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## Differences in Self-Perceptions at Work Between Citizens and Undocumented Immigrants

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DIFFERENCES IN SELF-PERCEPTIONS AT WORK BETWEEN CITIZENS  
AND UNDOCUMENTED IMMIGRANTS

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A Thesis  
Presented to the  
Faculty of  
California State University,  
San Bernardino

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In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Master of Science  
in  
Psychology:  
Industrial/Organizational

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by  
Marcos Guevara  
September 2018

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## ABSTRACT

This research examined if differences in social categories between two groups, natural—born U.S. citizens and undocumented immigrants with deferred action (DACA) led to differences in self-perceptions at work in areas such as Occupational Self-Efficacy (OSE), Organization Based Self-Esteem (OBSE), and Perceived Employability (PE). Additionally, the effect of Perceived Supervisor Similarity (PSS) on these relationships was also observed. Results showed significant differences only in PE with the DACA group having an unexpectedly higher level than the citizen group. The model was supported as OSE, OBSE, and PSS all significantly predicted PSS in both groups. Lastly, interaction effects were only found in the citizen group with PSS moderating the relationship between OSE and OBSE predicting PE. Specifically, PSS affected levels of PE at high levels of OSE and at low levels of OBSE. Lastly, I explored how temporal self-appraisals may have lead the DACA group to be less of an out-group along with additional implications to this field of research with this population.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT .....	iii
LIST OF TABLES .....	v
LIST OF FIGURES .....	vi
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION .....	1
The New Workforce .....	1
Theoretical Background of Group Differences .....	4
Occupational Self-Efficacy .....	11
Organization Based Self-Esteem .....	14
Perceived Employability .....	17
Perceived Supervisor Similarity.....	21
CHAPTER TWO: METHODS .....	28
Participants.....	28
Measures .....	31
Demographics.....	31
Careless Response Checks .....	31
Occupational Self-Efficacy.....	32
Organizational Based Self-Esteem .....	32
Perceived Employability.....	33
Perceived Supervisor Similarity.....	33
Procedures.....	34
CHAPTER THREE: RESULTS.....	35
Data Screening .....	35

Hypothesis Testing .....	38
CHAPTER FOUR: DISCUSSION .....	49
Limitations and Future Research .....	56
Theoretical Implications .....	59
Practical Implications .....	62
Conclusion .....	64
APPENDIX A: MEASURES .....	65
APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT .....	73
APPENDIX C: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL .....	76
REFERENCES .....	78

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Continuous Demographic Variables.....	30
Table 2. Categorical Demographic Variables.....	30
Table 3. Citizen Group Variable Descriptive Statistics.....	36
Table 4. DACA Group Variable Descriptive Statistics.....	37
Table 5. Pairwise Zero-Order Correlation Matrices .....	37
Table 6. Citizen Group vs DACA Group t-tests .....	39
Table 7. Citizen Group Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Perceived Employability .....	40
Table 8. DACA Group Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Perceived Employability .....	41
Table 9. Sequential Multiple Regression by Group and Model.....	43

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Conceptual Model.....	26
Figure 2. Expected Interaction between Occupational Self-Efficacy and Perceived Supervisor Similarity on Perceived Employability.....	26
Figure 3. Expected Interaction between Organization Based Self-Esteem and Perceived Supervisor Similarity on Perceived Employability .....	27
Figure 4. Citizen Group Interaction Between Occupational Self-Efficacy and Perceived Supervisor Similarity.....	44
Figure 5. DACA Group Interaction Between Occupational Self-Efficacy and Perceived Supervisor Similarity .....	45
Figure 6. Citizen Group Interaction Between Organization Based Self-Esteem and Perceived Supervisor Similarity .....	46
Figure 7. DACA Group Interaction Between Organization Based Self-Esteem and Perceived Supervisor Similarity .....	47
Figure 8. Citizen Group Full Model.....	47
Figure 9. DACA Group Full Model.....	48



## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### The New Workforce

In recent times a new workforce has emerged in the United States. Specifically, previously undocumented young adults who live in the country illegally have been given legal work authorization through the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) executive order. This new program was announced on June 15, 2012, by President Obama and put into action later that same year; the program has been in place for the past four years. Subsequently, the Trump administration moved to end DACA, with three federal judges rejecting the cancellation, allowing current DACA holders to be able to renew their work permits, but not allowing new applicants, leaving the program in limbo ("Another federal judge rules against Trump move to end DACA", 2018). DACA covers undocumented immigrants who came to US before the age of 16, have no convictions, and have completed their high school education in the United States (Consideration of deferred action for childhood arrivals, 2016). Although undocumented immigrants have been able to find employment in the past, albeit at times illegally, DACA now gives them an opportunity to expand into new organizations that were previously inaccessible to them. To give some insight into the size of this new workforce, since 2012 a total of 1,358,520 total DACA requests have been accepted. In the first quarter of 2016 alone, 91,174 requests were accepted (Data set: Form I-821D deferred action for childhood arrivals,

2016). As I/O Psychologists, when a new group of workers materializes in organizations around the country, it is our responsibility to research this new workforce and not ignore it.

In the past, I/O Psychologists have been known to overlook more marginalized populations in favor of studying primarily white collar jobs. For instance, in 2007, out of 83 articles examined in one I/O journal, only three articles focused on non-white collar workers (Maynard & Ferdman, 2009). Marginalization is when a group at the margins of society is excluded from access to resources, benefits, and power that is typically available to in-groups closer to the center (Maynard & Ferdman, 2009). In this country, illegal immigrants are marginalized workers. They are typically the minority, have fewer legal rights, a shorter work history, and a tendency to work in mainly lower status jobs such as laborers and other unskilled positions

In 2012 there were roughly 11.4 million illegal immigrants living within the United States; that is about 3.7% of the entire country's population. A quarter of all illegal immigrants reside in California and the majority of them nationwide are from Mexico ("Demographics of Immigrants", 2014). This group of undocumented workers typically found work in lower status blue-collar or service industries. For example, in 2008 about 31% of workers in the roofing industry and 27% of housekeepers were undocumented immigrants. The most common jobs were brick or stone masons, drywall and ceiling installers, roofers, agricultural workers, construction workers, dishwashers, and housekeepers ("Demographics of

Immigrants", 2014). Many older undocumented workers still occupy these lower status positions, but some of their children have now been given the opportunity to move into different positions through their legal DACA status.

Although these new DACA recipients are now able to pursue other professions, they may have internalized an outsider status while growing up, resulting in possible differences in self-perceptions at work. As a result, research of this topic can be incredibly useful to the organizations hiring immigrants with DACA status and the managers leading them. Also, this information may be important to the nation when discussing the continuation or termination of similar programs in the future. In this case, studying this topic can help answer questions about the effects of work insecurity and temporary work visas on self-perceptions at work.

The goal of this paper was to study the differences of perceived employability between different working populations, primarily between United States natural born citizens and DACA recipients. Additionally, the source of such differences will be examined. Specifically, I examined whether factors such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, and supervisor similarity affect the perceived employability of DACA recipients in comparison to natural-born US citizens. By examining this through the lens of intergroup dynamics, I can identify antecedents of perceived employability and how internalizing a previous marginalized status affects an employee's present self-perceptions. These

findings add to the growing research on intergroup dynamics and the effects that specific group membership have on self-perceptions at work.

### Theoretical Background of Group Differences

In American society, there are many different subsets of in-groups and out-groups, one of the most evident being that of U.S. born citizens and immigrants from different countries with different cultures. Conflict between those in the in-group, citizens, and those in the outgroup, immigrants, may potentially be an effect of, and in turn also cause, a variety of inherent personal differences between the two. Research on intergroup societal conflict has offered explanations as to why and how this occurs. According to Realistic Group Conflict Theory (RGCT), intergroup conflict is caused by the presence of conflicting goals in which groups have to compete for common resources (Campbell, 1965). A conflict of interests between groups can result in perceived threat from the in-group towards the outgroup. This present study aimed to compare differences in individual self-perceptions at work between these two different groups, DACA recipients and natural-born US citizens using RGCT as the theoretical framework for which it is studied.

When we identify two separate groups within our society, it is important to understand how intergroup dynamics affect the members of the groups and how the groups interact with each other. Therefore, I begin by examining how and why groups initially form and what exactly they are. According to Social Categorization Theory, different groups, or social units, typically serve the

purpose of categorizing members and providing a structure for self-reference (Tajifel & Turner, 1979). Each group has a specific structure and set of norms that regulate member behaviors in the pursuit of their goals (Jackson, 1993). The criteria for group membership is that the individual defines themselves as a member and is also defined by others as belonging to the group (Tajifel & Turner, 1979). In the case of DACA recipients, the criteria for membership is a previous illegal status and the current legal right to work. When these traits are shared with others, people begin to identify with a group. According to Social Identity Theory, when individuals within a group share similar traits, it allows them to clearly identify each other, more easily interact, and also links them in the group through a social integration process (Adeel, & Pengcheng, 2016). Similarly, when group identification is high and members' self-identity and self-interests are based on membership of that group, the normative attitudes of the group become internalized (Jackson, 1993). This social identity is comprised from a member's self-image which is obtained from belonging to a distinct category or group (Tajifel & Turner, 1979). Therefore, individuals tend to associate with and belong to groups as a way to normalize their behaviors and categorize themselves with others that share similar goals and interests. This process of categorization and identification with a group causes people to compare themselves with dissimilar groups often leading to intergroup conflict.

When a person's level of internalization of group attitudes is high, the likelihood of intergroup conflict and hostility increases (Jackson, 1993). This

likelihood for conflict begins with an individual's motivation to increase their self-image. This is done by a positive evaluation of the group an individual belongs to. When evaluating group membership, a relevant outgroup is used as a frame of reference for comparison with any perceived differences favoring the in-group. On the other hand, outgroups more commonly tend to internalize beliefs of inferiority or being second-class. This has resulted in noticeable outgroup self-derogation in various other studies. The result of this perceived low status by outgroups tends to intensify antagonism towards the higher-status in-group that serves as their frame of reference (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). This sets the stage for intergroup conflict.

When groups compete in a way that the accomplishments of one group results in positive outcomes for them, but negative outcomes for the other group, the out-group then becomes negatively stereotyped (Jackson, 1993). A negative social identity then actually serves to promote outgroup competitiveness towards the in-group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Competition between groups then takes the form of competing over common resources which is the central claim of RGCT. Likewise, just the thought of there being a different group is enough to cause discrimination favoring the in-group; just being aware of an out-group is enough to provoke intergroup competition and discrimination (Tajfel & Turner, 2003).

In the United States, difference in access to and distribution of resources between certain groups is inherent in the socioeconomic structure of the country. For American workers, the competition for resources between those in the in-

group and out-group is centered around equal access to the same jobs, neighborhoods, health care, child care, and education. Examples of this competition leading to outcomes that favor the in-group have been seen in past. For instance, in 1994 California passed Proposition 187, which was also known as the Save Our State initiative. The law aimed to restrict the access illegal immigrants had to public health services and prevented them from earning an education from public schools beginning with elementary school through post-secondary school ("California Proposition 187", n.d.). The law was later repealed by a federal judge. Also, as early as June of 2015, a popular presidential candidate stated that, "When Mexico sends its people, they're not sending their best... They're bringing crime. They're rapists" ("Donald Trump's false comments", 2015) and more recently stated that when it comes to jobs, illegal immigrants "compete directly against vulnerable American workers" ("Immigrants aren't taking", 2016). This process of positively comparing your in-group to a less powerful out-group, painting them in a negative light to increase your self-esteem, focusing on the competition between the two, and then developing laws to prevent them from competing with you is at the heart of RGCT. This is even more evident when competitive out-group neighbors become a real threat to the in-group, which then increases in-group solidarity, in-group identification, positive attachment to the group, cohesiveness, cooperation, ethnocentrism, and hostility towards the outgroup (Campbell, 1956; Tajfel & Turner, 2003). Consequently, in-

groups increase punishment and rejection of group “traitors” which further establishes the tightness of group boundaries (Campbell, 1965).

