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# Interview Impression Management: Examining the use, effectiveness, and longitudinal relationships

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Interview Impression Management: Examining the use, effectiveness, and  
longitudinal relationships

by

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A THESIS

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## Abstract

Impression management, which consists of tactics that are used to control one's image, have been found to impact rater evaluations such as interview performance ratings. Despite decades of research, there has yet to be an integrated model of interview IM effectiveness that incorporates both antecedent factors of *who* is more likely to engage in IM, and the mechanism by which IM impacts evaluations – attributions. I also examined the role of the important novel factors of executive functioning and incongruity. The proposed model was tested across two studies: one using a field sample, and one laboratory sample. In Study 1, interviewees in a business school setting completed self-report surveys, and interviewer ratings were obtained ( $N = 166$ ). In Study 2, job-seeking adults ( $N = 294$ ) completed self-report surveys, and interviews using asynchronous video interview technology. Deceptive and honest IM were found to have distinct antecedents, suggesting that it is important to differentiate between the two broad dimensions of interview IM. Moreover, attributions were found to be a significant mediator on the relationship between IM tactic usage and interview performance evaluations. Although there was support found for the assertion that individual characteristics influenced the use of IM, there was, however, no support for the assertion that these individual characteristics influenced the effectiveness of IM. That is, the individual characteristics did not moderate the relationship between IM use and attributions or performance. Thus, the integrated moderated mediation model of IM effectiveness, in which IM influences performance ratings through attributions, and the relationship between IM and attributions is moderated by individual characteristics, was not supported. Finally, there were significant, longitudinal associations between honest and deceptive IM in the interview, and later workplace behaviors and outcomes. Theoretical and practical implications of these findings are discussed.

## Acknowledgements

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## Table of Contents

|   |             |
|---|-------------|
| <b>Abstract.....</b>  | <b>ii</b>   |
| <b>Acknowledgements .....</b>   | <b>iii</b>  |
| <b>List of Tables .....</b>   | <b>vii</b>  |
| <b>List of Figures.....</b>   | <b>viii</b> |
| <b>Chapter 1: Introduction .....</b>  | <b>1</b>    |
| <b>Chapter 2: Theoretical Background .....</b>                              | <b>6</b>    |
| Defining and Conceptualizing IM in the Interview .....                      | 6           |
| Defining and Conceptualizing IM in the Workplace .....                      | 8           |
| Theoretical Models of IM .....  | 9           |
| Models of IM Antecedents.....   | 9           |
| Impacts of IM on Outcomes .....   | 10          |
| Integrated Model of IM Use and Effectiveness in the Interview .....         | 11          |
| Antecedents of Interview IM Use .....                                       | 12          |
| Defining IM Effectiveness: IM’s Effect on Interview Performance .....       | 22          |
| Distinguishing Between Honest and Deceptive IM.....                         | 23          |
| Intermediary Process of Attributions .....                                  | 24          |
| Individual Differences in IM Effectiveness.....                             | 27          |
| Theoretical Basis for Understanding IM Effectiveness .....                  | 27          |
| Actor Personality on IM Effectiveness .....                                 | 28          |
| Honesty-Humility. ....  | 30          |
| Extraversion. ....  | 32          |
| Actor cognitive processing. ....  | 33          |
| Inhibition.....   | 34          |
| Working memory.....   | 35          |
| Shifting.....   | 36          |
| Incongruency.....   | 37          |
| Longitudinal Associations of IM with Workplace Behaviors and Outcomes ..... | 38          |
| Interview IM and Workplace IM .....   | 39          |
| Interview IM and Workplace Outcomes.....                                    | 40          |
| Organizational outcomes .....   | 42          |
| Individual Outcomes.....  | 43          |

|   |            |
|---|------------|
| Summary .....   | 44         |
| <b>Chapter 3: Study 1 .....</b>                                 | <b>46</b>  |
| Methods: Part 1 - Interview Data.....                           | 46         |
| Participants and procedure .....                                | 46         |
| Measures – Interviewee Data.....                                | 47         |
| Measures – Interviewer Data .....                               | 49         |
| Methods: Part 2 - Follow-up Longitudinal Data.....              | 50         |
| Participants and procedure .....                                | 50         |
| Measures .....  | 50         |
| Results: Study 1 .....  | 52         |
| Data Quality .....  | 52         |
| Factor analysis .....   | 52         |
| Testing Hypotheses: Part 1 .....                                | 56         |
| Deceptive and Honest IM Antecedents.....                        | 56         |
| IM Relationship to Attributions and Interview Performance ..... | 60         |
| Moderated Mediation Model of IM Effectiveness.....              | 64         |
| Supplemental Analyses.....                                      | 65         |
| Study 1 Part 2.....   | 70         |
| Interview IM and Workplace IM .....                             | 70         |
| Interview IM and Workplace Outcomes.....                        | 71         |
| Summary of Study 1 Results.....                                 | 75         |
| <b>Chapter 4: Study 2 .....</b>                                 | <b>77</b>  |
| Methods.....  | 79         |
| Sample and Procedure.....                                       | 79         |
| Measures .....  | 80         |
| Results: Study 2 .....  | 83         |
| Data Quality .....  | 83         |
| Factor Analysis .....   | 83         |
| IM Relationship to Attributions and Interview Performance ..... | 91         |
| Moderated Mediation Model .....                                 | 95         |
| Supplemental Analyses.....                                      | 95         |
| Summary of Study 2 Results.....                                 | 99         |
| <b>Chapter 5: Discussion .....</b>                              | <b>103</b> |
| Antecedents of Honest and Deceptive IM .....                    | 103        |

|  |            |
|--|------------|
| Personality Antecedents.....   | 104        |
| Cognitive and Motivational Antecedents.....  | 107        |
| Summary .....  | 110        |
| IM Effectiveness .....   | 111        |
| Role of Attributions .....   | 111        |
| Individual Characteristics on IM Effectiveness .....   | 113        |
| Summary .....  | 117        |
| Interview IM and Its Impact on Workplace IM and Outcomes .....                                     | 118        |
| Interview IM and Workplace IM .....  | 118        |
| Interview IM and Workplace Outcomes.....   | 120        |
| Summary .....  | 123        |
| Implications.....  | 124        |
| Strengths, Limitations and Future Directions .....   | 127        |
| Conclusion .....   | 129        |
| <b>References.....</b>   | <b>131</b> |
| Appendix A: Revised Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986) .....                         | 151        |
| Appendix B: HEXACO-PI-R (Lee & Ashton, 2018) .....   | 152        |
| Appendix C: Interview Faking Behavior Scale (Levashina & Campion, 2007) .....                      | 156        |
| Appendix D: Honest Impression Management Scale (Bourdage et al., 2018) .....                       | 159        |
| Appendix E: International Cognitive Ability Resource (ICAR; Condon & Revelle, 2014) .....          | 161        |
| Appendix F: Incongruency on HEXACO (Lee & Ashton, 2004) .....                                      | 163        |
| Appendix G: Attributions .....   | 164        |
| Appendix H: Overall Interview Performance .....  | 165        |
| Appendix I: Impression Management Scale (Bolino & Turnley, 1999).....                              | 166        |
| Appendix J: OCB Scale Lee & Allen (2002).....  | 167        |
| Appendix K: CWB (Bennett & Robinson, 2000) .....   | 168        |
| Appendix L: Job Satisfaction (Judge, Bono, & Locke, 2000; adapted from Brayfield-Rothe (1951)..... | 169        |
| Appendix M: P-O and P-J Fit (Higgins & Judge, 2004).....   | 170        |
| Appendix N: Turnover Intentions (adapted from Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991) .....                   | 171        |
| Appendix O: AVI Job Description .....  | 172        |
| Appendix P: AVI Interview Instructions and Questions & Rubric .....                                | 173        |

## List of Tables

|  |     |
|--|-----|
| Table 1: <i>A summary of IM tactics in the interview and workplace</i> .....                             | 6   |
| Table 2: <i>IM tactics and their related positive and negative attributions</i> .....                    | 26  |
| Table 3: <i>Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model Fit Results in Study 1</i> .....                          | 53  |
| Table 4: <i>Exploratory Factor Analysis IM Tactics in Study 1</i> .....                                  | 54  |
| Table 5: <i>Exploratory Factor Analysis Interview Performance Items in Study 1</i> .....                 | 55  |
| Table 6: <i>Exploratory Factor Analysis Attribution Items in Study 1</i> .....                           | 56  |
| Table 7: <i>Means and standard deviations of Study 1 variables</i> .....                                 | 58  |
| Table 8: <i>Hierarchical regressions for predicting incremental deceptive IM usage in Study 1</i> .....  | 59  |
| Table 9: <i>Hierarchical regressions for predicting incremental honest IM usage in Study 1</i> .....     | 60  |
| Table 10: <i>Means and standard deviations of Study 1 part 2 variables</i> .....                         | 72  |
| Table 11: <i>Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model Fit Results in Study 2</i> .....                         | 83  |
| Table 12: <i>Exploratory Factor Analysis IM Tactics in Study 2</i> .....                                 | 84  |
| Table 13: <i>Exploratory Factor Analysis Interview Performance Items in Study 2</i> .....                | 85  |
| Table 14: <i>Exploratory Factor Analysis Attribution Items in Study 2</i> .....                          | 86  |
| Table 15: <i>Means, Standard Deviations, and Between-Subject Effects of Rater 1 and Rater 2</i> .....    | 87  |
| Table 16: <i>Means and standard deviations of Study 2 variables</i> .....                                | 89  |
| Table 17: <i>Hierarchical regressions for predicting incremental deceptive IM usage in Study 2</i> ...90 | 90  |
| Table 18: <i>Hierarchical regressions for predicting incremental honest IM usage in Study 2</i> .....    | 91  |
| Table 19: <i>Summary of Hypotheses</i> .....   | 100 |



## List of Figures

|   |    |
|---|----|
| Figure 1: <i>Moderated mediation model of IM use and effectiveness</i> .....                                    | 12 |
| Figure 2: <i>Study 1: Mediation of IM on Interview Performance Through Attributions</i> .....                   | 62 |
| Figure 3: <i>Study 1: Effect of Honest Self-Promotion on Interview Performance Through Attributions</i> .....   | 63 |
| Figure 4: <i>Study 1: Effect of Honest Ingratiation on Interview Performance Through Attributions</i> .....     | 63 |
| Figure 5: <i>Study 1: Moderated Mediation of Honest and Deceptive IM on Interview Performance</i> .....         | 65 |
| Figure 6: <i>Study 1: Indirect Model of Actor Characteristics on Overall Interview Performance</i> .....        | 66 |
| Figure 7: <i>Study 1: Indirect Effect of Honesty-Humility on Overall Interview Performance</i> .....            | 67 |
| Figure 8: <i>Study 1: Indirect Effect of Honesty-Humility on Overall Interview Performance Through IM</i> ..... | 68 |
| Figure 9: <i>Study 1: Indirect Effect of Extraversion on Overall Interview Performance Through IM</i> .....     | 69 |
| Figure 10: <i>Study 1: Indirect Effect of Inhibition on Overall Interview Performance Through IM</i> .....      | 69 |
| Figure 11: <i>Study 2: Mediation of IM on Interview Performance Through Attributions</i> .....                  | 94 |
| Figure 12: <i>Study 2: Effect of Honest Self-Promotion on Interview Performance Through Attributions</i> .....  | 95 |

Figure 13: *Study 2: Indirect Effect of Extraversion on Overall Interview*

*Performance*.....96

Figure 14: *Study 2: Indirect Effect of Self-Monitoring on Overall Interview*

*Performance*.....97

Figure 15: *Study 2: Indirect Effect of Working Memory on Overall Interview*

*Performance*.....98

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

Few hiring practices are as long-standing and ubiquitous as the employment interview. The interview is meant to be a hiring tool to help organizations seek out the most qualified candidates, while simultaneously providing candidates with information about the organization. However, this process of evaluating applicants is not without challenges. One major obstacle to obtaining accurate information is applicant impression management (IM). IM refers to strategies that individuals use to manipulate the image that others hold of them (Jones & Pittman, 1982). For example, applicants may exaggerate or fabricate their job experiences, use compliments to flatter the interviewer, or construct lies to distance themselves from past events (Levashina & Campion, 2007). The use of IM can positively influence the way that an individual is evaluated and is found to impact evaluations in many different contexts, such as interview performance ratings (Bolino et al., 2008), organizational citizenship behavior ratings (OCB; Bolino et al., 2006), job performance (Wayne & Kacmar, 1991), and even board appointments (Westphal & Stern, 2007). This is problematic because not all individuals engage in IM behaviors to the same extent (Levashina & Campion, 2007; Roulin & Bourdage, 2017), and the use of IM by a select few can lead to unfair, unequal distribution of rewards in both the interview and workplace. Therefore, it is important to understand what factors influence the propensity to engage in IM, and what factors influence the effectiveness, or success of these behaviors.

At a broad level, research has examined situational factors and personality traits as antecedents of IM use in the interview. For example, Ellis et al. (2002) found that different interview question types elicited different types of IM tactics. More specifically, situational questions prompted more ingratiation, whereas experience-based questions elicited more self-promotion. In addition, research has found that several personality traits can explain who

engages in IM behavior, and what type of IM they choose to engage in. One example is the study by Roulin and Bourdage (2017), which examined the personality antecedents of IM across different interviews. The researchers found that those high in Extraversion or core self-evaluations engaged in more honest self-promotion consistently across interviews, whereas those low on Honesty-Humility and Conscientiousness tended to use more deceptive IM and were more likely to vary their IM use across interviews.

Despite growing research on applicant characteristics that impact IM use, there are a number of potentially important antecedents that have yet to be investigated: 1) cognitive processing factors, which include cognitive ability and executive functions, and 2) motivational factors, such as the incongruity between one's actual and desired self. While cognitive ability and incongruity have been proposed to be key determinants of IM in theoretical work, empirical work has been nascent, and in the case of incongruity, absent. Moreover, the role of factors like executive functions have been largely missing from IM literature and theory.

Cognitive ability has been examined in a related literature, personality test faking, and has been found to play a role in testing faking. More specifically, when instructed, those who are higher on cognitive ability engaged in more faking than those lower on cognitive ability (Tett et al., 2012). However, research examining cognitive ability in relation to IM use is nascent, and it focused on faking in the interview, or deceptive IM (Buehl & Melchers, 2017). The researchers did find that those higher in cognitive ability were less likely to report engaging in deceptive IM overall ( $r = -.19, p < .001$ ). Despite incongruity being proposed as a theoretical antecedent of IM (Leary & Kowalski, 1990), it has yet to be empirically investigated. Given that the literature surrounding cognitive ability and IM is still nascent, and no studies have examined the role of executive functions nor incongruity between one's current and conveyed

self in IM use, the role of these cognitive processing and motivational factors in the use and effectiveness of IM is important to examine and understand.

One central question that remains unaddressed is: What factors impact the effectiveness of IM behavior? Though research has focused on investigating the factors that influence *when* and *by whom* IM is used, there is a lack of studies examining the factors that impact the effectiveness of such behaviors. When an actor uses a specific tactic, the effectiveness of that tactic should be assessed through how successfully it impacts a target's evaluation of that actor. Jones and Pittman (1982) proposed that each IM tactic may result in dual attributions, such that one can be perceived positively or negatively. For every tactic, there is an intended image that one tries to convey, and an unintended negative image if unsuccessful. For example, an interviewee may use self-promotion with the intention to appear more competent and increase evaluations but may also be perceived as arrogant if unsuccessful. A successful attempt would result in the actor achieving the desired attribution, whereas an unsuccessful attempt may result in the interviewee possibly damaging their reputation. Although these attributions are proposed to play a role in understanding how IM impacts outcomes, and in determining if attempts to use IM are effective (e.g., Jones & Pittman, 1982; Turnley & Bolino, 2001), direct measurement of these attributions has been sparse, and in the context of the interview, absent. Therefore, it is important to consider the factors that influence why some individuals are able to obtain positive attributions whereas others are unable to, and the attributions underlying this phenomenon.

Though preliminary research has examined what individual differences makes an individual more or less effective at using workplace IM (Harris et al., 2007; Treadway et al, 2007), interview IM effectiveness has largely been overlooked. A few studies have examined interview IM effectiveness (Buehl & Melchers, 2017; Buehl et al., 2019), although the studies

conceptualized effectiveness as the within-person mean difference of interview performance between honest and “fake good” conditions. The researchers found that those with higher cognitive ability were able to increase their performance in a subsequent interview when asked to fake. However, IM behavior that naturally occurs in an actual interview is likely to differ from IM behavior when instructed. Overall, there has yet to be a unified investigation of the factors that lead to effective vs. ineffective use of IM.

Finally, there has also been a lack of longitudinal research on interview IM. No published studies have focused on the long-term relationship of interview IM and workplace behaviors and performance, although one unpublished study provides preliminary evidence that this might be important for understanding the long-term effects of IM (Charbonneau, 2018). Barrick et al. (2009) conducted a meta-analysis and found that the relationship between self-presentation and interview performance was significantly different than the relationship between self-presentation and work performance. More specifically, they found that IM tactics were correlated more strongly with interview performance, and much less strongly to job performance. This is in line with the findings of Higgins et al. (2003), who found that though some IM is helpful to increase interview performance, such as self-promotion, it later is hindering on the job. However, the question remains as to whether one’s propensity to engage in IM in the interview translates to increased IM use in the workplace, and if IM use relates to not only interview outcomes, but also workplace outcomes. No studies have, at the time of this dissertation, examined the relationship between honest and deceptive IM use during the interview and subsequent workplace IM and outcomes. These relationships are important to understand because we do not fully understand how IM use in the interview impacts how people behave subsequently at work, and how this impacts their experience at work. Extra-role behaviors such as organizational citizenship

behaviors (OCB) can bolster organizational performance (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997), whereas counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) can negatively impact the organization and the work environment for others (Dunlop & Lee, 2004). Attitudinal factors such as job satisfaction and perceived person-job and person-organization fit impact how an individual feels about their work and can have spill-over effects to other areas of their life, such as marital quality (Lourel et al., 2009).

Given the above, the goal of this dissertation is to propose and test an integrated model of IM use and effectiveness. Antecedents of IM use will be explored, including the novel antecedents of cognitive ability, executive functions, and incongruity. Further, the processes by which IM impacts interview performance, specifically through interviewer attributions, will be tested. In addition, I also propose that applicant personality traits and cognitive and motivational factors will influence not only the frequency with which individuals choose to engage in IM tactics, but also the extent to which these tactics are effective. Specifically, I will test the moderating role of certain applicant characteristics on the relationship between IM and interviewer attributions and evaluations. Finally, the relationship between interview IM and subsequent workplace IM, organizational and individual work outcomes will be examined. To test these propositions, I will conduct a longitudinal follow-up of a subset of that sample. In sum, the present dissertation seeks to enhance our understanding of numerous critical questions around the predictors of IM, when it is effective, and the long-term consequences of such behavior in the selection process across two studies.

## Chapter 2: Theoretical Background

### Defining and Conceptualizing IM in the Interview

Though there are many conceptualizations of IM, the core commonality is that IM tactics are *intentional* behaviors that individuals engage in to attempt to influence the perceptions that others hold of them (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). In this present study, I focus on IM within the interview and workplace contexts. Table 1 depicts a summary of IM tactics in the interview and workplace.

**Table 1**

*A summary of IM tactics in the interview and workplace.*

|           | IM Tactic                | Description  |
|-----------|--------------------------|--|
| Interview | Honest Self-Promotion    | Articulating or promoting skills or qualifications that one does possess                                 |
|           | Honest Ingratiation      | Genuinely complimenting or communicating shared values   |
|           | Honest Defensive Tactics | Distancing oneself from negative events that were not related to the individual                          |
|           | Slight Image Creation    | Exaggerating, embellishing, and tailoring experiences or qualifications to meet interviewer expectations |
|           | Extensive Image Creation | Constructing, borrowing, and inventing experiences or qualifications that one does not have              |
|           | Image Protection         | Distancing oneself from negative events that did occur   |
|           | Deceptive Ingratiation   | Insincerely complimenting or exaggerating one's fit in values with the interviewer or company            |
| Workplace | Self-promotion           | Emphasizing abilities or accomplishments to appear competent   |
|           | Exemplification          | Appear to perform tasks when observed to appear dedicated  |
|           | Ingratiation             | Use flattery or favors to increase likability  |



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|              |  |
|--------------|--|
| Supplication | Advertise shortcomings to appear weak and solicit help from others |
| Intimidation | Appear to have the potential to punish others to appear powerful   |

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*Note.* The interview IM descriptions are obtained from Bourdage et al. (2018) and Levashina and Campion (2007). Workplace IM descriptions are obtained from Bolino and Turnley (1999).

In the interview, there are a number of different ways that applicants can engage in IM. At a broad level, these IM behaviors can be classified as honest or deceptive. Honest IM refers to behaviors that highlight or better communicate qualifications and skills that the individual does possess, while deceptive IM refers to behaviors used to exaggerate or create qualifications that they do not possess. Honest IM has been further conceptualized into three groups of behaviors (Bourdage et al., 2018): 1) Honest self-promotion, 2) Honest ingratiation, and 3) Honest defensive tactics. Honest self-promotion involves articulating or promoting skills or qualifications that one does possess. Honest ingratiation involves genuinely complementing or communicating shared values with the interviewer or organization. Honest defensive tactics involves distancing oneself from negative events that were not related to the individual. Deceptive IM has been conceptualized into four groups of behaviors (Levashina & Campion, 2007): 1) Slight image creation, 2) Extensive image creation, 3) Image protection, and 4) Ingratiation. Image creation refers to behaviors that individuals use to either slightly exaggerate, or extensively fabricate their experiences or qualifications in the interview. Image protection refers to behaviors that distance oneself from, or mask negative experiences in the past. Finally, ingratiation refers to behaviors that individuals use to increase their likability, such as laughing at an interviewer's joke, even when they did not find it funny. It is problematic when IM is used in this way to distort one's true qualifications or experiences, and it is often undetected, which may decrease the validity of interviews (Roulin et al., 2014).

## **Defining and Conceptualizing IM in the Workplace**

In the workplace, IM is widely studied through the taxonomy proposed by Jones and Pittman (1982) which encompasses five different dimensions: 1) self-promotion, whereby individuals emphasize their abilities or accomplishments to appear competent, 2) ingratiation, in which individuals use flattery or favors to increase their likeability by others, 3) exemplification, whereby individuals try to appear dedicated by performing tasks when observed, 4) intimidation, in which individuals try to appear powerful and have the potential to punish others, and 5) supplication, where individuals try to appear weak and advertise their shortcomings in order to solicit help from others.

Past literature has focused mostly on the first two behaviors, finding a varying effect of self-promotion and ingratiation on workplace outcomes. For example, while some studies suggest that self-promotion can result in higher performance ratings (Harris et al., 2007; Turnley & Bolino, 2001), others have found that it may actually hurt job performance ratings (Dulebohn et al., 2004). Similarly, while some studies have found that ingratiation can result in higher task performance ratings (Bolino et al., 2015), a meta-analysis by Higgins et al. (2003) found that there was great variance in the relationship between ingratiation and work outcomes. More specifically, across 50 studies, the 95% credibility interval ranged between -.28 to .74 for ingratiation and work outcomes. This suggests that while ingratiation might have a positive impact on certain outcomes, it may also backfire in other instances.

Less work has focused on intimidation, and supplication, as both these tactics could be associated with less desirable images and, ultimately, may be riskier to engage in. While supplication can help individuals acquire support or avoid an undesirable task, it has also been found to lead to lower performance outcomes (Harris et al., 2007; Kacmar et al., 2013). In the

same vein, while intimidation might be effective in situations that require strong mental and physical exertion as a motivational technique, it can also create negative impressions (Bolino et al., 2016).

### **Theoretical Models of IM**

What motivates individuals to engage in IM behavior, and how does this impact outcomes? While there are several models focusing on understanding why certain individuals may be driven to fake in the interview and several frameworks theorizing how IM can impact outcomes, there has yet to be an integrated model combining antecedents, the intermediary processes in between, and outcomes.

#### ***Models of IM Antecedents***

To better understand IM behavior, it is necessary to understand the factors that contribute to such behaviors. There have been several proposed models of IM antecedents. Snell et al. (1999) proposed in their interactional model of faking that there were two variables influencing successful faking: 1) ability to fake, and 2) motivation to fake. They proposed that individual characteristics like one's disposition, experience, demographics, or perceptual factors, were antecedents of these two variables. Mueller-Hanson et al. (2006) expanded on this model and proposed that there were five factors that influenced one's intentions to fake, which then resulted in faking behavior: 1) perceptions of the situation, 2) willingness to fake, 3) the ability to fake, 4) conscientiousness, and 5) emotional stability. Similarly, Levashina and Campion (2006) proposed in their theoretical model of interview faking likelihood that there are three underlying factors that multiplicatively contribute to deceptive behavior in the interview: 1) capacity to fake, 2) opportunity to fake, and 3) willingness to fake. While opportunity to fake involves mainly situational factors like the type of interview questions, number of interviewers, and the purpose

of the interview, the capacity and willingness to fake is theorized to be influenced by individual characteristics and dispositions such as personality, social skills, cognitive ability, and perceived probability of getting caught. Though these models all provide insight into how certain factors may impact an individual's motivation to engage in IM, notably, there is a lack of focus on the impact of IM on outcomes in these frameworks.

### ***Impacts of IM on Outcomes***

In terms of articulating these mediating mechanisms, the political influence framework (Ferris & Judge, 1991) may explain why IM tactics result in different outcomes. The framework describes three routes through which political behavior or IM may influence evaluations: 1) perceived competency, 2) perceived likability, and 3) perceived similarity. Self-focused tactics, such as honest self-promotion or slight or extensive image creation attempt to exaggerate or draw attention to one's job-related skills and qualifications, and thus may help bolster an image of competency. In contrast, other-focused IM tactics, such as honest or deceptive ingratiation, try to create a likable image, and thus may not directly increase job-related evaluations of the individual. A candidate could also use a combination of tactics to attempt to simultaneously inflate ratings of both likability and competency to increase the likelihood they receive good evaluation ratings. Indeed, findings by Proost et al. (2010) support this notion, as the researchers found that those who used a combination of the two tactics of self-promotion and ingratiation obtained more positive ratings, followed by those using self-promotion only, and finally those who used only ingratiation. Those who did not engage in either IM tactic received the lowest ratings. However, the researchers did not examine the mechanism by which the ratings were impacted.

One central tenet to all three of the routes influencing evaluations is that they are perceptions, or attributions created about the actor based on their behavior. Jones and Pittman (1982) suggested that each IM tactic may result in dual attributions, either positive (if successful) and negative (if unsuccessful). This may explain the seeming conflicting negative and positive effects found for similar IM tactics. For example, an interviewee may use ingratiation to seem more likable, and may either achieve the positive attribution of friendly if successful, or the negative attribution of sycophantic if unsuccessful. Similarly, this could explain why in some meta-analyses (Higgins et al., 2003), self-promotion leads to increased interview performance ratings, but is less successful at influencing job performance – initially such behavior may lead to being seen as competent, but repeated use of the behavior leads to being seen as arrogant.

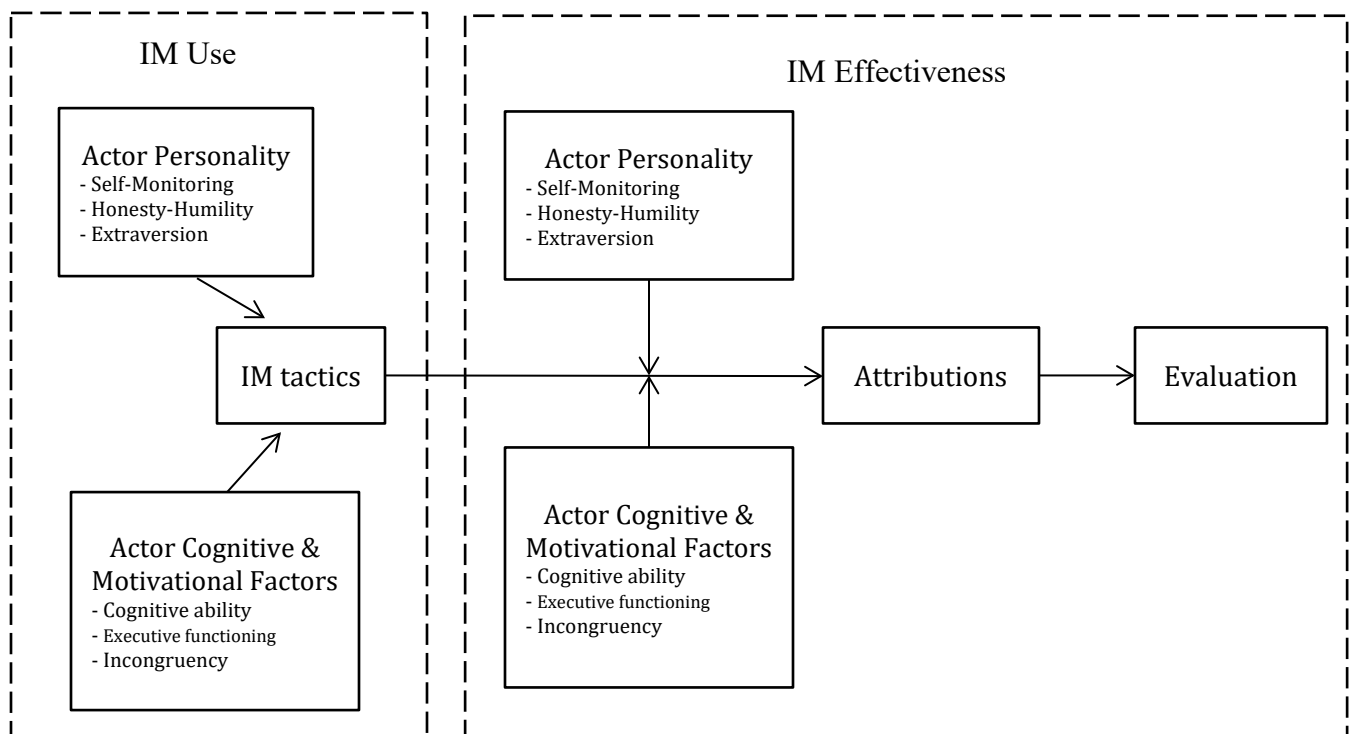
### **Integrated Model of IM Use and Effectiveness in the Interview**

Though research has been growing on IM in recent years, there is a lack of an integrated, theoretical understanding of how likely interviewees are to engage in IM, and subsequently, how effective these attempts are. As discussed above, while there are several models of IM antecedents proposed (Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Levashina & Campion, 2006; Mueller-Hanson et al., 2006), and models on the effects of IM on outcomes (Jones & Pittman, 1980; Ferris & Judge, 1991; Turnley & Bolino, 2001), there has yet to be an integrated model that includes antecedents, intermediate processes, and outcomes of IM together. To address this gap, I propose an integrated theoretical model of IM use and effectiveness in the interview involving two main factors: (a) Actor personality and (b) Actor cognitive processing and motivational factors (see figure 1). First, I believe that actor personality will be critically important in predicting IM behavior, as these factors are involved in one's willingness and capability of engaging in IM (Levashina & Campion, 2007). Personality may enable individuals to better attend to social cues,

which may be understood through trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003), such that interpersonal personality traits may be activated and enable the individual to attend to and utilize these cues more effectively. Actor cognitive processing may also play a role in the extent to how willing an individual is to engage in IM to adjust their image, and how capable they are in attending to a high volume of information, processing these social cues, and suppressing typical behaviors to behave in an appropriate way. Finally, motivational factors such as incongruity between one's true personality and conveyed personality may influence one's willingness to engage in IM, and as well as capacity to use IM. The larger the discrepancy between one's true and conveyed personality, the more difficult it may be to use IM to overcome that gap.

**Figure 1**

*Moderated mediation model of IM use and effectiveness*



**Antecedents of Interview IM Use**

There are several factors that have been examined as antecedents to IM behavior.

Although previous research has examined several antecedents of interview IM use, including situational characteristics such as interview question type (Ellis et al, 2001; Peeters & Lievens, 2006), and interview length or other structure factors (Tsai et al., 2005), the present dissertation focuses on personal characteristics of the ‘actor’, or interviewee.

Several studies have examined a variety of personality factors as antecedents to IM behavior, such as Extraversion, Honesty-Humility, and Narcissism (Bourdage et al., 2020; Buehl & Melchers, 2017; Kristof-Brown et al., 2002; Law et al., 2016; Roulin & Bourdage, 2017; Roulin & Krings, 2016). Although findings have largely been mixed for some personality traits like the Big Five traits Agreeableness and Neuroticism, the personality traits that have been found to have robust relationships with IM have been Extraversion, and Honesty-Humility (Melchers et al., 2020).

