The Role of Socioeconomic Status on Students' Employment Expectations in South Africa

Masters in Organisational Psychology
Faculty of Commerce
University of Cape Town

Michaela Weaver (WVRMIC004)
Supervisor: Professor Jeffrey Bagraim
Co-Supervisor: Zaakiyah Sait

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Abstract

The influence of students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) on their employment expectations is a largely understudied topic in the context of South Africa. There has additionally been little focus on the extent to which students' SESs affect their willingness to settle for lower earnings and their anticipation of socioeconomic discrimination in the workplace. With South Africa's unique SES makeup, as spurred on by the remnants of apartheid, it is important to investigate the effect that students' SESs may have upon their 1) earnings expectations 2) employment expectations 3) anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination and 4) willingness to settle for lower earnings. Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Learning Theory (SCLT) was used to investigate how students' employment expectations differ based on their environments and core self-evaluations. This theory was therefore used to ground and inform this research. In a quantitative, cross-sectional study with a South Africa student sample (N = 346), this study obtained the following results: 1) SES does not significantly predict students' earning expectations and employment expectations over and above the control variables 2) SES significantly predicts students' anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination and willingness to settle for lower earnings 3) core self-evaluation significantly moderates the relationships between socioeconomic status and students' earning expectations as well as between socioeconomic status and willingness to settle for lower earnings 4) core self-evaluation does not significantly moderate the relationships between socioeconomic status and students' employment expectations as well as between socioeconomic status and anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination. This study has important implications for organizational policy concerning the advocation and implementation of work free from discrimination in South Africa. Through this research, organizations may be provided with insight into how individuals' work expectations may differ based on their SESs, potentially leading to the creation of more inclusive policies and practices. Limitations and future recommendations are outlined.

Keywords: earning expectations, employment expectations, socioeconomic status, students, South Africa

The Role of Socioeconomic Status on Students' Employment Expectations in South Africa

Low socioeconomic status (SES) students may anticipate discrimination as they enter the labor force and they may be adjusting their employment expectations and behaviors accordingly (Delaney et al., 2011; Eliophotou & Pashourtidoub, 2017). Eliophotou and Pashourtidoub (2017) illustrated that students' earnings and employment expectations differ based on their SESs. These researchers recommended that it be assessed whether low SES students possess more pessimistic career expectations and whether this is influenced by their anticipated socioeconomic discrimination in the workplace and their willingness to settle for lower-paid jobs (Eliophotou & Pashourtidoub, 2017). Delaney et al. (2011) concur that students' anticipated socioeconomic discrimination is a topic that should be further investigated. If low SES students expect lower earnings, this could lead to educational choices which are based upon expected discrimination, bringing to pass the self-fulfilling prophecy of lower realized earnings (Delaney et al., 2011). Lower earnings among low SES groups may therefore be reinforced intergenerationally. Understanding students' anticipated socioeconomic discrimination and willingness to settle for lower earnings is therefore important, necessary and understudied.

It is important to note that higher education systems have been found to contribute to social inequalities as they tend to reward attitudes, behaviours and knowledge which are most often held by high SES groups (Eliophotou & Pashourtidoub, 2017). These policies and systems were found to perpetuate social inequality as high SES students tend to have increased access to resources which leads to increased probabilities of university attendance and higher grades and improved outcomes and achievements (Eliophotou & Pashourtidoub, 2017). Therefore, it makes sense that SES has been linked to both educational and occupational expectations (Mello, 2009). It is important to study these expectations as SES constraints are often perpetuated by a system within which low-wage employees are exploited. Low SES workers are often vulnerably caught in situations that limit their abilities and access to rights as they depend upon their low wages (Daraei & Mohajery, 2013).

South Africa's SES makeup is highly stratified, with a large divide between high and low SES individuals (Bayat et al., 2014). Apartheid policies which were housed by South Africa for many years have left remnants that retard and place a brake upon the alleviation of poverty (Altman, 2006). Apartheid created a racially stratified labor system through discriminatory education policies and practices, leading to wage, occupation and skill groups being occupied by

specific racial groups (Altman, 2006). Low SES is therefore linked to exploitation, discrimination, and the perpetuation of stratified intergenerational SES cycles.

Concerning discriminatory and exploitative labour systems, Carr et al. (2016) argued that work should assist individuals to define human dignity, social well-being and perceptions of justice (Carr et al., 2016). This is important for employers to remember, especially within highly stratified social contexts marked by the exploitation of SES workers (Daraei & Mohajery, 2013; Lüthje & McNally, 2015). Therefore, individuals' employment expectations should be assessed before they enter the labor market to advocate for work free from SES discrimination and exploitation. It is therefore important to study students' employment expectations and perceptions in relation to their SESs as they are emerging adults and future employees (Gomes & Neves, 2011). Perceptions of discrimination are related to attitudes about education, academic performance, employment expectations, as well as knowledge and skills (Benner & Kim, 2009; Brown & Chu, 2012; Stevens et al., 2018), making students an intriguing population to study.

While previous authors have demonstrated strong correlations between SES and various employment expectations (Mello, 2009), it was important to investigate the moderating role of personal disposition as well. This was important as there is a relationship between SES, expectations and personal disposition. Investigating the potential moderating role of personality in the relationship between SES and employment expectations may lead to rich information which could assist in informing policy. Chapman et al. (2010) found a relationship between SES and personality, but the role of core self-evaluation is understudied within this realm. Core self-evaluation is a higher-order personality construct encompassing the four constructs self-esteem, self-efficacy, neuroticism and locus of control (Duffy et al., 2012). It is related to both objective and subjective career success which are inclusive of higher job satisfaction, income and promotion (Stumpp et al., 2010). It is therefore important to note the potential ability of core self-evaluation to moderate the relationship between SES and employment expectations.

Based on the above problem and findings, this study will investigate students' willingness to settle for lower earnings and their anticipated socioeconomic discrimination due to their SES, as a gap found in the literature. Students' earnings expectations and employment expectations in relation to their SES are additionally understudied in the context of South Africa and thus necessary. This study has important implications and benefits, including shedding light on and potentially advocating for a decrease in the exploitation of low SES workers, breaking

intergenerational low SES poverty cycles and increasing work free from perceived and actual discrimination in South Africa. This research furthermore aimed to create awareness for organizations to improve their employment policies and practices around workplace discrimination. This may enhance employer reputations by signaling ethicality and social responsibility to potential employees. This study aimed to answer the question "Does socioeconomic status predict the employment expectations of South African students?”

Literature Review

Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Learning Theory (SCLT) was utilized to ground this study while thinking through how the theorized relationships were likely to occur. Literature on the topic of socioeconomic status, earnings expectations and employment expectations were investigated and individuals' willingness to settle for lower earnings and their anticipations of socioeconomic discrimination in the workplace was explored. Furthermore, the role of core self-evaluations in these relationships were discussed.

Literature Search Process

A vast amount of literature exists on student expectations and the impact that individuals' SESs may have on their cognitions, expectations and behaviours. However, there are relatively few articles that investigate the relationships between SES and earnings and employment expectations. During the literature search, it was discovered that the few articles that do investigate this relationship were not conducted within the South African context and largely suggest the need to dive deeper into the investigation by asking how anticipated socioeconomic discrimination and willingness to settle plays a role in this topic. This study's literature search therefore investigated the above relationships, including the role that core self-evaluation may play in it. Electronic databases consulted included: EBSCOhost, JSTOR, Sage and Google Scholar. Search terms included: "socioeconomic status" "students" "earnings expectations" "salary expectations" "employment expectations" "career expectations" "expected lifetime earnings" "willingness to settle for employment" "settling for employment" "anticipated discrimination" "expected discrimination" "core self-evaluation" "personality" "South African students' socioeconomic status" and "South African socioeconomic discrimination". The search revealed a vast amount of literature on students' socioeconomic statuses and their expectations. However, not a lot of literature came up on students' SESs and the impact that it may have upon their earnings expectations, employment expectations, willingness to settle for lower earnings and their anticipated socioeconomic discrimination in the workplace. Furthermore, core self-evaluation was found to be largely understudied in the context of the topic and within South Africa.

Social Cognitive Theory (SCLT)

Bandura's (1977) SCLT provides a framework for understanding, predicting and changing behaviour while focusing on human cognition (Nabavi, 2012). It assesses how individuals' cognitions and social experiences influence their behaviour and development (Nabavi, 2012).

Bandura (1977) argued that individuals learn behaviours and cognitive strategies by observing the behaviour of others and that in this case, learning does not have to be reinforced (Nabavi, 2012). According to Nabavi (2012), the cognitive features of SCLT may be summarised as follows: 1) individuals may have expectations based upon their current situation 2) individuals may have expectations based upon vicarious experiences of others' consequences 3) individuals' expectations affect how they cognitively process new information 4) individuals' expectations may impact their behavioural decisions 5) the nonoccurrence of expectations have effects. The theory is based upon the principle of reciprocal interaction between an individual's personal, behavioural and environmental factors (see Figure 1 below) (Nabavi, 2012). SCLT additionally posits that self-efficacy causally influences expected outcomes, but that this is not a reciprocal relationship and that self-efficacy affects behaviours and cognition in terms of activity choice, goal setting, effort, persistence, learning and achievement (Nabavi, 2012). Individuals with low self-efficacy, according to this theory, are therefore more likely to focus on personal failings and negative outcomes (Nabavi, 2012).

Using SCLT, it was theorized that an individual's SES, employment expectations and core self-evaluations are interactive processes. This theory allowed the researcher of the current study to anticipate that students' environmental factors (socioeconomic discrimination), personal/cognitive factors (earning-, employment- and discrimination- expectations and core self-evaluations) and behavioural factors (willingness to settle for lower earnings) interact. This theory, along with previous research informed the research question and hypotheses of the current study.

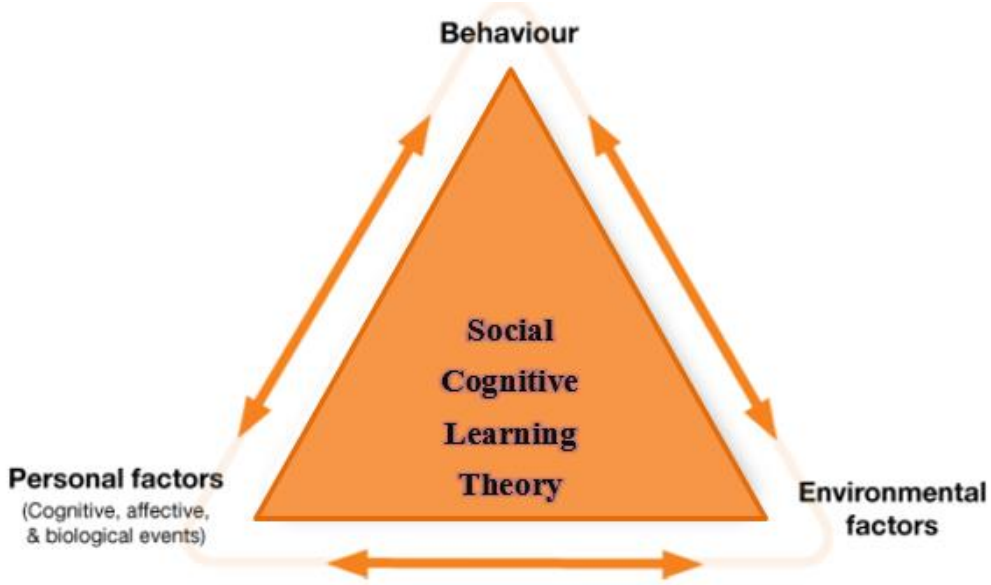

Figure 1. Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Learning Theory

Socioeconomic Status

Socioeconomic status and expectations were the main concepts in this study. Socioeconomic status refers to the position that an individual holds in a society based upon their social and economic factors (Hiscock et al., 2012). While socioeconomic status refers to an individual's current social and economic circumstances (Rubin et al., 2014), expectations can be defined as an individual's assessment of likely outcomes and they are probability-driven (Leung et al., 2009). Mello (2009) argued that students' SESs are strongly associated with their educational and occupational expectations, even after controlling for academic achievement-related variables. Low SES individuals, even at an age as early as five years old, show disparities in their expectations, including career expectations (Mello, 2009). Based on Bandura's (1977) SCLT, an individual's expectations is likely to differ based on their SES. It is therefore important to examine the link between SES (environmental factor) and employment expectations (personal/cognitive factor).

Access is also an important issue to assess when dealing with individuals from different SES cohorts. Low SES students are seen to have an increased probability of underachievement due to poor teacher quality and other resources, often leading to deviant behaviours, fewer opportunities, as well as a lower probability of attaining a living wage due to these additional SES barriers (Branson et al., 2014; Goodman et al., 2012). Countries with highly stratified social

systems, such as South Africa (Bayat, Louw & Rena, 2014), tend to demonstrate the exploitation of low SES workers due to their vulnerability and dependence upon their low wages (Daraei & Mohajery, 2013; Lüthje & McNally, 2015). Drawing on this literature, it is therefore proposed that, for a South African, perceptions of and access to a discrimination-free workplace, as well as their vulnerability to contest their employer for not having access thereto, may differ based on their SES.

