Self efficacy of working women: A study of selected Hotels

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Abstract

In recent years, the increased number of women in the hospitality industry and their demand of the capability is increasing. The purpose of the study was to check the self efficacy of working women hospitality. The study went further to identify what women think about their self efficacy or capability to match the demand of hospitality industry to promote them for leadership positions and ways to help reduce the barriers that may exist to women's career advancement.

Introduction

For years, hospitality industry experts and analysts have talked about the "glass ceiling" that has prevented women in the field from ascending to the upper ranks of supervisory and managerial positions. To an extent, the same conditions prevail in virtually every industry -- although women have come a long way in the workplace, men continue to hold most leadership roles. However, the unique culture and history that define the hospitality industry have made the prospect of change particularly challenging.

Although this pattern continues to hold true in the hospitality industry, the last several decades have been a period of remarkable change and growth for women in the field. In restaurants, hotels, catering firms, resorts, and many other venues, women are becoming much more visible in management roles and other key positions than ever before, and experts predict that the opportunities for women in the industry will only increase as businesses struggle to keep pace with growth and demand in the field.

Because of the long domination of Confucianism, rule by man has prevailed. Man plays a dominant role in both society and family, while woman should follow the instruction given by man. (Wong & Chung, 2003: 72).

The hospitality industry has no shortage of women entering the business, but senior management positions seem to be dominated by men, especially general managers at major hotel properties. Although the proportions have probably improved over time, two academic studies by Robert Woods and his colleagues a decade ago indicated that fewer than ten percent of hotel general managers were women. Such disparity is apparent in many hospitality classrooms today, where most of the students are female, but most of the senior industry executives who serve as guest speakers are male.

The next generation of female managers may have a very different experience, but if the current conditions remain unchanged, then we should expect similar results. This suggests a need to examine more deeply the underlying dynamics of career progression for female hotel managers, and to explore the reasons for the continued imbalance. If so many women enter the industry, then where along the way do they disappear, and why do they decide to leave the industry?

To offer some insight on this topic, a project has been launched to conduct extended interviews of numerous female hotel executives. The purpose is to discover how successful women achieve their senior-level positions, how they balance their work and family life, and what career advice they can offer to future hospitality leaders. The results may help students learn from successful female hoteliers and perhaps increase their commitment to longevity in hotel careers. The following are representative ex

One of the concerns of career research has been on the underrepresentation of women in managerial positions. In this connection various researchers have focused on factors which lead to the progression of women managers (Kirchmeyer, 1998, Maxifield, 2005 and Garavan, O'brien and O'Hanlon, 2006). Some of the factors which have been suggested as leading to women's career advancement include mentoring, training and development, career planning, individual characteristics, and hard work (Ismail and Arokiasamy, 2007; Burke, Burgess and Fallon 2006) among others. Ackah and Heaton (2003) define career advancement as comprising of promotions and increased earnings. An employee may get increased earnings in the form of merit pay, bonus pay and cash awards (Dessler, 2008). In Kenya, researchers have

mainly focused on the barriers faced by women managers. This research takes the research agenda on women's career advancement further by focusing in particular on the visibility of women in Kenyan organizations.

A new generation of female Supervisors & Leaders

Women have long worked in positions of de facto leadership in the hospitality industry, such as supervising or managing a family-owned business, or assuming additional responsibilities in their boss's absence. However, it was not until 1980s that large numbers of women first began to be formally hired into leadership roles.

Since that time, the opportunities for women in the hospitality industry have begun to expand exponentially. Today, you can find successful women filling managerial roles at every level, ranging from floor supervisors to executive board members.

Although they are still significantly outnumbered by their male counterparts, these women have broken through the once-impenetrable "glass ceiling" and are now leading the way for a new generation of females who aspire to leadership positions in the hospitality industry.

Theories of self-efficacy

The theories of self- efficacy will provide some perspectives about how self-efficay is developed and cultivated. According to Gecas (1989), these theories can be differentiated to two schools in terms of their emphases on how they conceptualize self-efficacy and how self-efficacy is developed. Both lines of theories, motivational and cognitive, are heavily indebted to attribution and social learning theories. Their conceptualization of self-efficacy and assumptions of human agency provide the basis to account for the development of self-efficacy in the life course and its relationships with social environment. In addition, although these two lines of theories have many different emphases, they overlap each other undistinguished in empirical research.