In this present dissertation, I seek to not only replicate these past findings of Honesty-Humility and Extraversion, but to also expand upon this by examining three novel cognitive processing antecedents: cognitive ability, executive functioning, and incongruity between one’s current self and desired conveyed self. There are a number of theoretical reasons why these factors may be critically important predictors of IM behavior. I explore each factor in detail in the sections to follow.

**Self-Monitoring.** Self-Monitoring describes the tendency of individuals to attend to the appropriateness of the images that they are conveying and change their behaviors or attitudes to adapt to different situations (Snyder, 1974), and may be related to increased IM use. Researchers have suggested that self-monitoring influences both the tendency to engage in IM, and the effectiveness of such behaviors (Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Fandt and Ferris (1990) have found

that high self-monitors are more likely to manipulate information to project a more positive image of themselves than low self-monitors. This increased use of IM may be due to those high in self-monitoring having a higher tendency to tailor their image in ways that best serves their interests (Snyder & Coperland, 1989). Indeed, self-monitoring has been found to relate positively to the use of three workplace IM behaviors: ingratiation, self-promotion, and exemplification (Turnley & Bolino, 2001). In studies focusing on the interview, however, the findings have been more mixed (see Melchers et al., 2020). While Weiss and Feldman (2006) did not find that the number of lies told during the interview was related to self-monitoring, several studies have found a small positive correlation between self-monitoring and interview faking (Levashina & Campion, 2007; Hogue et al., 2013; Roulin & Bourdage, 2017). In light of the mixed findings, I pose the following two research questions:

*Research Question 1:* What is the relationship between self-monitoring and honest IM use?

*Research Question 2:* What is the relationship between self-monitoring and deceptive IM use?

**Honesty-Humility.** Honesty-Humility describes the tendency of individuals to exploit others, and it has been related to other dark personality traits such as Machiavellianism, Psychopathy, and social adroitness (Ashton et al., 2000). Individuals low on Honesty-Humility tend to capitalize on any opportunities to exploit others for personal gain (Lee & Ashton, 2004). This elevated ability to be able to obtain personal gain in any given situation may be because those who are low in Honesty-Humility are more willing to take major risks to adopt selfish strategies for personal and monetary gain. On the other hand, those who are high on Honesty-Humility tend to be modest and avoid greed, and have been found to engage in cooperative



behaviors, sacrificing self-gain for mutual benefit in economic games (Zettler et al., 2013). Therefore, those high in Honesty-Humility may avoid engaging in honest or deceptive IM to emphasize and bring attention to themselves for self-gain. This is supported by previous research that found that those low on Honesty-Humility tended to use more deceptive IM in general (Bourdage et al., 2018; Buehl & Melchers, 2017; Law et al., 2016), and even across different interviews (Roulin & Bourdage, 2017).

In terms of honest IM, only a few studies have examined the relationship between Honesty-Humility and both deceptive and honest IM (Bourdage et al., 2020; Bourdage et al., 2018; Roulin & Bourdage, 2017). While earlier studies found Honesty-Humility had a significant negative relationship with only deceptive IM use, Bourdage et al. (2020) found that Honesty-Humility was significantly negatively related to both the use of deceptive and honest IM. The researchers posited that those low in Honesty-Humility are motivated by personal gain, and in their efforts to get ahead they may use all tactics at their disposal, regardless if some are riskier than others. Therefore, considering the above findings, I hypothesize that:

*Hypothesis 1a:* Those lower on Honesty-Humility will engage in more honest IM behavior.

*Hypothesis 1b:* Those lower on Honesty-Humility will engage in more deceptive IM behavior.

**Extraversion.** Extraversion is another trait that may contribute to IM behavior. Extraversion describes the extent to which individuals are friendly, socially adept, and gregarious, and is related to interpersonal endeavors (Ashton & Lee, 2001). Extraverted individuals are confident and more effective in tasks involving social interactions (McCrae et al., 1993), which may impact their propensity to engage in IM behaviors. Those who are high in

Extraversion are perceived as more interpersonally “warm” in interviews (Liden et al., 1993). Furthermore, extraverted individuals have been found to obtain higher interviewer evaluations during the rapport building stage of the interview than those lower on Extraversion (Barrick et al., 2012). This could be because extraverted individuals tend to experience more positive emotions, and promote positive interactions (Hogan & Holland, 2003). Therefore, those high on Extraversion may be likely to engage in more IM behaviors to promote a more positive image of themselves.

Interestingly, previous research has been mixed regarding the nature of the relationship between Extraversion and IM. Weiss and Feldman (2006) found that Extraversion was positively related to the number of lies told in the interview for self-promoting purposes. This was supported by the findings of Roulin and Bourdage (2017), in which it was found that those high in Extraversion engaged in more deceptive IM and honest IM. However, interestingly, Bourdage et al. (2018) found that those high on Extraversion were positively related to only honest IM behavior, and not deceptive IM behavior. A recent study (Bourdage et al., 2020) also found that Extraversion was related to honest self-promotion and ingratiation, but not deceptive self-promotion. Although there may be several reasons behind these mixed results, one reasoning is that those high on Extraversion are focused on creating positive relationships, and thus are more likely to use honest IM and honest and deceptive ingratiation. Bourdage et al. (2020) suggested that those high on Extraversion may view “honesty and trust as desirable identity images and central to their self-concept in order to maintain positive relationships within a large social network...” (p. 572), and thus be more likely to engage in honest IM tactics and ingratiation. Given these mixed findings, I pose a research question examining the nature of relationship between Extraversion and deceptive IM.

*Hypothesis 2:* Those high in Extraversion will engage in more honest IM behavior

*Research Question 3:* What is the relationship between Extraversion and deceptive IM behavior?

**Cognitive ability.** Cognitive ability may influence the extent to which an individual engages in IM behavior (Buehl & Melcher, 2017; Levashina & Campion, 2006; Mueller-Hanson et al., 2006). Those who are high in cognitive ability may have a reduced willingness to engage in IM, as they may not feel the need to use IM to compensate for a lack of skill or competency (Bourdage et al., 2018). Moreover, although those high in cognitive ability may have an increased capacity, or capability to use IM, because they do not feel the willingness or need to do so, they may engage in less IM behavior. This is supported by the single previous publication in this area, which found that those high in cognitive ability are overall less likely to engage in deceptive IM behaviors (Buehl & Melchers, 2017). Buehl and Melchers (2017) conducted two studies to examine the relationship between cognitive ability and IM use and effectiveness. Similar to the personality test taking literature (see Pauls & Crost, 2005; Tett, et al., 2012), the researchers found that cognitive ability was related to higher levels of faking when *instructed* in an experimental study. In the first study, undergraduate psychology students filled out online questionnaires regarding their traits and past interview success. Cognitive ability was found to relate negatively to IM use. In the second study, participants engaged in two simulated interviews, and were instructed to “put their best foot forward” in the second interview. In the instructed condition, those with higher cognitive ability were able to increase their performance more readily. The researchers, however, did not find any moderating effect of cognitive ability on the *effectiveness* of deceptive IM, though this may stem from the differing situational characteristics between the two interviews.

Overall, research findings suggest that although those high in cognitive ability are able to engage in elevated deceptive IM behavior when instructed in a laboratory setting, in a typical or naturally occurring setting, they have lowered tendency to engage in such IM behaviors. These findings further substantiate the results found by Levashina et al. (2009), in which the researchers found that those with high cognitive abilities are less likely to engage in faking behavior in general, but when instructed to fake on biodata items, these individuals were able to increase their scores.

*Hypothesis 3a:* Those high on cognitive ability will engage in less honest IM behavior

*Hypothesis 3b:* Those high on cognitive ability will engage in less deceptive IM behavior

**Executive functioning.** Beyond cognitive functioning, another cognitive processing factor that may be critical to understanding IM behavior is executive functioning. Executive functioning has been a largely overlooked antecedent in the IM literature. Intelligence has typically been defined as a general factor that influences one's performance on a variety of cognitive tasks (Duggan & Garcia-Barrera, 2015). However, there have been cases wherein individuals with frontal lobe damage, an area responsible for cognitive ability, still retain performance in some complex, well-defined cognitive tests (see Damasio, 1994; Shallice & Burgess, 1991). This has sparked interest in examining the mechanisms that contribute to overall intelligence. One such mechanism is executive functioning.

Executive functions are cognitive processes that underlie planning, attention, and reasoning (Miyake et al., 2000). Related research examining the cognitive processes involved in lying has found that deception increases the cognitive burden on an individual (Suchotzki et al., 2017), and that it requires more executive control than being truthful (Debey et al., 2015; Debey, Verschuere, & Crombez, 2012; Vrij et al., 1996; Walczyk et al., 2003). Though IM is not

inherently deceptive, it is a manipulation of one's behavior with the intent to form a particular impression, which in many cases may be incongruent with the person's actual characteristics (e.g., Levashina & Campion, 2007). Therefore, using IM should require higher executive functioning compared to not using IM.

Miyake et al. (2000) conceptualized executive control into three main components: 1) response inhibition, 2) working memory, and 3) task switching. Response inhibition refers to the process by which an individual suppresses a habitual response. Working memory is defined as the capacity to which information can be held for immediate processing. Finally, task switching refers to the ability to be flexible and shift attention towards different tasks. It also may involve shifting between "schemas" or mindsets. These three processes have been found to underlie deception (Christ et al., 2009). More specifically, in a brain imaging meta-analysis, the authors found that brain structures corresponding to these three executive functions were engaged when individuals were behaving in a deceptive manner.

Although executive functioning has yet to be examined in the IM literature, similar mechanisms may underlie deceptive IM use. For example, if an applicant wants to use deceptive IM to exaggerate a job experience when asked a behavioral question, one must first recall the actual experience, hold that in one's mind using working memory, and then create new information to add into that experience. A candidate must also be able to inhibit responding with the initial recalled information and be able to relay the exaggerated information. Finally, to use another tactic, such as ingratiation, the candidate must be able to switch mindsets from exaggerating to complimenting.

Similar to cognitive ability, those higher in these cognitive functions may be less likely to engage in IM. During the interview, candidates understand that interviewers do not perceive

faking positively (Jansen et al., 2013), and as such may try to avoid using IM tactics. Those with a larger working memory may feel less willing to engage in IM as they are better at recalling and holding that experience in their mind to describe than someone who is not, and thus may not need to rely as readily on IM to embellish their responses. Those with better inhibition may be less likely to engage in IM as they are better able to suppress the impulse to respond with an untrue statement. Finally, those high on shifting may be better able to shift to different mindsets to respond to different questions and contexts than those low in shifting, resulting in a lower willingness to engage in IM.

*Hypothesis 4a:* Those high on working memory will engage in less honest IM behaviors

*Hypothesis 4b:* Those high on working memory will engage in less deceptive IM behaviors

*Hypothesis 5a:* Those high in inhibition will engage in less honest IM behaviors

*Hypothesis 5b:* Those high in inhibition will engage in less deceptive IM behaviors

*Hypothesis 6a:* Those high in shifting will engage in less honest IM behaviors

*Hypothesis 6b:* Those high in shifting will engage in less deceptive IM behaviors

**Incongruency.** One motivational factor that influences IM use is the incongruency between the desired image one wishes to project, and their own true personality. Though Leary and Kowalski (1990) had theorized that this incongruency acts as an antecedent of IM, there has yet to be a study examining the discrepancy between one's true personality and the image they desire to project, and how this impacts IM use.

One of the underlying mechanisms in motivation theories is that we are driven by the process of discrepancy reduction (Diefendorff & Chandler, 2011). When there is a gap between our current state and a desired or target state, we are driven to make choices or act to close this

gap (Higgins, 2000; Locke & Latham, 1990). Leary and Kowalski (1990) suggest that one major driver behind IM behavior specifically is this discrepancy between one's current and desired image. Individuals may engage in a variety of IM behaviors to close the gap, including using self-promotion to emphasize their positive attributes or using ingratiation to appear more friendly. Individuals may even use IM as preemptive behavior to protect their image before a failure. In other words, individuals may engage in IM in some cases as a response to make up for these incongruencies between who one is, and what they believe the target values, along with the characteristics of an ideal candidate.

The tendency for individuals to be motivated to engage in IM behavior when there is a gap between one's current self and conveyed self may be understood through self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987), in which individuals have an "actual" self and different self-guides, such as an "ought" or "ideal" self. An actual self represents the attributes that one currently has, whereas an ought self represents the self you believe you feel you should be. An ideal self represents the self you aspire or hope to be. The imbalance between one's true self, and the ought or ideal self is believed to elicit negative emotions, and in turn, motivate the individual. For example, a gap between one's current self and ideal self might elicit disappointment and discouragement, whereas a gap between one's current self and ought self might elicit nervousness or worry (Strauman & Higgins, 1987). Therefore, those who experience greater incongruency may be motivated to use deceptive IM tactics to "close the gap" between their ought and actual self. However, because honest IM refers to behaviors that better articulate skills, experiences, or qualifications that one already possesses, it is likely that those high in incongruency will be less likely to engage in honest IM simply because the gap between their

ought and current self is that they are lacking something they do not already possess. Therefore, any IM behavior used to overcome this would be deceptive in nature.

*Hypothesis 7a:* Those high in incongruency will engage in less Honest IM behaviors

*Hypothesis 7b:* Those high in incongruency will engage in more Deceptive IM behaviors

### **Defining IM Effectiveness: IM's Effect on Interview Performance**

Although it is important to understand how common the use of IM behavior is and the factors that may contribute to its use, it is also critical to understand the effects of such tactics on evaluations. Within the interview context, a growing body of research has found that IM use generally results in positively inflated interviewer ratings (Bolino et al., 2008; Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Kristof-Brown et al., 2002). However, interestingly, there has been growing evidence that the impact of each IM tactic on interview performance can vary depending on the tactic used, and the person who is using it.

Initially, early research did not distinguish between deceptive and honest IM, and generally found that IM resulted in positively inflated ratings at an overall level. Kacmar et al. (1992) first investigated the effectiveness of the different IM tactics on interview decisions. The authors found that in a laboratory study, those who used self-focused IM (such as self-promotion) were more likely to receive favorable ratings, and recommendations for a job offer than those who used other-focused tactics (such as ingratiation). Similarly, Stevens and Kristof (1995) found that those who used IM in an interview were perceived as more suitable and were more likely to receive the job offer. Furthermore, Tsai et al. (2005) found that those who used more self-focused IM (self-promotion) in the interview within a high customer contact position received more favorable interviewer evaluations. Finally, a recent meta-analysis found a positive relationship between self-focused and other-focused IM on interview and performance ratings



(Peck & Levashina, 2017). More specifically, self-focused tactics, such as self-promotion, were significantly related to interview ratings, but not work performance, whereas other-focused tactics were significantly related to both. This suggests that although both self-focused and other-focused tactics may be successful in short interactions throughout the interview, self-promotion type tactics do not seem to be as effective over the longer term in the workplace. However, this line of research did not investigate the role of honest IM.

### ***Distinguishing Between Honest and Deceptive IM***

In contrast, more recent research that does distinguish between honest and deceptive IM has found that honest IM generally results in positive performance ratings (Bourdage et al., 2020; Bourdage et al., 2018), whereas findings have been mixed for deceptive IM (Levashina & Campion, 2007; Schneider et al., 2015). More specifically, Levashina and Campion (2007) found that those who used extreme faking tactics (i.e., extensive image creation) received higher interview ratings. Slight and extensive image creation involves exaggerating or fabricating one's qualifications and skills, and thus most closely aligns with self-promotion. The authors also found that those who engaged in image protection were less likely to receive a job offer or a second interview. However, in contrast to these findings, a recent study by Swider et al. (2011) found that both slight image creation and extensive image creation resulted in more negative interviewer evaluations. Further, while Buehl and Melchers (2017) found no significant relationship between deceptive IM use and interview success in their first study, in their second study, they found that deceptive IM use was positively related to interview performance. Bourdage et al. (2018) found that there was no significant effect of deceptive IM on hireability ratings nor ratings of person-job fit or person-organization fit. Finally, Bourdage et al. (2020)

found that while honest self-promotion positively predicted interview performance ratings, deceptive self-promotion was negatively related.

### *Intermediary Process of Attributions*

How could an IM tactic positively increase ratings in some studies, while having no effect, or a negative effect on interviewer ratings in others? Although study related characteristics may play a role, one underlying factor that may explain these mixed findings is the process by which IM tactics impact rater evaluations. Though most studies examine the effects of IM tactics on ratings, they largely overlook *how* IM influences ratings. To better understand how IM influences ratings, I will investigate the process through which IM influences rater evaluations – through target attributions.

**IM and Attributions.** The first question I seek to investigate is: What is the mechanism that accounts for the relationship between IM and interview performance? Although often discussed in theory, direct investigation has been limited. Crawford et al. (2019) attempted to examine this discrepancy in IM effectiveness in the workplace context as a measure of congruency between actor IM use, and supervisor perception of actor IM use. They found that employees who had higher incongruence between their self-reported use of IM and supervisor perception of their use of IM had more negative outcomes. However, this study again does not examine the mechanism by which IM is impacting perceptions, but rather only the discrepancy in IM tactic use and perceived IM tactic use.

As mentioned previously, IM behavior has been theorized to have the potential to result in dual attributions (Jones & Pittman, 1982). However, few studies thus far have examined these dual attributions (Amaral et al., 2019; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Although the study by Turnley and Bolino (2001) examined several dual attributions, it was conducted in the workplace, not the

interview context. The study by Amaral et al. (2019) examined the impacts of social perception on IM tactics in the interview context, but they only focused on two IM tactics and two attributions: self-promotion and ingratiation, and the attributions of competence and warmth. While the researchers did find that the attributions of competence mediated the relationship between self-promotion and interview ratings, they found that warmth did not mediate the relationship between ingratiation and interview ratings. One possible reason for this is that the attribution of warmth may not have been the most relevant attribution for ingratiation, compared to other attributions like likability or friendliness.

Applying this existing theory and research to IM use in the interview context, I propose that attributions are associated with the use of IM, and that these attributions impact evaluations. When an IM attempt is successful, the actor should be able to elicit positive attributions, whereas if the attempt is unsuccessful, it will elicit negative attributions. More specifically, individuals who use honest self-promotion, slight and extensive image creation may be perceived as more competent, resulting in higher interview evaluation ratings. On the other hand, the interviewer may perceive them as being arrogant, leading to more negative ratings. For honest defensive tactics and image protection, the interviewer may view the interviewee as being responsible in terms of clarifying their role in past negative experiences, or as being untrustworthy as it may seem that they are hiding something (masking) or denying responsibility. Finally, for honest and deceptive ingratiation, the interviewer may perceive that the individual is likable and friendly, or they may view them as a sycophant.

Overall, previous literature suggests that IM does impact performance evaluations significantly, and that relationship is mediated by attributions. IM tactics and their related positive and negative attributions are displayed below (see Table 2). These attributions were

adapted from the ones proposed by Turnley and Bolino (2001) in their study on workplace IM. Though they do not make the distinction between honest and deceptive IM, applying their proposed dual attributions to the present study, the dual attributions of competent and arrogant are related to honest and deceptive self-promotion tactics, whereas the dual attributions of friendly and sycophantic are related to honest and deceptive ingratiation. As defensive tactics are not included in the workplace IM taxonomy, a new dual attribution of responsible and untrustworthy was created. Defensive tactics focus on distancing oneself from a negative event in the past, highlighting extenuating circumstances, or withholding or omitting information that may damage one's image. Therefore, a successful attempt would result in the individual seeming responsible, whereas a failed attempt may make the individual seem untrustworthy.

In sum, past literature indicates that IM impacts performance, and theory suggests that this happens through a key mediating mechanism – attributions. In line with this, I hypothesize the following:

*Hypothesis 8: Attributions will mediate the relationship between IM tactics and interview performance.*

**Table 2**

*IM tactics and their related positive and negative attributions.*

| IM tactic                              | Positive attribution | Negative attribution |
|--|----------------------|----------------------|
| Honest self-promotion                  | Competent*           | Arrogant*            |
| Slight and extensive<br>image creation | Competent*           | Arrogant*            |
| Honest defensive tactics               | Responsible          | Untrustworthy        |

|                     |             |               |
|---------------------|-------------|---------------|
| Image protection    | Responsible | Untrustworthy |
| Honest ingratiation | Friendly*   | Sycophant*    |
| Ingratiation        | Friendly*   | Sycophant*    |

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*Note.* \* Adapted from Turnley and Bolino (2001).

### **Individual Differences in IM Effectiveness**

In addition to examining the mechanism through which deceptive IM influences rater evaluations, another important and interesting factor is *why* some individuals are more successful than others. There are many factors that may moderate the relationship between IM use and evaluation ratings. To date, the studies have focused on a limited set of individual differences that impact IM use, and the conceptualization of IM effectiveness has been disordered. As such, several researchers have highlighted the need to investigate these factors (Proost et al., 2010; Levashina et al., 2014). Preliminary research in workplace IM focusing on two traits, self-monitoring (Turnley & Bolino, 2001) and political skill (Harris et al., 2007), have shown some promising findings suggesting that individual differences can explain whether IM will be successful. However, the focus has been relatively narrow and there is a lack of an overarching theory.

The present study lays out several potential individual differences that may influence effectiveness in a job interview. This study will help provide further insight into whether these individual characteristics play a dual role in impacting both the *use* and *effectiveness* of IM, or if one of these roles are more relevant than the other.

### ***Theoretical Basis for Understanding IM Effectiveness***

There are several underlying theories that explain why some individuals' attempts at using IM may be more successful than others. After meta-analyzing a variety of social influence behaviors, Higgins et al. (2003) proposed that the effectiveness of such behaviors hinged on an individual's ability to "disguise ulterior motives of manipulation, and instead contribute to positive motives and intentions being perceived" (p. 103). This notion that IM effectiveness hinges on an individual's ability is also alluded to by Levashina and Campion's (2006) theoretical model of faking likelihood, in which the authors proposed several actor characteristics that may influence one's capacity to engage in IM. The authors suggest that those who have better oral, social and cognitive abilities may have increased capacity to engage in IM. As mentioned previously, there are different ways that IM can impact ratings through attributions, and there are dual attributions that may be attained through using each tactic. An individual who uses self-promotion to bolster their conveyed competence may risk being seen as being arrogant or bragging, or they may be seen as competent. Therefore, factors that may affect the ability of individuals to better attend to social cues and use this knowledge to fine tune their IM usage will influence how effectively they are able to foster positive attributions and avoid negative attributions. In this present dissertation, I focus on a number of actor characteristics, including personality and cognitive factors.

### ***Actor Personality on IM Effectiveness***

An actor's personality may influence the success of their IM attempt. The tendency to behave in certain ways may influence the delivery and implementation of IM tactics. According to trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003), individuals will express their traits when certain relevant situational cues are present. Within the interview context, personality traits relevant to interpersonal interactions will be activated. These traits may enable an individual to not only

engage in IM more frequently, but also enable them to attend to social cues and information more readily. As described previously, self-monitoring and political skill have been investigated as factors influencing IM effectiveness in the workplace context. Two other personality traits of particular interest that may influence the effectiveness of IM tactics are Honesty-Humility and Extraversion.

**Self-monitoring.** High self-monitors are able to pay attention to the social cues of others to obtain clues for their own IM behaviors (Gabrenya & Arkin, 1980). Therefore, those high on self-monitoring may not only engage in overall more IM behaviors, but also be more skillful at identifying opportunities to use IM, tailoring their IM tactic use to the situation for their benefit. This notion has been supported, as Kilduff and Day (1994) has found that those high in self-monitoring excel and advance in an organization more quickly and more effectively than those low in self-monitoring. Furthermore, Turnley and Bolino (2001) found that those who were higher on self-monitoring were able to use ingratiation, self-promotion, and exemplification more effectively in the workplace context. The authors found that those higher on self-monitoring obtained more positive attributions when using IM than those low on self-monitoring. More specifically, high self-monitors were rated as more likable when they used ingratiation, more competent when they used self-promotion, and more dedicated when they used exemplification. In contrast, those who were low in self-monitoring were perceived negatively, such that when they used ingratiation, self-promotion, and exemplification, they were perceived as being a sycophant, conceited, or egotistical. The authors suggest that those high on self-monitoring are actually more *successful* at attaining their desired image. This may occur because those higher on self-monitoring may be better at identifying opportunities to use IM whereas those who are low on self-monitoring may be unable, or executing the IM tactics in a

more genuine manner, resulting in a positive image (competent) rather than an associated bad image (conceited). Therefore, it appears that self-monitoring may enable individuals to better perceive and attend to social cues and adjust their own behavior appropriately.

Within the interview context, Roulin and Bourdage (2017) found that those high on self-monitoring significantly varied their use of deceptive IM, specifically slight image creation ( $r = .23$ ), over the course of several interviews. This suggests that those high on self-monitoring may be able to adapt their use of deceptive IM strategies to tailor their image. The researchers found, however, that self-monitoring was not significantly related to a direct, increased use of deceptive IM. This may be because those high on self-monitoring were likely to vary their use of deceptive IM, perhaps only using it at an opportune time. Thus, over several interviews, the relationship between self-monitoring and deceptive IM may have been attenuated. In terms of honest IM, surprisingly there was no relationship found between self-monitoring and honest IM use, and those high on self-monitoring were less likely to vary their use of honest self-promotion across different interviews.

*Hypothesis 9a:* Self-Monitoring will moderate the relationship between IM and attributions, such that those higher on self-monitoring will receive more positive attributions when using IM.

*Hypothesis 9b:* Self-Monitoring will moderate the relationship between IM and performance, such that those higher on self-monitoring will receive higher performance ratings when using IM.

***Honesty-Humility.*** Those low in Honesty-Humility may not only be more *willing* to engage in deceptive behavior, but also be potentially more *capable* at being flexible with their strategies (Ashton et al., 2010). Bourdage et al. (2015) found that those low on Honesty-Humility



were more likely to engage in self-promotion, ingratiation, exemplification, intimidation, and supplication in the workplace. Moreover, Hilbig et al. (2012) found that those low in Honesty-Humility were better able to obtain personal gain in economic games. More specifically, these individuals were able to adopt a different strategy when punishment was introduced. The authors reasoned that those low on Honesty-Humility were able to weigh the risks of being punished with the magnitude of personal gain to determine whether they contributed more or less in the economic game.

This consideration of the relationship between a behavior and reward outcome can be explained by instrumentality theory (Vroom, 1964). Instrumentality refers to the strength of the perceived relationship between a specific behavior and a desired outcome. When the perceived strength is strong, individuals will be more likely to engage in that behavior. Those low on Honesty-Humility may be better attuned to the instrumentality of their behaviors, such that they are able to adjust their IM use as the situation changes. For instance, Wiltshire et al. (2014) found that those low on Honesty-Humility engaged in more IM when their perceptions of politics were high, but not when they were low, suggesting that they are able to adjust their behaviors based on situational factors.

A recent study (Bourdage et al., 2020), however, has found that those low on Honesty-Humility may experience a “double-edged sword,” in that although they may successfully increase their interview ratings through relevant IM tactics, they also hurt their performance by engaging in more deceptive IM. Similar to the findings of previous studies (Bourdage et al., 2018), the researchers found that Honesty-Humility had no relationship with interview performance, as the positive and negative impacts of the range of IM tactics they used resulted in a null effect.

Taken together, those low in Honesty-Humility may be able to better balance the risk and reward of using IM behaviors, such that they are better able to perceive when the use of IM behavior will be related to positive outcomes.

*Hypothesis 10a:* Honesty-Humility will moderate the relationship between IM use and attributions, such that those who are lower on Honesty-Humility will receive more positive attributions.

*Hypothesis 10b:* Honesty-Humility will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those lower on Honesty-Humility will receive higher performance ratings when using IM.

**Extraversion.** Those who are high in Extraversion may have a heightened ability to perceive social cues more effectively, and thus behave in a socially acceptable or appropriate manner. Akert and Panter (1988) found initial evidence of this, as extroverts were found to be able to decode nonverbal forms of communication better than introverts. More specifically, it appears that extroverts were more attentive to the social cues and were able to better interpret what each cue attributed to. This ability to be more effective at attending to and using social cues may stem from the fact that Extraversion has been found to play a substantial role in self-monitoring (Barrick et al., 2005; Bono & Vey, 2007). Extraversion appears to be the main driver of Acting, which is one of the two factors in the self-monitoring scale (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). The Acting subscale involves being an “actor” and imitating social behaviors. Therefore, those higher on Extraversion may be more effective in attending to social cues and engaging in these IM behaviors in a more appropriate and believable way than those who are low in Extraversion.

*Hypothesis 11a:* Extraversion will moderate the relationship between IM use and attributions, such that those higher on Extraversion will receive more positive attributions.

*Hypothesis 11b:* Extraversion will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those higher on Extraversion will receive higher performance ratings when using IM.

***Actor cognitive processing.*** One particularly overlooked factor that may influence IM effectiveness is cognitive processing. When engaging in IM, some individuals may “find it strenuous and difficult to make a desired impression under novel or pressured conditions” while others are able to “in a seemingly effortless fashion and easily get the desired images across” (pp. 632, Vohs et al., 2005). In other words, the ease to which individuals draw upon IM tactics to manipulate evaluators’ judgments may be related to cognitive processing capabilities.

Intelligence has been examined as a predictor of faking in the personality test taking literature (see Tett et al., 2012; Vasilopoulos et al., 2006), finding that those higher in cognitive ability were able to fake more when instructed. Moreover, Levashina et al. (2009) found that in the context of biodata measure faking, those who were higher on cognitive ability were less likely to fake on the measure overall, but of those who did fake, those with higher cognitive ability had increased scores on the biodata measures.

These findings are in line with the two studies that examined cognitive ability within the interview context (Buehl & Melchers, 2017; Buehl et al., 2019). While Buehl and Melchers (2017) found no moderating effect of cognitive ability on IM use and self-reported interview success, when specifically instructed to fake, those high on cognitive ability were able to increase their scores more readily. This is supported by the findings of Buehl et al. (2019), in

which participants completed two interviews, once in an honest condition, and once in an “best foot forward” condition. The authors found that those who were higher on cognitive ability were able to increase their interview performance in the instructed condition more readily than those lower on cognitive ability.

Taken together, although the findings suggest that those high on cognitive ability are able to fake more when asked to appear as an ideal candidate, the findings do not discern whether these individuals were more *effective* at faking. Those high in cognitive ability may be possibly more aware of what constitutes an ideal candidate for the position, and then be able to identify what characteristics they need to inflate. Therefore, applying these findings to honest and deceptive IM usage in the interview, it is hypothesized that:

*Hypothesis 12a:* General cognitive ability will moderate the relationship between IM use and attributions, such that those higher on general cognitive ability will receive more positive attributions.

*Hypothesis 12b:* General cognitive ability will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those higher on general cognitive ability will receive higher interview performance ratings when using IM.

***Inhibition.*** Inhibition may impact one’s capacity to engage in IM. Self-regulation describes the process by which individuals use effort to regulate behavior. When an individual engages in IM, several processes may occur. First, the individual must inhibit their usual, habitual behavior, and engage in a specific behavior related to the image they want to project. The individual must then monitor and adjust their behavior to be in line with their selected IM tactic. Vohs et al. (2005) found that by introducing cognitive load, individuals were impeded in their ability to use self-presentation. The authors suggested that individuals were overwhelmed

by the cognitive load task, and thus were unable to engage in self-regulation to project a desired image. In contrast, when individuals were told to self-present in familiar and normative ways, the effect of the cognitive load was reduced. Furthermore, the authors found that those who exercised self-control in a prior task were less effective in subsequent self-presentation attempts. More specifically, individuals who were told to suppress specific thoughts were more likely to speak out whatever thoughts were on their mind. This indicated that their ability to inhibit these actions was impeded because they were cognitively overloaded. These findings were echoed by two other studies (Talwar & Lee, 2008; Evans & Lee, 2011) which found that inhibition may impact deception. More specifically, the authors found that children's lie telling ability was predicted by their performance on the Stroop task.

In the interview context, an individual may want to use image protection and mask the true reason why they were fired from their previous position, or use slight image creation to exaggerate their past experience. In order to do so, they must inhibit their initial tendency to divulge the truthful information.

*Hypothesis 13a:* Inhibition will moderate the relationship between IM use and attributions, such that those scoring higher on inhibition will receive more positive attributions.

*Hypothesis 13b:* Inhibition will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those scoring higher on inhibition will receive higher performance ratings when using IM.

**Working memory.** In order for an individual to be effective at using IM, one must be able to hold the image of what they want to project in mind, and remember what information was relayed. In the deception literature, working memory has been examined as a factor that impacts

the ability to lie (Christ et al., 2009; Walczyk et al., 2003). It is hypothesized that a greater working memory capacity enables individuals to better recall and process information to create a lie. In other words, it may enable individuals to better recall and hold the truth in one's mind, while formulating a lie. A study examining the role of working memory on deception in children finds that those who had better verbal working memory scores were better liars than those with lower scores (Alloway et al., 2015).

