

Florida Institute of Technology

Scholarship Repository @ Florida Tech

Theses and Dissertations

6-2018

A New Approach to Explain Applicant Faking Behaviors: A Model Based on Trait Contract Classification Theory

Yadi Yang

Follow this and additional works at: <https://repository.fit.edu/etd>



Part of the Industrial and Organizational Psychology Commons

**A New Approach to Explain Applicant Faking Behaviors:
A Model Based on Trait Contract Classification Theory**

by

Yadi Yang, Ms.

Bachelor of Arts
Psychology
University at Buffalo
2016

A thesis submitted to School of Psychology at
Florida Institute of Technology
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

Master of Science
in
Industrial and Organizational Psychology

Melbourne, Florida
June, 2018

We the undersigned committee hereby recommend that the attached document be accepted as fulfilling in part the requirements for the degree of Master of Science of Industrial and Organizational Psychology

“A New Approach to Explain Applicant Faking Behaviors:
A model based on Trait Contract Classification Theory,”
a thesis by Yadi Yang, Ms.

Richard Griffith, Ph.D.
Professor, Psychology
Thesis Advisor

Patrick Converse, Ph.D.
Associate Professor,
Psychology

Heidi Hatfield Edwards, Ph.D.
Professor and Associate Head,
Arts and Communication

Mary Beth Kenkel, Ph.D.
Professor and Dean
College of Psychology and Liberal Arts

Abstract

Title:

A New Approach to explain Applicant Faking behaviors:
A model based on Trait Contract Classification Theory

Author:

Yadi Yang, Ms.

Thesis Advisor:

Richard Griffith, Ph.D.

Applicant faking behavior (AFB) on personality measures is a problematic phenomenon in selection context. It is important to address applicant faking behaviors because it will result in hiring unqualified people and lead to fairness issues. Researchers have developed many theoretical frameworks to understand applicant faking behaviors, and it is commonly accepted that applicant faking behaviors is an interaction effect of the both situational factors and individual factors. In this study, we examined applicant faking behaviors based on one of the interactional framework, the Trait Contract Classification (TCC) theory (Griffith, Lee, Peterson & Zickar, 2011) which took one step further to examine different forms of applicant faking behaviors (*honest responding, self-presentation, exaggeration, reactive responding, and fraudulent responding*).

Specifically, the study examined whether people fake differently and how different faking behaviors relate to different faking outcomes. The results suggested that more than one faking response sets correlate with faking behaviors. Exaggeration response set ($b=.19, p<.05$) and fraudulent responding response set ($b=.14, p<.05$) both positively correlated with observed faking behaviors, but the honest responding response set was negatively related with faking behaviors ($b=-.15, p<.05$). In addition, TCC response sets had significant effect on observations of faking outcomes in terms of faking magnitude and faking variability. The study also found that ethical relativism positively related to TCC reactive responding ($b=.19, p<.05$) and fraudulent responding ($b=.31, p<.05$), and perceived behavioral control positively related to Reactive Responding ($b=.11, p<.05$) and Fraudulent Responding ($b=.39, p<.05$). Implications, limitations and future directions were discussed as well.

Table of Contents

Table of Contents	v
Acknowledgements	vi
Introduction	1
Literature Review	7
<u>What is Applicant Faking?</u>	10
<u>When do applicant fake?</u>	14
<u>How can faking behavior be addressed?</u>	16
<u>Existing Models of Faking</u>	21
<u>TCC model</u>	25
<u>Ethical Relativism</u>	33
<u>Perceived Behavioral Control</u>	34
Variability and Magnitude of Faking	36
<u>Gender</u>	38
The Current Study	39
<u>Hypothesis Overview</u>	41
<u>Method</u>	48
<u>Results</u>	53
<u>Discussion</u>	79
Reference	94
Appendix A: Descriptive Statistics	109
Appendix B: Survey Measures	110

Acknowledgements

Foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Richard Griffith for his continuous support for my research. His patience, motivation, enthusiasm and immense knowledge had deeply encouraged me to learn better to this exciting field of research.

Besides my advisor, I would like to thank my thesis committee: Prof. Patrick Converse and Prof. Heidi Hatfield Edwards for their valuable insights, suggestions and encouragement on my thesis.

I also want to express my special thanks to my fiancé Zhaobo for his continuous understanding and encouragement during all phases of my thesis.

Introduction

Personality measures have been increasingly used in different contexts such as in business, education, and clinical settings. Personality manifests through “biological factors, perception, memory, learning, association, emotion, imagination, thinking, intelligence, motivation and many more” (Wolff, 1947, p305). Moreover, personality can be measured using two general methods: the direct method and the indirect method (Vane & Guarnacci,1989). The direct assessment of personality often refers to measures relying on self-reported responses, in which participants are asked questions directly related to targeted personality dimensions. Meanwhile, the indirect assessment of personality often refers to projective measures, such as the Rorschach, according to which participants’ perceptions of neutral stimuli are analyzed and interpreted (Choca, 2013).

One of the most common applications of personality assessments lies in personnel selection. Hertz & Donovan (2000) suggested that personality measures are useful predictors of job performance, and thus are suitable in selection. Job performance can be divided into two components: contextual performance and task performance (Motowidlo, Borman & Schmit.,1997). Furthermore, personality traits have been proved as related to both types of performance. Jiang, Wang & Zhou (2009) examined two specific personality traits (conscientiousness and agreeableness) as well as their effects on both task performance and contextual

performance. The results suggested that conscientiousness was positively correlated to both task performance and contextual performance, while agreeableness had no relationship with contextual performance and a negative relationship with task performance. In addition, Hough and Oswald (2008) suggested that using personality measures and cognitive tests together may better predict job performance than using cognitive tests alone. Moreover, adding personality measures to the test battery may reduce the adverse impact in comparison to the use of cognitive tests alone because cognitive tests tend to engender larger mean differences among ethnic groups (Ryan, Ployhart & Friedel, 1998). Furthermore, personality measures also demonstrate utility in predicting job applicants' attitudes, behaviors, and other important organizational outcomes (Ones, Dilchert, Viswesvaran & Judge, 2007). For instance, Campbell (2013) suggested that personality traits as measured using the Big Five framework significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Therefore, more and more organizations are introducing personality assessments into their selection process of candidates for different vacancies (Rothstein & Goffin, 2006). Researchers reported that 30% of US-based companies incorporated personality measures in their selection batteries (Heller, 2005). In addition, more than 40% of Fortune 100 companies utilized personality tests to select ideal job applicants for different positions (Erickson, 2004).

Even though evidence has suggested that personality is related to multiple fundamental organizational outcomes, certain criticisms exist regarding this

measurement technique. Personality measures are relatively less reliable than cognitive tests and have lower predictive utility in selection batteries (Morgeson, Campion, Dipboye, Hollenbeck, Murphy & Schmitt, 2007). These problems may be the result of certain unresolved issues in personality measures as discussed in the literature over the decades. Firstly, the personality model is still poorly defined, even the structure of the most popular Big-Five factor model (FFM) of personality may not fully capture all personality dimensions (Boyle, 2008). Secondly, there is no single commonly accepted personality measure for general use across diverse work settings. Thirdly, the reliability and validity of personality measures depend on the assessment context and the manner in which a specific frame of reference is provided (Mlinaric & Podlesek, 2013). For example, two common administrative conditions are an applicant condition and a general instruction condition. People varied their responses to personality items more in applicant conditions rather than in general conditions (Mlinaric & Podlesek, 2013). In terms of item specificity, people tend to modify their answers more when items were presented with a specific frame of reference rather than a general reference (at school vs. at work vs. in general) (Bing, Davison & Smothers, 2014). These suggest that the extent and intent of response distortion depends on the administration condition and item specificity. Furthermore, personality items with a work specific item frame of reference exhibited greater validity in predicting job performance than general personality measurement without a specific frame of reference. Students and employees may answer personality items in school- and work-contexts differently

because of their intention to take the measure and familiarity of the frame of reference. For example, answers to the general item (“I have never had a disagreement with anyone”), and two items with a specific frame of reference (“I have never had a disagreement with anyone at school” vs. “I have never had a disagreement with anyone at work”.) may differ and serve distinct predictive purposes. The two items with a specific frame of reference (school vs. work) predict school-related outcomes (i.e. academic performance) and work-related outcomes (i.e. job performance) respectively. In addition, motivation to fake in personality measures are encouraged by their intentions (Hayes, 2013). It is suggested that faking behavior reflects a behavioral choice, meaning not everyone fakes nor does someone who fakes in one situation fakes in all situations (Griffith, Lee, Peterson & Zickar, 2011), and people normally only fake when it is necessary (Ellingson, 2011). However, when the motivation to get a job overcomes moral standards, some may engage in applicant faking behaviors. An applicant faking behavior can be theoretically defined as a behavior that “contain intentional responses to a self-reported personality measure which do not correspond to the true self-image” (Kiefer & Benit, 2016, p10).

The notion that personality is an important predictor of organizational outcomes is intuitive and rarely disputed. Thus, despite of the criticism relating to their low reliability and validity, personality measures are still often used in selection context. In addition, many researchers believe that the validity of personality measures could be possibly improved by addressing the problems

related to it (Boyle, 2008; Mlinaric & Podlesek, 2013; Hayes, 2013; Ellingson, 2009). One of the biggest problem of personality measurement is applicant faking behaviors. In this study, certain relevant factors which affect people's perception and decision to fake behaviors are considered. If a well-established model were developed, with a highly reliable measurement tool, and an accurate detection system for identifying and excluding frauds from the applicant pool, we may found personality measure to demonstrate much higher validity.

In this study, the problem of applicant faking behavior is the main focus. Zickar & Gibby (2006) defined applicant faking behavior as the intentional manipulation of individual information in a selection setting. From an operational perspective, applicant faking behaviors can be captured using the difference scores obtained from responses collected in applicant conditions and honest conditions (Griffith, Malm, English, Yoshita & Gujar, 2007). There are both theoretical and practical reasons to study applicant faking behavior. Much research has focused on the practical perspective, where applicant faking influences the rank order of applicant scores and hence the hiring decision made by organizations (Hayes, 2007). Increasingly, researchers are focusing on the theoretical nature of faking behavior, which may lead to better and more informed practical interventions.

Researchers are interested in the drivers and boundary conditions of faking behavior. Based on Vroom's expectancy theory (1964), applicants tend to have a higher motivation to fake in a selection setting when they perceive the positions they applied for to be especially valuable to them. Applicants are also more

motivated to fake if they perceive faking as a necessary means for getting the job and they believe that they can successfully fake a personality assessment with ease. The common trend of faking in the selection context is to fake good by inflating scores and stand out from others in the applicant pool. The negative impact of applicants faking behavior is that fake scores disrupt the rank order, causing fraudulent applicants to rise to the top of the score distribution. Since employers often use a top down method in selection, they may end up hiring fakers who are not sufficiently skilled or qualified for the job, while excluding those who are. This not only impacts organizational performance, but also creates issues of fairness for those who respond to personality questions honestly. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the theory of applicant faking behavior and address the faking phenomenon before examining the extent to which personality measure effectively predict performance outcomes.

Faking is a complex behavior that involves both psychological and situational considerations (Pinder, 1998). In addition, the thought process contributing to applicant faking behavior, rather than being unidirectional, may be a repeated loop of cognitive attributions and construals. Since applicant faking behavior likely functions in a very complex manner, it is necessary to understand applicant faking behaviors thoroughly and embed them in a theoretical framework. In the following sections, the paper first presents the relevant literature supporting the study design. Next, a set of hypotheses and the method for testing them are proposed. Then, the results and discussion are completed. In the literature review,

the relevant literature is reviewed in exploration of three main questions: 1) What is applicant faking; 2) When do applicants fake, and 3) How can applicant faking be addressed? Following those sections, I examine select models of applicant faking behavior and discuss to what extent the proposed study may contribute to previous models. In the Method section, participant recruiting methods, research design and measures used are discussed. The statistical analysis for facilitating the findings is also discussed.

Literature Review

Companies favor the use of personality measures because of their predictive validity in regard to performance and other work-related outcomes. In addition, personality measures are relatively cheap to develop and administer. However, self-reported questions have been linked to applicant faking behaviors (Sjoberg, 2015). The reason behind the continued use of the self-reported format for measuring personality instead of replacing it lies in the fact that other forms (i.e. behavioral observation, interviews) exhibit no superiority in avoiding applicant faking behaviors. Konig, Thommen, Wittwer and Kleinmann (2017) conducted a study addressing the belief that observer ratings of personality could produce more accurate responses and had higher predictive validity. The results found that the predictive validity of personality assessment did not differ significantly between self-report and observer ratings, suggesting that researchers should not automatically consider observer ratings more accurate than self-reported ones.

However, due to the popularity of self-reported personality assessments in the selection context as well as the risk of applicant faking behaviors, it remains necessary for organizations and researchers to be aware that applicants can fake and some are likely to. Applicant faking can be practically understood as “a tendency for test takers to deliberately provide inaccurate responses to personality items in a manner that they believe will increase their chances of obtaining valued outcomes, such as a favorable hiring decision” (Goffin & Boyd, 2009, p151).

Applicant faking has an important impact on selection decisions as suggested by Christiansen, Goffin, Johnson & Rothstein (1994) who provided evidence that faking would change up to 16% of those selected by personality assessments. Since applicants who fake typically have higher scores in personality assessments, the original (honest) rank order will be disturbed, displacing 16% of applicants. For example, if 100 applicants were selected, 16 are likely to be screened out if everyone responds honestly. Griffith, Chmielowski & Yoshita (2007) used a within-subjects design to examine whether people fake in applicant conditions, with the results asserting that up to 50% of applicants elevate their responses to personality items in a selection context. The same study also found that applicant faking behaviors resulted in significant changes in rank order, and therefore may later change the hiring decisions. More specifically, they found that when an organization makes selection decisions using a selection ratio of 10% (selecting 10 out of 100 applicants), 66% of those selected by the organization faked their responses in personality measures.

In summary, applicant faking behavior has constituted a concern for almost as long as personality measures have existed. In 1917, personality measures were first created and applied in the military by Woodworth's Personal Data Sheet, eventually becoming more established and widely accepted in the 1940s (Gibby & Zickar, 2008). Applicant faking behaviors were first discussed in brief at the same time. Hendrickson (1934) carried out experiments in which teachers answer personality questions in either applicant or neutral conditions, with the results suggesting that teachers under applicant conditions had significantly better scores on extraversion, stability and other dimensions than those in the neutral conditions. In earlier research (i.e. Humm, 1944), the ability to fake and techniques for identifying fakers were studied, but recently researchers have become more interested in exploring the nature of faking and its components through theoretical examinations (Hayes, 2006). Zickar & Gibby (2006) identified potential future directions for faking studies, suggesting that the most important direction for faking research is the further refinement of the theoretical framework for faking so as to better understand the underlying process of faking.

In this study, the effect of motivation to get a job on how people choose response sets to personality items are studied, so as are the corresponding observations concerning faking's magnitude and variability. In addition, the moderating effect of ethical relativism and perceived behavioral control on the relationship between motivation to get a job and participant responses set towards personality measures are addressed. (See *Figure 1*. below)

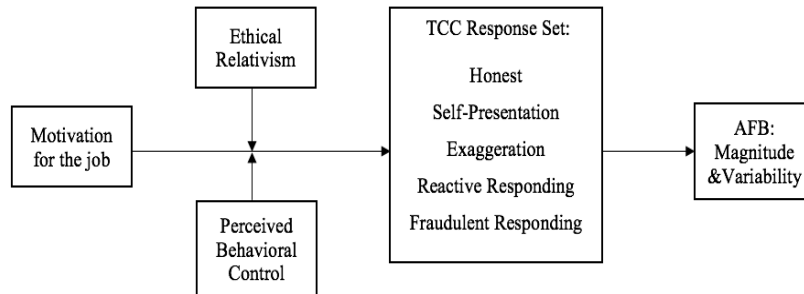


Figure 1. Model of Applicant Faking Behavior in the current study (General)

What is Applicant Faking?

Applicant faking behavior can be understood from multiple perspectives, each of which beg specific research questions. One approach is to understand faking behaviors from participant intentions (Bok, 1979), i.e. do people intentionally alter their answers to personality measures? In addition, are distinct types of intentions associated with different ways of distorting answers? Previous research indicated that most common intention behind applicant faking behaviors was social desirability, which is defined as “the tendency to give overly positive self-descriptions” (Paulhus, 2002, p50). Paulhus (1986) further categorized social desirability into two sub-factors: self-deception and impression management. Self-

deception is defined as “any positively biased response that respondents actually believe to be true” (p. 146) while impression management is a “conscious attempt to create a favorable impression in some audience” (p.146). Social desirability occurs beyond organizational settings and can manifest across various aspects of thought and behavior. John and Robins (1994) described an example of faking behavior due to self-deception, where people are ordinarily less accurate in evaluating their own performance compared with evaluating the performance of others as a result of positive self-evaluation bias. One real-life example of “faking behaviors” due to impression management is that people tend to overstate their height and understate their weight in public (Burke & Carman, 2017). In addition, people typically avoid posting unflattering occurrences on social media as part of their management of personal impressions (Wald, 2017). The social desirability view of faking has largely been replaced by more sophisticated models (Griffith & Peterson, 2008).

Other researchers understood applicant faking behaviors by comparing applicants’ unmotivated scores (proxy for the true score) with those collected in an applicant setting (which are frequently distorted). Griffith et al. (2006) considered applicant faking the difference between participants’ true scores and application scores (see figure 2, Griffith et al., 2006, pg155). The authors suggested that the construction of fake behavioral responses to personality assessments are captured through the examination of situational variance, cognitive biases and individual differences. Burns & Christiansen (2011) asserted that applicant faking behavior

can be operationalized as the distorted responses to personality assessments that lead to score shifts.



Figure 2. Graphic of Applicant Faking

Other than viewing applicant faking behavior as a consistent response style, Paulhus (2002) and Ziegler et al. (2009) considered it a response set typically activated when there are perceived situational demands and personality factors. The difference between a response style and response set is that a response style typically exhibits consistency over time, hence an applicant who fakes one personality assessment is likely to fake them all. However, faking as a response set is determined by situation. This is to say, an applicant could decide to utilize their faking response set in an application for organization A, while instead initiating their honest response set for organization B. In this study, applicant faking behavior

is viewed as a choice, resulting in a situationally driven response set in applicant conditions which is otherwise inconsistent with the true self.