Motivational theories

The first line of theories is motivational theories which conceptualize self-efficacy in motivational terms. Gecas (1989), White (1959) tend to emphasize the experience of casual agency and to argue that self-efficacy is a fundamental human need and a basic element in one's sense of self as a drive to have control over environment.

White's (1959) theory of effectance motivation "was an early statement that suggests effectance motivation as an intrinsic motivation to produce effects on the environment. White's theory suggests that people are inherently driven to exercise control over their environment and that the achievement of control is inherently self- satisfying (badura, 1986, 1997).

Motivational theories have similar views on self-efficacy. Yarrow and his associates (1993) emphasized mastery motivation instead of effectance motivation, characterizing it as a striving for competence or an effective action in dealing with the environment. Similarly, Smith (1968) discussed the concept of competent self. While harter (1978) advanced the term of competence Motivation to investigate developmental changes in the content of competence motivation. In sum, although different in terms and somewhat different in conceptualization, motivational theories generally underscored control "rather than competence" (Gecas, 1989). As with competence, these theories commonly stressed the experience of control and the motivation to be control. Thus, these emphases characterized motivational theories rather than cognitive theories due to their orientaions toward 'control'.

Cognitive theories

The second school, cognitive theories, conceptualizes self-efficay in terms of expectaties and perception of control (Gecas, 1989). These theories are based largely on attribution and social learning theories. They emphasize beliefs and perceptions of casuality, agency, or control and emphasize less the motivations to hold such beliefs (although these beliefs do have motivational implications). These theories emphasize people's tendency towards casual attributions in attempts to make the social world predictable and controllable (Pittman & Heller, 1987). The purpose of such casual attribution is to allow the group and the individual to have effective control (Kelley, 1971). Rotter's (1966) distinction of "internal and external" locus of control, which is distinguished by casual attributions of personal success or failure to individual self or external environment.

Seligman's (1975) 'learned helplessness', which refers to a chronic sense of inefficacy resulting from learning one's actions have little effect on one's environment, is another theory in this school.

The most influential work done by Badura (1977) 'self-efficacy theory' is based on social learning theory is a centered on self-evaluation processes. Badura distinguishes between a) low self- efficacy b) perception of unsupportive social environments. In order to increase efficacy-based futility and outcome- based efficay thus requires different kinds of changes. The former needs a development of competency and expectation of personal effectiveness, while the latter requires individuals 'instrumental value to be restored, contingent with their environments (Bandura, 1977). Gecas (1989) thus emphasizes that such distinction based on perceptions of self in relation to the social environment is important to traditional sociological concerns.

Components of Self-efficacy

Bandura distinguishes between the two components of self-efficacy: an efficacy expectation and an outcome expectation. An outcome expectation refers to a person's belief that a given behavior will lead to a particular outcome. Bandura (1977) proposes the key sources of self-efficacy as performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, and emotional arousal. An efficacy expectation is the conviction that the person himself/herself can successfully produce the behavior required to generate the outcome.

Self-efficacy pertains to optimistic beliefs about being able to cope with a variety of stressors. Litt (1998) finds that self-efficacy expectations affect performance beyond what would have been expected from past performance alone. Changes in self-efficacy expectations predict changes in cold pressure tolerance.

Bandura (1986) identifies four ways in which self-efficacy and self-efficacy expectations are acquired 'performance accomplishments', vicarious learning, verbal persuasion and physical/affective status.

Performance accomplishments are beliefs that stem from the reactions with which individual accomplishments are greeted. A negative assessment can lower confidence and self-efficacy beliefs; conversely a positive assessment encourages self-efficacy beliefs and the self-efficacy expectations that similar behaviors will be well received in the future.

Vicarious learning results in beliefs that are acquired by observing modelling behaviors. When the modelling behavior is undertaken within similar contexts such as gender, economic, and social class it represents a realistic option. Thus, one of the most effective strategies for enhancing self-efficacy beliefs and self-efficacy expectations is that modelling

behavior is context specific. It is of little use for a women of low social class to observe the success of an entrepreneurial women born to a family of high social standing with access to resources that are unavailable to the poor women.