Applying this to IM use, those who are using tactics to misrepresent themselves may experience a greater demand on working memory as they must hold a truthful experience in mind while also holding and stating an alternative response. For instance, an individual who wants to engage in extensive image creation will need to hold both their actual experience and their fabricated story in mind when responding. They must also remember what details they fabricated in order to answer consistently.

*Hypothesis 14a:* Working memory will moderate the relationship between IM use and attributions, such that those scoring higher on working memory will receive more positive attributions.

*Hypothesis 14b:* Working memory will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those scoring higher on working memory will receive higher performance ratings when using IM.

**Shifting.** When using IM, individuals must switch between their typical behaviors and behaviors that are in line with the IM tactic they are engaging in. Furthermore, as individuals are likely to use a variety of IM tactics (McFarland et al., 2005), they may also have to shift between different IM tactic behaviors. In the deception context, some have referred to task switching as “mental set shifting” (Debey et al., 2015). Mental set shifting is defined as having to disengage

from a truthful but irrelevant mindset to a deceptive, but relevant mindset. By switching from one mindset to another, one must inhibit the activation of the first mindset and activate the next mindset (Allport et al., 1994). In the context of IM, this could manifest as shifting to a mindset that is in line with the IM tactic. Debey et al. (2015) found that in two studies involving deception on yes/no statements and autobiographical statements that individuals experienced cognitive costs when switching between truthful and deceptive mindsets. Furthermore, in deception studies in which participants must deny recognition of known and unknown items, those who were better at shifting tasks were better at denying the recognition of known items (Visu-Petra et al., 2012). This suggests that shifting mindsets requires great effort, and that some individuals are better able at switching than others. In the interview, individuals may want to compliment the interviewer, and then shift from this ingratiation mindset to a self-promotional mindset to embellish their qualifications. Those with higher shifting ability may, therefore, be able to do this more readily and with less effort.

*Hypothesis 15a:* Shifting will moderate the relationship between IM use and attributions, such that those scoring higher on shifting will receive more positive attributions.

*Hypothesis 15b:* Shifting will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those scoring higher on shift will receive higher performance ratings when using IM.

***Incongruency.*** It is possible that those who experience a larger discrepancy between one's actual personality and the projected image may be less *effective* in using IM. This notion is supported by the findings of Pontari and Schlenker (2000). The authors examined whether congruent self-presentations would be more cognitively effortful than those that were incongruent. Those who were self-presenting in a congruent manner (introvert self-presenting as

an introvert) were unaffected by a cognitive busyness task. However, those self-presenting in an incongruent manner were impeded in their ability to self-present (extrovert self-presenting as an introvert). This could be due to the fact that those who had to project an incongruent image had to first suppress their initial habitual response, and then recall and engage in behavior relevant to the desired image. Furthermore, having a larger incongruence between the desired and actual image may require more working memory and task switching capacity as well, as the individual must hold both the desired image and what they truthful are in their mind while responding in an appropriate way. This suggests that IM tactics requiring an individual to behave in a non-habitual manner requires more cognitive effort, and thus is less effective.

*Hypothesis 16a:* Incongruency will moderate the relationship between IM and attributions, such that those lower on incongruency will receive more positive attributions.

*Hypothesis 16b:* Incongruency will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those lower on incongruency will receive higher performance ratings when using IM.

### **Longitudinal Associations of IM with Workplace Behaviors and Outcomes**

Although it is important to understand how IM use in the interview may impact selection through evaluations, another critical piece often overlooked is what happens to these individuals who use IM in the interview after they are hired. More specifically, do applicants who use IM in the interview have any positive or negative consequences for the organization and the individual themselves? Melchers et al. (2020) noted in their review of the IM literature that there is a need for longitudinal studies examining the impact of IM on relevant and important outcomes like CWB, turnover, or OCB. Indeed, there is currently only one study that examines resume and



interview faking behavior and how this relates to subsequent behavior in the workplace (Henle et al., 2017). There is, however, no study that directly examines how honest and deceptive IM behavior in an interview can impact *subsequent* IM behavior in the workplace, or other workplace behaviors and outcomes. To address this question, a longitudinal follow-up survey will be conducted to examine participants' subsequent IM use in the workplace, as well as their individual and organizational work outcomes.

### ***Interview IM and Workplace IM***

Interview IM behaviors may vary from IM behaviors in the workplace due to the different opportunities offered by the interview context. In the interview context, candidates are trying to, and expected to, present themselves in the best light possible to make a good first impression (Tsai et al., 2005). Therefore, IM use is aimed towards creating an impression of a well-qualified candidate. In contrast, individuals in the workplace may use IM to create a variety of impressions to obtain a desired outcome, such as someone using supplication to appear helpless to obtain help from other coworkers. Therefore, an individual's IM use in the interview may differ from IM use in the workplace. Though there has been a meta-analysis examining the relationship between interview IM and workplace performance (Barrick et al., 2009), there has yet to be a study examining whether the propensity to engage in interview IM translates to increased workplace IM use.

Barrick et al. (2009) conducted a meta-analysis examining the relationships between IM use in the interview and interview performance, and IM use in the interview and job performance. The researchers found that interview IM, while strongly correlated to interview performance, had a very weak relationship with job performance ratings, and concluded that "what you see in the interview may not be what you get on the job" (p. 1394). The researchers,

however, did not examine the relationship between interview IM use and workplace IM use, nor did they examine other important workplace outcomes like OCB, CWB, or fit. The authors also used a broad taxonomy of IM (due to the nature of a meta-analysis), grouping multiple studies under self-focused and other-focused tactics, which refer to behaviors that are focused towards exaggerating or embellishing one's accomplishments or skills, and behaviors that are focused towards complimenting others (e.g. interviewer).

Roulin and Bourdage (2017) were one of the first to examine IM use over time in the interview context. Although they did not directly investigate workplace outcomes or workplace IM, the researchers did find that those who used IM in one interview were likely to use IM in other interviews. Applying this to the workplace, it is possible that those who are more inclined to use deceptive IM in the interview are also more likely to then engage in workplace IM. Often behavior is consistent over time, especially when the behavior is influenced by personality. For example, Honesty-Humility, and "dark personality traits" like Machiavellianism, Narcissism, and Psychopathy have been found to consistently relate to negative behaviors across different contexts (Lee et al., 2013).

Given the evidence that individuals did tend to engage in similar deceptive IM behavior across several different interviews, it is possible that those who engage in more IM in the interview are more likely to engage in IM behavior subsequently in the workplace.

*Hypothesis 17a:* There will be a positive relationship between deceptive IM use in the interview and workplace IM.

*Hypothesis 17b:* There will be a positive relationship between honest IM use in the interview and workplace IM.

### ***Interview IM and Workplace Outcomes***

Is IM usage that problematic? Some may suggest that IM use in the interview may not be completely detrimental, as an individual may engage in honest IM to better articulate skills that they do possess (Roulin et al., 2014), or certain IM tactics, like ingratiation, can sometimes be beneficial to buffer abusive supervision in the workplace (Harvey et al, 2007). However, if the use of IM leads to negative consequences for the workplace or individual, it can become an issue. For example, while it can be argued that there may be benefits to using honest IM, deceptive IM on the other hand may have both immediate and long-term negative impacts to both individuals and organizations.

There are a number of reasons why IM usage might be problematic. First, previous literature has found that IM use can inflate ratings of OCBs (Bolino et al., 2006), job performance (Wayne & Kacmar, 1991) and career success (Judge & Bretz, 1994). This suggests that continued use of IM may bias how rewards are given in the workplace. Second, those who are using deceptive IM are doing so, in part, because they do not possess the qualifications or characteristics required to excel in the position. Therefore, if they do end up being hired for the position, they will likely have poor job and/or organizational fit. Due to this poor fit, they may be subsequently more likely to engage in more IM in the workplace to compensate, or worse, engage in negative workplace behavior. Findings from a recent study examining faking on resumes support this notion that deceptive behavior in the interview may result in more negative outcomes for the individual (Henle et al., 2017). More specifically, the researchers found that those who used deceptive IM in the interview and faked information on their resume were subsequently more likely to have reduced job performance and increased organizational and interpersonal workplace deviance. Applying this to IM behavior in the workplace, it is possible

that those who engage in deceptive IM may be more likely to engage in increased negative workplace behavior, and subsequently experience more negative work outcomes.

**Organizational outcomes.** When considering important organizational outcomes, job performance typically comes to mind. Job performance is typically conceptualized as the “total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time” (Motowidlo & Kell, 2012, p. 92). This includes not only how well someone performs on tasks in their job role, but also extra-role behavior that has an expected positive outcome when multiple people engage in the behavior multiple times (Motowidlo & Kell, 2012). One such extra-role behavior is OCB. OCB has been posited to contribute to an organization’s effectiveness through improving “the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), and by definition, must be a behavior that contributes positively to the organization (Organ, 1997). In contrast, CWB represents the lower end of task and contextual performance (Motowidlo & Kell, 2012), as CWB could disrupt the environment and take away from the organization’s bottom line (Dunlop & Lee, 2004). These two outcomes are important organizational outcomes that could be linked to interview IM use. Those who engage in deceptive behavior are likely to continue to engage in deceptive behavior over different contexts. For example, Roulin and Bourdage (2017) found that individuals who engaged in deceptive IM tended to engage in deceptive IM in other job interviews. Moreover, previous research has found that applicants who faked more extensively on a personality test were more likely to engage in more CWBs (Peterson et al., 2011). As mentioned previously, Henle et al. (2017) found that those who used deceptive IM in the interview were more likely to engage in increased workplace and interpersonal deviance. Therefore, applying this to CWB and OCB, it makes intuitive sense that those who engage in

deceptive IM in the interview are more likely to engage in negative behaviors, such as CWB, once in the workplace, and less OCB.

*Hypothesis 18a:* There will be a positive relationship between deceptive IM use in the interview and CWBs in the workplace.

*Hypothesis 18b:* There will be a negative relationship between deceptive IM use in the interview and OCBs in the workplace.

*Research question 4a:* What will be the relationship between honest IM use in the interview, and CWBs in the workplace?

*Research question 4b:* What will be the relationship between honest IM use in the interview and OCBs in the workplace?

**Individual Outcomes.** Job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and perceived person job fit are other important individual work outcomes that could be impacted by IM use. Job satisfaction has been found to be related to job performance (Judge et al., 2001), and one's overall life satisfaction, happiness, and positive affect (Bowling et al., 2010). Person-job and person-organization fit are critical, as our attitudes and decisions are strongly influenced by our fit perceptions (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). In a meta-analysis conducted by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005), person-organization fit was found to have a moderate relationship with indicators of strain, contextual performance, and trust in their managers. As it appears that those who engage in deceptive IM in the interview tend to do so because they lack the characteristics or experiences required for the position (Bourdage et al., 2018), those who are likely to engage in deceptive IM in the interview may experience more negative individual work outcomes such as lowered person-job fit and job satisfaction. Moreover, given that Honesty-Humility has been found as a correlate of both deceptive IM use (Law et al., 2016; Bourdage et al., 2018) and

negative work outcomes (Lee et al., 2013), increased deceptive IM use may also be correlated with more negative individual work outcomes. This is important, as individuals who use deceptive IM may end up sabotaging themselves, as they try to obtain positions that may be a poor fit for their qualifications and characteristics. Finally, by obtaining a position that is a poor fit for their skills and abilities, the individual may also struggle to perform, and thus have higher turnover intentions. Conversely, those who engage in honest IM in the interview may experience more positive work outcomes later as they are better able to represent relevant qualifications, thus allowing them to be hired into positions that may have greater job fit, resulting in higher satisfaction and lower turnover.

*Hypothesis 19a:* There will be a negative relationship between deceptive IM use in the interview and job satisfaction.

*Hypothesis 19b:* There will be a positive relationship between deceptive IM use in the interview and turnover intentions.

*Hypothesis 19c:* There will be a negative relationship between deceptive IM use in the interview and perceived person-job fit.

*Hypothesis 20a:* There will be a positive relationship between honest IM use in the interview and job satisfaction.

*Hypothesis 20b:* There will be a negative relationship between honest IM use in the interview and turnover intentions.

*Hypothesis 20c:* There will be a negative relationship between honest IM use in the interview and perceived person-job fit.

## **Summary**

Overall, this dissertation seeks to understand how individual characteristics impact the usage and effectiveness of honest and deceptive IM. Though several individual characteristics, such as personality, has been examined previously, this dissertation examines several novel characteristics such as three facets of executive functioning and incongruency. Moreover, the intermediary role of attributions in explaining the relationship between IM and interview performance is also empirically tested. Finally, the longitudinal association between interview IM and workplace behavior and outcomes is explored. Study 1 part 1 will focus on examining interview IM, and the individual characteristics that impact usage and effectiveness using survey data from both interviewees and interviewers, using interviewees participating in high fidelity mock interviews with real interviewers. Study 1 part 2 will involve a survey follow-up with the interviewee participants from part 1 to examine the longitudinal associations. Finally, Study 2 will focus on replicating the findings from Study 1 part 1 through examining the effects of individual characteristics on IM use and effectiveness through the use of asynchronous video interview technology, which introduces a more standardized interview experience across participants.

### Chapter 3: Study 1

The purpose of this study was to examine: 1) who is *more likely* to engage in IM behavior, 2) the role of attributions in the IM to performance relationship, 3) who is *more effective* at engaging in IM behavior, and 4) the relationship between interview IM and later workplace behaviors. The study was comprised of two parts. Part 1 focused on the interview and involved collecting data from both the interviewee and interviewer. Part 2 focused on understanding the possible longitudinal associations of interview IM on later workplace behaviors.

#### **Methods: Part 1 - Interview Data**

##### ***Participants and procedure***

Participants were 195 undergraduate business school students who participated in the practice interview program run by this school's career center. Importantly, this is a high-fidelity situation where real interviewers from several different companies conduct the practice interviews, and offers for secondary interviews or even a job offer are sometimes given based on their performance. This presents a realistic situation in which the interviewees are motivated to perform (Bourdage et al., 2020). This was supported by the single Likert scale item assessing the participants' motivation to do well in the interview, which received an average response of 4.38 out of 5 ( $SD = 0.91$ ). Participants were recruited after they completed the practice interview by a research assistant and asked to participate in a survey study. They were informed that their responses would not impact their performance on the practice interview, and that their individual responses would be confidential.

Interviewers were also invited to participate in the study by responding to attribution and performance questions about the practice interviewee. There were 69 interviewers, with an



average age of 33, ranging from 22 to 60. The average years of interview experience was 6, with the lowest being 0 years, and the highest being 20 years. These responses were then matched to the data provided by student participants.

After responses were matched, interviewee participants who responded a 3 or higher to the following question, “I answered all questions honestly” were included in the analysis. Those who responded with a 2 or less were filtered out, resulting in a final sample size of 166. The average age of interviewee participants was 22, ranging from 18 to 40.

### ***Measures – Interviewee Data***

**Demographics.** Participant were asked questions regarding demographic factors like their gender, age, and GPA.

**Self-Monitoring.** Self-Monitoring was measured through a revised version of the Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986; see Appendix A). Several researchers have found that the 18-item revised version of this scale better assessed the single latent factor of self-monitoring than the original 25-item version, and has been used by several researchers (Krosnick & Sedikides, 1990; Lennox & Wolfe, 1984; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Responses were recorded on a Likert scale from 1 – *Strongly Disagree* to 5 – *Strongly Agree*. Cronbach’s alpha was .73.

**Honesty-Humility and Extraversion.** Honesty-Humility and Extraversion were assessed using the respective items from the 100-item version of the HEXACO-PI-R (Lee & Ashton, 2004; see Appendix B). More specifically, Honesty-Humility and its four facets: 1) Sincerity, 2) Fairness, 3) Greed-Avoidance, 4) Modesty were assessed with 16 items. Extraversion and its four facets: 1) Fearfulness, 2) Anxiety, 3) Dependence, and 4) Sentimentality were assessed with 10 items. Responses were recorded on a Likert scale from 1 – *Strongly Disagree* to 5 – *Strongly Agree*. Cronbach’s alpha was .80 and .73, respectively.

**IM tactics.** IM use in the interview was assessed with a subset of 32-items from the Interview Faking Behavior Scale (IFB; Levashina & Campion, 2007; see Appendix C), and a subset of 29-items from the Honest Impression Management Scale (Bourdage et al, 2018; see Appendix D). The IFB measures four dimensions of interview faking: 1) slight image creation, 2) extensive image creation, 3) image protection, and 4) deceptive ingratiation, whereas the Honest Impression Management Scale measures four dimensions of honest IM: 1) honest self-promotion, 2) honest ingratiation, 3) honest defensive tactics. Responses were recorded on a Likert scale from 1 – *Strongly Disagree* to 5 – *Strongly Agree*. Cronbach’s alpha was .96 for overall deceptive IM and .96 for overall honest IM.

**Cognitive ability.** Cognitive ability was measured with 16 items from International Cognitive Ability Resource (ICAR; Condon & Revelle, 2014; see Appendix E). The ICAR measures cognitive ability through four item types: 1) three-dimensional rotation, 2) letter and number series, 3) matrix reasoning, and 4) verbal reasoning. Respondents received a score of 1 when they selected the correct response, and a 0 when they did not. The scores were first summed across these four item types, and divided by the number of total questions to obtain a percentage. The percentage was then used as an overall measure of cognitive ability.

**Executive Functioning.** The BRIEF-SR (Guy et al., 2004) Inhibit, Working Memory, and Shift subscales were used to assess inhibition, working memory, and shifting. Responses were recorded on a scale from 1 – *Never* to 3 – *Always*. A scale score was calculated by averaging the mean score for each of the subscales. Cronbach’s alpha was .72 for inhibition, .74 for working memory, and .81 for shifting.

**Incongruency.** Incongruency was assessed by six questions asking the participant to indicate what they considered their “true” score, and what they were trying to portray to the

interviewer on each of the six HEXACO personality traits on a 0 – 100 analog line (Lee & Ashton, 2004; see Appendix F). A single incongruity score was then calculated by taking the sum of the absolute differences between an individual’s “conveyed” personality and “true” personality across the six traits. This represented the total incongruity between the individual’s true and ought self.

### ***Measures – Interviewer Data***

**Demographics.** Interviewers were asked demographic questions regarding their age, gender, and interview experience.

**Attributions.** Interviewer attributions of the participant was measured through analog lines that ranged from 0 to 100 (see Appendix G). The interviewer was asked to assess the extent to which they perceived the participant to be competent, arrogant, friendly, sycophantic, responsible, and untrustworthy. Overall positive and negative attribution scores were calculated by taking the average across the three positive and then three negative attributions. Cronbach’s alpha for the positive attributions was .76, and for negative attributions was .67.

**Overall Interview Performance.** Interview performance was assessed using three items from Bourdage et al. (2020; see Appendix H). Overall evaluation was assessed using the item “*Overall, based on the interview, I would evaluate this candidate positively.*” A second performance indicator for this specific sample is the intention to invite the candidate back for a site visit or second interview. As mentioned previously, students who perform well in the practice interview often are invited for a site visit or second interview which may lead to a position. This was assessed using the item “*Based on this interview, I would invite this student for another interview/onsite visit.*” Finally, hireability was assessed using the item “*Based on the interview, I would recommend extending a job offer to this candidate.*” Interviewer responses

were recorded on a scale from 1 – *Strongly Disagree* to 5 – *Strongly Agree*. An overall interview performance score was calculated by averaging across the three items. Cronbach’s alpha was .92.

## **Methods: Part 2 - Follow-up Longitudinal Data**

### *Participants and procedure*

72 participants from the interview study participated in a survey follow-up study. The participants were invited through email to participate in a follow-up survey. The follow-up survey was delivered online, and participants were compensated \$15 in a gift card of their choice after completion. The participants responses were matched with the study 1 survey responses, and those who selected a 3 or above for the question, “I answered all questions honestly” were kept for the analysis, resulting in a final total of 56 participants. The participants were on average 22 years old, ranging from 18 to 39. The average time passed between the practice interview and self-report survey and the follow-up self-report survey was 7.08 months, ranging from a minimum of three months and a maximum of 21 months.

### *Measures*

**IM tactics in the workplace.** To assess IM tactic usage in the workplace, the Impression Management Scale created by Bolino and Turnley (1999) was used (see Appendix I). The five dimensions measured were: 1) self-promotion, 2) exemplification, 3) ingratiation, 4) intimidation, and 5) supplication. Responses were recorded on two scales, one for supervisors as the target of the IM, and one for coworkers as the target. The scales ranged from 1 to 5, with “1” corresponding to “Strongly disagree” and “5” to “Strongly agree”. Overall IM scores were calculated for each tactic by averaging between the “towards coworker” and “towards supervisor” scale scores for each tactic. Cronbach’s alpha was .89 for self-promotion, .86 for ingratiation, .78 for exemplification, .93 for intimidation, and .88 for supplication.

**OCB.** To assess OCB, a 16-item scale from Lee and Allen (2002) was used (see Appendix J). The items assess OCB on two dimensions: 1) OCB towards individuals, and 2) OCB towards organizations. Responses are recorded on a scale from 1 to 7, with “1” corresponding to “Never” and “7” to “Always”. An overall OCB scale score was calculated by averaging across OCB towards individuals and OCB towards organization scores. Cronbach’s alpha was .92.

**CWB.** To assess CWB, a 20-item scale from Bennett and Robinson (2000) was used (see Appendix K). The items assess CWB on two dimensions 1) CWB towards individuals, and 2) CWB towards organizations. Responses are recorded on a scale of 1 to 5, with “1” corresponding to “Never” and “5” to “Daily”. An overall CWB scale score was calculated by average across the two dimensions. Cronbach’s alpha was .91.

**Job Satisfaction.** Job Satisfaction was measured using a 5-item scale from Brayfield and Rothe (1951; see Appendix L). This short measure has been used in previous research (Judge, Bono, & Locke, 2000), and has shown to have acceptable reliability. An example item is: “Most days I am enthusiastic about my work”. Responses were recorded on a scale of 1 to 5, with “1” corresponding to “Strongly disagree” and “5” to “Strongly agree”. Cronbach’s alpha was .88.

**Person-Organization and Person-Job Fit.** Person-Organization Fit and Person-Job Fit were assessed using 4 items from Higgins and Judge (2004; see Appendix M). The participant responses are recorded on a scale of “1” corresponding to “Strongly disagree” and “5” to “Strongly agree”. Cronbach’s alpha was .77 and .91 respectively.

**Turnover Intentions.** Turnover intentions were assessed using an adapted scale from Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991; see Appendix N). An example of one of the original three items is: “I intend to look for a job outside my company within the next year.” An additional

item was added to capture the unique situation of the business students who may be working before they graduated: “I would want to continue working for my company after I graduate”. Responses were recorded on a scale of 1 to 5, with “1” corresponding to “Strongly disagree” and “5” to “Strongly agree.” Cronbach’s alpha was .81.

## **Results: Study 1**

### ***Data Quality***

In order to test the hypotheses of part 1 of study 1, the data was first examined for outliers and multivariate normality. Mahalanobis distance was used to identify any possible outliers on the focal variables. There were 12 outliers identified. To examine the impact of these outliers, any subsequent analyses will be conducted with and without these outliers.

There was less than 5% missing data for most variables, except for the cognitive ability measure. More specifically, the missing data ranged from 3 – 18 % for the ICAR items. As there was more than 5% missing data present, a Missing Data Analysis was conducted using Little’s MCAR test to determine if there was a significant pattern to the missing data. Little’s MCAR was not significant, and as such, the data could be considered Missing At Random. A multiple imputation was conducted following guidelines proposed by Newman (2014) using SPSS’s MCMC linear regression multiple imputation process with 40 imputations with 1000 iterations. The pooled scale scores were then used for further analyses where available.

### ***Factor analysis***

To better simplify the large number of variables for analysis, factor analyses were conducted to understand the structure of the variables. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted where factor structure has been examined previously, such as for the IM items, and

exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal axis factoring were conducted for new constructs.

**IM.** First, the structure of the IM items (four deceptive, and three honest) was examined. Within the interview, deceptive IM has been found include four facets (Levashina & Campion, 2007), and honest IM has been found to include three facets (Roulin et al., 2014). Roulin et al. (2018) looked at both honest and deceptive IM together, and found a seven-factor solution, but a two-factor solution had also been found to be adequate. A CFA was conducted using the *lavaan* package (Rosseel, 2012) in *R*, using maximum likelihood parameter estimation, to verify the factor structure of the IM tactics. A one-factor, two-factor, and seven-factor solution with parceling is shown below. Given the ratio between the smaller sample size and large total number of items, three parcels were created for each facet to minimize possible estimation errors (Little et al., 2002). Results of the CFA are presented in Table 3.

**Table 3**

*Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model Fit Results in Study 1*

| Model        | Chi-square          | RMSEA           | CFI | SRMR |
|--------------|---------------------|-----------------|-----|------|
| One-factor   | 1476.29, $p < .001$ | .21, $p < .001$ | .57 | .18  |
| Two-factor   | 845.64, $p < .001$  | .15, $p < .001$ | .78 | .12  |
| Seven-factor | 348.51, $p < .001$  | .08, $p < .001$ | .94 | .07  |

*Note:*  $N = 166$ .

Based on the fit indices, the seven-factor structure (i.e., four deceptive and three honest IM factors) was found to have adequate model fit above the one and two-factor solutions. Although the seven-factor solution fit the best, given the focus on parsimony, the two-factor

structure of deceptive and honest IM was used to test the overall moderated mediation model. Despite seven factors typically receiving the best fit, there has been precedence for using an honest versus deceptive, two factor model. Some studies examining all seven deceptive and honest IM behaviors together have treated the tactics as two overall factors in analyses (Amaral et al., 2019; Robie et al., 2020) due to conceptual overlap, shared variance, and to reduce the number of analyses.

To determine whether a two-factor solution can characterize the data, an EFA using principal axis factor extraction and a promax rotation was conducted using the factor scores. The scree plot indicated a two-factor solution accounting for 62.23% of variance. Factor loadings are displayed in Table 4. However, similar to the findings of Robie et al. (2020), deceptive ingratiation had high cross loadings on both factors, and the decision to drop this facet from the analyses was made. Given this, the analyses primarily focus on honest and deceptive IM at a broad level, using an average score across the honest facets and deceptive facets. However, follow up analyses are conducted at the facet level to determine if there are any differences within the smaller IM facets.

**Table 4**

*Exploratory Factor Analysis IM Tactics in Study 1*

| Items                    | Factor Loadings |               |
|--------------------------|-----------------|---------------|
|                          | Factor 1: DIM   | Factor 2: HIM |
| Slight Image Creation    | .86             | .14           |
| Extensive Image Creation | 1.04            | -.25          |
| Deceptive Ingratiation   | .56             | .49           |
| Image Protection         | .91             | .01           |



|                          |      |     |
|--------------------------|------|-----|
| Honest Self-Promotion    | -.16 | .97 |
| Honest Ingratiation      | -.07 | .95 |
| Honest Defensive Tactics | .13  | .78 |

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Note:  $N = 166$ . A promax rotation was used. Factor loadings are reported from the pattern matrix.

**Interview Performance.** To measure interview performance, interviewers answered three performance questions. An EFA using principal axis factor extraction was conducted on the three dependent items measuring performance to better understand the structure of the interview performance construct. The scree plot indicated a single-factor solution accounting for 81.36% of variance. Factor loadings are displayed in Table 5. A mean score was then computed and used as the interview performance variable in subsequent analyses.

**Table 5**

*Exploratory Factor Analysis Interview Performance Items in Study 1*

---

| Items                           | Factor Loading |
|---------------------------------|----------------|
| Factor 1: Interview Performance |                |
| Overall Evaluation              | .85            |
| Hireability                     | .93            |
| Site Invite                     | .92            |

---

Note: As only one factor was extracted, the rotated factor matrix was the same as the pattern matrix.  $N = 166$ .

**Attributions.** Finally, an EFA using principal axis factor extraction and a promax rotation was conducted on six attribution items to determine the structure of the attribution construct. These new attribution items were created to assess perceptions that the interviewer

may have of the interviewee. Six attribution items were created, with three representing positive attributions (friendly, responsible, competent) and an additional three representing negative attributions (sycophantic, untrustworthy, arrogant). The negative attributions were reverse coded before the factor analysis by subtracting the value of the attribution from 100. This was to ensure consistency in the interpretation of the construct. Eigenvalues suggest that two factors should be extracted ( $\lambda_{Factor 1} = 2.85$ ,  $\lambda_{Factor 2} = 1.09$ ). The two-factor solution accounted for 65.74% of variance and based on the factor loadings (see Table 6), the second factor was interpretable and meaningful. Therefore, average scores were calculated across the positive attributions and negative attributions to create overall positive attribution and negative attribution scores.

**Table 6**

*Exploratory Factor Analysis Attribution Items in Study 1*

| Items         | Factor loadings                |                                |
|---------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
|               | Factor 1: Positive Attribution | Factor 2: Negative Attribution |
| Friendly      | .71                            | .16                            |
| Responsible   | .80                            | .08                            |
| Competent     | .90                            | -.19                           |
| Sycophantic   | -.25                           | .95                            |
| Untrustworthy | .22                            | .58                            |
| Arrogant      | .21                            | .70                            |

Note:  $N = 166$ . The factor loadings are reported from the pattern matrix.

**Testing Hypotheses: Part 1**

*Deceptive and Honest IM Antecedents*

Means and standard deviations are depicted in Table 7. Zero-order correlations revealed that deceptive IM use was associated with lower Honesty-Humility ( $r = -.33, p < .001$ ), cognitive ability ( $r = -.27, p < .001$ ), inhibition ( $r = -.31, p < .001$ ), working memory ( $r = -.28, p < .001$ ), and higher incongruency ( $r = .19, p = .012$ ). Therefore, hypotheses 1b, 3b, 4b, 5b, and 7b were supported. Honest IM was found to be related to lower Honesty-Humility ( $r = -.25, p = .001$ ), inhibition ( $r = -.25, p = .001$ ), and higher Extraversion ( $r = .20, p = .001$ ), supporting hypotheses 1a, 2, and 5a. Hypotheses 3a, 4a, 6a, 6b, and 7a were not supported.

**Hierarchical Regression.** To further examine which factors predicted IM usage, a hierarchical regression was conducted to examine the incremental prediction provided by each factor (see Table 8 & 9). The demographic factors of age, gender, and GPA were first entered as control variables in step one. These variables have been found previously to impact the likelihood of use of IM, such that those who are younger, male, and lower GPA tend to use more deceptive IM (e.g., Levashina & Campion, 2007). Personality variables were then entered in step two, given that these predictors are more well established in the IM literature, and the focus was on whether the novel predictors added incrementally to the prediction of IM. In step three, the cognitive ability, executive functioning variables, and incongruency were entered. Low Honesty-Humility ( $b = -.33, p = .004$ ) and cognitive ability ( $b = -.81, p = .005$ ) accounted for incremental prediction of deceptive IM use above and beyond the other factors (Total  $R^2 = .27, p < .001$ ). In contrast, low Honesty-Humility ( $b = -.24, p = .005$ ) and inhibition ( $b = -.32, p = .007$ ) accounted for unique variance above and beyond other factors for the prediction of honest IM use ( $R^2 = .20, p < .001$ ). These findings demonstrate that incorporating cognitive factors, like cognitive ability and executive functions, do help to explain variance in interview IM behavior, over and above personality and demographic factors.

