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I Warned You! Applicant Reactions to Different Types of Warnings Against Faking on Personality Tests: An Organizational Justice, Trust and Affect-Based Perspective

Vanessa M. Lammers
vmlv23@mail.umsl.edu

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Vanessa M. Lammers
M.A. in Psychology with an Emphasis in Industrial/Organizational, May 2012,
University of Missouri-St. Louis
B.A. in Psychology, May 2008, Occidental College

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Advisory Committee

Therese Macan, Ph.D.
Chairperson

Stephanie Merritt, Ph.D.

John Meriac, Ph.D.

Lara Zwarun, Ph.D.

Abstract

Despite their widespread use in employee selection procedures, personality measures are susceptible to applicant faking. Explicit warnings, often included in test instructions to deter faking behavior, inform applicants that items are included on the test to detect faking, and that those caught faking, will be removed from the applicant pool (i.e., invalidation warnings). The current research examined the effectiveness of another warning type informing applicants that faking is not in their best interest, as it is likely to get them into a job for which they are a poor fit (i.e., job fit warnings). Results for Study 1 supported the application of The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) to the context of applicant faking on personality tests; invalidation warnings appear to function by lessening applicants' perceived ability to fake successfully without being caught. Moreover, the positive job fit warnings were just as effective as the negative invalidation warnings at lessening applicant faking behaviors. Positive job fit warnings also elicited much more positive reactions from applicants than did the negative invalidation warnings and thus, appear to have greater utility than the negative invalidation warnings. Study 2 revealed that combining the negative invalidation warning with the positive job fit warning minimized the adverse reactions to the negative invalidation warning, resulting in more positive applicant reactions. Additionally, this combination warning was slightly more effective in deterring applicant faking behavior than either single-consequence warning alone. Taken together, organizations may benefit most by utilizing the negative invalidation + positive job fit combination warning.

Keywords: personality, applicant faking behavior, applicant reactions

I Warned You! Applicant Reactions to Different Types of Warnings Against Faking on Personality Tests: An Organizational Justice, Trust and Affect-Based Perspective

Over the last two decades, personality measures have become widely used in employee selection procedures (Oswald & Hough, 2008). This is due, at least in part, to meta-analytic evidence that personality scores are predictive of important organizational outcomes (e.g., task and contextual performance, leadership effectiveness, skill acquisition, teamwork, job satisfaction; e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Bartram, 2005; Colquitt, LePine, & Noe, 2000; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). The relatively low correlations between personality test scores and cognitive ability levels also contributed to the popularization of personality as a unique predictor of performance (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Rosse, Miller, & Barnes, 1991). That is, personality scores are believed to improve selection decisions by providing job-relevant information about applicants not captured already through cognitive ability tests (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). An added benefit is that, unlike cognitive ability tests, personality tests do not typically contribute to adverse impact (Hough, Oswald, & Ployhart, 2011). Despite such benefits, researchers and practitioners alike remain concerned that faking may threaten the utility of personality tests in the context of employee selection (Snell, Sydell, & Lueke, 1999). Much research supports that job applicants are both willing (e.g., Ellingson, Sacket, & Connelly, 2007; Mersman & Shultz, 1998; Smith & Ellingson, 2002) and able (Viswesvaran & Ones, 1999) to respond dishonestly to personality tests in order to improve their chances of being hired.

Faking is defined here as *intentional* response distortion as a means of creating a more favorable impression, and can include the fabrication, misrepresentation, and/or concealment of truthful information (Griffith & McDaniel, 2006; Levashina & Campion, 2006, 2007; Morgeson, Campion, Dipboye, Hollenbeck, Murphy, & Schmitt, 2007). The prevalence of faking on assessments has been debated heavily. While some have argued that faking is rare (e.g., Hogan, 1991), recent research suggests that job applicant faking is an extremely common occurrence in selection contexts, as roughly half of job applicants can be classified as fakers (Donovan, Dwight, & Schneider, 2013). Similarly, some have argued that there is little or no impact of faking on the validity and utility of selection systems (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1996; Hough, Eaton, Dunnette, Kamp & McCloy, 1990; Ones, Viswesvaran, & Reiss, 1996), while others suggest that faking may in fact threaten the utility and validity of selection systems (e.g., Donovan et al., 2013; Mueller-Hanson, Heggestad, & Thornton, 2003). In support of the latter viewpoint, recent research suggests that fakers are not only more likely to be selected by organizations in top-down selection analyses (Christiansen, Goffin, Johnston, & Rothstein, 1994; Donovan et al., 2013; Rosse, Stecher, Miller, & Levin, 1998), but also may exhibit lower levels of performance once on the job, than non-fakers (Donovan et al., 2013). Furthermore, employers express concerns that personality tests can be faked (Douglas, McDaniel, & Snell, 1996; Morgeson et al., 2007), which is a potential issue given that job applicants who take personality tests in real-world selection contexts report faking them (Gilliland, 1995). These findings speak to the importance of better understanding applicant faking in the context of employee selection.

Beyond the possible negative implications that faking may have on organizational outcomes, practitioners have an *ethical* responsibility to ensure the integrity of test scores. That is, the Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing indicates that, "Reasonable efforts should be made to assure the integrity of test scores by eliminating opportunities for test takers to attain scores by fraudulent means" (Standard 5.6). The Standards go on to say that, "Test developers should design test materials and procedures to minimize the possibility of cheating." Practitioners have an ethical responsibility to design test procedures in such a way that dishonest responding is minimized to ensure that dishonest, unqualified applicants are not chosen over honest, qualified applicants.

Given the aforementioned concerns, researchers have explored a number of ways in which to minimize faking on personality tests (e.g., statistical "corrections" for faking, forced choice and non-transparent items, third-party ratings, implicit measures). One of the most common approaches to minimizing faking behavior, and the focus of the current research, is the inclusion of explicit warning statements in test instructions (e.g., Dwight & Donovan, 2003). Research supports the use of warnings as a method of minimizing applicant faking behaviors (Dwight & Donovan, 2003). A small-scale meta-analysis (k = 10) revealed warnings to have a weak to modest effect on responses (d = .23), with warned applicants scoring lower than unwarned applicants (Dwight & Donovan, 2003). In a follow-up primary study, the most effective warnings were those that indicated *both* detection of and consequences for faking (Dwight & Donovan, 2003). Thus, the content of warning statements impacts overall effectiveness. Furthermore, the content of warning statements has been shown

to impact applicant reactions as well (Converse, Oswald, Imus, Hedricks, Roy, & Butera, 2008). Surprisingly, very little research has investigated alternative content to the traditional warning statement. Although more than a decade has passed since Dwight and Donovan's (2003) seminal work, many questions remain unanswered. The current research aimed to advance our understanding of warning statements through the achievement of three main objectives.

The first objective of the proposed research was to examine the impact of different warning statement content on applicant faking behavior. Specifically, the current research examined two dimensions of warning statement content: *consequence type* (i.e., invalidation of test results vs. job fit) and *message framing* (i.e., positive vs. negative). Although warning statements have traditionally threatened applicants with invalidation of test responses (e.g., Dwight & Donovan, 2003), recent research supports the effectiveness of informing test-takers of the consequences of being in a job for which one is a poor fit (Lammers, Macan, Hirtz, & Kim, 2014). Job fit warnings, however, can be framed both positively and negatively. That is, applicants can be warned of the negative consequences associated with being in a job for which one is a poor fit, or informed of the positive benefits associated with being in a job for which one is a good fit. To date, this comparison has yet to be made. The traditional warning statement of invalidation of test results is typically framed negatively. The current research also examined whether the traditional warning, when framed positively, maintains its effectiveness. In short, study 1 teased apart the effects of both consequence type and message framing on applicant faking behavior.

Study 1 also examined the underlying mechanisms at play within the content of warning statements, to determine *how* warning message content functions to minimize applicant faking behaviors. In doing so, the proposed theoretical model of the impact of warning statement consequence type and message framing on faking behavior (Figure 1) was tested. To date, little theoretical work has been conducted in this area. Consistent with McFarland and Ryan (2006), the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) was utilized as a theoretical framework, in which favorable attitudes toward faking, positive social norms, and greater perceived behavioral control predict faking intentions, which thereby predict faking behavior. McFarland and Ryan (2006) found direct effects of warnings of invalidation of test results on faking intentions and behavior. They did not, however, examine various warning statement content, nor did they test for potential direct effects of warning statement content on the *predictors* of faking intentions (e.g., favorable attitudes toward faking). As such, the current research aimed to address these limitations. It was believed that warnings of different consequence type (i.e., invalidation of test results vs. job fit) function differently by affecting different constructs in this model (i.e., perceived behavioral control vs. favorable attitudes toward faking). By teasing apart and measuring these constructs individually, a more comprehensive understanding of the way in which different warning statement content functions was gained.

A complete assessment of the utility of warning statements includes the potential impact of such content on applicant reactions. That is, a warning statement may be "effective" in that it minimizes faking behavior. If that same statement elicits negative responses from applicants, however, and they become less attracted to the

organization (especially those most qualified who *did not* fake), the message would lack utility. Despite the importance of this issue, applicant reactions to different types of warning statements remain largely unexamined. As such, the second objective of the proposed research was to investigate how warning statement content impacts applicant reactions. In doing so, the theoretical lens through which applicant reactions are examined was expanded beyond organizational justice (i.e., fairness perceptions) to include social exchange quality (as measured by organizational trust) as well as positive and negative state affect. Study 1 also tested the proposed theoretical model of applicant reactions to warning statement consequence type and message framing (Figure 2). Again, the goal here was to understand the underlying mechanisms that explain how warning message content functions to impact applicant reactions.