SES in South Africa is therefore characterized by high levels of social stratification and inequalities, and some of these inequalities stem from one's early life stages. Spaull (2013) asserted that schools which cater to predominantly Black learners are still largely dysfunctional and unable to provide quality education to their learners. This influences academic attainment due to a lack of resources and leaves the post-apartheid government with the task of attaining adequate and quality service delivery to these schools (Spaull, 2013). Although apartheid has led to these inequalities in education and the post-apartheid government has been tasked with fair and improved service delivery, socioeconomic inequality in South Africa is still an issue. This is evident given the finding that the within-race income inequality gap has increased in the post-apartheid era (Leibbrandt et al., 2012) while the between-racial income gap, on average, has not decreased (Altman, 2006). The gaps between various SES cohorts are therefore reinforced at young ages and continue to increase. It is therefore important to note the detriments of income inequality, as well as the behavioural responses of low SES cohorts in response thereto. Income inequality leads to the suppression of skills and development among low SES individuals in relation to educational outcomes (Cingano, 2014).

Here, it is important to discuss the term 'cultural capital' which originates from educational literature and refers to the advantage that high SES individuals possess, as their attitudes, behaviours and features are congruent with those of educational institutions while low SES students have to adapt their attitudes, behaviours and features (Tondeur et al., 2011). Differences in cultural capital could therefore impact different SES cohorts' perceptions of future performance, both in educational institutions, as well as the labour market. Moderating factors, such as core self-evaluation, therefore, need to be considered. In addition to this, Wells and Lynch (2012) state that parental occupation is largely under-discussed in relation to the cultural capital that influences an individual's habitus.

Concerning the measurement of SES, the literature indicates that parental occupation influences students' occupational choice, furthermore, impacting their earning potential (Reuben et al., 2017). Parental occupation has additionally been illustrated as a strong indicator of students' SES in previous literature conducted within the realm of the social sciences (Bateman, 2014; Kamakura & Mazzon, 2013; Yuma-Guerrero et al., 2018). In addition to this, Stewart (2004) argued that occupation, as an indicator of SES, has several advantages over education and income measures as it signals both the level of education attained and associated monetary rewards. Occupation is therefore deemed a good indicator of SES.

Earning Expectations and Anticipated SES Discrimination

Earning Expectations

This study investigated students earning expectations by specifically assessing expected lifetime earnings (Eliophotou & Pashourtidoub, 2017). While earnings expectations refers to students' expectations of their future income (Veroszta, 2014), expected lifetime earnings is the measure utilized in this study and refers to an individual's total expected accumulated earnings from entry into the labour market to exit therefrom (Tamborini et al., 2015). Based on students' expected lifetime earnings, a literature search revealed that students' SESs are linked to their earnings expectations whereby students with lower SESs tend to have lower earnings expectations (Delaney et al., 2011; Eliophotou & Pashourtidoub, 2017; Veroszta, 2014). It is important to note that other factors such as gender, career choice and area of family residence (Menon et al., 2012) also play a role in students' earnings expectations. Wan et al. (2014) argued that students' perceived social status, which forms a part of their socioeconomic status, impacts their career expectations. Family background (Gradin et al., 2020) has furthermore been found to impact earnings expectations, strengthening the need to conduct research on whether students are anticipating this salary difference as they are about to enter the labour market. In line with Bandura's (1977) SCLT, differences in students' SESs (environmental factor) may mean differences in their earnings expectations (personal/cognitive factor) as well.

Jones et al. (2019) emphasized that most studies investigating students' earnings expectations were based in high-income countries. In addition, there is a lack of research done on this topic within the South African context. Jones et al. (2019) conducted their research in Mozambique, a low-income country, and found that students' realized wages upon graduation tend to be half of what they initially expected to earn. Students are therefore often misinformed about

population earnings (Wiswall & Zafar, 2015). In an experiment, Wiswall and Zafar (2015) found that once presented with accurate information about population earnings, students revised their earnings beliefs more sensibly and often changed their study major choices. However, Mello (2009) found that educational and occupational expectations were generally stable for individuals between the ages of fourteen and twenty-six years. Graduates, therefore, have more stable perceptions and are near a search for employment. In addition, graduates tend to accurately predict both their commencing-, medium- and long-term earnings (Van Der Merwe, 2011). This finding by Van Der Merwe (2011) was conducted in South Africa and it has the same context as the current study. Therefore, the difference between expected earnings and realized earnings is necessary to keep in mind when reading literature on students' earnings expectations and it is noteworthy that they are not always similar.

Anticipated SES Discrimination

Despite findings that low SES students expect lower earnings than their high SES counterparts, the reason for this effect is largely understudied. While researchers have theorized that low SES students could be expecting lower earnings due to their anticipation of socioeconomic discrimination, therefore they may be expecting the denial of equal opportunity once in the labour market and workforce due to their SES (DeFreitas, 2012; Delaney et al., 2011; Eliophotou & Pashourtidoub, 2017; Verozsta, 2014), this is empirically understudied. This expectation of discrimination based on SES upon entry into the workforce is the definition of anticipated SES discrimination utilized in the current study. It is, however, important to note that Delaney et al. (2011) measured and controlled for various factors, such as personality, gender, risk and school leaving certificate performance and have thus ruled out a few traditional explanations about the earnings expectation differential between SES cohorts. Delaney et al. (2011) therefore argued that students' anticipated socioeconomic discrimination upon earnings has not yet been ruled out as a possible force acting upon students' earnings expectations. Also, Bandura's (1977) SCLT supports the proposition that students' expectations, including their anticipated socioeconomic discrimination in the workplace, may differ based on their SESs.

Peterman (2018) proposes various examples of social behaviour which has led to students' anticipated socioeconomic discrimination. For example, educational systems often display SES discrimination in the form of lowered teacher expectations, increased social distancing and dismissive treatment. Lower-income students were found to be suspended at higher rates than their

higher SES counterparts for comparable rule violations and also receive harsher treatment. Peterman (2018) noted that even when low SES students perform better than their high SES counterparts at a high school level, they are still more likely to drop out in college due to reasons inclusive of a lack of additional private lessons and the inability to afford to participate in unpaid internships. This may already set the tone for students' expectations in the future due to learning processes. Peterman (2018) furthermore noted that SES discrimination is apparent in secondary education institutions, tertiary education institutions and workplaces. Concerning the workplace, employers perform subtle SES discrimination which is often indirectly linked to race. For example, employers may not be discriminating against an individual based on their SES, but rather what is associated with it in terms of outer appearances, such as hairstyle, way of speaking or even dress code (Peterman, 2018). It is therefore important to note the role that anticipated workplace discrimination plays. However, the role of this phenomenon in relation to an individual's SES is under-researched and, as seen above, largely left within studies' future recommendation sections.

However, anticipated workplace discrimination based on group belonging is not a new phenomenon. For example, the anticipated discrimination in the workplace that lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgendered (LGBT) job seekers face. Ng et al. (2012) found that LGBT individuals expect lower earnings due to their anticipated gender discrimination within the workplace. It therefore makes sense to investigate whether low SES students are expecting lower earnings due to their own anticipation of discrimination in the workplace. It is additionally important to note that LGBT individuals, on average, were found to earn less than their heterosexual counterparts (Ng, Schweitzer & Lyons, 2012). Therefore, while other factors may be at play, individuals' perceptions of discrimination upon their earnings have a positive relationship with their actual realized earnings, leading to continuous cycles of discrimination. Furthermore, low SES individuals were also found to be less likely to expect a professional occupation in comparison to their high SES counterparts and these expectations are deemed to begin in childhood (Mello, 2009).

Employment Expectations and Willingness to Settle

Employment Expectations

This research additionally seeks to assess the relationship between South African students' SESs and employment expectations. In this study, students' employment expectations pertain to the length of time that they anticipate being unemployed upon graduation (Eliophotou &

Pashourtidoub, 2017). It should be noted that South Africa has a large surplus of unskilled workers and that only once the labour market tightens, will wages begin to rise, leading to increased capital and skill-intensive industries (Altman, 2006). Therefore, although South Africa's graduate labour force is on the increase, graduate unemployment is on the increase along with it (Oluwajodu et al., 2015). Oluwajodu et al. (2015) argued that high levels of graduate unemployment may be attributed to differences in expectations from employers and graduates. It is, however, important to note that van der Berg and Van Broekhuizen (2012) stated that graduate unemployment in South Africa is not on the rise and that previous studies on the topic had measurement issues surrounding inadequate definitions and inadequate, outdated and incomplete data. There is therefore disagreement among researchers concerning the rise of graduate unemployment in South Africa.

However, Oluwajodu et al. (2015) argued that predicted high levels of graduate unemployment translate into a waste of scarce human capital (Oluwajodu et al., 2015). Although many factors may contribute to this possible increase of graduate unemployment, Oluwajodu et al. (2015) demonstrated that some possible contributing factors are: employers' bias toward graduates from particular universities which are perceived to adhere to higher educational standards; graduates are academically inclined and employers view them as lacking the applicable skills necessary within the workplace; and graduates are entry-level workers and therefore have to undergo a more strenuous job search and application process. Hence, various factors contribute to graduate unemployment levels. Furthermore, students tend to underestimate the effects of a postgraduate degree upon employment probability while overestimating the effect of area of familial residence and parental private sector employment (Menon et al., 2012).

Graduate unemployment in South Africa is an important topic to address, specifically in relation to low SES individuals. It is crucial to note that at the tertiary education level, unemployment is more rapidly increasing than primary- and secondary- education level unemployment (Baldry, 2013). Baldry (2013) noted that many graduates in South Africa remain unemployed for a year after obtaining their qualification and that females, graduates from historically Black universities, as well as African and Coloured graduates, have an increased probability of unemployment.

Various factors could affect an individual's employment expectations. This was illustrated by Jackson and Wilton (2017) who found that females perceive themselves to be 50% more unlikely to receive employment opportunities upon graduation than their male counterparts due to

awareness of the gender pay gap. Age appears to similarly affect employment expectations as older individuals are less optimistic about their chances of finding employment (Jackson & Wilton, 2017). Ethnicity, degree obtained and familial background were also found to affect unemployment duration (Lim, 2011). Lim (2011) additionally illustrated that, in Malaysia, an increase of one economically active member within a household has been found to increase graduates' probability of exiting their unemployment spell sooner by 57,26%. However, increasing family size appeared to reduce this effect (Lim, 2011). Furthermore, Baker et al.'s (2014) illustration that students' aspirations are impacted by their income group and other background factors further illustrates how students' employment expectations may differ based on their SESs. Therefore, it is seen that SES and family background play a clear role in graduates' unemployment spells. Furthermore, Shore (2013) found that the longer a candidate was unemployed, the less attractive they were perceived by recruiters. This finding highlighted the discrimination that low SES employees may face upon entry into the workforce.

Mncayi (2016) investigated employment discrimination patterns and students' employment expectations within the South Africa context. Mncayi (2016) noted that different unemployment patterns are observed amongst South African racial categories with job searching activities, as it may be a more effective practice for Indians and Whites than for Black and Coloured job seekers. Black job seekers were more likely to become discouraged and economically inactive (Mncayi, 2016). In addition, there are various disadvantaging circumstantial factors that impact certain individuals' ability to find employment (Mncayi, 2016). These factors are the seclusion and distance of residence from employment opportunities; financial challenges; and the lack of access to job searching resources (Mncayi, 2016). Knabe (2010) argued that individuals who are more pessimistic about the probability of gaining employment tend to remain unemployed for longer periods of time than their counterparts. Therefore, if low SES graduates perceive that they will face discrimination upon entry into the labour market, this pessimism may lengthen their duration of unemployment. Low SES individuals may therefore face a lengthier period of unemployment due to anticipated socioeconomic discrimination.

Furthermore, Knabe (2010) found that individuals make meaningful predictions about the duration of their unemployment spell and future labour prospects. It was therefore important to investigate why Eliophotou and Pashourtidoub (2017) found a non-significant result between socioeconomic status and employment expectations in Cyprus. These researchers theorized that

this result could have been due to low SES students anticipating this discrimination and rationally adjusting themselves by increasing their willingness to accept lower earnings to attain employment sooner (Eliophotou and Pashourtidoub, 2017). In line with Bandura's (1977) SCLT, students' employment expectations (personal/cognition factors) may differ based on their SESs (environmental factors).

Willingness to Settle for Lower Earnings

Low-income employees often feel trapped within their low-income jobs as they are afraid to request increases for fear of losing their jobs (Daraei & Mohajery, 2013). As a result, individuals often accept low income employment due to their dependency upon it (Daraei & Mohajery, 2013). Low SES graduates may therefore accept earnings lower than they can receive due to urgency, dependency thereupon and fear of unemployment. 'Underemployment' refers to either a temporary transitional period, a bridge to better opportunities or a break before a career choice is made (Scurry & Blenkinsopp, 2011). Scurry and Blenkinsopp (2011) further defined underemployment as encompassing individuals who undertake work that requires fewer formal education/skills than they possess, is done involuntarily in a different field to which they have received formal qualifications in and are involuntarily in intermittent or part-time work (Scurry & Blenkinsopp, 2011). This definition of underemployment is important to consider when looking at students' willingness to settle for lower earnings as it illustrates that graduates may choose employment based on the unavailability of employment options that allow them to fully utilize their qualifications.

In addition, Bandura's (1977) SCLT illustrates that students' SES (environmental factor) may impact their willingness to settle for lower earnings (behavioural factor). This is supported as Baker et al. (2014) illustrate that income group and background factors impact students' aspirations. Students' personal and familial backgrounds are additionally illustrated to impact their willingness to move abroad for employment (Hercog & Vand de Laar, 2017). Employment searching strategies therefore differ based upon familial background, leading some individuals to actively search for better opportunities while others search for opportunities closer to home. This illustrates how familial background factors may link to actively searching for better opportunities. Lower SES students may therefore have lower earning and career aspirations, leading them to settle for lower earnings. Furthermore, in studying the relationships between students' SES and their earnings expectations, anticipated socioeconomic discrimination, employment expectations

and willingness to settle for lower earnings, it was important to account for potential moderators, such as personal disposition.