Another approach used in the understanding of faking behaviors is the psychometric perspective, according to which the focus is placed on the magnitude and variability of applicant faking behaviors. Zickar, Gibby & Robie (2004) classified faking into three categories depending on its magnitude: slight faking, extreme faking and honest responding. These response patterns were examined using statistical analysis, with the category in which applicants have consistently higher mean scores classified as extreme faking. Meanwhile, the category in which applicants “use the full range of options” (p.186) is defined as honest responding. Lastly, the category in which applicants exhibit mixed responses of both extreme faking and honest responding is defined as slight faking.

In conclusion, even though the perspectives for understanding applicant faking behaviors differ, one consistent feature across viewpoints is that applicant faking behaviors occur when applicants seek to produce a self-description more conducive to realizing a given goal, which is caused by both situational factors and individual characteristics.

When do applicants fake?

Rosse, Stecher, Miller & Levin (1998) found that 18% of applicants scored higher than the score range of incumbents, suggesting that at the very least select applicants may have elevated their scores in applicant conditions. However, not all applicants fake in all situations. Ellingson (2009) proposed that: 1. People only fake when they needed, and 2. Faking, rather than being a trait, is a relatively stable choice. More specifically, for applicant faking behaviors to occur, applicants must be motivated (Leary & Knowalski, 1990). Researchers previously assumed that applicant motivation was a constant, but motivation to fake actually depends on both personality factors and situational factors, both of which result in variance (Pinder, 1998). In addition, based on Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory (VIE), people only fake a personality assessment when they positively evaluate the situation and: 1). they can fake successfully (Expectancy); 2) faking is important to increase their scores (Instrumentality); 3) the target job is more attractive than others (Valence).

Specifically, the factors affecting judgement concerning the ability to fake successfully or not are personality traits, cognitive ability, job knowledge and experience (Ellingson, 2009). When the combined effects of these relevant factors cause people to believe they can easily fake a personality assessment, applicants may be more highly motivated to engage in faking behavior. In addition, item transparency and prevention techniques such as warnings may affect people's evaluation of whether they can fake successfully (McFarland & Ryan, 2000). In

terms of instrumentality, the appraisal of whether faking enables applicants to get the job depends on their true score (McFarland & Ryan, 2000), social and situational norms (Snell, Sydell & Lueke, 1999) as well as personal ethics (Boyce, 2005). When an applicant's true score and moral standards are relatively low, and faking is considered normal and necessary to get the job, the motivation to fake is higher. Valence, or job attractiveness, is determined by job desirability, marketability and job search self-efficacy (Ellingson, 2012). Job desirability simply refers to the extent to which an applicant considers a job as attractive and especially valuable compared with the alternatives. Applicant marketability depends on their skills, knowledge, and experience, and reflects the extent to which applicants consider themselves valuable to employers. For example, those with fewer skills, less knowledge and less experience are likely to believe they have fewer opportunities to get other jobs, increasing their motivation to fake because they cannot afford to lose the current opportunity. Job search self-efficacy refers to "an individual's self-evaluation of their capacity to perform the job search behaviors necessary to obtain employment" (Ellingson, 2002, p.27). In other words, this suggests that applicants who believe they can easily find other jobs have higher standards in evaluating job valence.

How can faking behavior be addressed?

Faking Prevention Strategies

Since applicant faking behaviors are considered a concern in the use of personality measures for selection, researchers and practitioners have been offering certain “solutions” almost for as long as personality instruments have been used. Unfortunately, these attempts to intervene and reduce faking behavior have not engendered conclusive results.

In general, researchers take two principal preventative approaches: test level prevention and personal level prevention. At the item and test level, alternative forms including forced choice formats and subtle items serve to prevent applicant faking behaviors (Hayes, 2013). With forced choice formats, individuals are asked to choose a statement that is “most like you” or “least liked you” rather than using a continuous Likert scale. This likely reduces faking because the statements used make it difficult for applicants to select the most desirable items. For example, individuals may be asked to choose the option that is “most like you” from the following two statements “Sometimes I get angry at small things” and “I do not trust other individuals at first” (Converse, Oswald, Imus, Hedricks, Roy and Butera, 2006, p265). In this case, both statements feature a restriction, “at small things” and “at first”, which render both items equally imperfect, causing applicants to struggle to identify the most desirable answer. In terms of subtle items, they exhibit low transparency which renders it difficult to guess the correct

answer. A sample subtle item with no obvious meaning to participant regarding to the psychological construct is “I used to pull the legs off insects” (Dannenbaum & Lanyon, 1993, p504). When viewing items in isolation, it is hard to link them with its assessment purpose, interpersonal relationships, which hence complicates the selection of an obviously correct response.

At the person level, prevention strategies for applicant faking behaviors mainly consist of warnings. Warning techniques typically used in selection settings consist of detection warnings, consequence warnings or a combination warning featuring both detection and consequence elements (Pace & Borman, 2006). A detection warning simply notifies applicants that if they fake, the employer will know; while a consequence warning typically notifies applicants that if they fake, there will be repercussions. Other types of warnings normally convince participants to respond honestly through the use of a friendly tone and an approach emplacing the educational and moral perspectives (Pace & Borman, 2006).

Even though the aforementioned prevention strategies may discourage some from faking, all are controversial in terms of their effectiveness and side effects (Griffith & Robie, 2013). One problem with subtle items is that they have low face validity and low reliability in internal consistency terms (Hayes, 2013). The problem with forced choice questions is the scale’s interdependence as well as the tendency for people to choose an answer by making comparisons. Participants often choose the answer that is more descriptive regardless of their genuine level of the associated trait. Therefore, the extent to which forced choice questions capture

participants' genuine personality characteristics remains questionable. Lastly, the use of warnings has both positive and negative effects. Even though some participants considering faking may choose not to following warnings of detection, punishment or both, researchers believe some may continue to fake no matter what provided the job has extended values for them according to VIE theory (Pace and Borman, 2006). In addition, warning instructions may influence perceptions of the selection procedure including fairness. Seiler and Kuncel (2005) suggested that fairness perception negatively affects people's intention to fake. If applicants believe that everyone else is going to fake, they may perceive themselves to be in an unfavorable situation if they do not fake.

Post-Response Strategies

Since prevention strategies at both the item level and person level are ineffective, consideration should be given to "curing" the problem after the fact. Before considering interventions, faking behavior may first be successfully detected and methods for reducing its addressed. The methods commonly used to detect faking can be groups into two levels: the scale level and individual level. At the scale level, commonly used validity scales for detecting faking behaviors rely on assessing socially desirable responses using scales such as the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIRD) (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2006). Validity scales are assumed to have the ability to detect those who deliberately respond to personality assessments in a socially desirable manner.

However, as mentioned in the previous section, applicant faking behavior is not a single phenomenon but rather a complicated process. Therefore, scales which seek to detect applicant faking behaviors using a social desirability framework may fail to identify other types of applicant faking behaviors (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2006). For example, the validity scales of the California Personality Inventory (CPI) scale are more successful in catching faking behaviors when applicants elevate their scores in every personality, but not when they do so for a specific personality attribute. In addition to using validity scales, researchers also employ overclaiming questionnaires to detect applicant faking behaviors (Paulhus & Bruce, 1990). Overclaiming questionnaires ask applicants to report their knowledge on certain fictitious items. If people claim to have experience with nonexistent items, they are considered overclaiming. Nonetheless, this only captures a specific form of applicant faking behaviors (overclaiming).

At the individual level, applicant faking can be assessed using statistical methods based on the notion that “faking causes shifts in the means and construct relationships” (Burns & Christiansen, 2011, p.358). There are different methods of assessing faking in terms of scores differences. The first approach assesses linear shifts by calculating raw score differences for personality test between the baseline and applicant conditions (faking condition) (McFarland & Ryan, 2000). Another approach involves monitoring nonlinear response pattern shifts for idiosyncratic items (Kuncel & Borneman, 2007). In within-subjects design, it is important to understand that the score difference may simply be the result of measurement error,

differences in applicants' emotional states or other natural factors rather than faking. Therefore, Griffith et al. (2007) proposed a research approach which makes use of psychometric confidence intervals as a framework, with participants scoring outside the confidence interval range, constructed around the honest score, considered to be exhibiting faking behaviors.

Following the successful detection of applicant faking behaviors, optimal correction techniques can be chosen. Common correction techniques for applicant faking behaviors are rational score adjustment, case removal, and retesting (Reeder & Ryan, 2011). Rational score adjustments delete scores detected as fake and instead only use the remaining scores to estimate applicant scores. In addition, employers can choose to remove the applicant from the selection pool entirely or ask them to take another test.

Given the rather large body of research that has examined faking interventions, why have researchers and practitioners not been more successful? Perhaps the largest weakness in existing approaches lies in their development, which has been void of theoretical support. Most approaches for reducing or eliminate faking were designed using practical considerations with little to know consideration of what actually constitutes faking behavior. Without sound theory or testable models, faking interventions emerged as the product of educated guesses and trial and error learning. Thus, prior to solving the challenge of measure difficulty, stronger theory and models are required in order to guide the research questions.

Existing Models of Faking

Applicant faking behavior is not a singular simple construct but rather a complicated process. One reason behind the slow progress of faking research is that no single framework fully captures all the possible reasoning processes which contribute to applicant faking behavior. The motivation to fake (will do), ability to fake (can do) and actual applicant faking behaviors all differ significantly (Tett et al., 2006), and have been addressed from several rationale perspectives. Unless a full understanding is acquired regarding the manner in which these factors interact and engender actual faking behaviors, the problems with applicant faking behaviors will remain unresolved.

Researchers have been calling for broad frameworks (models) to capture applicant responses to personality measures (Ryan & Boyce, 2006). The main advantage of such models is their clarification of applicant faking behavior's conceptual foundations. Moreover, they assist researchers and practitioners in understanding the nature and variation of applicant faking behavior. Consequently, many faking models have been developed. Depending of their focus, these models can be categorized as explanative models, which describe the factors affecting applicant faking behavior, operational models, which explain faking behaviors in terms of the rationale behind decisions to fake, or process models, which views applicant faking behavior as a process explainable by factors such as feedback loops. In the following section, some existing models are explained in detail.

Goffin and Boyd (2009) developed a general faking model examining the antecedents of faking motivation and considering faking ability from both individual difference and evaluative perspectives. Individual differences factors of faking motivation consider personality traits and moral core; while antecedent evaluation of motivation considers the “perception that faking will have negative consequences” and “perceived need to fake in item response” (p.153). As for the antecedents of perceived faking ability, individual difference factors consider personality traits and skills as well as abilities and experience; while evaluative antecedents consist of perceived opportunity, perceived job knowledge and requisite personality traits. However, this is based more on the “will do” component of faking, and hence not fully explain the entire faking process. According to this model, those with low self-control and a high acceptance of deception are understood to need to fake, with the perceived success of faking enduring a higher motivation to fake. However, the motive for a crime cannot be used as evidence for conviction, logic which also applies to applicant faking behaviors. A higher motivation to fake does not necessarily lead to faking in the selection context. In addition, this model explains the factors independently, but faking is a mixed effect, the result of an integrated process.

From an operational focus, Goffin et al. (2009, p157) also proposed a decision tree model which illustrated the step by step decision making process to fake in the selection context. The questions people face when making such a decision involves moral code violations (“will faking violate my moral code), item job-relatedness

(“Will my response to this item be seen as relevant to the job?”), self-evaluation (“Is the behavior or tendency referred to in this item characteristic of me?”), item helpfulness for getting hired (“would faking my response result in me not being hired?”), and capacity to carry out the job’s desired behaviors (“Am I capable of demonstrating the desired behavior or tendency on the job?”). In the decision tree model, the six questions were presented in the above order, with applicant’s response (Yes/No) to each question determining whether the applicant responds honestly (stopping at the question) or faking (proceeding to the next question). The problem with this operational model lies in the false assumption that each question is independent of the others and that the applicant tackles the six questions in a specific order. However, it is not necessary for job applicants to consider these questions in this order (if there is indeed an order to the thought process) when making faking decisions. In addition, there may not be a single consideration which produces absolute faking behaviors, but instead a combined effect from the sum of the considerations (See Decision Tree Model below).

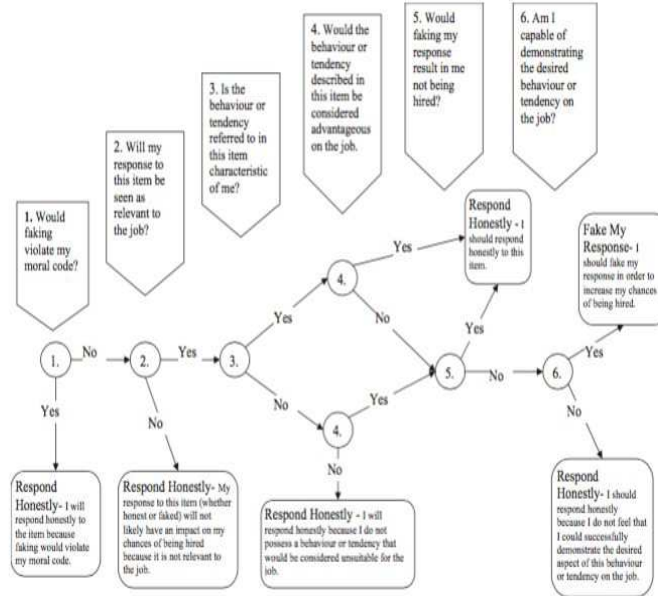


Figure 3. Goffin et al. (2009, p157)

Developed from a process focus, Levashina and Campion’s (2006) proposed model of faking likelihood suggested that three predictors of faking exist: capacity to fake, willingness to fake and opportunity to fake. So that faking can occur, all three predictors must be present simultaneously. This model captures both the “can do” and “will do” aspects of faking. However, it does not take individual difference factors or dispositional factors into account. In addition, both theories only capture whether people fake or not, not *how* they fake. It is important to examine how people differ in their faking behavior because those who fake do not necessarily follow the same process as theorized by Zickar et al. (2004).

TCC model

Griffith et al. (2011) proposed a more integrated process model based on Trait Contract Classification (TCC) with the addition of an anticipatory psychological contract (APC) to previous interaction theories of individual difference and situational factors. More specifically, individual differences factors including self-monitoring, self-esteem, narcissism, impulsivity, honesty-humility and locus of control function as predictors for deception construal. Another predictor of deception construal is anticipatory psychological contract (APC) which is defined as “appraisal of the organization” (p.341). APC summarizes the situational factors which reflect the applicant beliefs regarding the relationship between themselves and the organization. There are two types of anticipatory psychological contracts: transactional and relational. Transactional APC emphasizes the monetary aspects of the relationship, such as wages and benefits, while relational APC stresses the interpersonal component of this relationship, such as job security, trust and stability. Applicants may exhibit different preferences for the two APC types based on their past work experience and organizational understanding, leading some to gravitate towards relational APC while others gravitate towards transactional APC. Both the individual differences and APC work together in affecting the primary organizational appraisal prior to the selection process, as well as the second appraisal following the start of the selection process. After initial APC appraisal, applicants reappraise the relationship after having entered the personality measurement stage, during which they gather further information about the company which influences initial appraisal

results. The two appraisal rounds eventually finally predict applicant faking behaviors falling into four categories: *self-presentation, exaggeration, reactive responding and deceptive responding* (See Figure 4. below).

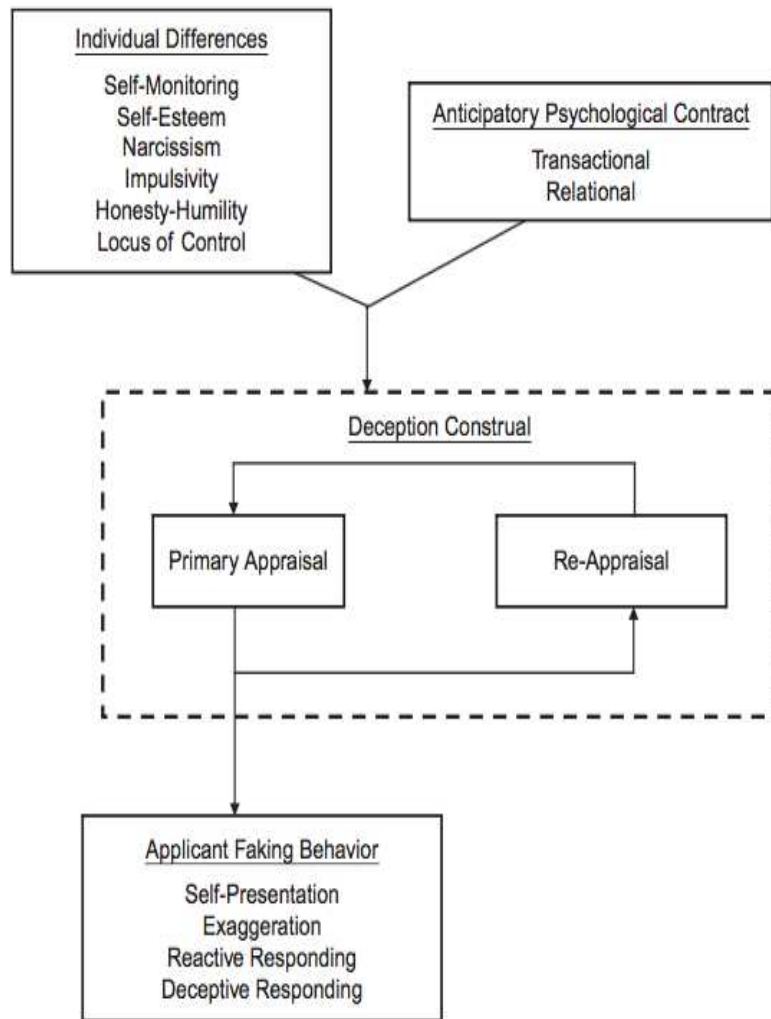


Figure 4. The Trait Classification Theory of Applicant Faking Behavior (Griffith et al., 2011, p342)

Self - Presentation

Self-presentation is defined as an “attempt to portray a specific image (or impression) to others” and the ultimate purpose of self-presentation is to “monitor and control how others perceive them” (Gammage, 2014, p650). Highhouse, Brooks & Wang (2016) believed that those engaged in self-presentation do so, not only to meet other’s expectations but also to create a positive impression. Similarly, job applicants may vary their personality test scores in order to satisfy social norms but also to impress future employers in order to be accepted by the company. Johnson and Hogan (2006) suggested that people present themselves based on their own evaluations of how others consider them, causing the self-presentation form of faking to often reflect who they really are (true self). More precisely, Gammage (2014) stated that even though applicants try to present themselves honestly, they may stress certain personal traits more than others in any given situation. For example, job applicants may choose to highlight certain positive personality traits and hide negative ones which they perceive as relevant to the job. However, how people choose to present themselves is influenced by several factors including their perception of target audience preferences and their own self-concepts (Piotrowski, 2010). For instance, job applicants concerned with self-presentation choose strategies and desired images based on their perception of the company’s ideal employee. Furthermore, their own perception of themselves also influences how they present themselves. If they believe their personal characteristics are a strong match with the job, they may present themselves more honestly. However, if they

perceived themselves as less qualified, they may distort their responses in order to better resemble what they believe is the company's ideal employee. It is difficult to predict how applicants distort their responses unless their self-perception and notion of an ideal employee are first understood. Marcus (2009) proposed a process model according to which applicant self-presentation strategies are affected by situational factors (willingness to present themselves in a good manner) and skills (analytical and behavioral). This model differentiates between the intention to present themselves in a positive manner and the ability to do so, showing that the self-presentation outcome depends on people's abilities and may differ across individuals with equal motivation. Therefore, to summarize, applicant answers to personality items depend on several factors including their own relative traits, their perception of desired job competencies, willingness to present as well as behavioral and analytical skills. Since all four antecedents of self-presentation strategies are affected by individual differences, the variability of the self-presentation strategies and ideal employee notion are large. More precisely, if a job applicant's true degree of a given trait is relatively low but they perceive the associated job competency standard as high, they may present themselves in a positive manner, but if the applicant genuinely possesses the trait to a higher degree than the standards they believe employers are looking for, they may vary their response in an opposite manner. In addition, job applicants' own degree of a given trait and their perception of the desired standards differ across personality items and dimensions, meaning

presentation strategies may differ. Therefore, it is difficult to predict the pattern and direction of self-presentation for applicant faking behaviors.