For the purposes of this paper, the dominant in-group that will be examined is that of U.S. citizens while the subordinate outgroup will be undocumented working immigrants. This is evident when looking at the number of immigrants currently living in the U.S. In 2014 1.3 million individuals born in other countries moved to the United States. Out of the total population of 318.9 million people, only 13.3%, or 42.4 million, are immigrants. Out of that number, 47% were naturalized citizens, with the remaining 53% being either permanent residents, unauthorized immigrants, legal residents, or individuals with temporary visas (“Frequently Requested Statistics”, 2016). Also, when compared to native-born citizens, of which 30% have a bachelor’s degree, only 29% of the 36.7 million immigrants who were 25 years or older had a bachelor’s degree. Although this difference may not appear to be very drastic, when comparing high school education, the difference is noticeable. A total of 30% of immigrants lack either a high school diploma or a General Educational Development (GED) certificate whereas only 10% of citizens lack a high-school diploma or GED (“Frequently Requested Statistics”, 2016). While these numbers pertain to all immigrants, finding similar data for undocumented immigrants is more difficult as it is nearly impossible to survey or census that population, although these numbers may be lower for them. Regardless, these differences in total number of group members



and education has resulted in the development of an outgroup existing in the United States comprised of all immigrants, including undocumented immigrants.

In 2012, Mexico was the country of origin for the largest number of undocumented immigrants in the United States, followed by El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras (“Demographics of Immigrants”, 2014). Undocumented Mexican parents, who belong to the outgroup, had a significant difference in their access to resources. For instance, Mexican fathers tended to work longer work weeks, 12 hours over full-time. Also, about 33% of Mexican fathers and 40% of Mexican Mothers earned less than the legal minimum wage. Very few received any sort of employment benefits (Yoshikawa, 2011). As a result, this leads to individual differences in a variety of facets of an individual's life. Harsh working conditions suffered by undocumented immigrants leads to more psychological distress, economic hardship, and more stressed parenting styles (Yoshikawa, 2011). The Mexican children studied then showed lower cognitive ability when compared to other groups through lower job autonomy, lower wages, and lower access to high quality childcare for the parents (Yoshikawa, 2011). These individual differences may also extend to certain individual factors such as self-efficacy and self-esteem, as well as work related factors such as perceived supervisor similarity and perceived employability. This is due to an internalization of their low status caused by comparing their self-identified group to that of US citizens.

Having established the relevant in-group and out-group to be examined in this study, I also compared occupational differences between the two groups. It has been found that communication, interaction, and similarities are typically greater within groups than between groups. These qualities tend to inspire greater levels of attraction, understanding and trust within groups than between groups (Turner, Brown, & Tajifel, 1979). Therefore, it is likely that the citizen in-group will be more similar within itself than in comparison to the immigrant outgroup. Also, a member of the in-group will be more likely to sacrifice personal gains in order to produce intergroup differences in outcomes that favor the in-group. These same members also tend to be less fair and more discriminatory towards the outgroup (Turner, Brown, & Tajifel, 1979). Lastly, when outgroups develop negative social identities, as shown to happen to immigrants, this typically results in identification with the outgroup being maintained in its members as well as causing them to continually refer to the dominant in-group as a relevant comparison group (Tajifel & Turner, 1979). For these reasons, it is not only acceptable, but completely appropriate that the variables examined in this study were compared across the two groups. First, I compared means for all variables by group membership. Second, I then tested the pattern of relationships between variables also as a function of group membership. Specifically, I tested whether occupational self-efficacy and organization based self-esteem predicted perceived employability, and how that relationship was

moderated by perceived supervisor similarity. These overall results were then compared across the relevant groups established in this section.

### Occupational Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy was described by Bandura as a person's judgement of how well they believe they can perform tasks that they are required to deal with in a given situation. These self-evaluations of self-efficacy are generally adopted from four different sources: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal (Bandura, 1977). This then affects the choice of activities undertaken, common behaviors, and task persistence (Bandura, 1977). The way a person perceives their own ability to do something also affects their motivation and how they utilize their cognitive resources to undertake the courses of action necessary to exert control over the events in their life (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

Although self-efficacy has at times in the past been studied as a stable, general trait that reflects a person's expectations of how likely they are to succeed at effectively performing a task in a variety of different situations (Gardner & Pierce, 1998), the present study aimed to more narrowly examine trait self-efficacy in a specific context. Occupational Self-Efficacy (OSE) is "the competence that a person feels concerning the ability to successfully fulfill the tasks involved in his or her job" (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008, p. 239). Accordingly, the differences in self-efficacy at work between in-groups and outgroups was one of the main research questions examined in this study.

Over the course of years of research, commonly accepted and agreed upon outcomes of self-efficacy have been established. For example, researchers conducting a meta-analysis found that self-efficacy positively predicts work performance, especially in relation to low complexity tasks that typically require lower cognitive ability, behavioral facility, and information processing (Stajkovic, & Luthans, 1998). Similarly, generalized self-efficacy has been positively related to both job performance and satisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2001). Further research on this relationship has found that self-efficacy affects performance through influencing behavioral choices such as goal level, effort, persistence, and commitment (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). In academic settings, self-efficacy has shown to have a positive relationship with both academic performance and persistence outcomes across a wide variety of subjects (Multon, Brown, & Lent, 1991). Additionally, self-efficacy was positively related to the development of a learning goal orientation within people which makes them more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered rather than something to be avoided (Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007). Self-efficacy also positively affects motivation, effort, and commitment, and is negatively related to stress, and may lead to higher goals being set (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Specifically in expatriate subjects, having high levels of general self-efficacy led to greater work adjustment than those with low levels of general self-efficacy (Harrison, Chadwick & Scales, 1996). In relation to OSE, similar outcomes have been established. For example, OSE is positively related to work outcomes such as

job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceived performance, and is negatively related to job insecurity (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008).

Group differences are also evident in levels of self-efficacy.

Maynard and Ferdman (2009) posited that marginalized workers have had more difficulty in finding and keeping work which may result in avoiding job changes for fear of becoming unemployed which in turn leads to both low motivation and self-efficacy. Likewise, disagreeing negative comparisons between in-groups and outgroups result in low prestige, or respect and admiration for someone based on their achievements or qualities, for the outgroups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Lastly, in-group identification is positively correlated with perceptions of collective efficacy (De Cremer & Oosterwegel, 1999). Consequently, the citizen in-group will experience higher levels of OSE than the undocumented immigrant outgroup. This is especially due to the fact that previously, before deferred action, undocumented immigrants were not allowed to legally work in the country leading to less experience in the workplace. Also, undocumented immigrants still might identify with those who are not allowed to work in the U.S. as many of them have family and friends who are in similar positions as them, but do not qualify for deferred action.

Hypothesis 1: The citizen group will report significantly higher occupational self-efficacy than the deferred action group.

### Organization Based Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is a subjective evaluation of your worth as an individual (Orth & Robins, 2014). It typically increases throughout the lifespan until old age and is a relatively stable trait over time. Self-esteem also predicts well-being in relationships, work, and health (Orth & Robins, 2014). The concept is commonly measured as a global or general construct, but context specific self-esteem can distinctly vary from the global construct. Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, and Rosenberg (1995) argued that global self-esteem is more relevant to well-being, while specific self-esteem is more relevant to specific behaviors. Thus, it is imperative to establish a definition of self-esteem specific to the work context. Organization Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) is a person's evaluation of their competence and self-worth as a member of an organization. People high in OBSE are typically found to either feel or be important within their organization, are confident in their work abilities, and are positively regarded by their co-workers (Gardner & Pierce, 1998).

In retrospect, OBSE might seem very similar to that of OSE. Actually, meta-analytic results have indeed found a strong positive relationship of an average correlation of .60 across 75 studies between self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism, and locus of control (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002). These four traits have commonly been grouped together and labeled Core Self-Evaluations (CSE). People high in CSEs had strong positive relationships

with job and life satisfaction, commitment, and motivation, and a negative relationship with turnover intention and stress (Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, & Tan, 2012). Also, CSE has been found to positively moderate the relationship between income and certain family advantages such as education, parent's occupational prestige, and childhood poverty when CSE was high (Judge & Hurst, 2007). Likewise, when CSE was high, cognitive ability had a stronger effect in predicting academic achievement (Rosopa & Schroder, 2009). Therefore, it is evident that in conjunction with each other, when self-efficacy and self-esteem have similar levels within a person, they serve to predict various positive outcomes as well as enhance the relationship between positive outcomes. In another example, persons high in collective self-esteem display higher perceptions of collective efficacy, while those low in collective self-esteem displayed low efficacy (De Cremer & Oosterwegel, 1999). Similarly, those high in personal self-esteem had higher self-efficacy (De Cremer & Oosterwegel, 1999). Although both variables are closely related and commonly grouped together into a higher order construct, some do argue that they are more distinct than alike.

While both constructs are similar in that they are both a type of self-evaluation, they are distinctly different in what they measure. Self-esteem differs from self-efficacy in that esteem is more related to self-worth or value while efficacy is more related to the ability to successfully complete tasks (Gardner & Pierce, 1998). Gist and Mitchel (1992) also argued that they are different constructs, stating that self-esteem is an evaluation of the self while self-efficacy

is an evaluation of task capability, which may or may not affect self-esteem.

Thus, for the purposes of this study, OBSE and OSE will not be aggregated into one final score or construct, but will instead be evaluated individually and uniquely.

When conducting any type of self-evaluation, people compare themselves to others and in turn have their self-evaluations influenced by the attitudes that other people have toward them. For instance, when low status groups compare themselves upwards to a higher status group that has more power and prestige, the low status group will have a lowered sense of self-esteem (Tajifel & Turner, 2003). This effect is much more evident in adults than in children when explaining the relationship between social class, primarily measured as socio-economic status, and self-esteem. Among pre-adolescents there was almost no relationship between socio-economic status and self-esteem, while there was a slight positive relationship among adolescents and a moderately positive relationship among adults meaning that the lower status you are economically, the lower self-esteem you will have (Rosenberg, & Pearlin, 1978). Additionally, when examining group differences Tajifel and Turner (1979) argued that when social-structure differences are institutionalized and justified within a country's dominant culture, the subordinate group's self-esteem will likely suffer. Contrasting this, discrepancies between groups that favor the in-group actually enhances an individual's self-esteem if they are a part of the in-group (Turner, Brown, & Tajifel, 1979). In having gathered this evidence of social class affecting



self-esteem along with negative out-group effects and positive in-group effects, it is expected that there will be significant differences in self-esteem within groups, specifically in OBSE.

Hypothesis 2: The citizen group will report significantly higher organization based self-esteem than the deferred action group.

### Perceived Employability

Perceived Employability (PE) is a person's belief that they can gain initial employment, maintain employment, and obtain new employment while already employed (Hillage & Pollard, 1998). This understanding of employability also includes transitions within organizations, not just transitioning to new organizations, and the quality of employment, meaning high employability persons can not only obtain low quality work, but high-quality work as well. Employability has previously been linked to a number of important work-related outcomes.

Employability is connected to employee well-being by being both positively related to engagement and life satisfaction, and negatively related to job insecurity (Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, Bernsten, Witte, & Alarco, 2008). Learning atmospheres and transformational leadership can help increase perceived employability. Similarly, performance has been positively linked to employability as well (Camps & Rodriguez, 2011). In fact, employability has been found to mediate relationships between transformational leadership and performance as well as between organizational learning practices and performance, therefore

explaining the relationships between those variables (Camps & Rodriguez, 2011). This study aimed to examine PE and its relationship to two personal self-evaluation predictors as well as looking at group differences in PE.

