

Correlational Relationship between Organizational Self-Efficacy and Organizational Self-Esteem

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Abstract- Self-efficacy is the belief an individual has that they possess the ability to do something. Self-esteem is an individual's self-evaluation of one's character. Looking into self-efficacy and self-esteem organizationally it is said that organizational self-esteem is an employee's self-perceived competence within an organization while organizational self-efficacy is an employee's beliefs that their self-competence can be translated into successful action within the organization (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989). The focus of this study was to investigate the correlational relationship between occupational self-efficacy and occupational self-esteem. A total of 135 participants whom were all employed at the time were surveyed with the use of the Organizational Based Self-Esteem Scale (OBSE) and New Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (OCCSEFF). However, the study did not find what it hypothesized. A correlation could not be conducted and no difference was found between gender and self-efficacy and gender and self-esteem. However, because not many studies find no significant results that in it of itself should be taken into consideration.

Index Terms- self-efficacy, self-esteem, organizational, organizational self-efficacy, organizational self-esteem, occupational self-esteem, occupation self-efficacy, efficacious beliefs

I. INTRODUCTION

Correlational relationship between Organizational Self-Efficacy and Organizational Self-Esteem

Long before Albert Bandura defined the concept of self-efficacy and introduced it as the main component in his social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977), human motivation was discussed in reference to outcome expectancies. It was when treating phobic individuals while using mastery modeling techniques, that individual differences in generalization were found despite the subject's targets of fear. With the proper use of techniques (e.g. handling a lizard) all subjects developed a strong outcome expectancy with the idea that properly using the techniques would protect them from adverse consequences (e.g. encountering a lizard), yet all subjects differed in their perceived capabilities in using the proper techniques outside of therapy. Bandura went on to label the differences in perceived capabilities as self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). It was then hypothesized by Bandura that both self-efficacy and outcome expectancies affect motivation but he suggested that self-efficacy plays a much bigger and dramatic role than outcome expectancies.

Bandura explains the concept of self-efficacy as one's judgment of how well one can execute courses of action while facing adversity (Bandura, 1982). Bandura sought to assess the levels and strength of self-efficacy across all activities and contexts. In terms of self-efficacy, levels refer to the dependence on the difficulty of the task at hand (i.e. spelling of word). Transferring self-efficacious beliefs across activities is known as generality. Strength in terms of self-efficacy is measured by the amount of certainty one has when performing a task (Bandura, 1977; 1997).

Overall the concept of self-efficacy is that it is an individual's expectation of personal mastery. In other words, it is the belief one has in one's own competence. It is theorized that self-efficacy is the factor that determines how much effort an individual is willing to invest in the face of aversive experiences and times of difficulty (Bandura, 1982). Individuals with low self-efficacious beliefs are characterized as self-doubting and insecure while individuals with high self-efficacious beliefs have a stronger sense of self and security; therefore, as a result, individuals give their entire attention and effort to the obstacles at hand (Bandura, 1982). According to Bandura (1982), self-efficacy is the gradual development of one's accumulative experiences. Thus, the cognitive appraisals and integrations of these accumulative experiences determine the self-efficacy of an individual. The belief of one's own self-efficacy is built on four components: enactive attainments, verbal persuasion, vicarious experiences, and physiological state (Bandura, 1982).

The first component, enactive attainments, is the most abundant source of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982). It is the most influential because they are the predications of the results obtained from personal experiences. Enactive attainments are founded upon authentic mastery experiences (Bandura, 1982); repeated successful experiences increase self-efficacy while repeated failures decrease self-efficacy. Successes and failures then lead to outcome expectations. Outcome expectations are judgments that an individual has about the consequences that follow any performance(s). Positive expectations lead to incentives while negative expectations lead to disincentives (Bandura, 2006).

Verbal persuasion is described as persuading a person that they have the capabilities to seek success. Although it is not the most potent component, it does contribute to success on two bases: 1) if the appraisal is within realistic boundaries and 2) the credibility of the person giving the verbal persuasion which is better known as the persuader (Bandura, 1982; Zimmerman, 2000). Such verbal appraisal can motivate an individual to develop their skills and overall sense of personal efficacy (Bandura, 1982).