Core Self-Evaluation

According to Di Fabio et al. (2012), core self-evaluation refers to an individual's positive self-concept and self-evaluation of their value, effectiveness and skills. Core self-evaluation encompasses four surface traits, namely: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism and locus of control (Judge et al, 2003). Core self-evaluation refers to an individual's fundamental appraisal of their worthiness, effectiveness and capabilities (Judge et al., 2003). Locus of control (Acharya, 2011; Ahlin & Antunes, 2015), neuroticism (Duffy et al., 2015; Hagger-Johnson et al., 2012; Jokela & Keltikangas-Järvinen, 2011), general self-efficacy (Han, 2015; Weiser & Riggio, 2010) and self-esteem (Veselska et al., 2009) all correlate with SES and various personality dispositions. For example, Chapman et al. (2010) noted a relationship between SES and the Big 5 personality traits. However, much research has been conducted on the Big 5 personality traits in the organizational realm (Stumpp et al., 2010) and the role of core self-evaluation, a higher-order personal dispositional construct has not been well-examined. Additionally, as illustrated above, SES is strongly related to employment expectations (Mello, 2009). Therefore, it is seen that personality influences expectations and it is important to investigate the role of personal disposition as it could add detail to the nature of the relationship between SES and employment expectations.

The four surface traits that core self-evaluation comprises relates to students' ability to navigate their situational factors such as their SESs and to become successful regardless of familial background. This is firstly seen as Ng-Knight and Schoon (2017) illustrate that locus of control, albeit to a certain extent, may compensate for background disadvantage when assessing student achievement. Furthermore, self-concept has been found to influence the relationship between students' SES and their achievements (Li et al., 2020). This illustrates how perceptions of the self may affect the influence that a situational factor such as SES is able to have upon an individual's career achievement and career outcomes. Self-efficacy, specifically, has been illustrated to impact the relationship between students' SES and performance (Wiederkehr et al., 2015). Rymer (2017) strengthens the rationale for this investigation by stating that it is necessary to study the moderating effect of core self-evaluation on the relationship between students' SES and their anticipated career outcomes as low SES students with higher levels of self-efficacy had increased expectations of

success during college. Differences in levels of core self-evaluation may therefore possess the ability to affect the relationship between students' SESs and their anticipated success and career outcomes.

The relationship between SES and personality has therefore been researched before with core self-evaluation being understudied. The role between core self-evaluation and career success has been established in prior research as well (Stumpp et al., 2010). Core self-evaluations have additionally been illustrated to have a relationship with various student expectations (Jiang, 2015) and salary attainment (Cheung et al., 2016). However, the specific relationship between core self-evaluations and 1) earnings expectations 2) employment expectations 3) anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination and 4) willingness to settle for lower earnings, has not yet been investigated, as was the aims of the current research. In line with Bandura's (1977) SCLT, individuals' expectations may differ based on their core self-evaluations. The hypotheses of this study were therefore based upon SCLT and the literature review conducted above. The following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1: Students' socioeconomic statuses significantly predict their earnings expectations

Hypothesis 2: Core self-evaluation moderates the relationship between students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) and their earnings expectations

Hypothesis 3: Students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) significantly predict their employment expectations

Hypothesis 4: Core self-evaluation moderates the relationship between students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) and their employment expectations

Hypothesis 5: Students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) significantly predict their anticipated socioeconomic discrimination in the workplace

Hypothesis 6: Core self-evaluation moderates the relationship between students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) and their anticipated socioeconomic discrimination in the workplace

Hypothesis 7: Students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) significantly predict their willingness to settle for lower earnings

Hypothesis 8: Core self-evaluation moderates the relationship between students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) and their willingness to settle for lower earnings

Method

Research Design

A quantitative research design was utilized for this study to ensure generalizability (Almalki, 2016). Mackey and Porte (2012) called for the replication and the re-analysis of previous findings within the realm of the social sciences. It was therefore important to explore whether previous studies linking SES to earnings and employment expectations would be duplicated in the South African context. This was furthermore the reasoning for the cross-sectional design of this study as previous researchers have utilized this design as well (Eliophotou & Pashourtido, 2017). Carlson and Morrison (2009) additionally argued that a cross-sectional design is useful when time and resource constraints are present as it demands fewer resources and time commitment, which was complementary to the context of the current study.

A non-experimental, correlational study design was utilized to test the hypotheses of this study. The benefits and substantiation of a correlational design include the ability to determine relationships among variables and to build on current data and knowledge (Curtis et al., 2016). This design seemed most relevant to this study as most of the relationships hypothesized have not yet been tested and these relationships have specifically not been explored within the South African context. This study therefore aimed to assess whether a relationship existed between these constructs first and foremost. Furthermore, the disadvantages of experimental research include its time-consuming and expensive nature (Berinsky et al., 2012) which would have been detrimental to the study under the circumstances which the research took place.

Research Participants

The target population of interest was South African students while the accessible population was South African students from a South African university as the researcher of the current study had easy access to them. The participation criterion was an individual's academic registration as a student at the specified South African university and no exclusion criteria applied beyond this. This sample of students was chosen as this research aimed to ascertain information about the future labour market and their expectations and anticipations of the workplace.

The university had over 28 000 students at the time that this research was conducted. The questionnaire was distributed by the university's Department of Student Affairs (DSA). The researcher of the current study had no control over the distribution of the questionnaire to students, making it difficult to determine the response rate. Out of the whole university population, it was

estimated that there was a 1,59% response rate to this study's questionnaire. However, after data cleaning, only 346 of the 457 initial responses were retained, leading to an approximated 1,21% response rate. It is extremely unlikely that most people received the questionnaire, and it was estimated that only a fraction of the university population received the email invitation. It was deemed impossible to determine what that fraction was.

Participants who completed more than the demographics section of the questionnaire and those who met the inclusion criteria were retained. The final 346 participants showed differing demographic characteristics (see Table 1). The sample comprised 234 females and there was, therefore, an over-representation of female participants in the sample (n = 234, 67,6%). There was an overrepresentation of the 18-25 age group (*n* = 270, 78%), as expected among a student sample. The final 346 participants represented various faculties. However, the faculties of Humanities (*n* = 97, 28%) and Commerce (*n* = 93, 26,9%) formed the largest part of the sample. Participants were in varying years of their tertiary studies and there was an overrepresentation of First-Year Participants (*n* = 102, 29,5%). Furthermore, there was an overrepresentation of African/Black (*n* = 138, 39.6%) and White/Caucasian (*n* = 119, 34.4%) students. Participants also varied in terms of their permanent residence with an overrepresentation of urban (*n* = 304, 87,9%) students. Students who possessed approximately one year (*n* = 182, 52,5%) and approximately two years (*n* = 85, 24,6%) of working experience formed the larger part of the study's sample.

Table 1

Sample Demographics

Variable	*N*	Valid Percentage (%)
Gender		
Females	234	67.6
Males	106	30.6
Non-Conforming	5	1.4
Transgender	1	.3
Age		
18 – 25	270	78
26 – 35	56	16.2
36 – 45	10	2.9

Below 18	6	1.7
Above 45	4	1.2
Faculty		
Humanities	97	28.0
Commerce	93	26.9
Health Sciences	60	17.3
Science	42	12.1
Engineering and the Built Environment	38	11.0
Law	16	4.6
Current Year of Study		
First Year	102	29.5
Masters	58	16.8
Second Year	52	15.0
Honours	39	11.3
Third Year	33	9.5
Fourth Year	32	9.2
Doctoral Studies	14	4.0
Post-Doctoral Studies	10	2.9
Fifth Year	6	1.7
Highest Level of Education		
Matric	201	58.1
Bachelors Degree	58	16.8
Honours	52	15.0
Masters	23	6.6
PhD	9	2.6
Higher Certificate	1	.3
Diploma	1	.3
PG Diploma	1	.3
Race		
White/Caucasian	119	34.4
African/Black	138	39.6

Indian	20	5.8
Coloured	61	17.6
Asian	4	1.2
Mixed Race	5	1.4
Nature of Permanent Residence		
Urban	304	87.9
Rural	42	12.1
Amount of Work Experience		
Approximately 1 year of Experience	182	52.6
Approximately 2 years of Experience	58	24.6
More than 5 Years of Experience	35	10.1
Approximately 3 years of Experience	21	6.1
Approximately 4 years of Experience	12	3.5
Approximately 5 years of Experience	11	3.2

Note. Sample size (*N*) = 346.

Sampling Procedure

Purposive sampling allows the researcher to select groups of individuals that are proficient and well-informed with a phenomenon of interest (Etikan et al., 2016). This sampling method was deemed appropriate as it allowed the researcher to focus on a specific sample, namely students, who are soon to enter the workforce with employment expectations. Students have been illustrated in the literature review of this study to have rich information concerning the current topic. An email was sent out to all students currently registered at the specified university. Upon receipt of the university-wide broadcasted email, students self-selected into the study via a link provided. The study therefore depended on volunteers as participants. The email informed students that their participation will add to conversation and academia on the topic of students' earnings and employment expectations in relation to their SES. Students were informed that the study aimed to increase awareness of the need for decent work as it relates to work free of discrimination. They were additionally informed about the potential benefits of the study for organizations, as well as the ethical adherence to which the survey was subjected to.

Measures

Socioeconomic Status. Parental occupation was a strong indicator of students' SESs in previous literature conducted within the social science realm (Bateman, 2014; Kamakura & Mazzon, 2013; Yuma-Guerrero et al., 2018). Ganzeboom et al. (1992) reported that many researchers present a categorical approach to the measurement of SES and that this implies that all members of society are divided into a limited number of discrete categories. Caro and Cortés (2012) state that the utilization of a scored and continuous scale of measurement captures variability within occupational categories in a sample and does not neglect significant information from other occupational dimensions (Ganzeboom et al., 1992). Ganzeboom et al.'s (1992) continuous scale of occupational measurement was therefore utilized, presenting 10 occupational categories. However, once the data was obtained, these 10 continuously scaled occupations were then utilized to inform the categories of the current sample and therefore split into 3 groups: low SES (clerk, service/sales worker, skilled agricultural or fishery worker, craft or trade worker, plant or machine operator and general labourer), middle SES (small business owners and technician/associate professional) and high SES (corporate manager or senior official and professional). The final SES variable was computed by adding a participant's caregivers' SES group numbers together. For example, a mother in the low SES group (1) and a father in the high SES group (3) would give a participant a total score (4). Students who scored an SES of 1-2, 2-3 and 3-4 were classified into low, middle or high SES groups, respectively. This was completed to get approximately even groups based on the sample obtained and not upon predefined SES groups used for different samples.

Earning Expectations. Students' earnings expectations were measured using Eliophotou and Pashourtido's (2017) measurement instrument, which consisted of three questions, each requiring an open-ended scale value: 1) What is your expected monthly salary after graduation? 2) What is your expected monthly salary after 4 years of employment? 3) What is your expected monthly salary after 20 years of employment? (Eliophotou & Pashourtido, 2017). Participants were instructed to provide an answer with a rand value to maintain easy measurability and consistency for further analyses. These three questions, taken together, cumulatively depicted students' earnings expectations after they were entered into the equation below (Eliophotou & Pashourtido, 2017). Tamborini et al. (2015) argued that lifetime earnings are an important consequential source of information about socioeconomic stratification. Students' expected

lifetime earnings (earnings expectations) were therefore calculated using the formula below in which *A* is the assumed age of starting full-time work, *A4* is the age at 4 years of work (hence A4 – A is equal to 4), and *E1*, *E2* and *E3* denote the expected annual earnings when starting work full-time, 4 years after starting to work and 20 years after starting to work, respectively.

$$\text{Expected lifetime earnings} = 0.5 \times (A4 - A) \times (E1 + E2) + 10 \times E2 + 23 \times E3$$

Employment Expectations. Eliophotou and Pashourtido (2017) measured employment expectations via the following two forced-choice survey questions: 1) How soon, upon graduation, do you expect to obtain employment? (1 = less than one year, 2 = more than one year) 2) What type of job do you expect to obtain first after you graduate? (1 = part-time, 2 = full time). However, for this study, it was necessary to expand the categories of the first question to obtain richer results. The categories available to participants were therefore based upon Moleker's (2005) survey, which found that while 60% of graduates found a job immediately in South Africa, 28% found employment within one to six months of qualifying, 7% within seven to twelve months and 6% over a year later (1 = within one month of graduation; 2 = within one to six months of graduation; 3 = within seven to twelve months of graduation; 4 = after twelve months of graduation).

Anticipated SES Discrimination. There are not extant measures of students' anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination. Mariña Fernández-Reino (2016, p. 146) measured a similar concept by asking students the following question: "Do you think that your skin colour, ethnic origin or religion will make it more difficult for you to get a job after you leave education?". However, for this study, to measure anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination, the question was adapted to "Do you think that your SES will make it more difficult for you to get a job after you leave education?" Response options on this measurement tool, as provided by Mariña Fernández-Reino (2016), are as follows: agree, disagree and I do not know. However, the researcher of the current study deemed it necessary to adjust these response options and recode them into a 7-point Likert scale as Dawes (2008) noted that the benefits of more response options result in a greater spread of the data, a larger variance and less skewed data. Using a scale with 3 Likert response options is at the researcher's risk of reducing measurement precision (Simms et al., 2019).