A third goal of the current research was to examine whether there is an additive effect of consequence type, such that warning of both invalidation of test results and job fit has a stronger effect on minimizing faking behavior than does warning of either consequence alone. Warnings of invalidation of test results were expected to lessen perceived behavioral control whereas warnings of job fit were expected to decrease the favorability of attitudes toward faking. Given that both perceived behavioral control and favorable attitudes toward faking explain unique variance in faking intentions, it is quite plausible to expect multiple-consequence warnings to have a stronger effect on faking behavior. Thus, study 2 examined multiple-consequence warnings with the goal of determining: a) whether or not there is an additive effect of consequence type, such that combining them (e.g., warning of both invalidation of test results and job fit) is a more effective method of lessening

faking behaviors than warning of either consequence alone and b) what is the most effective combination – taking into consideration message framing – in terms of deterring applicant faking behaviors and positively impacting applicant reactions.

Study 1

The opportunity for rewards such as employment, job security, benefits, and status undoubtedly motivate applicants to perform well under selection contexts. The motivation to fake in order to perform well, however, depends on additional factors (Kim, 2011).

Perceived Need to Fake

First, the *need to fake* is determined by the perceived discrepancy between one's actual knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics (KSAOs) and the level desired for the job (Kim, 2011; McFarland & Ryan, 2000; Peterson & Griffith, 2006; Tett & Christianson, 2007). That is, if one perceives him/herself as capable of doing well by responding honestly, then the need to fake is minimal, if nonexistent. If perceptions of true scores for KSAOs deviate from desired scores, then the need to fake is higher. To illustrate, one who perceives him/herself as less extroverted for a particular position than would be desirable would likely perceive a greater need to fake than would one who perceives him/herself as adequately extroverted for the position. An additional factor that influences faking motivation is the perceived *need to compete*. As the quality of the applicant pool increases and the selection ratio decreases, perceptions of the need to enhance one's responses to stay ahead of the competition should rise (Robie, 2006). Applicants, however, may not always be privy

to the quality of the applicant pool, minimizing the impact of this variable on faking motivation.

Applicant Characteristics

A number of applicant characteristics also influence the intention to fake (Kim, 2011), the vast majority of which are captured in the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 2001). As such, the TPB is utilized in the proposed theoretical model of the impact of warning statements on applicant faking behavior.

The Theory of Planned Behavior. The TPB proposes that favorable attitudes, positive subjective norms, and greater perceived behavioral control strengthen behavioral intentions which, in turn, increase the likelihood of the behavior being performed (Ajzen, 1991). The TPB has received considerable empirical support (e.g., Armitage & Connor, 2001; Rivis, Sheeran, & Armitage, 2009), and furthermore, research supports the application of the TPB to behaviors involving deception, including cheating on exams, shoplifting, and lying (Beck & Azjen, 1991). As stated previously, McFarland and Ryan (2006) proposed and supported the application of the TPB to faking behavior within selection contexts, expanding upon their earlier model of applicant faking behavior (McFarland & Ryan, 2000). In the sections that follow, the TPB is described in more detail and specific hypotheses are proposed. Please also see Figure 1.

***Perceived behavioral control*.** Perceived behavioral control refers to one's belief in the relative ease or difficulty of performing a given task (Ajzen, 1991). Perceived behavioral control is most similar to Bandura's (1977, 1982) concept of perceived self-efficacy, which refers to one's confidence in their ability to perform an

action. When individuals believe they have control over a certain behavior, intentions to perform that behavior are higher (Ajzen, 1985; Beal & Manstead, 1991; Schifter & Ajzen, 1985). In the context of faking on personality tests during the selection process, individuals who feel they are capable of faking successfully (i.e., able to improve scores without being caught) are higher in perceived behavioral control, and therefore, more likely to express faking intentions. McFarland and Ryan (2006) found that 13-14% of the variance in faking intentions was explained by perceived behavioral control.

Attitudes toward faking. Attitudes towards specific behaviors refer to the extent to which one holds favorable or unfavorable evaluations of that behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Research consistently shows that positive attitudes towards a behavior lead to greater intentions to perform that behavior (e.g., Ajzen, 1991; Boldero, 1995). In the context of faking on personality tests during the selection process, the more positive one's attitudes toward faking (i.e., useful, wise, attractive, good), the more likely one is to express the intention to fake. McFarland and Ryan (2006) found that 45-55% of the variance in behavioral intentions was explained by attitudes toward faking.

Subjective norms. Subjective norms refer to perceived social pressure to perform or not perform a particular behavior. Research has consistently shown that when individuals perceive important others (e.g., parents, friends) as approving or encouraging of a behavior, they are more likely to express the intention to engage in that behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Beal & Manstead, 1991). This is consistent with social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), which suggests that our peers largely influence our

actions as we model the behaviors we see exhibited by others. The effect of peer attitudes has been demonstrated in other contexts (McCabe & Trevino, 1997), alluding to its importance in selection procedures as well. In the context of faking on personality tests during the selection process, as one's peers (e.g., friends, colleagues) demonstrate more favorable attitudes toward faking, one is more likely to engage in such behaviors oneself (McFarland & Ryan, 2006). McFarland and Ryan (2006) found that 12-17% of the variance in faking intentions was explained by subjective norms.

***Intentions to Fake and Faking Behavior*.** The intention to engage in a particular behavior has consistently been shown to relate positively to the actual performance of that behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Boldero, 1995; Boldero, Moore, & Rosenthal, 1992). In the context of faking on personality tests during the selection process, the greater the intentions to fake on the personality assessment, the greater the likelihood that one will actually fake responses to test items.

Across two studies, McFarland and Ryan (2006) found that greater perceived behavioral control over faking, favorable attitudes toward faking, and positive subjective norms regarding faking behavior explain a significant proportion of the variance in intentions to fake (i.e., 45-57%), which is a significant predictor of actual faking behavior. Given the strong theoretical and empirical support, the current research employed the TPB framework in the examination of applicant faking behavior. Consistent with McFarland and Ryan (2006), the following was hypothesized (please also see Figure 1):

Hypothesis 1a-1d: PBC (1a), subjective norms (1b) and attitudes toward faking (1c) will have a direct positive effect on intentions to fake, which will have a direct positive effect on faking behavior (1d).

Additional Applicant Characteristics. Kim (2011) suggested that disposition (e.g., personality) and personal values (e.g., integrity, ethics) may also influence faking intentions. Research suggests that Machiavellianism (i.e., the general tendency to act in one's own self-interest and a willingness to manipulate others) is positively related to faking intentions (e.g., Levashina & Campion, 2007; Mueller-Hanson, Heggestad, & Thornton, 2006). Ethics and integrity have both been found to correlate negatively with faking (Law, Mobley, & Wong, 2002), although these results have been mixed (Mueller-Hanson et al., 2006). Given that past behavior predicts future behavior, applicants who have faked successfully in the past may be more likely to engage in such behaviors again. Readers are referred to Mueller-Hanson et al. (2006) for a review of the individual differences in faking intentions. Given that the present study employed the TPB as the theoretical lens through which faking intentions and behaviors are examined, the focus remained on those aforementioned variables. The need to fake, and past faking behavior, however, were also measured.

Warning Statements

Warnings statements have been included in test instructions in an attempt to decrease faking behaviors. Although much research supports that warning statements impact faking behavior, little attention has been paid to the underlying mechanisms that explain this effect. The proposed research examined the mechanisms underlying the effect of different warning statement content on both faking behaviors as well as

applicant reactions. Specifically, two dimensions of warning statement content (i.e., consequence type and message framing) were examined. These dimensions are described in more detail below.

Consequence type. Traditional warning statements threaten applicants that the test contains questions designed to identify those who attempt to fake their responses, and that dishonest or distorted self-descriptions may invalidate results (e.g., Dwight & Donovan, 2003). Recent research, however, supports the effectiveness of informing test-takers of the consequences of being in a job for which one is a poor fit (Lammers et al., 2014). The current research aimed to tease apart the impact of warnings of invalidation of test results and warnings of job fit on applicant faking intentions and reactions. To review each of the warning statements in full text, please see Table 1.

Warning of invalidation of test results. Theory suggests, and research supports, that warning of detection and consequences together, rather than either detection or consequences alone, is most effective in deterring applicant faking behavior (Dwight & Donovan, 2003). Dwight and Donovan (2003) communicated to test-takers that the test contained questions designed to identify those who attempt to fake their responses, and that dishonest or distorted self-descriptions may invalidate results. Those who received this invalidation warning yielded mean score differences on 11 of the 12 personality dimensions examined (*d* values ranged from .12 to .75), such that those in the warned condition scored lower than those in the unwarned condition (Dwight & Donovan, 2003). Self-reported faking was also lower (*d* = .26) among those warned of both detection and consequences than among those unwarned

participants. Similarly, Lammers et al. (2014) replicated these results with the Hogan Personality Inventory. Results suggested the invalidation warning yielded mean score differences on five of the seven personality dimensions examined (*d* values ranged from .11 to .46), such that those in the warned condition scored lower than those in the unwarned condition (Lammers et al., 2014).