Self-efficacy is partly built by vicarious experiences. Vicarious experience is described as observing others, similar to one's self, who attain success and that one judges to be capable of doing; in other words, an individual's self-comparison to others and their outcomes (Bandura, 1982). Vicarious experiences are built by watching others perform a task that one either has little to no experience with (Bandura, 1982). If watching another person is perceived by an individual as being more talented than the relevance of the observed person's performance outcome will be discounted (Zimmerman, 2000). For instance, a recreational tennis player may observe Serena Williams serve a tennis ball at 132 MPH. Such an observation may not increase the recreational tennis player's confidence because the recreational tennis player is not a professional, grand-slam champion like Serena Williams. But if that same recreational tennis player observes another recreational tennis player serve a tennis ball at 132 MPH with similar characteristics as themselves they may be convinced that they are able to achieve such a task.

The fourth and last component, physiological state, is an individual's judgment of one's current state of health and stamina. When an individual is highly aroused, tense and/or stressed, it debilitates performance, thus individuals expect to achieve success when they are calm and collected (Bandura, 1982). When individuals are required to achieve success through physical means, judgment is based on health. If failure is expected because the task at hand is interpreted to be difficult or complicated symptoms of physical inefficacy occurs. Although these symptoms vary from person to person, symptoms generally include exhaustion, aches, feeling flushed, heart palpitations, headaches, bodily aches, and sweaty palms (Bandura, 1982; Lunenburg, 2011).

Aside from being built by the four components previously mentioned, there are three dimensions to self-efficacy. These three dimensions are: magnitude, strength, and generality. Magnitude is the degree of adversity an individual perceives they can conquer. Strength is when an individual judges the magnitude of a task as either weak or strong. Generality is the expectations that an individual generalizes in any given situation (Bandura, 1997).

It is assumed that self-efficacy responds to changes within personal contexts and outcomes, regardless if it is directly, vicariously, verbally, or physiologically experienced. Because self-efficacy is assumed to have a responsive nature, self-efficacious beliefs are investigated as indicators of change and individual differences due to its sensitivity (Zimmerman, 2000). In other words, self-efficacy does not apply in all realms of human life. Individuals differ in where and how much efficacy they cultivate and regarding the levels in which they develop efficacy within their given pursuits. For instance, an individual may have a high sense organizational self-efficacy but a low sense of educational self-efficacy. In similar terms, self-efficacy is multifaceted (Bandura, 2006).

Individuals are influenced by their self-efficacious beliefs, it is what directs them to think erratically, strategically, optimistically, or pessimistically (Bandura, 2006). Efficacious beliefs influence an individual's course of action, challenges, goals, commitments and effort invested into each of their endeavors, outcome expectancies, perseverance, resilience, and their life choices and accomplishments (Bandura, 2006).

In simpler terms, efficacious expectations at any given time determine the initial decision of performance and the amount of persistence invested while facing obstacles. Thus, to sum up the concept of self-efficacy as a whole, self-efficacy is the catalyst force behind one's judgement of capability to determine the choices and skills needed for any given task (Bandura, 1982).

In general, research has found that there are many psychological variables related to self-efficacy. Self-efficacy and its properties have been measured with the use of questionnaires which are specific in task, may vary in difficulty, and capture some extent of complexity (Zimmerman, 2000). Measures of self-efficacy concern themselves with the capabilities to perform rather than personal qualities, such as a person's physical or psychological characteristics. Respondents of such questionnaires judge their perceived capabilities of fulfilling task demands instead of how they feel about themselves personally.

Self-efficacy has a multidimensional and multifaceted nature and differs on the basis of the function's domain (Zimmerman, 2000). For instance, a 14-year-old male may have greater self-efficacious beliefs and certainty in regards to playing sports and may have weak self-efficacious beliefs and certainty in regards to academia. In other words, perception of efficacy depends on the mastery criterion instead of normative and/or other criteria. Finally, because self-efficacious beliefs are judged in reference to the future it plays a causal role in motivation (Zimmerman, 2000).

In general, individuals that are efficacious demonstrate more often than not positive judgements rather than negative judgments about the consequences of their actions (Bandura, 1997). Efficacious beliefs influence people's thoughts and behaviors. It even impacts other determinants such as goals, aspirations, commitment, resilience to adversity, outcomes, and perseverance.