Research on migrants in Italy has shown that achieving higher levels of education increases the likelihood of being employed (Mancinelli, Mazzanti, Piva, & Ponti, 2010). In the U.S. though, according to the U.S. Census Bureau's American Community Survey (ACS), only 15% of the college-educated labor force in 2007 was comprised of immigrants ("College-Educated Immigrants in the United States...", 2008). Although the rate of foreign-born college-educated individuals in the U.S. has increased from 3.1% in 1990 to 10.5% in 2014, is it still only a small percentage of them who attain college degrees ("College-Educated Immigrants in the United States...", 2016). Therefore, immigrants having a much lower rate of college education makes it harder for them to obtain employment compared to natural-born citizens. Likewise, having had limited work opportunities in the past and now having to compete with the in-group for employment, I posited that the out-group will exhibit overall lower levels of PE.

Hypothesis 3: The citizen group will report significantly higher perceived employability than the deferred action group.

According to Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory, self-efficacy beliefs can affect both career choice and development through different choice-related processes (Bandura, 1994). For example, Bandura (1994) stated that occupational careers are founded on cognitive skills, self-management, and

interpersonal skills, all of which are partly determined by a person's perceived self-efficacy. Also, the higher a person's self-efficacy, the greater amount of career options they'll consider, the more interested in them they'll be, and more prepared they'll be educationally for whatever career they choose, which will in turn increase their career success (Bandura, 1994). All these factors would affect a person's ability to gain, maintain, and obtain new employment. Other research in the area has found similar results. Career decision-making self-efficacy influences whether or not a person will explore other careers. The more confident people are in their decision-making, the more they'll pursue information on other career options (Hackett & Betz, 1995). Also, OSE has been found to predict career interests, occupational consideration, and career choice (Hackett & Betz, 1995). In similar studies, the emotional self-efficacy of graduate students was found to predict employability (Dacre Pool & Qualter, 2013). Likewise, role breadth self-efficacy had a positive relationship with employability orientation (Nauta, Vianen, Heijden, Dam, & Willemsen, 2009). Therefore, if self-efficacy affects career choice, interest, preparedness, and success, and if several other context specific types of self-efficacy predict employability, I posited that OSE will also positively predict PE.

Hypothesis 4: Occupational self-efficacy will positively predict perceived employability similarly in both groups in a model that also contains organization based self-esteem and perceived supervisor similarity.

Lastly, Kasl's (1982) "reverse causation hypothesis" states that although being un-employed causes low self-esteem, having low-esteem can in turn make it more difficult to get re-employed. For example, researchers have found general, social, and personal self-esteem to be significantly positively related to various employability attributes such as career self-management, career resilience, and proactivity (Potgieter, 2012). Other research has focused on self-esteem's relationship with obtaining work. For instance, longitudinal studies have found that poor attitude and low self-esteem in young people make them less likely to be employed 14 years later (Waddell, 2006). Also, higher self-esteem reduces the likelihood of men being unemployed for more than a year (Feinstein, 2000). Self-esteem has also been studied in relation to maintaining work. For instance, there is a strong negative relationship between global self-esteem and counter-productive work behaviors, and a smaller negative relationship between OBSE and counter-productive work behaviors (Whelpley & McDaniel, 2016). An increase in counter-productive work behaviors, which are related to low self-esteem, tend to lead to lower performance evaluations which then affect the ability to maintain employment (Whelpley & McDaniel, 2016). Several models have also been proposed that examine this relationship. The Key to Employability model suggests that career development, experience, knowledge and skills, and emotional intelligence all have an effect on recent graduates' self-efficacy, self-confidence, and self-esteem, which in turn affects employability (Dacre Pool & Sewell, 2007). Likewise, the Journey to Employment framework

identifies emotional capabilities, which includes self-esteem, as essential to young adults being able to work independently with poor self-esteem being linked to lower job quality as well as predicting future earnings (Copps & Plimmer, 2013). In light of self-esteem's relationship with employability being extensively supported, I expected similar results within my research and posit that OBSE will also positively predict PE in both groups.

Hypothesis 5: Organization based self-esteem will positively predict perceived employability similarly in both groups in a model that also contains occupational self-efficacy and perceived supervisor similarity.

#### Perceived Supervisor Similarity

Recent demographic trends in the United States have made this country more diverse than ever. Over the past 50 years, nearly 59 million immigrants have come to the US, with most being from Latin American and Asia. Whereas in 1965 only 5% of the population was foreign born, today that number is 14% (Cohn, 2016). This change has resulted in a need for increased sensitivity to individual differences, especially among employees in the workforce. Of specific interest is the differences, and similarities, between workers and their supervisors and the effects of those differences on different organizational outcomes. Thus far only group differences and the direct relationships between our variables have been discussed, but the research on groups differences in employability could be expanded by considering the moderating effect of an employee's perceived similarity to their supervisor. Perceived Supervisor

Similarity (PSS) is the degree to which an employee views their supervisor as being generally similar to them, including similarities in perspective and work style. The similarity-attraction theory states that when people possess similar characteristics, they assume that they have common perspectives, interests, work styles, and more (Huang, & Lun, 2006). These actual similarities then predict perceived similarities which lead to more positive interpersonal experiences. This process of seeing oneself as similar to their superior has a variety of effects on organizational outcomes, but when examining this similarity between employee and worker, we must first examine at what level this comparison is being made and consider their dyad relationship. After careful consideration of all these factors, we can then explore the effects of PSS on PE. When we refer to PSS, we are primarily talking about deep level similarities. A deep level similarity refers to underlying psychological characteristics such as personality, values, beliefs, and attitudes (Bell, 2007). In this case, PSS includes the social category a person grew up in as well as their behaviors at work. These characteristics usually take more time to learn about a person and requires a deeper and longer relationship with a supervisor. Over time, we begin to perceive our supervisor as being similar or different than us. In contrast, a surface level similarity refers to obvious demographic characteristics that are immediately noticeable such as ethnicity, age, and gender (Bell, 2007).

Both levels of similarities have been shown to affect various outcomes. For instance, research has shown that if an individual is different from the majority

race in an organization, they have higher turnover intentions, are less satisfied, less committed to the organization, and receive lower performance ratings (Williams, & O'Reilly, 1998). On an individual level, the more dissimilar a subordinate is demographically from their supervisor, the less their supervisor perceives them to be effective, the less personal attraction there is, and the more role ambiguity there is for the subordinate (Wells, & Levi, 2013). Also, previous research has found that the more informal power an organization's CEO has, the more likely it will be that their successors are demographically similar to them (Hutzschenreuter., Kleindienst., & Greger, 2015). Therefore, if a CEO has the ability to make hiring decisions on his/her own, they will most likely select a replacement who is similar in ethnicity and gender. This then perpetuates the idea that only those similar to those in charge will be hired or promoted. This relationship gets more complex when examining the dyadic relationship between a worker and supervisor.

In discussing the effects of PSS on work outcomes, we must also examine its effect on supervisor-subordinate relationships and how that leads to employment decisions. Leader member exchange (LMX) theory states that due to a supervisor's limited time and resources they identify a core group of subordinates with which they focus more time and resources on leading to greater trust and respect between the two as well as greater commitment and performance from the employee (Eisenberger, Karagonlar, Stinglhamber, Neves, Becker, Gonzalez-Morales, & Steiger-Mueller, 2010).

Within LMX, it has been shown that differences between leaders and followers can create barriers and lead to detachment, distance, and interpersonal conflict. In contrast, perceived similarity leads to a higher quality relationships and attraction (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2010). This is due to the fact that similar individuals foster greater liking for each other due to feeling more comfortable around each other and thus communicating more easily with each other. Similarly, Liden, Wayne, and Stilwell (1993) found that perceived similarity and liking from the perspective of both the leader and follower predicted LMX at different time periods whereas demographic similarities had no effect. Therefore, it has been established that PSS, which focuses more on deep level similarities, has a stronger effect than actual similarities, which are demographic, on establishing relationships with supervisors.

Adding on to the research that has found a relationship between PSS and LMX, it is important to examine the effect PSS has on other organizational outcomes as well. When perceived similarity was measured from the employee's point of view, PSS was positively related to job satisfaction and role clarity (Turban, & Jones, 1988). When perceived similarity was measured from the supervisor's point of view, it was related to perceptions of performance and pay decisions (Turban, & Jones, 1988). Likewise, persons perceived to be more similar to an evaluator are seen as more attractive and decisions and evaluations towards that person tend to be positively biased (Turban & Jones, 1988). This is important since supervisors are typically the one evaluating their employees. In



addition, PSS increases the odds of being treated more favorably, having more job satisfaction, receiving higher performance ratings and pay ratings, and leads to more frequent communication with, and trust in, supervisors (Turban & Jones, 1988). Lastly, supervisor similarity predicted promotion decisions in candidates that belonged to groups with high levels of collectivistic orientation (Schaubroeck, & Lam, 2002). Therefore, it seems as if simply being similar to your supervisor would lead to a host of positive work-related outcomes. If promotion, continuation, and turnover decisions are affected by PSS, then PE will be affected. To paint a clearer picture, PSS will moderate the relationship between both OSE and OBSE with PE. The model and expected interaction effects can be seen below in Figures 1, 2, and 3.

Hypothesis 6: The citizen group will report significantly higher perceived supervisor similarity than the deferred action group.

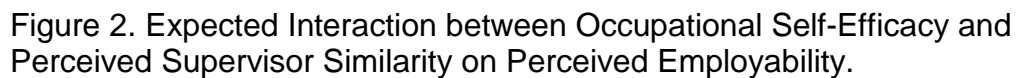
Hypothesis 7: Perceived supervisor similarity will positively predict perceived employability similarly in both groups in a model also contains occupation self-efficacy and organization based self-esteem.

Hypothesis 8: Perceived supervisor similarity and occupational self-efficacy will interact to predict perceived employability such that the relationship between self-efficacy and employability will be significantly stronger when similarity is high and weaker when it is low (see Figure 2).

Hypothesis 9: Perceived supervisor similarity and organization based self-esteem will interact to predict perceived employability such that the relationship between

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graph LR; OSE[Occupational Self-Efficacy] --> PE[Perceived Employability]; OBS[Org Based Self-Esteem] --> PE; PSS[Perceived Supervisor Similarity] --> OSE; PSS --> OBS; PSS --> PE;
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*Caption:* The overall conceptual model depicting the relationship between all variables.



*Caption:* The expected interaction effect for Hypothesis 8 of perceived supervisor similarity and occupational self-efficacy on perceived employability.

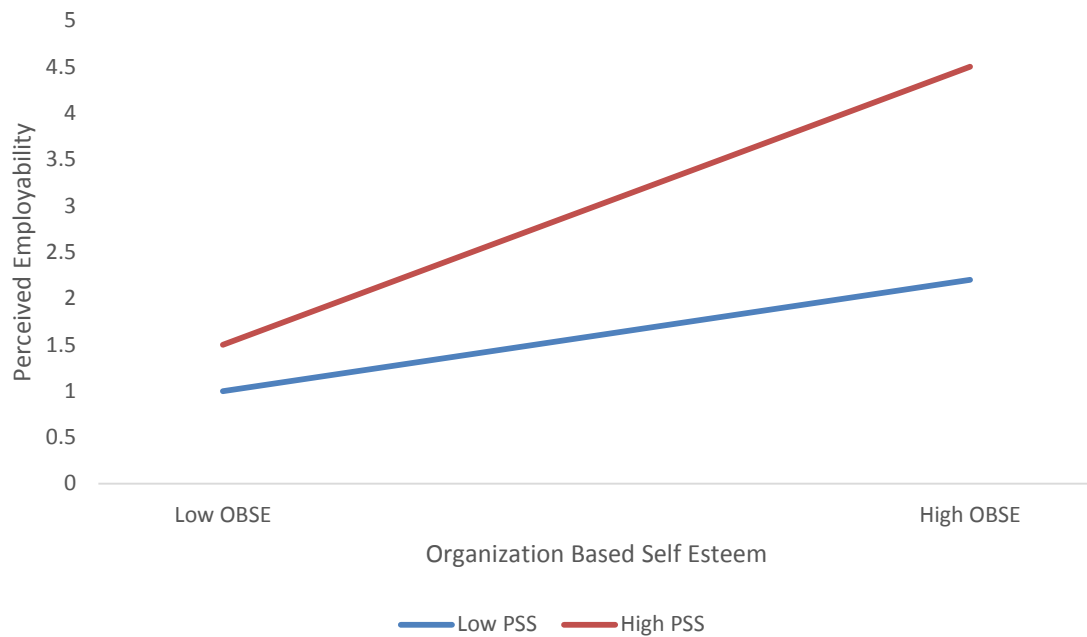


Figure 3. Expected Interaction between Organization Based Self-Esteem and Perceived Supervisor Similarity on Perceived Employability.

