

THE INFLUENCE OF SELF-EFFICACY AND THE VALUE SYSTEM ON ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

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Abstract

The study examines the relationship between self-efficacy, the value system, and academic performance in a sample of 200 students enrolled in psychology programmes. The research was developed within the framework of social cognitive theory and motivational approaches to personal and work values, using a cross-sectional correlational design with predictive aims. Self-efficacy was assessed through the Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale, while the value system was investigated using a value assessment questionnaire adapted from Super's model. Academic performance was operationalized through self-reported academic grades on a 6-to-10 scale. The results showed statistically significant differences in academic performance according to self-efficacy level, $H(4) = 126.98$, $p < .001$, with higher self-efficacy being associated with higher academic outcomes. Spearman correlations indicated significant associations between academic performance and intellectual stimulation, security, independence, and relations with superiors, while lifestyle showed a weak negative association. Before the regression analysis, intellectual stimulation and security were checked because they showed an extremely high empirical overlap in the available aggregate database, $\rho = .996$; therefore, they were not entered simultaneously in the final regression model. Hierarchical regression showed that self-efficacy explained 62.7% of the variance in academic performance. After adding the selected value dimensions, the final model explained 66.3% of the variance, and the incremental contribution of values was statistically significant, $\Delta R^2 = .035$, $p < .001$. The findings support the central role of self-efficacy and the selective relevance of professional values for psychoeducational interventions aimed at improving academic adaptation and performance. Because internal consistency coefficients could not be recalculated from aggregate scores, this issue is explicitly acknowledged as a methodological limitation.

Keywords: self-efficacy; value system; academic performance; academic motivation; students.

INTRODUCTION

Academic performance remains a central topic in educational psychology because students' outcomes do not depend exclusively on cognitive abilities or access to educational resources. Academic success is also connected to how students evaluate their capacity to manage tasks, organize effort, regulate emotions, and choose objectives they consider personally important. In this framework, self-efficacy and the value system may explain relevant differences among students who learn in similar educational contexts.

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Self-efficacy refers to a person's belief that they can organize and execute the actions required to achieve a goal. In social cognitive theory, such beliefs are not merely declarative evaluations, but mechanisms that influence task choice, effort, persistence in the face of obstacles, and self-regulation (Bandura, 1997, 2001). In university settings, a student with high self-efficacy tends to approach academic tasks as manageable challenges rather than threats, which may support engagement and resilience after failure.

The value system operates through a different mechanism, yet with convergent implications. Values offer criteria for decisions, priorities, and behaviour, and university learning constantly involves choices between invested time, immediate benefits, personal development, autonomy, security, and social recognition. Schwartz's (1992) model describes values as relatively stable motivational goals, while Gouveia's Functional Theory of Human Values emphasizes that values guide actions and express needs. In this broader theoretical context, the tradition of work-values research associated with Super allows the analysis of how value preferences may orient educational and professional conduct.

The literature on values was therefore extended by including Gouveia's functional perspective, which has also been discussed in the Romanian psychological literature by Pascalau and Gavreliuc (2018). However, Super's model was retained as the operational framework of the present study because it directly assesses work-related and career-related value dimensions relevant to students' professional development, such as intellectual stimulation, independence, security, relationships with superiors, variety, and lifestyle.

Although the relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance has been documented in empirical studies and meta-analyses, and values have frequently been discussed in relation to motivation, decision-making, and career development, fewer studies investigate these two categories of variables simultaneously in relation to academic outcomes. Therefore, the present study aims to examine the links between self-efficacy, the value system, and academic performance, with emphasis on the predictive contribution of personal values and on performance differences associated with levels of self-efficacy.

The novelty of the study lies in integrating self-efficacy and life/work values into a common explanatory framework applied to university students. The results may contribute to the design of psychoeducational interventions focused on strengthening self-efficacy, clarifying personal goals, and supporting academic adaptation.