Generally speaking people spend a lot of their time, emotions, energy, and hope into their work (Argyle, 1999). Self-efficacy and work have an intimate relationship and much of people's self-efficacy is derived from work. For instance, in the case of job lost the longer a person is unemployed, the more their self-efficacy diminishes thus, less effort is put into job search and the chances of finding a new job decreases (Eden & Aviram, 1993).

Studies in both the organizational and gender contexts have used the concept of self-efficacy to understand the development of a woman's career (Betz & Hackett, 1981, p. 400). Betz & Hackett (1981) view self-efficacious expectations useful in the comprehension of a women's career development. Because of sex role socializations or sex typing as it is also known, females are less likely than males to develop strong career related self-efficacious expectations (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Sherman, 1971, 1976). In simpler terms society does not encourage or actively discourages women and girls from engaging in activities that not only increases but, also strengthens self-efficacious expectations (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Sherman, 1971, 1976). For example, according to the study conducted by Farmer (1976), women continue to be underrepresented in such professions such as law, medicine, mathematics, science, engineering, and managerial and

administrative positions. It is a possibility that low self-efficacy may be a factor of restriction of women's career options.

Betz and Hackett (1981) found that out of the 20 occupations they looked into females had greater self-efficacy for traditional feminine occupations such as dental hygienist, social worker, and so forth. Whereas males had greater self-efficacy for traditional male occupations such as accountant, engineer, and so forth. In their study, males reported equivalent self-efficacy to both traditional and nontraditional occupations whereas females reported less self-efficacious beliefs to nontraditional occupations than traditional occupations. Thus, the beliefs of the undergraduate students to pursue certain occupations corresponded with patterns of sex typing (Betz & Hackett, 1981).

In the organizational context occupational self-efficacy is built on Bandura's definitions and concept of general self-efficacy but as it has been a focal point in current and past research (Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, & Kern, 2006). Organizational studies have shown, through the years, that as general self-efficacy is positively correlated with everyday satisfaction and performance, occupational self-efficacy also positively correlates with job satisfaction and job performance (Rigotti et al., 2008). Research has found that occupational self-efficacy can be used to access different jobs, organizational levels, and so forth (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008). Occupational self-efficacy is not only positively related to job satisfaction and commitment but, it is also related to general self-efficacy (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008).

Research has shown that employees who are highly self-efficacious provide themselves with high personal goals while those with low self-efficacy provide themselves with relatively low personal goals (Lunenburg, 2011). In other words, employees perform at levels consistent with their self-efficacious beliefs. Employees who value their efficacy highly are likely to persist in the face of problems while employees, on the other side of the spectrum, are more likely to give up when problems arise (Lunenburg, 2011). Lock and Latham (1990) concluded that a strong perception of self-efficacy leads to more planned and challenging goals; individuals with positive images of self-efficacy will focus their efforts and attention at the task at hand. Such focus and attention in achieving a highly oriented goal motivates individuals to stretch their abilities and efforts in mastering new challenges, and overcome previous performances.

There is no doubt that performance is heavily influenced by self-efficacy as prior research has shown. It effects performance via motivating individuals to set and pursue high levels of performance, which in turn stimulates, organizes, and directs efforts in goal pursuits. In other words, self-efficacy can be thought of as a motivational construct of performance and goal orientation. Which is why highly self-efficacious employees have confidence in their ability to be successful in almost all, if not most, job duties and responsibilities (Brown, Leigh, & Jones, 2005).

American philosopher, William James suggested in 1890, that people create an idea based on their individual characteristics such as physical attributes, abilities, needs, and so forth, which then forms as an impression of their own character. In contemporary times this impression is referred to as self-concept. Self-concept are not so much a description of one's self but rather an evaluation of one's self. This evaluation is better

known as self-esteem. Overall, self-esteem is the approval or disapproval of one's self. It is an individual's judgement of self-worth; And much like self-efficacy, self-esteem also varies. For instance, an employee may reflect positively of their computer skills but may reflect negatively of their social skills (Kanning & Hill, 2012). It is an aesthetic phenomenon that is understood by dividing it into two distinct categories: instrumental and intrinsic value. Instrumental refers to what an object is good for, and intrinsic value refers to the qualities of the object itself that are deemed worthy (Tafarodi & Swann Jr, 2001). Apply this concept to people and you get the merits of both what an individual can do and what they appear to be. In other words, you get the two dimensions of self-competence and self-liking which in turn makes up the dual nature of self-esteem (Tafarodi & Swann Jr, 2001).