*Caption:* The expected interaction effect for Hypothesis 9 of perceived supervisor similarity and organization based self-esteem on perceived employability.

## CHAPTER TWO

### METHODS

#### Participants

The individuals who participated in this study were at least 18 years old and had at least 6 months of previous work experience. This minimum work requirement was to ensure that participants had adequate time to develop a relationship with their supervisor. The sample consisted of primarily student workers as well as practitioners from various fields. A power analysis was performed using G\*Power 3.1.9.2 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) to estimate the sample size necessary for a moderated multiple regression. The resulting sample size needed was 77 when power was set at .80 and  $\alpha = .05$  with 3 predictors and a medium effect size. When power was set to .95 with all else the same, the resulting sample size needed was 119.

A total of 697 participants were included in the sample after initially removing 22 participants that incorrectly answered at least 2 of the 3 careless response checks. Of the participants, 546, or 78.3%, were Natural Born U.S. Citizens, while 76, or 10.9%, were Undocumented with Deferred Action. Additionally, 35 were Naturalized U.S. Citizens, 28 were Permanent Residents, 7 were Undocumented, and 5 had Student, Work, or Visitors Visas. Due to the low number of Naturalized Citizens, Permanent Resident, Undocumented

Immigrants, and participants with Visas, they were not included in any of the main analyses.

Within the citizen group, the sample consisted of 103 men and 441 women which accounted for 18.9% and 80.8% of the sample, with an additional 2 “other” participants. The majority of the citizen participants were Hispanic, accounting for 59.5% of the sample, while 26.2% were Caucasian, 5.7% were African American, 4.2% were Other, 2.9% were Asian, and 1.5% were Middle Eastern. The average age of participants was 25.76 years old with ages ranging from 18 to 74 years old. The average number of years worked was 7.63 with the amount ranging from 1 to 52 years. Lastly, the average annual income of the citizen participants was \$22,552.

Within the DACA group, the sample consisted of 27 men and 49 women which accounted for 35.5% and 64.5% of the sample. The majority of the DACA participants were Hispanic, accounting for 93.4% of the sample, while 5.3% were Asian, and 1.3% were Caucasian. The average age of participants was 24.72 years old with ages ranging from 18 to 35 years old. The average number of years worked was 7.53 with the amount ranging from 1 to 24 years. Lastly, the average annual income of the DACA participants was \$30,495.

The demographics of the two samples can be seen in Tables 1 and 2 below. No other identifying information was asked of the participants in an effort to increase the number of undocumented participants.

Table 1. Continuous Demographic Variables.

<b>Sample</b>	<b>Variable</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>s</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Citizen Sample	Age (Years)	25.76	8.24	18	74
	Years Worked	7.63	7.94	1	52
	Annual Income (USD)	\$22,552	\$25,892	\$0	\$200,000
DACA Sample	Age (Years)	24.72	4.27	18	35
	Years Worked	7.53	5.21	1	24
	Annual Income (USD)	\$30,495	\$25,729	\$0	\$120,000

Note: s = standard deviation.

Table 2. Categorical Demographic Variables.

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Legal Status		
Natural Born U.S. Citizen	546	78.3
Naturalized U.S. Citizen	35	5
U.S. Permanent Resident	28	4
Undocumented with DACA	76	10.9
Undocumented	7	1
Student/Work/Visitor Visa	5	0.7
Citizen Gender		
Male	152	21.8
Female	543	77.9
Other	2	0.3
DACA Gender		
Male	27	35.5
Female	49	64.5
Citizen Ethnicity		
Asian	16	2.9
African American	31	5.7
Caucasian	143	26.2
Hispanic/Latino	325	59.5
Middle Eastern	8	1.5
Other	23	4.2
DACA Ethnicity		

Asian	4	5.3
Caucasian	1	1.3
Hispanic/Latino	71	93.4

*Note:* N = sample size.

### Measures

Four existing psychological scales were used in this study, all of which were taken from past research. The scales measured Occupational Self-Efficacy, Organization Based Self-Esteem, Supervisor Similarity, and Perceived Employability. These self-report measures were answered through an online survey utilizing Qualtrics. The full version of all the following measures can be found in the appendix. The measures were all available in English. This is acceptable seeing as how the deferred action group will have had to have been a childhood arrival and have completed high school in the United States in order to obtain deferred action in the first place, therefore possessing sufficient knowledge of the English language.

### Demographics

Participants were asked to report their age, gender, ethnicity, number of years working, income, and legal status. Age, income, and number of years working were used as controls in the analysis. View the appendix for full item wording.

### Careless Response Checks

Three items were used to check for careless responding on survey items. An example is “Please respond with Strongly Agree if you are reading this item”. If a respondent failed two of the three careless response checks, their data was not used in the analysis.

#### Occupational Self-Efficacy

Occupational self-efficacy was assessed using Rigotti, Schyn, and Mohr’s (2008) shortened version of the Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale. The scale contains 6 items and is measured with six levels of responses ranging from 1 = *Not at all true* to 6 = *Completely true*. The alpha reliability coefficients are .85 for a Belgium sample and .90 for a Great Britain sample, which is acceptable for this study. Sample items for the OSE scale include “Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it” and “I feel prepared for most of the demands in my job”. For this study, the scale will be changed to only have 5 levels of responses in order to match all the other scaled used. For the present study, the scale had an alpha reliability of .80. The full scale can be found in the appendix.

#### Organization Based Self-Esteem

Organization based self-esteem was assessed using Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, and Dunham’s (1989) Organization Based Self-Esteem Scale. The scale contains 10 items measured with five levels of responses ranging from 1 = *Strongly disagree* to 5 = *Strongly agree*. The alpha reliability coefficients ranged from .86 to .96 over seven studies, which is acceptable for this study. Sample items for the OBSE scale include “I count around here”, “I am taken seriously”



and “I am important”. For the present study, the scale had an alpha reliability of .90. The full scale can be found in the appendix.

#### Perceived Supervisor Similarity

Perceived supervisor similarity was assessed using Huang and Lun's (2006) Perceived Global Similarity Measure. The scale contains 5 items measured with five levels of responses ranging from 1 = *Strongly disagree* to 5 = *Strongly agree*. The alpha reliability coefficient was .85 for subordinate-perceived similarity, which is acceptable for this study. The scale was modified and originally developed by Ensher and Murphy (1997) and was called the Perceived Similarity of Mentor/Protégé Scale. The alpha reliability coefficient for that scale was .95. Sample items from the PSS scale include “My supervisor and I see things in much the same way” and “My supervisor and I are alike in a number of areas”. For the present study, the scale had an alpha reliability of .91. The full scale can be found in the appendix.

#### Perceived Employability

Perceived employability was assessed using Rothwell and Arnold's (2007) Self-Perceived Employability Scale. The scale contains 11 items measured with five levels of responses ranging from 1 = *Strongly disagree* to 5 = *Strongly agree*. The alpha reliability coefficient was .83, which is acceptable for this study. Sample items from the PE scale include “Even if there was downsizing in this organization I am confident that I would be retained” and “could easily get a

similar job to mine in almost any organization". For the present study, the scale had an alpha reliability of .82. The full scale can be found in the appendix.

### Procedures

Participants were asked to complete the survey through a link obtained either through email or social media. Various DACA and immigrant social media groups were contacted and asked to participate in the survey in order to ensure a larger DACA sample. Using a snowballing technique, participants were asked to share the online survey with others who were qualified to take it. Also, students were recruited from a University in Southern California through the online survey platform SONA. Professional practitioners from both the public and private sector were also contacted to participate. The data were collected between May 2017 and July 2017.

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESULTS

#### Data Screening

All analyses were performed using IBM's SPSS 20. The variable descriptive statistics for both groups can be seen in Tables 3 and 4 while the variable correlation matrix can be seen in Table 5 below. When examining normality, although two variables in Citizen group, OBSE and PSS, exceeded a Skewness of  $= -3$ , the large size of the sample,  $N > 500$ , allows us to assume normality. Also, in examining the residual plots for both groups, no evidence of non-normality, non-linearity, or heteroscedasticity was found. Therefore, the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were also satisfied. No outliers were present in any of the main variables. Outliers were found in the demographic variables Age, Years Worked, and Annual Income, but these variables are only used as controls and were therefore not removed from the sample. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was satisfied through two methods. First, through observation of the variable standard deviations, no variable's standard deviation exceeding three times the size of the others. Also, none of the Levene's tests were significant. In assessing multicollinearity, variable correlations ranged from  $r = .239$  to  $r = .606$  in the citizen group and between  $r = .113$  and  $r = .708$  in the DACA group. Also, in both groups the VIF

values were below 10 and the tolerance statistics were all above 0.2. Therefore, we can conclude that there is no collinearity within our data. Only two variables had high VIF and low tolerance scores within the citizen group, Income and Years Worked, showing possible signs of collinearity. Since these variables are only being used as controls, they will remain in the analysis. Lastly, all variables were Z centered for moderation analyses.

A missing value analysis was conducted. In the citizen group, OSE had 9 missing values, OBSE had 11, PSS had 4, and PE had 13. No variable had more than 2.4% of its data missing. In the DACA group, OSE and PSS had no missing data, while OBSE and PE had 4 and 5 missing values. No variable had more than 6.6% of its data missing. Data was found to be missing at random. Due to the small amount of missing data, participants with missing values were not included in the analyses.

Additionally, the small sample size in the DACA group was of concern. This lead to having low power for the analysis. This was acceptable though as it was expected that this group of participants would be difficult to obtain. The nature of the research on a small population suggested that the sample size would be small for this group.

Table 3. Citizen Group Variable Descriptive Statistics.

<i>Variable</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Missing</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Z Skew</i>	<i>Z Kurtosis</i>
OSE	537	9	4.17	0.52	-1.35	-2.40
OBSE	535	11	4.24	0.58	-3.64	-1.60

PSS	542	4	3.35	0.90	-3.33	-0.97
PE	533	13	3.90	0.54	-0.39	-1.01

*Note:* N = sample size, Missing = number of missing values, SD = standard deviation, Z Skew = standardized skewness, Z Kurtosis = standardized kurtosis.

Table 4. DACA Group Variable Descriptive Statistics.

<i>Variable</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Missing</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Z Skew</i>	<i>Z Kurtosis</i>
OSE	76	0	4.16	0.56	-0.88	-0.31
OBSE	72	4	4.18	0.63	-1.30	-0.73
PSS	76	0	3.45	0.89	-1.07	-0.38
PE	71	5	4.04	0.59	-0.76	-1.20

*Note:* N = sample size, Missing = number of missing values, SD = standard deviation, Z Skew = standardized skewness, Z Kurtosis = standardized kurtosis.

Table 5. Pairwise Zero-Order Correlation Matrices.