'Verbal persuasion' and 'affective status' encourages self-efficacy. Persuading women to attempt positive behavior change and providing a supportive environment in which women can attempt change, further enhances self-efficacy. Changes based on verbal persuasion, affective status and modelling behavior can lead to significant changes in self-beliefs and self-expectation. These 'personal factors, according to Bandura (1986), is an integral part of a triadic relationship necessary for change. He suggest that there is a reciprocal relationship between 'personal factors', 'behavior' and 'environmental factors', which result in social change.

Changes in personal factors such as self-efficacy can effect an individuals' behavior (willingness to take risks), which can impact on environmental factors (family and society). These relationships arereciprocal and reinforce each other. This suggests that strategies purposefully introduced in order to enhance women's personal factors (self-efficacy) can lead to reinforcing behaviors (such as self- assertive behavior) which in turn can impact and reinforce environmental factors (such as alteration of familil relations). The interaction and reciprocity of the triadic relationship can result in a positive and significant change for women.

Sridhar and Razavi (2008) examined teachers' efficacy of 256 teachers of 61 secondary schools of different management types in Mysore city. The study concluded significant relationship between personal efficacy and type of school. Navodaya teachers' scores on personal efficacy were found higher than teachers of other schools. However, there was no significant difference between general teaching efficacy (GTE) and types of schools. This indicated that GTE was independent of type of secondary schools. Teachers below 30 years and above 51 years of age, teachers with Masters' degree and teachers with experience more than 21years, teachers teaching science and female teachers were found to have higher personal efficacy and also higher general teaching efficacy than their counter parts in respective groups.

Rathi and Rastogi (2008) studied the effect of emotional intelligence on occupational self-efficacy of 112scientists in a number of research organizations. The study revealed that emotional intelligence had a positive relationship with occupational self-efficacy and was

found to be one of its significant predictors. This study also implied that people with higher emotional intelligence were more effective employees as compared to those with lower emotional intelligence.

Nilgun (2009) examined the self-efficacy levels of science teachers relating to science teaching for some variables. This study was verified with the aim of determining how the teacher efficacy and the level of self-efficacy belief of science teachers changed. According to the findings of the study, teacher efficacy of science teachers was not changing according to gender, age, seniority, weekly lesson load, receiving in-service training and job satisfaction. While self-efficacy beliefs of teachers were not being different, it showed sufficient change according to seniority and weekly lesson load.

Rao and Haseena (2009) conducted a study of self-efficacy among primary school teachers among 120 primary school teachers from rural and urban schools located in Tirupati rural and urban mandal of Chittor district of Andhra Pradesh. An attempt was made to assess the effect of gender and locality of residence of primary school teachers on their self-efficacy. The major findings of the study were: (i) Locality of residence had significant impact on the self-efficacy of primary school teachers; (ii) Gender had no significant impact on self-efficacy of the primary school teachers;(iii)There was significant interaction between gender and locality of residence with regard to the self-efficacy of primary school teachers.

Williams (2009) examined the effect of gaining a degree on teacher self- efficacy and emotions. This research project examined the impact on the self-efficacy of 202 practicing primary teachers of completing a degree qualification some years after gaining their initial teaching qualification. Rather than the teachers' emotions and sense of self efficacy being shaped by their practice, mastery of a degree was an emotional experience that shaped the teachers' personal self- efficacy and ultimately their sense of professional self- efficacy.

Hameed and Manjusha (2010) explored teacher efficacy of secondary school teachers in relation to teaching styles and organizational culture. The sample of the study consisted of 370 secondary school teachers belonging to Malappuram, Kozhikode and Thrissur districts of Kerala. Major findings were: (i) There was a significant difference in mean teacher efficacy scores between male and female teachers, but in case of mean teacher efficacy scores based on locale and type of management, no significant difference was found; (ii)The main effect of teaching styles on teacher efficacy was found to be significant for total sample, female, rural, government and unaided secondary school teachers;(iii)The main effect of organizational

culture on teacher efficacy was found significant for total sample, female, urban, rural and government secondary school teachers; (iv)No significant interaction effect of teaching styles and organizational culture on teacher efficacy of secondary school teachers based on total sample and sub samples based on gender, locale and type of management was found.