Exaggeration

Exaggeration can be defined as an over-claiming technique which creates a good impression (Röhner, J., Schröder-Abé, M., & Schütz, A., 2011). Moreover, it refers to “statements that make claims beyond the limits of truth or represent something greater than it really is” (Kreuz & Riordan, 2014, p222). Operationally, applicants employing an exaggeration strategy add a small constant to the items total comprising their true score. Compared with self-presentation, where applicants emphasize certain aspects while hiding others, the exaggeration form of applicant faking behaviors reflects the idealized self instead of the true self (Griffith et al., 2011). In addition, this type’s faking strategy is more consistent than self-presentation because people tend to manage their image in such a way that all their positive traits are increased so as to render their appearance better, greater and larger than is true (Attardo & Sage, 2014). For example, job applicants could overstate about their personality dimensions in a selection setting by rendering their responses slightly higher than reality or answering in the way that they expect they should be rather than who they really are. Since the exaggeration form of faking still reflects one’s self-concept, the magnitude of answer elevation is relatively small. In addition, those who engage in exaggeration are likely to elevate all personality items, leading to less response variability.

Reactive Responding

The third form of applicant faking behavior is reactive responding, which is described as an impulsive response style (Griffith et al., 2011). Those who engage in reactive responding do not have a coherent strategy or intention to fake before taking the personality items. However, when applicants are exposed to item contents and warnings which highlight the opportunity to fake, they may engage in faking behavior in order to increase their chances of being selected. Therefore, compared with the previous two forms of applicant faking behaviors, those who engaged in reactive responding often do not reflect the true or idealistic perceptions of themselves, but instead provide answers based on their judgements of the items' contents. For example, when rating an item such as "I work harder than most people do in general" (Pita, 2017) which measures applicant conscientiousness, those employing reactive responding choose "strongly agree" without considering what they are (true self) and what they want to be (ideal self). Instead, these people simply consider what they perceive to be the best answers to get the job. Griffith et al., (2011) suggest that reactive responders tend to exhibit inconsistency in their responding pattern compared with exaggerations. This is because reactive responders may not distort all the responses, nor are they likely to respond to all items in a positive direction since there is lack of conscious thinking, with their behavior instead guided by impulses. In addition, Kronsnick (1991) found that impulsive responders typically choose the responses that come to them first, without comparing them with the alternatives. Therefore, it is possible that job

applicants using reactive responding may pick the answer they perceive to be the best, but consequently they fake in the wrong direction. The results of reactive responding are more random since applicants do not fake in a specific direction, rendering the score difference mean in applicant and honest conditions closer to zero. In summary, reactive responding engenders a small response difference between answers in an applicant situation and in reality since those employing this form tend to choose the answer that best meets the job requirements without considering their actual characteristics. In addition, there is a larger variability across items since these responders do not employ a fixed faking strategy and direction, and may not fake for every question.

Fraudulent Responding

Fraudulent responding refers to applicants deliberately providing misleading, false and fictitious answers. Similar to reactive responding, fraudulent responding does not reflect evaluations regarding the true self or ideal self, but instead focuses on choosing the response which maximizes the possibility of getting hired. However, the response sets differ because reactive responding is the result of impulses experience in the moment rather than during premeditation. Meanwhile, those who employ fraudulent responding often plan to do so prior to receiving instructions for the personality assessment. In addition, applicants engaging in fraudulent responding often provide answers which are opposite to the truth. For example, when rating the item “Items in my work area are neatly organized” (Pita, 2017), applicants still rate strongly agree even when their work

area is ordinarily messy. Applicants who employ either fraudulent responding or exaggeration, both increase their scores on nearly all items, however, those engaging in the former exhibit a higher degree of faking. For example, those who choose 5 on a 1-5 Likert scale when they are in fact a 1 are considered as fraudulent, while those who choose 2 are instead exaggerating (Griffith et al.2011).

What is common to all three types of frameworks (explanative, operational and process) is that they all agree applicant faking is simultaneously affected by both psychological factors and situational factors. Moreover, interventions to address these forms of applicant faking behaviors operate through different mechanisms.

Overall, in order to promote the development of faking research and interventions, it is necessary to have a well-developed faking framework. One commonly used faking taxonomy which includes impression management, social desirability and response distortion, was built on Cronbach's response set concept (Hayes, 2006). Cronbach defined the response set as fixed tendencies for responding to items in a specific direction regardless of what has been asked (Cronbach, 1950). Therefore, in order to develop broader faking models, we should "work from models of responses to test items rather than models of faking" (Hayes, 2006, p359). This study's purpose is to empirically examine the TCC model and determine whether different types of response sets correspond to different forms of faking in terms of magnitude and variability. In addition, this study also examines how ethical relativism and perceived control moderate the relationship between the motivation

to get the job and TCC response sets. Finally, the role gender in the construction of deception construal and in turn faking magnitude and variability is studied.

Ethical Relativism

The motivation to fake serves as an important antecedent of applicant faking behaviors, especially in a selection setting. However, motivation to fake does not necessarily result in applicant faking behavior. In a selection context, it is likely that all job applicants want to get the job, but not all modify their answers in order to do so. One potential causal factor driving different decisions to fake is that people frequently hold diverse ethical and moral values. Certain researchers believe that people have a fixed moral standard which is unaffected by situational factors (Kolb, 2008). When job applicants have an absolute ethical standard, they typically do not to modify their answers, even in selection context.

However, McDonald (2010) suggested that some individuals may have relative ethical standards instead of absolute ones. He further stated that some may hold different ethical standards and hence adjust their ethical behaviors in response to temporal and circumstantial changes. For example, someone who believes that honesty and integrity should be respected in a non-applicant situation, may simultaneously consider honesty something which can be sacrificed in order to get a job. Rai & Holyoak (2013) further distinguished between the two concepts by implying that ethical absolutism is an objective and historical concept while ethical relativism is a subjective and culturally-historical concept. According to ethical

relativism, morals are not global, universal concepts but rather “dependent on specific time and places” (Sullivan, 2009, p184), meaning moral standards can vary depending on the situation. In addition, Sullivan also states that those with relative moral standards engage in more immoral behaviors than those with absolute moral standards. Thus, *ceteris paribus*, when two motivated applicants answer personality questions, the one with relative ethical standards is more likely to employ faking behaviors compared with the applicant with absolute ethical standards. In addition, Sulsky, Marcus & MacDonald (2005) proposed that judgement of unethical behaviors is affected by situational factors. For example, when there are no perceived monetary consequences for the organization, the act of theft is less problematic from an ethical perspective. Therefore, the degree to which applicants believe ethics are relative affects their decision making process in relation to faking as well as their choice in faking strategy.

Perceived Behavioral Control

Based on Ajzen’s (1991) Theory of Planned Behavior, behaviors can be affected by perceived behavioral control, which refers to “the extent to which an individual has control over whether she is able to perform the behavior” (Chung, Baik and Lee, 2017, p483). Perceived behavioral control (PBC) is a significant determinant of whether the intention to conduct a certain behavior is actually realized, with both internal and external control facilitating the manifestation of such behavior (Chuang et al., 2017). Grieve & Elliott (2013) suggest that the quantity of perceived

behavior control is influenced by the perceived difficulty of carrying out the behavior. Therefore, those who believe they have stronger control over the behavior, typically exhibit stronger intentions to realize said behavior. For example, applicants who believe they can easily and successfully fake their personality test may have stronger intentions to modify their answers. In addition, Zolait (2014) examined PBC's components, suggesting that PBC is affected by both internal factors (self-efficacy) and external factors (i.e., resources). Self-efficacy is often confused with PBC because both affect people's belief in their capability to successfully carry out a given behavior. However, self-efficacy only reflects people's confidence (psychological status) in executing the behavior successfully without considering the controllability of the behavior (whether they have control over the reality), whereas PBC measures both self-efficacy and controllability (Chung et al., 2017).

Researchers often study PBC as a predictor of workplace behaviors and ethical conducts in the field of management and ethics studies (Kashif, Zarkada & Ramayah, 2016). Kashif et al. (2016) studied the relationship between perceived behavioral control and bank managers' ethical behavioral intentions, the results of which suggest that managers' moral norms and perceived behavioral control are significant predictors of their ethical intentions. In addition, Cristea & Gheorghiu (2016) observed that those with high perceived behavioral control have significantly higher intentions to engage in risky behaviors. Therefore, even if applicants faking behaviors are risky given the risk of being caught, applicants with higher perceived control may still fake regardless of any perceived punishment.

In conclusion, ethical relativism and perceived control may be important motivation moderators for applicant faking behaviors when motivation to get the job is presents. In the current study, the relationship between motivation to get the job and its effect on applicant response sets based on TCC theory is first examined. The study also examined the role of motivation to get the job in influencing people's response sets for self-presentation, exaggeration, reactive responding, deceptive responding and honest responding. In addition, the study also examines whether ethical relativism and perceived behavioral control moderate the relationship between motivation to get the job and response sets, as well as the manner in which two moderators can work together to predict people's response sets. Finally, the impact of the response sets on faking's variability and magnitude are studied.

Variability and Magnitude of Faking

Most previous studies examined applicant faking behaviors by examining them as a categorical variable, such that people either fake or they do not. However, applicant faking behavior is a complicated construct that can neither be interpreted in a simple manner, nor can it be classified into two discrete categories (Griffith & McDaniel, 2006). This complexity suggests that faking should be variable, and that its variability may manifest in the differences in the measure's psychometric properties. Birkeland, Manson, Kisamore, Brannick & Smith (2006) examined the different manners in which people engage in faking behavior, with their results suggesting that the magnitude of faking differs across personality

dimensions. For example, participants more strongly elevate their scores on conscientiousness and emotional stability dimensions. Moreover, the study finds that job types affect the manner in which applicants fake. Applicants for sales job typically exaggerate their extraversion scores more than non-sales job applicants.

Griffith et al. (2011, p341) suggested that applicant faking behavior varies in regard to motivation and the underlying processes, and “these differences lead to different forms of faking”. Based on the Trait Contract Classification theory (TCC), four different forms of faking have been defined: self-presentation, exaggeration, reactive responding and fraudulent responding. Based on these forms’ theoretical descriptions, they are implied differences in magnitude and variability.

In addition to the variability of applicant faking behaviors, the magnitude also differs. Konig, Merz & Trauffer (2012) qualitatively examined applicant faking behaviors through content analysis, with the results suggesting that applicants assume employers interpret personality assessment responses based on response consistency. In addition, applicants exhibit different perceptions on the use of middle and extreme responses, with some believing they should avoid middle responses, while others instead believing it is the extreme answers which merit avoidance. Therefore, assumptions regarding the manner in which their responses are used in the hiring decision influence people’s response and the extent to which they fake.

Mueller-Hanson (2002) suggested that people differ in terms of their magnitude of faking, and that some fake significantly while others fake only to a

limited extent. Robie, Brown & Beaty (2007, p 489) suggested that faking behaviors can be classified into three magnitude-based levels using qualitative data: “honest responders, slight fakers, and extreme fakers”. Participants answered personality items by providing situational examples in support of their answers. Then, based on the number of corrections made and time spend, participants are classified into categories of honest, slightly faking and extreme faking. Those participants who fake typically make more corrections and take longer to answer than those who answer correctly.

In conclusion, applicant faking behaviors varies in both form and magnitude. Gary & Christiansen (2011) identified the need to conduct further research into differentiating and capturing applicant faking behaviors and its outcomes because the term “faking” now has describes both the behavior and outcomes. In this study, the problem is addressed by examining the extent to which different response sets (*self-presentation, exaggeration, reactive responding, fraudulent responding and honest responding*) affect faking’s variability and magnitude.

Gender

Previous studies found that men and women differ in terms of moral values and behaviors. Vokema (2004) suggested that men typically have lower moral standards than women. Therefore, women are normally less accepting of immoral behaviors such as deception and lying. In addition, Dreber and Johannesson (2008)

suggested that men engage in more extreme levels of deceptive behaviors in order to achieve their goals. Men also have stronger intentions to fake in order to realize extensive image creation and image protection (Hogue, Levashina & Hang, 2013). In addition, Perunicic Mladenovic & Knezevic (2018) examined the interactions of personality, intelligence and social desirability in gender impact faking, with the results suggesting that men with previous knowledge of psychology on average fake personality assessments more successfully. However, Schoderbek & Deshpande (1996) examined the effect of gender on impression management for self-reported ethical conduct items, concluding that female managers tend to conduct more impression management behaviors.

Gender as an individual level factor often works in combination with other constructs to affect individualistic behaviors. In the current study, how male and female will be different in terms of faking behaviors is examined.

The Current Study

This study is built on Trait Contract Classification Theory. A modified model was constructed with the purpose of examining the relationship between motivation and response choice, as well as the mediation effect of response style on the relationship between motivation to get the job and faking behavior observations. In addition, the study also examines whether ethical relativism and perceived control moderate the relationship between the motivation for the job and

response style. Lastly, whether there is gender difference of faking behavior is also studied. The model is shown below (*Figure 1*).

In this study, data was collected using real job applicants, who were asked to complete a personality test as part of a selection process for applying for a job at a large retail company (Time 1). At the end of the application process, applicants were invited to participate in a study conducted by the Applicant Response Behavior research lab and to answer the same personality test and other relevant dimensions for research purposes (Time 2). These questionnaires measure people's motivation to get the job, their perceptions of ethical relativism, perceived behavioral control, TCC response set and certain other variables related to applicant faking behaviors. In this study, applicant faking behavior observations are studied in regard to three aspects: engaging in faking (whether people fake or not), magnitude of faking (the extent to which people fake) and variability of faking (the extent to which people vary their responses across items). Incidences of applicant faking behaviors are captured using confidence interval method (Griffith et al., 2007). If an applicant's score difference (T1 minus T2) fall out of the confidence interval range on the two occasions, they are identified as engaging in faking behaviors. The magnitude of applicant faking behavior is captured by the difference scores of two test conditions (applicant condition and research condition). Applicant faking behavior variability is captured using the score difference's standard deviation.

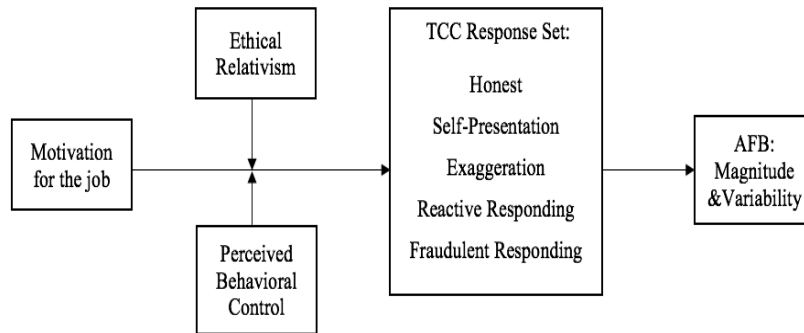


Figure 1. Model of Applicant Faking Behaviors in the current study (General)

Hypothesis Overview

Motivation to get the job has the potential to affect applicant faking behavior. However, applicant faking behavior is a dynamic process instead of a static individual difference. In order to examine the interplay of explanatory variables between motivation and the end-product of applicant faking behaviors, we propose that motivation for the job will affect people's response style first and then ultimately impact the way in which faking manifests itself psychometrically. Based on TCC theory, the five different response styles consist of: honest responding, self-presentation, exaggeration, reactive responding, and fraudulent responding. To study the effect of response styles, we will isolate one form of responding at a time and their potential effect on the hypothesized relationship with other variables. In addition, the impact of motivation to fake on people's response style may depend on people's views applicant faking on ethical conduct (ethical

relativism) and how people perceive they can successfully fake in selection settings (perceived behavioral control). Therefore, we proposed that the moderation effect of ethical relativism and perceived control between the relationship of motivation to fake and response set.

