model have shown on one hand that in the context of unemployment, the increased amount of available time and the perception of social exclusion appear to amplify

problematic Internet use patterns. On the other hand, procrastination may not impact job search effort. Thus, the two activities are not mutually exclusive; instead, it is possible that even if some individuals use the Internet to defer job-searching activities, the overall effort exerted to find a job may not suffer. Even when large periods of time are procrastinated away, it appears that a sufficient amount of the time budget remains to achieve a certain level of job-search results using the Internet. Therefore, the established negative connotation of procrastination in the context of unemployment may not universally hold. The data from our study provide insight into how new media and technologies influence methods of coping with unemployment. Contrary to the rather negative connotation of the concept, our results reveal that procrastination is not a purposeless form of Internet usage. Procrastination does not exert direct effects on observed levels of job search efforts throughout the unemployment experience of Internet users. According to our study, procrastination tendencies do not interfere with the success of the transition phase.

The study has some limitations. First, all constructs were measured as self-reporting scales and items. At first glance, this method might be viewed as a limitation of the validity of our results. However, we controlled for social desirability, and there was no significant correlation between the social desirability scale (Stöber, 1999) and the constructs we employed. Self-reported data can be problematic in situations of unemployment, as the procrastinators might have ego-protection incentives to deceive themselves about the effects of their procrastination on their job search. If the procrastination takes place in the context of job searching, they may report off-task activity as being active. However, the method of self-reporting has some viability as a next-best approach, not least because the perception of exclusion, job search effort, and procrastination are all in themselves highly subjective constructs. Future research gathering additional data with real time measurements of actual computer use in addition to self-report would help to shed more clarity on this. Second, online media use can be detrimental to

employment in ways other than online procrastination as it was measured in this study, e.g., through mere time displacement, overuse of escapist coping through the Internet, or increased feelings of social isolation through passive social media use.

Nonetheless, some amount of procrastination might help individuals to cope with unemployment. For instance, indulging in activities that primarily satisfy the desire to escape may actually have certain positive effects. For example, while using social media networks to delay other tasks, one might find informational or emotional support for coping with unemployment, which may in turn prove to be an asset with respect to motivation control and job search effort. Unfortunately, our research design is not yet capable of assessing the use of specific online activities. To identify and analyse the role of these potential positive effects, further research might focus on the specific applications that individuals use when procrastinating to ensure that time spent online is indeed less about time wasted and more about time wasted well.

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Table 1
Sample Profile (N = 386)

Variables	Distribution	n	Percent	Missing
Gender	male	220	57.0	-
	female	166	43.0	
	Total	*386*	*100*	
Age	18 - 25	260	67.4	-
	26 - 50	104	26.9	
	51 - 65	22	5.7	
	Total	*386*	*100*	
Internet Experience	3 years	6	1.4	
	4 years	28	6.7	
	More than 4 years	386	91.9	
	Total	*386*	*100*	
Education	no high school diploma	15	3.9	10
	high school diploma not allow-ing direct access to college/ university	263	68.1	
	high school diploma allowing access to college/university	98	25.4	
	Total	*386*	*100*	
Region	urban	218	56.5	-
	rural	168	43.5	
	Total	*386*	*100*	
Job Importance	high	262	68.6	5
	low	120	31.4	
	Total	*382*	*100*	
Self-Efficacy	high	181	47.4	4
	low	201	52.6	
	Total	*382*	*100*	

Table 2
Measurement Model

Construct	Item	Standardised loading	t-values	α	C.R.	AVE
Perceived Exclusion	PE_1	0.623	14.421***	0.813	0.802	0.505
	PE_2	0.685	17.641***			
	PE_3	0.818	25.541***			
	PE_4	0.703	18.227***			
Motivational Control	MC_1	0.685	15.088***	0.720	0.743	0.491
	MC_2	0.733	16.684***			
	MC_3	0.684	14.906***			
Online Procrastination	OP_1	0.832	22.085***	0.767	0.772	0.533
	OP_2	0.710	17.254***			
	OP_3	0.634	14.317***			
Job Search Effort	JSE_1	0.734	20.170***	0.810	0.809	0.517
	JSE_2	0.698	17.851***			
	JSE_4	0.624	14.520***			
	JSE_5	0.808	24.420***			
Criterion		≥ 0.5	min*	≥ 0.7	≥ 0.6	≥ 0.5