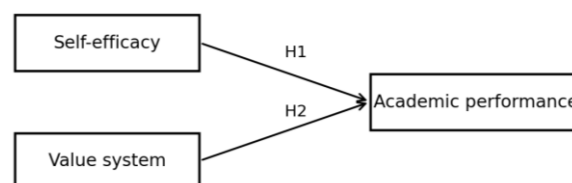


Figure 1. Conceptual model of the research

LITERATURE REVIEW

SELF-EFFICACY AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Self-efficacy is one of the most useful explanatory concepts in the analysis of academic behaviour. According to Bandura (1997), individuals do not act only according to the real competences they possess, but also according to their beliefs about using those competences in concrete situations. In educational settings, these beliefs influence persistence, the selection of learning strategies, and the capacity to continue effort after unsatisfactory results.

Zimmerman (2000) emphasized the role of self-efficacy in self-regulated learning, showing that students who believe in their ability to succeed set clearer goals, monitor progress, and adjust working strategies. The reviews and meta-analyses conducted by Honicke and Broadbent (2016) and Fun (2021) indicate a positive association between self-efficacy and academic performance, although the strength of the relationship depends on how variables are measured, the educational level, and the characteristics of the sample.

THE VALUE SYSTEM AND ACADEMIC CONDUCT

Personal values express what the individual considers important, desirable, and worth pursuing. They do not mechanically determine behaviour, but they influence priorities, the interpretation of situations, and the willingness to invest effort in a particular direction. In the university context, values such as intellectual stimulation, independence, security, achievement, or relations with authority may have different meanings for academic involvement.

In Romanian psychological literature, Golu (2007) and Zlate (2000) emphasized that the person must be understood through the interaction of cognitive, motivational, affective, and value-related processes. This perspective supports the interpretation of academic performance as the result of a complex psychological organization rather than of a single isolated variable.

Schwartz (1992) proposed a structural approach to values, highlighting their motivational and trans-situational character. From a perspective close to career guidance, the assessment of life and work values helps explain how students relate to learning, performance, and their future professional identity. Nevertheless, the relationship between values and academic performance is less direct than the relationship between self-efficacy and performance; values may support, diminish, or redirect academic effort depending on context.

Gouveia, Milfont, and Guerra (2014) developed the Functional Theory of Human Values, according to which values fulfil two major psychological functions: they guide actions and express needs. The model organizes values according to personal, central, and social goals, as well as according to survival and growth needs. This perspective is useful for understanding the motivational function of values in academic behaviour, even though the present study operationalizes values through Super's work-values model, which is more directly connected with educational and occupational development.

INTEGRATING THE TWO PERSPECTIVES

Self-efficacy and values act through different but complementary mechanisms. Self-efficacy answers the question, ‘Do I believe I can?’, whereas values answer the question, ‘Is it worth investing effort in this direction?’ A student may have adequate cognitive resources, but if an academic task is not perceived as relevant to personal goals, involvement may remain low. Conversely, a value system oriented toward development and responsibility may support effort, but the efficiency of that effort also depends on the student’s belief that they can meet academic requirements.

Recent literature shows interest in broader models that include self-efficacy together with social support, academic anxiety, or self-regulation (Hayat *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2025; Xu *et al.*, 2025). In an approach close to the topic of the present study, Neacsu (2014) discussed students’ academic study along the theory-practice-performance axis, emphasizing the role of psychoeducational strategies and values in optimizing learning conduct. The present study follows this direction by analysing self-efficacy and personal values simultaneously in relation to academic performance.