Also, applicant faking behavior may vary in terms of form and magnitude. Regarding forms of faking behaviors, some of the responding forms should be exclusive such as honest responding and fraudulent responding. People who strongly agree (5 on rating scale) that they will answer honestly should rate strongly disagree on conducting fraudulent responding. However, some of the responding forms should be consistent with each other. For example, applicants who show higher intention to engage in reactive responding may also show higher intention to engage in exaggeration responding. Speaking of the magnitude of applicant faking behaviors, applicants faking behaviors might fall into three categories: honest response, slight faking and extreme faking.

Firstly, we will examine the relationship between Motivation for the job and Honest responding, and the moderation and mediation effect in the model. (See *Figure 1.1* below)

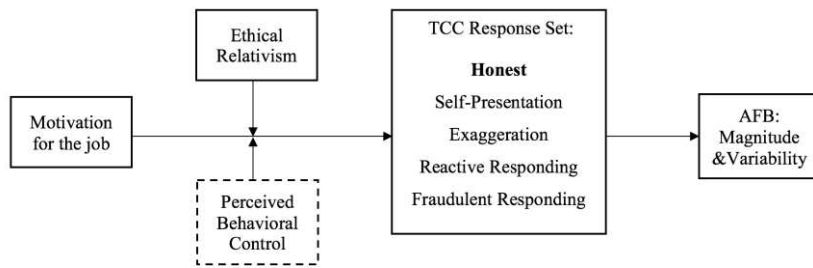


Figure 1.1. Model of Applicant Faking Behavior in current study (Honest)

H1a: There will be a significant positive relationship between motivation for the job and the TCC honest response set.

H1b: There will be a non -significant relationship between the TCC honest response set and the observed faking outcome variable of magnitude¹.

H1c: There will be a non -significant relationship between the TCC honest response set and the observed faking outcome variable of variability².

H2a: Ethical relativism will moderate the relationship between motivation and the TCC honest response set, such that the relationship will increase when Ethical Relativism is low.

H2b: Perceived behavioral control will NOT moderate the relationship between motivation and the TCC honest response set.

Since self-presentation strategies vary based on perceived desirable image of the employer and applicants' self-concepts (Piotrowski, 2010) as it mentioned in

¹ It is somewhat unusual to predict non-significant relationships. In the case of the present study these predictions were retained for consistency and to clarify the nature of the moderating variables across TCC response sets.

² Since the variability of faking should approach 0, a significant correlation is not possible.

the previous section, the pattern of this form of faking is inconsistent due to individual differences and the job applied for. Therefore, I will not make predictions regarding the pattern of self-presentation in the current study.

In terms of Exaggeration form of response, since people do not identify their responses as faking but an unconscious behavioral approach to manage their impression in order to create a positive image, ethics and perceived control of their behaviors are not likely to influence responses. Therefore, there will be no moderation effects of ethical relativism and perceived behavioral control on the relationship between motivation for the job and choosing exaggeration as their response set.

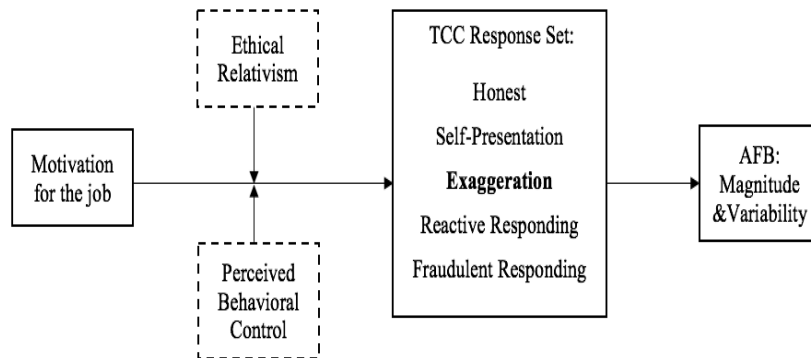


Figure 1.2. Model of Applicant Faking Behavior in current study (Exaggeration)

H3a: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between motivation for the job and the TCC response set of exaggeration.

H3b: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the TCC exaggeration response set and the observed faking outcome variable of magnitude.

H3c: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the TCC exaggeration response set and the observed faking outcome variable of variability.

H3d: Applicants engaged in exaggeration will result in observed positive small magnitude of difference scores (T1 minus T2)

H3e: Applicants engaged in exaggeration will result in observed small variability of standard deviation of the difference scores (T1 minus T2)

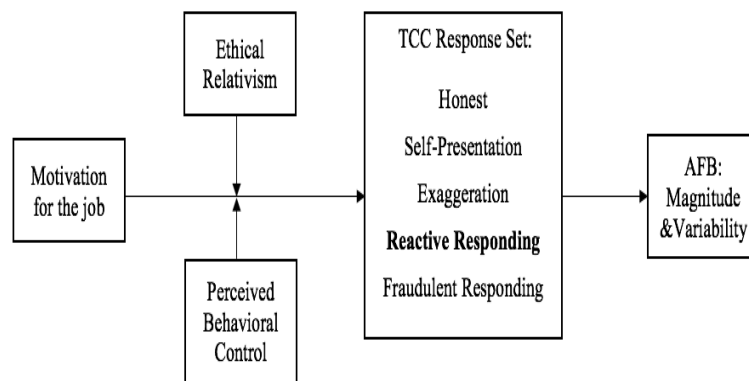


Figure 1.3. Model of Applicant Faking Behavior in current study (Reactive Responding)

H4: There will be a significant positive relationship between motivation for the job and the TCC Reactive Responding response set.

H5a: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the TCC Reactive Responding response set and the observed faking outcome variable of magnitude.

H5b: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the TCC Reactive Responding response set and the observed faking outcome variable of variability.

H6a: Ethical relativism will moderate the relationship between motivation and the TCC Reactive Responding response set.

H6b: Perceived behavioral control will moderate the relationship between motivation and the TCC Reactive Responding response set.

H7a: Applicants engaged in Reactive Responding will result in observed small magnitude of difference scores (T1 minus T2)

H7b: Applicants engaged in Reactive Responding will result in observed large variability of standard deviation of difference scores (T1 minus T2).

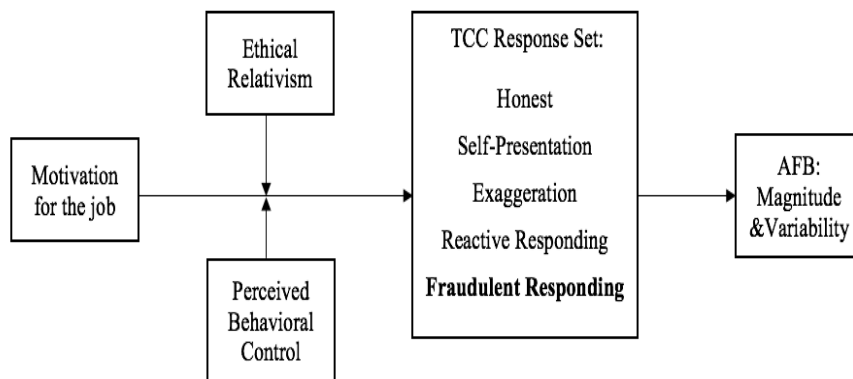


Figure 1.4. Model of Applicant Faking Behavior in current study (Fraudulent Responding)

H8: There will be a significant positive relationship between motivation for the job and the TCC Fraudulent Responding response set.

H9a: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the TCC Fraudulent Responding response set and the observed faking outcome variable of magnitude.

H9b: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the TCC Fraudulent Responding response set and the observed faking outcome variable of variability.

H10a: Ethical relativism will moderate the relationship between motivation and the TCC Fraudulent Responding response set.

H10b: Perceived behavioral control will moderate the relationship between motivation and the TCC Fraudulent Responding response set.

H11a: Applicants engaged in Fraudulent Responding will result in observed large magnitude of difference scores (T1 minus T2)

H11b: Applicants engaged in Fraudulent Responding will result in observed small variability of standard deviation of difference scores (T1 minus T2).

In addition, we examine if there is gender difference in response form and applicant faking behaviors. Also, we will explore whether men and women will carry out different forms of response set in general, and whether men will observe more variability in their faking behaviors.

H12: Men will have statistically significant higher observed faking scores (T1 minus T2).

Lastly, we will examine the pattern of job applicants' response set in general and observation of applicant faking behaviors by investigating how five response form correlate with each other and how response set cluster together. By conducting correlational and cluster analysis, we expect to explore whether the five forms of response set distinct with each other.

Method

Participants:

In this study, we examined archival data collected by the Applicant Response Behavior (ARB) research team at Florida Institute of Technology for a large research program examining applicant faking behavior. Participants for this study were people who applied for different positions consisting of customer service, sales, warehouse, administrative and other positions in a large United States retail organization. 7,740 applicants volunteered to participate in the research conducted by ARB team at Florida Institute of Technology, with 419 (5.4%) of the participants completing the final survey. After initial screening of the responses, 62 participants were excluded because of failure to pass attention checks (Lee,2016). The cleaned dataset included 357 participants with average age of 34.98, and 53.5% of the participants were male and 44.5% of them were female. In addition, 59.1% of the participants were White/Caucasian, 20% of them were Black/African American, 7.8% of them were Latino/Hispanic, and 7.6% identify themselves as from other ethnicity groups.

Procedures:

The ARB research team was actively involved in the selection process of a large retail organization and develop a two-phase method for the study of applicant faking behaviors. At Time I, job applicants to the large retail organizations were asked to answer personality items designed and administrated by a third-party consulting firm as part of their battery of online assessments for selection purposes. In this online assessment, participants also completed an embedded research instrument measuring conscientiousness (Summated Conscientiousness Scale, or SCS).

At the end of the selection process, applicants were invited to participate in an independent research study at Florida Institute of Technology. Participates who were willing to continue the study had the chance to win the cash prize up to \$1,000. Participants provided their contact information including their name and email address for Time 2 study. Applicants were told that their selection decisions would not be affected regardless of their choice to participate in the study. Four to six weeks later, ARB team researchers contacted the people who agreed to participate in the independent research study, and asked them to answer another set of items including the same personality items included in the selection measure in Time 1. Since the response rate was less than ideal, researchers examined whether the initial group (7,740 who agreed to join in the beginning) and the final group (419 who participated in the survey) were equivalent. The results suggest that the

initial group and the final group was not significantly different in mean and standard deviation when comparing their personality score (Lee, 2011).

Measures

Motivation for the job

The Motivation for the job scale was developed for the larger ARB study. The items of the scale were designed to measure how much job applicants wanted the job. There are 7 items in the scale. To complete the items, participants were asked to think about their recent experience and answer how they will rate their level of motivation on a 1-5 Likert scale with (1 - strongly disagree to 5 - strongly agree). A sample item is “I would do whatever is necessary to be hired for a new job.”

TCC Response Set

The Five Response Sets (Honest Responding, Self-presentation, Exaggeration, Reactive Responding and Fraudulent Responding) were measured using an in-house measure designed by the ARB research group. There are 3 items for each of the response sets (a total of 15 items). Participants were asked to “In general, when responding to a personality test in an applicant setting, how much do they agree with the statement on a 1-5 point Likert scale (1 - strongly disagree to 5 - strongly agree). A sample item for each of the response set is shown in the table 1 below.

Table 1. TCC Response Set Sample Items

TCC Response Set	Sample Item
Honest	“Choose the responses that reflect my true self.”
Self-presentation	“Try to impress the prospective employer with my strength.”
Exaggeration	“Respond to the questions by making myself look a little better than I really am.”
Reactive Responding	“Quickly choose the best response option without considering what is being asked.”
Fraudulent Responding	“Choose the responses that I believe the employer is looking for.”.

Perceived Control

Perceived behavioral control is measured using Perceived Control Measure designed by ARB research lab. There are 4 items in total, and participants were asked to rate their level of agreement of the following statement on a 1-5 Likert Scale with 1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree. A sample item is “I am confident that I can improve my score on a personality test by altering my responses (i.e., fake a personality test)”.

Ethical Relativism

Ethical Relativism is measured using Forsyth’s (1980) Idealistic Ethics Position Questionnaire. There are 10 items in total, and participants were asked about how much they agree with the following statement on a 1-5 Likert scale with 1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree. A sample item is “Moral standards should be seen as being individualistic; what one person considers to be moral may be judged to be immoral by another person.”.

Conscientiousness

The personality dimension of conscientiousness was measured using the Summated Conscientiousness Scale (Griffith et al., 2007) in the current study. There are 20 items in the Summated Conscientiousness Scale (SCS) measure, and participants will rate their level of agreement on the statement on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree. The internal consistency reliability of the measure is .91 (Peterson et al., 2007). A sample item is “In order to be successful, it is necessary to set goals.”

Applicant Faking behaviors

Griffith et al. (2007) confidence interval method was adopted to examine applicant faking behaviors. The first step of the method is to calculate the difference score of SCS measure in the two phase: phase 1 (motivated faking condition) and phase 2 (independent research condition). Secondly, we will examine whether the difference is random or intentional by identifying whether the difference score exceeds the boundaries of random variance. The standard used for identifying the boundary is setting the boundary score as 95% of confidence interval around the SCS score in phase 2. Therefore, any difference score of the two phases that is out of range of the 95% confidence interval will be viewed as significantly different from honest response of personality items.

Results

Preliminary Analysis

Data Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 25. Study data was cleaned and screened prior to hypothesis testing. First, the data was reverse coded for negatively worded items. Second, missing values were replaced using the series mean method. Thirdly, raw scores of all the items were transferred to z scores in order to identify outliers. Cases that have z score smaller than -3.29 or larger than +3.39 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) were removed. After the screening process, 63 cases were removed, resulting in a final sample of 362 cases. Kurtosis and skewness was also examined to check for normality of the data. Descriptive statistics of study variables can be viewed in Appendix A.

Next, reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha coefficient was conducted to examine the internal consistency of each measurement scale including: Motivation for the job, TCC response sets, Perceived Behavioral Control, Ethical Relativism and Conscientiousness. Cronbach's alphas for each of the TCC response set consisting of 3 items in each subscale (Self-Presentation, Exaggeration, Reactive Responding, Fraudulent Responding and Honest Responding) were .77, .77, .80, .84, and .91 respectively. The Perceived Behavioral Control scale consisted of 4 items ($\alpha = .75$) and Ethical Relativism scale consisted of 10 items ($\alpha = .78$). In sum, the reliability of all study scales was acceptable, with all scales demonstrating reliabilities above .70 (Nunnally, 1978).

Lastly, correlation analysis was conducted to examine the correlational relationship among all constructs. (See Table 2 below)

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics (N = 362)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Motivation	–								
2. Self-presentation	.17**	–							
3. Exaggeration	.15**	.32**	–						
4. Reactive	-.03	-.047	.41**	–					
5. Fraudulent	.11*	.26**	.71**	.44**	–				
6. Honest	-.05	-.09	-.44**	-.21**	-.55**	–			
7. Perceived Control	.17**	.33**	.35**	.11*	.39**	-.24**	–		
8. Ethical Relativism	.12*	.22**	.32**	.19**	.31**	-.09	.15**	–	
9. Difference Score	.02	.09	.19**	.000	.14**	-.15**	.14**	.03	–

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

Hypothesis Testing

PROCESS MODEL SUMMARY

First, the full model for each of the TCC response sets was analyzed using Process Model 9 (see Process model 9 below)

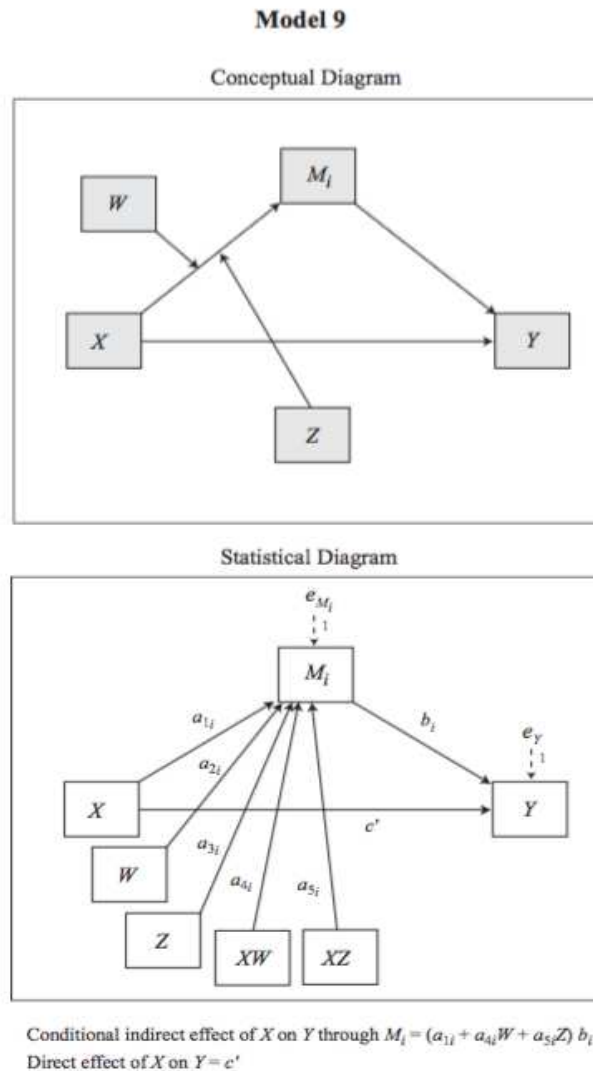


Figure 5, Process Model 9 (Hayes, 2013)

Process Model 9 examined the direct effect of motivation to get the job (X) on observation of faking (Y), and the indirect effect of the TCC response set (M) on the relationship between X and Y. It also examined the moderation effect of Perceived Behavioral Control (W) and Ethical Relativism (Z) on the relationship between X and Y. None of the models for TCC Honest response, Exaggeration, Reactive Responding, and Fraudulent responding were fully supported.

For the TCC honest model, moderated mediation analysis was performed using Process Model 9 to examine the moderation effects of perceived behavioral control (PBC) and Ethical Relativism(ER) and the mediation effect of the TCC Honest Response on the relationship between motivation for the job (independent variable) and faking magnitude (dependent variable). The results suggested that motivation and Ethical Relativism (ER) did not have a significant effect on the TCC Honest response ($p > .05$). In addition, there was no interaction effect of Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) and motivation on the TCC Honest response set ($p > .05$). There was also no interaction effect of ER and motivation on the TCC Honest Response ($p > .05$). The results also suggested that motivation did not have a significant direct effect on faking magnitude ($p > .05$). However, PBC had a significant effect on TCC Honest Responding ($b = -.28, p < .05$), suggesting that people with higher perceived control of faking had lower score on the TCC Honest Response set. In addition, TCC Honest response had significant effect on faking magnitude ($b = -.082, p < .05$), suggesting that people with higher score on TCC Honest response observed low magnitude of faking. (See Table 3 below).