Warning of job fit. Invalidation of responses and removal from the applicant pool, however, is not the only consequence of faking one's responses to test items. That is, misrepresenting oneself may lead individuals to accept job offers for positions for which they are not well suited. In such instances, poor person-job/person-organization fit will likely cause such individuals to experience physical, emotional, and mental distress (e.g., Edwards, 1992; Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison, 1998; Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Kristoff-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Additionally, the attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework (Schneider, 1987; Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995) suggests that fakers may be more likely to withdraw and exit organizations because their true personality, attitudes, and values are inconsistent with those of the organization (e.g., Judge & Cable, 1997; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Pinfield, 1995).

Only recently have researchers begun to examine the effectiveness of warning applicants of the negative consequences associated with getting into a job for which one is a poor fit. Preliminary findings are encouraging and suggest that warning applicants about the negative consequences of getting into a job for which one is a poor fit may decrease faking behavior (Lammers et al., 2014; Pace, Xu, Penney, Borman, & Bearden, 2005). In a recent study of college students asked to assume the

role of job applicants and complete a personality test as part of their application for a customer service position, Lammers et al. (2014) communicated to test-takers the long-term consequences of faking one's responses (e.g., not being a good fit for the job, experiencing job stress, job dissatisfaction, emotional exhaustion, getting physically sick). Personality test scores were lower among those who received the warning of poor person-job fit than those in the unwarned condition across all seven dimensions of personality, with *d* values ranging from .13 to .41. Additionally, self-reported honesty was significantly higher among those who received the warning of poor person-job fit than among those in the unwarned condition.

Message framing. A limitation of prior research investigating warning statements of job fit is the confounding of consequence type with message framing (e.g., Fan et al., 2012; Lammers et al., 2014; Pace et al., 2005). For example, although Pace and Borman (2006) refer to the warning used by Pace et al. (2005) as using "a more positive tone that encourages applicants to consider their best interests by responding honestly. The instructions point out to the applicant that slanting responses might be detrimental to their long-term goals because faking might result in getting into a job the applicant is not very good at or may not enjoy" (p. 290). This description of the warning used by Pace et al. (2005) implies that the message included *both* positive and negative framing – which is consistent with that utilized by Lammers et al. (2014). That is, although the message pointed out the negative consequences associated with being in a job for which one is a poor fit, the statement ended with positive framing: "Being honest about whom you are will lead you to a position for which you are far better suited. This will contribute to you living a

happier and healthier life," (Lammers et al., 2014). Given the solely negative framing of the tradition warning statement, a direct comparison of consequence types cannot be made. As such, the current study will investigate the effects of framing on warnings of both invalidation of test results and job fit.

Negative framing. By warning applicants of potential negative consequences (e.g., invalidation of test responses, removal from the applicant pool) associated with an undesirable behavior (i.e., faking), traditional warning statements employ negative framing. The technique utilized in traditional warning statements is that of fear arousal. The impact of fear-arousing messages is well supported by prior research. That is, much research indicates that messages can be effective by evoking negative emotions. For example, fear-arousing messages aimed at persuading people to cut down on smoking, drive carefully, or even get a tetanus shot can be effective (e.g., de Hoog, Stroebe & de Wit, 2007, 2008). It is unknown, however, if the warning of invalidation of test results would maintain its effectiveness if framed positively.

Positive framing. Interestingly, "gain-framed" messages are often equally as effective as "loss-framed" messages (O'Keefe & Jensen, 2011). Gain-framed messages focus on the positive outcomes associated with a healthy behavior rather than the negative outcomes associated with an unhealthy behavior (O'Keefe & Jensen, 2011). That is, a message that communicates that honest responding is likely to lead to positive job fit should, theoretically, be just as effective as a message that communicates that faking is likely to lead to poor job fit. Likewise, a message that informs test-takers that the test contains questions that are designed to identify those who responded honestly, and that honest self-descriptions will validate one's results

should, theoretically, be just as effective as a message that warns the test included items aimed to identify those who responded dishonestly, and that dishonest self-descriptions will invalidate one's results.

Research shows that messages do in fact become more persuasive through association with good feelings. Advertisers draw on this principle by playing pleasant music in the background of commercials. Positive feelings enhance persuasion by both enhancing positive thinking as well as linking good feelings with the message (Petty, Schumann, Richman, & Strathman, 1993). Given that organizations most likely desire applicants to develop positive associations with them during their initial interactions, it is worth investigating the effectiveness of warning statements that induce positive (rather than negative) feelings through positive framing.

Theoretical Model of the Impact of Warning Content on Faking Behavior

Although much research supports that warning statements impact faking behavior, little attention has been paid to the underlying mechanisms that explain this effect. Study 1 investigated how different warning statement content operates. McFarland and Ryan (2006) found a negatively framed warning of invalidation of test results to have direct effects on both faking intentions and behaviors. They did not, however, test for the direct effects of warning statement content on the predictors of behavioral intentions (e.g., favorable attitudes toward faking). Ironically, in their discussion, McFarland and Ryan (2006) urged researchers to investigate "how techniques used to affect attitudes, subjective norms and PBC in other areas of psychology may be applied to applicant faking to reduce this type of responding" (p. 1010).

The current study examined potential direct effects of warning statement content on two of the predictors of faking intentions (i.e., perceived behavioral control, favorable attitudes towards faking), thereby indirectly effecting intentions to fake. Specifically, it was believed that the mechanisms underlying the impact of warnings of invalidation of test results and warnings of job fit on faking behavior are inherently different. In contrast to McFarland and Ryan (2006), warnings of invalidation of test results were expected to have an indirect effect on intentions to fake by way of PBC. That is, the mechanism through which warnings of invalidation of test results operate was believed to be PBC. Additionally, warnings of job fit were expected to have an indirect effect on intentions to fake by way of favorable attitudes toward faking. As such, the mechanism through which warnings of job fit operate was believed to be attitudes toward faking.

Invalidation of test results. Given that warnings of invalidation of test results inform test takers both of the method by which their falsification will be identified, as well as the consequences associated with the behavior, it was hypothesized that such warning content would decrease test-takers' confidence in their ability to fake successfully (i.e., without being caught). As such, the following was hypothesized:

> *Hypotheses 2a-2c**:** Warnings of invalidation of test results will have a direct negative effect on PBC (2a) and an indirect effect on intentions to fake (2b) and faking behavior (2c).*

Furthermore, it was expected that framing would moderate this relationship:

> *Hypothesis 3: Message framing will moderate the relationship between warnings of invalidation of test results and perceived behavioral control, such that negatively framed warnings of invalidation of test results will have a stronger negative relationship with PBC than will positively framed warnings of invalidation of test results.*

Job fit. Given that such a substantive portion of the variance in faking intentions has been found to be explained by favorable *attitudes* toward faking, it seems that a warning aimed at changing attitudes toward faking, such that faking is no longer seen as useful or in one's long term best interest, may be wise. The traditional warning is limited in that it does not focus directly on influencing one's attitudes towards faking. Informing applicants of poor job fit, however, may function by changing applicants' attitudes toward faking such that they no longer see faking as in their long-term best interest (Pace & Borman, 2006). Although Pace and Borman (2006) suggested that warnings that "reason" with the test-taker in this way should affect test-taker attitudes, this proposition has yet to be tested. As mentioned previously, the warning of job fit was believed to function by educating applicants on the positive or negative consequences of being in a job for which one is a good or bad fit, thereby lessening the favorability of their attitudes towards faking such that faking is no longer seen as in their best interest. As such, the following was hypothesized:

> *Hypotheses 4a-4c**:** Warnings of job fit will have a direct negative effect on attitudes towards faking (4a) and an indirect effect on faking intentions (4b) and behaviors (4c).*

Furthermore, it was expected that message framing would moderate this relationship:

> *Hypotheses 5**:** Message framing will moderate the relationship between warnings of job fit and favorable attitudes toward faking, such that positively framed warnings of job fit will have a stronger negative relationship with favorable attitudes toward faking than will negatively framed warnings of job fit.*

The favorability of one's attitudes is a very important predictor of behavioral intentions. In fact, the variance in faking intentions explained by attitude favorability is about 4.5 times as much as the variance explained by perceived behavioral control

or positive subjective norms (McFarland & Ryan, 2006). If favorable attitudes toward faking are the mechanism through which warnings of job fit operate, this would imply that warnings of job fit will be more effective in deterring faking intentions and behaviors than will warnings of invalidation of test results.

Warning content is also expected to impact applicant reactions to warning statements. This is discussed in more detail in the sections below.