Willingness to Settle for Lower Earnings. Students' willingness to settle for lower earnings upon graduation was measured using two questions developed by Farago et al. (2013) in

their adapted version of Harris and Fink's (1987) scale which assessed participants' willingness to accept a job offer. These questions were based on the following vignette: "An organization offers you a salary that is 14% less per month in comparison to the average market-related salary offered for that position". This is based upon Eliophotou and Pashourtido's (2017) findings that low SES students expect to earn 14% less than high SES students. Furthermore, Farago et al.'s (2013) adapted version measures the variable "accepting job offer" (Farago et al., 2013, p. 231) via the following two questions: 1) If you were offered this job, would you accept it? (1 = very unlikely, 5 = extremely likely) 2) If you were offered this job, would you accept it immediately? (1 = definitely not, 5 = definitely). The alpha reliability of this adapted version of the scale was .88 in Farago et al.'s (2013) study.

Core Self-Evaluation. The Core Self-Evaluation scale is a unidimensional, 12-item, 5-point Likert scale that replaces four other personality constructs (Judge et al., 2003). These replaced constructs include locus of control, neuroticism, general self-efficacy and self-esteem (Judge et al., 2003). An example of an item on this scale is "I determine what will happen in my life" (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree) (Judge et al., 2003). Items 2, 4, 6, 8, 10 and 12 are reverse coded and the scale met Nunally's (1987) criteria as it presented a .84 alpha reliability and .81 test-retest reliability (Judge et al., 2003).

Demographic Information. The demographics section in Van der Merwe's (2013) Organisational Choice Indicator (OCI) scale was utilized as it is relevant to student sampled studies. These seven multiple-choice extracted items include questions on the following demographic variables: age, gender, ethnicity, education, academic year of study and work experience. Furthermore, previous research indicated that earnings and career expectations are affected by participants' nature of residence (Ball, 2009), as well as faculty (Arcidiacono et al., 2012) and these two items were therefore included.

Procedure

Upon approval of application, the questionnaire of the current study was distributed by the university's DSA to the entire student body via a university-wide email containing a link thereto. If students decided to participate in the study, the link redirected them to the questionnaire on the online survey platform, Qualtrics (Qualtrics, 2020). Once participants completed the survey, the data was transferred to the researcher immediately via Qualtrics (Qualtrics, 2020) for further data cleaning and analyses on IBM's Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (IBM Corp,

2020). The first interaction that students had with the measurement instrument was a brief note containing information about the study's context, aim, researcher's contact details, appreciation for participation, as well as the study's adherence to ethical standards.

After the data collection process, data cleaning commenced and included mass case removal, variable recoding and the replacement of missing values. Missing values for each variable were replaced utilizing the series mean, as Che et al. (2018) indicated that this method can be utilized when up to 5% of the values are missing. This only presented a challenge for the question about participants' work experience which 13% of participants skipped due to the option "no work experience" being omitted from the questionnaire. Furthermore, variables were recoded and reversed where relevant according to their respective instructions for scale use. The option of "other" was additionally included on relevant questions, allowing students to enter a differing response in free text, leading to additional response options being recoded into more relevant groupings. For example, the option of mixed race was added during the data cleaning phase for the item enquiring about participants' racial categories. Furthermore, for the variable SES, where participants indicated below the option of "other" that their parent/guardian was unemployed, this was coded as missing data as the scale requires their answer to be based upon previous job held.

Ethical Considerations

Various measures were taken to ensure the maintenance of ethicality throughout the research process. As mentioned above, ethical clearance was obtained from the Ethics in Research Committee (Ref. No. MS_2020_WVRMIC004) and permission was obtained from the DSA to collect data from the university's students via an online questionnaire. This study additionally adhered to ethical standards concerning participants' participation and information. Participants were made aware, upon their first interaction with the survey, that their participation is voluntary, anonymous and confidential. Participants were also informed about the approximate time that the survey should take to complete and were provided with contact details for both the researcher and the researcher's supervisor to communicate queries relevant to the study. Furthermore, participants were made aware that their responses will be kept anonymous and that they will not be traceable by the researcher or any third parties. The Qualtrics (Qualtrics, 2020) software allowed for participants to be coded as anonymous. Concerning confidentiality, no participant's data was given to third parties and it was solely kept on the computer of the researcher with a password thereon.

The dataset was disposed of upon completion of the study. Furthermore, for items that may have elicited emotional responses, the response option, "prefer not to respond" was included.

Statistical Analyses

To ensure the quality of the study, initial psychometric and reliability analyses were conducted on the data obtained. Concerning hypotheses testing, four multiple hierarchical regression analyses were run to investigate the relationships between students' SESs and their 1) earnings expectations 2) employment expectations 3) anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination and 4) willingness to settle for lower earnings. These hierarchical regressions were completed as this study aimed to assess how differences in students' SES explained the variance in these dependent variables while accounting for control variables which are often not of theoretical importance, however may explain a large portion of variance (Kelley & Bolin, 2013). After each of these regression analyses were completed, moderated regression analyses were undertaken to analyze whether core self-evaluation moderated these relationships. These moderations were completed as this statistical tool allows the assessment of whether and how strongly the personality disposition, core self-evaluation, affects the relationship between SES and the other core variables of this study (Dawson, 2014). Furthermore, where these analyses brought up additional research questions, additional regression and ANOVA analyses were conducted.

Results

This section reports on various statistical tools. First, initial psychometric analyses were conducted on the relevant variables. To test the hypotheses, regression and moderation analyses were conducted. Additional questions are posed based on the results obtained and these additional findings are presented.

Initial Analysis

Factor Analysis

The core self-evaluation scale was the only scale in the current study which could warrant a factor analysis as the remaining scales were single-item questions derived from previous studies.

Core Self-Evaluation Scale. While it is important to assess the psychometric properties of a scale utilized in a research study to establish whether the scale measures what it purports to (Connelly, 2011), various researchers have illustrated in prior research that the core self-evaluation scale is unidimensional (Gardner & Pierce, 2012; Judge et al., 2003; Smedema et al., 2015), including in a South African sample (Arya et al., 2017). Furthermore, as Braeken and van Assen (2017) assert that exploratory factor analyses often leads to the overestimation of the necessary number of factors to extract and given the small and limited sample of the current study, it was decided to treat core self-evaluation as a single factor based on prior research.

Reliability

It is important to measure the reliability of a scale in a research study as it aims to prove the ability of the scale to provide consistent and stable answers (Connelly, 2011). Cronbach alpha was utilized to test the reliability of the core self-evaluation scale. The core self-evaluation scale was the only scale in the current study that warranted a reliability analysis as the remaining scales were single-item questions derived from previous studies, upon which reliability analyses cannot be performed. Cronbach alpha is a statistical measure aimed at evaluating the internal consistency of a scale and is a form of reliability testing that assesses the degree to which all items measure the same construct (Connelly, 2011). The item-total correlations, alphas and Cronbach if item deleted statistics were all evaluated.

Core Self-Evaluation. Nunnally's (1978) recommended alpha statistic cut-off is .70 and above. The core self-evaluation scale well-exceeded this threshold (α = .812) when its reliability was tested using the remaining 8 core self-evaluation scale items from the prior psychometric analysis conducted above. It is noteworthy that during the reliability analysis, the item "I determine

what will happen with my life" only obtained a .277 corrected item-total correlation while the recommended cut-off is .30 and above. However, Streiner and Norman (2003) stated that a .20 cutoff is still acceptable. All item-total correlations were therefore deemed acceptable as they ranged between .277 and .616. Winzenberg et al. (2003), in the development of their osteoporosis-related questionnaire, illustrated that the removal of low item-total correlation items that do not cause a notable improvement in the alpha coefficient or factor analysis outcome may have a minimal impact on the psychometric properties of a questionnaire. In the case of the current research, removing this item increases the alpha coefficient by a minimalistic statistic of .010 while decreasing the factor analysis outcome. Panayides (2013) additionally illustrated that the removal of an item to increase the alpha of a scale is not necessary if that scale has already reached a recommended statistic as this could reduce the quality of the scale's psychometric properties. Furthermore, all alpha if item deleted statistics were deemed acceptable as they ranged between .778 and .822. All items that were retained in the exploratory factor analysis were therefore subsequently retained in the reliability analysis as well.

Descriptive Statistics

After conducting initial psychometric analyses, the descriptive statistics of each variable were computed (see Table 2). First, SES, being a 3-point ordinal scale, presented a mean far above the midpoint of the scale (M = 2.38, SD = .71), illustrating that most of the participants in the sample, on average, had higher levels of SES. This led to SES presenting a negatively skewed distribution (skp = -.69, SE = .14) as there was a build-up of scores in the right tail of the histogram. Furthermore, SES presented a negative kurtosis value of -.75 (SE = .28), indicating that the distribution has lighter tails and a platykurtic distribution (Wright & Herrington, 2011). However, the skewness and kurtosis values for SES still fell well within the recommended -2 to 2 recommendation for a variable to be considered normally distributed (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). Second, concerning the variable earnings expectations, a log transformation was performed, correcting for the skewness and kurtosis of the data. After this transformation was performed, all variables presented skewness and kurtosis values well within the -1.96 to 1.96 range (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012), indicating normality (see Table 2).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Distribution Values

Variable	*n*	*M*	*SD*	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	*SE*	Statistic	*SE*
Socioeconomic Status (SES)	309	2.38	.71	-.69	.14	-.75	.28
Earning Expectations	312	177.19	8.88	.28	.14	-.33	.28
Employment Expectations	346	1.92	.825	.86	.13	.513	.26
Anticipated Socioeconomic Discrimination	346	2.64	1.12	.22	.13	-.77	.26
Willingness to Settle	346	1.46	.36	.14	.13	-1.09	.26
Core Self-Evaluation	344	23.38	5.54	.12	.13	-.57	.26

Note. *n* = sample size; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; *SE* = standard error

Correlation Analyses

The correlations between the independent and dependent variables of interest were assessed with the Spearman correlation coefficient. This analysis revealed that the independent and dependent variables in this study have none to small correlations (see Table 3). However, it is important to note that the correlational relationship between earnings expectations and anticipated socioeconomic discrimination, as well as earnings expectations and SES, were non-significant.

Table 3

Correlations Among Variables

	SES	Earnings Expectations	Willingness to settle	Anticipated socioeconomic discrimination	Employment Expectations	Core Self-Evaluation
SES	(-)					
Earnings Expectations	(.070)	(-)				
Willingness to Settle	(-.149)**	(-.105)*	(-)			
Anticipated Socioeconomic Discrimination	(-.175)**	-(.073)	(.172)**	(-)		
Employment Expectations	(-.118)*	(-.141)**	(.218)**	(.180)**	(-)	
Core Self-Evaluation	(.117)*	(.197)**	(-.159)**	(-.246)**	(-.212)**	(.812)

Note. * p < .05. ** p < .01. Cronbach alpha is reported on the diagonal. Sample size = 346. Core self-evaluation was the only scale variable.

Hypotheses Testing

Multiple Hierarchical Regression and Moderated Regression analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses present in the current study. This analysis was chosen as it allows the researcher to assess the importance of the predictor on the relationship while often statistically eliminating the effect of other predictors, such as race, gender and more (Petchko, 2018). This was deemed important and beneficial by the researcher of the current study as variables such as gender have been found to largely influence remuneration expectation (Boll & Lagemann, 2018). Four Multiple Hierarchical regressions were used to analyze whether students' SESs predicted their 1) earnings

expectations 2) employment expectations 3) anticipated socioeconomic discrimination and 4) willingness to settle for lower earnings. This type of analysis allowed the researcher to evaluate the contributions of a predictor above and beyond previously entered predictors while easing the examination of incremental validity and offering statistical control (Lewis, 2007). Multiple hierarchical regression was utilized to assess whether earnings expectations, employment expectations, anticipated socioeconomic discrimination and willingness to settle are significantly predicted by students' SESs with and without control variables, as well as which control variables significantly predicted these outcome variables.

The following control variables were entered into each regression: gender, faculty, highest level of education, current year of study, race, age, nature of permanent residence, work experience, core self-evaluation, earnings expectations, employment expectations, anticipated socioeconomic discrimination and willingness to settle for lower earnings, where applicable. However, non-significant control variables were removed iteratively from lowest to highest significance. This was done as Forstmeier and Schielzeth (2011) argued that non-significant predictors take up additional degrees of freedom and that they may be removed in order from least-significant, as long as they do not decrease the fit of the model. Furthermore, four moderated regressions were performed to ascertain whether core self-evaluation moderated the four relationships above mentioned. Moderation allowed the researcher to assess whether the relationship between the independent and dependent variable of each regression was modified by another variable, namely core self-evaluation (Tang et al., 2009). Hayes' (2012) statistical application for mediation and moderation, PROCESS (v3.5), was utilized to analyze this study's hypotheses on SPSS (IBM Corp, 2020). For ease of moderation interpretation, a new variable depicting students' SESs was created by creating two groups of students, namely those who fall one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the SES mean. Although this resulted in a reduced sample size of 132 participants (Low SES = 61; High SES = 71), it allowed for the two more extreme ends of SES to be assessed and allowed for ease of interpretation in moderation analyses.

Assumptions of Multiple Hierarchical Regression, ANOVA and Moderation

Various assumptions need to be met before running a multiple hierarchical regression. These assumptions were met for all four regressions (earnings expectations, employment expectations, anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination and willingness to settle for lower earnings). As a first assumption, multivariate normality was established within the regression

analyses (Farrell et al., 2007). The normal probability plot (P-P plot) is useful in determining whether the population distribution is normal and unlike many other statistical tests, it displays non-normal features, including skewness, long tails and short tails (Chantarangasi et al., 2018). The P-P plot furthermore illustrates how normal the predictions were across the range of values for the dependent variable and is more reliable than a histogram for small to moderate sample sizes (Nisbet et al., 2009). In assessing the P-P plot, it is important to note that the points on the graph should not deviate from the theoretical line plotted on the graph (Nisbet et al., 2009). While three regressions met this assumption, the regression with employment expectations did not. Employment expectations was therefore transformed with a square root transformation before running the regression. The assumption was subsequently met by all four regressions in this study (see Appendix 1, Figure A-D). The second assumption refers to the necessity for a linear relationship to exist between the independent and dependent variables in a regression (Osborne & Waters, 2002). This was assessed via the partial plots which the regression analysis produces on SPSS. This assumption was met for all four regressions.