<i>Citizen Group</i>		1	2	3	4
1. Occupational Self-Efficacy	r	1	.564**	.239**	.549**
	N	537	527	533	524
2. Organization Based Self-Esteem	r	.564**	1	.383**	.606**
	N	527	535	531	523
3. Perceived Supervisor Similarity	r	.239**	.383**	1	.334**
	N	533	531	542	530
4. Perceived Employability	r	.549**	.606**	.334**	1
	N	524	523	530	533
<i>DACA Group</i>		1	2	3	4
	r	1	.591**	.113	.708**

1. Occupational Self Efficacy	N	76	72	76	71
2. Organization Based Self Esteem	r	.591**	1	.412**	.689**
	N	72	72	72	68
3. Perceived Supervisor Similarity	r	.113	.412**	1	.364**
	N	76	72	76	71
4. Perceived Employability	r	.708**	.689**	.364**	1
	N	71	68	71	71

Note: \*  $p < .05$  and \*\*  $p < .01$ ,  $r$  = regression coefficient,  $N$  = sample size.

### Hypothesis Testing

Independent sample t-tests were conducted to determine if there were meaningful differences in OSE, OBSE, PSS, and PE between citizens and DACA recipients in order to test Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 6. All t-test results can be seen in Table 6 below.

Participants in the citizen group had nearly equal levels of OSE ( $M = 4.17$ ) than those in the DACA group ( $M = 4.16$ ). This difference was not significant  $t(611) = 0.213$ ,  $p = 0.832$ , and indicated a miniscule effect size,  $d = .03$ . Therefore, no evidence was found to support hypothesis 1.

Participants in the citizen group had nearly equal levels of OBSE ( $M = 4.24$ ) than those in the DACA group ( $M = 4.18$ ). This difference was not significant  $t(605) = 0.759$ ,  $p = 0.448$ , and indicated a miniscule effect size,  $d = .09$ . Therefore, no evidence was found to support hypothesis 2.

Participants in the DACA group had higher levels of PE ( $M = 4.04$ ) than those in the citizen group ( $M = 3.90$ ). This difference was significant  $t(602) = -$

2.039,  $p = 0.042$ , and indicated a small effect size,  $d = .25$ . This difference was the opposite of what was expected, therefore, no evidence was found to support hypothesis 3.

Participants in the citizen group had nearly equal levels of PSS ( $M = 3.35$ ) than those in the DACA group ( $M = 3.45$ ). This difference was not significant  $t(616) = -0.943$ ,  $p = 0.346$ , and indicated a very small effect size,  $d = .12$ . Therefore, no evidence was found to support hypothesis 6.

Table 6. Citizen Group vs DACA Group t-tests.

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Levene's Test p</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Mean Diff</i>	<i>95% CI lower</i>	<i>95% CI upper</i>
Occupational Self-Efficacy	0.753	.03	0.213	611	.832	0.014	-0.113	0.14
Organization Based Self- Esteem	0.439	.09	0.759	605	.448	0.056	-0.088	0.200
Perceived Supervisor Similarity	0.704	.12	- 0.943	616	.346	-0.104	-0.319	0.112
Perceived Employability	0.192	.25	- 2.039	602	.042*	-0.141	-0.277	-0.005

Note: \*  $p < .05$ ,  $d$  = Cohen's  $d$ ,  $df$  = degrees of freedom.

A sequential multiple regression was conducted for each group in which the control variables of Age, Years Worked, and Annual Income were entered in the first step, the main effects of OSE, OBSE, and PSS were entered in the

second step, and the interaction terms OSExPSS and OBSExPSS were entered in the third step to predict PE. All subsequent results testing hypotheses 4, 5, 7, 8, and 9 will be in a model controlling for Age, Years Worked, and Annual Income, including all main effects, and both interaction terms. The results can be seen in Tables 7 and 8 below.

As per hypothesis 4, OSE significantly predicted PE in the citizen group,  $b = .344$ ,  $\beta = .348$ ,  $t = 7.941$ ,  $p = <.001$ , and in the DACA group,  $b = .438$ ,  $\beta = .445$ ,  $t = 4.671$ ,  $p = <.001$ . Therefore, hypothesis 4 was supported.

As per hypothesis 5, OBSE significantly predicted PE in the citizen group,  $b = .319$ ,  $\beta = .332$ ,  $t = 7.234$ ,  $p = <.001$ , and in the DACA group,  $b = .347$ ,  $\beta = .359$ ,  $t = 3.573$ ,  $p = .001$ . Therefore, hypothesis 5 was supported.

As per hypothesis 7, PSS significantly predicted PE in the citizen group,  $b = .095$ ,  $\beta = .099$ ,  $t = 72.628$ ,  $p = .009$ , and in the DACA group,  $b = .196$ ,  $\beta = .191$ ,  $t = 2.146$ ,  $p = .036$ . Therefore, hypothesis 7 was supported.

Table 7. Citizen Group Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Perceived Employability.

	<u>Perceived Employability</u>		
	<b>Step 1</b>	<b>Step 2</b>	<b>Step 3</b>
Constant	.67*	.17	.21
Controls			
<i>Age</i>	-.04*	-.01	-.02
<i>Years Worked</i>	.04*	.02	.02



<i>Annual Income</i>	0	0	0
Occupational Self-Efficacy		.30***	.34***
Organization Based Self-Esteem		.36***	.32***
Perceived Supervisor Similarity		.12**	.10**
OSE X PSS			.11**
OBSE X PSS			-.11**
<i>Adj. R<sup>2</sup></i>	.01	.43	.44
<i>Δ Adj. R<sup>2</sup></i>		.42	.01

Note: Significant findings are marked with \* at  $p < .05$ , \*\* at  $p < .01$ , and \*\*\* at  $p < .001$ . Estimates are unstandardized regression coefficients (*b*).

Table 8. DACA Group Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Perceived Employability.

	<u>Perceived Employability</u>		
	<b>Step 1</b>	<b>Step 2</b>	<b>Step 3</b>
Constant	-1.68	.46	.44
Controls			
<i>Age</i>	.07	-.02	-.02
<i>Years Worked</i>	-.04	.02	.02
<i>Annual Income</i>	0*	0	0
Occupational Self-Efficacy		.451***	.44***
Organization Based Self-Esteem		.346**	.35**
Perceived Supervisor Similarity		.165	.20*
OSE X PSS			-.07
OBSE X PSS			.07
<i>Adj. R<sup>2</sup></i>	.10	.66	.66
<i>Δ Adj. R<sup>2</sup></i>		.56	-.05

*Note:* Significant findings are marked with \* at  $p < .05$ , \*\* at  $p < .01$ , and \*\*\* at  $p < .001$ . Estimates are unstandardized regression coefficients (*b*).

The following results for the overall model fit for both groups can be seen in Table 9 below. For the citizen group ( $N = 487$ ), in step 1, which included the control variables, the model did not significantly predict PE,  $R = .116$ ,  $p = .088$ , and explained 1.3% of the variance in PE. In step 2, after adding the main effects, the model significantly predicted PE,  $R = .662$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $R^2$  change = .424,  $p R^2$  change =  $<.001$ , and explained 43.8% of the variance in PE. In step 3, after adding the interaction effects, the model significantly predicted PE,  $R = .670$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $R^2$  change = .011,  $p R^2$  change = .009, and explained 44.9% of the variance in PE.

For the DACA group ( $N = 66$ ), in step 1, which included the control variables, the model did significantly predict PE,  $R = .376$ ,  $p = .023$ , and explained 14.1% of the variance in PE. In step 2, after adding the main effects, the model significantly predicted PE,  $R = .832$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $R^2$  change = .551,  $p R^2$  change =  $<.001$ , and explained 69.3% of the variance in PE. In step 3, after adding the interaction effects, the model significantly predicted PE,  $R = .836$ ,  $p = <.001$ , but the additional change was no significant,  $R^2$  change = .006,  $p R^2$  change = .597, and explained 69.8% of the variance in PE.

Table 9. Sequential Multiple Regression by Group and Model.

<i>Group</i>	<i>Model</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>Adj. R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> <i>Change</i>	<i>Sig. F Change</i>
Citizen	1	.116	.013	.007	.088	.013	.088
	2	.662	.438	.431	<.001***	.424	<.001***
	3	.670	.449	.439	<.001***	.011	.009**
DACA	1	.376	.141	.100	.023*	.141	.023*
	2	.832	.693	.661	<.001***	.551	<.001**
	3	.836	.698	.656	<.001***	.006	0.597
<i>Note:</i> * $p < .05$ , ** $p < .01$ , *** $p < .001$ , $R$ = multiple regression coefficient, $R^2$ = variance explained.							

In the citizen group there was a small yet significant interaction effect of OSE $\times$ PSS,  $b = .107$ ,  $\beta = .126$ ,  $t = 2.687$ ,  $p = .007$ , indicating that PSS moderates the relationship between OSE and PE. Specifically, at low levels of OSE, PSS does not cause any differences in levels of PE, but at high levels of OSE, citizens with high PSS will have higher levels of PE than those with low PSS. In the DACA group there was not a significant interaction effect of OSE $\times$ PSS,  $b = -.069$ ,  $\beta = -.073$ ,  $t = -.864$ ,  $p = .391$ , indicating that PSS does not moderate the relationship between OSE and PE. Therefore, hypothesis 8 is partially supported

having found the expected interaction effect in only one of the two groups.

Figures 4 and 5 display the interactions below.

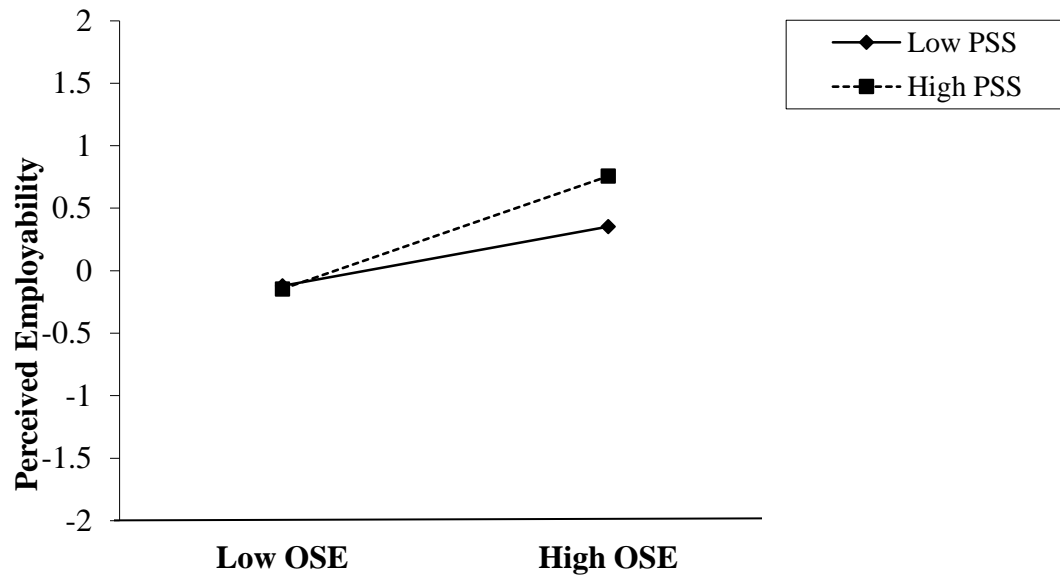


Figure 4. Citizen Group Interaction Between Occupational Self-Efficacy and Perceived Supervisor Similarity.

*Caption:* Citizen group interaction between occupational self-efficacy and perceived supervisor similarity.