**Table 7***Means and standard deviations of Study 1 variables*

| <i>Variable</i>           | Mean (SD)     | 1.    | 2.    | 3.    | 4.    | 5.     | 6.     | 7.     | 8.     | 9.     | 10.   | 11.  | 12.   | 13.   | 14.    | 15.    | 16.   |
|---------------------------|---------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|------|-------|-------|--------|--------|-------|
| 1. Age                    | 21.92 (3.39)  | -     |       |       |       |        |        |        |        |        |       |      |       |       |        |        |       |
| 2. Gender                 | -             | -.20* | -     |       |       |        |        |        |        |        |       |      |       |       |        |        |       |
| 3. GPA                    | 3.32 (.31)    | .29** | -.04  | -     |       |        |        |        |        |        |       |      |       |       |        |        |       |
| 4. Self-Monitoring        | 3.50 (.60)    | -.12  | .04   | -.17  | (.73) |        |        |        |        |        |       |      |       |       |        |        |       |
| 5. Honesty-Humility       | 3.38 (.58)    | .03   | .26** | .11   | -.14  | (.80)  |        |        |        |        |       |      |       |       |        |        |       |
| 6. Extraversion           | 3.37 (.56)    | -.13  | .02   | -.03  | .27** | -.10   | (.73)  |        |        |        |       |      |       |       |        |        |       |
| 7. Cognitive Ability      | .44 (.22)     | .13   | .07   | .16*  | .14   | .20*   | .13    | -      |        |        |       |      |       |       |        |        |       |
| 8. Inhibit                | 2.34 (.36)    | -.11  | .21** | .00   | .01   | .23**  | .06    | .04    | (.72)  |        |       |      |       |       |        |        |       |
| 9. Working Memory         | 2.31 (.41)    | -.05  | .01   | -.02  | -.12  | .14    | .22**  | .06    | .70**  | (.74)  |       |      |       |       |        |        |       |
| 10. Shifting              | 2.28 (.38)    | -.05  | .09   | -.03  | -.08  | .06    | .31**  | .07    | .55**  | .63**  | (.81) |      |       |       |        |        |       |
| 11. Incongruency          | 65.75 (53.98) | .14   | .01   | .05   | .01   | -.14*  | -.25** | .03    | -.09   | -.18*  | -.17* | -    |       |       |        |        |       |
| 12. Deceptive IM          | 2.04 (.79)    | .13   | -.13  | .01   | -.12  | -.33** | -.09   | -.27** | -.31** | -.28** | -.11  | .19* | (.96) |       |        |        |       |
| 13. Honest IM             | 3.18 (.85)    | -.00  | .02   | .02   | .18*  | -.25** | .20**  | .06    | -.25** | -.15*  | -.03  | .07  | .44*  | (.96) |        |        |       |
| 14. Overall Performance   | 3.97 (.99)    | .12   | .11   | .12   | .13   | .05    | .12    | .09    | .09    | .07    | .13   | -.01 | -.06  | .14   | (.92)  |        |       |
| 15. Positive Attributions | 81.60 (13.60) | .14   | .17*  | .25** | .12   | .16*   | .04    | .05    | .07    | -.06   | .06   | -.05 | -.12  | .07   | .62**  | (.76)  |       |
| 16. Negative Attributions | 17.09 (16.79) | .01   | -.19* | -.10  | .05   | -.11   | .12    | .06    | .13    | .05    | -.04  | -.04 | .10   | .08   | -.31** | -.47** | (.67) |

*Note.*  $N = 166$ , except for Gender, where  $N = 165$ , and GPA, where  $N = 160$ . Statistics from the pooled data are used where possible. Correlations and means reported are pooled from the 40 iterations of imputation, whereas the SDs reported are the original data values.

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ .

**Table 8***Hierarchical regressions for predicting incremental deceptive IM usage in Study 1*

| <i>Variable</i>   | <i>Step 1</i> |          | <i>Step 2</i> |          | <i>Step 3</i> |          |
|-------------------|---------------|----------|---------------|----------|---------------|----------|
|                   | <i>B(SE)</i>  | <i>B</i> | <i>B(SE)</i>  | <i>B</i> | <i>B(SE)</i>  | <i>B</i> |
| Intercept         | 1.81(.79)     |          | 4.07(.99)     |          | 4.01(1.03)    |          |
| Age               | .03(.02)      | .11      | .03(.02)      | .11      | .03(.02)      | .11      |
| Gender            | -.17(.14)     | -.10     | -.00(.13)     | -.00     | -.02(.13)     | -.01     |
| GPA               | -.05(.22)     | -.02     | -.01(.21)     | -.00     | .04(.20)      | .02      |
| Honesty-Humility  |               |          | -.51(.11)     | -.36**   | -.33(.11)     | -.23**   |
| Extraversion      |               |          | -.11(.11)     | -.07     | .01(.12)      | .01      |
| Self-Monitoring   |               |          | -.18(.11)     | -.13     | -.16(.11)     | -.12     |
| Cognitive ability |               |          |               |          | -.81(.28)     | -.22**   |
| Working memory    |               |          |               |          | -.43(.22)     | -.22     |
| Inhibition        |               |          |               |          | -.34(.25)     | -.15     |
| Shifting          |               |          |               |          | .35(.22)      | .16      |
| Incongruency      |               |          |               |          | .00(.00)      | .13      |

*Note.* For Step 1,  $R^2 = .02$ ,  $F(3, 155) = .15$ ,  $p = .282$ .

For Step 2,  $R^2 = .15$ ,  $F(6, 152) = 4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .13$ ,  $F_{change}(3, 152) = 7.57$ ,  $p < .001$ .

For Step 3,  $R^2 = .27$ ,  $F(12, 146) = 3.37$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .12$ ,  $F_{change}(5, 147) = 5.02$ ,  $p = .001$ .

For standardized coefficients, the average value over 40 iterations was used as there are no standardized coefficients provided for pooled data.

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ .

**Table 9***Hierarchical regressions for predicting incremental honest IM usage in Study 1*

| <i>Variable</i>   | <i>Step 1</i> |          | <i>Step 2</i> |          | <i>Step 3</i> |          |
|-------------------|---------------|----------|---------------|----------|---------------|----------|
|                   | <i>B(SE)</i>  | <i>B</i> | <i>B(SE)</i>  | <i>B</i> | <i>B(SE)</i>  | <i>B</i> |
| Intercept         | 2.91(.81)     |          | 2.13(1.02)    |          | 2.73(1.10)    |          |
| Age               | -.00(.02)     | -.01     | .01(.02)      | .03      | .00(.02)      | .00      |
| Gender            | .08(.14)      | .05      | .21(.14)      | .12      | .25(.14)      | .15      |
| GPA               | .07(.22)      | .03      | .21(.21)      | .08      | .23(.21)      | .08      |
| Honesty-Humility  |               |          | -.42(.11)     | -.29**   | -.34(.12)     | -.24**   |
| Extraversion      |               |          | .20(.12)      | .14      | .16(.13)      | .11      |
| Self-Monitoring   |               |          | .18(.11)      | .13      | .21(.12)      | .15      |
| Cognitive Ability |               |          |               |          | .12(.30)      | .03      |
| Working Memory    |               |          |               |          | .03(.24)      | .02      |
| Inhibit           |               |          |               |          | -.73(.27)     | -.32**   |
| Shifting          |               |          |               |          | .32(.23)      | .15      |
| Incongruency      |               |          |               |          | .00(.00)      | .03      |

*Note.* For Step 1,  $R^2 = .00$ ,  $F(3, 155) = .15$ ,  $p = .933$ .

For Step 2,  $R^2 = .14$ ,  $F(6, 152) = 4.08$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .14$ ,  $F_{change}(3, 152) = 7.99$ ,  $p < .001$ .

For Step 3,  $R^2 = .20$ ,  $F(11, 147) = 3.37$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .06$ ,  $F_{change}(5, 147) = 2.30$ ,  $p = .048$ .

For standardized coefficients, the average value over 40 iterations was used as there are no standardized coefficients provided for pooled data.

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ .

### ***IM Relationship to Attributions and Interview Performance***

**Zero-Order Correlations.** To better understand the relationships between honest and deceptive IM to attributions and interview performance ratings, the zero-order correlations were examined. There was no significant relationship between positive and negative attributions, and

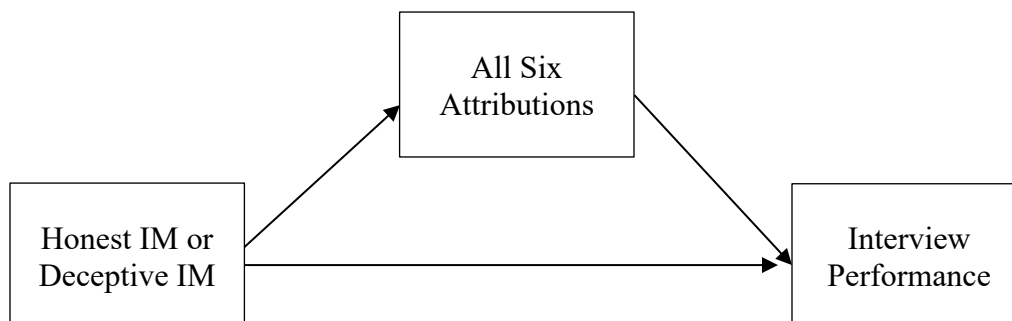
deceptive IM ( $r = -.12, p = .114$ , and  $r = .10, p = .199$ , respectively), or honest IM ( $r = .07, p = .384$ , and  $r = .08, p = .328$ , respectively). There was also no significant correlation between interview performance and deceptive IM ( $r = -.06, p = .428$ ). There was, however, a correlation that was marginally significant between honest IM ( $r = .14, p = .066$ ) and performance. There were also significant correlations found between interview performance and positive attributions ( $r = .62, p < .001$ ) and negative attributions ( $r = -.31, p < .001$ ). This suggests that overall, while positive attributions contribute to higher interview performance, negative attributions negatively impact evaluations. However, at the broad level, deceptive and honest IM were not found to significantly relate to performance nor attributions.

Taking it one step further, the zero-order correlations between the individual facets of honest and deceptive IM and the individual attributions were examined. Honest IM tactics were related to more positive attributions. Honest ingratiation was related to being seen as competent ( $r = .17, p = .027$ ), and there was a marginally significant positive relationship between honest self-promotion and being seen as competent ( $r = .15, p = .055$ ). In contrast, deceptive IM tactics were related to more negative attributions. Those who used image protection were seen as more arrogant ( $r = .16, p = .049$ ) and less responsible ( $r = -.16, p = .039$ ). Those who used extensive image creation were seen as less responsible ( $r = -.18, p = .022$ ) and marginally more arrogant ( $r = .15, p = .054$ ). Finally, interview performance was positively related to honest self-promotion ( $r = .17, p = .032$ ), and honest ingratiation ( $r = .16, p = .043$ ). This suggests that while the specific tactics did relate to individual attributions, only the two honest IM tactics had direct positive relations with interview performance.

**Attributions as a Mediator.** To better address the question of whether the effect of IM tactics on interview performance is mediated by attributions, two mediations were conducted with the six attributions entered simultaneously to reduce family wise error (see Figure 2).

**Figure 2**

*Study 1: Mediation of IM on Interview Performance Through Attributions*



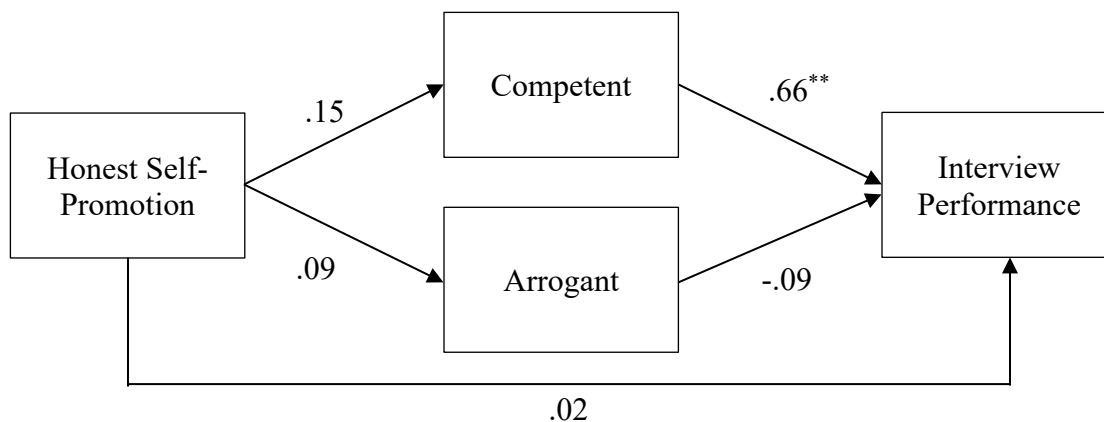
Model 4 in PROCESS (Hayes, 2012) was used to conduct two mediations using deceptive IM and honest IM as the independent variable, respectively. There was no direct or indirect effect found for deceptive IM on interview performance through attributions. For honest IM however, although there was no total significant effect found, there was a significant indirect effect of honest IM through the attribution of competency to interview performance found ( $b = .09$ , 95% CI = [.01, .21]).

To further investigate this, the specific honest IM tactics were examined, along with their respective dual attributions. There was a significant indirect effect found of honest self-promotion on interview performance through the attribution of competency ( $b = .10$ , 95% CI = [.00, .28]; see Figure 3).



**Figure 3**

*Study 1: Effect of Honest Self-Promotion on Interview Performance Through Attributions*

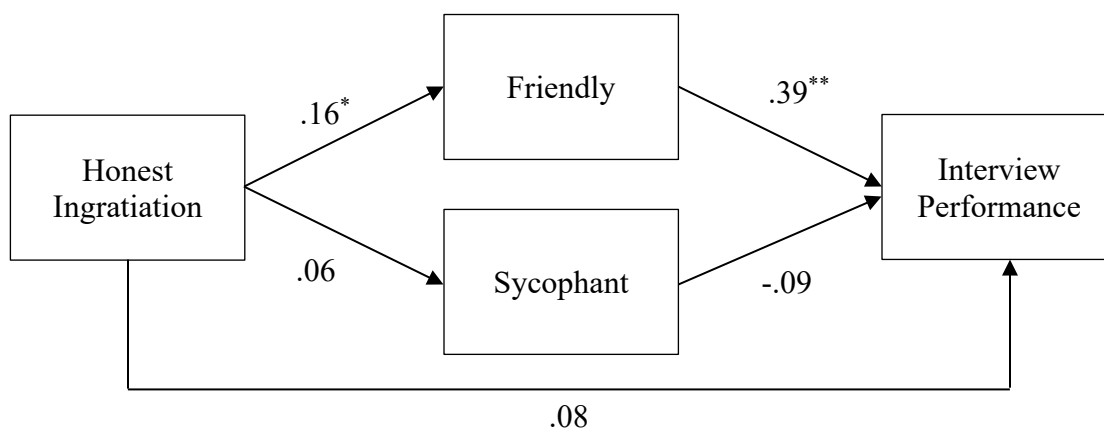


*Note.*  $N = 161$ . Direct Effect:  $b = .02, p = .710$ . Indirect Effect of Honest Self-Promotion on Interview Performance through Competent:  $b = .10, 95\% \text{ CI} = [.00, .22]$ . \* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$

There was also a significant indirect effect found of honest ingratiation on interview performance through the attribution of friendly ( $b = .06, 95\% \text{ CI} = [.00, .13]$ ; see Figure 4).

**Figure 4**

*Study 1: Effect of Honest Ingratiation on Interview Performance Through Attributions*



*Note.*  $N = 161$ . Direct Effect:  $b = .08, p = .269$ . Indirect Effect of Honest Self-Promotion on Interview Performance through Friendly:  $b = .06, 95\% \text{ CI} = [.00, .13]$ . \* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$

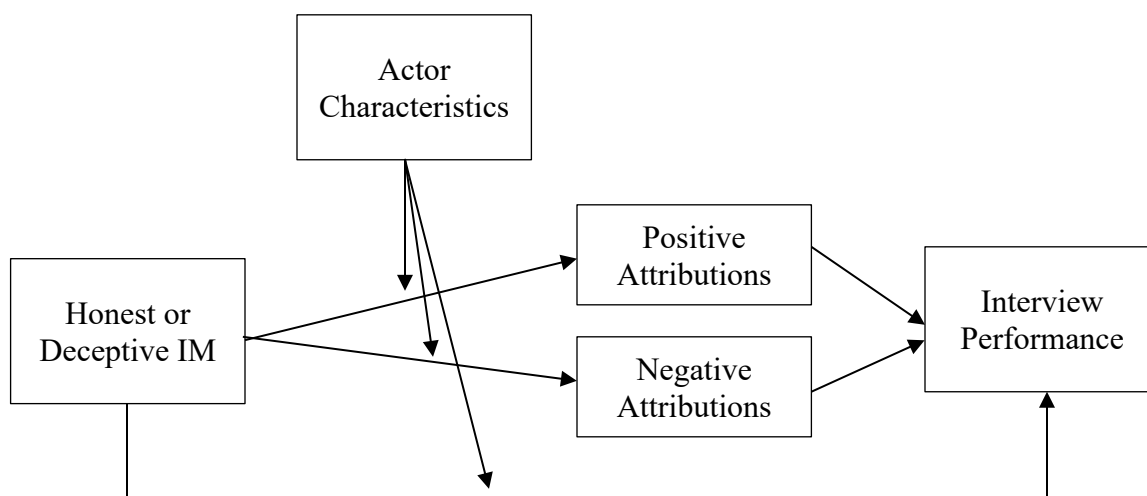
Taken together, hypothesis 8 were partially supported as attributions were found to mediate the relationship between honest IM and interview performance, but not deceptive IM and interview performance. Overall, results indicated that it may be important to examine relevant attributions for each specific IM tactic when considering an IM tactic's impact on interview performance.

### ***Moderated Mediation Model of IM Effectiveness***

To test the moderated mediation model of IM effectiveness, moderated mediations were conducted in PROCESS (Hayes, 2012) for each moderator using model 8 (see Figure 5 below). At the broad level, the findings indicated that there was no significant moderated mediation effect found between deceptive or honest IM use and overall performance through attributions for any of the eight possible moderators. Therefore, the proposed model of IM effectiveness was not supported. These results indicate that the actor characteristics of personality (Honesty-Humility, self-monitoring, and Extraversion) and cognitive and motivational factors (cognitive ability, shifting, inhibition, working memory, and incongruency) do not seem to moderate the relationship between both deceptive and honest IM on performance through attributions, or the direct relationship between honest and deceptive IM and performance. Therefore, hypotheses 9 to 16 were not supported.

**Figure 5**

*Study 1: Moderated Mediation of Honest and Deceptive IM on Interview Performance*



### *Supplemental Analyses*

Although the two-factor differentiation between honest and deceptive IM was used for the overall moderated mediation models for parsimony, the seven-factor model of IM tactics was found to have better model fit than the two-factor model. Indeed, within the IM literature, it has been found that certain facets of IM have more of an impact on performance than others. Therefore, to better understand the effects of IM, I focused in on two specific tactics from deceptive and honest IM: extensive image creation and honest self-promotion. These two tactics were selected because they are both self-promotion tactics and have been found to have stronger relationships with performance in previous studies (Melchers et al., 2020; Peck & Levashina, 2017). Moreover, in this current sample, honest self-promotion and extensive image creation were found to have the highest correlations out of their respective dimensions with interview performance ( $r = .16, p = .032$ ;  $r = -.09, p = .258$ ) and attributions ( $r = .05, p = .539$ ;  $r = -.14, p = .064$ ). Thus, these two tactics were used when conducting these supplemental analyses. In the same vein, the specific attributions of competency and arrogance were also used instead of the

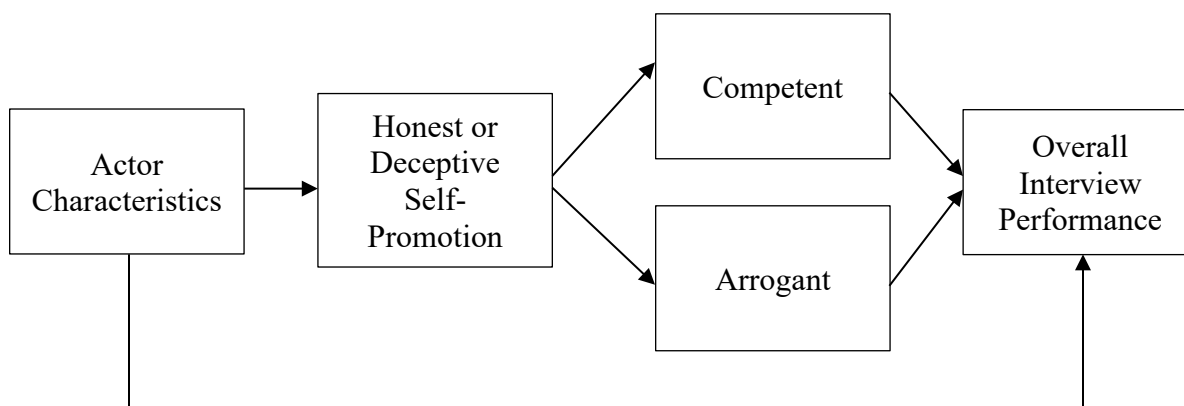
overall positive and negative attribution variables, as these two attributions are most relevant to self-promotion tactics (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Overall, these models are meant to inform to what interviewee characteristics may impact interview performance, and the mechanisms through which this may take place.

**Moderated Mediation Models with Specific Tactics and Attributions.** Two moderated mediations were conducted for each of the eight moderators, with honest self-promotion as the individual variable in one model, and extensive image creation in the other. Overall, none of these 16 models were significant. This indicates that even when using a more specific and narrow approach, there were still no significant effects found.

**Antecedent Mediation Models.** The results of the analyses thus far indicate that individual differences were not acting as moderators, but were, in several cases, predictors of IM use rather than IM effectiveness. As there were no significant moderated mediation found, the decision was made to focus on examining the impact of actor characteristics on interview performance as mediated by deceptive and honest self-promotion and the related positive and negative attributions of competent and arrogant (see figure 6 below).

## Figure 6

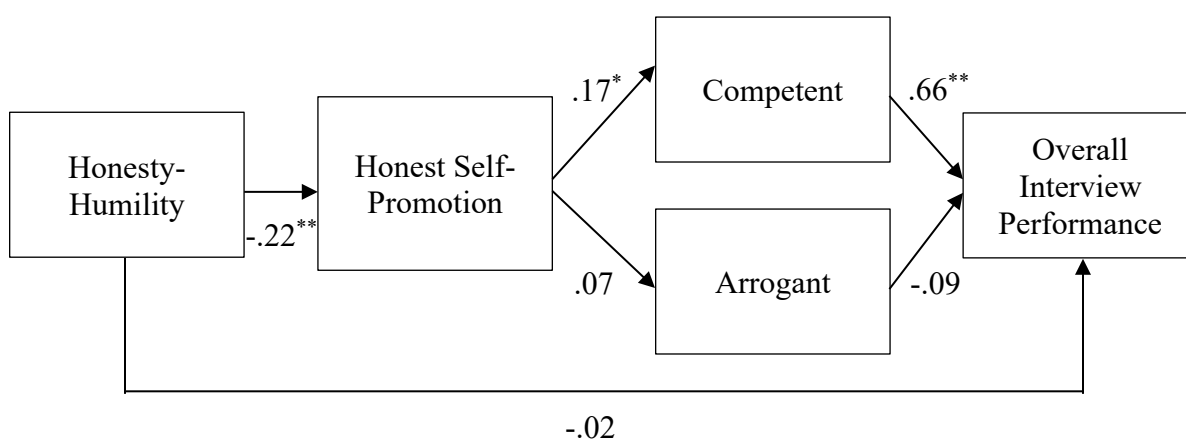
*Study 1: Indirect Model of Actor Characteristics on Overall Interview Performance*



Model 81 was used in PROCESS (Hayes, 2012) to conduct the mediations for each of the antecedents. Out of the 16 models run, there was only one significant mediation, such that Honesty-Humility was found to have a negative indirect effect on interview performance through honest self-promotion and the attribution of competency ( $b = -.04$ , 95% CI =  $[-.09, -.00]$ ; see Figure 7). This finding operated such that individuals low in Honesty-Humility engaged in more honest self-promotion, were thus seen as more competent and ultimately attained higher interview performance.

### Figure 7

*Study 1: Indirect Effect of Honesty-Humility on Overall Interview Performance*



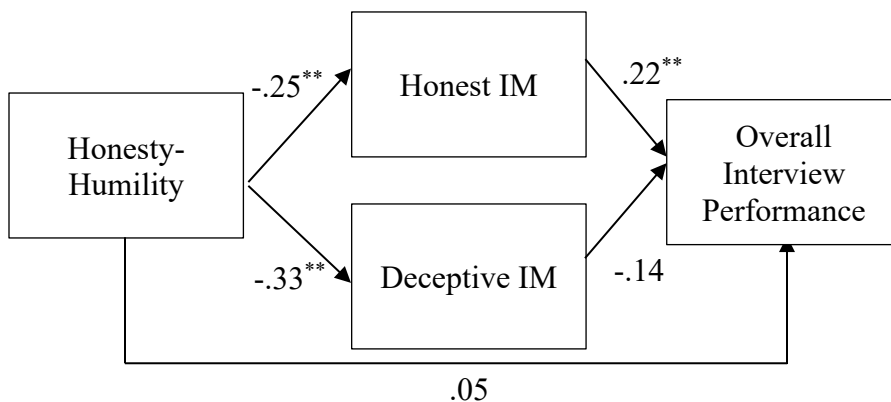
*Note.*  $N = 161$ . Reported values are standardized. Direct Effect:  $b = -.00$ ,  $p = .978$ . Indirect Effect of Honesty-Humility on Overall Interview Performance Through Competent:  $b = -.04$ , 95% CI =  $[-.09, -.00]$ . \* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ .

**Mediation Model of Actor Characteristics to Interview Performance.** Finally, mediation models examining the effect of actor characteristics on interview performance through honest and deceptive IM, without attributions, was examined as a supplementary analysis. Model 4 in PROCESS was used to test these models.

There was a significant mediated effect of Honesty-Humility on overall interview performance through honest IM ( $b = -.09$ , 95% CI =  $[-.18, -.02]$ ; see Figure 8). This suggests that those who are low on Honesty-Humility are more likely to use honest IM, and therefore, experience higher overall interview performance.

### Figure 8

*Study 1: Indirect Effect of Honesty-Humility on Overall Interview Performance Through IM*

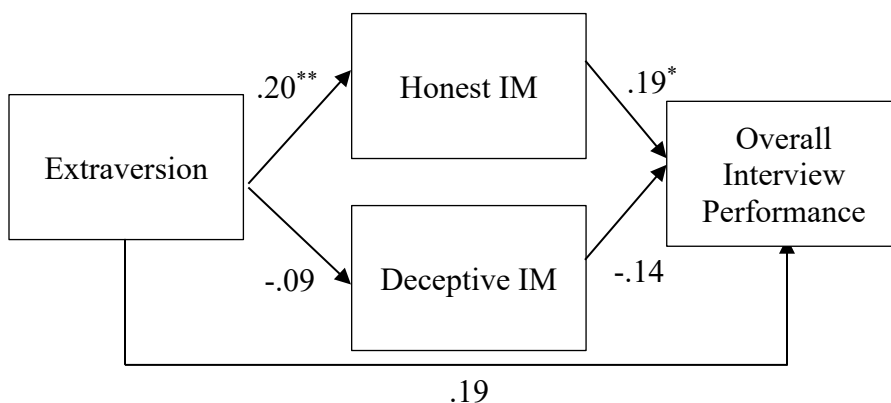


*Note.*  $N = 161$ . Reported values are standardized. Direct Effect:  $b = .09$ ,  $p = .525$ . Indirect Effect of Honesty-Humility on Overall Interview Performance Through Honest IM:  $b = -.09$ , 95% CI =  $[-.18, -.02]$ . \* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ .

There was also a significant mediated effect of Extraversion on interview performance through honest IM ( $b = .07$ , 95% CI =  $[.00, .16]$ ; see Figure 9). This suggests that those who are high on Extraversion experience higher overall interview performance through engaging in honest IM.

**Figure 9**

*Study 1: Indirect Effect of Extraversion on Overall Interview Performance Through IM*

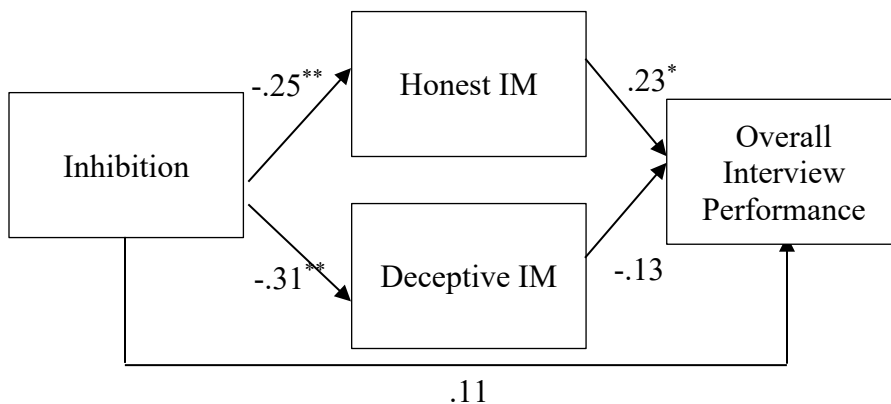


*Note.* N = 161. Reported values are standardized. Direct Effect:  $b = .11$ ,  $p = .435$ . Indirect Effect of Extraversion on Overall Interview Performance Through Honest IM:  $b = .07$ , 95% CI = [.00, .16]. \* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ .

Finally, there was a significant negative indirect effect of inhibition on interview performance through honest IM ( $b = -.15$ , 95% CI = [-.22, -.03]; see Figure 10). This suggests that those lower on inhibition engage in more honest IM, therefore leading to higher interview performance.

**Figure 10**

*Study 1: Indirect Effect of Inhibition on Overall Interview Performance Through IM*



*Note.*  $N = 161$ . Reported values are standardized. Direct Effect:  $b = .29, p = .194$ . Indirect Effect of Inhibition on Overall Interview Performance Through Honest IM:  $b = -.15, 95\% \text{ CI} = [-.33, -.03]$ . \* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ .

### **Study 1 Part 2**

Means and standard deviations are depicted in Table 10. IM usage in the interview, cognitive ability and executive functioning, and personality were obtained at time point 1 in part 1, whereas IM use in the workplace, person-job fit, person-organization fit, CWB, OCB, turnover intentions, and job satisfaction were obtained at time point 2 in part 2.

#### ***Interview IM and Workplace IM***

To examine the relationship between IM use in the interview and IM use in the workplace, zero-order correlations were first examined. The seven interview IM tactics and five workplace IM tactics were quite significantly correlated, ranging from  $r = .26 - .51$ . Slight image creation was positively related to exemplification ( $r = .51, p < .001$ ), supplication ( $r = .26, p < .05$ ), and ingratiation ( $r = .32, p < .05$ ). Extensive image creation was positively related to exemplification ( $r = .36, p < .001$ ), intimidation ( $r = .28, p = .038$ ), and supplication ( $r = .34, p < .05$ ). Image protection was positively correlated with supplication ( $r = .41, p < .001$ ), exemplification ( $r = .43, p < .001$ ), and ingratiation ( $r = .30, p = .05$ ). Deceptive ingratiation was positively related to exemplification ( $r = .54, p < .01$ ), and ingratiation ( $r = .27, p < .05$ ). Honest ingratiation was positively related to exemplification ( $r = .27, p < .05$ ). Honest self-promotion was positively related to exemplification ( $r = .31, p < .05$ ). Honest defensive IM was positively related to exemplification ( $r = .42, p < .001$ ). Overall, it appears that both honest and deceptive interview IM was related to more subsequent workplace IM, and therefore, hypothesis 17a and 17b were supported.



### *Interview IM and Workplace Outcomes*

**Zero-Order Correlations.** To understand the relationship between interview IM and workplace outcomes, the zero-order correlations were first examined. There were significant relationships between deceptive IM and workplace outcomes. More specifically, slight image creation, extensive image creation, and image protection was related to significantly less person organization fit ( $r = -.46, p < .001, r = -.46, p < .001, \text{ and } r = -.44, p < .001$ ), job satisfaction ( $r = -.28, p = .035, r = -.33, p = .014, \text{ and } r = -.29, p = .032$ ), and increased counterproductive work behaviors ( $r = .33, p = .012, r = .45, p < .001, \text{ and } r = .29, p = .027$ ) and turnover intentions ( $r = .40, p = .002, r = .44, p < .001, \text{ and } r = .39, p = .003$ ). Finally, only deceptive ingratiation was negatively related to person-organization fit ( $r = -.37, p = .005$ ). Therefore, hypotheses 18a, 19a, 19b, and 19c were supported, but 18b was not supported. Honest interview IM was not significantly related to any job outcomes, and therefore hypotheses 20a, 20b, 20c were not supported. Overall, these results suggest that those who engage in deceptive IM in the interview later experience more negative work outcomes.