The overall positive or negative orientation one has of oneself is known as self-competence. Self-competence is the instrumental value of the dual nature of self-esteem. Although it is closely related to self-efficacy it is not equivalent (Bandura, 1989,1992). Self-competence is one's experience as an intentional being that brings desired outcomes through the use of one's will, whereas self-efficacy is the belief of being capable to achieve such desired outcomes (Tafarodi & Swann Jr, 2001).

The intrinsic value of self-esteem is self-liking. Self-liking is the experience an individual has of being a social object, more specifically a good or bad person. Self-liking develops through the internalization of the judgements conveyed on by others of oneself (Tafarodi & Swann Jr, 2001). This is seen with young children who interpret the appraisals of the adults around them. For example, if a child is consistently appraised as being good then they view themselves as good (Tafarodi & Swann Jr, 2001).

The concept of self-esteem has been an interest for researchers. Many researchers argue in recognizing self-esteem as a hierarchical and multifaceted phenomenon (Shavelson, Huber, & Stanton 1976; Song & Hattie, 1985; Tharenou, 1979). With the use of self-assessment items, participants can indicate how they rate themselves as a whole. Such inventories, like the Rosenberg Scale, allow to illustrate how imperative self-esteem is for the diversity of human behavior and experience. For example, there have been positive correlations between self-esteem and general life satisfaction (Diener, 1984; Diener & Diener, 1995), popularity or social integration (Demo & Savin-Williams, 1992; Riggio, Throckmorton & DePaola, 1990; Riggio, Watring & Throckmorton, 1993). And negative correlations have been found between self-esteem and alcohol and self-esteem and drug consumption (Dielman, Campanelli, Shope & Butchart, 1987; Zimmermann, Copeland, Shope & Dielman, 1997).

Coined by Pierce, Gardner, Cummings and Dunham (1989), organizational self-esteem refers to an individual's own evaluation of their adequacy and worth as a member of an organization. It is suggested that an employee's belief of him or herself is connected to the employee's organizational motivation, attitude, and behavior (Pierce et al., 1989). Organizational members with high organizational self-esteem view themselves as vital, meaningful and worthy. Highly organizational self-esteemed employees have confidence in their abilities and skills, as these are the kinds of employees that are referred to as

motivated, capable, and empowering by their peers (Pierce et al., 1989). It is important to note that while highly self-esteem members of an organization are likely to participate in task-related activities and persevere longer in performance behavior, organizational members with low self-esteem predict failure rather than success. These are the type of employees that are likely to quit, fail under the pressures of undesirable circumstances and engage in fewer performances (Pierce et al., 1989). Additionally, Pierce et al. (1989) found in their study that an employee's performance and satisfaction at work is positively affected by organizational self-esteem.

Organizational self-esteem can also be described as the extent to which a person believes himself to be a worthwhile contribution to the organization (Kanning & Hill, 2012). One theory of self-esteem is that individuals will develop attitudes and behaviors that are consistent in maintaining their level of self-esteem (Korman, 1976). Similar to having high self-efficacy an individual with high self-esteem, whether general or organizational, has the opinion that he or she can fulfill any assigned tasks. In terms of organizational self-esteem, those with high esteem value themselves as important and effective in regards to organizational-related tasks and/or goals. Research has shown that individuals with high organizational self-esteem will consistently develop a favorable work attitude, work productivity, and perform at the highest levels (Korman, 1976). Individuals with low organizational self-esteem will consistently develop an unfavorable work attitude and work unproductively (Korman, 1976).

In general, it is believed that people with a high sense of self-esteem tend to have a high sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Although these two concepts of self are distinct, they relate to one another. These two concepts range from general to specific and are multidimensional (Gardner & Pierce, 1998). It is believed that individuals with high self-efficacy tend to have a sturdy sense of self-esteem. A safe assumption and example would be that an individual who perceives themselves as capable, significant, worthy, and successful will be predicted in having a high probability of success. Whereas an individual who perceives themselves as incapable, insignificant, unsuccessful, and unworthy will be predicted to have a low probability of success (Bandura, 1977).