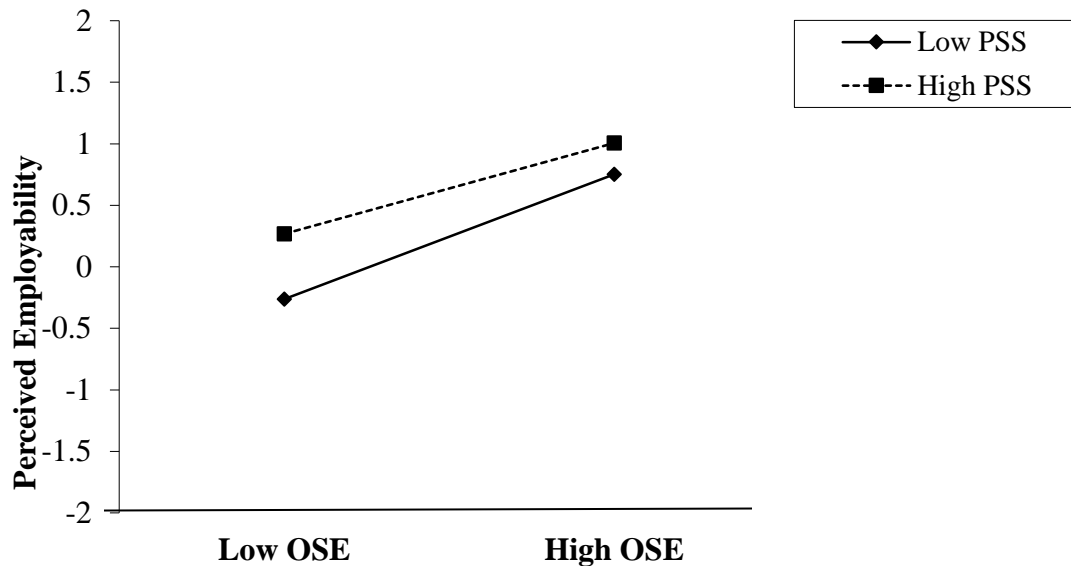


Figure 5. DACA Group Interaction Between Occupational Self-Efficacy and Perceived Supervisor Similarity.

*Caption:* DACA group interaction between occupational self-efficacy and perceived supervisor similarity.

In the citizen group there was a small yet significant interaction effect of OBSE $\times$ PSS,  $b = -.108$ ,  $\beta = -.137$ ,  $t = -2.911$ ,  $p = .004$ , indicating that PSS moderates the relationship between OBSE and PE. Specifically, at low levels of OBSE, citizens with high PSS will have higher levels of PE than those with low PSS, but at high levels of OBSE, PSS does not cause any differences in levels of PE. In the DACA group there was not a significant interaction effect of OBSE $\times$ PSS,  $b = .069$ ,  $\beta = .065$ ,  $t = .806$ ,  $p = .424$ , indicating that PSS does not moderate the relationship between OBSE and PE. Although an interaction effect was found for one group, the effect was the opposite of the hypothesized effect as the relationship between OBSE and PE was actually stronger at lower levels

of PSS, not higher levels of PSS. Therefore, no evidence was found to support hypothesis 9. Figures 6 and 7 display the interactions below. Additionally, Figures 8 and 9 display the full model for both groups.

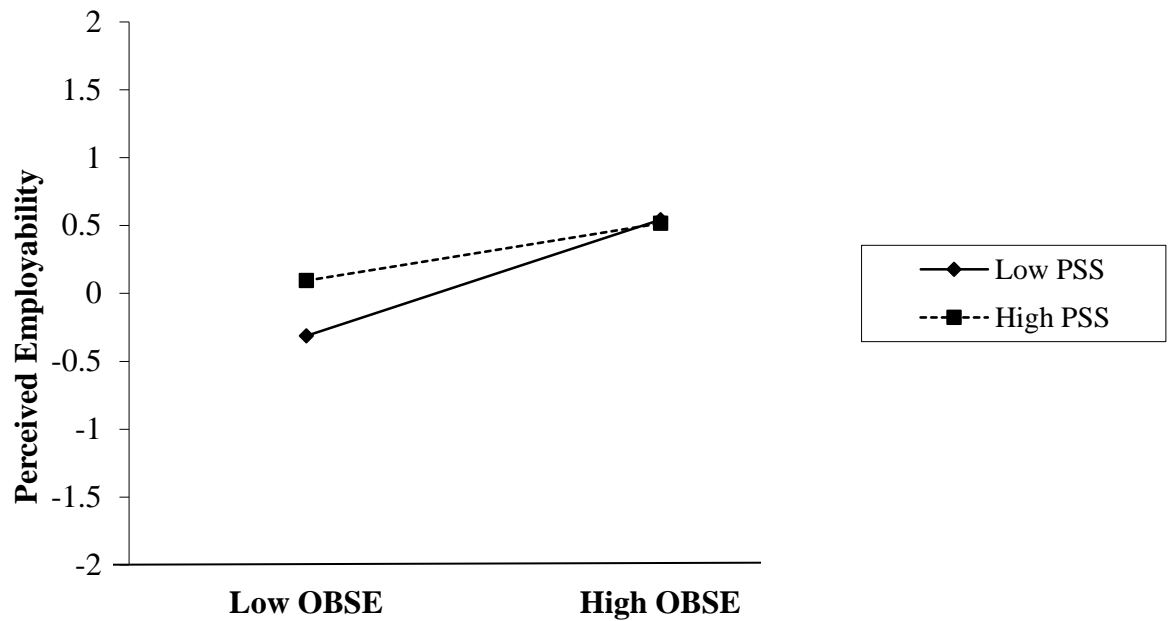


Figure 6. Citizen Group Interaction Between Organization Based Self-Esteem and Perceived Supervisor Similarity.

*Caption:* Citizen group interaction between organization based self-esteem and perceived supervisor similarity.

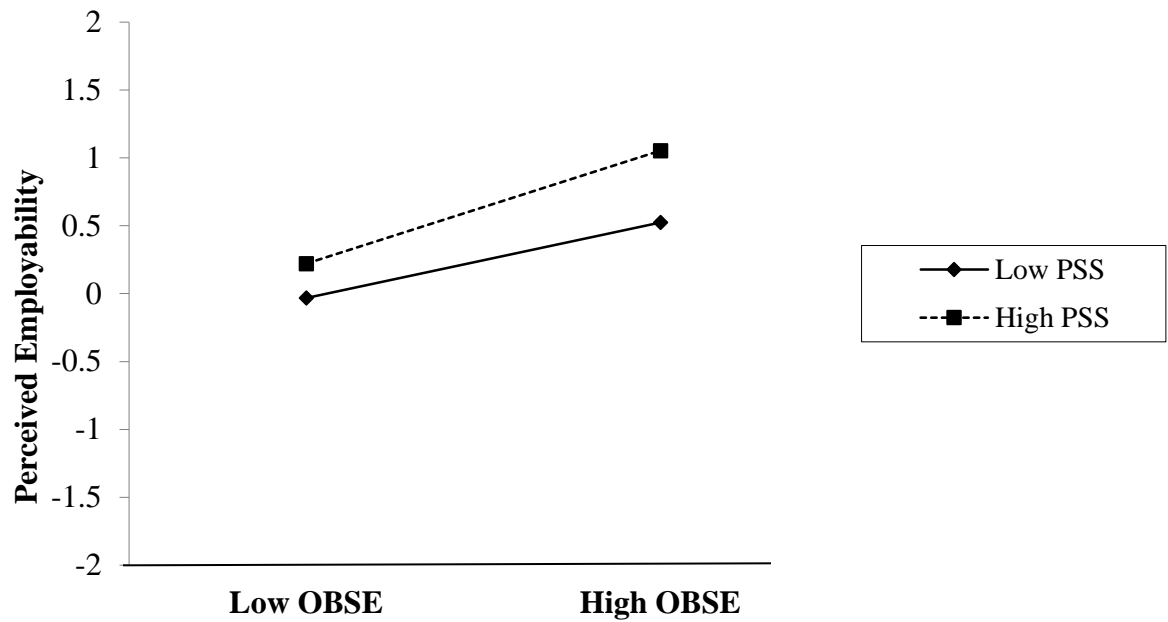


Figure 7. DACA Group Interaction Between Organization Based Self-Esteem and Perceived Supervisor Similarity.

*Caption:* DACA group interaction between organization based self-esteem and perceived supervisor similarity.

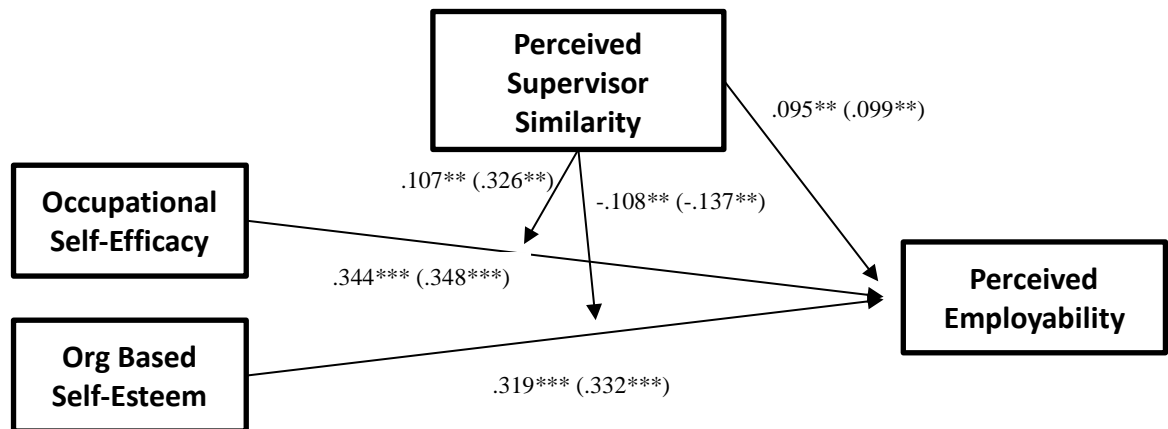


Figure 8. Citizen Group Full Model.





## CHAPTER FOUR

### DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of self-perceptions at work on employability. Specifically, this study had three main goals. First, four different types of self-perceptions were compared between U.S. citizens and undocumented immigrants with deferred action to see if any differences existed between the groups. Second, the relationship between self-perceptions such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, and supervisor similarity were expected to predict employability. Lastly, the perception of supervisor similarity was thought to interact with both self-efficacy and self-esteem at work to predict employability.

First, no differences were found between the citizen group and the DACA group in three of the four variables examined. The levels of OSE, OBSE, and PSS were found to be nearly identical between both citizen participants and DACA participants. Therefore, hypotheses 1, 2, and 6 were not supported. This similarity was not expected, but can easily be explained. To have deferred action you must be a childhood arrival and have completing schooling within the United States. I expect that being raised in the United States from such an early age, as well as completing their education in the U.S., may cause people with DACA to more strongly identify as being Americans. Essentially, having been raised in the same conditions makes them identical to citizens when it comes to how they perceive they will be valued at work, how competent they feel at work, and how well they can relate to their supervisors. Also, individuals with DACA may no

longer identify strongly as undocumented immigrants after a few years of continuously working legally and driving legally without fear of deportation. Additionally, it may be the case that people with DACA may raise their self-esteem by comparing their group to undocumented immigrants who cannot work or have not completed schooling in the United States, as this type of comparison with a subordinate group is common and expected in intergroup dynamics (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Lastly, the samples of both groups were predominantly Hispanic and near the same average age, which may have resulted in the similarity of comparisons to their supervisors.

When it came to comparisons of PE between the two groups, surprisingly the DACA group was found to exhibit higher levels than the citizen group. Therefore, hypothesis 3 was also not supported. I would assume that the exceedingly high level of their belief in the DACA group's ability to obtain and maintain employment comes from recently being given the opportunity to work. The DACA program only went into effect late in 2012, with new first-time applicants constantly being accepted. This recent change for undocumented young adults of being allowed to work legally may make this group more inclined to feel confident about going out and getting a job as opposed to an individual who has always expected that they will one day naturally work. Wilson, Gunn, and Ross (2009) proposed a theory of temporal self-appraisal in which positive events in one's life seem recent while negative effects seem distant. This temporal bias is found to serve the purpose of increasing one's self-evaluation of themselves.

Perhaps the recency of receiving deferred action may make the notion of being able to get a job more salient, thereby resulting in higher PE scores. Ultimately, the opportunity provided by deferred action to allow young undocumented immigrants who may strongly identify as being American to step out of the shadows and into legitimate working conditions seems to have had a significant impact on their beliefs of value and competence in their workplace which has now made those beliefs seemingly comparable to that of natural born citizens. This is a significant finding that may be of interest to policy makers and a crucial first step in examining more objective work-related outcomes among this new working population.