Table 3.

Moderated Mediation Results via PROCESS Model 9 (Honest)

Variable		Coeffi.	SE	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper
Motivation (X) on Honest (M)	a _{1i}	.0024	.048	-.093	.098
PBC (W) on Honest (M)	a _{2i}	-.28	.065	-.40	-.15
ER (Z) on Honest (M)	a _{3i}	-.057	.093	-.24	.13
Interaction 1(X*W) on M	a _{4i}	-.023	.062	-.14	.099
Interaction 2(X*Z) on M	a _{5i}	-.10	.098	-.29	.093
TCC Honest (M) on Magnitude (Y_m)	b _{im}	-.082	.03	-.14	-.022
Motivation (X) on Magnitude (Y _m)(direct)	c' _m	-.01	.028	-.065	.044
TCC Honest (M) on Variability (Y_v)	b _{iv}	-.050	.022	-.093	-.0073
Motivation (X) on Variability (Y _v)(direct)	c' _v	.097	.020	-.030	.049

Note: Coefficient refers to the effect using 5,000 bootstrap samples; Coefficients with Confidence Interval do not include zero are statistically significant and bolded.

Another moderated mediation analysis was performed using Process Model 9 to examine the moderation effects of perceived behavioral control (PBC) and Ethical Relativism(ER) and the mediation effect of TCC Honest Response on the relationship between motivation for the job (independent variable) and faking variability (dependent variable). The results suggested motivation did not have a significant effect on faking variability but the TCC Honest response had a significant effect on faking variability ($b=-.050, p<.05$), suggesting that people with higher score on TCC Honest response observed low variability of faking.

For the TCC Exaggeration model, moderated mediation analysis was performed using Process Model 9 to examine the moderation effects of perceived behavioral control (PBC) and Ethical Relativism(ER) and the mediation effect of TCC Exaggeration Response on the relationship between motivation for the job

(independent variable) and faking magnitude (dependent variable). The results suggested that motivation did not have a significant effect on TCC Exaggeration response ($p > .05$). In addition, there was no interaction effect of Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) and motivation on the TCC Honest response set ($p > .05$). There was also no interaction effect of ER and motivation on the TCC Exaggeration Response set ($p > .05$). The results also suggested that motivation did not have a significant direct effect on faking magnitude ($p > .05$). However, PBC ($b = .33, p < .05$) and ER ($b = .38, p < .05$), both had a significant effect on TCC Honest Responding, suggesting that people with higher perceived control of faking and higher ethical relativism would have a higher score on the TCC Exaggeration Response set. In addition, the TCC Exaggeration response set had a significant effect on faking magnitude ($b = .14, p < .05$), suggesting that people with higher score on the TCC exaggeration response set engaged in a higher magnitude of faking.

Another moderated mediation analysis was performed using Process Model 9 to examine the moderation effects of perceived behavioral control (PBC) and Ethical Relativism (ER) and the mediation effect of the TCC Exaggeration Response on the relationship between motivation for the job (independent variable) and faking variability (dependent variable). The results suggested motivation did not have a significant effect on faking variability but the TCC Exaggeration response had a significant effect on faking variability ($b = .057, p < .05$), suggesting that people with higher score on the TCC Exaggeration response observed higher variability of faking (See Table 4 below).

Table 4.

Moderated Mediation Results via PROCESS Model 9 (Exaggeration)

Variable		Coeffi.	SE	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper
Motivation (X) on Exaggeration (M)	a _{1i}	.050	.041	-.030	.13
PBC (W) on Exaggeration (M)	a _{2i}	.33	.054	.22	.43
ER (Z) on Exaggeration (M)	a _{3i}	.38	.078	.23	.53
Interaction 1(X*W) on M	a _{4i}	-.035	.052	-.14	.067
Interaction 2(X*Z) on M	a _{5i}	.099	.082	-.063	.26
TCC Exaggeration (M) on Magnitude (Y_m)	b _{im}	.14	.033	.077	.21
Motivation (X) on Magnitude (Y _m)(direct)	c' _m	-.025	.028	-.079	.030
TCC Exaggeration (M) on Variability (Y_v)	b _{iv}	.057	.024	.0091	.10
Motivation (X) on Variability (Y _v)(direct)	c' _v	.0047	.020	-.035	.045

Note: Coefficient refers to the effect using 5,000 bootstrap samples; Coefficients with Confidence Interval do not include zero are statistically significant and bolded.

For TCC Reactive Responding model, moderated mediation analysis was performed using Process Model 9 to examine the moderation effects of perceived behavioral control (PBC) and Ethical Relativism(ER) and the mediation effect of the TCC Reactive Responding Response set on the relationship between motivation for the job (independent variable) and faking magnitude (dependent variable). The results suggested that neither motivation and PBC had a significant effect on TCC Reactive response ($p > .05$). In addition, there was no interaction effect of Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) and motivation on TCC Reactive response set($p > .05$). There was also no interaction effect of ER and motivation on the TCC Reactive Responding Response set ($p > .05$). The results also suggested that motivation did not have a significant direct effect on faking magnitude($p > .05$). However, Ethical

Relativism had a significant effect on TCC Reactive Responding ($b=.26, p<.05$), suggesting that people with higher ethical relativism would have higher score on TCC Reactive Responding Response set. The results suggested that the TCC Reactive Responding response set had no significant effect on faking magnitude ($p>.05$).

Another moderated mediation analysis was performed using Process Model 9 to examine the moderation effects of perceived behavioral control (PBC) and Ethical Relativism(ER) and the mediation effect of TCC Reactive Responding Response on the relationship between motivation for the job (independent variable) and faking variability (dependent variable). The results suggested motivation did not have a significant effect on faking variability but the TCC Reactive Responding response set had a significant effect on faking variability ($b=.077, p<.05$), suggesting that people with higher score on the TCC Reactive Responding response set observed larger variability of faking (See Table 5 below).

Table 5.

Moderated Mediation Results via PROCESS Model(Reactive Responding)

Variable		Coeffi.	SE	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper
Motivation (X) on Reactive(M)	a _{1i}	-.052	.045	-.14	.036
PBC (W) on Reactive(M)	a _{2i}	.098	.060	-.020	.22
ER (Z) on Reactive(M)	a _{3i}	.26	.086	.092	.43
Interaction 1(X*W) on M	a _{4i}	-.0046	.057	-.12	.11
Interaction 2(X*Z) on M	a _{5i}	.024	.091	-.16	.20
TCC Reactive(M) on Magnitude (Y _m)	b _{im}	.012	.033	-.053	.077
Motivation (X) on Magnitude (Y _m)(direct)	c' _m	-.0069	.028	-.062	.048
TCC Reactive(M) on Variability (Y_v)	b _{iv}	.077	.024	.031	.12
Motivation (X) on Variability (Y _v)(direct)	c' _v	.013	.020	-.026	.052

Note: Coefficient refers to the effect using 5,000 bootstrap samples; Coefficients with Confidence Interval do not include zero are statistically significant and bolded.

Lastly, For TCC Fraudulent Responding model, moderated mediation analysis was performed using Process Model 9 to examine the moderation effects of perceived behavioral control (PBC) and Ethical Relativism(ER) and the mediation effect of the TCC Fraudulent Responding Response set on the relationship between motivation for the job (independent variable) and faking magnitude (dependent variable). The results suggested that motivation did not have a significant effect on TCC Fraudulent response ($p > .05$). In addition, there was no interaction effect of Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) and motivation on the TCC Fraudulent response set ($p > .05$). There was also no interaction effect of ER and motivation on the TCC Fraudulent Responding Response set ($p > .05$). The results also suggested that motivation did not have a significant direct effect on faking magnitude($p > .05$). However, Ethical Relativism ($b = .36, p < .05$) and PBC

($b=.41, p<.05$), both had a significant effect on TCC Fraudulent Responding, suggesting that people with higher ethical relativism or higher perceived behavior control of faking would have higher score on TCC Fraudulent Responding Response set. The results also suggested that the TCC Fraudulent Responding response set had a significant effect on faking magnitude ($b=.090, p<.05$).

Another moderated mediation analysis was performed using Process Model 9 to examine the moderation effects of perceived behavioral control (PBC) and Ethical Relativism(ER) and the mediation effect of TCC Fraudulent Responding Response on the relationship between motivation for the job (independent variable) and faking variability (dependent variable). The results suggested motivation and TCC fraudulent responding did not have a significant effect on faking variability ($p>.05$). (See Table 6 below)

Table 6.
Moderated Mediation Results via PROCESS Model 9 (Fraudulent)

Variable		Coeffi.	SE	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper
Motivation (X) on Fraudulent(M)	a _{1i}	.019	.042	-.064	.10
PBC (W) on Fraudulent(M)	a _{2i}	.41	.056	.30	.52
ER (Z) on Fraudulent(M)	a _{3i}	.36	.080	.20	.52
Interaction 1(X*W) on M	a _{4i}	.0075	.053	-.098	.11
Interaction 2(X*Z) on M	a _{5i}	.13	.085	-.042	.29
TCC Fraudulent(M) on Magnitude (Y_m)	b _{im}	.090	.032	.027	.15
Motivation (X) on Magnitude (Y _m)(direct)	c' _m	-.016	.028	-.071	.039
TCC Fraudulent(M) on Variability (Y _v)	b _{iv}	.038	.023	-.0074	.084
Motivation (X) on Variability (Y _v)(direct)	c' _v	.0079	.020	-.032	.048

Note: Coefficient refers to the effect using 5,000 bootstrap samples; Coefficients with Confidence Interval do not include zero are statistically significant and bolded.

Since Motivation as the predictor was not significantly related to the outcome variable (faking magnitude and variability) in any of the model, it was difficult to examine the mediation and moderation relationship using PROCESS model 9. Therefore, traditional regression analysis was performed to examine other relationships described in the model. The following section will discuss how the relationship was examined according to the order of the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1a through hypothesis 2b served to examine the relationship between motivation for the job and applicant faking behaviors mediated by TCC honest response set, as well as testing whether ethical relativism moderated the strength of the relationship. For hypothesis 1a, which proposed that motivation for the job will be have a positive relationship with TCC honest response set, a simple

linear regression was performed since both the independent variable (motivation for the job) and dependent variable (TCC honest response set) are continuous variables. The results suggest that the relationship between motivation for the job and TCC honest response was not significant ($p > .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1a was not supported. Hypothesis 1b and hypothesis 1c examined the relationship between the TCC honest response set and observation of faking (magnitude and variability). The two hypotheses proposed that people have high scores on the TCC honest response set will observe a non-significant relationship with faking magnitude and faking variability. Two simple linear regression was conducted to examine the relationship and the results suggested that the TCC honest response set has a significant negative effect on faking magnitude ($b = -.15, p < .05$) and faking variability ($b = -.13, p < .05$). That is, participants with higher TCC honest response score will demonstrate lower amount of faking and low variability of faking behaviors. Therefore, hypothesis 1b and 1c were not supported.

Hypothesis 2a and 2b looked at the moderation effect of ethical relativism and perceived behavioral control on the relationship between motivation for the job and the TCC honest response set respectively. Two moderation analysis using Process Model 1 were conducted, and the results suggested that there is no moderation effect of ethical relativism nor perceived behavioral control on the relationship between motivation and TCC honest response set. Therefore, hypothesis 2a was not supported but hypothesis 2b was supported. In addition, perceived behavioral control has significant negative effect on the TCC honest

response set ($b=-.24, p<.05$). This suggested that people with higher perceived control of faking behavior would have lower TCC honest score.

Hypothesis 3a to 3e focused on the construct of the TCC exaggeration response set and examined the relationship between motivation for the job and the observation of applicant faking behaviors through the mediation effect of TCC exaggeration response. For hypothesis 3a, which suggested that there will be a statistically significant positive relationship between motivation for the job and the TCC response set of exaggeration, a simple linear regression was performed and the results suggested that motivation had a significant positive effect on the TCC exaggeration response set ($b=.15, p<.05$). Hypothesis 3b and 3c examined the relationship between the TCC exaggeration response set on faking magnitude and faking variability respectively. In order to test the relationship, two separate linear regression was performed with TCC exaggeration response as independent variable and dependent variable been set as difference score and standard deviation respectively. The results suggest that the TCC exaggeration response set has a positive effect on faking magnitude ($b=.19, p<.05$) and faking variability ($b=.13, p<.05$). Therefore, hypothesis 3a, 3b and 3c were supported.

Hypothesis 3d and 3e examined the level of faking magnitude and faking variability for people engaging in exaggeration. For hypothesis 3d, which proposed that applicants engaged in exaggeration will result in observed positive small magnitude of difference scores (T1 minus T2), a one sample t-test was performed to estimate the effect size of faking magnitude.

In order to calculate Cohen's d effect size of faking magnitude, participants were first categorized into: exaggeration, reactive responding and fraudulent responding based on their scores of TCC items. People had average scores equal or above 4 on a 1-5 Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree) when asked how much do they agree with the exaggeration items were categorized into exaggeration group. General formula used to calculate effect size is shown below (where M_{TCC} represents the mean score (magnitude or variability) for people engaged in a specific TCC response set, $M_{remainder}$ represents the mean of the remainder of the participants and $\sigma_{remainder}$ represents the standard deviation of the remainder of the participants).

$$\frac{MD_{TCC} - MD_{remainder}}{\sigma_{remainder}}$$

After examination of the average scores for exaggeration, 26 participants were categorized into exaggeration group. Considering the big difference of sample size between TCC group (about 30 for each TCC camp) compared with the remaining group (more than 300 participants), instead of independent sample t-test, one sample t-test was conducted to compare the mean faking score for people engaging in exaggeration (test values) and the overall mean difference score for the rest of the participants (comparison values). The results suggested that people engaging in exaggeration have significant higher difference score ($M=.65$) than the overall mean difference score ($M=.34$) for the remainder of the sample ($t=3.83$, $p<.05$). Cohen's d effect size was calculated using the formula showing below:

$$\frac{MD_{\text{exaggeration}} - MD_{\text{remainder}}}{\sigma_{\text{remainder}}}$$

Specifically, to examine the Cohen's *d* effect size of the difference of faking magnitude, we use the mean difference of faking score between people engaging in exaggeration and people who are not ($MD_{\text{exaggeration}} - MD_{\text{remainder}}$) divided by the standard deviation of the remainder group ($d=.61$), suggesting a medium effect. That is, participants engaging in exaggeration observed significant positive medium magnitude of faking. Therefore, hypothesis 3d was not supported.

For hypothesis 3e, which suggested that applicants engaged in exaggeration will result in observed small variability of standard deviation of difference scores (T1 minus T2). To test this hypothesis, a difference score for each SCS items (20 items) were calculated (T1-T2), and a total of 20 sets of difference scores were generated. After that, the standard deviation of the 20 difference scores for people in the remainder group were calculated and saved as a new variable (Variability). Descriptive analysis for the new variable "Variability" was performed to generate the mean of the variability and standard deviation of the variability to serve as reference values. A one sample *t* test was conducted to examine the difference of variability of faking for people engaging in exaggeration and overall variability of faking for the rest of people participating in the study. The results suggested that there was a significant difference of variability between exaggeration group ($M=1.10$) and overall standard deviation ($M=.78$) for the remainder group ($t=3.35$, $p<.05$). The Cohen's *d* effect size is calculated using the formula shown below:

$$\frac{MVar_{\text{exaggeration}} - MVar_{\text{remainder}}}{\sigma_{\text{remainder}}}$$

Specifically, to examine the Cohen's *d* effect size of the difference of faking variability, we used the mean difference of variability of difference scores for participants engaging in exaggeration and the mean variability of the difference score for the remainder of the participants ($MVar_{\text{exaggeration}} - MVar_{\text{remainder}}$) divided by the standard deviation of variability for the remainder group ($d=.82$), suggesting a large effect. That is, participants engaging in exaggeration observed significant positive large variability of faking. Therefore, hypothesis 3e was not supported.

Hypothesis 4a to 7b examined the model of reactive responding and looked at the moderation effects of ethical relativism and perceived behavioral control and the mediation effect of TCC reactive responding on the relationship between motivation for the job and observation of faking. For hypothesis 4a, which suggested that there will be a significant positive relationship between motivation for the job and TCC Reactive Responding response set, a linear regression was performed and the results suggested that there is no significant effect ($p>.05$). Therefore, hypothesis 4a was not supported. Hypothesis 5a and 5b proposed that there will be a statistically significant positive relationship between TCC reactive responding and observed faking magnitude and faking variability respectively. Two linear regression were performed to examine the effect, the results suggested that TCC reactive responding has no effect on faking magnitude ($p>.05$) but there was a significant positive relationship between TCC reactive responding and faking

variability ($b=.18, p<.05$). Therefore, hypothesis 5a was not supported but hypothesis 5b was supported.

Hypothesis 6a and 6b looked at the moderation effect of ethical relativism and perceived behavioral control on the relationship between motivation and the TCC reactive responding response set respectively. Two moderation analysis using PROCESS model 1 was conducted to examine the effects, and the results suggested that for both hypothesis, there was no moderation effect for neither perceived behavioral control nor ethical relativism. Therefore, hypothesis 6a and 6b were not supported. However, ethical relativism ($b=.19, p<.05$) and perceived behavioral control ($b=.11, p<.05$) each had direct positive effect on TCC reactive responding. That is, people with high ethical relativism and high perceived behavioral control will observe higher score on TCC reactive responding.