**Table 10***Means and standard deviations of Study 1 part 2 variables*

| <i>Variable</i>             | Mean (SD)        | 1.    | 2.   | 3.    | 4.     | 5.     | 6.    | 7.    | 8.    | 9.     | 10.   | 11.    | 12.    | 13.   | 14.   | 15.    |
|-----------------------------|------------------|-------|------|-------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|--------|--------|-------|-------|--------|
| 1. Age                      | 21.07<br>(2.27)  | -     |      |       |        |        |       |       |       |        |       |        |        |       |       |        |
| 2. Gender                   | -                | -.21  | -    |       |        |        |       |       |       |        |       |        |        |       |       |        |
| 3. GPA                      | 3.40 (.28)       | .09   | -.18 | -     |        |        |       |       |       |        |       |        |        |       |       |        |
| 4. Self-Monitoring          | 3.44 (.66)       | -.19  | .03  | -.08  | (.85)  |        |       |       |       |        |       |        |        |       |       |        |
| 5. Honesty-Humility         | 3.38 (.61)       | .02   | .17  | .19   | -.13   | (.81)  |       |       |       |        |       |        |        |       |       |        |
| 6. Extraversion             | 3.40 (.57)       | .35** | -.09 | .05   | .23    | -.15   | (.73) |       |       |        |       |        |        |       |       |        |
| 7. Cognitive Ability        | .40 (.21)        | -.03  | .07  | .28*  | .17    | .20    | .21   | -     |       |        |       |        |        |       |       |        |
| 8. Inhibition               | 2.40 (.34)       | -.31* | .34* | -.15  | -.09*  | .37**  | -.15  | .06   | (.70) |        |       |        |        |       |       |        |
| 9. Working Memory           | 2.32 (.38)       | -.24  | .23  | -.07  | -.25   | .32*   | .02   | .02   | .74*  | (.78)  |       |        |        |       |       |        |
| 10. Shifting                | 2.28 (.36)       | -.21  | .16  | -.22  | -.36** | .07    | .07   | -.05  | .54*  | .70*   | (.58) |        |        |       |       |        |
| 11. Incongruency            | 67.36<br>(54.12) | .12   | .15  | .06   | .11    | -.38** | -.20  | -.04  | -.30* | -.40** | -.22  | -      |        |       |       |        |
| 12. CWB                     | 1.46 (.49)       | .35** | -.22 | -.11  | -.10   | -.22   | -.30* | -.23  | -.27* | -.31*  | -.19  | .10    | (.91)  |       |       |        |
| 13. OCB                     | 4.63 (1.13)      | -.21  | .08  | .01   | .11    | .06    | -.06  | .01   | -.01  | .09    | -.04  | -.03   | -.31*  | (.92) |       |        |
| 14. Job Satisfaction        | 3.63 (.97)       | -.33* | .18  | .06   | -.10   | .25    | -.03  | -.03  | .37** | .47**  | .28*  | -.28*  | -.34*  | .40** | (.88) |        |
| 15. Turnover Intentions     | 1.60 (.58)       | .16   | -.21 | -.04  | -.10   | -.29*  | -.25  | -.29* | -.34* | -.36*  | -.18  | .27*   | .87**  | -.29* | -.26  | (.81)  |
| 16. Person-Job Fit          | 4.37 (.74)       | -.18  | .33* | -.27* | .16    | .02    | -.03  | -.14  | .15   | .10    | -.08  | .10    | -.25   | .33*  | -.02  | -.19   |
| 17. Person-Organization fit | 3.71 (.94)       | -.26  | .22  | .00   | .19    | .30*   | .11   | .10   | .30*  | .30*   | -.04  | -.40** | -.42** | .42** | .59** | -.40** |
| 18. Self-Promotion          | 3.28 (.86)       | .12   | .02  | .03   | .10    | -.29*  | .04   | .02   | -.25  | -.30*  | -.18* | .09    | -.09   | .30*  | .08   | .11    |

| <i>Variable</i>              | Mean (SD)   | 1.    | 2.   | 3.    | 4.    | 5.     | 6.   | 7.    | 8.     | 9.                | 10.  | 11.   | 12.   | 13.   | 14.   | 15.   |
|------------------------------|-------------|-------|------|-------|-------|--------|------|-------|--------|-------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 19. Ingratiation             | 3.53 (.81)  | -.04  | -.04 | .15   | -.02  | -.32*  | -.00 | .11   | -.13   | -.17              | -.16 | .06   | .05   | .26   | .27*  | .12   |
| 20. Exemplification          | 2.91 (.85)  | -.22  | -.04 | .01   | -.15* | -.33*  | -.11 | -.02  | -.24   | .34**             | -.24 | .28*  | .24   | .01   | -.05  | .30*  |
| 21. Intimidation             | 1.37 (.56)  | .46** | -.10 | -.14  | .03   | -.21   | -.17 | -.07  | -.26   | -.29*             | -.16 | -.04  | .65** | -.18  | -.25  | .57** |
| 22. Supplication             | 1.82 (.70)  | .45** | -.22 | .01   | -.02  | -.27*  | -.14 | .06   | -.24   | -.37**            | -.24 | .10   | .48** | -.35* | -.24  | .42** |
| 23. Slight Image Creation    | 2.32 (1.04) | .18   | -.11 | -.19  | -.26* | -.44** | -.18 | -.28* | -.40** | -.34*             | -.13 | .48** | .33*  | -.01  | -.28* | .40** |
| 24. Extensive Image Creation | 1.74 (.85)  | .31*  | -.11 | -.29* | -.21  | -.25   | -.26 | -.29* | -.41** | -.38**            | -.19 | .31*  | .45** | .01   | -.33* | .44** |
| 25. Image Protection         | 1.99 (.87)  | .19   | -.21 | .03   | -.18  | -.36** | -.09 | -.29* | -.44** | -.42**            | -.11 | .35** | .29*  | -.13  | -.29* | .39** |
| 26. Ingratiation             | 2.55 (.95)  | .13   | -.14 | -.12  | -.21  | -.43** | .01  | -.21  | -.39** | -.28*             | -.11 | .46** | .18   | .15   | -.20  | .26   |
| 27. Honest Ingratiation      | 3.28 (.98)  | -.13  | -.03 | -.05  | .01   | -.40** | .13  | -.01  | -.21   | -.03              | .01  | .38** | -.03  | .18   | -.09  | .10   |
| 28. Honest Self-Promotion    | 3.62 (.84)  | -.26  | .05  | .07   | -.23  | -.43** | .15  | -.12  | -.15   | -.03 <sup>+</sup> | .06  | .34*  | -.02  | .13   | -.08  | .11   |
| 29. Honest Defensive IM      | 2.78 (.88)  | -.01  | -.08 | .09   | -.06  | -.41** | .03  | -.04  | -.42** | -.30*             | -.22 | .28*  | .15   | .10   | -.20  | .22   |

**Table 10**  
*Continued*

| <i>Variable</i>              | Mean (SD)   | 16.    | 17.    | 18.   | 19.   | 20.   | 21.   | 22.   | 23.   | 24.   | 25.   | 26.   | 27.   | 28.   | 29.   |
|------------------------------|-------------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 16. Person-Job Fit           | 4.37 (.74)  | (.91)  |        |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 17. Person-Organization fit  | 3.71 (.94)  | .33*   | (.77)  |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 18. Self-Promotion           | 3.28 (.86)  | -.13   | .18    | (.89) |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 19. Ingratiation             | 3.53 (.81)  | .00    | .21    | .62** | (.86) |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 20. Exemplification          | 2.91 (.85)  | -.10   | -.10   | .46** | .59** | (.78) |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 21. Intimidation             | 1.37 (.56)  | -.29*  | -.14   | .29*  | .09   | .31*  | (.93) |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 22. Supplication             | 1.82 (.70)  | -.34** | -.22   | .31*  | .35** | .50** | .59** | (.88) |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 23. Slight Image Creation    | 2.32 (1.04) | -.00   | -.46** | .18   | .32*  | .51** | .17   | .26*  | (.89) |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 24. Extensive Image Creation | 1.74 (.85)  | .01    | -.46** | .07   | .15   | .36** | .28*  | .34*  | .82** | (.94) |       |       |       |       |       |
| 25. Image Protection         | 1.99 (.87)  | -.16   | -.44** | .14   | .30*  | .43** | .20   | .41** | .80** | .75** | (.85) |       |       |       |       |
| 26. Ingratiation             | 2.55 (.95)  | .01    | -.37** | .25   | .27*  | .54** | .13   | .17   | .84** | .65** | .64** | (.88) |       |       |       |
| 27. Honest Ingratiation      | 3.28 (.98)  | .09    | -.16   | .11   | .15   | .27*  | -.03  | -.08  | .52** | .27*  | .31*  | .74** | (.90) |       |       |
| 28. Honest Self-Promotion    | 3.62 (.84)  | .18    | -.17   | .21   | .23   | .31*  | -.09  | -.02  | .53** | .18   | .33*  | .66** | .75** | (.94) |       |
| 29. Honest Defensive IM      | 2.78 (.88)  | .04    | -.20   | .10   | .19   | .42** | .16   | .10   | .57** | .43** | .54** | .71** | .66** | .60** | (.87) |

*Note.*  $N = 56$ , except for GPA ( $N = 53$ ). Statistics from the pooled data are used where possible. Correlations and means reported are pooled from the 40 iterations of imputation, whereas the SDs reported are the original data values. Extensive image creation, image protection, ingratiation, honest ingratiation, honest self-promotion, and honest defensive IM variables were measured from time 1 after the interview.

\* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ .

### *Summary of Study 1 Results*

Taken together, the results suggest that while actor characteristics do seem to play an antecedent role in predicting honest and deceptive IM use, they did not appear to moderate the effectiveness of IM. Deceptive IM use was used more by applicants lower in Honesty-Humility, cognitive ability, inhibition, working memory, and those with higher incongruency. Honest IM use was related to low Honesty-Humility, low inhibition, and high Extraversion. There was support that IM influenced interview performance through attributions, but significant effects were only found for honest IM. More specifically, honest self-promotion was found to positively impact performance through the attribution of competent, and honest ingratiation through the attribution of friendly. Finally, in terms of how actor characteristics impacted interview performance through IM use, Honesty-Humility, Extraversion, and inhibition were found to have a significant mediated effect on interview performance through honest IM, such that those low on Honesty-Humility and inhibition were more likely to use honest IM, thus leading to higher interview performance. Those higher on Extraversion were more likely to engage in honest IM, leading to higher interview performance.

Interestingly, those who engaged in honest and deceptive IM in the interview were subsequently more likely to engage in the five workplace IM tactics later. More specifically, those who engaged in deceptive IM were more likely to engage in all five workplace IM behaviors, whereas those who engaged in honest IM were more likely to engage in exemplification. Moreover, those who engaged in deceptive IM in the interview reported experiencing more negative work outcomes later. Though this provides some evidence that engaging in more deceptive IM during the interview may result in the candidate obtaining a

position that may be less suited for them, and thus have more intentions to turnover, these results should be taken cautiously because the sample size is quite small.

## Chapter 4: Study 2

Although the findings from Study 1 suggest that individual characteristics impacted the frequency of engaging in deceptive and honest IM, there were no significant effects found on IM effectiveness. To test the robustness of the effects found, a second experimental study was conducted. As the practice interviews were conducted by several interviewers across different organizations, the interview questions and content varied. To perform a more controlled test of the hypotheses, I conducted an experimental follow-up study using a video interview methodology.

Asynchronous Video Interviews (AVIs) are used by organizations to efficiently assess multiple candidates remotely (Lukacik et al., 2020). AVIs are quicker, less costly, and demand less time from hiring managers, and thus, organizations have started to implement them (Brenner et al., 2016). Questions are presented in text form, and the applicant is then asked to record a video answer. The videos are then viewed and evaluated at a later date, and candidates who are selected move forward through the next stage in the hiring process. The exact features of the AVIs can be adjusted and controlled. For example, it can be set so that applicants will have only one chance to record their answer to the questions, or they may have multiple chances to record and select the video they think is best. Moreover, the use of AVI for selecting candidates is already widespread, with AVI companies like Hirevue working with over 700 companies globally to conduct over eight million AVIs by the end of 2018 (HireVue, 2018). AVIs are also already being used by a variety of different fields to help select applicants. For example, the Association of American Medical Colleges uses a standardized video interview process to help select residents (Bird et al, 2018).

Although the design of Study 1 provided a realistic, higher stakes interview setting, there were several drawbacks. First, because Study 1 part 1 had to be conducted at one time point, with the interviewees filling out surveys right after their practice interview, it is possible that the data quality may have been impacted. The participants may have been fatigued, as they filled out their surveys and completed cognitive ability tests immediately after their interview. Second, due to the length of the survey and the inclusion of the cognitive ability test, the three executive functions were assessed through a survey-based measure as to not overly fatigue participants. Using task-based measures instead would allow for more precise measurement of these three executive functions. Third, as the interviews were conducted by several different interviewers from different organizations, it was not possible to keep interview questions consistent, which may make it more difficult to disentangle the effects of IM. Finally, despite two years of data collection, the sample size for Study 1 failed to reach the ideal power to adequately detect smaller interaction effects to examine IM effectiveness.

To address these drawbacks, several considerations were made for Study 2. A two-part design was used to help prevent participant fatigue, with one-week time span in between the two parts. As a result of this, it was possible to incorporate task-based measures for executive functioning into the survey at time point two. AVIs allowed for interview questions to be consistently presented to all candidates, while also allowing for a higher quantity of data to be collected more effectively. Therefore, although there may be differences between face-to-face interviews and AVIs, there were many benefits to being able to have a more consistent experience across all participants. For example, some differences between AVIs and face-to-face interviews include the lack of interaction and immediate feedback, as the applicant is unable to



see in real time how their answer was received. Moreover, AVIs may be either less or more cognitively taxing depending on the comfort and familiarity that one has with technology.

## **Methods**

### ***Sample and Procedure***

In this present study, 369 participants were recruited through a study platform known as “Prolific.” Prolific has been found to be an online crowdsourcing survey platform comparable to MTurk (see Peer et al., 2017). Prolific allowed for participant filtering, and thus, for this current study, participants must have been job-seeking adults residing in North America or the United Kingdom, and fluent in English. The participants that met the criteria listed were then presented with the study ad and invited to participate. The participants completed the video interview through an online AVI and survey platform called “VIPP,” and filled out a questionnaire about their behaviors during the video interview at time 1. One week later, the participants completed a survey including personality questions, a cognitive ability test, and three cognitive tasks at time 2. After matching the data from the two time points, there were 305 participants in total. Participants who responded with a 3 or higher to the following question, “I answered all questions honestly” were included in the analysis. Those who responded with a 2 or less were filtered out, resulting in a final sample size of 294. The average age of participants was 31, ranging from 18 to 70.

The following parameters were put in place for the video interview. First, to motivate the participants to do well on the interview, the participants were informed that the top eight performing interviews would be receiving a \$50 CAD bonus through the “Prolific” platform. Participants appeared to be relatively motivated, as the average score on a motivational check question was mean of 3.52 ( $SD = 1.12$ ). Second, the participants were given a job and

organization description to read to prepare for their interview (See Appendix O). This provided participants with the opportunity to gauge what kind of job and organization they were applying for and prepare their answers accordingly. As previous research finds that candidates are able to pick up on organizational culture cues and tailor their responses to match these (Roulin & Krings, 2020), the organizational description was crafted to include cues of innovation and competition. Third, the video recordings commenced automatically after 30 seconds has passed, so that each participant got a similar amount of time to prepare before answering a question, and mimicked a short preparation time following the question that would be similar to an in-person interview (See Appendix P).

The videos were then viewed and evaluated by one of two trained research assistants. Each of the video interviews were assessed on a behaviorally anchored rating scale. Ratings of job and organization fit, how likely they would be to hire the candidate for the position, along with their attributions of the candidate were also recorded.

### *Measures*

Most of the same scales from Study 1 Part 1 were used in Study 2 to measure the focal variables, with the exception of the executive function measure. Instead of the BRIEF scale, executive function tasks were used to assess inhibition, shifting, and working memory.

**Executive Function Tasks.** As there were less time constraints to this experimental study, cognitive tasks were used to assess the three executive functions. Three tasks were used to assess inhibition, shifting, and working memory, which were part of a larger cognitive assessment battery used by von Bastian et al. (2016). These tasks were modelled after the work by Miyake et al. (2000) and hosted on a java-based platform called “Tatool”.

***Shifting Task.*** Shifting was assessed using the animacy/size task. An object or animal was presented, and the participants were asked to classify it based on rules: 1) animacy (whether it is living or non-living), 2) size (whether it is larger or smaller than a soccer ball). There were five trial blocks, with the first two blocks being a single-rule block (classifying based on only one rule for the whole block), the third block being a mixed-rule block (classification depends on which rule is randomly shown for each object), and the fourth and fifth block being single-rule blocks again. Shifting was calculated by subtracting the repetition reaction times (RT) from the switch RTs and dividing the result by their average RT. Only RTs of correct responses are used in the current study.

***Inhibition Task.*** The Stroop task was used to assess inhibition. A string of either numbers or symbols were presented, and the participant was asked to count the number of displayed characters. In congruent trials, the number of characters was equal to the number displayed (e.g., 4444). In incongruent trials, the number of characters was not equal from the number displayed (e.g., 33). Finally, in neutral trials, the characters displayed were symbols (e.g., ##). All three trial types were presented with equal frequency.

***Working Memory Task.*** Working memory was assessed using the Letter Keep-Track task. A set of 5 boxes with letters displayed in them were presented, and the participant was asked to remember these letters. Afterwards, there were 9 steps in which these boxes were randomly updated with new letters, with the participant having to recall the most recent letter for each of the 5 boxes. If the correct stimuli were recalled, the participant would receive a score of 1. An accuracy score was then calculated by summing the total correct responses and dividing by the total number of responses.

**Overall Interview Performance.** Interview performance was conceptualized and measured in two ways: 1) objective performance and 2) subjective performance. Objective performance was assessed using behaviorally anchored rating scales, ranging from 1 – *Very Poor*, to 5 – *Excellent*, for each of the six interview questions. An average subjective performance score was then computed for each participant. Subjective performance was assessed using three questions regarding the interviewee’s job and organization fit, as well as their overall hireability. These questions were answered on a scale of 1 – *Strongly Disagree* to 5 – *Strongly Agree*. An average objective performance score was calculated for each participant. Ultimately, the decision was made to use the overall subjective performance score as the responding variable, as this rating would involve overall impressions, which is what is mainly being targeted by IM.

As each applicant completed six videos for each of the six interview questions, the interviewers were first asked to view and rate the performance of the candidates for each question. As there were two raters, to ensure consistency, three rounds of frame of reference training were used. Both raters were familiarized with the scales, and then went through one example applicant together. Ratings were obtained after each interview video, and each rater provided their rating numbers at the same time. Each rater then provided rationale behind their evaluation.. Any discrepancies in ratings were discussed during the training session. After the first training session, the two raters then rated 72 interview videos separately. To determine inter-rater reliability, intraclass correlations (ICC) scores were calculated using the *psych* package in *R*. The two raters had an  $ICC_{(2,1)}$  of .38, 95% CI = [.09, .60]. Another training session was then conducted, and the raters then rated another 168 interview videos. The two raters had an  $ICC_{(2,1)}$  of .53, 95% CI = [.42, .62]. A final training session was then held to discuss any discrepancies in

ratings in this batch of interviews. After this session, the raters then evaluated another 168 videos. The raters had an  $ICC_{(2,1)}$  of .61, 95% CI = [.49, .71]. This was determined to be an adequate level of inter-rater reliability, as it was found in a meta-analysis that the average inter-rater reliabilities of medium and high structure interviews were .48 and .61, respectively (Huffcutt et al., 2013). Therefore, the remaining interview videos were split between rater 1 and 2.

## **Results: Study 2**

### ***Data Quality***

There was less than 5% missing data in this sample, and the variables with missing data were the three executive function tasks. As these were focal variables, and the dependent variable was a single score for each executive function, it was determined that it would be inappropriate to conduct an imputation for these values. Outliers were examined using Mahalanobis Distance. There were eight significant outliers identified, and therefore further analyses were conducted with and without these outliers to ensure that they did not influence the results significantly.

### ***Factor Analysis***

**IM Structure.** The factor structure of the seven honest and deceptive IM tactics was examined by conducting a CFA using the *lavaan* package (Rosseel, 2012) in *R*, with maximum likelihood parameter estimation. The model fit results for the one-factor, two-factor, and seven-factor solution are displayed below in Table 11. Parceling was once again used to reduce estimation errors. Three parcels were created for each facet of IM.

## **Table 11**

*Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model Fit Results in Study 2*

| Model        | Chi-square          | RMSEA           | CFI | SRMR |
|--------------|---------------------|-----------------|-----|------|
| One-factor   | 3025.50, $p < .001$ | .24, $p < .001$ | .45 | .19  |
| Two-factor   | 1966.14, $p < .001$ | .19, $p < .001$ | .66 | .12  |
| Seven-factor | 328.84, $p < .001$  | .06, $p < .001$ | .97 | .05  |

*Note.*  $N = 269$ .

Similar to Study 1, the seven-factor model was the best fitting solution. Following the steps taken in Study 1, an EFA using principal axis factoring and a promax rotation was conducted to examine if a two-factor model could represent the construct. The factor loadings are displayed below in Table 12.

**Table 12**

*Exploratory Factor Analysis IM Tactics in Study 2*

| Items                    | Factor loading         |                     |
|--------------------------|------------------------|---------------------|
|                          | Factor 1: Deceptive IM | Factor 2: Honest IM |
| Slight Image Creation    | .77                    | .21                 |
| Extensive Image Creation | .88                    | -.04                |
| Deceptive Ingratiation   | .75                    | .21                 |
| Image Protection         | .92                    | -.27                |
| Honest Self-Promotion    | -.09                   | .89                 |
| Honest Ingratiation      | .03                    | .88                 |
| Honest Defensive IM      | .02                    | .78                 |

*Note.*  $N = 280$ .

The scree plot indicated that there was a two-factor solution, representing 72.96% of the variance. This result, taken together with the aforementioned studies using the two-factor model to test the theoretical models, suggests that the two-factor model could be used in this study to test the overall moderated mediated model, although the seven-factor model was a better fit for the measurement model. As with Study 1, we focus our analyses on the more parsimonious distinction between honest and deceptive IM but conduct supplementary analyses with the seven IM factors.

**Interview performance.** Interviewers answered three questions regarding the candidate's fit and hireability. An EFA was conducted to examine if these three items represented a single construct of interview performance. The scree plot indicated a single-factor solution accounting for 85.67 % of variance. The factor loadings are displayed in Table 13. A mean score was then computed and used as the interview performance variable in subsequent analyses.

**Table 13**

*Exploratory Factor Analysis Interview Performance Items*

| Items                           | Factor Loading |
|---------------------------------|----------------|
| Factor 1: Interview Performance |                |
| Hireability / Job Offer         | .94            |
| Person-Organization Fit         | .92            |
| Person-Job Fit                  | .92            |

Note. As only one factor was extracted, the rotated factor matrix was the same as the pattern matrix.  $N = 293$ .

**Attributions.** An EFA using principal axis factoring and a promax rotation was conducted similarly to study 1 on the three positive and three negative attributions. The negative attributions were again reverse coded by subtracting 100 from the scores to ensure for better interpretability of the construct. The scree plot indicated a two-factor solution, accounting for 74.65 % variance. Factor loadings are displayed in Table 14. However, the attribution of sycophant had high cross loadings, and as such, the decision was made to drop this attribution from the analyses. One possible reason for the high cross-loadings is that the second study involves video recordings in response to the interview questions. Therefore, it may be difficult to discern who (the evaluator or organization) an applicant is trying to be sycophantic towards.

**Table 14**

*Exploratory Factor Analysis Attribution Items in Study 2*

| Items         | Factor loadings                |                                |
|---------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
|               | Factor 1: Positive Attribution | Factor 2: Negative Attribution |
| Friendly      | .73                            | .37                            |
| Responsible   | .94                            | .03                            |
| Competent     | .90                            | -.03                           |
| Arrogant      | .02                            | .85                            |
| Sycophantic   | -.64                           | .48                            |
| Untrustworthy | .08                            | .87                            |

Note. Factor loadings are reported from the pattern matrix.  $N = 294$ .

**Rater Effect.** As there were two raters for the video interviews, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted on the dependent variables of interview performance and attributions to examine if there were any significant differences between the two raters. Despite



achieving an adequate interclass correlation between the two raters' video interview ratings after frame of reference training ( $ICC_{(2,1)} = .61, p < .001$ ), there was a significant rater effect found, such that rater 1 was significantly more lenient in their subjective and objective performance ratings, and attributions than rater 2 (Wilks' Lambda = .45,  $F = 86.96, p < .001$ ). The means and standard deviations of rater 1 and rater 2 are displayed in Table 15 below, along with the between-subject effects ANOVA results for each of the dependent variables. Due to this finding, the rater variable was used as a covariate to statistically control for this effect in all subsequent analyses. For a number of the video interviews, both raters had provided ratings during the frame of reference training period. As such, a mean score was calculated and used as the dependent variable when both ratings were available.

**Table 15**

*Means, Standard Deviations, and Between-Subject Effects of Rater 1 and Rater 2*

|                             | Average<br>Interview<br>Question Ratings<br>M (SD) | Average<br>Subjective<br>Performance<br>Ratings<br>M (SD) | Positive<br>Attributions<br>M (SD) | Negative<br>Attributions<br>M (SD) |
|-----------------------------|--|---|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Rater 1                     | 2.96 (.72)   | 2.55 (1.10)   | 76.18 (18.60)                      | 17.60 (15.33)                      |
| Rater 2                     | 2.70 (.65)   | 1.65 (.87)  | 55.00 (13.87)                      | 1.97 (4.25)                        |
| Between-<br>Subject Effects | $F(1, 294) = 8.79,$<br>$p = .003$                  | $F(1, 294) =$<br>$48.36, p < .001$                        | $F(1, 294) =$<br>$95.89, p < .001$ | $F(1, 294) =$<br>$93.23, p < .001$ |

*Note.*  $N = 294$ .

### *Antecedents of IM Use*

**Zero-Order Correlations.** The zero-order correlations were first examined to understand antecedents of IM behavior (see Table 16). Those who were low on Honesty-Humility ( $r = -.36, p < .001$ ) and high on incongruency ( $r = .17, p = .004$ ) were likely to engage in deceptive IM.

These supported the findings of Study 1 in which Honesty-Humility and incongruency were both

related to deceptive IM. Those who were high on self-monitoring ( $r = .13, p = .037$ ), high on Extraversion ( $r = .18, p = .003$ ), lower on cognitive ability ( $r = -.12, p = .037$ ) and low on working memory ( $r = -.19, p = .002$ ) were likely to engage in honest IM. While the relationship between Extraversion and honest IM use was found in Study 1, self-monitoring, cognitive ability, working memory are antecedents found specific to this study.

**Hierarchical Regressions.** Two hierarchical regressions were again conducted to examine which predictors contributed above and beyond the others to predict honest and deceptive IM use (see Table 17 & 18). For deceptive IM use, age ( $b = -.16, p = .007$ ) and Honesty-Humility ( $b = -.32, p < .001$ ) were significant predictors above and beyond the other factors. The cognitive and motivational factors did not provide incremental prediction above the personality factors. For honest IM use, the full model provided significant prediction, with no step adding to the amount of variance being accounted for. Within the 10 predictors, Extraversion ( $b = .15, p = .026$ ) and working memory ( $b = -.15, p = .032$ ) predicted the use of honest IM above and beyond the other variables.

**Table 16***Means and standard deviations of Study 2 variables*

| <i>Variable</i>                   | Mean (SD)        | 1.     | 2.    | 3.    | 4.     | 5.    | 6.    | 7.   | 8.     | 9.   | 10.   | 11.   | 12.   | 13.   | 14.  | 15. |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|--------|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|------|--------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|-----|
| 1. Age                            | 30.51<br>(10.83) | -      |       |       |        |       |       |      |        |      |       |       |       |       |      |     |
| 2. Gender                         | -                |        | -     |       |        |       |       |      |        |      |       |       |       |       |      |     |
| 3. Self-Monitoring                | 3.53 (.57)       | .07    | .07   | ()    |        |       |       |      |        |      |       |       |       |       |      |     |
| 4. Honesty-Humility               | 3.45 (.63)       | .18**  | .15** | -.01  | (.)    |       |       |      |        |      |       |       |       |       |      |     |
| 5. Extraversion                   | 3.19 (.68)       | .15*   | -.06  | .34** | .14*   | (.)   |       |      |        |      |       |       |       |       |      |     |
| 6. Cognitive Ability              | .46 (.24)        | .08    | -.03  | -.00  | .15*   | -.03  | (.)   |      |        |      |       |       |       |       |      |     |
| 7. Inhibition                     | -.08 (.10)       | -.02   | -.03  | -.01  | -.09   | .05   | -.03  | (.)  |        |      |       |       |       |       |      |     |
| 8. Working Memory                 | .65 (.18)        | -.01   | .01   | .05   | .13*   | .01   | .38** | -.11 | (.)    |      |       |       |       |       |      |     |
| 9. Shifting                       | -.20 (.15)       | .12*   | -.02  | -.04  | .05    | .08   | -.06  | -.08 | .12*   | (.)  |       |       |       |       |      |     |
| 10. Incongruency                  | 82.86<br>(81.37) | -.14*  | .14*  | .06   | -.16** | -.07  | -.00  | -.03 | -.05   | .00  | (.)   |       |       |       |      |     |
| 11. Deceptive IM                  | 1.84 (.66)       | -.21** | -.12* | .02   | -.37** | -.03  | -.11  | .10  | -.08   | -.04 | .17** | (.97) |       |       |      |     |
| 12. Honest IM                     | 2.38 (.93)       | .03    | -.10  | .12*  | -.05   | .17** | -.12* | .09  | -.19** | -.03 | -.01  | .39** | (.)   |       |      |     |
| 13. Positive Attribution          | 64.84<br>(19.85) | .04    | .13*  | .13*  | .12*   | .08   | .12*  | -.00 | .20*   | .03  | -.09  | -.04  | .14*  | (.)   |      |     |
| 14. Negative Attribution          | 12.65<br>(14.80) | -.01   | -.14* | .05   | -.14*  | .03   | .02   | -.08 | .00    | -.11 | .10   | .09   | .03   | -.02  | (.)  |     |
| 15. Overall Interview Performance | 2.20 (1.05)      | .07    | .10   | .12*  | .13*   | .14*  | .13*  | .04  | .22**  | .05  | -.03  | .08   | .15** | .78** | -.04 | (.) |

*Note.*  $N = 294$ , except for Gender where  $N = 293$ , Inhibition where  $N = 274$ , Working Memory where  $N = 275$ , and Shifting where  $N = 283$ .

\* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ .

**Table 17***Hierarchical regressions for predicting incremental deceptive IM usage in Study 2*

| <i>Variable</i>   | <i>Step 1</i> |          | <i>Step 2</i> |          | <i>Step 3</i> |          |
|-------------------|---------------|----------|---------------|----------|---------------|----------|
|                   | <i>B(SE)</i>  | <i>b</i> | <i>B(SE)</i>  | <i>b</i> | <i>B(SE)</i>  | <i>b</i> |
| Intercept         | 2.49 (.17)    |          | 3.22 (.34)    |          | 3.15 (.37)    |          |
| Age               | -.01 (.00)    | -.21**   | -.01 (.00)    | -.16**   | -.01 (.00)    | -.15**   |
| Gender            | -.18 (.08)    | -.14*    | -.10 (.08)    | -.08     | -.13 (.08)    | -.10     |
| Honesty-Humility  |               |          | -.35 (.07)    | -.32**   | -.31 (.07)    | -.29**   |
| Extraversion      |               |          | .04 (.06)     | .04      | .04 (.06)     | .04      |
| Self-Monitoring   |               |          | .04 (.07)     | .03      | .03 (.07)     | .03      |
| Cognitive ability |               |          |               |          | -.07 (.17)    | -.03     |
| Working memory    |               |          |               |          | -.04 (.25)    | -.01     |
| Inhibition        |               |          |               |          | .55 (.41)     | .08      |
| Shifting          |               |          |               |          | .07 (.27)     | .02      |
| Incongruency      |               |          |               |          | .00 (.00)     | .13*     |

*Note.* For Step 1,  $R^2 = .06$ ,  $F(2, 249) = .857$ ,  $p < .001$ .

For Step 2,  $R^2 = .16$ ,  $F(5, 246) = 9.45$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .10$ ,  $F_{change}(3, 246) = 9.45$ ,  $p < .001$ .

For Step 3,  $R^2 = .27$ ,  $F(10, 241) = 5.41$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .02$ ,  $F_{change}(5, 241) = 1.31$ ,  $p = .259$ .

\* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ .

**Table 18***Hierarchical regressions for predicting incremental honest IM usage in Study 2*

| <i>Variable</i>   | <i>Step 1</i> |          | <i>Step 2</i> |          | <i>Step 3</i> |          |
|-------------------|---------------|----------|---------------|----------|---------------|----------|
|                   | <i>B(SE)</i>  | <i>B</i> | <i>B(SE)</i>  | <i>B</i> | <i>B(SE)</i>  | <i>B</i> |
| Intercept         | 2.81 (.19)    |          | 2.23 (.40)    |          | 2.55 (.44)    |          |
| Age               | .00 (.00)     | .01      | -.00 (.00)    | -.01     | .00 (.00)     | -.01     |
| Gender            | -.14 (.09)    | -.10     | -.13 (.09)    | -.09     | -.14 (.09)    | -.10     |
| Honesty-Humility  |               |          | -.02 (.08)    | -.02     | .02 (.08)     | .02      |
| Extraversion      |               |          | .17 (.07)     | .16*     | .17 (.07)     | .15*     |
| Self-Monitoring   |               |          | .04 (.09)     | .03      | .05 (.09)     | .04      |
| Cognitive Ability |               |          |               |          | -.18 (.21)    | -.06     |
| Working Memory    |               |          |               |          | -.62 (.29)    | -.15*    |
| Inhibition        |               |          |               |          | .41 (.48)     | .05      |
| Shifting          |               |          |               |          | -.13 (.31)    | -.03     |
| Incongruency      |               |          |               |          | .00 (.00)     | .03      |

*Note.* For Step 1,  $R^2 = .01$ ,  $F(2, 249) = 1.26$ ,  $p = .285$ .

For Step 2,  $R^2 = .14$ ,  $F(5, 246) = 1.89$ ,  $p = .096$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .03$ ,  $F_{change}(3, 246) = 2.30$ ,  $p = .078$ .

For Step 3,  $R^2 = .20$ ,  $F(10, 241) = 1.95$ ,  $p = .040$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .04$ ,  $F_{change}(5, 241) = 1.96$ ,  $p = .085$ .

\* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ .

### ***IM Relationship to Attributions and Interview Performance***

**Zero-Order Correlations.** To understand the relationships between honest and deceptive IM, attributions, and interview performance ratings, the zero-order correlations were examined. There were no significant correlations between deceptive IM to positive or negative attributions ( $r = -.04$ ,  $p = .543$ , and  $r = .09$ ,  $p = .106$ , respectively). There was, however, a significant positive

relationship between honest IM and positive attributions ( $r = .14, p = .016$ ), but not negative attributions ( $r = .03, p = .565$ ). There was no significant relationship between overall interview performance and deceptive IM ( $r = .08, p = .190$ ), but there was a significant relationship with honest IM ( $r = .15, p = .011$ ). These findings differed from Study 1, in which no significant correlations were found between honest and deceptive IM and attributions or interview performance. Finally, positive attributions contributed to higher overall performance ratings ( $r = .78, p < .001$ ), negative attributions had no significant impact ( $r = -.04, p = .520$ ).

Taken together, it appears that positive attributions significantly impacted interview performance ratings, whereas negative attributions were not related. Moreover, while honest IM was significantly related to positive attributions and interview performance, deceptive IM was not.

To supplement the broader analyses, correlations were also examined at the facet level for the seven IM behaviors and six attributions. Honest self-promotion was related to higher positive attributions of friendly ( $r = .22, p < .001$ ), responsible ( $r = .26, p < .001$ ), and competent ( $r = .26, p < .001$ ).

In contrast, the deceptive IM tactics were found to be related to lower positive attributions and higher negative attributions. Extensive image creation was negatively related to the attributions of friendly ( $r = -.16, p = .007$ ) and responsible ( $r = -.13, p = .030$ ), and positively related to the attribution of untrustworthy ( $r = .15, p = .010$ ). Image protection was related to less attributions of friendly ( $r = -.14, p = .016$ ). Conversely, slight image creation ( $r = .12, p = .034$ ) and deceptive ingratiation ( $r = .12, p = .036$ ) were related to more attributions of untrustworthy.

Finally, overall interview performance was significantly positively related to the three positive attributions of friendly ( $r = .50, p < .001$ ), responsible ( $r = .74, p < .001$ ), and competent ( $r = .79, p < .001$ ), and only one IM tactic of honest self-promotion ( $r = .24, p < .001$ ).

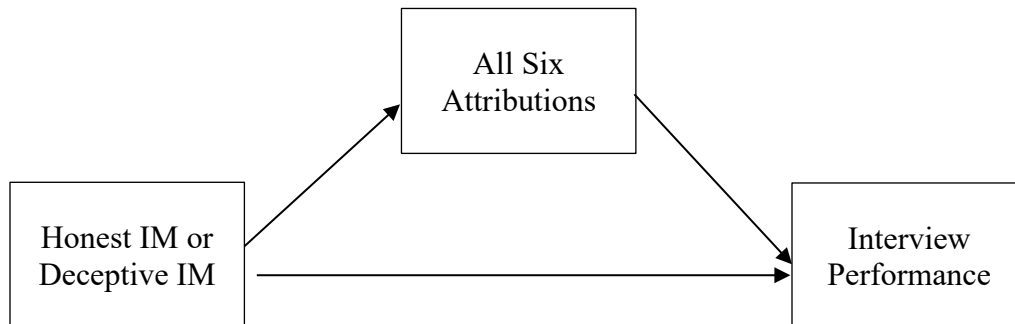
The finding that honest IM tactics were related to higher positive attributions, while deceptive IM tactics were mostly related to higher negative attributions mirrored those from Study 1. Interestingly, honest self-promotion once again was related to the attribution of competent. However, these findings did differ slightly from Study 1 in the specific attributions that each IM tactic was related to was slightly different. For example, while in Study 1 extensive image creation use was linked with being seen as arrogant, in this study, extensive image creation usage was linked with another negative attribution – the attribution of untrustworthy. This may have occurred because of the video interview process. As the interviewers are rating videos of these interviewees in this study, the process by which attributions are made may differ from those made during a face-to-face interaction.

Taken together, it appears that positive attributions were significantly related to higher interview performance, and the two tactics of extensive image creation and honest self-promotion were most correlated with attributions, with the deceptive IM tactic leading to lower positive attributions, and the honest IM tactic leading to higher positive attributions. Only honest self-promotion had a significant positive impact on performance out of the IM tactics.

**Attributions as a Mediator.** Similar to Study 1, two mediations were conducted with the six attributions entered simultaneously, to better understand the role of attributions (see Figure 2 below). As mentioned in the previous data quality section, rater was entered as a covariate to statistically control for rater effects.

## Figure 11

### *Study 2: Mediation of IM on Interview Performance Through Attributions*



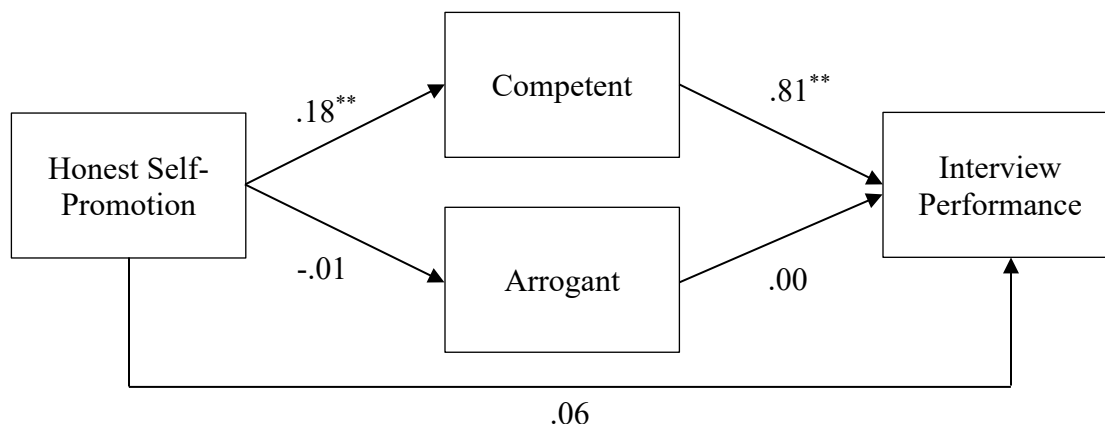
Model 4 in PROCESS (Hayes, 2012) was used to conduct two mediations using deceptive IM and honest IM as the independent variable, respectively. There was no mediated effect of deceptive IM found on interview performance through any attributions. However, similar to Study 1, there was a significant effect found for honest IM on interview performance, but through the attribution of friendly ( $b = .04$ , 95% CI = [.01, .08]) instead of competent. There was no direct effect of honest IM on interview performance.

Specific tactics of honest IM were then examined, along with their respective dual attributions. There was a significant indirect effect found of honest self-promotion on interview performance through the attribution of competency ( $b = .18$ , 95% CI = [.08, .29]; see Figure 11). Overall, the findings suggest that attributions do mediate the effect between honest IM and interview performance, but not for deceptive IM. This supported the findings of Study 1.



**Figure 12**

*Study 2: Effect of Honest Self-Promotion on Interview Performance Through Attributions*



*Note.*  $N = 293$ . Reported values are standardized. Direct Effect:  $b = .08$ ,  $p = .090$ . Indirect Effect of Honest Self-Promotion on Interview Performance through Competent:  $b = .18$ , 95% CI =  $[.08, .29]$ . \* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ .

### ***Moderated Mediation Model***

Model 8 in PROCESS (Hayes, 2012) was used to conduct several moderated mediations for each moderator. Rater was again entered as a covariate to statistically control for rater effects. There was one significant moderated mediation found, such that there was a positive effect of honest IM to interview performance through positive attributions (Index of moderated mediation =  $-.16$ , 95% CI =  $[-.33, -.01]$  when extraversion was low ( $b = .20$ , 95% CI =  $[.04, .38]$ ).

### ***Supplemental Analyses***

Similar to the first study, honest self-promotion and extensive image creation emerged as the two IM tactics that had the strongest relationships with attributions and performance. Therefore, these two tactics were again used in follow-up analyses after testing the broader models.

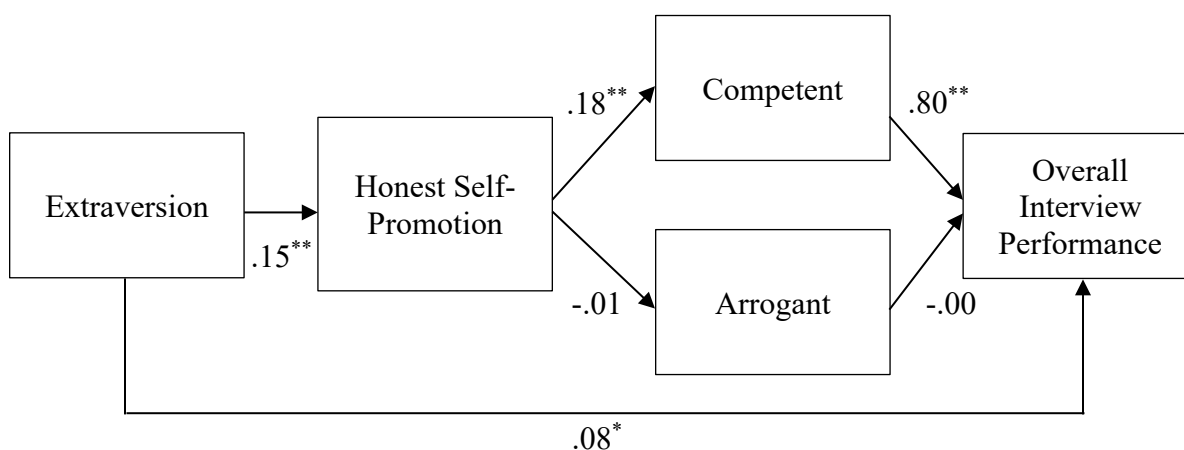
**Moderated Mediation Models with Specific Tactics and Attributions.** These specific moderated mediations were not conducted initially due to the increase in number of tests (from two using honest and deceptive IM as separate predictor variables for each moderator, to the seven IM tactics as predictors). Two moderated mediations were conducted for the eight moderators, with honest self-promotion as the individual variable in one model, and extensive image creation in the other. Again, overall, none of these 16 models were significant.

**Antecedent Mediation Models.** As done in Study 1, Model 81 was used in PROCESS (Hayes, 2012) to conduct the mediations for each antecedent, with rater as a covariate.

Extraversion was found to have a significant positive effect on overall interview performance through honest self-promotion and the attribution of competency ( $b = .02$ , 95% CI = [.01, .05], see Figure 12). This suggests that those who are high on Extraversion may tend to use honest self-promotion, leading to a competent attribution, and ultimately increasing their interview performance ratings.

### Figure 13

*Study 2: Indirect Effect of Extraversion on Overall Interview Performance*

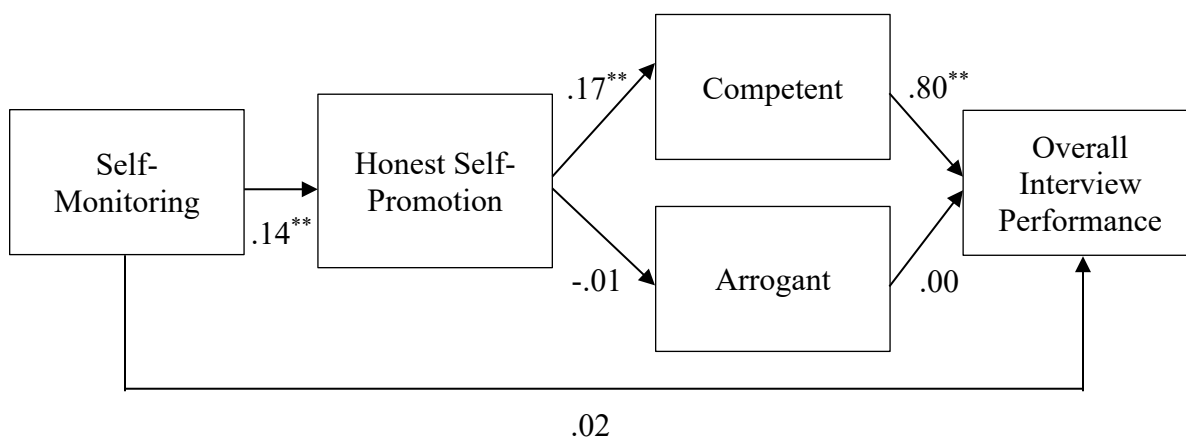


Note.  $N = 293$ . Reported values are standardized. Direct Effect:  $b = .12, p = .038$ . Indirect Effect of Extraversion on Interview Performance Through Honest Self-Promotion and Competent:  $b = .04, 95\% \text{ CI} = [.01, .07]$ . \* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ .

Self-Monitoring was also found to have a significant positive effect on overall interview performance through honest self-promotion and the attribution of competency ( $b = .04, 95\% \text{ CI} = [.01, .04]$ , see Figure 13).

### Figure 14

Study 2: Indirect Effect of Self-Monitoring on Overall Interview Performance



Note.  $N = 293$ . Reported values are standardized. Direct Effect:  $b = .03, p = .635$ . Indirect Effect of Self-Monitoring on Interview Performance Through Honest Self-Promotion and Competent:  $b = .04, 95\% \text{ CI} = [.01, .04]$ . \* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ .

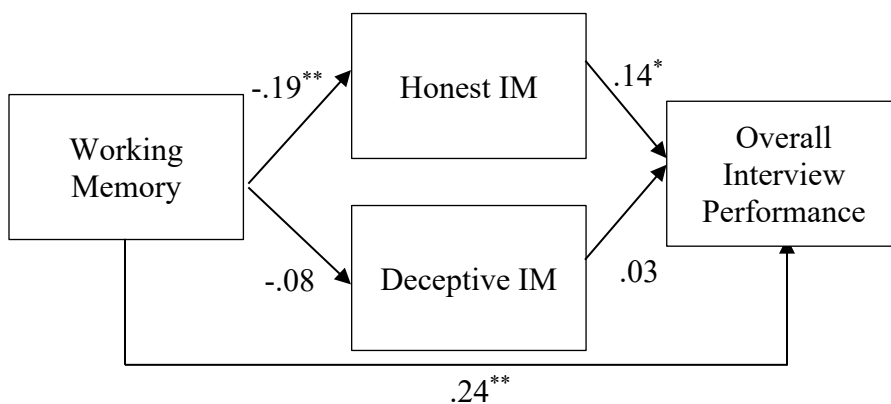
This suggests that those who are high on self-monitoring also are more likely to engage in honest self-promotion, leading to a higher attribution of competency and positively impacting their interview performance. These findings were different than Study 1, in which only Honesty-Humility was found to have a mediated effect on overall interview performance through honest self-promotion and the attribution of competent.

**Mediation Model of Actor Characteristics to Interview Performance.** Finally, mediation models examining the effect of actor characteristics on interview performance through honest and deceptive IM, without attributions, were examined. Model 4 in PROCESS was used to test these models, with rater entered as a covariate once again.

There was only one significant mediation found of working memory on interview performance through honest IM ( $b = -.16$ , 95% CI =  $[-.36, -.02]$ , see Figure 14). This suggests that those who are higher on working memory were less likely to engage in honest IM, and thus experience a lower interview performance rating. This differed from Study 1, in which Honesty-Humility, Extraversion, and Inhibition was found to have a mediated effect on overall interview performance through honest IM.

**Figure 15**

*Study 2: Indirect Effect of Working Memory on Overall Interview Performance Through IM*



*Note.*  $N = 275$ . Reported values are standardized. Direct Effect:  $b = 1.41$ ,  $p < .001$ . Indirect Effect of Working Memory on Overall Interview Performance Through Honest IM:  $b = -.16$ , 95% CI =  $[-.36, -.02]$ . \* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ .

### *Summary of Study 2 Results*

The results of Study 2 echo Study 1 in that they suggest that although actor characteristics do impact the extent to which an individual engages in honest and deceptive IM, and directly impacting interview performance, they do not appear to moderate the effectiveness of IM.

Deceptive IM was more likely to be engaged in by those related to lower in Honesty-Humility and higher on incongruency. Honest IM was related to higher on self-monitoring, Extraversion, and lower cognitive ability and working memory. There was partial support that IM influenced performance through attributions, as significant effects were only found for honest IM and not deceptive IM. Similar to Study 1, honest self-promotion was found to positively impact interview performance through the attribution of competent.

Interestingly, Extraversion was found to moderate the effect of honest IM on interview performance through the attribution of competent. This suggests that those who were lower in Extraversion who engaged in honest IM were more 'effective' in that they were able to obtain more positive attributions and subsequently higher interview performance. The other actor characteristics were not found to moderate the mediated effect. However, Extraversion and self-monitoring were significant antecedents to honest IM use, leading to increased interview performance through the attribution of competent.

**Table 19***Summary of Hypotheses*

| Hypothesis   | Study 1             | Study 2             |
|--|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1a: Those lower in Honesty-Humility will engage in more honest IM.   | Supported           | Not Supported       |
| 1b: Those lower in Honesty-Humility will engage in more deceptive IM.  | Supported           | Supported           |
| 2: Those high in Extraversion will engage in more honest IM.   | Supported           | Supported           |
| 3a: Those high in cognitive ability will engage in less honest IM.   | Not Supported       | Supported           |
| 3b: Those high in cognitive ability will engage in less deceptive IM.  | Supported           | Not Supported       |
| 4a: Those high in working memory will engage in less honest IM.  | Not Supported       | Supported           |
| 4b: Those high in working memory will engage in less deceptive IM.   | Supported           | Not Supported       |
| 5a: Those high in inhibition will engage in less honest IM.  | Not Supported       | Not Supported       |
| 5b: Those high in inhibition will engage in less deceptive IM.   | Supported           | Not Supported       |
| 6a: Those high in shifting will engage in less honest IM.  | Not Supported       | Not Supported       |
| 6b: Those high in shifting will engage in less deceptive IM.   | Not Supported       | Not Supported       |
| 7a: Those high in incongruency will engage in less honest IM.  | Not Supported       | Not Supported       |
| 7b: Those high in incongruency will engage in more deceptive IM.   | Supported           | Supported           |
| 8: Attributions will mediate the relationship between IM tactics and interview performance.  | Partially Supported | Partially Supported |
| 9a: Self-monitoring will moderate the relationship between IM and attributions, such that those higher on self-monitoring will receive more positive attributions when using IM. | Not Supported       | Not Supported       |
| 9b: Self-monitoring will moderate the relationship between IM and performance, such that those higher on self-monitoring will receive higher performance ratings when using IM.  | Not Supported       | Not Supported       |
| 10a: Honesty-Humility will moderate the relationship between IM use and attributions, such that those who are lower on Honesty-Humility will receive more positive attributions. | Not Supported       | Not Supported       |

|  |               |               |
|--|---------------|---------------|
| 10b: Honesty-Humility will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those lower on Honesty-Humility will receive higher performance ratings when using IM.                              | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| 11a: Extraversion will moderate the relationship between IM use and attributions, such that those higher on Extraversion will receive more positive attributions   | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| 11b: Extraversion will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those higher on Extraversion will receive higher performance ratings when using IM.                                     | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| 12a: General cognitive ability will moderate the relationship between IM use and attributions, such that those higher on general cognitive ability will receive more positive attributions.                        | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| 12b: General cognitive ability will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those higher on general cognitive ability will receive higher interview performance ratings when using IM. | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| 13a: Inhibition will moderate the relationship between IM use and attributions, such that those scoring higher on inhibition will receive more positive attributions.  | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| 13b: Inhibition will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those scoring higher on inhibition will receive higher performance ratings when using IM.                                 | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| 14a: Working memory will moderate the relationship between IM use and attributions, such that those scoring higher on working memory will receive more positive attributions.                                      | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| 14b: Working memory will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those scoring higher on working memory will receive higher performance ratings when using IM.                         | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| 15a: Shifting will moderate the relationship between IM use and attributions, such that those scoring higher on shifting will receive more positive attributions.  | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| 15b: Shifting will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those scoring higher on shift will receive higher performance ratings when using IM.  | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| 16a: Incongruity will moderate the relationship between IM and attributions, such that those lower on incongruity will receive more positive attributions.   | Not Supported | Not Supported |

|   |               |               |
|---|---------------|---------------|
| 16b: Incongruency will moderate the relationship between IM use and performance, such that those lower on incongruency will receive higher performance ratings when using IM. | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| 17a: There will be a positive relationship between deceptive IM use in the interview and workplace IM.  | Supported     | -             |
| 17b: There will be a positive relationship between honest IM use in the interview and workplace IM.   | Supported     | -             |
| 18a: There will be a positive relationship between deceptive IM use in the interview and CWBs in the workplace.   | Supported     | -             |
| 18b: There will be a negative relationship between deceptive IM use in the interview and OCBs in the workplace.   | Not Supported | -             |
| 19a: There will be a negative relationship between deceptive IM use in the interview and job satisfaction.  | Supported     | -             |
| 19b: There will be a positive relationship between deceptive IM use in the interview and turnover intentions.   | Supported     | -             |
| 19c: There will be a negative relationship between deceptive IM use in the interview and perceived person-job fit.  | Supported     | -             |
| 20a: There will be a positive relationship between honest IM use in the interview and job satisfaction.   | Not Supported | -             |
| 20b: There will be a negative relationship between honest IM use in the interview and turnover intentions.  | Not Supported | -             |
| 20c: There will be a negative relationship between honest IM use in the interview and perceived person-job fit.   | Not Supported | -             |

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## Chapter 5: Discussion

Despite new developments and advances in selection tools, the employment interview continues to remain a staple in the hiring process across many organizations. As such, it is paramount that we understand how applicant behaviors (e.g., honest and deceptive IM) impact outcomes like interview and workplace performance, and who is likely to engage in them. The contributions of this dissertation are three-fold. First, the dissertation increases our understanding of who engages in honest and deceptive IM and examines the novel antecedents, including of three executive functions and incongruity. Second, it advances theory underlying IM effectiveness, as well as who is more effective in using the tactics, by testing the mediating mechanism of attributions. Finally, it also provides insight on the relationship between IM behavior during the interview and subsequent behavior in the workplace.

### **Antecedents of Honest and Deceptive IM**

Though past literature has examined personality traits such as self-monitoring, Extraversion, and Honesty-Humility as antecedents of deceptive IM (Melchers et al., 2020), only a few studies have examined these antecedents in the context of how they influence both honest *and* deceptive IM (Bourdage et al., 2018; Bourdage et al., 2020). Moreover, IM literature has largely overlooked the role of critical cognitive factors, such as executive functioning, and the motivational factor of incongruity.

Examining the individual characteristics that relate to deceptive and honest IM use, the results support the notion that there are meaningful differences in those who engage in these two broad types of IM (Levashina et al., 2014; Roulin & Bourdage, 2017). Those who were lower on Honesty-Humility, cognitive ability, and executive functioning engaged in more deceptive and honest IM. This replicated the findings of previous studies in which low Honesty-Humility

(Bourdage et al., 2020) and low cognitive ability (Buehl & Melchers, 2017) were related to increased deceptive IM use. This suggests that those who are more willing to engage in unethical behavior, such as lying (Lee et al., 2013), and those who may be lacking the desired characteristics for the position may be more likely to use IM to overcome that gap. Interestingly, incongruity was also found to be an antecedent to deceptive IM, suggesting that the larger the gap between one's ought and true self, the more likely the individual was to engage in deceptive IM. In contrast, those who were high on Extraversion and self-monitoring were more likely to engage in only honest IM. Each of these antecedents will be discussed in more detail in each section below.

### *Personality Antecedents*

This study examined the personality traits of Honesty-Humility, Extraversion, and self-monitoring. The results across Study 1 and Study 2 were in line with previous findings, such that low Honesty-Humility was an antecedent of deceptive IM (Bourdage et al., 2020; Bourdage et al., 2018; Buehl & Melchers, 2017; Law et al., 2016; Ho et al., 2019; Roulin & Bourdage, 2017), and high Extraversion was an antecedent of honest IM (Bourdage et al., 2020). Interestingly, high self-monitoring was also found to be an antecedent of only honest IM, and not deceptive IM.

**Honesty-Humility.** As described previously, low Honesty-Humility is characterized by a drive to capitalize on any or all opportunities for personal gain, even if that means exploiting others (Lee & Ashton, 2004). Across both studies, those low on Honesty-Humility were more likely to use deceptive IM. Moreover, in study 1, Honesty-Humility was found to be related to increased use of both deceptive and honest IM. As posited by Bourdage et al. (2020), applicants who are low in Honesty-Humility are motivated to use all tools available to them to get ahead in the interview, resulting in increased, indiscriminate IM use. This is a double-edge sword, as the

potentially beneficial effects of honest IM can be nullified by the negative effects of deceptive IM (Bourdage et al., 2020). This is partially supported by the findings in Study 1, although no significant direct effect of Honesty-Humility on interview performance was found. Instead, there was a significant indirect effect of those low on Honesty-Humility having a positive impact on performance through honest IM. In contrast, those who are high on Honesty-Humility were less likely to engage in both deceptive and honest IM, suggesting that they may be at a disadvantage in the interview. It makes intuitive sense that those high on Honesty-Humility would engage in less honest and deceptive IM, as Honesty-Humility is comprised of the four sub-facets of sincerity, modesty, greed avoidance, and fairness (Lee & Ashton, 2004). Although this dissertation did not examine Honesty-Humility at the facet level, those who score high on sincerity and fairness would be unlikely to insincerely compliment or fabricate experiences, and those who score high on modesty may avoid emphasizing their own contributions or engaging in self-promotion behavior.

**Extraversion.** Another finding that was in line with previous literature was that Extraversion was related to increased use of honest IM (Bourdage et al., 2020). Those who are high on Extraversion have been found in the past to obtain higher interviewer evaluations (Barrick et al., 2012; Kristof-Brown et al., 2002), and it appears that this could be in part due to their increased propensity to engage in honest IM. One explanation as to why extraverts may choose to use more honest IM is that they are driven to promote positive interactions (Hogan & Holland, 2003) and therefore may choose to engage in honest IM to do so. Bourdage et al. (2020) have also hypothesized along the same lines that extraverts may view honesty and trust as more desirable images to create and maintain relationships, and thus use honest IM to bolster this. Overall, those who are higher on Extraversion therefore are likely to experience higher interview

performance ratings due to this increased propensity to engage in honest IM. This ultimately may result in an unintentional bias towards extraverts in interviews, even if the position being hired for does not necessarily require high Extraversion to excel.

**Self-Monitoring.** Finally, self-monitoring was found to be an antecedent to honest IM. In the past literature, there were mixed findings in regards to self-monitoring, such that some found it related positively to deceptive IM (Levashina & Campion, 2007; Roulin & Bourdage, 2017), whereas others found it related negatively to deceptive IM (Buehl & Melchers, 2017). In Study 1 and Study 2 however, self-monitoring was not found to be related to deceptive IM. Instead, high self-monitors were found to engage in more honest IM. In the general workplace context, Turnley and Bolino (2001) had found that high self-monitors were more likely to engage in the IM behaviors of ingratiation, self-promotion, and exemplification, which are tied to more positive images, and less on the IM behaviors of supplication and intimidation, which are tied to more ambiguous or negative images. The researchers posited that this may have occurred because the impact of supplication and intimidation on outcomes is more questionable and unclear, resulting in low instrumentality, and thus those high on self-monitoring may be unwilling to engage in these tactics. Applying this to the interview context, it may be possible that high self-monitors choose to engage in IM that helps bolster a positive image, like honest ingratiation or honest self-promotion, while avoiding IM that can take away from this positive image, like the deceptive IM tactic of extensive image creation. The findings from Study 1 and Study 2 seem to support this, as self-monitoring was found to be specifically related to increased honest self-promotion and honest ingratiation, but not honest defensive IM, nor any of the deceptive IM tactics.

Overall, these results suggest that organizations hiring based on only the employment interview may be favoring extraverts and passing over those who are high in Honesty-Humility, introverts, and low self-monitors. Although self-monitoring and Extraversion may be a skill that is necessary for a job that is customer facing or where performance is tied to person-to-person interaction, these findings suggest that interviewers are favouring these traits, even when hiring for jobs where these characteristics may not be necessary for performance. This can be problematic, as organizations may be missing out on skilled candidates. Moreover, these findings further demonstrate the importance of distinguishing between honest and deceptive IM, and that the profile of individual that engages in each of these behaviors differs.

### ***Cognitive and Motivational Antecedents***

**Cognitive Ability.** Similar to previous findings, low cognitive ability was found to be related to increased deceptive IM (Buehl & Melchers, 2017; Roulin & Bourdage, 2017). These individuals may engage in less deceptive IM as they do not need to compensate for a lack of skill or competency (Bourdage et al., 2018). Interestingly, cognitive ability was found to have a null (Study 1) or negative relationship (Study 2) to honest IM. Although it could be reasoned that those who are high on cognitive ability may be more likely to use honest IM to bolster their performance, it could also be the case that similar to deceptive IM, these individuals do not feel the need to use honest IM either. Honest IM, at its core, are behaviors that highlight or attractively communicate qualifications and skills that the individual does possess (Bourdage et al., 2018). Therefore, those low on cognitive ability may feel the need to use honest IM to help bolster the communication of their skills.

**Executive Functions.** Notably, the novel antecedents of executive functions were found to significantly relate to deceptive and honest IM. Although executive functions have been

explored in the deception literature (Christ et al., 2009; Debey et al., 2012), these important constructs have yet to be examined in the IM literature, and have yet to be integrated into our understanding of interviews at a broad level.

In Study 1, in which survey-based measures were used to assess executive functioning, it appears that lower inhibition and working memory were related to increased deceptive IM, and lower inhibition was related to increased honest IM. These findings are similar to those of cognitive ability, in which higher functioning individuals are less likely to engage in IM behavior (Buehl & Melchers, 2017), potentially because they do not feel the need to use deceptive IM to embellish their responses, or honest IM to better communicate their skills and abilities. For example, those who have better inhibition are able to suppress the impulse to quickly respond to the interview question and hold off to formulate a complete response, and those with a better working memory may be better able to recall and hold a past experience in their mind, thus nullifying the need to use IM to embellish their responses. On the other hand, those who have lower working memory may have difficulty recalling past experiences and holding those details in mind, and therefore, may feel the need to use deceptive IM to embellish or craft more detailed responses.

Examining the task-based measures of the three executive functions in Study 2, it appears that none of the three were related to deceptive IM, while low working memory was significantly related to more honest IM use. There are a number of reasons as to why there may have been this discrepancy in findings for the executive functions in Study 1 and Study 2. First, it may be due to the difference in format in assessing the executive functions, as Study 1 used survey-based measures, and Study 2 used task-based measures. Though the survey-based measure has been validated against other measures of executive functioning (Guy et al., 2004), it still relies on self-

report. Therefore, it can be subjected to influences from rater biases such as overconfidence. The task-based measures would bypass the need to form these self-evaluations, and thus might tap into a different form of executive functioning.