Applicant Reactions

Applicant reactions to selection procedures have traditionally been examined through an organizational justice lens (Truxillo & Bauer, 2010). This line of research has shown that characteristics of the selection systems can affect applicant fairness perceptions (Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Macan, Avedon, Paese, & Smith, 1994). Fairness perceptions, in turn, predict many important organizational outcomes (Hausknecht et al., 2004). Specifically, perceived fairness of the selection process is positively related to satisfaction with the selection process—a relationship that has shown to last over time—(e.g., Macan et al., 1994; Truxillo, Bauer, & Sanchez, 2001), organizational attractiveness (Bauer, Truxillo, Sanchez, Craig, Ferrara, & Campion, 2001; Hausknecht et al., 2004; Macan et al., 1994; Truxillo, Bodner, Bertolino, Bauer, & Yonce, 2009), job acceptance intentions (e.g., Hausknecht et al., 2004; Macan et al., 1994; Truxillo, Bauer, Campion & Paronto, 2002), recommendation intentions (Bauer et al., 2001; Hausknecht et al., 2004), intentions to pursue legal action (Bauer et al., 2001), and test-taking motivation (Hausknecht et al., 2004; Truxillo et al., 2009). Although supported by less empirical data, fairness perceptions are also theorized to relate to applicant withdrawal (Schmit & Ryan,

1997), reapplications behaviors (Gilliland, Groth, Baker, Dew, Polly, & Langdon, 2001) and, to a much lesser extent, customer purchase intentions (Macan et al., 1994).

Organizational justice. The vast majority of research on applicant reactions to date has been based in organizational justice theory (Gilliland, 1993). Much research supports that there are four distinct, yet related, types of justice (Colquitt, 2001): *distributive* (outcomes of decisions, particularly the degree to which they are equitable; Adams, 1965; Leventhal, 1976), *procedural* (rules and procedures used to make decisions; Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975), *interpersonal* (degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect; Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1993), and *informational* (truthful and adequate explanations regarding procedures or outcomes; Greenberg, 1993). The organizational justice theory perspective of applicant reactions proposes that applicants view selection procedures in terms of these different types of justice. Those perceptions of fairness, in turn, influence future attitudes, intentions, and behaviors.

Consideration of the specific justice dimensions has led to many valuable insights. Researchers have recently come to question, however, the benefit of focusing exclusively on these different dimensions of justice, encouraging a transition in the literature to the assessment of organizational justice as a whole (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Barclay & Kiefer, 2012). A number of factors have driven this shift in the justice literature. First, although it is possible for people to differentiate between types of justice when asked, perceptions of justice tend to be holistic judgments (Greenberg & Cropanzano, 2001). Second, overall justice offers a more parsimonious and phenomenologically accurate depiction of people's justice

experiences than do individual justice dimensions (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Lind, 2001). Furthermore, overall justice ultimately drives reactions, including attitudes and behaviors (Greenberg, 2001; Lind, 2001). In fact, recent research suggests that overall justice perceptions fully mediate the relationships between specific justice judgments and attitudes and behaviors, illustrating that overall justice perceptions are the more proximal driver of outcomes (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). As such, the current research focused on overall justice perceptions.

Social Exchange Theory. Although applicant reactions have traditionally been examined solely through an organizational justice framework, expanding the theoretical scope of future research may result in a more comprehensive understanding of these phenomena (Hausknecht et al., 2004). Celani, Deutsch-Salamon, and Singh (2008) proposed, but did not test directly, the application of social exchange theory (SET) to the context of applicant reactions research. That is, SET could be the mechanism underlying the relationship between fairness perceptions and positive outcome variables (e.g., organizational attraction). The underlying principle of social exchange theory is that an individual who supplies resources to another obligates him/her to return the benefits (Blau, 1964). A "resource" is any item transacted in an interpersonal situation (Foa & Foa, 1980). Importantly, social exchanges encompass psychological and social commodities, in addition to material goods (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). Blau (1964) makes a clear distinction, however, between economic and social exchange, arguing that feelings of personal obligation and gratitude are engendered only through social exchange. Also in contrast to economic exchanges, social exchanges typically

take place without a formal contract or repayment schedule (Blau, 1964). Thus, social exchange relationships inherently involve a willingness to be vulnerable, as one risks that the social commodity (e.g., favor, etc.) may not be repaid. The absence of trust, then, would prevent social exchange relationships from evolving (Blau, 1964).

Although the interaction between applicants and organizations during the selection process may be brief, it signifies the beginning of a potential social exchange relationship between the two parties. That is, the selection process provides one of the first opportunities for applicants to gather information about the organization's trustworthiness, strengthening or weakening subsequent perceptions of trust. Rules and norms guide the exchange process and must be abided by in order for relationships to develop. Although a number of different exchange rules have been proposed (e.g., negotiation, Molm, 2000; altruism and competition, Meeker, 1971), reciprocity, or repayment in kind, is arguably the most pervasive exchange rule (Gouldner, 1960). Reciprocity is most commonly conceptualized as a universal norm that requires people to help those who have helped them. Taken together, SET explains how favorable actions on the part of organizations may result in favorable actions on the part of employees.

Reciprocative reactions. Over the last decade, SET has become the dominant lens for explaining justice effects (Colquitt, 2008; Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008). In the context of social exchange, justice represents the type of symbolic resource that should foster reciprocative actions on the part of employees (Cropanzano & Byrne, 2000). Much of the research that integrates social exchange theory and the organizational justice literature has operationalized reciprocative behaviors as

organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), task performance, and counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs; Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Zapata, Conlon, & Wesson, 2013). Drawing on results of 493 independent samples, Colquitt et al. (2013) provided meta-analytic estimates of the relationships between the four types of organizational justice and OCBs, task performance, and CWBs that were moderate in size.

While OCBs, task performance and CWBs explain the type of reciprocative behaviors that may occur among job incumbents, it does not account for the types of reciprocative reactions that may be seen among job applicants. Given the application process marks the beginning of a social exchange relationship between organizations and job applicants (i.e., potential future employees), the exclusion of social exchange theory from examinations of applicant reactions to selection procedures limits our understanding of this phenomena (McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998; Searle & Billsberry, 2011). In the context of the selection process, reciprocative reactions may be operationalized as positive organizational outcomes that include both attitudes (e.g., satisfaction with selection process, organizational attraction) and various behavioral intentions (e.g., job pursuit intentions, job acceptance intentions, recommendation intentions, and reapplication intentions) on the part of job applicants. Much research supports the positive relationship between justice perceptions and positive organizational outcomes (e.g., Bauer et al., 2001; Hausknecht et al., 2004; Macan et al., 1994; Truxillo et al., 2002). Meta-analytic research supports that disclosure of information leads to liking (*disclosure-liking hypothesis*; Collins & Miller, 1994), which would support the inclusion of attitudinal

variables in the proposed theoretical model. Furthermore, this effect has been found even in initial encounters among strangers (Collins & Miller, 1994).

Additionally, reciprocative reactions may be operationalized as *honest responding* on the part of applicants. That is, applicants who are treated fairly by the organization may be more likely to reciprocate by responding honestly to test items. This is consistent with Gouldner's (1960) proposition that refraining from injury is a form of reciprocity. Others have used SET to explain the negative relationship between justice and theft (Greenberg and Scott, 1996). The hypothesized reciprocation of honest responding on the part of applicants is also consistent with the disclosure-liking hypothesis, which states that individuals disclose more to those whom they like (Collins & Miller, 1994).

***Social exchange quality*.** Justice is believed to predict reciprocative reactions by fostering a social exchange relationship. Just as was seen with reciprocative reactions, quality of the social exchange relationship has been operationalized in a number of different ways. Cropanzano and Byrn (2000) were among the first to discuss this issue, noting that any intermediate variable would need to capture the obligatory dynamics inherent to social exchange relationships and be adaptable to multiple foci (e.g., supervisor, organization). Given that social exchanges typically take place without a formal contract or repayment schedule, social exchange relationships inherently involve a willingness to be vulnerable to the other party, as one risks that the resource may not be repaid/returned (Blau, 1964). The absence of trust, then, would prevent social exchange relationships from evolving (Blau, 1964).

Thus, the proposed study examined *trust* as an indicator of the quality of the social exchange relationship.

Trust. Trust has been defined as confident, positive expectations about the words, actions and decisions of a trustee (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995; McAllister, 1995) and as a willingness to be vulnerable to a trustee, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the trustee's actions (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Although researchers have yet to consider trust in explorations of applicant reactions to selection procedures, much research supports the positive relationship between organizational justice and trust (see Lewicki, Wiethoff, & Tomlinson, 2005, for a review). Many studies suggest that trust in other people and organizations grows as a result of fair treatment (Lewicki et al., 2005). In fact, trust has been identified as an outcome of distributive (Alexander, Sinclair & Tetrick, 1995), procedural (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Korsgaard, Brodt, & Whitener, 2002; Korsgaard, Schweiger, & Sapienza, 1995) and interactional justice (Becerra & Gupta, 2003). Procedural, interpersonal, and informational justices were linked to trust in an examination of survivor reactions to an organizational restructuring (Kernan & Hanges, 2002). Such findings are consistent with *fairness heuristic theory* (Lind, 2001), which explains that fairness information is used to determine whether or not decision makers are trustworthy. Thus, the perceived fairness of a social exchange positively impacts the perceivers' trust in the social exchange partner (Lewicki et al., 2005).

Trust has also been shown to mediate the relationship between organizational justice and a variety of outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, turnover intentions, organizational commitment). A number of studies (e.g., Brockner, Siegel, Daly,

Tyler, & Martin, 1997; Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Van den Bos, Wilke & Lind, 1998) indicate that people use the information communicated to them through procedurally fair treatment to determine trust in others. One of the first studies to integrate social exchange theory and organizational justice was Organ and Konovsky's (1989) study of the antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors. The authors hypothesized that fair treatment on the part of the organization fosters a sense of trust on the part of employees, which makes them more willing to perform extra-role behaviors. Likewise, Konovsky and Pugh (1994) argued that justice on the part of the organization conveys the trust that is necessary for social exchange relationships to occur, thereby encouraging OCBs, on the part of employees.