Table 1

Synthesis of Studies Relevant to the Research Topic

Author(s)	Method	Variables	Main results	Limitations
Bandura (1997, 2001)	Theoretical foundation	Self-efficacy	Efficacy beliefs influence effort, persistence, and self-regulation.	The relationship with academic performance is not directly tested in these works.
Zimmerman (2000)	Theoretical and empirical analysis	Self-efficacy, self-regulation	Self-efficacy supports goal setting and self-regulated learning strategies.	Further verification is needed across different university contexts.
Schwartz (1992)	Cross-cultural research	Value system	Values function as trans-situational motivational goals.	The model does not explicitly target academic performance.
Honicke and Broadbent (2016)	Systematic review	Self-efficacy, performance	A positive association between self-efficacy and academic performance is confirmed.	Effects differ according to design and instruments.
Hayat Chişinău. (2020)	Empirical study	Personality, self-efficacy, performance	Self-efficacy mediates the relationship between traits and academic performance.	Specific sample, limited generalizability.
Xu Chişinău. (2025); Wang Chişinău. (2025)	Recent reviews and meta-analyses	Self-efficacy, support, anxiety, outcomes	Self-efficacy is associated with engagement, self-regulation, and academic outcomes.	Methodological and cultural heterogeneity.
Gouveia Chişinău. (2014); Pascalau & Gavreliuc (2018)	Theoretical / empirical	Functional theory of values	Values organize actions and needs; useful for academic motivation.	Broader than specific work values.

METHOD

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research used a cross-sectional correlational design with predictive aims. This design allows the examination of relationships among self-efficacy, the value system, and academic performance, as well as the estimation of the contribution of independent variables to the explanation of variance in performance. Because the data were collected at a single point in time, the results do not allow causal conclusions.

The general objective of the study was to analyse the relationship between self-efficacy, the value system, and academic performance. The specific objectives were to describe the level of self-efficacy in the sample, describe the value profile of the participants, examine performance differences according to self-efficacy, analyse the relationships between personal values and performance, and test the predictive capacity of values for academic outcomes.

HYPOTHESES

H1. There are statistically significant differences in academic performance according to students' level of self-efficacy.

H2. Students' value system significantly predicts academic performance.

PARTICIPANTS

The sample consisted of 200 students enrolled in psychology programmes. The gender distribution was relatively balanced: 52.5% men ($n = 105$) and 47.5% women ($n = 95$). Participants' age showed a wide range of variations, from a minimum of 19 years to a maximum of 53 years, indicating a substantial proportion of adult students. The mean age was 30.83 years ($M = 30.83$), with a standard deviation of 9.06 years ($SD = 9.06$). Participants were selected through non-probabilistic convenience sampling. Inclusion criteria were student status, willingness to participate in the study, and provision of informed consent. Participation was voluntary, and respondents were informed about the purpose of the research, the anonymity of responses, and the possibility of withdrawal.

INSTRUMENTS

Self-efficacy was assessed with the Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995). The original instrument includes 10 items designed to evaluate individuals' beliefs regarding their capacity to cope with difficult situations and mobilize resources to achieve goals. The original item response format is a four-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = Not at all true to 4 = Exactly true, and the total raw score may range from 10 to 40. In the final analytical database available for the present study, item-level responses and raw 10-to-40 scores were no longer available; the preserved self-efficacy variable was the five-level ordinal category derived from the scale interpretation. Therefore, the 1-to-5 values reported in the Results section refer to interpretative self-efficacy levels, not

to a modified five-point item response format. Previous studies have reported adequate reliability indices for the scale, with Cronbach's alpha values frequently above .80. Because the final database contained aggregate category scores rather than item-level responses, Cronbach's alpha could not be recalculated for the current sample.

The value system was analysed through a Value Assessment Questionnaire adapted from Super's model, a framework frequently used in the assessment of work values and career-related motivational orientations. Psychometric support for revised forms of Super's Work Values Inventory has also been reported by Robinson and Betz (2008). The questionnaire includes 45 items grouped into 15 value dimensions, with three items corresponding to each dimension: altruism, aesthetic sense, creativity, intellectual stimulation, objective achievement, independence, prestige, leadership of others, material benefits, security, work environment, relations with superiors, relations with work colleagues, lifestyle, and variety. Each item is rated on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = Unimportant to 5 = Very important. Higher scores indicate greater importance attributed to the respective value dimension. Because only aggregate subscale scores were available in the final database, internal consistency coefficients for each three-item value dimension could not be recalculated for the present sample; this issue is reported transparently as a methodological limitation.