Hypothesis 7a and 7b examined the level of faking magnitude and faking variability for people engaging in reactive responding. For hypothesis 7a, which proposed that applicants engaged in reactive responding will result in observed small magnitude of difference scores (T1 minus T2), a one sample t-test was performed to estimate the effect size of faking magnitude. People have average scores equal or above 4 on a 1-5 Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree) on Reactive responding scale were categorized into reactive responding group. After examination of the average scores for reactive responding, 28 participants were categorized into reactive responding group. A one sample t-test was conducted to compare the mean difference score for people engaging in

reactive responding and the overall mean difference score. The results suggested that there is no significant difference of faking magnitude between the difference scores for people engaging in reactive responding and the overall remainder of the participants ($p > .05$). Hypothesis 7a was not supported. For hypothesis 7b, which suggested that applicants engaged in reactive responding will result in observed large variability of standard deviation of difference scores (T1 minus T2), a one sample t test was conducted to examine the difference of standard deviation for people engaging in reactive responding and overall standard deviation of difference scores for rest of people participating in applicant condition. The results suggested that there was a significant difference of standard deviation between reactive responding group ($M = 1.05$) and overall standard deviation ($M = .78$) for the rest of the participants in the ($t = 2.33, p < .05$). The Cohen's d effect size is .73, a medium to large effect. That is, people engaging in reactive responding resulted in observed medium variability of standard deviation of the difference scores (T1 minus T2). Therefore, hypothesis 7b was partially supported.

Hypothesis 8a to 11b examined the variable of fraudulent responding and tested the moderation effects of ethical relativism and perceived behavioral control. In addition, I tested the mediation effect of TCC fraudulent responding on the relationship between motivation for the job and observation of faking. For hypothesis 8a, which suggested that there will be a significant positive relationship between motivation for the job and TCC Fraudulent Responding response set, a linear regression was performed and the results suggested that there is a positive

effect of motivation on fraudulent responding ($b=.11, p<.05$). Therefore, hypothesis 8a was supported. Hypothesis 9a and 9b proposed that there will be a statistically significant positive relationship between TCC fraudulent responding and observed faking magnitude and faking variability respectively. Two linear regression were performed to examine the effect, the results suggested that TCC fraudulent responding had positive effect on faking magnitude ($b=.14, p<.05$) but it has no significant effect on faking variability ($p>.05$). Therefore, hypothesis 9a was supported but hypothesis 9b was not supported. Hypothesis 10a and 10b looked at the moderation effect of ethical relativism and perceived behavioral control on the relationship between motivation and the TCC fraudulent responding response set respectively. Two moderation analysis using PROCESS model 1 was conducted to examine the effects, and the results suggested that for both hypothesis, there was no moderation effect for neither perceived behavioral control nor ethical relativism($p>.05$). Therefore, hypothesis 10a and 10b were not supported. However, ethical relativism ($b=.31, p<.05$) and perceived behavioral control ($b=.39, p<.05$) each had direct positive effect on TCC fraudulent responding. That is, people with high ethical relativism and high perceived behavioral control will observe higher score on TCC fraudulent responding.

Hypothesis 11a and 11b examined the level of faking magnitude and faking variability for people engaging in fraudulent responding. For hypothesis 11a, which proposed that applicants engaged in fraudulent responding will result in observed large magnitude of difference scores (T1 minus T2), a Cohen's d based on one

sample t-test was performed to estimate the effect size of faking magnitude. People have average scores equal or above 4 on a 1-5 Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree) on Fraudulent responding scale were categorized into fraudulent responding group. After examination of the average scores for reactive responding, 29 participants were categorized into fraudulent responding group. A one sample t-test was conducted to compare the mean difference score for people engaging in fraudulent responding and the overall mean difference score for the rest of people in research condition. The results suggested that there is significant difference of faking magnitude between the difference scores for people engaging in fraudulent responding ($M=.62$) and the remainder participants ($M=.34$) in applicant condition ($t=4.08, p<.05$). The Cohen's d effect size is .59, a medium effect. Therefore, hypothesis 11a was not supported. For hypothesis 11b, which suggested that applicants engaged in fraudulent responding will result in observed small variability of standard deviation of difference scores (T1 minus T2), a one sample t test was conducted to examine the difference of standard deviation for people engaging in fraudulent responding and overall standard deviation of difference scores for the rest of people participating in applicant condition. The results suggested that there was a significant difference of standard deviation between fraudulent responding group ($M=1.21$) and overall standard deviation ($M=.76$) for the rest of people in the applicant condition ($t=4.84, p<.05$). The Cohen's d effect size is 1.23, a large effect. That is, people engaging in fraudulent

responding resulted in observed large variability of standard deviation of the difference scores (T1 minus T2). Therefore, hypothesis 11b was not supported.

Hypothesis 12 examined the gender effect on difference scores and it predicted that men will have statistically significant higher observed faking scores. Independent sample t-test was performed to examine the effect and the results found that there was no significant gender difference between male and female on their difference scores ($p > .05$). See summary table for hypothesis testing results below.

Honest Model (Moderator: ER)	
Hypothesis	Results
H1a: There will be a significant positive relationship between motivation for the job and the TCC honest response set.	N.S.
H1b: There will be a <i>non-significant</i> relationship between the TCC honest response set and the observed faking outcome variable of magnitude.	N.S, result is significant
H1c: There will be a <i>non-significant</i> relationship between the TCC honest response set and the observed faking outcome variable of variability.	N.S, result is significant
H2a: Ethical relativism will moderate the relationship between motivation and the TCC honest response set, such that the relationship will increase when Ethical Relativism is low.	N.S.
H2b: Perceived behavioral control will NOT moderate the relationship between motivation and the TCC honest response set.	no moderation effect, but PBC is significantly predicting Honest, $b = -.24$

Exaggeration Model (No moderator)

Hypothesis	Results
H3a: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between motivation for the job and the TCC response set of exaggeration.	support, $b=.15$, $p<.05$
H3b: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the TCC exaggeration response set and the observed faking outcome variable of magnitude.	support, $b=.19$, $p<.05$
H3c: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the TCC exaggeration response set and the observed faking outcome variable of variability.	support, $b=.13$, $p<.05$
H3d: Applicants engaged in exaggeration will result in observed positive <i>small</i> magnitude of difference scores (T1 minus T2)	N.S. the effect is <i>medium</i> , $d=.66$
H3e: Applicants engaged in exaggeration will result in observed <i>small</i> variability of standard deviation of the difference scores (T1 minus T2)	N.S, effect is <i>large</i> , $d=.82$

Reactive Responding Model (Moderator: ER & PBC)

Hypothesis	Results
H4a: There will be a significant positive relationship between motivation for the job and the TCC Reactive Responding response set.	N.S
H5a: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the TCC Reactive Responding response set and the observed faking outcome variable of magnitude.	N.S.
H5b: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the TCC Reactive Responding response set and the observed faking outcome variable of variability.	support, $b=.18$, $p<.05$
H6a: Ethical relativism will moderate the relationship between motivation and the TCC Reactive Responding response set.	no moderation effect but Ethical relativism is significantly predicting RR, $b=.19$
H6b: Perceived behavioral control will moderate the relationship between motivation and the TCC Reactive Responding response set.	no moderation effect but PBC is significantly predicting RR, $b=.11$

H7a: Applicants engaged in Reactive Responding will result in observed small magnitude of difference scores (T1 minus T2)	N.S
H7b: Applicants engaged in Reactive Responding will result in observed <i>large</i> variability of standard deviation of difference scores (T1 minus T2).	N.S. effect is <i>medium</i> , <i>d</i> =.73

Fraudulent Responding Model (Moderator: ER & PBC)

Hypothesis	Results
H8a: There will be a significant positive relationship between motivation for the job and the TCC Fraudulent Responding response set.	support, <i>b</i> =.11, <i>p</i> <.05
H9a: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the TCC Fraudulent Responding response set and the observed faking outcome variable of magnitude.	support, <i>b</i> =.14, <i>p</i> <.05
H9b: There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the TCC Fraudulent Responding response set and the observed faking outcome variable of variability.	N.S.
H10a: Ethical relativism will moderate the relationship between motivation and the TCC Fraudulent Responding response set.	no moderation effect, but ER is significantly predicting FR, <i>b</i> =.31
H10b: Perceived behavioral control will moderate the relationship between motivation and the TCC Fraudulent Responding response set.	no moderation effect, but PBC is significantly predicting FR, <i>b</i> =.39
H11a: Applicants engaged in Fraudulent Responding will result in observed <i>large</i> magnitude of difference scores (T1 minus T2)	N.S. <i>medium</i> effect, <i>d</i> =.59
H11b: Applicants engaged in Fraudulent Responding will result in observed <i>small</i> variability of standard deviation of difference scores (T1 minus T2).	N.S. <i>large</i> effect, <i>d</i> =1.23

Exploratory Analysis

In order to examine question of whether the TCC response sets are distinct, cluster analysis was performed on the applicant/non-motivated conscientiousness difference scores. First, a hierarchical cluster analysis using Ward's method was performed to identify the number of clusters that best suit the data. Hierarchical cluster analysis with 360 cases was performed by a stepwise algorithm which merges two objects at each step, the two that have the least dissimilarity. By looking at the cluster matrix, the value of dissimilarities reduced considerably between the stage 356 and 357 (coefficient=.22) rather than between stage 357 and 358 (coefficient=1.3). That means, at stage 357, there is the least dissimilarity which generate a cluster of 3. Therefore, the difference score data can best be sorted into 3 clusters. Second, after determining the number of clusters, a K-mean cluster analysis was performed, and the results suggested that the mean faking difference score (applicant - non-motivated conscientiousness) were significantly different among the three clusters ($F(2, 357)=720.58, p<.05$). The mean difference score was .41, -.035, and .96 for cluster 1(145 cases), cluster 2(141 cases) and cluster 3(74 cases) respectively. Third, one way ANOVA was performed to examine how each of the TCC response set scored among the three clusters. The results suggested that there was no significant difference of self-presentation scores among the clusters ($p>.05$). However, there was significant difference of exaggeration scores among the three clusters ($F(2,357)=19.69, p<.05$). Post-hoc results suggested that participants in cluster 1 ($M=2.43, SD=.93$) have significant

higher scores on exaggeration than people in cluster 2 ($M=2.09$, $SD=.75$). People in cluster 3 ($M=2.86$, $SD=.93$) have significant higher scores on exaggeration than people in cluster 2 and cluster 1.

In addition, there was significant difference of reactive responding scores among the three clusters ($F(2, 357) = 4.13$, $p<.05$). Post hoc results suggested that participants in cluster 3 ($M=2.34$, $SD=1.02$) have significant higher scores on reactive responding than people in cluster 2 ($M=1.96$, $SD=.84$). There was significant difference of fraudulent responding and honest responding among the three clusters with $F(2,357)=14.18$, and $F(2,357)=13.95$ respectively ($p<.05$). Post hoc results suggested that for fraudulent responding, participants in cluster 1 ($M=2.25$, $SD=1.03$) have significant higher score on fraudulent responding than people in cluster 2 ($M=1.92$, $SD=.78$). People in cluster 3 ($M=2.66$, $SD=1.19$) has significant higher score on fraudulent responding than people in cluster 1 and cluster 2. For honest responding, participants in cluster 1 ($M=4.29$, $SD=.68$) have significant higher score on honest responding than people in cluster 3 ($M=3.99$, $SD=.95$). Participants in cluster 2 ($M=4.53$, $SD=.60$) have significant higher score on honest responding than people in cluster 1 and 2(See figure 6 below).

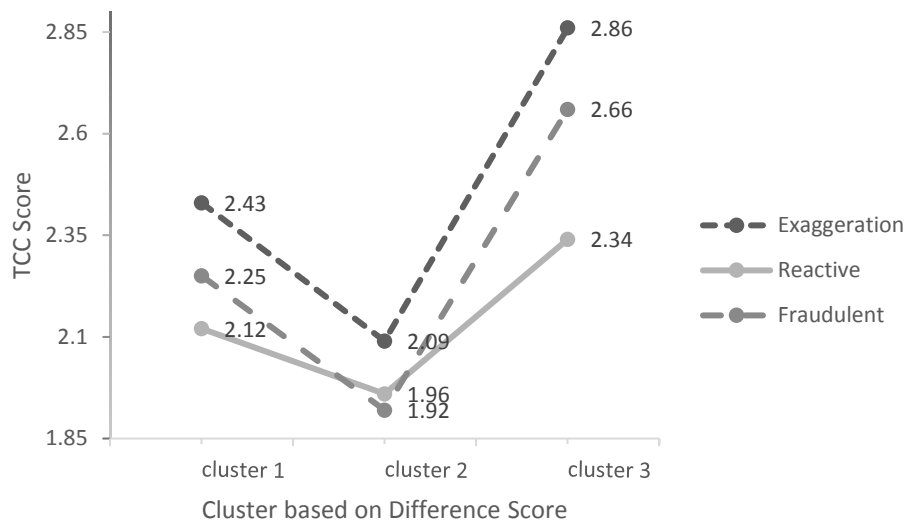


Figure 6. the difference of TCC scores among clusters. TCC score was measured on 1-5 Likert scale.

Discussion

Applicant faking behavior is one of the most frequently cited concerns regarding the use of personality measures in selection. As personality measures have become more popular in selection due to low costs and prediction of performance outcomes, many researchers have emphasized the need to study faking. Three main common research questions related to faking are: 1) What is applicant faking behavior; 2) When do applicants fake and, 3) How can faking behaviors be addressed? This thesis reviewed the three main questions in the faking literature and provided background knowledge towards the understanding of applicant faking behaviors. Previously, the trend of applicant faking research focused primarily on the intervention, but researchers soon realized unless a theoretical model was developed to support intervention mechanisms, the interventions were not likely to be effective. To answer the call for broad frameworks that capture applicant responses to personality items, researchers have developed specific models which explain the mechanism and outcomes associated with faking. These models can be categorized into three approaches depending on the focus: explanative models which describe the antecedents of faking, operational models which explains the rationale behind the decision to fake, and process models which view faking as a feedback loop. One persistent problem in existing frameworks is that most of them fail to capture the multi-dimensional nature of applicant faking behavior.

The current study serves as a partial test of one of the process models developed by (Griffith et al., 2011), the TCC model, which categorized faking behavior into five different response sets: honest responding, self-presentation, exaggeration, reactive responding, and fraudulent responding. A modified model was developed to answer the following research questions: 1) Will applicants exhibit different patterns of faking? 2) How will different faking behavior relate to specific faking outcomes? 3) Will Ethical Relativism and Perceived Behavioral Control influence people's faking behaviors, and, 4) Are the TCC faking "types" distinct?

In terms of the first research question, the current study conducted an initial test of the TCC response sets. Since the pattern of self-presentation is highly depending on situation factors (job and desirable employee characteristics for that job) and people's self-concept (how people perceive themselves as compared to the ideal employee image), no specific relationships were hypothesized for this thesis. Therefore, in the current study, self-presentation was not included in the test of theory and analysis process. In general, the results suggested that applicants do in fact fake differently. More than one response set contributed to observed faking outcomes which suggested that people can fake in different ways. For example, both the exaggeration response set ($b=.19, p<.05$) and fraudulent responding response set ($b=.14, p<.05$) both positively correlated with observed faking. In addition, the honest responding response set was negatively related with faking ($b=-.15, p<.05$), which suggested that applicants who self-reported as answering

honestly demonstrated a lower difference score between the research and applicant conditions. The study also examined how motivation to get the job would have an impact on applicant's response set, and the results suggested that motivation to get the job was significantly related to exaggeration ($b=.15, p<.05$) and fraudulent responding ($b=.11, p<.05$), suggesting that people with higher motivation to get the job were more likely to engage in exaggeration and fraudulent responding forms of faking. The figures shown below visualized the patterns expected in the theory and patterns observed in the sample in terms of difference scores.

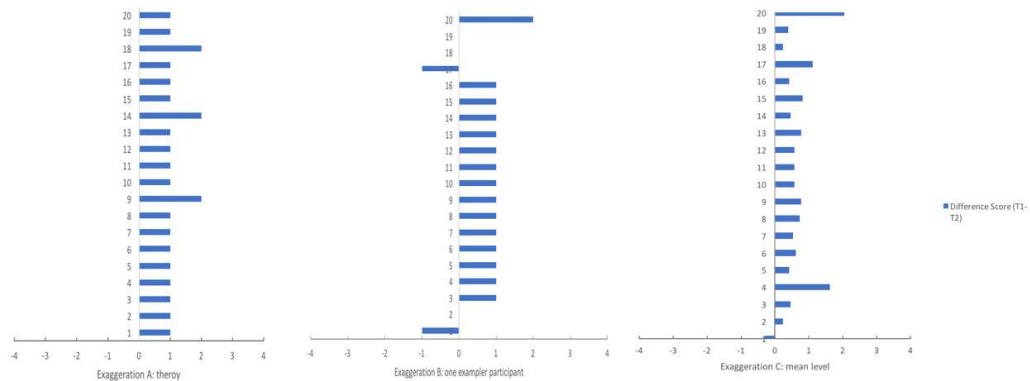


Figure 7. Patterns of difference scores for people engaged in exaggeration form of faking.

Regarding to exaggeration type of faking, theory predict that applicants will fake consistently in positive manner with small magnitude as demonstrated in *Figure 7 Exaggeration A*. *Figure 7 Exaggeration B* showed a randomly selected participant engaged in exaggeration and *Figure 7 Exaggeration C* showed the pattern of the average scores for all the participants categorized as engaging in exaggeration type of faking behaviors. Similarly, in *Figure 8*, people engaged in reactive responding are expected to observe more random faking behaviors where

participants answered some of the questions in the right direction and some of the personality items in the wrong directions as visualized in *Figure 8 Reactive Responding A*. *Figure 8B* showed the pattern of a randomly chosen participant categorized within reactive responding group and *Figure 8C* demonstrated the average scores for all the participants categorized as engaging in reactive responding.

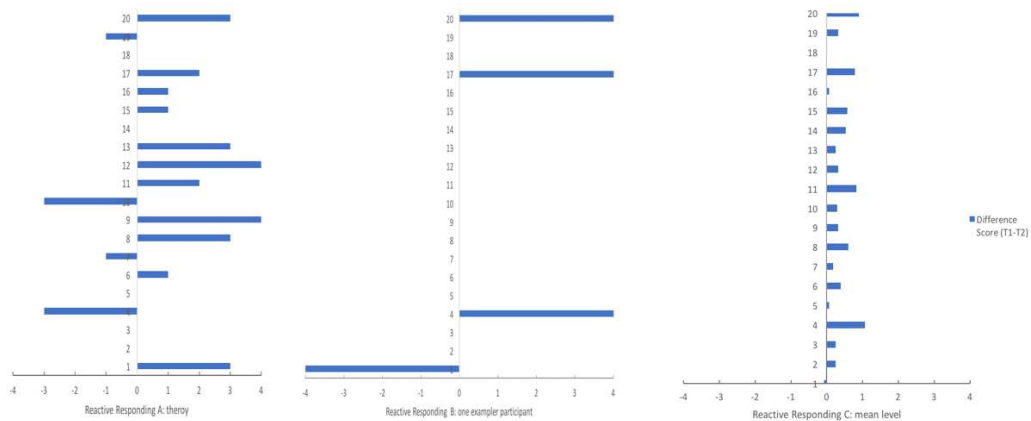


Figure 8. Patterns of difference scores for people engaged in reactive responding form of faking.