Third, the assumption of no multicollinearity needs to be met. Multicollinearity refers to the existence of a linear relationship among two or more variables and poses an issue in multiple regression analyses as it decreases the degrees of freedom present therein (Alin, 2010). Therefore, according to Vatcheva et al. (2016), the correlations between the independent variables of a regression should not be above .80. This assumption was met by all four regression analyses in this study, as illustrated in the correlational table in the Descriptives section above (see Table 3). Fourth, Osborne and Walters (2002) stated that the variances of the residuals should be constant at all levels of the independent variable. This is the assumption of homoscedasticity (Osborne & Walter, 2002) and was met by all four regression analyses in this study. The fifth assumption of multiple hierarchical regression is that there should be no influential cases biasing the model (Raj & Kannan, 2017). Kannan and Manoj (2015) illustrated that this assumption can be tested by computing Cook's Distance to investigate the data for outliers. The general recommendation is that there should be no values above 1 in the new variable column produced by running this test (McDonald, 2002). This assumption was met by all four regression analyses as well. Furthermore, the regression assumptions were met in the same way for the additional regression ran.

For this study, moderated multiple regression was used as it is the most widely used moderation analysis technique where y is the dependent variable, x is the independent variable and

z is the moderating variable (Yang & Yuan, 2016). A multiple hierarchical regression was ran and the assumptions thereof met before the moderated regression upon those variables. The moderation's assumptions were therefore met as well.

ANOVA analyses were utilized to investigate the above additional hypotheses and according to Sawyer (2009), four integral assumptions need to be met to complete an ANOVA. The four assumptions include 1) that the dependent variable should be interval or ratio data 2) a normal distribution of the dependent variable across groups 3) homogeneity of variance and 4) independent observations (Sawyer, 2009). Concerning the measurement scale of the dependent variables utilized in the above ANOVA analyses, all of these variables represented ratio data. Second, earnings expectations, anticipated socioeconomic discrimination and willingness to settle for lower earnings are the relevant dependent variables in this additional analysis section and were illustrated to meet the assumption of normality. Third, the homogeneity of variances was illustrated as either met or not met for each ANOVA above using Levene's test of homogeneity (Sawyer, 2009). Fourth, each ANOVA consisted of independent observations as no participant was able to be in more than one group for any of the relevant variables.

H1: Students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) significantly predict their earnings expectations

In line with previous literature, it was hypothesized that students' SESs predict their earnings expectations. However, in this study, a significant result was not obtained (see Table 3). Therefore, no regression analysis was conducted, and Hypothesis 1 was not confirmed. The present study, therefore, presented non-significant findings concerning this hypothesis. Mehler et al. (2019) argued that non-significant results can arise due to various reasons, including the absence of an effect. The application G*Power (Faul et al., 2009), which Faul et al. (2009) described as a statistical software that allows the user to perform statistical power analyses on various statistical tests, was therefore utilized to ascertain whether, in a model in which SES is a sole predictor of earnings expectations, if an effect is present. The analysis required the following input parameters concerning the population: effect size (f^2), α error probability, total sample size (N) and the total number of predictors (m) (Faul et al., 2009) (see Table 4). These inputs were generated by running a simple linear regression, testing the ability of students' SESs to predict their earnings expectations. Furthermore, the analysis provided the following output parameters: the noncentrality parameter (λ) of the F distribution, the decision criterion (Critical F), the degrees of

freedom and the power of the omnibus F test [Power (1 - β err prob)] (Faul et al., 2009) (see Table 5).

In relation to the output parameters that the power analysis provided, Cohen provides guidelines for small (d = .2), medium (d = .5) and large (d = .8) effect sizes (Plonsky & Oswald, 2014). However, upon revising the literature, Sawilowsky (2009) illustrated that it was necessary to expand these categories to include more criterion levels, including that of 'very small' (d = .01). Here, it is important to note that the effect size was even smaller than this 'very small' cutoff, illustrating that there is likely no relationship present between students' SESs and earnings expectations. Furthermore, Field (2018) stated that a power value of .8 or higher is deemed acceptable. In Table 5, it is evident that the power does not meet this cutoff criterion. As power tests the probability of avoiding type 2 error (Christley, 2010), there is an almost 82% chance of type 2 error in the statistical test performed (see Appendix 2, Figure A). There is therefore a high probability that the hypothesis was falsely rejected. However, the effect size remains lower than the .01 cutoff, indicating that students' SESs are still unlikely to predict their earnings expectations.

Table 4

*G*Power Post Hoc Input Parameters*[a]

Effect size	0.0030090
Error probability (α)	0.05
total sample size (*N*)	346
Number of tested predictors	1

Table 5

*G*Power Post Hoc Output Parameters*[a]

Noncentrality Parameter (λ)	1.0411140
Critical F	3.8686328
Degrees of freedom	
Numerator df	1
Denominator df	344
Power (1 - β err prob)	0.1744316

H2: Core self-evaluation moderates the relationship between students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) and their earnings expectations

Concerning the ability of core self-evaluation to moderate the relationship between students' SESs and their earnings expectations, it can be seen that the model is statistically significant in its prediction ($F(3, 114) = 7.732$, $p < .05$). The model accounts for a hefty 16,9% of the variance ($R^2 = .169$, $p < .05$) in students' earnings expectations, is significant in its ability to predict earnings expectations and is strong as the *F*-statistic is far from 0 (Yang & Yuan, 2016). In table 6, it can be seen that the 95% confidence interval does not include 0, indicating that a moderation effect is present ($\beta = -.979$, $p < .01$) (Field, 2018). Therefore, the more a student's SES increases, the more negative the effect of core self-evaluations on students' earnings expectations become.

Table 6

Moderation: DV = Earnings Expectations

	β	*t*	*p*-value	CI 95%	
				Lower	Upper
SES	24.481	3.878	.000	11.974	36.988
Core Self-Evaluation	1.810	4.072	.000	.929	2.691
SES x core self-evaluation	-.979	-3.570	.001	-1.523	-.436

Note. Sample size = 346. $R = .411$. $R^2 = .169$. $F = 7.732$, $p < .01$.

H3: Students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) significantly predict their employment expectations

Students' SESs were not found to significantly predict their employment expectations over and above the control variables (core self-evaluation and willingness to settle for lower earnings) (see Table 7). Model 1, which only included the two control variables as predictors, was able to significantly predict students' employment expectations ($F(2, 304) = 15.031$, $p < .05$) and account for 9% of the variance therein ($\Delta R^2 = .090$). Students' core self-evaluations ($\beta = -.221$, $p < .05$) and willingness to settle for lower earnings ($\beta = .161$, $p < .05$) were found to both significantly predict employment expectations, with core self-evaluations exerting the larger influence between the two. Therefore, as students' willingness to settle for lower earnings increased, they anticipated longer periods of unemployment and as their core self-evaluation increased, they anticipated shorter lengths of unemployment. However, when SES was added as a predictor in model 2, it was found that the model lost its ability to significantly predict students' earnings expectations ($F(1, 303) = 1.983$, $p > .05$) and SES explained less than an additional 1% of the variance ($\Delta R^2 = .006$, $p > .05$) in these expectations. Therefore, while students' willingness to settle for lower earnings ($\beta = .148$, $p < .05$) and core self-evaluations ($\beta = -.215$, $p < .05$) significantly predicted their employment expectations in model 2, their SESs ($\beta = -.078$, $p > .05$) did not.

Table 7

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: DV = Employment Expectations

Predictor variables	B	*p*-value	ΔR^2	Fch	*p*-value for Fch
Model 1			.090	15.031	.000
Core Self-Evaluation	-.221	.000			
Willingness to Settle	.161	.004			
Model 2			.006	1.983	.160
Socioeconomic Status	-.078	.160			
Core Self-Evaluation	-.215	.000			
Willingness to Settle	.148	.009			

Note. $R^2 = .096$.; adjusted $R^2 = .087$. Sample size = 346. Effect size = 0.0141988. Error probability = .05. Number of tested predictors = 1. Noncentrality parameter = 4.9127848. Critical F = 3.8686328 (1, 344). Power = 0.5988473.

The statistical application G*Power (Faul et al., 2009) was utilized to perform a power analysis to ascertain whether an effect is likely to be present in the relationship between students' SES and employment expectations when SES is the sole predictor in the model. The effect size that was found met the .01 cutoff deemed as 'very small' (Sawilowsky, 2009) (see Table 7), indicating that if an effect is present, it is very small in size. The recommended .8 or higher power value cutoff recommended by Field (2018) was, however, unmet. As power tests the probability of avoiding type 2 error (Christley, 2010), there is an almost 41% chance of type 2 error in the statistical test performed (see Appendix 3, Figure A) (see Table 7). The probability that the hypothesis was falsely rejected is therefore reasonably big. If the hypothesis was falsely rejected, the size of the relationship between students' SES and employment expectations is very small in size.

H4: Core self-evaluation moderates the relationship between students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) and their employment expectations

Concerning the overall model assessing whether students' core self-evaluations moderate the relationship between their SESs and employment expectations (see Table 8), it can be seen that the model is statistically significant in its prediction ($F(3, 127) = .3.010$, $p < .05$). The model's ability to predict employment expectations is found to be significant, as well as strong as the *F*-statistic is far from 0 (Yang & Yuan, 2016). The model accounts for 6,7% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.067$, $p < .05$) in students' employment expectations. In Table 8, it can additionally be seen that the interaction term is nonsignificant as the 95% confidence interval is inclusive of 0, indicating that a moderation effect is not present ($\beta = -.018$, $p > .01$) (Field, 2018).

Table 8

Moderation: DV = Employment Expectations

	β	*t*	*p*-value	CI 95%	
				Lower	Upper
SES	.349	1.529	.129	-.103	.800
core self-evaluation	.020	1.291	.199	-.010	.050
SES x core self-evaluation	-.018	-1.884	.062	-.038	.001

Note. Sample size = 346. $R = .258$. $R^2 = .067$. $F = 3.010$, $p < .05$.

H5: Students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) significantly predict their anticipated socioeconomic discrimination in the workplace

Students' SESs were found to significantly predict their anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination over and above the control variables (core self-evaluation, employment expectations and race) (see Table 9). Model 1, which only included the control variables as predictors, was able to significantly predict students' anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination ($F(3, 303) = 10.577$, $p < .05$) and account for 9,5% of the variance therein ($\Delta R^2 = .095$). Students' core self-evaluations ($\beta = -.209$, $p < .05$), employment expectations ($\beta = .117$ $p < .05$) and race ($\beta = .137$ $p < .05$) were all found to significantly predict their anticipated socioeconomic discrimination with core self-evaluation exerting the larger influence of the three. Therefore, as students' anticipated unemployment periods increased, so did their anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination. Furthermore, as their core self-evaluations decreased, their anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination in the workplace increased. Additional analyses were conducted to ascertain how race predicts students' anticipated socioeconomic discrimination.

When SES was added as a predictor in model 2, it was found that the model increased in its ability to significantly predict students' anticipated socioeconomic discrimination ($F(1, 302) = 4.631$, $p < .05$) and SES explained an additional 1,4% of the variance ($\Delta R^2 = .014$, $p < .05$) in this anticipation. Students' core self-evaluations ($\beta = -.201$, $p < .05$), employment expectations ($\beta = .105$, $p < .05$), race ($\beta = .111$, $p < .05$) and SES ($\beta = -.121$, $p < .05$) were found to significantly predict their anticipated discrimination in the workplace. Students' anticipated discrimination in the workplace therefore decreased as their SESs increased.

Table 9

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: DV = Anticipated Socioeconomic Discrimination

Predictor variables	β	*p*-value	ΔR^2	Fch	*p*-value for Fch
Model 1			.095	10.577	.000
Core Self-Evaluation	-.209	.000			
Employment Expectations	.117	.039			
Race	.137	.013			
Model 2			.014	4.631	.032
Socioeconomic Status	-.121	.032			
Core Self-Evaluation	-.201	.000			
Employment Expectations	.105	.065			
Race	.111	.048			

Note. R^2 =.108; adjusted R^2 = .097. Sample size = 346.

H6: Core self-evaluation moderates the relationship between students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) and their anticipated socioeconomic discrimination in the workplace

The model in which core self-evaluation moderates the relationship between SES and anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination in the workplace is statistically significant in its prediction ($F(3, 127) = 4.637$, $p < .05$) (see Table 10). The model's ability to predict students' anticipated socioeconomic discrimination is found to be significant, as well as strong as the *F*-statistic is far from 0 (Yang & Yuan, 2016). The model accounts for 9,9% of the variance ($R^2 = .099$, $p < .05$) in students' anticipated socioeconomic discrimination. However, in Table 10, it can be seen that the interaction term is nonsignificant as the 95% confidence interval is inclusive of 0 (Field, 2018), indicating that a moderation effect is not present ($\beta = -.020.$, $p > .01$) (Field, 2018).