Second, another contributing factor may be because of the video interview context. In the face-to-face interview, individuals with lower executive functioning may feel more willing to engage in IM, especially deceptive IM, as they might feel that they have more than one opportunity to use deceptive IM during the interaction (e.g., the interviewer might ask follow-up questions, giving them an opportunity to further build upon their answer). Moreover, the instrumentality of their IM behavior may be clearer in the face-to-face interview, as they are provided with the reaction of the interviewer immediately (Vroom, 1964). In the video interview, however, individuals may feel that they only have one opportunity to provide an answer, or that they are not able to obtain clear, more immediate feedback on their IM attempt and as such, are less willing to engage in deceptive IM. Another possible explanation might be that those lower on executive functioning may feel more pressed to use deceptive IM in the face-to-face interview because they feel more pressure by having the interviewer interact with them rather than in the video interview where they may feel less pressure. Future research is needed to better understand the role of these executive functions and their role in the interview. However, on the whole, the present study provides preliminary evidence that executive functioning does impact the extent to which individuals engage in honest and deceptive IM, such that those who are lower on executive functioning tend to be more likely to use honest and deceptive IM.

**Incongruency.** Incongruency between one's conveyed (or ought) and true self, while theorized to be a driver of IM behavior (Leary & Kowalski, 1990), had yet to be examined empirically. Across the two studies, higher incongruency was found to relate to more deceptive

IM usage. This is an important finding, as it provides more insight into *why* individuals choose to engage in deceptive IM behavior. In line with self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987), those who had a bigger discrepancy between their conveyed and true personalities were more likely to engage in deceptive IM to overcome that gap. More specifically, those with a high incongruency tended to engage in the deceptive IM tactics of slight and extensive image creation, suggesting that these individuals are having to embellish or fabricate experiences to better portray themselves as closer to what they thought a candidate should be.

Interestingly, even though incongruency was negatively related to Honesty-Humility, both appeared to provide incremental prediction of deceptive IM usage above and beyond the other characteristics. This suggests that those who are low in Honesty-Humility tend to experience high incongruency, and that both characteristics motivated the individuals to engage in more deceptive IM. This finding further supports Leary and Kowalski's (1990) theory, as they posited that not only would the discrepancy between one's true and conveyed self drive IM use, but also the desire to obtain material and social rewards, which those low in Honesty-Humility are motivated by (see Lee et al., 2013). On the whole, this finding provides greater insight into the processes driving deceptive IM.

### ***Summary***

Overall, the findings reaffirm that there are meaningful differences in who engages in honest and deceptive IM. In particular, those who are more likely to use deceptive IM are individuals who are low on Honesty-Humility, lower on cognitive ability, lower on executive functioning, and high on incongruency. This suggests that those who tend to use deceptive IM may be using it as a reactive response, in which these individuals are feeling more pressured to perform well in the interview, but they do not possess the foundational skills or desired



characteristics and thus may feel the need to use deceptive IM. Moreover, individuals who are more likely to use deceptive IM may possess a rather undesirable personality profile for employers (Roulin & Bourdage, 2017), as these traits are also linked with lowered work performance and higher unethical work behavior. In contrast, the use of honest IM was not linked to such personality traits, with those higher on Extraversion and self-monitoring being more likely to engage in honest IM. That being said, previous research has found that honest IM users can also possess undesirable traits, such as low Honesty-Humility (Bourdage et al., 2020), and in this dissertation, lower executive functioning. However, these effects are less strong than those for deceptive IM.

### **IM Effectiveness**

Though it is important to understand who is more likely to engage in IM behaviors, another critical question is who is *more effective* at using these behaviors. As posited by Bolino et al. (2016), it is not simply the frequency of IM use that drives the effectiveness of IM, but the ability or style of the individual engaging in IM. To better understand how IM effectiveness is impacted, the role of attributions and several individual characteristics were examined. Interestingly, the findings support the assertion that attributions do play a significant role in IM effectiveness, such that IM was found to influence evaluation ratings through positive attributions. However, there was no significant moderating effect found for the many individual characteristics examined in this dissertation.

### ***Role of Attributions***

When considering if an IM attempt was effective or not, rather than only examining the effect on performance, researchers should also consider the mechanism by which that effect occurs. Although it has been theorized that IM influences interviewer evaluations through

attributions (Jones & Pittman, 1987), this mechanism had yet to be empirically tested for the full range of interview IM tactics. Turnley and Bolino (2001) examined dual attributions in workplace IM, and Amaral et al. (2019) focused on only two IM tactics and their respective attributions. The findings of this current dissertation suggest that attributions mediate the relationship between honest IM and interview performance, though there was no mediated effect found for deceptive IM.

Jones and Pittman (1987) originally hypothesized that each IM tactic could result in dual attributions, such that if an IM attempt was successful, the individual would obtain a positive attribution, and avoid the corresponding negative attribution. These attributions would then impact the evaluator's ratings, with positive attributions leading to more positive ratings, and negative attributions to more negative ratings. In this current dissertation, however, it appears that only the positive image had a significant impact on interview performance ratings.

Overall, honest IM had a significant indirect effect on interview performance ratings through the positive attributions of competent and friendly. When looking at specific tactics, honest self-promotion influenced interviewer performance ratings through the positive attribution of competent across both Study 1 and Study 2. The IM tactic of honest ingratiation also was found in Study 1 to have a significant indirect effect on interviewer performance ratings through the attribution of friendly. Although the negative attribution was negatively correlated with interview performance ratings, this path was not significant in the mediation model.

One possible reason why the negative attributions did not impact performance may be because in the interview context, the negative attributions of arrogant, sycophant, and untrustworthy may not be as directly or readily linked to job performance, and therefore, although undesirable, interviewers may not allow these attributions to impact their evaluation

ratings. Another possible reason is that in general, people may be more hesitant to allow negative monikers to drive their evaluations, and therefore, although someone might have negative attributions about someone, they are basing their evaluations of them more heavily on the level of positive attributions they perceive instead. This does appear to be the case, as attributions appeared to be two separate constructs (i.e., positive/negative) across the two studies, instead of two ends of one spectrum (e.g., with competent on one end, and arrogant on the other).

Importantly, the findings also suggest that a narrow approach, in which specific IM tactics link to specific attributions, provided a better fit for the data than a broad approach. This echoes the findings of Turnley and Bolino (2001), who examined IM use and the impact of self-monitoring on achieving either a specific positive image or negative image. Although the researchers did not examine interview IM, the authors found that there were discreet differences in which low and high self-monitoring individuals were able to obtain specific images for certain workplace IM tactics. For example, those high on self-monitoring were able to achieve the image of dedicated when using exemplification, whereas those low on self-monitoring were more associated with the image of “feeling superior”. This suggests that specific attributions are important mechanisms that researchers may need to consider when examining particular IM tactics and their impact on interview performance ratings. Overall, when considering IM’s impact on interview performance and the effectiveness of such behavior, it is important to consider the intermediary role of attributions, such that a successful IM attempt will lead to positive attributions, thus leading to increased evaluations.

### ***Individual Characteristics on IM Effectiveness***

**Personality.** The hypotheses around the moderating effect of personality traits of Honesty-Humility, Extraversion, and self-monitoring on the effectiveness of deceptive IM were

not supported. There are a few reasons why this may have occurred. For Honesty-Humility, it is possible that while those low on the trait may be more motivated to capitalize on opportunities for personal gain (Lee & Ashton, 2004), they are not more effective at doing so. Studies in related literatures find that those low on Honesty-Humility may be more adaptable and able to flexibly use strategies to capitalize on opportunities (Hilbig et al., 2012; Wiltshire et al., 2014). However, although these individuals are able to use more IM tactics interchangeably, it does not mean that they are more successful when they do choose to use them.

Similarly, while high self-monitors may be better able to attune to social cues and understand what behaviors are appropriate, they do not appear to be more proficient at executing the IM tactics. Although this somewhat contradicts the findings of Turnley and Bolino (2001), the study was focused on the impact of self-monitoring on workplace IM, which consist of broader behaviors that are often engaged in over a longer period of time. In contrast, in the interview, the timeframe that honest and deceptive IM tactics are used in is much shorter. Perhaps those high in self-monitoring possess a broader ability to engage in socially appropriate behavior over a longer time period, which enables them to obtain a positive image. They are also able to observe more feedback for their behavior and understand if their attempts have resulted in positive outcomes, and then readily adjust their behaviors. In contrast, in the interview, they receive this information after the interview is complete. This is also consistent with the findings of Roulin and Bourdage (2017), in which the authors find that high self-monitors varied their IM usage across multiple interviews.

Finally, though there was a small, moderated mediation effect of Extraversion found in Study 2, due to the high amount of tests conducted, it is likely that this was due to chance, especially because the direction of the result was opposite of what was hypothesized and there is

not a clear theoretical reason for this finding. Similar to the other personality traits, Extraversion may play more of an antecedent role in the model of IM use rather than a moderating one. As mentioned previously, those high on Extraversion tend to select IM tactics that are related to building more positive interactions, such as ingratiation (Bourdage et al., 2020). It is possible that Extraversion impacts which tactics individuals choose to engage in, but not the effectiveness of such behaviors.

**Cognitive Ability and Executive Functioning.** General cognitive ability and the three executive functions of inhibition, shifting, and working memory did not significantly moderate relationship between IM tactics and performance. This echoes the findings of Buehl and Melchers (2017), in which the researchers found that cognitive ability did not moderate faking effectiveness. Coupled with the previous finding that those high on cognitive ability generally engage in less deceptive or honest IM, it may not be surprising that cognitive ability does not significantly impact IM effectiveness. However, in situations when asked to engage in faking (Levashina & Campion, 2009) or deceptive IM use (Buehl & Melchers, 2017), those high on cognitive ability are able to elevate their scores, suggesting that while they are capable of elevating their scores, in more natural settings, they are unlikely to engage in these behaviors on their own, therefore resulting in this null effect. Indeed, as mentioned in the previous section, those who are high on cognitive ability were found to be less likely to engage in deceptive and honest IM.

In the same vein, those who were high on executive functioning were also not found to be more effective at IM use. Though these three executive functions have yet to be explored in the IM literature, in the related deceptive behavior literature, researchers have found that engaging in deception results in more cognitive load (Suchotzki et al, 2017). Therefore, I proposed that

higher executive functioning would enable individuals to better handle this cognitive load and effectively engage in deceptive IM. However, like those high on cognitive ability, these individuals high in executive function are less likely to engage in deceptive behavior, or deceptive IM, to begin with. Moreover, an alternative explanation may be that those higher on executive functioning are more likely to consider moral outcomes of their actions, and therefore be overall less likely to engage in deceptive IM. In a review of the fMRI literature, Raine and Yang (2006) found that the anterior prefrontal cortex, or the area of the brain that is related to executive functioning, is related to both antisocial behavior and moral decision-making. When this area of the brain was inhibited, individuals were better able to engage in deceptive behavior, suggesting that “deceiving another person in order to obtain personal profit seems to create a moral conflict, and if a person is relieved from this moral conflict, he/she might be able to deceive unhinderedly with faster RT, less feelings of guilt and less sympathetic arousal...” (Karim et al., 2010, p. 210). Therefore, applying this to the IM context, those high on executive functioning are less likely to engage in deceptive behavior overall because they may be confronted by more conflicting moral thoughts, resulting in the null findings on effectiveness found here in this dissertation. Overall, more research is needed to better understand the impact of these cognitive factors on IM behavior in the interview and workplace.

Although it was hypothesized that a greater incongruency would result in less effectiveness (as interviewees are trying to convey traits quite divergent from their reality), this was not supported. Again, similar to the other individual characteristics, it appears that incongruency influences one’s willingness to engage in deceptive IM, but not the effectiveness with which one carries out such behavior. This is in contrast to the findings of Pontari and Schlenker (2000), who examined incongruency in the context of self-presentation, and found that

congruent self-presentations were less effortful than incongruent self-presentations. However, the authors only focused on discrepancy based on Extraversion, in which introverts and extraverts were asked to either self-present congruently, or incongruently. Interestingly, while incongruent self-presentation was found to be more effortful overall, extraverts found it more difficult to pose as introverts than those who were introverts posing as extraverts. In fact, when adding a cognitive busyness task, those who were introverts appeared to be more effective at appearing extroverted. The authors reasoned that this was due to the fact that introverts often tend to be socially anxious, and that the cognitive busyness task may help quiet their internal cognition. The results did seem to support this, as introverts reported experiencing less public self-consciousness, and fewer negative self-focused thoughts when under the effects of the cognitive busyness task. Therefore, applied to the present study on IM effectiveness, perhaps the directionality of the incongruency, or the specificity of the traits needs to be considered, although based on previous theory (e.g., Higgins, 1987) and the current results, the general size of the discrepancy seems to be the main driving factor for one's willingness to engage in IM. Another possibility may be that having a discrepancy on a trait like Extraversion is more difficult than others, like Openness. More research is needed to better understand these nuances in the incongruency construct, although we believe this study represents a fruitful start.

### ***Summary***

It appears that these individual characteristics of personality, cognitive ability, executive functioning, and incongruency play more of an antecedent role rather than a moderating one in the integrated IM model. More specifically, although some of these characteristics have been found to impact the propensity to engage in honest and deceptive IM, they did not impact whether someone is more effective at using these tactics. More research is needed to better

understand what factors could impact the effectiveness of IM, including possible multiple interactions between different individual characteristics, and situational characteristics. When examining the data across both studies, interview IM was not significantly related to interview performance ratings directly, and amongst those who used deceptive and honest IM, there were some who received higher performance ratings. This suggests that it is not only the frequency to which these behaviors are engaged in that impact effectiveness, but characteristics about the individual who engages in the IM (Bolino et al., 2016).

### **Interview IM and Its Impact on Workplace IM and Outcomes**

One important aspect that has been largely overlooked in the IM literature is the long-term effects of IM, or how interview IM may be associated with behavior in the workplace. For example, people who are prone to using deceptive IM may also be prone to engaging in deceptive or negative behaviors in the workplace. Though these relationships between IM behavior and workplace behavior and outcomes are often assumed, they have not been empirically tested, with the exception of an unpublished dissertation (Charbonneau, 2018). This is critical to understanding the overall impacts of IM, as it can shed light on whether or not those who use IM in the interview are just adeptly responding to the interview situation, or if they are potentially problematic employees. Although it should be noted that the sample size for Study 1 part 2 was quite small, there were significant relationships found between interview IM and workplace IM, and interview IM and workplace outcomes.

#### ***Interview IM and Workplace IM***

One important finding is that those who engage in both honest and deceptive interview IM appear to also engage in workplace IM. This makes intuitive sense, as those who feel that they need to use IM in the interview, particularly deceptive IM, to compensate for a lack of skill



or ability will likely feel the need to continue to use IM to help maintain a positive image at work once they obtain one of these job positions. This is problematic, as Levashina and Campion (2007) finds that not all people engage in IM to the same extent, and Barrick et al. (2009) found that IM use in the interview was significantly less correlated with performance on the job, suggesting that IM use in the interview is not an adaptive behavior that is related to one's work performance. Further, the dispositional antecedents of interview IM (Bourdage et al., 2020) and workplace IM (Bourdage et al., 2015) are similar, providing evidence that there may be a common dispositional basis explaining IM use. Moreover, because many workplace decisions, such as performance appraisals and promotions, are influenced by workplace IM (Barrick et al., 2009; Bolino et al., 2008), the increased use of workplace IM by those who use more IM in the interview is an important issue.

There does seem to be a functional difference between those who use honest IM and those who use deceptive IM. Those who use honest IM tend to engage in more "positive" workplace IM behaviors, or IM that is directed to creating a positive image such as self-promotion, exemplification, and ingratiation. Though these tactics focus on building a positive image, there can be negative consequences tied to the use of these tactics. For example, the use of exemplification can contribute to a competitive environment and can lead to burnout (Harris et al., 2013). The authors suggests that as individuals have limited resources, those who use IM may feel more burned out and strained on the job over time, as they are diverting resources away from task related processes and towards behaviors like trying to appear busy, over time they may feel more burned out and strained on the job.

Those who used deceptive IM in the interview, however, appear to use more workplace IM behaviors overall, including some particularly damaging IM behaviors. Intimidation and

supplication are workplace IM tactics that are both tied to seemingly negative images, but the aim of both tactics is to obtain a benefit to the user (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). For example, intimidation involves acting threatening and powerful so that the individual can either avoid an undesirable task, or to get someone to follow through with their demands. This behavior can be similar to abusive supervision behaviors, which is particularly negative as it not only impacts the target individual, but also those who observe the behavior. For example, research has found that abusive behaviors can have trickle down effects, creating a negative work environment (Mawritz et al., 2012). Supplication, on the other hand, involves appearing to be weak as to elicit helpful responses from others (e.g., pretending to not know how to do a task to get help from others). Although supplication may seem to have only negative consequences for the user's image, it can also be detrimental to others, as having to pick up a task that a teammate should have completed can impede the workflow of the team. Overall, it appears that those who use deceptive IM in the interview may engage in particularly negative behaviors later in the workplace. As such, even though those using deceptive IM are not necessarily more successful in the interview, this does speak to the importance of identifying these individuals early on in the process before they are hired.

In summary, individuals who use more IM in an interview situation, particularly those who use deceptive IM, may be more likely to engage in workplace IM, which is detrimental to the organization and the individual. This has practical implications for organizations, as those who engage in IM in the interview may go undetected (Roulin et al., 2015), and once hired, may negatively contribute to the work environment and lead to bias in the distribution of workplace rewards (Bolino et al., 2008).

### ***Interview IM and Workplace Outcomes***

This dissertation is, to my knowledge, one of the first studies to examine the impacts of interview IM on later workplace behavior and outcomes. Although Barrick et al. (2009) meta-analyzed the relationship between interview IM and later work performance, they did not examine other workplace outcomes or behaviors. Henle et al. (2017) did investigate interview IM and workplace outcomes, but this was in the context of interview faking behaviors, as the study was focused on faking on resumes and how that related to faking in the interview and later workplace behaviors. As a result, honest IM behaviors were not examined. Finally, although Charbonneau (2018) examined the relationship between deceptive IM use and later workplace attitudes and outcomes in an unpublished thesis, the author measured interview behaviors sometime after the interviews had already taken place and the applicant had accepted the job offer, and did not examine subsequent IM behaviors. The results of the present dissertation support the findings of these three previous studies, as those who engaged in deceptive IM in the interview experienced more negative outcomes later in the workplace. More specifically, those who used slight image creation, extensive image creation, and image protection experienced less organizational fit, job satisfaction, and reported increased CWB and turnover intentions. In contrast, honest IM use in the interview was not significantly related to any workplace or individual outcomes. This suggests that there is an important distinction between those who use deceptive IM in the interview and those who use honest IM, such that those who use deceptive IM can experience a multitude of negative outcomes later in the workplace.

**Individual Outcomes.** The use of deceptive interview IM is likely driven by the need to compensate for an inadequacy in ability or skill (Bourdage et al., 2018). As previous studies have found that those who engage in deceptive IM in one interview are likely to engage in deceptive IM in other interviews (Roulin & Bourdage, 2017), it is possible that these individuals continue

to strive for job positions that are above their current skills and abilities. Moreover, a recent study by Roulin and Krings (2020) found that applicants engaged in faking in the interview to increase their person-organization fit for the position. This suggests that even when a position is not a good fit for the applicant, they are driven to perform well by using deceptive IM. Some may suggest that individuals who fake to obtain a position should experience more positive outcomes once they obtain a job they desire. However, the findings seem to suggest the opposite, such that when these individuals eventually obtain a position, they are likely to experience poor actual fit for the organization and subsequently experience less satisfaction on the job and increased turnover intentions. More specifically, individuals who used more deceptive IM in the interview experienced less self-reported organization fit, job satisfaction, and more turnover intentions. Those who used honest IM, however, did not experience these negative individual outcomes, although they also did not experience any significant positive outcomes. One possible explanation for this may be that honest IM is a behavior that is still driven by a feeling of needing to bolster one's performance. In other words, those who feel confident in their experiences and qualifications are unlikely to use either honest or deceptive IM. Therefore, although using honest IM is not tied to the same negative outcomes as using deceptive IM, it also is not tied to particularly positive outcomes either.

**Organizational Outcomes.** Another interesting finding was that deceptive IM in the interview was related to more CWB in the workplace, but not OCB. This makes sense, as those who used deceptive IM in the interview likely used it to overcome their lack in desired characteristics. They are then subsequently likely to struggle to excel at their job, resulting in increased strain. This increased job strain can then manifest as a negative behavior, such as CWB (Fox et al., 2001). One reason this may have occurred is because of the Job Demands-Resources

model, in which it is postulated that two processes drive an individual's experience and outcomes at work – job demands and job resources (Demerouti et al., 2001). Characteristics that have the potential to damage employee health and wellbeing are considered job demands (e.g., workload, time pressure), while characteristics that are protective are considered job resources (e.g., social support, career opportunities). Balducci et al. (2011) applied this model to predict CWB and found that increased job demands related to increased CWB in the workplace. Therefore, those who use deceptive IM in the interview may be more likely to experience job strain once in the job, and as a result, be more likely to engage in CWB to relieve this stress. Further research could help shed more insight onto this relationship.

Another explanation is that there is a common dispositional trait that is underlying both deceptive IM usage and CWB – Honesty-Humility. Honesty-Humility has been found to be linked to increased deceptive IM usage in the interview (Bourdage et al., 2018; Law et al., 2016; Ho et al., 2019; Roulin & Bourdage, 2017) and increased unethical and delinquent behavior at work (Pletzer et al., 2019). Therefore, those who are low in Honesty-Humility may be likely to engage in both types of deceptive and negative behavior in the interview, and later at work.

OCB, on the other hand, was not significantly related to any of the interview IM tactics. This may be because OCBs are extra-role behaviors with the purpose to assist others or the overall organization, and thus, would most likely be related to more positive, other-focused tactics. This is somewhat supported by the findings, as the tactics of deceptive ingratiation and honest ingratiation had correlations that were trending on the positive side ( $r = .15$ ,  $r = .18$ ) with OCB.

### ***Summary***

Overall, the findings do support the notion that those who use deceptive IM in the interview may end up self-sabotaging, as they try to obtain positions that are a poor fit for their skills and abilities, which ultimately leads to more strain and negative outcomes later in the workplace. In contrast, the use of honest IM was not linked to any of these outcomes. This suggests that the use of deceptive IM is particularly concerning, as it carries both negative consequences for the individual and organization. Beyond the potential of introducing error into the hiring interview, it may have longer term effects after the candidate is hired. Further research should examine this longitudinal association, and what mechanisms may be underlying this relationship.

### **Implications**

As discussed previously, there are a number of theoretical implications of this present dissertation. First, this is one of the first studies to use an integrated approach to understanding the antecedent and intermediary factors, and outcomes of IM in a single study. It is the also first study to test a broader range of attributions associated with each of the interview IM tactics. This dissertation also examines novel cognitive factors (e.g., executive functioning) and motivational factors (e.g., incongruency) as antecedents to IM behavior. Finally, Study 1 part 2 sheds light on the longitudinal associations between IM behavior in the interview and later workplace behavior and outcomes, which has been largely overlooked. These contributions help advance theory about IM behavior in the interview and in the workplace.

The type of individuals who are most likely to use deceptive and honest IM in the interview may have several implications for organizations. First, IM use is likely to introduce bias and error into the hiring process (Bourdage et al., 2020). Those who use deceptive IM were those who are low in Honesty-Humility, cognitive ability, and executive functioning, and high on

incongruency. Those who use honest IM tended to be low on Honesty-Humility, and high on Extraversion and self-monitoring. These individual traits are either undesirable for organizations, such as low Honesty-Humility, or are not directly tied to job-related performance for many jobs, such as high Extraversion. For example, if the hiring process mainly consists of just the employment interview, it can result in a bias in selecting against those more introverted and modest (Bourdage et al., 2020). Although those who used deceptive IM in the interview were not more likely to be hired, they were also not punished for being deceptive. Therefore, should these individuals be hired, they could pose a serious issue for the organization. Importantly, it also appears that those who engage in specifically deceptive IM may be doing so because of an inadequacy or a lack in desired characteristics for the job. Therefore, deceptive IM use is particularly problematic as it may result in the hiring of an individual who is ill-suited for the role, and someone who may engage in more negative work behaviors.

Second, the results suggest that interview IM is not necessarily an adaptive, job-relevant behavior. Although some may suggest that interview IM may be an expected behavior in response to the interview situation in which applicants are trying to present their best selves, not everyone engages in IM to the same extent (Ellis et al., 2002; Levashina & Campion, 2007). Interview IM may also present itself as a long-term issue for organizations, as its effects extend beyond just interview ratings. Those who used honest IM in the interview used more workplace IM behavior. This may contribute to creating a more negative workplace experience, as previous research has found that having a perceived culture of exemplification (e.g., arriving to work earlier and leaving later to show you are diligent) can lead to burnout (Harris et al., 2013). Moreover, those who used deceptive IM not only engaged in more IM behavior in the workplace, but they also experienced more negative individual outcomes and engaged in more

CWBs. This suggests that those who use deceptive IM in the interview end up self-sabotaging, as they attempt to obtain positions that are ill-suited for their skills and abilities, and therefore experience negative outcomes once they obtain one of these positions.

Third, this dissertation is one of the first to examine IM in AVIs. The results suggest that despite the different environment that AVIs can create, there are similarities in the way that applicants behave, such as using honest and deceptive IM, and the nomological network around IM. Although there are many different features that can be programmed (see Lukacik et al., 2020), given the current decisions made in Study 2, it appears that candidates were still motivated to perform well. However, the results indicate that AVIs are still susceptible to honest and deceptive IM use by candidates. This suggests that while AVIs may have advantages over the traditional face-to-face interview in that they can be conducted in a more cost and time effective manner, candidates are still engaging in honest and deceptive IM. More research is needed to better understand how different AVI features and design can impact applicant behavior.

Finally, these findings imply that organizations may need to consider including different stages, or other evaluation methods in their hiring process to help buffer potential interpersonal biases that may occur in the interview. Interviewers should also consider using more interview structure, such as evaluation standardization (Chapman & Zweig, 2005). The findings of Study 2 support this, as a more objective approach to interview performance, such as averaging across several BARs ratings for each interview question, was not related to IM tactic use, but a subjective approach, like averaging across perceived fit or overall hireability, was related to IM



tactic use.<sup>1</sup> This suggests that using more standardization for performance ratings may help protect or buffer against the effects of IM.

### **Strengths, Limitations and Future Directions**

There are a number of strengths to this present dissertation. First, Study 1 provided a naturalistic, reasonably high stakes setting in which the effects of IM could be investigated. It also allowed for two sources of data, the interviewee and interviewer, to be collected right after the interview. Study 1 also allowed for the longitudinal associations between interview IM and workplace behaviors and attitudes to be examined, which is one of the first studies to do so. Study 2 allowed for a more controlled interview situation by using AVI technology, allowing for standardization of interviewee experience to further examine the relationships between the focal variables. Both studies created stakes or incentives for participants to do well, and had participants complete realistic interviews and report actual behavior, versus a focus on hypothetical scenarios and faking intentions, as many studies have done in this literature. The novel factor of executive functioning was assessed through both survey-based and task-based measures across the two studies, allowing for a more comprehensive understanding of these cognitive factors. Nonetheless, there are several limitations as well.

First, this study focused on individual characteristics of the interviewee. Research focusing on other characteristics, like situational factors (e.g., interview question types), has been quite sparse in comparison to individual characteristics (Peeters & Lievens, 2006). Preliminary

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<sup>1</sup> Although this was not reported in the results section, this was measured in Study 2, and there were divergent relationships found between IM and subjective performance (the average score comprised of perceived fit and hireability) and objective performance (the average score across the six BARs ratings). For example, subjective performance ratings was related to overall honest IM use ( $r = .15, p = .011$ ) whereas objective performance ratings was not ( $r = .08, p = .170$ ). Moreover, applicant self-monitoring and Extraversion was positively correlated with subjective performance ratings ( $r = .12, p = .039, r = .14, p = .012$ ) and not with objective performance ratings ( $r = .09, p = .108, r = .09, p = .110$ ).

research, however, finds that these situational factors may tend to have fairly small relationships with interview IM (Bourdage et al., 2018, Study 5). Although no individual characteristic was found to impact the effectiveness of IM, it could be due to a number of reasons. First, effectiveness may be primarily driven not by one characteristic, but the interaction of several characteristics. Unfortunately, the sample size in Study 1 and Study 2 may not have been adequate to examine these two-way or three-way interactions between individual characteristics.

Second, although Study 1 Part 2 provides novel insight into the longitudinal associations of interview IM, the sample size is quite small. Further research should be conducted to better understand these relationships. Moreover, the job positions obtained by participants were likely not the same job position they were interviewing for during the practice interviews. However, despite this shortcoming, there were significant relationships found between how an individual behaved in an interview, and how they behaved once they obtained a position later. Future research could focus on a more specific follow-up, in which only those who are successful at an interview complete a follow-up survey once they are in that position in the workplace. However, this would then likely only include those who used IM *and* were successful at doing so, which presents its own limitations.

Another limitation of this dissertation is that although the novel factor of incongruency was examined and found to be a critical antecedent of deceptive IM, more research should be conducted to better understand the nuances of this construct. In this current dissertation, incongruency was conceptualized as the sum of the absolute differences between one's true and conveyed self on the six traits of HEXACO. As mentioned previously, there can be many different self-guides, and in this dissertation, the participants were asked to indicate the level of each personality trait they were trying to portray. Another way to obtain a more direct "ought"

self might be to ask the individual what traits they felt they *should be* or are obligated to be. Future research could examine how discrepancies between these different self-guides impact the use of IM. Moreover, as found by Pontari and Schlenker (2000), there may be a directionality effect, such that those who score high on a certain trait may find it more difficult to portray themselves as someone who scores low on that trait. Moreover, incongruity between ones true and conveyed self can involve factors other than personality, such as skills or abilities. More research should be conducted to better understand how these discrepancies can contribute to IM behavior.

Finally, in Study 2, a limitation was the use of two raters. Despite multiple frame of reference training sessions, there appeared to be a rater effect such that Rater 2 had lower ratings, especially on negative attributions. One way this could be remedied is through having more raters evaluate the video interviews. Future studies could also examine what rater characteristics might influence the relationship of IM on attributions and outcomes.

## **Conclusion**

In conclusion, the findings in this dissertation suggest that interview IM impacts interviewer evaluations through attributions, and that there are important differences between who chooses to engage in honest and deceptive IM. More specifically, it appears that those who choose to engage in deceptive IM may choose to do so to overcome an inadequacy in skill or ability for a job position. It also suggests that interview IM behavior has long-term effects for both individuals and organizations, as those who engage in interview IM tend to engage in workplace IM. Moreover, those who engage in deceptive interview may be self-sabotaging, as they experience more negative workplace outcomes later on the job. Overall, these two studies

suggest that to fully understand IM effectiveness, it is important for researchers to consider the intermediary factor of attributions, and *how* IM can impact interview evaluations.

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## Appendix A: Revised Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986)

*Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree*

### Ability to modify self-presentation

1. In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for
2. I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them
3. When I feel that the image I am portray isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does
4. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations (R)
5. I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in
6. Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty putting up a good front (R)
7. Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly

### Sensitivity to expressive behavior of others

1. I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes
2. In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I'm conversing with
3. My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others' emotions and motives
4. I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly
5. I can usually tell when I've said something inappropriate by reading it in the listener's eyes
6. If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from that person's manner of expression

**Appendix B: HEXACO-PI-R (Lee & Ashton, 2018)**

*Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree*

**HEXACO personality**

- 1 \_\_\_\_\_ I would be quite bored by a visit to an art gallery.
- 2 \_\_\_\_\_ I clean my office or home quite frequently.
- 3 \_\_\_\_\_ I rarely hold a grudge, even against people who have badly wronged me.
- 4 \_\_\_\_\_ I feel reasonably satisfied with myself overall.
- 5 \_\_\_\_\_ I would feel afraid if I had to travel in bad weather conditions.
- 6 \_\_\_\_\_ If I want something from a person I dislike, I will act very nicely toward that person in order to get it.
- 7 \_\_\_\_\_ I'm interested in learning about the history and politics of other countries.
- 8 \_\_\_\_\_ When working, I often set ambitious goals for myself.
- 9 \_\_\_\_\_ People sometimes tell me that I am too critical of others.
- 10 \_\_\_\_\_ I rarely express my opinions in group meetings.
- 11 \_\_\_\_\_ I sometimes can't help worrying about little things.
- 12 \_\_\_\_\_ If I knew that I could never get caught, I would be willing to steal a million dollars.
- 13 \_\_\_\_\_ I would like a job that requires following a routine rather than being creative.
- 14 \_\_\_\_\_ I often check my work over repeatedly to find any mistakes.
- 15 \_\_\_\_\_ People sometimes tell me that I'm too stubborn.
- 16 \_\_\_\_\_ I avoid making "small talk" with people.
- 17 \_\_\_\_\_ When I suffer from a painful experience, I need someone to make me feel comfortable.
- 18 \_\_\_\_\_ Having a lot of money is not especially important to me.
- 19 \_\_\_\_\_ I think that paying attention to radical ideas is a waste of time.
- 20 \_\_\_\_\_ I make decisions based on the feeling of the moment rather than on careful thought.
- 21 \_\_\_\_\_ People think of me as someone who has a quick temper.
- 22 \_\_\_\_\_ I am energetic nearly all the time.
- 23 \_\_\_\_\_ I feel like crying when I see other people crying.
- 24 \_\_\_\_\_ I am an ordinary person who is no better than others.
- 25 \_\_\_\_\_ I wouldn't spend my time reading a book of poetry.
- 26 \_\_\_\_\_ I plan ahead and organize things, to avoid scrambling at the last minute.
- 27 \_\_\_\_\_ My attitude toward people who have treated me badly is "forgive and forget".
- 28 \_\_\_\_\_ I think that most people like some aspects of my personality.