*** $p < 0.001$

Table 3

Means, SDs and Discriminant Validity (Fornell-Larcker Criterion)

Construct	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1 Perceived Exclusion	3.78	1.25	**.50**			
2 Motivational Control	1.70	0.74	-0.036	**.49**		
3 Online Procrastination	3.67	1.20	0.176	-0.105	**.53**	
4 Job Search Effort	1.95	1.09	0.020	0.076	-0.000	**.52**
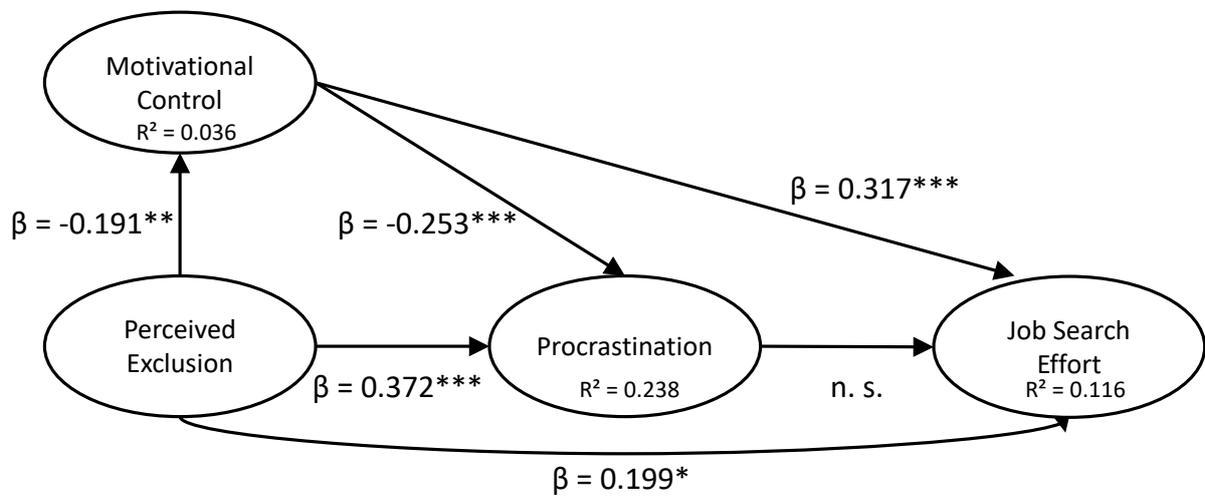
Figure 1:

Structural Equation Model on the Antecedents of Job Search Efforts and Procrastination

Table 4

Fit Indices

Index	Measurement model	Criterion
Chi-squared (p)	117.374 (0.000)	-
Degree of freedom	71	-
Chi-squared/d.f.	1.653	≤ 3
CFI	0.963	≥ 0.90
TLI	0.953	≥ 0.90
SRMR	0.048	<0.08
RMSEA	0.047	≤ 0.05

Appendix

Appendix A
List of Variables in the Structural Equation Model

Construct	Item	Translated Wording (Scale)[1]
Perceived Exclusion	PE_1	Since I have been out of work, I am often afraid of falling behind.
	PE_2	Since I have been out of work, I often feel like other people have already given up on me.
	PE_3	Since I have been out of work, I often feel like I do not belong to society.
	PE_4	Since I have been out of work, I often feel useless.
Motivational Control	F15b_b	I set goals as a way to improve my performance.
	F15b_c	I like to undertake situations that challenge me.
	F15b_d	I work hard at everything I undertake until I am satisfied with the result.
Online Procrastination	OP_1	When I am online, I don't think about my responsibilities.
	OP_2	I find that I go online more when I have something else I am supposed to do.
	OP_3	Using the Internet is a way to forget about the things I must do but don't really want to do.
Job Search Effort	JSE_1	In the last quarter, I was searching for a job on the Internet. (dropped)
	JSE_2	I am very active in searching for a job.
	JSE_3	I plan to continue actively searching for a job.
	JSE_4	In the future, I will use the Internet even more in my job search.
	JSE_5	I am always working on further improving my job search.

[1] Likert Scale: 1 – Absolutely applies, 2 – Tends to apply, 3 – Applies in some cases but not in others, 4 – Tends not to apply, 5 – Does not apply at all