In the second portion of this study, I aimed to examine clearly established relationships between different types of work related self-perceptions, specifically if OSE, OBSE, and PSS would predict PE. This was confirmed in both the citizen group and the DACA group, therefore supporting hypotheses 4, 5, and 7. Work related self-perceptions such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, and supervisor similarity all have a positive relationship with employability, meaning that as your levels of perceived competence, value, and similarity increase, your belief about your ability to gain and maintain employment also increases. This study uniquely contributed to this field of knowledge by confirming that these commonly observed relationships are applicable among groups with different legal statuses, primarily among the new workforce of undocumented immigrants with deferred actions.

Within the DACA group these relationships were actually stronger and had larger effect sizes compared to the citizen group. Follow-up analyses showed that the overall variance explained in PE by the model ended up being significantly larger in the DACA group than the citizen group. This shows that self-perceptions have more of an impact in predicting PE in undocumented immigrants than in citizens, whereas citizens may have other factors that play a bigger role in determining their PE.

Lastly, I sought to better explain a potential moderator of PE. Specifically, I believed that PSS would moderate the relationship between OSE and OBSE with PE such that the positive relationship would be stronger at high levels of PSS. This was confirmed only once in the citizen group when examining the relationship between OSE and PE. The opposite significant interaction effect was found when examining OBSE and PE. Within the DACA group, no moderating effect of PSS was found.

The first interaction between self-efficacy and supervisor similarity in the citizen group worked as expected. Therefore, hypothesis 8 was supported within the citizen group. When OSE is low, differences in PSS have no effect on PE. When OSE is high, citizens with high levels of PSS end up with higher levels of PE while those with low PSS have lower PE. This seems to imply that if your competence on the job is low, or your perceived ability to complete your required tasks is low, then no amount of similarity or dis-similarity with your supervisor will make you feel more employable. On the other hand, if your self-efficacy is high,

then positive or negative similarity comparisons with your supervisor are meaningful and do have an impact on your PE. As stated earlier, promotion, continuation, and turnover decisions are at times affected by supervisor similarity (Hutzschenreuter., Kleindienst., & Greger, 2015; Williams, & O'Reilly, 1998). It would seem though that this is only the case once you have a certain level of efficacy in your job. This finding suggests that the well documented positive outcomes of having a supervisor with deep-level similarities in perspective and work style actually depends on having an already existing minimum level of self-efficacy. This caveat partially supports and expands on Bandura's (1994) Social Cognitive Theory explaining how higher levels of self-efficacy leads to considering more career options and greater career success, or more PE. Except, when PSS is low this effect is not at all evident as PE levels are equal in those with low or high OSE. This finding then enhances our understanding of when self-efficacy affects PE.

The second meaningful interaction within the citizen group was that of self-esteem and supervisor similarity on employability. This relationship was not in the expected direction, therefore not supporting hypothesis 9. When OBSE is low, citizens with low PSS have lower levels of PE while those with high levels of PSS have higher PE. When OBSE is high, differences in PSS have no effect on PE with PE levels being nearly equal. This indicates that when you feel less valuable at your job, similarities with your supervisor will help improve your overall beliefs about your ability to obtain and maintain employment. On the other

hand, when your self-esteem is high, these similarities have no impact on your PE. According to Social Identity Theory, once a person identifies with a group, social comparisons are made with other groups on the basis of striving to achieve a positive social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 2004). These comparisons serve to increase a person's self-evaluations of oneself and raise their self-esteem. It may then be that when a citizen's OBSE is low, comparing oneself to their supervisor affects PE because they are actively comparing themselves in an attempt to increase their positive social standing and self-evaluation. This need to compare themselves with their supervisor, which is brought about by having low esteem, then serves to increase their PE when similarities do exist. Likewise, when OBSE is high, comparisons with their supervisor are not as meaningful or necessary because they already have a very positive social identity and self-evaluation of themselves, therefore not affecting their PE. This explanation makes sense within the framework of the theory that social comparisons are done on the basis of increasing a person's positive self-esteem. As stated earlier, self-esteem has a well documented positive relationship with PE affecting the likelihood of being employed, career self-management, career proactivity, and career development (Dacre Pool & Sewell, 2007; Potgieter, 2012; Waddell, 2006). This finding adds to that body of research on the relationship between self-esteem and employability such that a moderating effect of supervisor similarity was found.

Lastly, within the DACA group no moderating effect of PSS was apparent. Therefore, neither hypothesis 8 or 9 were supported. In both instances PSS served to increase both the starting and ending levels of PE, meaning that participants with high levels of PSS had higher PE at both low levels of OBE and OBSE and high levels when compared to those with low PSS. There was no interaction effect evident though. This difference between groups may have been caused by confounding variables. Although income levels and number of years worked were very similar in both groups, differences in education or job types between both groups may have contributed to these null results in the DACA group.

As mentioned earlier, immigrants tend to have lower status or more blue-collar type jobs ("Demographics of Immigrants", 2014). Previous research has pointed out the difficulty of applying the same psychological measures across different groups with different demographics, such as income levels (French & Agars, 2016). This typically does not result in the same outcomes across groups as items tend to be written to appeal to white collar workers. For instance, some items in the Perceived Supervisor Similarity Scale I used such as, "My supervisor and I think alike in terms of coming up with a similar solution for a problem" or "My supervisor and I analyze problems in a similar way" may be more applicable to higher level positions. Higher level positions are more likely to provide employees with more freedom to analyze problems and solve them however they seem fit as opposed to lower levels positions which may have less autonomy or

decision making authority. Also, low income workers are more likely to work shift positions and are less career oriented (French & Agars, 2016), which may cause them to not look up to a direct supervisor who has very little authority themselves. Ultimately, while PSS was found to moderate both relationships in the citizen group, it did not moderate either in DACA group.

### Limitations and Future Research

This study provided some much needed information on a population that has very little existing research on them, undocumented immigrants with deferred action. Although I believe it serves as an excellent starting point for future research, there are many improvements that may be made as research on this group of people continues. First, finding no differences in OBE, OBSE, or PSS between the groups may have been a function of group identification. One limitation of this study is assuming that people with DACA identify strongly as undocumented immigrants even though they now have vastly different rights than them (ability to work, cannot be deported, can drive legally). I argued that growing up in those conditions should have had an effect on their self-evaluations of efficacy and esteem at work, although that was not the case. For this reason, future research based on group identification should include a measure of group identification in order to evaluate if the group someone selects, for instance their technical legal status, is also the group they actually identify with. Additionally, if someone has deferred action, it would be beneficial to ask



how long they have possessed it to see if there are any differences in self-evaluations depending on how long they have had it.

Another limitation of the present study was the lack of demographic variables controlled for. Other variables to add would be job type and level of education. Although my research aims to study differences that are argued to be the cause of differences in legal status, it is difficult to say if that is truly the case. Three variables were used as controls: income, years worked, and age, but differences in the moderating effect of PSS may have been caused by differences in level of education and job type between groups. More variables should have been controlled for, or more differences in demographic variables may have been discovered, which would have allowed me to better understand and explain my findings. The difficulty in including this in future research is the likelihood of getting undocumented immigrants to participate in a study that asks for a large amount of identifying information. Although more information would be better, it may result in lower participation from groups who may be less trusting of giving away their personal identifying information. Future research on this population will have to balance the need for more information between the need for more participants.

Another factor that may have affected the differences between the moderating effect of PSS within groups may have been the scale used to measure PSS, as mentioned earlier. Change can be made to ensure better results. For instance, future research should instead instruct the participant to

focus on a supervisor, manager, or mentor in a higher position of power in the organization that they look up to and interact with on a regular basis when completing the scale. It may be the case that comparisons with a direct supervisor will not be as impactful as comparisons with someone in a position of more power. This would especially result in differences in outcomes if one person is working a low-income job with a direct supervisor they do not look up to, while another person is in middle management and is looking up to a director or executive. Changes to the wording of the scale should be considered if dealing with different groups in potentially different job types.

Another limitation of my study was the difference in sample size between both groups. While the citizen group was large, exceeding 500 participants, the DACA group had less than 100 participants. Although the DACA group was approaching 100 participants, this difference made the groups difficult to compare and resulted in low statistical power for the DACA group, although effect sizes can still be compared. This difference in sample size was expected though, and it is simply the nature of the study. The majority of individuals in a study conducted in the United States will be American citizens, while only a small percentage are bound to be undocumented immigrants with deferred action. Future research on this group should focus on more specific recruitment strategies to help obtain a larger sample as well as extending the amount of time spent for data collection, although the more time is spent, the larger the difference in group size becomes.

Lastly, the sample was mostly female Hispanic participants from California, the majority of which were students at California State University San Bernardino. Although this sample may accurately represent DACA recipients in some ways (average age, ethnicity), many may not pursue higher education. With the citizen group, the sample is in no way representative of the broader average American which is more likely to be Caucasian and not currently in college. Future research should build on this study by conducting similar research in other areas of the country with samples that are demographically different than mine to ensure the findings of the present study are replicable. This will allow researchers to understand and explain if and how these groups differ, or are similar, in a variety of work related contexts.

### Theoretical Implications

Several theoretical implications can be made based off the findings of the present study, primarily to the literature on self-perceptions and employability. Previously well established relationships, such as OBE, OBSE, and PSS predicting PE, were replicated. Specifically, these relationships were found to exist similarly across groups with different legal statuses. It is important to test if well established relationships between variables exist similarly within new groups as they enter the workforce and this study helped to accomplish that.

Also, the findings contribute to the literature on supervisor similarity. My research further solidified a significant, positive relationship between PSS and OSE, OBSE and PE in the Citizen group and a significant, positive relationship

between PSS and OBSE and PE in the DACA group. Additionally, a difference between groups was established on how PSS moderates the relationship between OSE and PE, and OBSE and PE. This is due the citizen group's PSS moderating the effect on PE when participants had low self-esteem and high self-efficacy. Although PSS did have a moderating effect on the PE of citizens, it did not on members of the DACA group. This may indicate that group differences exist in how this relationship takes place. One possible explanation could be a difference in the social identities and categorizations of the participants and their supervisors. According to Tajfel and Turner's (1979) Social Categorization Theory, not only is group membership defined by an individual themselves, but also by others as them belonging to the group. Although we measured the participants' perceptions of similarity with their supervisor, we did not measure the supervisor's perception of similarity with their employee. We know that within the LMX framework, perceived similarity leads to higher quality relationships (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2010) and when measured from the supervisor's point of view, to higher performance perceptions and pay decisions (Turban, & Jones, 1988). Although both the DACA and Citizen groups had equal levels of PSS, the perceived similarity of their supervisors may have been different, thereby causing the moderating effect to only be seen in the Citizen in-group. Although it is difficult to attribute this difference to simply legal status, these findings serve as a crucial first step in continuing to explore this effect.

The present study also added to the literature on when supervisor similarity works to increase positive self-perceptions within American citizens. Specifically, it was found that at low levels of self-esteem, similarity will impact employability, while the same is true only at high levels of self-efficacy. Therefore, adding to the literature on social comparisons, my findings suggest that comparisons to increase self-evaluations of employability are not effective when one already has high esteem, making comparisons with a supervisor meaningless in that regard. On the other hand, my findings also suggest that a minimum level of efficacy is necessary before comparisons with a supervisor affect one's self-evaluations of employability.