Robert and Ming(2010) studied the effects on teachers' self-efficacy and job satisfaction related to gender, years of experience, and job stress**.** The authors of this study sought to examine the relationships among teachers' years of experience, teachers' characteristics (gender and teaching level), three domains of self-efficacy (instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement), two types of job stress (work load and classroom stress), and job satisfaction with a sample of 1,430 practicing teachers using factor analysis, item response modeling, systems of equations, and a structural equation model. Teachers' years of experience showed nonlinear relationships with all three self-efficacy factors, increasing from early career to mid-career and then falling afterwards. Female teachers had greater workload stress, greater classroom stress from student behaviors, and lower classroom management self-efficacy. Those teaching young children (in elementary grades and kindergarten) had higher levels of self-efficacy for classroom management and student engagement. Lastly, teachers with greater classroom management self-efficacy or greater instructional strategies self-efficacy had greater job satisfaction.

Viel-Rumaetal. (2010) studied self-efficacy beliefs of special educators. In order to examine the relationship between reported levels of teacher self-efficacy, collective efficacy, and job satisfaction in special educators, teachers in one school district completed three surveys measuring these constructs. The results indicated that teacher self-efficacy had a direct effect on job satisfaction. It was further found that collective efficacy directly affected teacher self-efficacy but that it did not have a direct effect on job satisfaction. No significant differences were found in reported levels of these are as a cross subgroups of teachers categorized by teaching level (elementary, middle, and high), teaching setting (self-contained, resource, or inclusion), and certification type (highly qualified, not highly qualified, or emergency).

Corkett, Hattand Benevides (2011) conducted a study of student and teacher self-efficacy and the connection to reading and writing. They observed that self-efficacy or the belief in one's ability (Bandura, 1977) on the part of both teachers and students is thought to be directly related to teacher and student success. This study examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, student self-efficacy, and student ability. Teachers' perceptions of the students' self-efficacy was significantly correlated with students' abilities; however, student

literacy self-efficacy was not correlated with their literacy ability. Additionally, there was no correlation between the teachers' perception of the students' literacy self-efficacy and the students' literacy self-efficacy. Finally, the teachers' self-efficacy was significantly correlated with their perception of the students' self-efficacy.

Gorozidis and Papaioannou (2011) conducted a study on teachers self-efficacy, achievement goals, attitude and intentions to implement the New greek physical education curriculum. The network of relations between physical education (PE) teachers' self-efficacy, goal orientations, attitudes, intentions and behaviors concerning the implementation of a new PE curriculum was examined. Participants were 290 Greek junior high school PE teachers. Two years after the introduction of the new curriculum, participants responded to de-identified questionnaires with acceptable psychometric properties. Mastery-oriented and high self-efficacious teachers had positive attitudes towards the new curriculum, implemented the biggest number of teaching plans and they intended to do the same in the future. Performance approach goal orientation had low positive relationship with the implementation of teaching plans and no relationship with intention to do the same in the future, while performance avoidance goal was not related to any determinant of curriculum implementation and intention. The effects of mastery goal orientation on intention and behavior were mediated by self-efficacy to achieve an educational aim which is an end in itself, that is, the promotion of students' self-regulation in exercise settings. The effects of performance approach goal orientation on behavior were mediated by self-efficacy to achieve a curricular goal which was a means to promote other educational aims, i.e., the adoption of student-centered teaching styles. Teaching experience was negatively related to implementation of the new curriculum and with most of its determinants

Hechter (2011) examined the changes in pre service elementary teachers' personal science teaching efficacy and science teaching outcome expectancies. Findings revealed that the number of post secondary science courses completed, and prior school science experiences had a significant main effect on personal science teaching efficacy (PSTE) but not science teaching outcome expectancy (STOE). There was no evidence for significant interaction effects between variables on both efficacy subscales.