Similarly, Aryee, Budhar, and Chen (2002) found that trust in the organization partially mediated the relationship between distributive and procedural justice and worker attitudes and work outcomes (Aryee et al., 2002). More recently, a meta-analysis by Colquitt et al. (2013) found that indicators of social exchange quality (i.e., trust, perceived organizational support, commitment, and leader-member exchange) mediate the relationship between justice and reciprocative behaviors (e.g., OCBs and task performance). Importantly, effect sizes and relationships between variables were similar regardless of whether justice was operationalized as an entity (e.g., supervisor) or as an event (e.g., selection decision). These findings are consistent with the concept that individuals use whatever information is easily available to them to form global justice judgments in a rapid manner (Lind, 2001). Although this does not provide direct meta-analytic evidence of trust as mediating the relationship between

justice and the aforementioned outcomes, it does encourage further investigation of trust as a mediator between justice and reciprocative reactions. As demonstrated in Figure 2, the following was expected:

> *Hypothesis 6a-6c: Overall justice perceptions will have a direct positive effect on social exchange quality (i.e., trust) (6a), which will have a direct positive effect on reciprocative reactions (6b) and honest responding (6c).*

State Affect. The explanation of justice effects by social exchange theory is largely cognitive in nature. Given the importance of affect in predicting subsequent attitudes and behaviors, the proposed study integrates this concept as well. Despite the intuitive connections between the justice and affect literatures, little research has combined them (Colquitt et al., 2013). Affect is generally defined as a condition of feeling (Watson & Clark, 1994). State affect, which is the focus in the proposed study, represents feelings at a particular point in time.

Numerous studies have linked the violation of justice rules to negative state affect (e.g., Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005; Goldman, 2003; Krehbiel & Cropanzano, 2000; Rupp & Spencer, 2006). Recent meta-analytic research (Colquitt et al., 2013), however, shows a moderate relationship between justice and *positive* state affect. In other words, justice seems to make people feel good to the same extent that injustice makes people feel bad. As the magnitude of the relationships between justice and positive state affect and injustice and negative state affect were similar, the justice literature's focus on the negative seems a bit misguided. It also challenges the long-held assumption that fair treatment is a steady state (Organ, 1990; Rupp & Spencer, 2006).

Most importantly, the relationship between procedural, distributive, and interpersonal justice and CWB were mediated by state affect (Colquitt et al., 2013). Thus, Colquitt et al. (2013) argue that affect-based justice research provides an appropriate complement to exchange-based justice research. Unfortunately, however, our understanding of how affect and social exchange quality (e.g., trust) relate remains limited as researchers tend to view justice effects through a single lens (e.g., either SET or affect) rather than in combination with each other. Colquitt et al. (2013) urged researchers to fill this void by integrating the two research literatures. Given Colquitt et al.'s (2013) findings, the following was expected:

> *Hypothesis 7a-7c: Overall justice perceptions will have a direct positive effect on positive state affect (7a), which will have a direct positive effect on reciprocative reactions (7b) and honest responding (7c).*
>
> *Hypothesis 8a-8c: Overall justice perceptions will have a direct negative effect on negative state affect (8a), which will have a direct negative effect on reciprocative reactions (8b) and honest responding.*

Relationship Between Affect and Trust. As Colquitt et al. (2013) point out, there are many theoretical reasons to expect a non-recursive relationship between state affect and social exchange quality. For example, a number of emotions (i.e., shame, anger, gratitude, pride) can be triggered by engaging in exchange transactions (Lawler & Thye, 1999). Qualitative data suggesting that the process of forming exchange relationships in teams leads to both positive (e.g., fun, excitement) and negative (e.g., frustration, annoyance) affect supports this theorizing (Tse & Dasborough, 2008). Alternatively, perceptions of positive and negative affect resulting from discrete transaction events may go on to change evaluations of social exchange quality (Ballinger & Rockman, 2010). In situations in which the affective

experience becomes encoded in memories of the events, alterations to the evaluation of the social exchange relationship may be long-lasting (Ballinger & Rockman, 2010).

Hypothesis 9a-9b: There will be a non-recursive relationship between positive state affect and social exchange quality (trust) (9a) and negative state affect and social exchange quality (trust) (9b).

Feedback Loop: From Reciprocative Reactions to Affect and Trust. As Colquitt et al. (2013) suggest, the reactions one exhibits in the context of an exchange relationship may themselves feed back to influence perceptions of exchange quality and affect. For example, if an applicant responds honestly to a personality test in the context of selection, he/she may reflect on this behavior and think it is a signal of how much they trust the organization and value that social exchange relationship. On the other hand, if an applicant fakes their responses, they may experience negative emotional reactions (e.g., guilt; Lazarus, 1991). Or, if they are honest, they may experience pride. In fact, it is common for a variety of self-focused emotions to be triggered by one's own behaviors (Lazarus, 1991). Consistent with self-perception theory (Bem, 1967), individuals may also use their own behaviors/reactions as evidence of their social exchange perceptions.

Hypothesis 10a-10f: There will be a direct effect of reciprocative reactions on social exchange quality (trust) (10a), positive state affect (10b), and negative state affect (10c); There will be a direct effect of honest responding on social exchange quality (trust) (10d), positive state affect (10e), and negative state affect (10f).

Effect of Warning Statement Content on Applicant Reactions

Given that applicant reactions to personality tests tend to be somewhat negative to begin with (Hausknecht et al., 2004; Rosse et al., 1998; Rynes &

Connerly, 1993; Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman, & Stoffey, 1993; Steiner & Gilliland, 1996), it is imperative that the effects of warning statement content on applicant reactions are considered. Research suggests that applicants utilize the information communicated to them during the selection process as a signal of how the organization may treat them in the future (Rynes, 1993). Perceptions of distrust may breed discontent among applicants, as they consider the possibility that the organization will continue to treat them as if they are guilty of wrongdoing in the future.

Manipulation of warning statement content may be one way in which organizations can influence how applicants perceive both the selection process as well as the organization itself. By designing warning statement content that is perceived as honest and fair, organizations may engender trust among job applicants who may then be more attracted to the organization and may even respond more honestly to test items. Given that faking may threaten the utility and validity of selection systems (e.g., Donovan et al., 2013; Mueller-Hanson et al., 2003), ensuring applicants perceive warning statement content as fair is critical. Applicant reactions to different warning statement content, however, remain largely unexamined. With the exception of two studies (Converse et al., 2008; McFarland, 2003), minimal research has been conducted in this area.

Converse et al. (2008) examined potential differences in test-taker reactions to positive vs. negative framing of a consequence-only warning of invalidation of test results (i.e., the warning did not inform test-takers of detection methods). Those in the positively framed warning condition reported greater test ease on average than those

in the unwarned or negatively framed warning condition (Converse et al., 2008). Those in the negatively framed warning condition reported significantly higher test-taking anxiety than those with a positively framed warning or no warning at all (Converse et al., 2008). The authors concluded that, if framed negatively, warnings against faking might have negative effects on certain reactions (such as test ease and test-taking anxiety). Converse et al.'s (2008) study speaks to the importance of considering how applicants might respond differently to positively versus negatively framed warnings. The focus on a consequence-only warning, however, limits our understanding of the effects of framing of other warning types (e.g., invalidation of test results, job fit) on applicant reactions. Additionally, Converse et al. (2008) did not examine the impact of warning content on organizational justice or trust. Thus, further exploration of the impact of warning statement content on applicant reactions is warranted.

Invalidation of Test Results. Warnings of invalidation of test results indicate the test contains items designed to identify those who either attempt to fake their responses or respond honestly (dependent on message framing). The warning goes on to say that dishonest (or honest) self-descriptions will invalidate (or validate) one's results. There are reasons to believe that, regardless of message framing, warnings of invalidation of test results may not be perceived very positively by applicants. Warning content may be perceived as impolite and accusatory, eliciting more negative perceptions of organizational justice from test-takers. Test-takers may question the trustworthiness of an organization that accuses them of being capable of lying at such an early stage in the social-exchange relationship. Little information is

given about the test itself, why personality tests are useful for this type of job, and why honest responses help to make more accurate selection decisions (or why the applicant would care if accurate selection decisions were made for that matter). Warning content is grounded in the organization's (rather than the applicant's) best interest. Additionally, test-takers may assume that some applicants might fake their responses and *not* be caught and get hired for positions that they arguably do not deserve. Furthermore, test-takers may perceive that they may be identified as faking their responses erroneously, given the description of the detection method, and may not feel they would be able to explain the accuracy of their response (but rather, as the warning states, be thrown out of the applicant pool). For these reasons, a warning of invalidation of test results was expected to negatively impact overall justice perceptions:

> *Hypothesis 11a-11f: Warnings of invalidation of test results will have a direct negative effect on overall justice perceptions (11a) and an indirect effect on organizational trust (11b), positive state affect (11c), negative state affect (11d), reciprocative reactions (11e) and honest responding (11f).*