Academic performance was expressed through academic grades or grade averages self-reported by participants on a 6-to-10 scale. The grades were not extracted from university registers; therefore, academic performance should be interpreted as a self-reported academic indicator.

PROCEDURE AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data were collected both face to face and online, based on informed consent. In the face-to-face condition, questionnaires were administered in paper-and-pencil format in academic settings during university activities. In the online condition, questionnaires were distributed through secure online forms and student communication channels. Statistical analyses included descriptive statistics, the Kruskal-Wallis test for comparing academic performance according to self-efficacy levels, Spearman correlations for the relationships between personal values and performance, and hierarchical multiple linear regression for estimating the predictive contribution of self-efficacy and the value system. Before the final hierarchical model was estimated, the empirical overlap between intellectual stimulation and security was checked because these two variables had nearly identical descriptive indicators in the aggregate database. Their association was extremely high, $\rho = .996$; therefore, they were not entered simultaneously in the regression equation. Multicollinearity was examined using Tolerance, VIF, and Condition Index indicators. The significance threshold was $p < .05$. Values initially reported as .000 were edited in the recommended form, $p < .001$. Confidence intervals of 95% and complete descriptive statistics were reported for the unstandardized regression coefficients.

RESULTS

SELF-EFFICACY AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Participants' academic performance had a mean of $M = 8.65$ and a standard deviation of $SD = .97$, with values ranging from 6 to 10. The available analytical self-efficacy variable was coded as an ordinal five-level score, with $M = 3.73$ and $SD = .98$, ranging from 1 to 5. The distribution of self-efficacy levels showed that 0.5% of participants had a very low level, 10.5% a low level, 30.5% a medium level, 32% a high level, and 26.5% a very high level.

The five self-efficacy levels were not established arbitrarily by the authors. They were derived from the interpretative categories used for the Romanian adult standard of the scale and were treated as ordinal categories. In the analytical dataset, the operational score ranges were: 1.00 = very low, 2.00 = low, 3.00 = medium, 4.00 = high, and 5.00 = very high. The original raw 10-to-40 cut-off intervals used during the norm-based recoding could not be reconstructed from the final aggregate database because item-level responses and raw scores were not preserved. This limitation is also acknowledged in the Limitations section.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for the Main Study Variables

Variable	N	Min	Max	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Academic performance	200	6	10	8.65	0.97	-0.30	-0.51
Self-efficacy level	200	1	5	3.73	0.98	-0.24	-0.84
Altruism	200	6	13	9.09	1.93	0.80	-0.52
Aesthetic sense	200	7	13	8.31	1.18	1.35	1.96
Creativity	200	1	15	9.00	3.71	0.48	-1.04
Intellectual stimulation	200	5	15	10.39	3.58	-0.08	-1.51
Objective achievement	200	5	15	9.50	3.52	0.52	-1.38
Independence	200	5	15	10.04	3.64	0.15	-1.51
Prestige	200	6	13	8.65	1.80	0.76	-0.10
Leadership of others	200	7	14	9.69	1.89	0.45	-1.00
Material benefits	200	5	13	8.43	1.97	0.56	-0.53
Security	200	5	15	10.39	3.58	-0.08	-1.51
Work environment	200	6	13	9.24	1.81	0.14	-0.86
Relations with superiors	200	5	13	8.43	2.02	0.46	-0.10
Relations with work colleagues	200	5	13	8.23	1.94	0.49	-0.11
Lifestyle	200	5	11	7.72	1.36	0.07	-0.42
Variety	200	5	13	8.24	2.05	0.64	0.00

Note. The very similar descriptive values for intellectual stimulation and security reflect the structure of the available aggregate database. A direct check showed an extremely high empirical overlap between the two dimensions, $\rho = .996$. Because item-level responses were not available, this overlap could not be corrected by recalculating the subscale scores; consequently, the two variables were not entered simultaneously in the regression model.