Tuchman and Isaacs (2011) examined the influence of formal and informal formative pre-service experiences on teacher self-efficacy of three hundred fifteen teachers of general and Judaic studies in Jewish day schools in the USA. This study examined the associations

between both formal and informal formative pre-service experiences and teacher self-efficacy. In addition, the effect of years of teaching experience on these associations was investigated. Formal pre-service training and positive student-teaching experiences, as well as each of the three informal experiences, were found to be associated with positive teacher self-efficacy .Formal and informal pre-service experiences appeared to be associated with different aspects of teacher self-efficacy. Formal teacher training was most strongly associated with efficacy for instructional practices, while the positive informal experiences were most strongly associated with efficacy for student engagement. The potential impact of both formal and informal experiences did not appear to fade over time. On the contrary, for those variables where an interaction with years of teaching was detected, it was the efficacy beliefs of the most senior teachers that were most related to their pre-service experiences.

Devos et al. (2012) investigated how the social working environment predicted beginning teachers' self-efficacy and feelings of depression. The results showed that the goal structure of the school culture (mastery or performance orientation) predicted both outcomes. Frequent collaborative interactions with colleagues were related to higher self-efficacy only when the novices were experiencing few difficulties or work in an environment oriented towards mastery goals. The mere occurrence of mentoring and meetings with the principal was not related to the outcomes, but the quality of these activities predicted them significantly.

Research methodology

In this study 200 working women are selected from the Delhi Gurgaon, Faridabad & Noida region. Indian hospitality industry. And the data will be collected through a standardized questionnaire which is already prepared by Badura. In this questionnaire, 34 statements are included related to self efficacy of working women from personal and professional both points of view. The mean value is calculated to check the level of self efficacy. 210 questionnaires were given to fill up but among them only 200 were selected due to missing values.

Analysis & interpretation

In this study the level of self efficacy is measure using T test. And the level is check by the mean value of 34 statements related to the self efficacy. And the mean value is calculated on three parameters i.e. Marital status, Age, Education. And The mean table is given below:

Mean			
Age			Std.
	Mean	N	Deviation
below 20	3.9555	12	.11177
20-25	3.9877	45	.27415
25-30	3.8685	67	.24272
30-35	4.1006	40	.33236
35-40	4.2088	30	.06139
more than 40	4.1765	6	.00000
Total	4.0072	200	.27297
marital_status			Std.
	Mean	N	Deviation
Single	4.1592	75	.25539
Married	3.9249	101	.23921
Engaged	3.8788	24	.25243
Total	4.0072	200	.27297
Education			Std.
	Mean	N	Deviation
Masters	4.0010	188	.28023
Bachelors	4.1048	12	.04416
Total	4.0072	200	.27297

In the mean table, the mean value on the basis of age are below 20 (3.95), 20-25 (3.98), 25-30 (4.10), 30-35 (4.1), 35-40 (4.2), more than 40 (4.17). Among all these, the mean value of 35-40 is highest among all that but if we check all the mean value below 30 the level of self efficacy of working women is less and above 30 the mean value is high. It mean as the age will be increase the level of self efficacy will be increase. Now we will check the mean value on the basis of marital status. In the mean table, the mean value of different groups are single (4.1), Married (3.9), Engaged (3.8). in the mean value of marital status the mean value of single females are higher than the value of married and engaged. And the mean values on the basis of education are masters (4.00) & bachelors (4.1). And in between the masters and bachelors the mean value of Bachelors is higher than the masters but there is little bit difference among them.

Findings of the study

In this study the results found that the as the age increases the self efficacy level of working women is increases. Its means as the age increases they are more capable to balance their work life and make their working life smooth as compare to low age group. But they face problems at the early age due to immaturity. But according to the marital status the single women are more capable than the married women due to conflicts between the family and the work life so that there is interference in between the work and family matters due to this the stress level is high in married women in early age. And according to education there is not a big difference in the level of self efficacy of working women.

Conclusion

This research conclude that the self efficacy level of working women depend on the work life factor. If the family and working environment is supportive then the self efficacy level will be high and if they are not supportive or there is a conflict between work and family then they are not able to complete their task and increase their capability and balance their work life.

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