However, organizational self-esteem differs from organizational self-efficacy because organizational self-esteem is an employee's self-perceived competence within the organization while organizational self-efficacy is an employee's beliefs that their self-competence can be translated into successful action within the organization (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, Dunham, 1989).

The two concepts also differ in their perceptual targets: self versus self via task accomplishments, time perspectives (current assessment of the self versus future assessment of the self), and the extent to which these concepts are either a belief and/ or an evaluation (Gardner & Pierce, 1998). Gardner and Pierce (1998) hypothesized that both organizational self-efficacy and organizational self-esteem positively influence an employee's performance and job related attitude. Their results indicated that both self-esteem and self-efficacy influence an employee's overall performance, attitude, and effectiveness. However, they found that self-esteem is shaped by an

individual's efficacy. Thus, an employee's attitude and behavior are influenced by efficacy which in turn effects an employee's organizational-based self-esteem.

Prior research conducted on self-efficacy and self-esteem has shown that each concept, on its own and/or together, effects an individual, both as an employee and as a person. Both self-efficacy and self-esteem can affect an employee's performance, motivation, and goal setting as previously discussed. These two perceptions of self, self-efficacy and self-esteem, were examined under an organizational context. After reviewing the literature, it was hypothesized that there would be a strong correlation between occupational self-efficacy and occupational self-esteem. It was also hypothesized that there would be a difference between gender and self-efficacy and gender and self-esteem.

Method

Participants

Participants for this study were recruited using conveniencesampling via email, text messaging, and social media. Participants were not compensated for their participation. Anyone under the age of 18 were excluded from the study. Anyone who marked themselves as "other" or "not applicable" in regards to gender, race, education, or employment status were alsoexcluded.

A total of 135 participants were used for the study. 93 of the participants were males with a $Mage=42.68$. 42 of the participants were female with a $Mage=32.93$. The age range was 18-77 with a $Mage=39.64$ and $SD=23.241$. Overall, self-efficacy had a mean of 44.85 with a SD of 6.721 and self-esteem had a mean of 51.81 and a $SD=7.650$.

Males had a mean of 51.99 and a SD of 7.695 for self-efficacy and a mean of 45.35 and a SD of 6.125 for self-esteem. Females had a mean of 51.40 and a SD of 7.629 for self-efficacy and a mean of 43.74 and a SD of 7.849 for self-esteem.

Materials

Materials that were used for this study included a computer or mobile computing device, such as a tablet or smart phone that could have been connected to the Internet in order to access the survey link hosted on QuestionPro.com.

Procedure

Prior to beginning the survey, each participant was provided an Informed Consent Form (Refer to Appendix A) which outlined the general nature of the study, the right of withdrawal, and confidentiality. Participants who were used were over the age of 18. In order to maintain confidentiality, surveys did not require names and/or signatures. Participants were informed that their participation in the study was voluntary and was not connected to their place of employment. Participants had the right to withdraw from the study without any negative consequences. Participants were also advised that there were no known risks involved in completing the survey.

Once participants finished the survey they were sent to a "Thank You"page which indicated that the survey had been submitted and completed. Briefing was not included as part of the survey procedure; however, if participants felt that the survey may have distressed them, they were advised to contact the

researcher through email or phone with their questions, comments, and/ or concerns.

Instrumentation

Participants first completed a demographic section which asked them about their gender, age in years, racial/ ethnic group they identify with, the years of education they have completed, their current employment status, years of experience they have in their current employment status, if they had military experience and if so, how many years of military experience they had, and their annual income. Each and every demographic question gave participants the option to of "prefer not to answer" or manually typing in "99" if they felt uncomfortable giving an answer.

Participant's completed the Organizational Based Self-Esteem Scale (OBSE) developed by Pierce et al. (1989). The OBSE is a 10-item scale which measures organizational self-esteem and takes about five minutes to finish. Participants indicated their level of agreement or disagreement through the use of 5 point items on the OBSE. A 5 point Likert scale with anchors that range from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree).

Participants also completed the New Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (OCCSEFF) developed by Collani and Schyn (2002). The OCCSEFF scale is a 19-item scale which measures organizational self-efficacy and takes about five minutes to finish. Participants indicated their level of agreement or disagreement through the use of 6 point items on the OCCSEFF. A 6 point Likert-Scale with anchors that ranges from 1 (completely true) to 6 (not at all true).