The Kruskal-Wallis test indicated statistically significant differences in academic performance according to self-efficacy level, $H(4) = 126.98$, $p < .001$. Mean ranks increased progressively from the very low self-efficacy level to the very high level, supporting the hypothesis that students with higher self-efficacy tend to obtain superior academic performance.

Table 3

Mean Ranks of Academic Performance According to Self-Efficacy Level

Self-efficacy level	Mean rank of academic performance
Very low level	2.00
Low level	29.88
Medium level	59.52
High level	117.21
Very high level	157.32

THE VALUE SYSTEM AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

As shown in Table 2, several value variables displayed non-normal distributional features, including skewness and kurtosis values that supported the use of non-parametric association tests. Therefore, the relationships between personal values and academic performance were analysed using Spearman coefficients. The results indicated significant positive associations between performance and intellectual stimulation ($r = .338$, $p < .001$), security ($r = .354$, $p < .001$), independence ($r = .215$, $p = .002$), and relations with superiors ($r = .155$, $p = .028$). Lifestyle showed a weak but statistically significant negative association ($r = -.143$, $p = .043$).

Table 4

Spearman Correlations Between Personal Values and Academic Performance

Value	r	p
Altruism	.118	.095
Aesthetic sense	.047	.512
Creativity	.087	.220
Intellectual stimulation	.338**	< .001
Objective achievement	.084	.235
Independence	.215*	.002
Prestige	.001	.994
Leadership of others	.099	.162
Material benefits	.112	.115
Security	.354**	< .001
Work environment	-.111	.118
Relations with superiors	.155*	.028
Relations with work colleagues	.073	.307
Lifestyle	-.143*	.043
Variety	.022	.758

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$.

REGRESSION MODEL

To test the predictive contribution specified in the conceptual model, a hierarchical multiple linear regression was estimated with academic performance as the dependent variable. In the first block, self-efficacy was entered as a predictor. In the second block, the value dimensions significantly associated with academic performance were considered. Because intellectual stimulation and security showed an extremely high empirical overlap in the available aggregate database, $\rho = .996$, they were not entered simultaneously. Security was retained in the regression model because it showed the strongest bivariate association with academic performance. Independence, relations with superiors, and lifestyle were also retained because they were significantly associated with academic performance at the bivariate level. This strategy directly addresses the conceptual model, in which both self-efficacy and the value system are expected to contribute to academic performance, while avoiding unstable regression estimates caused by severe collinearity.

Table 5

Indicators of the Hierarchical Regression Model

Model	Predictors	R	R ²	Adjusted R	SEE	ΔR^2	F
1	Self-efficacy	.792	.627	.625	.596	.627	333.172***
2	Self-efficacy + selected value dimensions (security, independence, relations with superiors, lifestyle)	.814	.663	.654	.573	.035	76.239***

Note. SEE = standard error of estimate; *** $p < .001$.

Model 1 was statistically significant, $F(1, 198) = 333.172$, $p < .001$, and showed that self-efficacy explained 62.7% of the variance in academic performance. After adding the selected value dimensions, Model 2 explained 66.3% of the variance, $R^2 = .663$, adjusted $R^2 = .654$, $F(5, 194) = 76.239$, $p < .001$. The change in explained variance was statistically significant, $\Delta R^2 = .035$, $F \text{ change}(4, 194) = 5.103$, $p < .001$. Therefore, the value system had a statistically significant incremental contribution beyond self-efficacy, supporting H2. Intellectual stimulation was not included together with security in the regression equation because their empirical overlap in the aggregate database was extremely high.