Furthermore, it was believed that message framing would moderate this relationship. Given the negatively framed warning of invalidation of test results explicitly refers to "faking", "providing inaccurate information", and "dishonest or distorted self-descriptions", it is likely to be perceived as more accusatory, and thus, elicit more negative justice perceptions:

> *Hypothesis 12: Message framing will moderate the relationship between warnings of invalidation of test results and overall justice perceptions, such that negatively framed warnings of invalidation of test results will have a stronger negative relationship with overall justice perceptions.*

Job Fit. Messages that focus on what is in the best interest of the test-taker (i.e., job fit) may result in greater fairness perceptions and trust in the organization than messages that focus on what is in the best interest of the organization (i.e., invalidation of test results). A warning that communicates openly and honestly with applicants about what is (or is not) in their best interest in terms of job fit and future satisfaction, well-being and health, was expected to elicit positive perceptions of overall justice. Information about the positive benefits (negative consequences) of being in a job for which one is a good (poor) fit may be more positively received. That is, applicants may see this as a signal that the organization cares about its employees and is honest and truthful in their communication. The job fit message also communicates to test-takers that personality tests can accurately predict who is a good fit for the job, which may lead applicants to believe more strongly in the validity of the selection procedure itself. As such, the following was hypothesized:

> *Hypothesis 13a-13f: Warnings of job fit will have a direct positive effect on overall justice perceptions (13a) and an indirect effect on organizational trust (13b), positive state affect (13c), negative state affect (13d), reciprocative reactions (13e), and honest responding (13f).*

Furthermore, message framing was expected to moderate this relationship. That is, positively framed warnings of job fit were expected to be perceived more positively than would negatively framed warnings of job fit:

> *Hypothesis 14: Message framing will moderate the relationship between warning of job fit and overall justice perceptions, such that positively framed warnings of job fit will have a stronger positive relationship with overall justice perceptions.*

In sum, study 1 investigated the effects of consequence type and message framing on faking intentions and behaviors, as well as applicant reactions. The mechanisms through which these warnings function, were also examined.

Study 1 Method

Participants

A total of 405 participants were recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk. A number of qualification requirements were included (i.e., English as a first language, high school degree or GED, and at least 18 years of age). Participants received $8 in monetary compensation in exchange for their participation, which roughly equates to the federal hourly minimum wage rate.

A number of items were included to ensure the quality of responses. A particularly stringent item asked participants if their answers were "*the same* as they would have been had the application process been real." While 89% of respondents indicated that their responses were the same as they would have been had the application process been real, 11% of the sample (43 of 405) responded neutral or negative on this item. Given this lab study included imaginary rewards and consequences, it is completely understandable that some participants felt their responses would have been different had the application process been real. As such, these participants were retained in the sample. A second item, however, asked participants whether they were able to "adopt the mindset of a real job applicant," to which 10 participants responded neutral or negative. These individuals were excluded, as they were unable to perform the task as required. In addition, generally speaking, participants accurately recalled the job description; in fact, only three

participants were excluded from analyses for failing to recall the title of the position to which they were pretending to apply. An additional two participants were excluded from analyses as they failed two of the five attention check items. In total, 15 participants were dropped from the study, bringing the total sample size to 390.

Of these participants, 295 (76%) were Caucasian/White, 32 (8%) were Asian, 25 (6%) were Black or African American, 25 (6%) were Hispanic or Latino, 8 (2%) were Two or More Races, 3 (1%) were American Indian and Alaskan Native, 1 was Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander, and 1 was Other. The average age of the sample was 35.79 years (SD = 10.51) and was split evenly gender-wise, with 198 (51%) males and 192 (49%) females. The majority of participants (n = 311, 80%) were employed; of those, the majority (n = 249, 80%) worked full-time. Additionally, the majority of participants (n = 300, 77%) had experience working in customer service, the job category utilized in the study.

Design

Data were collected in a 2(consequence type: invalidation vs. job fit) x 2(message framing: positive vs. negative) non-fully cross factorial design, with a separate unwarned condition. Sample sizes were roughly equal per condition (i.e., control (n = 78), negative invalidation (n = 79), positive invalidation (n = 76), negative job fit (n = 78), positive job fit (n = 79).

Procedure

Participants were randomly assigned to one of four experimental warning conditions (i.e., a positively framed warning of job fit, a negatively framed warning of job fit, a positively framed warning of invalidation of test results, a negatively

framed warning of invalidation of test results) or an unwarned condition. Please see Table 1 for the full texts of these warnings. Given that companies most frequently administer personality tests online in unproctored settings, all data were collected online. Participants first read and signed electronically an informed consent form (i.e., proceeding on with the study will indicate one's consent to participate). Participants were then asked to complete a personality assessment online for a customer service representative position. The following instructions were communicated to participants via a short video clip recorded by the researcher, which participants watched on their computer screens:

> In this study, you will be asked to assume the role of a job applicant for a customer service representative position. First, you will be given information on the customer service representative position. *Please read this job description very carefully and imagine that you were actually applying for this job.* Next, you will be asked to complete an assessment as part of your application for the position. *Please complete the assessment as if you were actually applying for the customer service representative position.* Please note that this is not an actual position and under no circumstances will you be offered a job. *However, please respond to the assessment as if you were actually applying for the customer service representative position.* After completing the assessment, you will answer a brief series of questions about yourself and the experience. Once you have completed the assessment, you will be asked to resume your role as "research participant" and answer a number of questions about your experience.

The instructions also appeared in print below the video clip, to ensure that all participants comprehended what was being asked of them.

After receiving the study instructions, participants received textual information on the customer service representative position. Next, they were asked to complete an application blank. Then, participants viewed another video clip that portrayed an executive from ICP, Inc. (the fake organization to which participants

were pretending to apply) stating one of the randomly assigned warning statements. The following message was communicated:

> On behalf of ICP, Inc., thank you for your interest in our Customer Service Representative Position. In a few moments, we will be asking you to complete a personality test as part of your application. [warning condition inserted here]. Thank you, again, for your interest in the position. On behalf of ICP, Incorporated, we wish you all the best with the application process.

As with the testing instructions, the text appeared below the video clip as well so that participants could read rather than listen to the clip if they so preferred. Participants were restricted to this page for the duration of the video clip to ensure that they processed the information about the warning statement. Participants then completed the personality assessment online.

After completing the personality assessment, participants watched another quick video clip with the instructions on how to answer the remaining study questions. Participants were asked to *stop* assuming the role of a job applicant and to complete items about their demographics and experience with the mock selection process. Honest responding was stressed. Participants were asked to complete items assessing the following: attitudes toward faking, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, self-reported faking behavior, fairness perceptions, organizational trust and trustworthiness, state positive and negative affect, attraction to the organization, and various organizational outcomes and intentions.

Materials

Job description. Participants were given a job description for a customer service representative position. We focused on a selection context for a customer service job, as such positions generally require high levels of emotional regulation for

which fit along personality dimensions should be crucial. The job description outlined key job responsibilities, as well as the knowledge, skills and abilities required to perform the job effectively. Per O*NET online, customer service representatives must exhibit attention to detail (i.e., conscientiousness), emotional control and stress tolerance (i.e., emotional stability), cooperation (i.e., agreeableness), concern for others and social orientation (i.e., extraversion), and adaptability/flexibility (i.e., openness). Research shows that conscientiousness, agreeableness and emotional stability are most positively related to job performance in positions involving social interactions (Mount, Barrick & Stewart, 1998).

Application Blank. To increase the psychological realism of the simulated selection setting, participants were asked to complete an application blank following their review of the job description. Participants were asked about their educational background (e.g., lists of institutions attended, areas of study, and cumulative GPA), employment history (e.g., internships, part- and full-time positions held), and any other relevant professional experience (e.g., volunteer work, awards, professional memberships). Identifying information (e.g., name, address) was not collected.

Measures

The items from the following scales may be found in Table 2. Participants responded to items using a 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*) Likert response scale, unless otherwise noted.

Personality. Johnson's (2014) IPIP-NEO-120 was used to measure both the five broad domains of the Five Factor Model (i.e., neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness), as well as six

narrower facets of each broad domain. Johnson's (2014) IPIP-NEO-120 is the IPIP representation of Costa and McCrae's (1992) five NEO domains. Johnson (2014) recently tested the psychometric properties of the scale on four independent samples. The primary validity of the IPIP-NEO-120 is demonstrated by the correlations between its scales and the corresponding scales of the NEO PI-R. The average of these correlations is .66, which lends support to the proposition that the IPIP-NEO-120 measures similar constructs to the NEO-PI-R. In the present study, the IPIP-NEO-120 reflected strong internal consistency, with coefficient alpha values of .95 for neuroticism, .90 for extraversion, .80 for openness to experience, .88 for agreeableness, and .94 for conscientiousness, which were very similar to the estimates found by Johnson (2014). An additional benefit of the chosen personality inventory was the brevity and interpretability of the items. Example items include "I panic easily" and "I believe that I am better than others".

Quality Control Items. Some items were used to screen out participants for not following experimental directions. One item measured participants' ability to assume the role of a job applicant in this simulated task. Additionally, one item assessed participants' recall of the job description. Lastly, five attention check items were included throughout given the online nature of the study (e.g., "Please select 'significantly disagree'").

Manipulation Check. In order to determine if the experimental warnings were operating as intended, a number of questions were asked about the framing, content, and characteristics of the warning statements. An example item is, "The message was positively framed."