Results

The main purpose of the research was to find if a correlational relationship existed between occupational self-efficacy and self-esteem. Finding a correlational relationship between the two variables was the main, and overall hypothesis for the study. Finding if there was a difference between gender and self-efficacy and finding if there was a difference between gender and self-esteem were supplementary hypotheses.

For the correlational testing the null hypothesis was that there was no relationship between self-esteem and self-efficacy and the alternative hypothesis was that there was a relationship between self-esteem and self-efficacy. However, results should be considered inconclusive because not all of the pretesting criteria were met.

The pretest criteria of normality and symmetry were met. However, the pretest criteria of linearity and homoscedasticity were not met. Because the pretest criteria of linearity and homoscedasticity were not met a correlational test could not be conducted. Running a correlational test under such circumstances would have resulted in invalid results.

Two independent t-tests were conducted. The first t-test sought to look into gender and self-efficacy. The null hypothesis was that there was no difference between gender and self-efficacy. The alternative hypothesis was that there was a difference between gender and self-efficacy. The pretesting criteria of normality, homogeneity of variance, and N were met (Refer to Appendix B Table 1 & Table 2). An alpha level of .05 was used.

The homogeneity of variance for self-efficacy showed a significance (p) of .689; since this is greater than the alpha level

of .05, this suggests that there was no statically significant difference between the variances of the two groups; hence, meeting the pretest criteria. The N for the group of males was 93 and the N for the group of females was 42. Both groups satisfied the pretest criteria of having a minimum of N=30. The mean for self-efficacy and males was 51.99. The mean for self-efficacy and females was 51.40. The difference between the two groups was .59. In light of the significance (p) score of .683 (which is more than the alpha level of .05), the difference was not considered statistically significant. Thus, there was failure to reject the null hypothesis for this t-test (Refer to Appendix B, Table 2).

The second t-test sought to look into gender and self-esteem. The null hypothesis was that there was no difference between gender and self-esteem. The alternative hypothesis was that there was a difference between gender and self-esteem. The pretesting criteria of normality, homogeneity of variance, and N were met (Refer to Appendix C, Table 1), an alpha level of .05 was used.

The homogeneity of variance for self-esteem showed a significance (p) of .317; since this was greater than the alpha level of .05, this suggest that there was no statically significant difference between the variances of the two groups; thus, meeting the pretest criteria. The N for the group of males was 93 and the N for the group of females was 42. Both groups satisfied the pretest criteria of having a minimum of N=30. The mean for self-esteem and males was 45.35. The mean for self-esteem and females was 43.74. The difference between the two groups means was 1.61. In light of the significance (p) score of .197 (which is more than the alpha level of .05), the difference was not considered statistically significant. Thus, there was failure to reject the null hypothesis for this t-test (See Appendix C, Table 2).

Discussion

The purpose of the research was to find a correlational relationship between organizational self-efficacy and organizational self-esteem using the Organizational Based Self-Esteem Scale (OBSE) and the New Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (OCCSEFF). The correlation was the main hypothesis and overall focal point of this study. Because the pretesting criteria of linearity and homoscedasticity were not met a correlation could not be conducted as intended. Running a correlational test without meeting all 3 of the pretest criteria would just result in invalid results. Therefore, this aspect of the study should be considered and should remain inconclusive.

For both independent t-tests it was hypothesized that there would be a difference between gender and self-efficacy and a difference between gender and self-esteem. The pretest criteria for both t tests were met and both t tests yielded the same results. Failure to reject the null hypothesis was concluded for both t tests. The interpretation of failing to reject the null hypothesis means that there is no set in stone truth that there is no difference between gender and self-esteem or gender and self-efficacy, it just means that the null hypothesis is plausible and that my data simply did not provide enough evidence to find statistical significance during testing.

However, it should be mentioned that 98 participants identified themselves as multicultural. Since multicultural

participants was the majority group and no literature was crossed that looked into multiculturalism, a correlation test, and a t-test was ran. There was no significance for both tests (See Table, Appendix D).