Table 6

Individual Regression Coefficients for the Final Hierarchical Model

Predictor	B	SE	95% CI LL	95% CI UL	beta	t	p	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	5.764	.407	4.962	6.567	--	14.166	< .001	--	--
Self-efficacy	.729	.044	.643	.816	.738	16.571	< .001	.877	1.140
Security	.111	.026	.060	.163	.409	4.248	< .001	.188	5.323
Independence	-.076	.025	-.125	-.027	-.284	-3.068	.002	.203	4.916
Relations with superiors	-.027	.022	-.072	.017	-.056	-1.210	.228	.800	1.250
Lifestyle	.000	.033	-.065	.065	.000	.006	.996	.830	1.205

Note. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit. Confidence intervals refer to unstandardized coefficients.

The final model indicates that self-efficacy is the strongest and most stable predictor of academic performance. Among the value dimensions retained in the regression model, security remained a statistically significant positive predictor, while independence had a negative coefficient in the final multivariate model. This negative coefficient should not be interpreted as evidence that independence reduces academic performance in a simple bivariate sense, because the bivariate correlation between independence and performance was positive. Rather, the sign of the coefficient most likely reflects shared variance among the value dimensions after self-efficacy and security were controlled. Relations with superiors and lifestyle did not remain statistically significant in the final multivariate model.

Table 7

Collinearity Diagnostics for the Final Hierarchical Model

Indicator	Value	Interpretation
Maximum VIF	5.323	Moderate overlap for security; below the severe multicollinearity threshold used in the manuscript
Minimum tolerance	.188	Borderline tolerance for security; coefficients interpreted cautiously
Maximum Condition Index	28.490	Below 30, therefore not indicating severe collinearity in the revised final model
Variance proportion: security	.952	Loads on the fifth condition dimension
Variance proportion: independence	.919	Loads on the same fifth condition dimension; indicates shared variance with security
VIF: self-efficacy	1.140	No problematic collinearity for the main predictor

The collinearity diagnostics show that the revised final hierarchical model no longer contains the severe multicollinearity produced by the simultaneous inclusion of intellectual stimulation and security. The maximum VIF decreased from values above 100 in the previous specification to 5.323 in the revised model, and the maximum Condition Index was 28.490. These indicators support the use of the revised model for testing the incremental contribution of values, although the coefficients for security and independence should still be interpreted cautiously because they share a moderate amount of variance.

DISCUSSION

The results support the importance of self-efficacy for academic performance. The significant differences observed among self-efficacy levels indicate that students who perceive themselves as more capable of managing academic tasks and difficulties obtain, on average, better outcomes. This finding is compatible with social cognitive theory and with the literature on self-regulated learning, in which self-efficacy is associated with goal setting, persistence, and the selection of learning strategies.

Regarding the value system, the results show that not all values have the same relevance for performance. Intellectual stimulation and security had the most consistent positive correlations with academic performance. The first may reflect interest in complex cognitive content, curiosity, and willingness to engage in intellectual effort, whereas the second may express orientation toward stability, planning, and reducing the risk of failure. Independence and relations with superiors had smaller but significant positive correlations, suggesting that autonomy and functional relations with authority may support academic adaptation. Lifestyle showed a weak negative association, which may indicate that students who give greater priority to lifestyle balance do not necessarily transform that priority into higher academic grades.

The close similarity between the scores obtained for intellectual stimulation and security may reflect the specific motivational profile of adult students and of students involved in professional reorientation. In this context, intellectual stimulation may express the need for cognitive growth, personal development, and academic self-realization, whereas security may reflect the pragmatic need for economic stability, career predictability, and professional consolidation. Therefore, the convergence between these two value dimensions can be interpreted as an adaptive balance between the pursuit of intellectual development and the need for a stable professional trajectory. This interpretation is particularly relevant for a sample that includes a substantial proportion of adult students, for whom academic study may function both as a source of self-development and as an instrument of career security.