Need to Fake. Perceptions of the need to fake in order to get the job were measured with a three-item scale developed by the researcher. An example item is, "I have the necessary skills and abilities to perform this job well." This scale reflected positive internal consistency, with a Cronbach alpha reliability statistic of .90.

Favorable Attitudes Toward Faking. Favorable attitudes towards faking on the personality test were measured with a seven-item scale based on the items used by McFarland and Ryan (2006). An example item is, "Faking on application tests is a good way to better my chances of being hired." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .72.

Positive Subjective Norms. Subjective norms towards faking were measured with a four-item scale based on the items used by McFarland and Ryan (2006). An example item is, "Most people who are important to me would look down on me if I lied on a selection test." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .86.

Perceived Behavioral Control. PBC was measured with a four-item scale based on the items used by McFarland and Ryan (2006). An example item is, "It would be easy for me to lie on a selection test." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .85.

Intention to Fake. Intention to fake was measured with a six-item measure based on the items used by McFarland and Ryan (2006). An example item is, "I would never lie on a selection test." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .91.

Self-Reported Faking Behavior. Self-reported faking behavior was assessed with a six-item measure developed by the researcher. An example item is, "I made up false answers during the testing process to create a more favorable impression."

Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .96.

Past Faking Behavior. Past faking behavior was assessed with a six-item measure developed by the researcher. An example item is, "In the past, I have made up false answers during selection procedures to create a more favorable impression." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .95.

Mean Test Scores on Personality Dimensions. In conjunction with self-reported faking behavior, faking behavior was assessed indirectly through a comparison of mean test scores on the five personality dimensions across the four experimental conditions. Both statistical (i.e., *p*-values) and practical (i.e., Cohen's *d* effect size estimates) differences were considered. This allowed for between-group comparisons of faking behavior.

Justice. Overall justice perceptions were assessed with three items from Bauer et al. (2001), an example of which is, "I think that the testing process is a fair way to select people for the job of customer service representative." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .92, which is similar to what was reported by Bauer et al. (2001).

Informational Justice. Informational justice perceptions were assessed with a five-item measure that included two items from Colquitt's (2001) Informational Justice scale, two items from Gilliland and Honig's (1994) Selection Fairness Scale, and one item from Bauer et al.'s (2001) Selection Procedural Justice Scale (SPJS). An example item is, "The organization was candid in their communication with me." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .87.

Interpersonal Justice. Interpersonal justice perceptions were assessed with a

five-item measure adapted from Colquitt (2001). An example item is, "I was treated in a polite manner during the testing process." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .95.

Procedural Justice. Procedural justice perceptions were assessed with a four-item measure adapted from Colquitt (2001). An example item is, "The testing procedures were free of bias." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .90.

Trustworthiness. The trustworthiness of the organization was assessed by three subscales (ability, benevolence, and integrity) adapted from Mayer and Davis (1999). An example item from the four-item ability subscale is, "This organization is known to be very successful at the things it tries to do." An example item from the five-item benevolence subscale is, "This organization is very concerned about my welfare." An example from the six-item integrity subscale is, "I am confident that this organization would always stick to their word." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .92 for ability, .95 for benevolence, and .94 for integrity.

Trust. Trust in the organization was assessed with a six-item measure adapted from Schoorman and Ballinger (2006). An example item is, "If I had my way, I wouldn't let this organization have any influence over decisions that are important to me." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .70.

Positive and Negative State Affect. Participants' state affect, or mood, were measured with an expanded version of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), known as the PANAS-X (Watson & Clark, 1994). In addition to the two original higher order scales, the PANAS-X measures 11 specific affects. The present study included the following eight specific

affects (as Watson and Clark, 1994, indicate, researchers may pick and choose which affective states are most relevant to their research): fear, hostility, guilt, sadness, joviality, self-assurance, attentiveness, and serenity. The 50-item inventory asks participants to rate how well each listed adjective describes them from 1 (*very slightly or not at all*) to 5 (*extremely*). Participants were instructed to indicate how they felt in the present moment. The positive affect (PA) subscale includes items such as: "Interested," "Excited," and "Strong." The negative affect (NA) subscale includes items such as: "Distressed," "Ashamed," and "Nervous." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .91 for the PA subscale and .92 for the NA subscale. Cronbach's alpha reliability statistics for the lower order PANAS-X scales were as follows: Fear (α = .89), Hostility (α = .87), Guilt (α = .93), Sadness (α = .94), Joviality (α = .95), Self-Assurance (α = .90), Attentiveness (α = .84), and Serenity (α = .95).

Promotion and Prevention Motivation. Promotion and prevention focus were assessed with Lockwood, Jordan, and Kunda's (2002) 18-item measure. An example item is, "I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .92 for the Promotion Focus subscale and .90 for the Prevention Focus subscale.

Satisfaction with the Selection Process. Satisfaction with the selection process was assessed with a two-item measure adapted from Macan et al. (1994). An example item is, "In general, I am satisfied with the testing process." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .89.

Attraction to the Organization. Attraction to the organization was assessed with a two-item measure developed by the researcher. An example item is, "Based on

my experience with the testing process, my desire to continue interacting with this organization is strong." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .94.

Job Pursuit Intentions. Job pursuit intentions were assessed with a three-item measure adapted from Smither et al. (1994). An example item is, "Based on my experience with the testing process, I would seriously consider this organization as a possible employer." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .89.

Job Acceptance Intentions. Job acceptance intentions were assessed with a two-item measure adapted from Smither et al. (1994). An example item is, "Based on my experience with the testing process, if I were offered a job by this organization, I would accept it." Note that this is one of the items that was originally included in Smither et al.'s (1994) measure of job pursuit intentions. Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .87.

Reapplication Intentions. Reapplication intentions were assessed with a two-item measure, adapted from Ployhart & Ryan (1997). An example item is, "Based on my experience with the testing process, I would apply for a job with this organization again." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .96.

Recommendation Intentions. Recommendation intentions were assessed with a two-item measure adapted from Smither et al. (1993). An example item is, "Based on my experience with the testing process, I would encourage others to apply for employment with this organization." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .46. The two items in this scale were not used individually but combined with the other applicant reaction variables in the "Reciprocative Reactions" composite below, and there the reliability was quite acceptable (coefficient alpha = 95).

Reciprocative Reactions. Reciprocative reactions were assessed by taking an average of the thirteen aforementioned applicant reaction items (i.e., satisfaction with the selection process, attraction to the organization, job pursuit intentions, job acceptance intentions, reapplication intentions, and recommendation intentions). Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .95.

Neutral Object Ratings. An abbreviated version of Weitz's (1952) 23-item Neutral Object Satisfaction Questionnaire was included as a marker variable, to assess and control for potential common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff, 2003). Consistent with Johnson, Rosen, & Djurdjevic (2011), only the 11 items that demonstrated factor loadings of greater than .40 on a single higher order factor in Judge and Bretz's (1993) confirmatory factor analysis were used. An example item is, "I am satisfied with the city in which I live." Cronbach's alpha reliability statistic was .83.

Demographics and control variables. Race, gender, age, work experience, employment status, prior experience taking personality tests in selection contexts, and prior faking behavior were also collected.

Study 1 Results

Outlier and Missing Data Analysis

Univariate and multivariate outlier analyses revealed no outliers and there were no missing data. Prior to data analysis, correlations among all variables were considered (Table 3).

Manipulation Checks

An analysis of the manipulation check items revealed that the four experimental warning statements were, in fact, operating as intended. Differences by message framing and consequence type are detailed below. Note that both statistical significance (*p*-level) and practical significance (Cohen's *d*) are presented. A Cohen's *d* value of .2 reflects a small effect, .5 reflects a medium effect and .8 reflects a large effect.

Message Framing

***Positive Framing*.** The positively framed warnings were perceived as significantly more a) positively framed, b) caring, and c) referring to honest responding than were the negatively framed warnings. Specifically, the positively framed warnings were perceived as significantly more *positively framed* (M = 6.10, SD = 1.07) than were the negatively framed warnings (M = 4.71, SD = 1.85), $t(310) = -7.96$, $p < .001$, $d = .92$. The positively framed warnings were perceived as significantly more *caring* (M = 5.25, SD = 1.45) than were the negatively framed warnings (M = 4.03, SD = 1.75), $t(310) = -6.74$, $p < .001$, $d = .76$. Lastly, the positively framed warnings were perceived as *referring to honest responding* (M = 6.31, SD = 1.1) to a much greater extent than did the negatively framed warnings (M = 4.81, SD = 2.14), $t(310) = -7.77$, $p < .001$, $d = .88$.

Negative Framing. The negatively framed warnings were perceived as significantly more a) negatively framed, b) threatening, c) frightening, and d) referring to dishonest responding than were the positively framed warnings. Specifically, the negatively framed warnings was perceived as significantly more

negatively framed (*M* = 3.23, *SD* = 1.98) than were the positively framed warnings (*M* = 1.73, *SD* = 1.11), *t*(310) = 8.24, *p* < .001, *d* = .93. The negatively framed warnings was perceived as significantly more *threatening* (*M* = 3.23, *SD* = 2.00) than were the positively framed warnings (*M* = 1.64, *SD* = 1.22), *t*(310) = 8.48, *p* < .001, *d* = .96. The negatively framed warnings was perceived as significantly more *frightening* (*M* = 2.42, *SD* = 1.59) than were the positively framed warnings (*M* = 1.53, *SD* = .94), *t*(310) = 6.00, *p* < .001, *d* = .68. Lastly, the negatively framed warnings was perceived as *referring to dishonest responding* (*M* = 6.08, *SD* = 1.78) to a far greater extent than did the positively framed warnings (*M* = 3.39, *SD* = 2.13), *t*(310) = 12.15, *p* < .001, *d* = 1.37.