Table 10

Moderation: DV = Anticipated Socioeconomic Discrimination

	β	*t*	*p*-value	CI 95%	
				Lower	Upper
SES	-.185	-.204	.839	-1.977	1.607
core self-evaluation	.006	.107	.915	-.114	.126
SES x core self-evaluation	-.020	-.508	.612	-.096	.057

Note. Sample size = 346. R = .314 R^2 = .099. F = 4.637, p < .01.

H7: Students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) significantly predict their willingness to settle for lower earnings

SES significantly predicts students' willingness to settle for lower earnings over and above the control variables (core self-evaluations, employment expectations and faculty) (see Table 11). Model 1, which only included the three control variables, significantly predicted students' willingness to settle (F(3, 303) = 11.690, p < .05) and accounted for 10,4% of the variance therein (ΔR^2 = .104, p < .05). Students' core self-evaluations (β = -.178, p < .05), employment expectations (β = .177, p < .05) and faculty (β = .182, p < .05) were all found to significantly predict their willingness to settle for lower earnings with faculty exerting the larger influence of the three. Therefore, as students anticipate longer periods of unemployment, the more willing they are to settle for lower earnings. Additionally, the lower students' core self-evaluations were, the more likely they were likely to settle for lower earnings. Further analyses were conducted to ascertain the specific way that faculty interacts with students' willingness to settle.

When SES was added as a predictor in model 2, it was found that the model increased in its ability to significantly predict students' willingness to settle for lower earnings (F(1, 302) = 8.233, p < .05) and SES accounted for an additional 2,4% of the variance (ΔR^2 = 0.024, p < .05) therein. Students' core self-evaluations (β = -.166, p < .05), employment expectations (β = .162, p < .05) and faculty (β = .195, p < .05), as well as their SESs (β = -.157, p < .05) were found to significantly predict their willingness to settle for lower earnings. Students' willingness to settle for lower earnings, therefore, increases as their socioeconomic status decreases.

Table 11

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: DV = Willingness to Settle

Predictor variables	β	*p*-value	ΔR^2	Fch	*p*-value for Fch
Model 1			.104	11.690	.000
Core Self-Evaluation	-.178	.002			
Employment Expectations	.177	.002			
Faculty	.182	.001			
Model 2			.024	8.233	.004
Socioeconomic Status	-.157	.004			
Core Self-Evaluations	-.166	.003			
Employment Expectations	.162	.004			
Faculty	.195	.000			

Note. R^2 = .128; adjusted R^2 = .116. Sample size = 346.

H8: Core self-evaluation moderates the relationship between students' socioeconomic statuses (SES) and their willingness to settle for lower earnings

Table 12 shows that core self-evaluations moderate the relationship between SES and students' willingness to settle for lower earnings and that the model is statistically significant in its prediction ($F(3, 127) = 5.836$, $p < .05$). The model's ability to predict students' willingness to settle was found to be significant, as well as strong as the *F*-statistic is far from 0 (Yang & Yuan, 2016). The model accounted for 12,1% of the variance ($R^2 = .121$, $p < .05$) in students' anticipated socioeconomic discrimination. Table 12 shows that the interaction term is significant as the 95% confidence interval did not include 0, indicating that a small but significant moderation effect is present ($\beta = -.034.$, $p < .01$) (Field, 2018). Therefore, the more SES increases, the more negative the effect of core self-evaluations on willingness to settle for lower earnings becomes.

Table 12

Moderation: DV = Willingness to Settle

	β	*t*	*p*-value	CI 95%	
				Lower	Upper
SES	.585	2.089	.039	.031	1.139
core self-evaluation	.048	2.577	.011	.011	.085
SES x core self-evaluation	-.034	-2.809	.006	-.057	-.010

Note. Sample size = 346. R = .348. R^2 = .121. F = 5.836, p < .01.

Group and Demographic Differences

The investigation of the above hypotheses led to additional questions which required ANOVAs and posthoc analyses. The Bonferroni posthoc test was utilized as it is a more stringent test and allows for a much stronger interpretation when results surpass its conservative threshold (VanderWeele & Mathur, 2019). The assumptions of all ANOVAs and regressions were tested and will be discussed below.

Predictors of Students' Earning Expectations

As students' earnings expectations were not found to significantly correlate with their SESs (see Table 3) and no regression analysis was performed to assess the predictive power of SES and control variables on these expectations, an additional investigation was undertaken here. In Table 13, it can be seen that students' core self-evaluations (β = .189, p < .05), faculty (β = -.121, p < .05), highest level of education (β = .132, p < .05), employment expectations (β = -.116, p < .05) and nature of permanent residence (β = -.121, p < .05) all significantly predicted their earnings expectations with core self-evaluations exerting the most influence of the five. The model which encompasses these five predictors is shown to significantly predict students' earnings expectations (F(5, 304) = 5.502, p < .05) and accounted for 8,3% of the variance (ΔR^2 = .083, p < .05) therein. Therefore, as students' core self-evaluations and level of education increases, so do their earnings expectations. Additionally, students who anticipate shorter periods of unemployment upon graduation have higher earnings expectations. Further analyses are subsequently illustrated to ascertain the nature of the relationship between students' earnings expectations and their faculty and nature of permanent residence.

Table 13

Regression: DV = Earnings Expectations

Predictor variables	B	*p*-value	ΔR^2	Fch	*p*-value for Fch
Model			.083	5.502	.000
Core Self-Evaluation	.189	.001			
Faculty	-.121	.032			
Highest Level of Education	.132	.019			
Employment Expectations	-.116	.044			
Nature of Permanent Residence	-.121	.030			

Note. R^2 = .083; adjusted R^2 = .068. Sample size = 346.

Earnings Expectations differences Amongst Faculties

There is a statistically significant difference between the various faculty groups in their employment expectations ($F(5,306) = 4.122$, $p > .05$). A Bonferroni post hoc test was conducted to assess the differences between specific groups. Based on the result, the Commerce faculty is reported as the reference group as this study is conducted within the Organisational Psychology realm. The post hoc analysis revealed no statistically significant differences between Commerce, Law and Engineering and the Built Environment. However, it is seen that Commerce (180.30 ± 7.31, $p < .05$, CI [178.75, 181.85) students expect to earn a statistically significantly higher income than Science (174.36 ± 9.38, $p < .05$, CI [171.36, 177.36]), Humanities (175.68 ± 10.20, $p < .05$, CI [173.39, 177.96]) and Health Science (175.88 ± 9.13, $p < .05$, CI [173.48, 178.28]) students.

Concerning the assumption of homogeneity of variance, this ANOVA analysis illustrates the violation of this assumption as Levene's test is significant (Garson, 2012). Although Sawyer (2009) argued that this can be corrected through the use of a log transformation, earnings expectations was transformed before this analysis to meet the assumption of normality. This assumption was therefore violated, and the results of this analysis need to be interpreted with caution.

Earnings Expectations Differences Amongst Urban and Rural Students

The regression analysis revealed that students' nature of permanent residence significantly predicts their earnings expectations ($\beta = -.115$, $p < .05$) (see Table 14), as previously demonstrated. However, this additional regression analysis was conducted with nature of permanent residence as

a dummy variable, to ease interpretation. It can therefore be seen that when a student moves from rural to urban permanent residence, their earnings expectations decreased. As the sole predictor in the model, nature of permanent residence therefore accounted for 1,3% ($\Delta R^2 = .013$, $p < .05$) of the variance in students' earnings expectations. Overall, the model was able to significantly predict students' earnings expectations ($F(1, 310) = 4.19$, $p < .05$). Rural students, therefore, anticipate higher earnings than urban students. The assumptions for this additional regression analysis were tested in the same manner that the main regression analyses were tested, as will be discussed later, and all relevant assumptions were met.

Table 14

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Nature of Permanent Residence on Earnings Expectations

Predictor variables	β	p-value	ΔR^2	Fch	p-value for Fch
Model 1			.013	4.189	.042
Urban (permanent residence)	-.115	.042			

Note. $R^2 = .013$; adjusted $R^2 = .010$. Sample size = 346.

Anticipated Socioeconomic Status Discrimination Differences amongst Self-Declared Racial Groups

There are statistically significant differences among racial groups in their anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination ($F(5, 340) = 6.41$, $p < .05$). A Bonferroni post hoc test was conducted to assess the differences between specific groups and the African/Black racial group was utilized as the reference group as it demonstrated at least one statistically significant relationship with other racial groups. The post hoc analysis revealed no statistically significant difference between African/Black, Indian, Coloured and Mixed-Race racial groups. However, students who self-identified as African/Black (2.92 ± 1.13, $p < .05$, CI 2.73, 3.11]) expected more SES discrimination in their future workplaces than their White/Caucasian counterparts did (2.24 ± 1.08, $p < .05$, CI [2.04, 2.43]). Concerning the assumption of homogeneity of variance, this ANOVA analysis illustrates that Levene's test is non-significant and therefore met (Garson, 2012).

Willingness to Settle for Lower Earnings Differences Amongst Faculties

There is a statistically significant difference between the various faculty groups in relation to their willingness to settle for lower earnings ($F(5, 340) = 2.94$, $p < .05$). A Bonferroni post hoc

test was conducted to assess the differences between specific groups and the Commerce faculty was utilized as the reference group once again. The post hoc analysis revealed no statistically significant differences between Commerce, Law, Humanities, Engineering and the Built Environment and the Science faculties. However, it is seen that Commerce (1.35 ± .34, $p < .05$, CI [1.28, 1.42]) students are statistically significantly less likely to settle for lower earnings than Health Science (1.54 ± .36, $p < .05$, CI [1.45, 1.63]) students. Concerning the assumption of homogeneity of variance, this ANOVA analysis illustrates that Levene's test is non-significant and therefore met (Garson, 2012).

Discussion

This study assessed whether previous literature on students' employment expectations in relation to their anticipated socioeconomic discrimination held within a South African context. Previous literature illustrated that students' SESs impact their earnings expectations and employment expectations, with low SES students expecting lower earnings and a longer period of unemployment upon graduation (Eliophotou & Pashourtidoub, 2017). A literature search on the topic revealed that a gap exists in the literature and that this gap pertains to whether a student's anticipated socioeconomic discrimination and willingness to settle for lower earnings differs based on their SES. Furthermore, as a relationship exists between SES and personality disposition (Chapman et al., 2010), core self-evaluation was included as a potential moderator in the current study as it was noted in the literature as an understudied personality trait in the realm of career expectations (Stumpp et al., 2010).

In assessing these relationships to advocate for work free of discrimination in South Africa, some hypotheses were supported while others were not. These findings are discussed below in relation to Bandura's (1977) SCLT. It is important to note that this study assessed core self-evaluation in two different ways. First, core self-evaluation was assessed as a control variable with the ability to significantly predict 1) earnings expectations 2) employment expectations 3) anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination and 4) willingness to settle for lower earnings. Second, core self-evaluation was investigated as a potential moderator on the relationship between students' SESs and their 1) earnings expectations 2) employment expectations 3) anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination and 4) willingness to settle for lower earnings. Core self-evaluation will therefore be discussed separately below.

Socioeconomic Status, Earnings Expectations and Anticipated Discrimination

Earnings Expectations

This study hypothesized that students' SESs significantly predict their earnings expectations. This hypothesis was evaluated, and additional analyses were performed where new research questions arose. It was found that SES does not significantly predict students' earnings expectations and therefore no conclusive inferences could be drawn as the two concepts did not significantly correlate. This non-significant result was unexpected as Bandura's (1977) SCLT suggests that individuals' expectations are based upon their current situation and environmental conditions (Nabavi, 2012).

It is important to note that that non-significant results can arise due to various reasons. These reasons include the absence of an effect, evidence in the given sample not being strong enough, the effect could be so close to zero that it may be considered negligent or absent, design choice and sample size (Mehler et al., 2019). Concerning a non-significant result being due to an effect that is close to zero or completely absent, it may be helpful for researchers to compute the statistical power of the model and the utilized sample size (Mehler et al., 2019). This is relevant as the statistical power refers to the probability that a significant result for a particular effect size truly exists (Mehler et al., 2019). Mehler et al. (2019) state that many studies within the Psychology realm do not achieve the recommended 80-90% statistical power, yet obtain a significant result, illustrating that a non-significant result does not indicate that an effect is absent, rather it may have simply been overlooked. In assessing the ability of students' SESs to predict their earnings expectations, the likelihood of falsely accepting the null hypothesis was illustrated to be high via a power analysis. However, the power analysis illustrated that even if the hypothesis was significant, the effect size does not meet the required threshold to even be considered 'very small'. It is therefore likely that no effect exists here. However, future researchers should investigate this.

Furthermore, concerning the sample of the study, 346 participants met the requirements of the current research design, making this an unlikely explanation for the non-significant result obtained. Furthermore, insufficient evidence in the given sample may still be a potential explanation. This could be due to the context of the study as this research has been understudied within the South African context. For example, Eliophotou and Pashourtidoub (2017) conducted their study on students' earnings and employment expectations in Cyprus, a country in which the unemployment rate is rapidly decreasing and had a statistic of 7,27% in the year 2020 when this research was conducted (Pletcher, 2020). On the other hand, South Africa's unemployment rate is drastically increasing and had a statistic of 28,18% in the year 2020 (Pletcher, 2020). As Eliophotou and Pashourtidoub (2017) argued that student's willingness to settle for lower earnings may have impacted their earning and employment expectations, as this study will later illustrate is the case, students in South Africa's earning expectations may differ to other contexts due to the high unemployment rate and necessity to settle for lower earnings to survive. This is specifically seen as Van Aardt (2012) brought to light the high youth unemployment rate in South Africa and Shade and Jacobson (2015) stated that students are often willing to work in unpaid jobs to gain experience and entry into the labour force. South African students' earning expectations may

therefore differ from the earning expectations of students entering the labour market in other countries, leading to a lack of evidence in the given sample.