In addition, the theory proposed that people engaged in fraudulent responding form of faking will observe faking in the right direction most of the time with large magnitude as shown in *Figure 9 Fraudulent Responding A*. Based on the pattern drawn on a randomly chosen participant engaging in fraudulent responding form of faking (*Figure 9 Fraudulent Responding B*) and the pattern drawn based on the average scores of all the participants categorized as engaging in fraudulent responding (*Figure 9 Fraudulent Responding C*), the study results showed preliminary support for the TCC response set and its impact on faking outcomes.

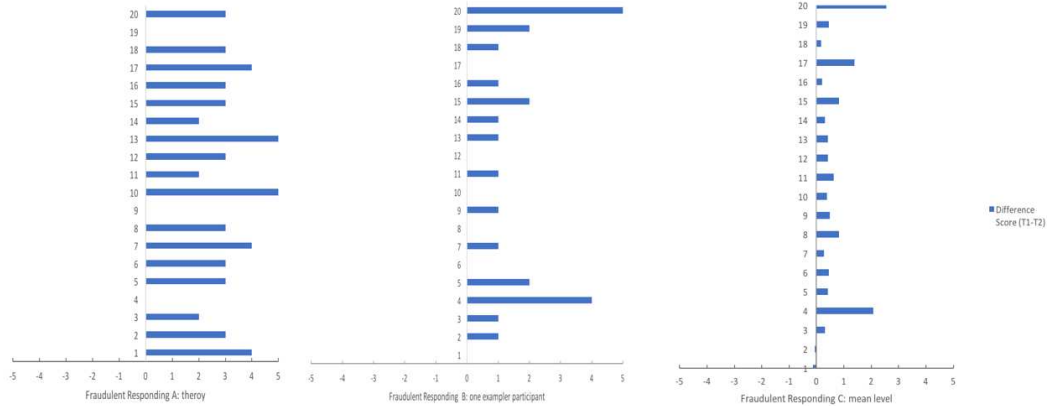


Figure 9. Patterns of difference scores for people engaged in fraudulent responding form of faking.

The second research question examined how different faking behaviors affect specific faking outcomes. The results suggested that the four TCC response sets (honest, exaggeration, reactive responding, and fraudulent responding response set) were all significantly related to the observation of applicant faking outcome of either magnitude or variability or both. Specifically, exaggeration significantly positively correlated to both faking magnitude ($b=.19, p<.05$) and faking variability ($b=.13, p<.05$), meaning that people that engage in exaggeration related behavior will demonstrate a larger magnitude of faking and more variability in the range of observed faking. Regarding the reactive responding response set, the results suggested that reactive responding is significantly positively related to faking variability ($b=.18, p<.05$). In addition, fraudulent responding was significantly related to faking magnitude ($b=.14, p<.05$), meaning that people with higher level of fraudulent responding will demonstrate a larger magnitude of observed faking scores.

To further assess the effect of different faking behavior on the magnitude and variability of faking, participants were categorized based on their scores on the each of the TCC response sets, and the results suggest that people engaged in exaggeration had medium magnitude of faking ($d=.66$) and large variability of faking ($d=.82$). Applicants engaged in reactive responding had an observed medium to large variability of faking ($d=.73$). Lastly, people engaged in fraudulent responding observed medium magnitude ($d=.59$) and large variability ($d=1.23$) of observed faking scores. Therefore, the data provided some evidence that the different types of faking behaviors resulted in different patterns of faking outcomes.

The third research question examined the role of Ethical Relativism and Perceived Behavioral Control on faking behaviors. Ethical Relativism was found to be positively related to TCC reactive responding ($b=.19, p<.05$) and fraudulent responding ($b=.31, p<.05$), suggesting that people who believed in ethical relativism were more likely to engage in reactive responding and fraudulent responding. Regarding Perceived Behavioral Control(PBC), the results suggested that Perceived Behavioral Control was negatively related to TCC honest response set ($b=-.24, p<.05$), suggesting that people who reported a higher faking efficacy were less likely engage in honest response behaviors. In contrast, PBC positively related to Reactive Responding ($b=.11, p<.05$) and Fraudulent Responding ($b=.39, p<.05$).

The last research question examined whether the TCC response sets were distinct from each other. The difference score cluster analysis results did show some trends. The results suggested that people engaged in exaggeration had larger magnitude of difference scores than people engaged in reactive responding and fraudulent responding across all three clusters. In addition, people engaged in fraudulent responding had higher difference scores than people engaged in reactive responding for cluster 1 and cluster 3, but had a slightly lower difference score than people engaged in reactive responding for cluster 2. However, the results of cluster analysis were not totally consistent with what the theory predicted. To elaborate, participants engaging in fraudulent responding were expected to demonstrate faking with higher magnitude, but the results showed that for people engaged in exaggeration showed higher magnitude of faking than people engaged in fraudulent responding. One of the reason to this can be the limited number of participants within each TCC response sets, studies with larger sample size needed to be conducted before drawing a solid conclusion. Besides of the cluster analysis, correlation analysis also suggested that Exaggeration was significantly correlated with Self –Presentation ($r=.32, p<.05$), Reactive Responding ($r=.41, p<.05$), Fraudulent Responding ($r=.71, p<.05$) and Honestly responding ($r=-.44, p<.05$). In addition, Reactive responding was significantly correlated with Fraudulent responding ($r=.44, p<.05$) and Honest responding ($r=-.21, p<.05$). Fraudulent responding was negatively correlated with Honest responding ($r=-.55, p<.05$). Since the correlation coefficient of each pair of the TCC response set were mostly

small to medium, it suggested that the strength of the linear association among the TCC response set were medium strong to weak. That is, the TCC response sets were not highly related with each other. Therefore, there seems to be some preliminary evidence that different types of TCC responses are relatively different.

In summary, the results of the study provide some initial support for the TCC theory and demonstrated that people fake differently. Specifically, the three types of faking behaviors (exaggeration, reactive responding and fraudulent responding) all positively related to the observation of faking. In addition, different types of faking behaviors will influence faking magnitude and variability in different ways. For faking magnitude, Exaggeration and fraudulent responding types of faking both had a medium effect on faking magnitude. In addition, for faking variability, exaggeration and fraudulent responding both had a large effect on faking variability, and reactive responding had a medium to large effect on faking variability. Other than TCC theory, the study was also in support of Vroom's expectancy theory (1964), the results suggested that motivation to get the job had positive impacts on both exaggeration and fraudulent responding types of faking. In addition, perceived control also found to be significantly related to both reactive responding and fraudulent responding types of faking, which support the existing findings related to planned behaviors.

Even though the results aligned with the general pattern of prediction stated in the hypothesis, some of the hypothesis were not supported, at least with the current sample. Firstly, the original hypothesis H1a predicted that motivation to get

the job would positively related to honest responding based on the literature. However, the way it was framed was not likely to be supported because of the questionable logic issue. The results suggested that motivation to get the job was not significantly related to honest responding (H1a) which provides more sound logic that motivation to get the job should not predict both honest responding and faking responding.

In addition, the results also suggested that motivation was not significantly related to reactive responding (4a). One of the possible reasons for the non-significant effect of motivation on the reactive response set could be that motivation to get the job might affect people's reactive responding briefly but the effect may fade since reactive responding is an impulsive behavior. That is, motivation might have an effect on TCC reactive responding, but the effect does not last long during the entire process. In addition, reactive responding was not significantly related to faking magnitude (H5a), unlike the prediction. The reason for that could still lie in the short duration of the impact of motivation, so that people only reactively respond to some of the questions and answer the majority of them honestly. This can also be caused by the fact that applicants engaging in reactive responding might fail to fake in the right direction. By investigating the item level faking scores, the results suggested that for people engaged in reactive responding, only 32.52% of them faked in the correct direction while 8.33% of them fake in the wrong direction. Therefore, by looking at the mean difference scores across the items, the effect of reactive responding on faking magnitude

might be cancelled out. This also led to the non-significant result of H7a (regarding to faking magnitude). Moreover, hypothesis H1b and H1c predicted that there will be non-significant relationship between the TCC honest response set and faking magnitude and variability, the results turned out that there were negative relationships which better support our theory. That is, honest responding should be negatively related to applicant faking behaviors.

Ethical relativism was found to have no relationship with the TCC honest response (H2a), which is against our prediction. The reason could be that ethical positions will not play a role until people realize that there is opportunity to fake. For people determined to respond honestly, the consideration about ethical positions will not be initiated until they see the opportunity to fake. That is, if during the applicant condition, applicants observed others faking the assessments, ethical relativism may start to play a role in the relationship. H9b was not supported since there was no significant relationship between fraudulent responding and faking variability. One of the explanation to this is that people engaged in fraudulent responding might have difficulty in admitting the behavior even if they did engage in it and there might be larger sample of participants engaging in fraudulent responding that has faked the TCC fraudulent responding scale that has been excluded from the analysis process. Therefore, if a larger sample of people engaged in fraudulent responding was captured, it might be possible to find evidence to support the hypothesis.

Lastly, the hypothesis regarding to the effect size of faking magnitude (H3d) and faking variability (H3e) were not supported for the exaggeration model. Those hypothesis predicted that people engaged in exaggeration will have small magnitude and small variability of faking, but the results suggested large effect for both magnitude and variability. In addition, H11b predicted people engaged in fraudulent responding will observe small magnitude of faking but the results suggested that the effect is large. Since the sample size for both exaggeration and fraudulent responding were below 30 when we categorized them, results should be viewed conservatively and care should be made in making definitive interpretations. However, the preliminary results still provided valuable insights on those applicants since their faking magnitude and variability were significantly different from the remainder of the applicants.

Contribution

Despite some of the hypotheses not being supported, the study still makes contributions to the field. Some of the contributions are as follows: 1) the study and results helps to differentiate between faking behavior and faking outcomes; 2) provided insights and approaches to examining faking outcomes (in terms of magnitude and variability); and 3) provides an initial test of the TCC theory.

Previous research has not clearly distinguished between faking behaviors and faking outcomes. The common trend in the existing academic literature is for researchers to simply categorize applicants' behavior by either faking or not faking. This dichotomous approach underestimates the complexity of faking and is a

detriment to the observation of real faking behaviors. In addition, the simple dichotomous viewpoint provides no insight into the nature and pattern of applicant faking behaviors. When researchers fail to address faking behaviors in a multi-faceted approach, it is hard to interpret findings which are ambiguous or subtle. This thesis distinguished between faking behaviors and faking outcomes to address this problem.

Previously, applicant faking behaviors were conceived as being one-dimensional; more recently, research has suggested that applicant faking behavior is a complex response that cannot be represented by a single behavior (Burns & Christiansen, 2012). In the current study, applicant faking behaviors were examined through the lenses of different response sets: honest, self-presentation, exaggeration, reactive responding, and fraudulent responding. Studying applicant faking behaviors via multiple response sets may allow more accurate and nuanced prediction of outcomes. The current study found that the subjects did, in fact, engage in different types of faking behavior and supports the notion that faking behavior can be examined as multiple behaviors sets.

The study also found that different types of faking behavior might lead to different faking outcomes. The current study examined also faking outcomes from two perspectives: faking magnitude and faking variability. Firstly, the current study further investigates faking magnitude using Cohen's d effect size method. In addition, the current study suggests a new approach to assess faking variability: by looking at the Cohen's d effect size of the standard deviation. In addition, the study

examined whether people only fake on certain items or if they have a consistent pattern of faking.

Importantly, the current study tested the TCC theory for the first time. TCC theory proposes that people fake differently and that there are diverse faking behaviors including: honest, self-presentation, exaggeration, reactive responding and fraudulent responding. Although not every type of faking behavior was found to be significantly related to actual faking (the difference between the T1 and T2 scores), the results do suggest that exaggeration and fraudulent response types significantly predicted actual faking behaviors. Note that the strength of the prediction varies depending on the type of behavior. The results further support the contention that faking behaviors need to be understood as multiple behaviors sets.

Limitation and Future Research

There are several limitations to the current study. One limitation is that the study utilized a single construct and failed to look at personality dimensions other than conscientiousness. Therefore, it is difficult to apply the findings in other personality dimensions. Future research could look at other personality dimensions and see if the results could be generalized and applied to personality measures as a whole as well as look at how faking may impact composite measures that contain multiple constructs. Once the researchers identify a clear pattern for each of the personality dimensions, distinct profiles of faking can be developed. These will help to identify different types of TCC fakers. In addition, when looking at other

personality dimensions, ethical relativism and perceived behavioral control might have a different effect on people's decisions related to faking behavior, which may then lead to different faking outcomes. It is necessary to examine dimension-specific predictors for each type of faking behavior.

Another issue is that the current study does not use large samples when categorizing subjects by TCC response, so it is possible that these categories are not representative enough to draw conclusions from. Future studies could conduct studies using a larger sample pool to allow more cases when categorizing subjects by different types of faking behavior. Moreover, researchers could also look at cross-cultural samples and compare the linkage between TCC response set and faking outcomes.

Also, when investigating the model in different cultural contexts, ethical relativism and perceived behavioral control may have a different effect on the subjects' TCC response sets. Once researchers have conducted studies of faking behavior and faking outcomes across different cultures, it is valuable to examine if there are general patterns of faking behavior and if so, what these behaviors look like. In addition, even though the study did not find significant gender difference in faking, it is possible that gender plays an important role in predicting applicant faking behaviors in other cultures.

Lastly, since the method used to study the effect size of faking variability was relatively new, future research could conduct validity studies on the method to verify the findings of the current study. It is important to develop a method that can

accurately capture the consistency of faking across the personality items. As applicants only faked in some of the personality items, it is suggested that we use an effective method to detect and remove these individual responses, as opposed to removing the applicant from the whole applicant pool.

Reference

- Ajzen, I. (1991). e theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179-211.
- Attardo, S., & Sage, P. (2014). *Encyclopedia of Humor Studies*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Bing, M. N., Davison, H. K., & Smothers, J. (2014). Item-level Frame-of-reference effects in personality testing: An investigation of incremental validity in an organizational setting. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 22(2), 165-178. 10.1111/ijsa.12066
- Birkeland, S. A., Manson, T. M., Kisamore, J. L., Brannick, M. T., & Smith, M. A. (2006). A Meta-Analytic investigation of job applicant faking on personality measures. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 14(4), 317-335. 10.1111/j.1468-2389.2006.00354.x
- Bok, S. G. (1979). *Lying: Moral Choice in Public and Private Life*. *Michigan Law Review*, 77(3), 539. doi:10.2307/1288137
- Boyce, A. S. (2005, April). An investigation of faking: Its antecedents and impacts in applicant settings. Paper presented in D. Ones (Chair) Usefulness of Social Desirability Scales, Faking Scores, and Potential Alternatives at the 20th annual conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Los Angeles, CA.

- Boyle, G. J. (2008). Critique of the five-factor model of personality. In G. J. Boyle, G. Matthews & D. H. Saklofske (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of personality theory and assessment, vol 1: Personality theories and models; the SAGE handbook of personality theory and assessment, vol 1: Personality theories and models* (pp. 295-312, Chapter xxiv, 783 Pages) Sage Publications, Inc, Thousand Oaks, CA.
doi:<http://dx.doi.org.portal.lib.fit.edu/10.4135/9781849200462.n14>
- Burke, M., & Carman, K. (2017). You can be too thin (but not too tall): Social desirability bias in self-reports of weight and height. *Economics & Human Biology*, 27, 198-222. 10.1016/j.ehb.2017.06.002
- Burns, G. N., & Christiansen, N. D. (2011). Methods of measuring faking behavior. *Human Performance*, 24(4), 358-372.
10.1080/08959285.2011.597473
- Campbell-Bridges, W. (2013). *Personality, job performance, and job satisfaction in non-profit organizations* (Order No. 1537153). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global: Business; ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global: Health & Medicine; ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global: Social Sciences. (1357068000). Retrieved from <https://search-proquestcom.portal.lib.fit.edu/docview/1357068000?accountid=27313>
- Choca, J., & ProQuest CSA (Firm). (2013). *The rorschach inkblot test: An interpretive guide for clinicians* (1st ed.). Washington, D.C: American Psychological Association.10.1037/14039-000

- CHRISTIANSEN, N. D., GOFFIN, R. D., JOHNSTON, N. G., &
ROTHSTEIN, M. G. (1994). CORRECTING THE 16PF FOR FAKING:
EFFECTS ON CRITERION-RELATED VALIDITY AND
INDIVIDUAL HIRING DECISIONS. *Personnel Psychology*, 47(4),
847-860. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.1994.tb01581.x
- Chung, J. Y., Baik, H., & Lee, C. (2017). The role of perceived behavioural control
in the constraint-negotiation process: The case of solo travel. *Leisure
Studies*, 36(4), 481. 10.1080/02614367.2016.1190780
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.).
Hillsdale, N.J: L. Erlbaum Associates.
- Converse, P. D., and F. L. Oswald.(2006) Forcing choices in personality
measurement: Benefits and limitations. In *A closer examination of
applicant faking behavior*, ed. R. Griffith. Greenwich, CT: Information
Age Publishing, in press
- Cristea, M., & Gheorghiu, A. (2016). Attitude, perceived behavioral control, and
intention to adopt risky behaviors. *Transportation Research Part F:
Traffic Psychology and Behaviour*, 43, 157-165.
10.1016/j.trf.2016.10.004
- Cronbach, L. J. (1950). Further evidence on response sets and test design.
Educational and Psychological Measurement, 10, 3-31.