These research results are not similar to other research findings. Studies that have concerned themselves with both self-esteem and self-efficacy have found that both concepts of self parallel with one another. In general, research has found that both self-efficacy and self-esteem even though these two concepts of self are distinct, they relate to each other. Ranging from general to specific in their respective multidimensional nature (Gardner & Pierce, 1998). Landmark studies such as Bandura (1977) who found that individuals with high self-efficacious beliefs tend to have a sturdy sense of self-esteem. A safe assumption and example would be that an individual who perceives themselves as capable, significant, worthy, and successful will be predicted to have a high probability of success. Whereas an individual who perceives themselves as incapable, insignificant, unsuccessful, and unworthy will be predicted to have a low probability of success. Gardner & Pierce (1998), hypothesized in their study that both organizational self-efficacy and organizational self-esteem positively influences the performance and attitude of an employee. Their results indicated that both self-esteem and self-efficacy influence an employee's overall performance, attitude, and effectiveness. However, they found that self-esteem is shaped by an individual's efficacy. Thus, an employee's attitude and behavior is influenced by efficacy which in turn effects an employee's organizational-based self-esteem. Showing the interaction between the two concepts of self. Bet and Hackett (1981) found in their study that out of the 20 occupations they looked into that females had greater self-efficacy for traditional feminine occupations (e.g. dental hygienist, teacher, etc.) and had lower self-efficacious beliefs for non-traditional occupations. Whereas males reported equivalent self-efficacy for traditional male occupations (e.g. accountant, engineer, etc.) and non-traditional occupations. Thus, concluding that sex typing corresponds to certain occupations.

As far as this particular study goes it does not support the studies just mentioned. Although the study did not find what it was expecting and hoping to find it is still valuable to consider the information presented. The literature review suggests that there could be correlation between self-efficacy and self-esteem, and either it is organizationally based or not, it is still an important concept to look into. Self-efficacy and self-esteem could very well be the driving force behind motivation and success. If so, then this could be the vital ingredient in producing vital training and development, and desirable employees within major multi-million corporations.

Limitations in this study include convenience sampling, and outliers. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling where the participants are accessible and proximate to the researcher. Convenience sampling was used in the recruitment of participants because the researchers thought that was the best method to use in order to distribute the survey to a vast majority of people in a time efficient matter. The limit of using a convenient sample is that it is impossible to determine the possible sampling error and make statistical inferences from

the sample on to the population. It is impossible to make inferences about the populations based on the obtained sample. Two outliers were found while analyzing data: a score of 10 for self-esteem on the OBSE and a score between 90-95 on the OCCSEFF. It is possible that each of the outliers could have skew or change the shape of the data in the following ways: by increasing the range significantly, the changing the median, and by drastically changing the mean. It is not certain which the three were affected by the outliers.

In regards to future implications the first recommendation would be to not use a convenient sample, a random sample would be preferable. In regards to the outliers one of two things should happen: 1) be eliminated out of the data set or 2) be investigated carefully.

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Appendix A

Informed Consent Form

You are being asked to participate in an anonymous survey about perceived job experience which is being conducted by Zayda Costa, a graduate student at Carlos Albizu University (CAU), as part of a research course project.

This survey is anonymous, you will not be asked to include your name or any other identifying information. There are no known risks for participation in anonymous online surveys. If you feel uncomfortable with any part of the survey, you may discontinue at any time without any penalty or consequence. In addition, there are no specific benefits to you for your participation.

If you agree to participate you will be asked to complete a series of questions including basic demographic information as well as questions related about perceived job experience. The survey should take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. The results of this survey may be published. The data from this project will be stored in a password protected file and only the researchers will have access to it. The data may be combined with the data from other studies and published as part of other papers. No identifying information will be included in any publications. Results will be available to you upon request by contacting Zayda Costa via zcosta500@sunmail.albizu.edu or (305) 484-2907 in approximately 6 months.

Questions regarding the purpose or procedures of the research should be directed to Zayda Costa, at zcosta500@sunmail.albizu.edu or (305) 484-2907. If you have a question or concern that cannot be addressed by the primary researcher, you may contact her supervisor and professor for this course project, Toni DiDona, PhD at tdidona@albizu.edu.