Lastly, the basis for the present study was deeply rooted in the theories of Social Identity theory and Realistic Group Conflict theory developed by Tajfel and Turner. It is agreed upon that intergroup dynamics function in such a way that people judge themselves and others as belonging to a group, begin to identify with that group, form in-groups and out-groups, compare themselves to others to increase positive self-evaluations, and this in turn leads to negative outcomes for minority out-group members (Shore, Chung-Herrera, Dean, Ehrhart, Jung, Randel, & Singh, 2009). It is thought that belonging to a deferred action group also means a person belongs to other out-groups (ethnic minority, low income, less education, less work experience) which would result in negative self-evaluations. The present study, comparing DACA recipients to American citizens, did not add to this existing literature on intergroup dynamics as no

differences in self-evaluations at work were found. Ultimately, this finding is a significant contribution to the existing literature on Social Identity theory and Realistic Group Conflict theory because it may show evidence that once a person receives deferred action, they may no longer identify as part of a negative outgroup, at least not as strongly, as they once did. Tajfel and Turner (2004) explain that when social identity is unsatisfactory, people with either leave their existing group or join a more positively perceived group. This may be the case with DACA recipients and more research is necessary to identify if this is truly the case.

### Practical Implications

There exists a gap in the research when it comes to studying the newest addition to the American workforce, individuals with deferred action. As Industrial Organizational Psychologists, it is our responsibility to examine this newly emerged workforce in the context of differences in self-perceptions, and eventually how that relates to work related outcomes, and the effect on diversity management practices within organizations, just to name a few.

The main finding of the present study showed that there exists no meaningful differences between citizens and DACA recipients in most self-perceptions of themselves at work, and employees with DACA have higher levels of PE. Likewise, the relationships between the variables were similar in both groups and showed that positive self-perceptions of efficacy, esteem, and supervisor similarity lead to positive perceptions of employability. Organizations

and managers that hire new employees with DACA can then expect to see no noticeable difference in how that employee and a U.S. citizen evaluates themselves in terms of efficacy and esteem. If these are variables that are important to the success or outcomes of a specific job or task, then legal status should not be a factor in considering who would be best for the job or task. Although ethnicity, gender, age, and other demographics may cause differences in self-perceptions, if a manager is attempting to hire employees with high levels of OSE or OBSE then legal status, as long as the person is legally able to work, should not be taken into account.

Another finding that affects how employees are managed is the strong predictive capability of PSS. In the citizen group, PSS was moderately correlated with OSE and OBSE. In the DACA group, PSS was moderately correlated with OBSE. Therefore, if a supervisor is aiming to increase their employee's self-efficacy or self-esteem at work, this reinforces the importance of supervisors identifying and emphasizing similarities with their employees. These deep level similarities can be established through mentorship programs or direct training opportunities.

Lastly, if organizations are hiring employees with deferred action, they should make sure to practice inclusive diversity management practices. For instance, research including mostly Hispanics has shown that efforts to support diversity can lessen the negative effects of perceived racial discrimination on affective commitment (Triana, Garcia, & Colella, 2010). Other research has

shown that equality management systems that include diversity training, and monitoring recruitment, pay, and promotion across minorities helps improve organizational performance through increasing productivity, innovation, and decreasing turnover (Armstrong, Flood, Guthrie, Liu, MacCurtain, & Mkamwa, 2010).

### Conclusion

The present study aimed at discovering if differences in self-perceptions at work existed between U.S. citizens and undocumented immigrants with deferred action. Although equal levels of occupational self-efficacy, organization based self-esteem and perceived supervisor similarity were found, deferred action recipients exhibited higher levels of perceived employability. Other meaningful findings included confirming the positive relationship of these self-perceptions at work across two groups with different legal statuses, as well as discovering the moderating effect that perceived supervisor similarity can have on perceived employability and self-esteem/efficacy. The results of this study add to the limited research on individuals with deferred action in the workplace as well as contributes to the literature regarding self-perceptions at work and employability. As the pros and cons of providing individuals with deferred action are continued to be debated, research on the topic can serve to provide evidence that allows people to make data driven decisions on the outcomes of this topic.



APPENDIX A  
MEASURES

## Demographics

Participants will be asked to indicate which responses most accurately reflect themselves through the following forced choice items.

---

Gender:

Male      Female      Other

Age: \_\_\_\_\_ years

Ethnicity:

Asian  
African American  
White/Caucasian  
Middle Eastern  
American Indian  
Hispanic/Latino  
Other

Number of Years Working: \_\_\_\_\_

Legal Status:

Undocumented immigrant  
Undocumented with deferred action  
Permanent resident  
Naturalized citizen  
Natural born citizen

Income: \_\_\_\_\_

(please enter your estimated annual income in USD by sliding the cursor)

### **Careless Response Checks**

The following items will be interjected within each scale through the survey to check for careless responding.

---

“Please respond with Strongly Agree if you are reading this item.”

“Please respond with Strongly Disagree if you are reading this item.”

“Please respond with Neutral if you are reading this item.”

**Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale**  
(Rigotti, Schyn, & Mohr, 2008)

Responses will be based on the following Likert scale: "Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements about yourself in your workplace."

- 1 – Not at all true
- 2 – Not true
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – True
- 5 – Completely true

- 
1. I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my abilities.
  2. When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can usually find several solutions.
  3. Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it.
  4. My past experiences in my job have prepared me well for my occupational future.
  5. I meet the goals that I set for myself in my job.
  6. I feel prepared for most of the demands in my job.

**Organization Based Self-Esteem**  
(Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham's, 1989)

Responses will be based on the following Likert scale: "Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements about yourself in reference to your job and your workplace."

- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

- 
- 1. I count around here.
  - 2. I am taken seriously.
  - 3. I am important.
  - 4. I am trusted.
  - 5. There is faith in me.
  - 6. I can make a difference.
  - 7. I am valuable.
  - 8. I am helpful.
  - 9. I am efficient.
  - 10. I am cooperative.

**Perceived Supervisor Similarity**  
(Huang & Lun, 2006)

Responses will be based on the following Likert scale: "Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements about yourself and your supervisor."

- 1 – Strongly Disagree
- 2 – Disagree
- 3 – Neutral
- 4 – Agree
- 5 – Strongly Agree

- 
- 1. My supervisor and I see things in much the same way.
  - 2. My supervisor is similar in terms of our outlook, perspective, and values.
  - 3. My supervisor and I are alike in a number of areas.
  - 4. My supervisor and I think alike in terms of coming up with a similar solution for a problem.
  - 5. My supervisor and I analyze problems in a similar way.

**Perceived Employability**  
(Rothwell & Arnold, 2007)

Responses will be based on the following Likert scale: "Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements about you and your work."

- 1 – Strongly Disagree
  - 2 – Disagree
  - 3 – Neutral
  - 4 – Agree
  - 5 – Strongly Agree
- 

1. Even if there was downsizing in this organization I am confident that I would be retained.
2. My personal networks in this organization help me in my career.
3. I am aware of the opportunities arising in this organization even if they are different to what I do now.
4. The skills I have gained in my present job are transferable to other occupations outside this organization.
5. I could easily retrain to make myself more employable elsewhere.
6. I have a good knowledge of opportunities for me outside of this organization even if they are quite different to what I do now.
7. Among the people who do the same job as me, I am well respected in this organization.

8. If I needed to, I could easily get another job like mine in a similar organization.
9. I could easily get a similar job to mine in almost any organization.
10. Anyone with my level of skills and knowledge, and similar job and organizational experience, will be highly sought after by employers.
11. I could get any job, anywhere, so long as my skills and experience were reasonably relevant.



APPENDIX B  
INFORMED CONSENT



College of Social and Behavioral Sciences  
*Department of Psychology*

### **INFORMED CONSENT**

This study is designed to investigate employee self-perceptions at work and other work related variables. This study is conducted by Marcos Guevara, Industrial-Organizational Psychology Graduate Student. This study has been approved by the Department of Psychology Institutional Review Board Sub-Committee of the California State University, San Bernardino, and a copy of the official Psychology IRB stamp of approval should appear on this consent form.

**Purpose:** This research is being conducted to investigate group differences in self-perceptions at work in order to complete a Master's level thesis.

**Description of Research:** You will be asked to report the extent to which you agree or disagree with statements about your self-perceptions at work via an on-line survey service (Qualtrics). Your responses will be recorded electronically, and once you complete the survey you will be provided with a debriefing and explanation of the study.

**Duration:** Responding to the questions on the survey will require between 7-12 minutes.

**Risks:** The nature of the questions are non-invasive. The act of answering these questions via online survey is no more risky than any other computer based activity.

**Benefits:** You will receive no direct benefits from this study. If the survey is being completed on SONA, this study will be worth one unit of SONA credit at the discretion of your instructor. Individual responses will contribute to scientific understanding and potentially to the application of insights gained in this study to work and job settings.

**Participation:** Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You can skip questions or withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences. Your participation is important for advancing research done at California State University, San Bernardino. Your willingness to take part in the study, or your decision to withdraw from the study is entirely your decision and will not affect your relationship or standing with the university in any way.

**Confidentiality:** Information collected for this study will be confidential! You will not be required to provide any identifying information. Your identity will remain anonymous. Any information you choose to provide will be kept confidential. Any published report relating to this project will contain group level information only (means, group information, group level statistics). No individual information will be published under any circumstances. All information collected will be kept secure using encryption protocols used by the survey service. Datasets and all records of this study will only be accessed by the primary investigator. All stored information about this study will be kept on a password protected

The California State University  
Bakersfield • Channel Islands • Chico • Dominguez Hills • East Bay • Fresno • Fullerton • Humboldt • Long Beach • Los Angeles • Maritime Academy  
Monterey Bay • Northridge • Pomona • Sacramento • San Bernardino • San Diego • San Francisco • San Jose • San Luis Obispo • San Marcos • Sonoma • Stanislaus

computer used only by the primary investigator, or in a file drawer that locks inside of an office where only the primary investigator has access. Records will be kept for five years as mandated by the American Psychological Association.

**Data Storage:** Original responses will be stored on a password protected and encrypted server hosted by qualtrics.com. Dataset files downloaded will be stored on a password protected computer located in an office that locks. The dataset file will only be accessed by the primary investigator. Data from this project will be used for a research paper that will be submitted for peer review and potential publication in a research journal. Any and all identifying information will be removed from any report or publication. Information from this study will only be presented at the aggregate (group level) with all identifying information removed. Data will be kept for a period of 10 years.

**Results:** After completion of the study the full thesis with the findings will be available through the CSUSB library. Requests for the report of findings can be made with Marcos Guevara.

**CONTACT:** In case of questions or if there are concerns, problems, or other issues, the primary researcher Marcos Guevara can be contacted at 002617705@coyote.csusb.edu. Dr. Ismael Diaz may also be contacted at ismael.diaz@csusb.edu or 909.537.5598. The Department of Psychology Institutional Review Board Sub-Committee of the California State University, San Bernardino can also be contacted at psyc.irb@csusb.edu.

**CONFIRMATION STATEMENT:**

I have read the information above and agree to participate in your study.

By selecting the option to continue, I affirm that I understand the above information and that I am taking part in this study voluntarily with the option to end my participation at any time with no penalty or negative consequence for voluntarily ending my participation. I also acknowledge that I am at least 18 years of age and have been employed for at least 6 months either currently or in the past.

Accept\_\_\_\_\_

Do Not Accept\_\_\_\_\_

CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY PSYCHOLOGY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SUB-COMMITTEE			
<b>APPROVED</b>	<b>5/15/17</b>	<b>VOID AFTER</b>	<b>5/15/18</b>
<b>IBB #</b> 1H7SP-09		<b>CO-CHAIR</b>	

APPENDIX C  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

**Human Subjects Review Board  
Department of Psychology  
California State University,  
San Bernardino**

PI: Diaz & Guevara  
From: Michael R. Lewin  
Project Title: Differences in Self-Perceptions at Work Between Citizens and Undocumented Immigrants  
Project ID: H-17SP-09  
Date: 5/15/17

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**Disposition: Administrative Review**

Your IRB proposal H-17SP-09 is approved for up to 595 participants. If you need additional participants or an extension an additional addendum will be required. This approval is valid until 5/15/18.

Good luck with your research!



Michael R. Lewin, Co-Chair  
Psychology IRB Sub-Committee

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