The regression results introduce an important nuance. After self-efficacy was entered in the first step of the hierarchical model, the selected value dimensions still added a small but statistically significant incremental contribution. This result shows that the value system contributes to academic performance beyond students' beliefs in their own efficacy. However, the available aggregate database showed an extremely high empirical overlap between intellectual stimulation and security, $\rho = .996$. To avoid unstable estimates, these two dimensions were not entered simultaneously in the final regression equation. Security was retained because it had the strongest bivariate association with academic performance. The revised model no longer presented severe multicollinearity, although the coefficients for security and independence were interpreted cautiously because they still shared a moderate amount of variance.

A plausible interpretation is that, in the investigated sample, security, independence, and intellectual stimulation are part of an interconnected motivational configuration. For many psychology students, especially mature students, intellectual development may be experienced together with the need for professional stability, predictability, autonomy, and future occupational security. This interpretation remains exploratory and sample-specific, and it should be tested in future research with item-level data and larger, more diverse samples.

From an applied perspective, the results suggest that university interventions should not be limited to transmitting content, but should include components for developing self-efficacy: gradual objectives, formative feedback, training in learning strategies, normalization of difficulties, and support for autonomy. In parallel, educational counselling may help students clarify their values and connect academic effort with relevant personal and professional goals.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The study has several limitations. First, the cross-sectional design does not allow causal conclusions. Second, convenience sampling limits the generalization of findings to the entire university population. Third, academic performance was expressed through self-reported grades or grade averages, not through data extracted from university registers, which may introduce memory errors, self-presentation tendencies, and common-method variance. Fourth, the available aggregate database showed an extremely high empirical overlap between intellectual stimulation and security, $\rho = .996$. Because item-level responses were not available, it was not possible to determine whether this overlap reflected a real sample-specific pattern or an error in the aggregation of the two subscale scores. Consequently, intellectual stimulation and security were not entered simultaneously in the final regression model. Fifth, the final available database contained aggregate scale and subscale scores rather than item-level responses, which did not allow the recalculation of internal consistency indices for the current sample. Consequently, Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale and for the three-item dimensions of the Value Assessment Questionnaire could not be reported for this sample. Sixth, the final database preserved only the five-level self-efficacy coding and not the original item responses or raw 10-to-40 scores; therefore, the exact raw score cut-off intervals used in the initial norm-based recoding could not be recalculated. Future studies should retain item-level responses and raw scores and report Cronbach's alpha or McDonald's omega for the Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale and for the Work Values Questionnaire or its subscales.

Future research could use longitudinal designs to follow the evolution of self-efficacy and performance over time, include samples from different specializations, and test mediation or moderation models. It would also be useful to integrate variables such as academic motivation, self-regulated learning strategies, social support, evaluation anxiety, and clarity of professional goals.

CONCLUSIONS

Higher levels of self-efficacy were associated with superior academic outcomes, supporting the relevance of social cognitive theory for understanding university success. In the hierarchical regression model, self-efficacy was the

strongest predictor and explained a substantial proportion of the variance in academic performance.

The value system had a selective contribution. Intellectual stimulation, security, independence, relations with superiors, and lifestyle were significantly associated with academic performance at the bivariate level. In the hierarchical regression model, selected value dimensions added a statistically significant incremental contribution beyond self-efficacy, with the final model explaining 66.3% of the variance in academic performance. Because intellectual stimulation and security showed an extremely high empirical overlap in the aggregate database, they were not entered simultaneously in the final regression model. These findings show that academic success cannot be reduced to cognitive factors, but should be analysed through the interaction between beliefs about personal efficacy, value priorities, and the requirements of the educational context.

The results may support psychoeducational interventions aimed at strengthening self-efficacy, clarifying personal values, and developing self-regulation strategies in order to improve academic adaptation and performance.

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