- Dannenbaum, S. E., & Lanyon, R. I. (1993). The use of subtle items in detecting deception. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 61(3), 501-510.
10.1207/s15327752jpa6103_6
- Dreber, A., & Johannesson, M. (2008). Gender differences in deception. *Economics Letters*, 99(1), 197-199.
10.1016/j.econlet.2007.06.027
- Ellingson, J. E. (2011). People Fake Only When They Need to Fake¹. *New Perspectives on Faking in Personality Assessment*, 19-33.
doi:10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195387476.003.0014
- Erickson, P. B. (2004, May 16). Employer hiring tests grow sophisticated in quest for insight about applicants. *Knight Ridder Tribune Business News*, 1. faking behavior. *Personnel Review*, 36, 341–355.
- Forsyth, D. R. (1980). A taxonomy of ethical ideologies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 39(1), 175.
- Gammage, K. (2014). Self-presentation
- Gibby, R. E., & Zickar, M. J. (2008). A HISTORY OF THE EARLY DAYS OF PERSONALITY TESTING IN AMERICAN INDUSTRY: An obsession with adjustment. *History of Psychology*, 11(3), 164-184.
10.1037/a0013041
- Goffin, R. D., & Boyd, A. C. (2009). Faking and personality assessment in personnel selection: Advancing models of faking. *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie Canadienne*, 50(3), 151-160. 10.1037/a0015946

- Grieve, R., & Elliott, J. (2013). Cyberfaking: I can, so I will? intentions to fake in online psychological testing. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking*, 16(5), 364-369. 10.1089/cyber.2012.0271
- Griffith, R. L., Chmielowski, T., & Yoshita, Y. (2007). Do applicants fake? An examination of the frequency of applicant
- Griffith, R. L., Malm, T., English, A., Yoshita, Y., & Gujar, A. (2006). Applicant faking behavior: Teasing apart the influence of situational variance, cognitive biases, and individual differences. In R. L. Griffith & M. H. Peterson (Eds.), *A closer examination of applicant faking behavior* (pp. 151–178). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
- Griffith, R.L. & Robie, C. (2012). Personality Testing and the “F Word”: Revisiting Seven Questions about Faking. In Tett, R. & Christiansen, N. (Eds.) *Handbook of Personality at Work*.
- Griffith, R.L., Lee, L.M., Peterson, M.H. & Zickar, M.J. (2011). First Dates and Little White Lies: A Trait Contract Classification Theory of Applicant Faking Behavior. *Human Performance*, 24, 4, 338-357.
- Hayes, T. L. (2013). Matthias Ziegler, Carolyn MacCann, and Richard D. Roberts. (eds.). *New Perspectives on Faking in Personality Assessment*. Oxford, UK: Cambridge University Press, 2012, 364 pages, \$59.95, hardcover: BOOK REVIEWS. *Personnel Psychology*, 66(3), 798-801.
doi:10.1111/peps.12045_5

- Heller, M. (2005). Court ruling that employer's integrity test violated ADA could open door to litigation. *Workforce Management*, 84(9), 74–77.
- Hendrickson, G. (1934). Some Assumptions Involved in Personality Measurement. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, 2(3), 243-249.
doi:10.1080/00220973.1934.11009940
- Highhouse, S., Brooks, M. E., & Wang, Y. (2016). Status seeking and manipulative Self-presentation. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 24(4), 352-361. 10.1111/ijsa.12153
- Hogue, M., Levashina, J., & Hang, H. (2012). Will I Fake It? The Interplay of Gender, Machiavellianism, and Self-monitoring on Strategies for Honesty in Job Interviews. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 117(2), 399-411.
doi:10.1007/s10551-012-1525-x
- Hough, T. R., & Oswald, F. L. (2008). Personality testing and industrial–organizational psychology: Reflections, progress, and prospects. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 1, 272–290.
- Humm, D. G. (1944). Discussion of Dorcus' study of the Humm-Wadsworth Temperament Scale. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 28(6), 527-529.
doi:10.1037/h0056426
- Hurtz, G. M., & Donovan, J. J. (2000). Personality and job performance: The big five revisited. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(6), 869-879.
10.1037/0021-9010.85.6.869

- Jiang, C., Wang, D., & Zhou, F. (2009). PERSONALITY TRAITS AND JOB PERFORMANCE IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS IN CHINA. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37(4), 451-457. Retrieved from <https://search-proquest-com.portal.lib.fit.edu/docview/209936973?accountid=27313>
- John, O. P., & Robins, R. W. (1994). Accuracy and bias in self-perception: Individual differences in self-enhancement and the role of narcissism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 66(1), 206-219. 10.1037/0022-3514.66.1.206
- Johnson, J. A., Hogan, R. (2006). A socioanalytic view of faking. In R., Griffith, M. H. Peterson, (Eds.), *A closer examination of applicant faking* (pp. 209-231).
- Kashif, M., Zarkada, A., & Ramayah, T. (2018;2016;). The impact of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control on managers' intentions to behave ethically. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 29(5-6), 481-21. 10.1080/14783363.2016.1209970
- Kiefer, C., & Benit, N. (2016). What is applicant faking behavior? A review on the current state of theory and modeling techniques. *Journal of European Psychology Students*, 7(1), 9-19. 10.5334/jeps.345
- Kolb, R. W. (2008). *Encyclopedia of Business Ethics and Society*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications, Inc.

- König, C. J., Merz, A., & Trauffer, N. (2012). What is in applicants' minds when they fill out a personality test? insights from a qualitative study. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 20(4), 442-452. 10.1111/ijsa.12007
- König, C. J., Steiner Thommen, L. A., Wittwer, A., & Kleinmann, M. (2017). Are observer ratings of applicants' personality also faked? yes, but less than self-reports. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 25(2), 183-192. 10.1111/ijsa.12171
- Kreuz, R., & Riordan, M. (2014). exaggeration
- Krosnick, J. A. (1991). Response strategies for coping with the cognitive demands of attitude measures in surveys. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 5(3), 213-236. 10.1002/acp.2350050305
- Kuncel, N. R., & Borneman, M. J. (2007). Toward a new method of detecting deliberately faked personality tests: The use of idiosyncratic item responses. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 15(2), 220-231. 10.1111/j.1468-2389.2007.00383.x
- Leary, M. R., & Kowalski, R. M. (1990). Impression management: A literature review and two-component model. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107, 34-47.
- Levashina, J., & Campion, M. A. (2006). A model of faking likelihood in the employment interview. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 14(4), 299-316. 10.1111/j.1468-2389.2006.00353.x

- Marcus, B. (2009). 'faking' from the applicant's perspective: A theory of self-presentation in personnel selection settings. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 17(4), 417. 10.1111/j.1468-2389.2009.00483.x
- McDonald, G. (2010). Ethical relativism vs absolutism: Research implications. *European Business Review*, 22(4), 446-464. 10.1108/09555341011056203
- McFarland, L. A., & Ryan, A. M. (2000). Variance in faking across noncognitive measures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(5), 812-821. 10.1037/0021-9010.85.5.812
- Mesmer-Magnus, J., & Viswesvaran, C. (2006). Assessing response distortion in personality tests: A review of research designs and analytic strategies. In R. Griflith & M. Peterson (Eds.), *A closer examination of applicant faking behavior* (pp. 85-113).
- Mlinaric, V., Podlesek, A. (2013). Item context effects on Big Five personality measures. *Review of Psychology*, 20(1-2): 23-28
- MORGESON, F. P., CAMPION, M. A., DIPBOYE, R. L., HOLLENBECK, J. R., MURPHY, K., & SCHMITT, N. (2007). are we getting fooled again? coming to terms with limitations in the use of personality tests for personnel selection. *Personnel Psychology*, 60(4), 1029-1049. 10.1111/j.1744-6570.2007.00100.x

- Motowidlo, S. J., Borman, W. C., & Schmit, M. J. (1997). A theory of individual differences in task and contextual performance. *Human Performance*, 10, 71-83
- Mueller-Hanson, R. A. (2002). Impression management strategy and faking behavior in the self-report measurement of personality
- ONES, D. S., DILCHERT, S., VISWESVARAN, C., & JUDGE, T. A. (2007). in support of personality assessment in organizational settings. *Personnel Psychology*, 60(4), 995-1027. 10.1111/j.1744-6570.2007.00099.x
- Pace, V. L., & Borman, W. C. (2006). The use of warnings to discourage faking on noncognitive inventories. Chapter in R. Griffith (Ed.), *A closer examination of applicant faking behavior* (281-302). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing, Inc
- Paulhus, D. L. (1986). Self-Deception and Impression Management in Test Responses. *Personality Assessment via Questionnaires*, 143-165. doi:10.1007/978-3-642-70751-3_8
- Paulhus, D. L. (2002). Socially desirable responding: The evolution of a construct. In H. I. Braun, D. N. Jackson, & D. E. Wiley (Eds.), *The role of constructs in psychological and educational measurement* (pp. 49-69). Mahwah, NJ, US: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Perunicic Mladenovic, I., & Knezevic, G. (2018). Faking amorality: An ability elusive to both measures of substance and style. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 120, 95-101. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2017.08.027

- Pinder CC. 1998. *Work Motivation in Organizational Behavior*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall
- Piotrowski, N. A., & EBSCO Publishing (Firm). (2010). *Psychology & mental health*. Pasadena, Calif: Salem Press.
- Pita, M. D. (2017). An integrated model of attitude theory and applicant faking behavior
- Rai, T. S., & Holyoak, K. J. (2013). Exposure to moral relativism compromises moral behavior. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 49(6), 995-1001. 10.1016/j.jesp.2013.06.008
- Reeder, M. C., & Ryan, A. M. (2011). Methods for Correcting for Faking. *New Perspectives on Faking in Personality Assessment*, 131-150.
doi:10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195387476.003.0041
- Richard L. Griffith, Lindsey M. Lee, Mitchell H. Peterson & Michael J. Zickar (2011): First Dates and Little White Lies: A Trait Contract Classification Theory of Applicant Faking Behavior, *Human Performance*, 24:4, 338-357
- Robie, C., Brown, D. J., & Beaty, J. C. (2007). Do people fake on personality inventories? A verbal protocol analysis. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 21(4), 489-509. 10.1007/s10869-007-9038-9

- Röhner, J., Schröder-Abé, M., & Schütz, A. (2011). Exaggeration is harder than understatement, but practice makes perfect: Faking success in the IAT. *Experimental Psychology*, 58(6), 464-472. 10.1027/1618-3169/a000114
- Rosse, J. G., Stecher, M. D., Miller, J. L., & Levin, R. A. (1998). The impact of response distortion on preemployment personality testing and hiring decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(4), 634-644. 10.1037/0021-9010.83.4.634
- Rothstein, M. G., & Goffin, R. D. (2006). The use of personality measures in personnel selection: What does current research support? *Human Resource Management Review*, 16(2), 155-180. 10.1016/j.hrmr.2006.03.004
- Ryan, A. M., Ployhart, R. E., & Friedel, L. A. (1998). Using personality testing to reduce adverse impact: A cautionary note. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(2), 298-307
- Ryan, A.M., & Boyce, A.S. (2006). What do we know and where do we go? Practical directions for faking research. In R.L.Griffith & M. H. Peterson (Eds.), *A closer examination of applicant faking behavior* (pp. 357-371)

- Schoderbek, P. P., & Deshpande, S. P. (1996). Impression management, overclaiming, and perceived unethical conduct: The role of male and female managers. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 15(4), 409-414. doi:10.1007/bf00380361
- Seiler, S.N., & Kuncel, N.R. (2005, April). Modeling the individual difference determinants of faking: Integration and extension. Paper presented at the 20th annual conference of Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Los Angeles.
- Sjoberg, L. (2015). Locating relevance in security studies. *Perspectives on Politics*, 13(2), 396-398. 10.1017/S1537592715000171
- Snell, A. F., Sydell, E. J., & Lueke, S. B. (1999). Towards a Theory of Applicant Faking: Integrating Studies of Deception. *Human Resource Management Review*, 9(2), 219-242. doi:10.1016/s1053-4822(99)00019-4
- Sullivan, L. E. (2009). *The SAGE Glossary of the Social and Behavioral Sciences*. London: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Sulsky, L. M., Marcus, J., & MacDonald, H. A. (2015). Examining Ethicality Judgements of Theft Behavior: The Role of Moral Relativism. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 31(3), 383-398. doi:10.1007/s10869-015-9418-5

- Tett, R.P., Anderson, M.G., Ho, C.L., Yang, T.S., Huang, L. and Hanvongse, A. (2006) 'Seven nested questions about faking on personality tests: An overview and interactionist model of item-level response distortion', in R.L. Griffith and M.H. Peterson (eds), *A Closer Examination of Applicant Faking Behavior*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing, pp. 43–83
- Vane, J. R., Vane, J. R., Guarnaccia, V. J., & Guarnaccia, V. J. (1989). Personality theory and personality assessment measures: How helpful to the clinician? *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 45(1), 5-19. 10.1002/1097-4679(198901)45:1<5::AID-JCLP2270450102>3.0.CO;2-P
- Vroom, Victor H. 1964. *Work and Motivation*. New York: John Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Ward, J. (2017). What are you doing on tinder? impression management on a matchmaking mobile app. *Information Communication and Society*, 20(11), 1644-1659. doi:10.1080/1369118X.2016.1252412
- Wolff, W., & ProQuest CSA (Firm). (1947). *What is psychology: A basic survey*. New York: Grune & Stratton.
- Zickar, M. J., Gibby, R. E. (2006). A history of faking and socially desirable responding on personality tests. In Griffith, R. L., Peterson, M. H. (Eds.), *A closer examination of applicant faking behaviour* (pp. 21-42). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.

- Zickar, M. J., Gibby, R. E., & Robie, C. (2004). Uncovering faking samples in applicant, incumbent, and experimental data sets: An application of mixed-model item response theory. *Organizational Research Methods*, 7(2), 168-190. 10.1177/1094428104263674
- Ziegler, M., & Bu'chner, M. (2009). Modeling socially desirable responding and its effects. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 69, 548-565.
- Zolait, A. H. S. (2014). The nature and components of perceived behavioural control as an element of theory of planned behaviour. *Behaviour & Information Technology*, 33(1), 65-85. 10.1080/0144929X.2011.630419

Appendix A

Descriptive Statistics

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Motivation	3.16	0.6	-0.365	0.3
Honest Responding	4.32	0.74	-1.26	2.21
Self-presentation	3.78	0.89	-0.9	0.93
Exaggeration Responding	2.38	0.91	0.57	0.18
Reactive Responding	2.1	0.93	0.92	0.81
Fraudulent Responding	2.21	1.01	0.76	0.13
Ethical Relativism	2.84	0.67	0.003	-0.027
Perceived Behavioral Control	2.76	0.93	-0.001	-0.56
Conscientiousness T2 (Honest)	5.17	0.56	-1.52	0.12
Conscientiousness T1 (Faking)	5.53	0.43	-0.92	8.14

Appendix B: Survey Measures

Motivation to get the Job

There are 7 items:

1. I am very interested in being hired for a new job.
2. I would do whatever is necessary to be hired for a new job.
3. I have recently applied to multiple jobs that are equally interesting to me.
4. I would rather work at the jobs I have recently applied to than my current job.
5. I am very interested in getting a job.
6. I would do whatever is necessary to get a job.
7. I have recently applied to multiple jobs that are equally interesting to me.

Response Set (TCC)

There are 15 items, answering questions “In general, when responding to a personality test in an applicant setting, I ...”

1. Portray the image I want to.
2. Try to impress the prospective employer with my strength.
3. Try to create a positive impression about myself.
4. Exaggerate my positive qualities.
5. Underestimate my flaws.
6. Respond to the questions by making myself look a little better than I really am.
7. Quickly choose the best response option without considering what is being asked.
8. Respond without paying much attention to the meaning of the items.
9. Answer the items without thinking about how my responses fit with the position I am applying for.
10. Choose the best response regardless of whether it is an accurate description of me.
11. Alter my responses in order to improve my chances of getting the job.
12. Choose the responses that I believe the employer is looking for.
13. Respond to the questions with complete honesty.
14. Choose the responses that most accurately describe me.
15. Choose the responses that reflect my true self.

Perceived Control

There are 4 items:

1. I am confident that I can improve my score on a personality test by altering my responses (i.e., fake a personality test).
2. Successfully increasing my personality test score is under my control.
3. It will be easy for me to successfully increase my score on a personality test.
4. Increasing my personality test score is out of my control.

Ethical Relativism

There are 10 items:

1. There are no ethical principles that are so important that they should be a part of any code of ethics.
2. What is ethical varies from one situation and society to another.
3. Moral standards should be seen as being individualistic; what one person considers to be moral may be judged to be immoral by another person.
4. Different types of morality cannot be compared as to “rightness.”
5. Questions of what is ethical for everyone can never be resolved since what is moral or immoral is up to the individual.
6. Moral standards are simply personal rules that indicate how a person should behave, and are not to be applied in making judgments of others.
7. Ethical considerations in interpersonal relations are so complex that individuals should be allowed to formulate their own individual codes.
8. Rigidly codifying an ethical position that prevents certain types of actions could stand in the way of better human relations and adjustment.
9. No rule concerning lying can be formulated; whether a lie is permissible or not permissible totally depends upon the situation.
10. Whether a lie is judged to be moral or immoral depends upon the circumstances surrounding the action.

Conscientiousness

Personality dimension of conscientiousness was measured using the Summated Conscientiousness Scale (Griffith et al., 2007) in the current study. There are 20 items in the Summated Conscientiousness Scale (SCS) measure, and participants will rate their level of agreement on the statement on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree.

1. In order to be successful, it is necessary for me to set goals.
2. I feel it is important to complete all of the tasks in a project and not cut corners.
3. I work harder than most people do in general.
4. If I can get away with it, I will take an extra break while completing a project.
5. People rely on me to complete duties/tasks.
6. I have set goals for my future.
7. I am usually considered a dedicated individual.
8. I conduct myself in a safe manner at all times.
9. I engage in activities that go above and beyond what I am expected.
10. I accept responsibility for my actions.
11. Items in my work area are neatly organized.
12. I strive for excellence in everything I do.
13. I complete projects from start to finish.
14. I plan activities in advance.
15. It is easy for me to stay focused on challenging tasks.
16. I show that I am responsible to others.
17. Sometimes when I borrow something, I return it broken or damaged.
18. Friends say that I am a trustworthy individual.
19. Being given important tasks is important to me.
20. I delay completing projects if they can be finished tomorrow.