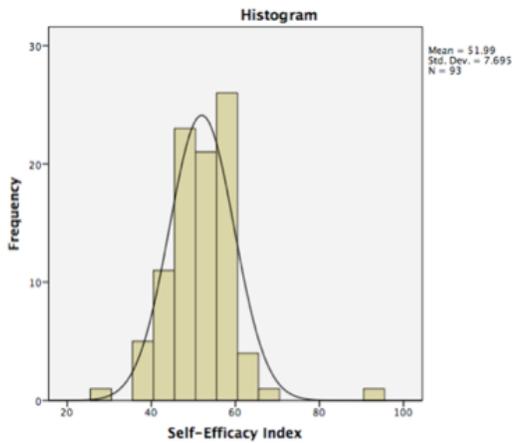
Your participation is completely voluntary and you may choose to withdraw at any time with no penalty. You must be at least 18 years of age to participate in this study.

Your completion of the survey serves as your voluntary agreement to participate in this research project and your certification that you are 18 or older.

Appendix B

Table 1

Males and self- efficacy



Females and self-efficacy

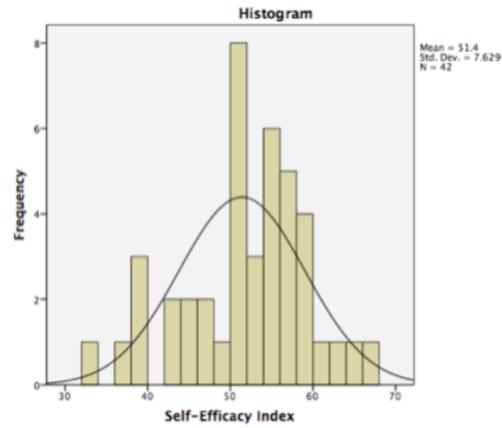


Table 2

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Self Esteem Index				
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
1.011	1	133	.317	

1

ANOVA

Self Esteem Index					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	75.628	1	75.628	1.683	.197
Within Groups	5977.409	133	44.943		
Total	6053.037	134			

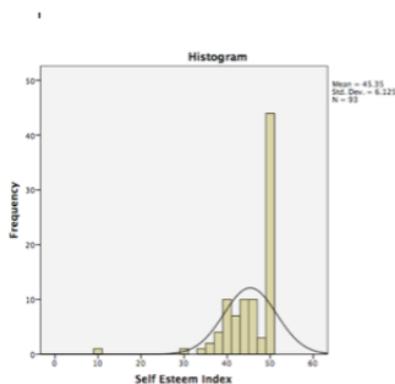
Descriptives

Self Esteem Index								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1	93	45.35	6.125	.635	44.09	46.62	10	50
2	42	43.74	7.849	1.211	41.29	46.18	10	50
Total	135	44.85	6.721	.578	43.71	46.00	10	50

Appendix C

Table 1

Males & self-esteem



Females & self-esteem

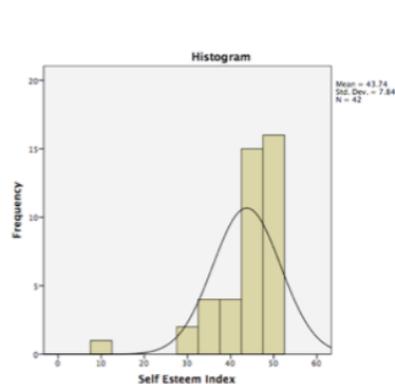


Table 2

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Self-Efficacy Index

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.161	1	133	.689

ANOVA

Self-Efficacy Index

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9.884	1	9.884	.168	.683
Within Groups	7833.108	133	58.896		
Total	7842.993	134			

Descriptives

Self-Efficacy Index

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1	93	51.99	7.695	.798	50.40	53.57	28	92
2	42	51.40	7.629	1.177	49.03	53.78	33	66
Total	135	51.81	7.650	.658	50.51	53.11	28	92

Table 1

ANOVA

Self-Efficacy Index

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	127.181	1	127.181	2.028	.158
Within Groups	6021.798	96	62.727		
Total	6148.980	97			

Appendix D

ANOVA

Self Esteem Index

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	89.228	1	89.228	1.677	.198
Within Groups	5107.108	96	53.199		
Total	5196.337	97			

Correlations

		Self Esteem Index	Self-Efficacy Index
Self Esteem Index	Pearson Correlation	1	-.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.931
	N	98	98
Self-Efficacy Index	Pearson Correlation	-.009	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.931	
	N	98	98