Furthermore, concerning the research design of the study potentially leading to the non-significant result, future researchers may be able to improve on the current findings. For example, in measuring students' earnings expectations, the current study's results could have been impacted by South Africa's high and rapidly increasing inflation rate (Alexander et al., 2015) which was not a part of the earnings expectations calculation in this particular study. Furthermore, the study was conducted at a South African university, however, was not limited to South African students, potentially allowing foreign students' earning expectations to impact the results. This is substantiated as Giddy et al. (2017) conducted weather-related research within South Africa and concluded that many exchange students formed a part of their sample, potentially influencing their research result as they may have become accustomed to their new environment, however, still experience it differently to local individuals. Nilsson and Ripmeester (2016) additionally stated that international students have differing earning and career expectations.

Concerning the differing career expectations which may have impacted the results in the current study, it is important to note the effect that the covid-19 pandemic may have had on the result obtained. For example, Aucejo et al. (2020) illustrated that students anticipated earnings expectations were 2,7% less than reported in previous years. Therefore, although non-significant, the result in the current study could have been impacted by the covid-19 pandemic. Furthermore, Aucejo et al.'s (2020) study was conducted in the United States and not in South Africa, and this may explain the differing earnings expectations in the South African student population, confounding variables and the appearance of a lack of information in the population, leading to non-significant results.

Unlike SES, however, additional analyses revealed that nature of permanent residence, core self-evaluation, faculty, highest level of education and employment expectations were significant control predictors of South African students' earnings expectations. This is in line with Bandura's (1977) SCLT as personal factors and environmental factors impact individuals' expectations (Nabavi, 2012). Concerning the ability of nature of permanent residence and faculty to predict students' earnings expectations, additional analyses allowed for more in-depth findings. Concerning nature of permanent residence (urban versus rural groupings of students), South

African students living in rural areas had higher earnings expectations. As not much previous research is available on this topic, this should be investigated further by future researchers.

Furthermore, concerning the ability of faculty to significantly predict students' earnings expectations, Arcidiacono et al. (2012) illustrated that students' earnings expectations differ across major-career choices. In the current study, Commerce students had higher earnings expectations than their counterparts in Law, Humanities, Engineering and the Built Environment, Science and the Health Sciences. However, this finding was not significant when comparing Commerce students' earnings expectations to their counterparts in Law and Engineering and the Built Environment and more research is needed to investigate those specific group differences. For the significant relationships, the confidence intervals reveal that we can be 95% certain that Commerce students expect higher earnings than the Humanities, Science and Health Sciences faculties. This is congruent with Westerman et al.'s (2012) findings that Commerce students are increasingly displaying more narcissistic behavioural traits, specifically in comparison to previously graduated Commerce students and Psychology students, leading to their higher career expectations which are inclusive of anticipated salary. This is in line with Bandura's (1977) SCLT as cognition impacts behaviour and expectations (Nabavi, 2012).

Anticipated SES Discrimination

Although this study did not find that SES significantly predicts earnings expectations, it was still found that students' SESs significantly predicted their anticipated socioeconomic discrimination. This held true even when the control variables race, employment expectations and core self-evaluation were taken into account. Furthermore, it was found that amongst these concepts, core self-evaluation was the largest predictor of South African students' levels of anticipated socioeconomic discrimination. As anticipated socioeconomic discrimination is an under-researched area in literature, previous findings cannot be contrasted to the findings of the current study. However, this study aims to support Eliophotou and Pashourtidoub's (2017) theorization that low SES students are anticipating SES discrimination in their future workplaces. How they anticipate this discrimination is yet to be explored in future literature.

However, the relationship between SES and anticipated socioeconomic discrimination is not a new concept. Peterman (2018) argued that there is wide-spread socioeconomic discrimination in various spheres of low SES individuals' lives, including in education, housing, voting, customer discrimination and employment. Employers often indirectly discriminate against a potential

employee based upon their SES by judging these individuals on the way that they talk, walk or dress (Peterman, 2018). Here, it is important to note that SCLT (Bandura, 1977) posits that vicarious experiences of other's consequences play a role in cognition and behaviour (Nabavi, 2012). Therefore, it makes sense that this study found race and employment expectations to be predictors of anticipated socioeconomic discrimination as well and that race is as strong a predictor of anticipated socioeconomic discrimination as SES is. Employment expectations are additionally substantiated as a predictor of anticipated socioeconomic discrimination as low SES individuals may not have access to certain jobs due to issues such as a lack of personal transport, leading to negative employment expectations. Many employers additionally request that an individual have a vehicle, blocking low SES individuals from entering into certain jobs (Peterman, 2018).

Furthermore, although Peterman (2018) argued that socioeconomic discrimination is not solely linked to race and that employers often prejudge physical appearances such as stained, missing or broken teeth as well, race was found to significantly predict students' anticipated socioeconomic discrimination in the current study. Additional analyses revealed that African/Black South African presented more anticipated socioeconomic discrimination than students forming a part of the following groups: White/Caucasian, Indian, Coloured, Asian and Mixed Race, with the largest group differences arising between Black/Africans in comparison to Asians and White/Caucasians. The least group differences arose between Black/Africans and Coloureds as they had similar anticipated socioeconomic discrimination. However, the post hoc analysis revealed that this finding in racial group differences was only significant between African/Blacks and White/Caucasians, warranting further research on the specific difference between the rest of the groups.

Socioeconomic Status, Employment Expectations and Willingness to Settle

Employment Expectations

It was hypothesized that students' socioeconomic statuses significantly predict their employment expectations. This hypothesis was evaluated, and additional analyses were performed where new research questions arose. SES was found to be a non-significant predictor of students' employment expectations when the control variables core self-evaluation and willingness to settle for lower earnings were taken into account. Here, it is noteworthy that Nabavi (2012) stated that self-efficacy causally influences expected outcomes, potentially explaining why the control variables core self-evaluation and willingness to settle led to SES being a non-significant predictor.

This strengthens the argument that future research should assess the impact of personality disposition on students' career expectations, potentially a moderating one. This is relevant as Chapman et al. (2010) illustrated a relationship between SES and personality traits while Stumpp et al (2010) noted the relationship between core self-evaluation and career success.

Furthermore, concerning the ability of the control variable willingness to settle for lower earnings to significantly predict students' employment expectations, it is firstly important to note that Eliophotou and Pashourtidoub (2017) did not find a significant relationship between students' SESs and employment expectations in the first place. These researchers proposed that this may have been due to low SES students' being willing to settle for lower earnings and therefore not waiting on a higher-reward job to come along (Eliophotou & Pashourtidoub, 2017). The current study found that students' SESs were not able to significantly predict their employment expectations when core self-evaluation and willingness to settle for lower earnings were considered. Willingness to settle may therefore play a role in the ability of students' SESs to predict their employment expectations. While this study examined whether students' SESs are linked to their willingness to settle for lower earnings, it did not examine willingness to settle for lower earnings as a moderator between SES and employment expectations, which is a question now posed to future researchers.

Furthermore, the inability of SES to significantly predict a student's employment expectations when their core self-evaluation and willingness to settle for lower earnings are taken into account could be due to the time context in which the current research was conducted. Here, it is necessary to note that this study found that South African students' SESs are significantly able to predict their willingness to settle for lower earnings. This aligns with SCLT's (Bandura, 1977) proposition that individuals' expectations may be impacted by their behavioural decisions. This supports Eliophotou and Pashourtidoub's (2017) proposal that lower SES students are more likely to settle for lower earnings than their higher SES counterparts.

This study was conducted during both a South African economic downturn and the covid-19 pandemic. This is relevant as Oluwajoduet al. (2015) noted that the graduate unemployment rate was already on the incline while Mahmud et al. (2020) state that many individuals lost their jobs specifically due to the covid-19 pandemic, leading to increased anxiety around economic survival. During this pandemic, many students either suffered from reduced wages, a lost job, a lost job/internship offer, a family member experiencing a reduction in wages or a retrenched family

member (Aucejo et al., 2020). The students in Aucejo et al.'s (2020) study furthermore presented an almost 20% decrease in expectations of finding a job before graduation. Students' employment expectations may therefore have been drastically altered due to the pandemic. These expectations may furthermore have been altered due to personality factors and willingness to settle for lower earnings in the context of high unemployment and a country undergoing economic anxiety. Low SES students may therefore be even more likely to settle for lower earnings under the context as their employment expectations levels could be altered.

In addition, through a statistical analysis of power in the current study, it was found that the probability that the hypothesis was falsely rejected is reasonably big. If the hypothesis was falsely rejected, the size of the relationship between students' SES and employment expectations is very small in size. However, due to this being an under-researched area in literature, future researchers should replicate this finding to rule out potential contextual influences.

Willingness to Settle for Lower Earnings

It is important to note that SES significantly predicted willingness to settle for lower earnings and that this held true when control variables (faculty, employment expectations and core self-evaluation) were considered. Student's employment expectation levels were therefore additionally seen to have the ability to predict their willingness to settle for lower earnings. This relationship between South African students' employment expectations (expectation) and willingness to settle (behaviour) may therefore be a reciprocal relationship, which is supported SCLT (Bandura, 1977) as cognitions and behaviours influence one another (Nabavi, 2012). Employment expectations was additionally found to be as approximately big a predictor of students' willingness to settle for lower earnings as their SES was. Therefore, as students anticipate that they will suffer longer periods of unemployment, their willingness to settle for lower earnings increases.

As one of the control variables entered into the analysis of the relationship between students' SESs and their willingness to settle for lower earnings, faculty is seen to have the largest predictive power of students' willingness to settle. An additional analysis was performed to assess the specific differences between the various faculty groups. It was found that Commerce students were less likely to settle for lower earnings than students who formed a part of the Law, Humanities, Engineering and the Built Environment, Science and Health Sciences faculties. However, it is important to note that this study only provided statistically significant results for

Commerce students being less willing to settle for lower earnings than students in the Health Sciences faculty. Additional research needs to be conducted to ascertain whether these differences all hold. Furthermore, this aligns with the above finding that Commerce students anticipate higher earnings. Therefore, students who form a part of the Commerce faculty anticipate both higher earnings and are less willing to settle for lower earnings.

Core Self-Evaluation

Core Self-Evaluation as a Predictor

Core self-evaluation was added as a control predictor in all of the regressions ran as these analyses assessed whether SES predicted the various career expectations. Core self-evaluation was considered a potential control variable in all regressions as the literature review above revealed that personality factors influence career expectations (Chapman et al., 2015). Overall, core self-evaluation was found to significantly predict students' earnings expectations, employment expectations, anticipated socioeconomic discrimination and willingness to settle for lower earnings. Core self-evaluation was found to be the largest predictor of students' earnings expectations in comparison to SES, faculty, nature of permanent residence, employment expectations and highest level of education. It was found to be the largest predictor of students' employment expectations in comparison to SES and willingness to settle for lower earnings. In comparison to SES and employment expectations, core self-evaluation was found to be the largest predictor of anticipated socioeconomic discrimination as well. However, concerning students' willingness to settle for lower earnings, core self-evaluation was found to be the second-largest predictor in comparison to SES, faculty and employment expectations, with faculty being the largest predictor of students' willingness to settle for lower earnings. Core self-evaluation was therefore found to be a good predictor of students' career expectations.

Core Self-Evaluation as a Moderator

This study assessed whether core self-evaluation significantly moderated the above-discussed relationships, specifically those between a student's SES and their 1) earnings expectations 2) employment expectations 3) anticipated socioeconomic discrimination and 4) willingness to settle for lower earnings. This potentially moderating relationship was assessed as an individual's personality dispositions, including locus of control and self-efficacy has been shown in the above-mentioned literature to relate to students' SESs have upon their achievements and anticipated successes.

Core self-evaluation was found to significantly and negatively moderate the relationship between a student's SES and earnings expectations, as well as between students' SES and willingness to settle for lower earnings. The more a student's SES increases, the more negative the effect of their core self-evaluation their earnings expectations and willingness to settle for lower earnings become. Therefore, as students' core self-evaluations increased, the effect of their SES on their earnings expectations and willingness to settle for lower earnings decreased. This means that students' with higher levels of core self-evaluation are slightly less likely to have differences in their SES impact these two career expectations. Core self-evaluation may therefore play a role in overcoming SES disadvantages to a certain extent. It is important to note that while the moderation between students' SES and earnings expectations was sizeable, the moderation effect between students' SES and willingness to settle was small.

This study found an inability of core self-evaluation to significantly moderate the relationships between students' SESs and their employment expectations and anticipated socioeconomic discrimination. This illustrates that students with increased levels of core self-evaluation are not more likely to expect employment sooner, nor are they likely to anticipate less socioeconomic discrimination upon entry into the workplace.

However, it is important to note that a non-significant result may be due to a lack of sufficient evidence in a sample (Mehler et al.'s, 2019). Furthermore, research design or the absence of an effect may be the cause of the non-significant result obtained as well (Mehler et al., 2019). Therefore, the inability of core self-evaluation to moderate the relationship between students' SESs and their employment expectations and anticipated socioeconomic discrimination could be due to the relationship between core self-evaluation and the ongoing covid-19 pandemic. For example, AlAteeq et al. (2020) argued that covid-19 led to increased levels of stress in students, especially via a change to online learning, which is the case at the university in the current study. Relatedly, Shields et al. (2016) noted that stress may lead to personality changes, which is relative to the construct core self-evaluation. This is one example of how the covid-19 context of the study could have impacted students' core self-evaluations. As the potential ability of core self-evaluation to moderate students' SES and various expectations was new territory in literature, this relationship could be further examined under different conditions to solidify or improve upon the current study's findings.