- 29 \_\_\_\_\_ I don't mind doing jobs that involve dangerous work.
- 30 \_\_\_\_\_ I wouldn't use flattery to get a raise or promotion at work, even if I thought it would succeed.
- 31 \_\_\_\_\_ I enjoy looking at maps of different places.
- 32 \_\_\_\_\_ I often push myself very hard when trying to achieve a goal.
- 33 \_\_\_\_\_ I generally accept people's faults without complaining about them.
- 34 \_\_\_\_\_ In social situations, I'm usually the one who makes the first move.
- 35 \_\_\_\_\_ I worry a lot less than most people do.
- 36 \_\_\_\_\_ I would be tempted to buy stolen property if I were financially tight.
- 37 \_\_\_\_\_ I would enjoy creating a work of art, such as a novel, a song, or a painting.
- 38 \_\_\_\_\_ When working on something, I don't pay much attention to small details.
- 39 \_\_\_\_\_ I am usually quite flexible in my opinions when people disagree with me.
- 40 \_\_\_\_\_ I enjoy having lots of people around to talk with.
- 41 \_\_\_\_\_ I can handle difficult situations without needing emotional support from anyone else.
- 42 \_\_\_\_\_ I would like to live in a very expensive, high-class neighborhood.
- 43 \_\_\_\_\_ I like people who have unconventional views.
- 44 \_\_\_\_\_ I make a lot of mistakes because I don't think before I act.
- 45 \_\_\_\_\_ I rarely feel anger, even when people treat me quite badly.
- 46 \_\_\_\_\_ On most days, I feel cheerful and optimistic.
- 47 \_\_\_\_\_ When someone I know well is unhappy, I can almost feel that person's pain myself.
- 48 \_\_\_\_\_ I wouldn't want people to treat me as though I were superior to them.
- 49 \_\_\_\_\_ If I had the opportunity, I would like to attend a classical music concert.
- 50 \_\_\_\_\_ People often joke with me about the messiness of my room or desk.
- 51 \_\_\_\_\_ If someone has cheated me once, I will always feel suspicious of that person.
- 52 \_\_\_\_\_ I feel that I am an unpopular person.
- 53 \_\_\_\_\_ When it comes to physical danger, I am very fearful.
- 54 \_\_\_\_\_ If I want something from someone, I will laugh at that person's worst jokes.
- 55 \_\_\_\_\_ I would be very bored by a book about the history of science and technology.
- 56 \_\_\_\_\_ Often when I set a goal, I end up quitting without having reached it.
- 57 \_\_\_\_\_ I tend to be lenient in judging other people.
- 58 \_\_\_\_\_ When I'm in a group of people, I'm often the one who speaks on behalf of the group.
- 59 \_\_\_\_\_ I rarely, if ever, have trouble sleeping due to stress or anxiety.

- 60 \_\_\_\_\_ I would never accept a bribe, even if it were very large.
- 61 \_\_\_\_\_ People have often told me that I have a good imagination.
- 62 \_\_\_\_\_ I always try to be accurate in my work, even at the expense of time.
- 63 \_\_\_\_\_ When people tell me that I'm wrong, my first reaction is to argue with them.
- 64 \_\_\_\_\_ I prefer jobs that involve active social interaction to those that involve working alone.
- 65 \_\_\_\_\_ Whenever I feel worried about something, I want to share my concern with another person.
- 66 \_\_\_\_\_ I would like to be seen driving around in a very expensive car.
- 67 \_\_\_\_\_ I think of myself as a somewhat eccentric person.
- 68 \_\_\_\_\_ I don't allow my impulses to govern my behaviour.
- 69 \_\_\_\_\_ Most people tend to get angry more quickly than I do.
- 70 \_\_\_\_\_ People often tell me that I should try to cheer up.
- 71 \_\_\_\_\_ I feel strong emotions when someone close to me is going away for a long time.
- 72 \_\_\_\_\_ I think that I am entitled to more respect than the average person is.
- 73 \_\_\_\_\_ Sometimes I like to just watch the wind as it blows through the trees.
- 74 \_\_\_\_\_ When working, I sometimes have difficulties due to being disorganized.
- 75 \_\_\_\_\_ I find it hard to fully forgive someone who has done something mean to me.
- 76 \_\_\_\_\_ I sometimes feel that I am a worthless person.
- 77 \_\_\_\_\_ Even in an emergency I wouldn't feel like panicking.
- 78 \_\_\_\_\_ I wouldn't pretend to like someone just to get that person to do favors for me.
- 79 \_\_\_\_\_ I've never really enjoyed looking through an encyclopedia.
- 80 \_\_\_\_\_ I do only the minimum amount of work needed to get by.
- 81 \_\_\_\_\_ Even when people make a lot of mistakes, I rarely say anything negative.
- 82 \_\_\_\_\_ I tend to feel quite self-conscious when speaking in front of a group of people.
- 83 \_\_\_\_\_ I get very anxious when waiting to hear about an important decision.
- 84 \_\_\_\_\_ I'd be tempted to use counterfeit money, if I were sure I could get away with it.
- 85 \_\_\_\_\_ I don't think of myself as the artistic or creative type.
- 86 \_\_\_\_\_ People often call me a perfectionist.
- 87 \_\_\_\_\_ I find it hard to compromise with people when I really think I'm right.
- 88 \_\_\_\_\_ The first thing that I always do in a new place is to make friends.
- 89 \_\_\_\_\_ I rarely discuss my problems with other people.
- 90 \_\_\_\_\_ I would get a lot of pleasure from owning expensive luxury goods.

- 91 \_\_\_\_\_ I find it boring to discuss philosophy.
- 92 \_\_\_\_\_ I prefer to do whatever comes to mind, rather than stick to a plan.
- 93 \_\_\_\_\_ I find it hard to keep my temper when people insult me.
- 94 \_\_\_\_\_ Most people are more upbeat and dynamic than I generally am.
- 95 \_\_\_\_\_ I remain unemotional even in situations where most people get very sentimental.
- 96 \_\_\_\_\_ I want people to know that I am an important person of high status.
- 97 \_\_\_\_\_ I have sympathy for people who are less fortunate than I am.
- 98 \_\_\_\_\_ I try to give generously to those in need.
- 99 \_\_\_\_\_ It wouldn't bother me to harm someone I didn't like.
- 10 \_\_\_\_\_ People see me as a hard-hearted person.

## Appendix C: Interview Faking Behavior Scale (Levashina & Campion, 2007)

*Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree*

### **Slight Image Creation**

Embellishing (to overstate or embellish answers beyond a reasonable description of the truth)

- 1) I said that I am an expert in an area even though I am only familiar with it
- 2) I said that it would take less time to learn the job than I knew it would
- 3) I exaggerated my future goals
- 4) I exaggerated my responsibility on my previous jobs
- 5) I exaggerated the impact of my performance in my past jobs
- 6) I used examples of my best performance to answer questions about my everyday performance

Tailoring (to modify or adapt answers to fit the job)

- 1) During the interview, I distorted my answers based on comments or reactions of the interviewer
- 2) During the interview, I distorted my answers to emphasize what the interviewer was looking for
- 3) I distorted my answers based on the information about the job I obtained during the interview
- 4) I distorted my work experience to fit the interviewer's view of the position
- 5) I distorted my qualifications to match qualifications required for the job
- 6) I tried to find out about the organization's culture and then use that information to fabricate my answers

Fit Enhancing (to create the impression of a fit with the job or organization in terms of beliefs, values, or attitudes)

- 1) I enhanced my fit with the job in terms of attitudes, values, or beliefs
- 2) I inflated the fit between my values and goals and values and goals of the organization
- 3) I inflated the fit between my credentials and the needs of the organization
- 4) When asked, I did not mention any disagreements with the organization's philosophies
- 5) I tried to use information about the company to make my answers should like I was a better fit than I actually was

### **Extensive Image Creation**

Constructing (to build stories by combining or arranging work experiences to provide better answers)

- 1) I told fictional stories prepared in advance of the interview to best present my credentials
- 2) I fabricated examples to show my fit with the organization
- 3) I made up stories about my work experiences that were well developed and logical
- 4) I constructed fictional stories to explain the gaps in my work experiences

- 5) I told stories that contained both real and fictional work experiences
- 6) I combined, modified, and distorted my work experiences in my answers
- 7) I used made-up stories for most questions

**Inventing (to cook up better answers)**

- 1) I claimed that I have skills that I do not have
- 2) I made up measureable outcomes of performed tasks
- 3) I claimed work experiences that I do not actually have
- 4) I promised that I could meet all job requirements (i.e working late or on weekends), even though I probably could not
- 5) I misrepresented the description of an event
- 6) I stretched the truth to give a good answer
- 7) I invented some work situations or accomplishments that did not really occur
- 8) I told some “little white lies” in the interview

**Borrowing (to answer based on the experiences or accomplishments of others)**

- 1) My answers were based on examples of job performance of other employees
- 2) When I did not have a good answer, I borrowed work experiences of other people and made them sound like my own
- 3) I used other people’s experiences to create answers when I did not have good experiences of my own
- 4) I described team accomplishments as primarily my own

**Image protection**

**Omitting (to not mention some things in order to improve answers)**

- 1) When asked directly, I tried to say nothing about my real job-related weaknesses
- 2) I tried to avoid discussion of job tasks that I may not be able to do
- 3) I tried to avoid discussing my lack of skills or experiences
- 4) I tried not to admit that I did not know an answer
- 5) I did not mention that I believed I needed additional training to do the job
- 6) When asked directly, I did not mention my true reason for quitting previous job

**Masking (to disguise or conceal aspects of background to create better answers)**

- 1) I tried to mention only my limitations that are easily remedied
- 2) I did not reveal my true career intentions about working with the hiring organization
- 3) I tried not to show my true personality
- 4) When asked directly, I did not mention some problems that I had in past jobs
- 5) I did not reveal requested information that might hurt my chances of getting a job
- 6) I talked mainly about my strengths to mask my weaknesses
- 7) I covered up some “skeletons in my closet”

**Distancing (to improve answers by separating from negative events or experiences)**

- 1) I tried to suppress my connection to negative events in my work history
- 2) I clearly separated myself from my past work experiences that would reflect poorly on me
- 3) I tried to convince the interviewer that factors outside my control were responsible for some negative outcomes, even though it was my responsibility

### **Ingratiation**

Opinion Conforming (to express beliefs, values, or attitudes held by the interviewer or organization)

- 1) I tried to adjust my answers to the interviewer's values and beliefs
- 2) I tried to agree with interviewer outwardly, even when I disagree inwardly
- 3) I tried to find out interviewer's views and incorporate them in my answers as my own
- 4) I tried to express the same opinions and attitudes as the interviewer
- 5) I tried to appear similar to the interviewer in terms of values, attitudes, or beliefs
- 6) I tried to express enthusiasm or interest in anything the interviewer appeared to like even if I did not like it
- 7) I did not express my opinions when they contradicted the interviewer's opinions
- 8) I tried to show that I shared the interviewer's views and ideas even if I did not

Interviewer or Organization Enhancing (to insincerely praise or compliment the interviewer or organization)

- 1) I laughed at the interviewer's jokes even when they were not that funny
- 2) I exaggerated the interviewer's qualities to create the impression that I think highly of him/her
- 3) I exaggerated my positive comments about the organization
- 4) I complimented the organization on something, however insignificant it may actually be to me



## Appendix D: Honest Impression Management Scale (Bourdage et al., 2018)

*Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree*

### Honest Self-Promotion

1. I made sure to let the interviewer know about my job credentials
2. I let the interviewer know how my qualifications were well-suited for the position.
3. I demonstrated to the interviewer genuine ways that I was a good performer in my previous job.
4. I made the interviewer aware of all the responsibilities I had on my previous jobs.
5. I made sure the interviewer was aware of my skills and abilities.
6. I described my skills and abilities in an attractive way.
7. I let the interviewer know how my previous work experiences were relevant to the position.
8. I brought up my past experience with other well-known previous employers to make the interviewer aware of my competence.
9. I showed the interviewer how I felt I could be a valuable addition to the organization.
10. I made the interviewer aware of the accomplishments I'd had at my previous job.
11. I made sure to recount my areas of expertise.
12. I looked for opportunities to make the interviewer aware of my success at previous jobs.
13. I promoted the skills and abilities that I thought most relevant to the position.
14. I brought up my past work experience to make the interviewer aware of my competence.

### Honest Ingratiation

1. I tried to find out the values or opinions the interviewer and I shared in common, and was vocal about these.
2. I let the interviewer know about those values of the organization that I shared.
3. When the interviewer expressed views that I shared, I focused on incorporating these into my answers.
4. When I agreed with the interviewer's opinions or points, I made sure to let him/her know.
5. I did my best to convey the values, attitudes, or beliefs that I felt me and the interviewer shared.
6. I found out about values and goals that I shared with the organization, and made sure to emphasize them.
7. I discussed interests I shared in common with the recruiter.
8. I complimented the organization on accomplishments or qualities that I found impressive.

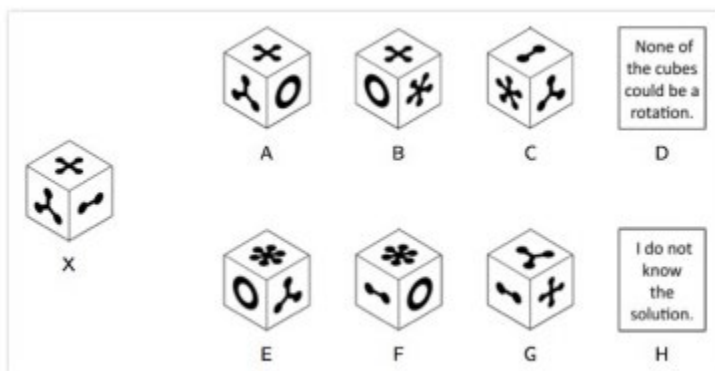
### Honest Defensive

1. I shared my past regrets about how I handled certain situations, and how I would improve in the future.
2. I made sure to highlight the situations that led to the negative concerns brought up (e.g., my poor grade was due to circumstances beyond my control).
3. I gave the interviewer an honest account of why I lacked control over past negative events that came up during the interview.
4. I admitted to those negative concerns raised by the interviewer that I felt were fair criticisms or points.
5. I recounted to the interviewer steps I had taken to prevent the recurrence of negative events or occurrences in my past.
6. When I felt the negative concern or event was not as bad as it looked, I made sure to let the interviewer know (e.g., a low grade was one of the highest in the class).
7. I gave honest reasons why negative concerns raised or past negative events were not entirely my fault (e.g., I had lazy group members on a project for this group or a difficult professor).
8. I described how I had taken corrective action to repair the negative consequences of past events or occurrences.
9. I gave reasons why I felt I benefited positively from a negative event I was responsible for.
10. I accepted responsibility for negative concerns but told the interviewer when I didn't think that concern was critical

## Appendix E: International Cognitive Ability Resource (ICAR; Condon & Revelle, 2014)

Sample items presented below. Full item set available at <https://icar-project.com/>

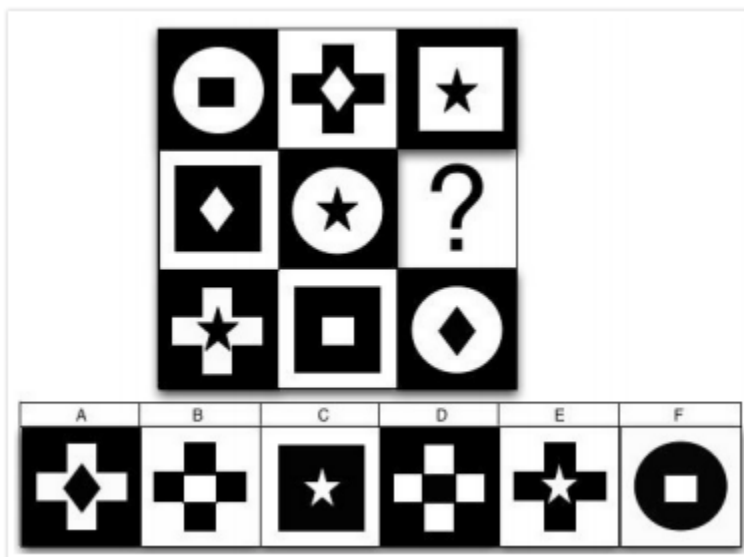
### Three-Dimensional Rotation



### Letter and Number Series

In the following alphanumeric series, what letter comes next? I J L O S  
(1) T (2) U (3) V (4) X (5) Y (6) Z

### Matrix Reasoning



## Verbal Reasoning

IF the day after tomorrow is two days before Thursday, then what day is it today?

(1) Friday (2) Monday (3) Wednesday (4) Saturday (5) Tuesday (6) Sunday

## Appendix F: Incongruency on HEXACO (Lee & Ashton, 2004)

### *0 – 100 analog line*

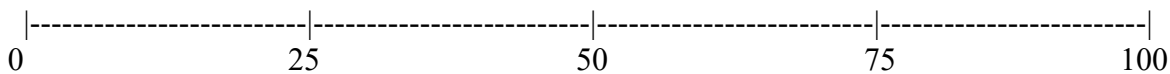
Please drag the sliders below to indicate your **conveyed** (what you desired to present to the interviewer) **and true personality** (your actual personality). 100 on the scale represents the high end of the trait, while 0 represents the low end.

- 1) **Extraversion** - The extent to which an individual is confident, enjoys social interactions, and experiences positive feelings of enthusiasm and energy. Conversely, those who are low on this trait feel awkward when they are the center of social attention and are indifferent or uncomfortable in social interactions.
- 2) **Honesty-Humility** - The extent to which an individual avoids manipulating others for personal gain, feels little temptation to break rules, and feels no special entitlement to elevated social status. Conversely, persons with very low scores on this scale will flatter others to get what they want, are inclined to break rules for personal profit, are motivated by material gain, and feel a strong sense of self-importance.
- 3) **Openness to experience** - The extent to which an individual is inquisitive about various domains of knowledge, use their imagination freely in everyday life, and take an interest in unusual ideas or people. Conversely, persons with very low scores on this scale feel little intellectual curiosity, avoid creative pursuits, and feel little attraction toward ideas that may seem radical or unconventional.
- 4) **Agreeableness** - The extent to which an individual is forgiving, lenient in judging others, and is willing to compromise and cooperate with others. Conversely, persons with very low scores are rather critical, and are stubborn in defending their point of view.
- 5) **Emotionality** - The extent to which an individual experiences anxiety in response to life's stresses, needs emotional support from others, and feels empathy. Conversely, persons with very low scores feel little worry even in stressful situations, and have little need to share their concerns with others.
- 6) **Conscientiousness** - The extent to which an individual organizes their time and their physical surroundings, work in a disciplined way toward their goals, and strives for accuracy and perfection in their tasks. Conversely, persons with very low scores tend to be unconcerned with orderly surroundings or schedules, avoid difficult tasks or challenging goals, and make decisions quickly.

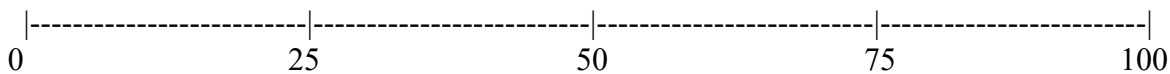
**Appendix G: Attributions***0 – 100 analog line*

1) Please mark on the line below the extent to which you perceived the candidate to be the following:

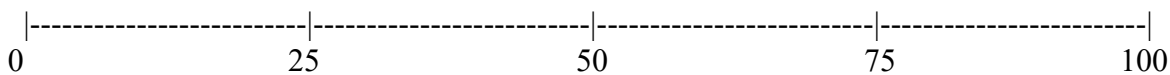
Competent



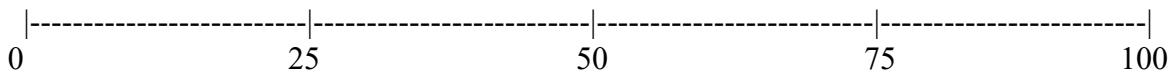
Friendly



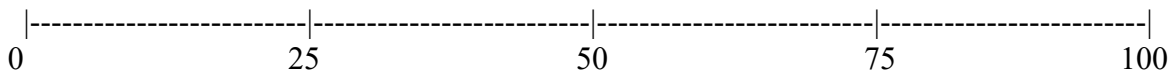
Responsible



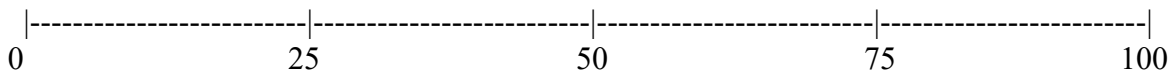
Arrogant



Sycophantic (Sucking up)



Untrustworthy



## Appendix H: Overall Interview Performance

*Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree*

### Study 1 (Bourdage et al., 2020)

- 1) Overall, based on the interview, I would evaluate this candidate positively
- 2) Based on this interview, I would invite this student for another interview / onsite visit
- 3) Based on the interview, I would recommend extending a job offer to this candidate

### Study 2

1. Based on this interview, I would hire this candidate for this position
2. Overall, this candidate is a good fit for the organization
3. Overall, this candidate is a good fit for the position

## Appendix I: Impression Management Scale (Bolino & Turnley, 1999)

*Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree*

Please indicate to what extent the following statements describe your behavior at work:

### Self-Promotion

- 1) Talk proudly about your experience or education
- 2) Make people aware of your talents or qualifications
- 3) Let others know that you are valuable to the organization
- 4) Make people aware of your accomplishments

### Ingratiation

1. Compliment your colleagues so they will see you as likeable
2. Take an interest in your colleagues' personal lives to show them that you are friendly
3. Praise your colleagues for their accomplishments so they will consider you a nice person
4. Do personal favors for your colleagues to show them that you are friendly

### Exemplification

1. Stay at work late so people will know you are hard working
2. Try to appear busy, even at times when things are slower
3. Arrive at work early to look dedicated
4. Come to the office at night or on the weekends to show that you are dedicated

### Intimidation

1. Be intimidating with coworkers when it will help you get your job done
2. Let others know that you can make things difficult for them if they push you too far
3. Deal forcefully with colleagues when they hamper your ability to get your job done
4. Deal strongly or aggressively with coworkers who interfere in your business
5. Use intimidation to get colleagues to behave appropriately

### Supplication

1. Act like you know less than you do so people will help you out
2. Try to gain assistance or sympathy from people by appearing needy in some area
3. Pretend not to understand something to gain someone's help
4. Act like you need assistance so people will help you out
5. Pretend to know less than you do so you can avoid an unpleasant assignment



**Appendix J: OCB Scale Lee & Allen (2002)**

*Never Rarely Sometimes About half the time Fairly often Most of the time Always*

**OCBI**

1. Help others who have been absent.
2. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.
3. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
4. Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.
6. Give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.
7. Assist others with their duties.
8. Share personal property with others to help their work.

**OCBO**

1. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
2. Keep up with developments in the organization.
3. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.
4. Show pride when representing the organization in public.
5. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.
6. Express loyalty toward the organization.
7. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.
8. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.

**Appendix K: CWB (Bennett & Robinson, 2000)**

*Never Rarely Sometimes Often Daily*

**Interpersonal Deviance**

1. Made fun of someone at work
2. Said something hurtful to someone at work
3. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work
4. Cursed at someone at work
5. Played a mean prank on someone at work
6. Acted rudely toward someone at work
7. Publicly embarrassed someone at work

**Organizational Deviance**

1. Taken property from work without permission
2. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working
3. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses
4. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace
5. Come in late to work without permission
6. Littered your work environment
7. Neglected to follow your boss's instructions
8. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked
9. Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person
10. Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job
11. Put little effort into your work
12. Dragged out work in order to get overtime

**Appendix L: Job Satisfaction (Judge, Bono, & Locke, 2000; adapted from Brayfield-Rothe  
(1951)**

*Strongly disagree   Somewhat disagree   Neither agree nor disagree   Somewhat agree  
Strongly agree*

1. I feel fairly satisfied with my present job
2. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work
3. Each day at work seems like it will never end (R)
4. I find real enjoyment in my work
5. I consider my job to be rather unpleasant (R)

**Appendix M: P-O and P-J Fit (Higgins & Judge, 2004)**

*Strongly disagree*   *Somewhat disagree*   *Neither agree nor disagree*   *Somewhat agree*  
*Strongly agree*

**P-O Fit**

1. I am a good match or fit with my organization and its current employees
2. My values reflect the values of my organization

**P-J Fit**

1. I possess the knowledge and skills necessary to perform the duties of my job
2. I can achieve a high level of performance in my job

**Appendix N: Turnover Intentions (adapted from Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991)**

*Strongly disagree   Somewhat disagree   Neither agree nor disagree   Somewhat agree  
Strongly agree*

1. I intend to look for a job outside my company within the next year
2. I intend to remain with my company indefinitely (R)
3. I often think of quitting my job at my company
4. I would want to continue working for my company after I graduate (R)

## Appendix O: AVI Job Description

### Job Description

At Jacks & Winter, we are at the forefront of innovative branding and marketing. Our mission is to provide our clients with a superior tailored experience and unparalleled success. We strive to make the impossible, possible. Do you have what it takes to succeed in this constantly changing, fast-paced environment? We are looking for passionate, driven, and talented individuals to join our elite Canadian marketing team as Assistant Brand Managers.

As an Assistant Brand Manager, you will act as a business leader to drive growth on your clients' brand through strategies & executions that have national impact. Just like any entrepreneur or general manager, you will be responsible for multiple key drivers of business performance:

- Shape and execute strategic business plans for your brand, garnering consensus through senior management
- Uncovering analytical insights about the category, competitor & retail customers that drive business recommendations
- Make marketing investment recommendations to drive profitable growth
- Collaborate with internal partners, including sales, regulatory, finance, supply, demand planning & global marketing teams to effectively execute against local business plans
- Successfully delivering monthly and annual consumption performance analysis
- Conduct consumer research to uncover insights that shape in-market activations
- Craft marketing communications (e.g., TV, digital, print, sampling, professional, etc.) and claims with external agency partners

Within the role, you will be provided the opportunity for strong learning & development, growing your skills through both formal and on-the-job training, with the intention of driving conversion to a full-time permanent role for those who exceed expectations during their three-month probationary period.

### Qualifications:

- We are looking for individuals who are excited to tackle a challenge, seek ways to improve and learn, and who solve problems effectively.
- The role is dynamic and fast paced, so time management, prioritization, and thriving through ambiguity are key abilities you possess.
- Strategy and data are at the core of everything we do, so strong critical thinking and analytical skills are required.
- Excellent written and oral communication skills, with an ability to thrive under pressure.
- Demonstrate performance-focused approach to decision-making and take active ownership and accountability for understanding the consumer to uncover growth opportunities.

## Appendix P: AVI Interview Instructions and Questions & Rubric

The interview will start on the next page. It consists of **6 questions**.

**We will ask you a variety of interview questions.** You should ideally rely on job experiences, but you can also discuss volunteering or school/university-related experiences when appropriate.

When you answer the questions, try to keep in mind that the organization would like as much details as possible, so that they can properly evaluate your qualifications. As such, it is **recommended that you cover/include the following four points**:

- What was the **situation** or problem you faced?
- What was your **role**, job, responsibilities (for instance as part of a team), or task ahead of you?
- What **action** did you take or what decision did you make?
- What was the **result** or outcome that you obtained?

You will have 30 seconds to think before the recording automatically begins.

Note that **ideal responses should be around 2 to 3 minutes**, and you have a maximum of 5 minutes to answer each question.

1. Why do you think you would be a good fit with Jacks and Winter? What can you bring to this position as an Assistant Brand Manager?
2. Tell me about a time when you had to perform multiple tasks in parallel, and how you managed them? What were the tasks? How did you decide which one to do first, and what was the outcome?
3. What would you say is your greatest weakness and what is your greatest strength?
4. How often do you publish your own social media content on a monthly basis? What kind of content do you publish? How did you get involved with it initially? How big is your audience?
5. Can you give me an example of how you dealt with negative comments or an upset customer? What was the context, the problem, and your approach?
6. We have all had job tasks that were not that enjoyable. Describe a time when you were required to perform a job task that you really disliked. What, if anything, did you do about it? Why did you do that?

## Rubric

### Q1 Evaluation

- 1 – Presents a mediocre response where the person did not seem to read the job description
- 2 – Presents a response where the person read the job description, but provided very little detail
- 3 – Presents a typical response where the person has read the job description, and included some details
- 4 – Presents an above average response where the person has read the job description, and included some details that integrated both personal factors, organizational, and positional factors
- 5 – Presents an excellent response where the person has read the job description, and has described personal factors and how they compliment the organizational and positional factors

### Q2 Evaluation

- 1 – Presents a normal sales situation with no (or very minor) time management challenge to overcome
- 2 – Presents a situation where the person was slightly challenged in performing multiple tasks, did the bare minimum to overcome the difficulties, or was not successful (e.g., Two ‘competing’ tasks in which one of the time pressures was not critical so they decided to do the critical task first)
- 3 – Presents a situation where the person was challenged in performing multiple tasks, made considerable efforts to overcome the difficulties, and was partially successful (e.g., several competing tasks, tried to revise timelines and discussed needs with people involved, one or more projects still suffered as a result)
- 4 – Presents a situation with a complex challenge in performing multiple tasks, the person made significant efforts to overcome the difficulties, and was presumably successful but did not confirm with team or other stakeholders (e.g., several competing tasks of higher complexity, determined which tasks could be completed first, used strategies like time blocking to be more efficient, discussed needs with people who were related to projects, deadlines met but did not check back in for feedback on how to manage it better to avoid the situation next time.
- 5 – Presents a situation with a complex challenge in performing multiple tasks, the person made significant efforts to overcome the difficulties, and was completely successful. (e.g., Several competing tasks of higher complexity, determined which tasks could be completed first, used strategies like time blocking to be more efficient, discussed needs with people who were related to projects, deadlines met, and checked back in for feedback on how to avoid this situation next time.)

### Q3 Evaluation

- 1 – Did not disclose any weakness only focused on stereotypical strengths (e.g., work too hard)
- 2 – Disclosed a very minor weakness and focused on stereotypical strengths (e.g., work too hard)
- 3 – Disclosed a typical weakness and focused on strengths (e.g., perfectionistic)
- 4 – Disclosed authentically a weakness and strengths (e.g., speaking up)
- 5 – Disclosed authentically a weakness, and described steps they are taking to overcome it, and strengths

### Q4 Evaluation

- 1 – The person does not publish their own social media content



- 2 – The person publishes their own content, but is very limited
- 3 – The person publishes their own content at a regular cadence
- 4 – The person publishes their own content frequently, and described how they relate to their content.
- 5 – The person publishes their own content frequently, and described how they are passionate about the type of content

#### Q5 Evaluation

- 1 – Has not encountered negative comments or an upset customer
- 2 – Presents a situation where the person dealt with negative comments or an upset customer with a minor issue that was easily resolved
- 3 – Presents a situation where the person dealt with negative comments or an upset customer with a problem that was not very complex or the outcome and how they helped was unexceptional or normal, expected behaviour
- 4 – Presents a situation where the person went above and beyond to deal with negative comments or an upset customer with a challenging problem, with a positive outcome
- 5 – Presents a situation where the person went above and beyond to deal with negative comments or an upset customer with a particularly challenging issue, leading to a positive outcome directly tied to the interaction

#### Q6 Evaluation

- 1 – Did not do the task and ignored the task
- 2 – Presents a situation where the person tried to ask someone else to perform the job task they disliked.
- 3 – Presents a situation where the person tried to discuss with others if they could switch tasks
- 4 – Presents a situation where the person tried using personal methods to make an undesirable task more interesting before discussing with others if they could switch tasks
- 5 – Presents a situation where the person tried using personal methods to make a very undesirable task more interesting, discussed with others if they could switch tasks