Theoretical Contributions and Practical Implications

This research aimed to deepen the understanding of students' career expectations, specifically concerning their SESs. This was deemed as relevant and necessary research to shed light on anticipated discrimination in the workplace in South Africa, which Cohen and Moodley (2012) illustrated as currently lacking. This research furthermore expanded upon Eliophotou and Pashourtidoub's (2017) study as they theorized that students' earnings and employment expectations may be impacted by their anticipated socioeconomic discrimination and willingness to settle for lower earnings. Although this research did not assess anticipated socioeconomic discrimination and willingness to settle for lower earnings as moderators, it contributed to literature by illustrating that lower SES students are, as hypothesized, more likely to anticipate socioeconomic status discrimination and settle for lower earnings.

This research has various practical implications. The results of this study indicate that South African students are anticipating socioeconomic status discrimination in their future workplaces. Students with lower SESs are potentially anticipating lower earnings, longer unemployment spells and were found to be more willing to settle for lower earnings than their high SES counterparts. Considering that Nabavi et al. (2012) argued that socioeconomic discrimination in the workplace occurs via indirect cognitions and behaviours, this research aimed to shed light on students' expectations of employment discrimination. Findings from this study should enable organizations to better adapt their policies and practices, improving anticipated SES discrimination in the workplace. This should, in turn, signal ethicality to job seekers, increasing employers' reputations and improving their talent pool. This is based on job seekers being more likely to apply for a job at an organization with an ethical CEO than an organization with a morally questionable one (Ogunfowora, 2014).

Furthermore, the finding that students' with higher levels of core self-evaluation were increasingly likely to have a reduced effect of their SES on their earnings expectations and willingness to settle for lower earnings illustrating the need for programmes to increase core self-evaluations. These programmes could take place in low SES communities, educational institutions and the workplace in order to increase core self-evaluations, most importantly among low SES groups in relation to their career expectations and potentially aspirations.

Limitations

The literature on South African students' career expectations in relation to their SES remains an understudied topic. This is an important space to fill to advocate for work which is free from discrimination. The current study, however, is not without limitations. Non-probability sampling poses the risk of potentially skewing the data (Li & Walejko, 2008) due to potentially shared characteristics among participants at the single, specified university in South Africa. In addition, although partially overcome by the current researcher, due to the current study's literature search revealing that the variables under study are under-researched, a lack of well-known and reliable measures was evident. Singh et al. (2017) illustrated that various measures of SES take into account one, a few or all of the following variables: education, income, occupation, material possessions, land, caste, house, farm power, family type and social participation. Although the SES measurement tool in the current study was substantiated, including more SES indicators may have led to a more comprehensive measure.

Furthermore, Alexander et al. (2015) illustrated that the inflation rate in South Africa is high and rapidly rising. Inflation could therefore have been considered in the measurement of students' earnings expectations. However, this would have required the expertise of an economist and was therefore not realistic in relation to the budget and timeframe of the current researcher's project.

Suggestions for Future Research

Future researchers could examine the ability of students' SESs to predict their earnings expectations with a wider-reaching sample and a more valuable sampling strategy. Researchers could additionally make use of a more reputable and comprehensive SES measure with more indicators of students' SES. Future researchers could additionally consider the impacts of inflation when measuring students' SES.

Furthermore, in relation to the relationships that future researchers may explore, the following research could be conducted, the relationship between students' earnings expectations and their nature of permanent residence could be further investigated as it has above been illustrated that house and land are often utilized as predictors of SES. This study has furthermore illustrated that South African students living in rural areas possess higher earnings expectations. As not much previous research is available on this topic, this could be further investigated by future researchers. The following relationships could be explored as well, as stemming from this research: the impact of contextual influences, such as a high unemployment rate, upon students' willingness to settle for lower earnings; the ability of willingness to settle for lower earnings to moderate the relationship between SES and earnings expectations; the ability of anticipated socioeconomic discrimination to moderate the relationship between SES and employment expectations; the impact of additional personality disposition measures on students' career expectations;; the relationship that faculty has with earnings expectations and willingness to settle for lower earnings. Furthermore, while this study examined whether students' SES are linked to their willingness to settle for lower earnings, it did not examine willingness to settle for lower earnings as a moderator between SES and employment expectations, which is a question now posed to future researchers.

Conclusion

This study aimed to investigate the ability of students' SESs to predict their career expectations. This was aimed at advocating for work free from anticipated and actual SES discrimination in South Africa. These career expectations spanned students' earnings expectations, employment expectations, anticipated socioeconomic status discrimination and willingness to settle for lower earnings. It was found that students' SESs were able to significantly predict their anticipated socioeconomic discrimination and willingness to settle for lower earnings. However, students' SESs were not able to significantly predict their earnings expectations and employment in the current study when control variables were taken into account. It was additionally found that the personality disposition construct, core self-evaluation, significantly predicts South African students' earnings expectations, employment expectations, anticipated socioeconomic discrimination and willingness to settle for lower earnings. Core self-evaluation was additionally found to significantly moderate the relationship between students' SESs and their earnings expectations and willingness to settle for lower earnings. Additional analyses were conducted where further questions arose and limitations and recommendations for future research were provided to advocate for further research on the topic.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Figure A

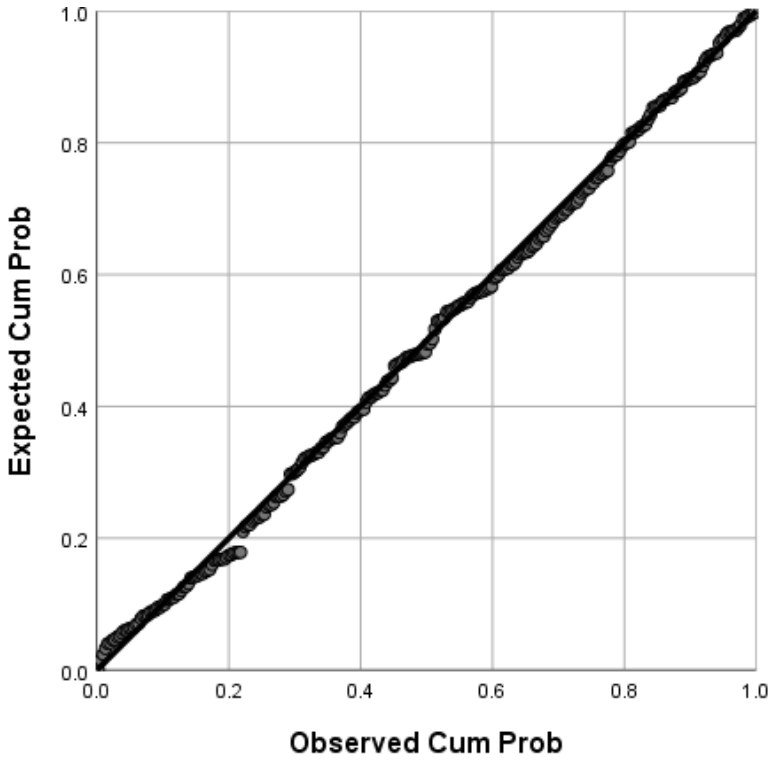

Figure 5A. Multivariate Normality of Expected Lifetime Earnings Regression Analysis.

Appendix 1

Figure B

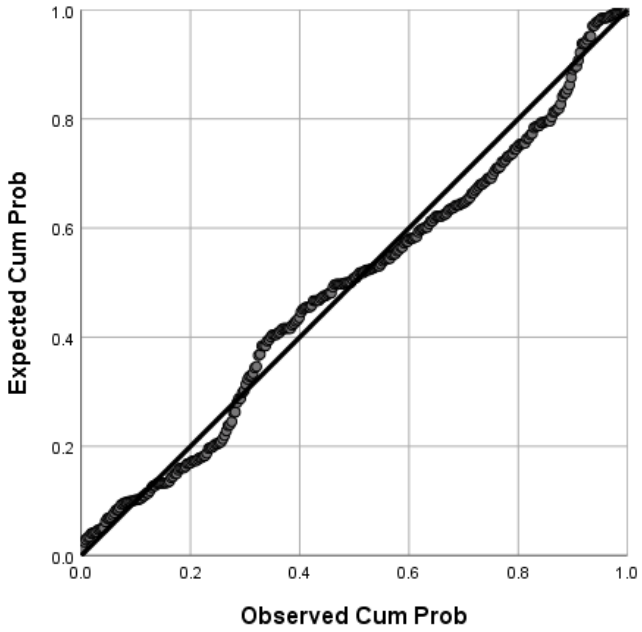

Figure 5B. Multivariate Normality of Employment Expectations Regression Analysis.

Appendix 1

Figure C

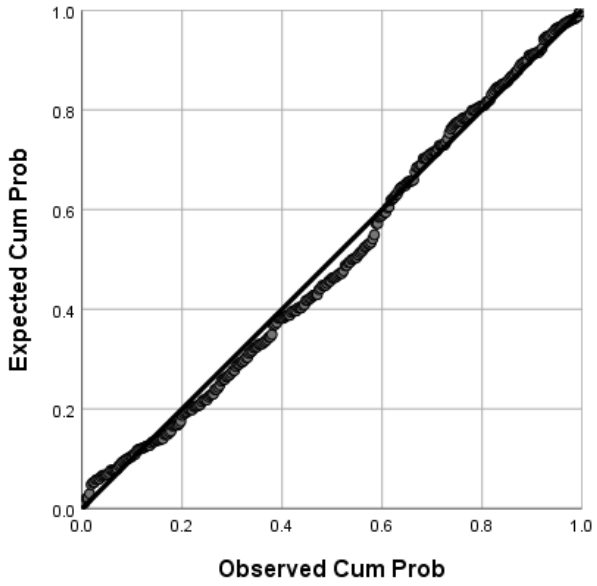

Figure 5C. Multivariate Normality of Anticipated Socioeconomic Status Discrimination Regression Analysis

Appendix 1

Figure D

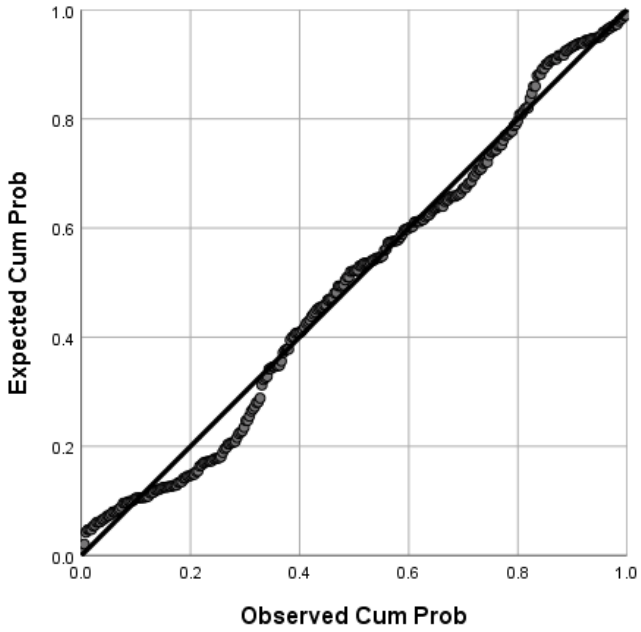

Figure 5D. Multivariate Normality of Willingness to Settle for Lower Earnings Regression Analysis

Appendix 2

Figure A

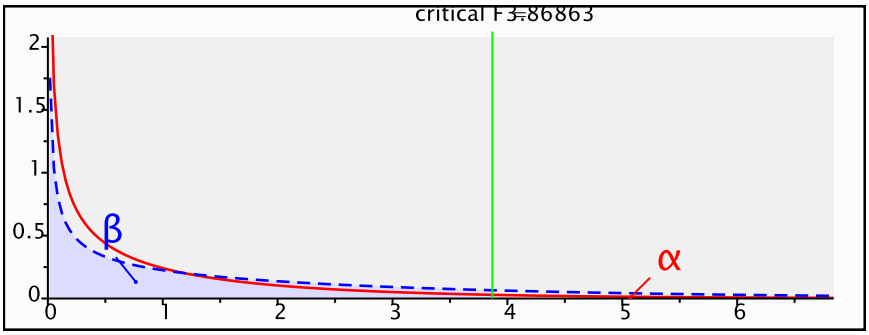

Figure 3A. Power Analysis using G*Power: The Ability of students' SES to significantly predict their Expected Lifetime Earnings.

Appendix 3

Figure A

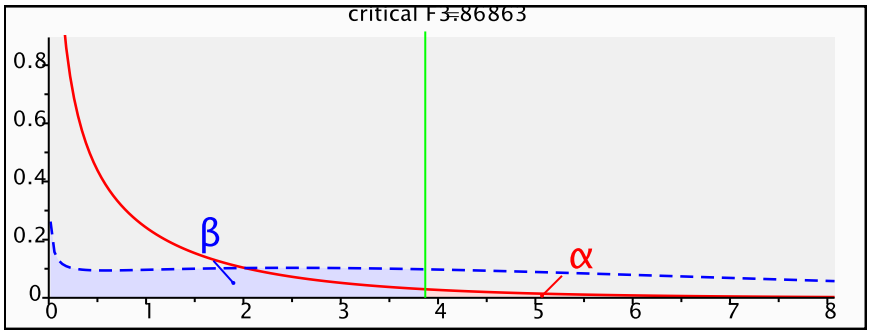

Figure 4A. Power Analysis using G*Power: The Ability of students' SES to significantly predict their Employment Expectations.