Consequence Type

Job Fit Warnings. The job fit warnings were perceived as *communicating a message in the long term best interest of the applicant* (*M* = 6.19, *SD* = 1.06) to a greater extent than the invalidation warnings (*M* = 5.32, *SD* = 1.41), *t*(310) = -6.19, *p* < .001, *d* = .70. The job fit warnings were perceived as significantly more *caring* (*M* = 5.18, *SD* = 1.52) than were the invalidation warnings (*M* = 4.08, *SD* = 1.73), *t*(310) = -6.00, *p* < .001, *d* = .68.

Invalidation Warnings. Invalidation warnings were perceived as significantly more *frightening* (*M* = 2.20, *SD* = 1.50) than were the job fit warnings (*M* = 1.76, *SD* = 1.22), *t*(310) = 2.86, *p* < .01, *d* = .32.

Theory of Planned Behavior Models

Measurement Model. The construct validity of the five latent variables included in the Theory of Planned Behavior Model (i.e., Favorable Attitudes Towards

Faking, Positive Subjective Norms, Perceived Behavioral Control, Intention to Fake, and Self-Reported Faking Behavior) was examined by conducting a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) in R. Models were evaluated via the χ^2 statistic, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), and the Nonnormed Fit Index (NNFI; Bentler & Bonett, 1980). A non-significant χ^2 is ideal; large sample sizes, however, can produce statistically significant results. For the RMSEA, which is an evaluation of fit relative to degrees of freedom, values less than .08 indicate acceptable fit and less than .05 indicate very good fit. CFI and NNFI are comparative model fit indices that examine model fit relative to that of a null model. Higher values equate to better fit, with .90 indicating acceptable fit and .95 very good fit. Given the lack of universally recognized values for fit indices, the cutoffs discussed here were used as guidelines for fit decisions (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010) in conjunction with other considerations (e.g., parsimony, factor loadings). Modifications were made to the measurement models until at least three of the four aforementioned fit indices reached levels of acceptable fit. With the exception of one item from the favorable attitudes toward faking scale ("Falsifying my responses on a personality test is useful"), and the trust scale ("It is important for me to have a good way to keep an eye on this organization"), all items were retained. These two items did not hang well with the other items in the respective scales, and fit indices increased following their removal. See Table 4 for complete CFA results.

Structural Models. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) in R was used to test Hypotheses 1 through 5. Specifically, a series of 5 models were run to test these hypotheses.

Test of Theory of Planned Behavior and Impact of Warnings on PBC and Favorable Attitudes Toward Faking. Overall, the model testing the Theory of Planned Behavior along with the impact of invalidation and job fit warnings on perceived behavioral control and favorable attitudes toward faking, respectively, (i.e., Hypotheses 1a-1d, Hypotheses 2a-2c, and Hypotheses 4a-4c) exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{332}$= 1212.27, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.08, CFI = 0.91, NFI = 0.88; see Figure 3). Hypotheses 1a-1d, which stated that perceived behavioral control (1a), positive subjective norms (1b) and favorable attitudes toward faking (1c) would all have direct positive effects on intention to fake, and then would have a direct positive effect on self-reported faking behavior, were all fully supported. Specifically, perceived behavioral control was positively related to intention to fake ($\beta = 0.19$, $p < 0.001$); positive subjective norms were positively related to intention to fake ($\beta = 0.40$, $p < 0.001$); and favorable attitudes toward faking were positively related to intention to fake ($\beta = 0.58$, $p < 0.001$). In turn, intention to fake was positively related to self-reported faking behavior (H1d; $\beta = 0.76$, $p < 0.001$).

Hypotheses 2a-2c, which stated that warnings of invalidation of test results would have a direct negative effect on perceived behavioral control (2a) and an indirect effect on intention to fake (2b) and self-reported faking behavior (2c), were fully supported. Specifically, warnings of invalidation of test results were negatively related to perceived behavioral control ($\beta = -0.27$, $p < 0.05$). As shown above,

perceived behavioral control was positively related to intention to fake (β = 0.19, p < 0.001) and intention to fake was positively related to self-reported faking behavior (β = 0.76, p < 0.001).

Hypotheses 4a-4c, which stated that warnings of job fit would have a direct negative effect on favorable attitudes toward faking (4a) and an indirect effect on intention to fake (4b) and self-reported faking behaviors (4c), were not supported. Specifically, while warnings of job fit were negatively related to favorable attitudes toward faking, the relationship was not significant (β = -0.15, p = .20).

Test of Moderation of the Relationship between Invalidation Warnings and PBC by Message Framing. To test hypothesis 3, which stated that message framing moderates the relationship between the warning of invalidation of test results and perceived behavioral control, the multiple groups analysis (MGA) approach to moderation in SEM was used (Cortina, Chen, & Dunlap, 2001; Williams, Edwards & Vandenberg, 2003). First, a model was run where the paths from the positively framed warning of invalidation of test results and the negatively framed warning of invalidation of test results and perceived behavioral control were constrained to be equal across groups (see Figure 4). Overall, this model exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{332}$ = 919.22, p < 0.001, RMSEA = 0.07, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.91).

Next, a model was run where the constraints were removed and the paths from the positively and negatively framed warnings of invalidation of test results to perceived behavioral control were allowed to estimate freely across groups (see Figure 5). This model exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{331}$ = 919.19, p < 0.001, RMSEA = 0.07, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.91). The moderator effect was statistically tested by taking

the difference in the two χ^2 values, which is itself a χ^2 value with degrees of freedom equal to the difference in degrees of freedom between the two models ($\chi 2_1 = 0.03$, $p > .05$). As such, hypothesis 3 was unsupported. Of interest, the paths from the positively and negatively framed invalidation warnings to perceived behavioral control were insignificant ($\beta = -0.15$, $p > .05$ and $\beta = -0.20$, $p > .05$, respectively), however, the beta weight for the path from the negatively framed warning of invalidation to perceived behavioral control was larger than the path from the positively framed warning of invalidation to perceived behavioral control.

Test of Moderation of the Relationship between Job Fit Warnings and Favorable Attitudes Toward Faking by Message Framing. This same procedure was repeated to test hypothesis 5, which stated that message framing would moderate the relationship between job fit warnings and attitudes toward faking. First, a model was run where the paths from the positively and negatively framed warnings of job fit and favorable attitudes toward faking were constrained to be equal across groups (see Figure 6). Overall, this model exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{332} = 1058.35$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.08, CFI = 0.92, NFI = 0.89).

Next, a model was run where the constraints were removed and the paths from the positively and negatively framed warnings of job fit to favorable attitudes toward faking were allowed to estimate freely across groups (see Figure 7). This model exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{331} = 1057.86$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.08, CFI = 0.92, NFI = 0.89). The paths from the positively and negatively framed job fit warnings to favorable attitudes toward faking were insignificant ($\beta = -0.09$, $p > .05$; $\beta = -0.16$, $p > .05$, respectively). The moderator effect was statistically tested by taking the

difference in the two χ^2 values, which is itself a χ^2 value with degrees of freedom equal to the difference in degrees of freedom between the two models ($\chi 2_1 = 0.49$, $p > .05$). As such, hypothesis 5 was unsupported.

Applicant Reactions

Measurement Model. The reliability and factor structure of the variables included in the applicant reactions model (i.e., positive and negative affect, overall trust, reciprocative reactions, overall justice) were examined by conducting a series of CFAs. Models were evaluated using the model fit indices described above. See Table 4 for full CFA results.

Structural Model. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) in R was used to test Hypotheses 6 – 14. Specifically, a series of 10 models were run to test these hypotheses.

Models Revised. In running the analyses, the hypothesized relationships in the applicant reactions model produced an unidentified solution, due specifically to the non-recursive relationship modeled between trust and state affect (H9a-H9b), as well as the feedback loop modeled from reciprocative reactions to both trust and state affect (H10a-H10c). As such, the hypothesized non-recursive relationship between trust and state affect (H9a-H9b) was modeled as a correlation. This required a revision to the language of H9a-H9b to read as follows:

> *Hypothesis 9a-9b: There will be a positive correlation between positive state affect and social exchange quality (trust) (9a) and a negative correlation between negative state affect and social exchange quality (trust) (9b).*

The feedback loop from reciprocative reactions to both trust and state affect was dropped from the model (H10a-H10c). While another option would have been to

model the feedback loop just as correlations between reciprocative reactions and trust and positive state affect, a significant contribution of this research was the testing of the direct effect of trust on reciprocative reactions. As such, the decision was made to retain the causal paths from trust to reciprocative reactions, rather than modeling the relationship as a correlation.

Test of Relationships between Justice, Trust, Positive State Affect & Reciprocative Reactions. The model testing hypotheses 6a-6b, 7a-7b, and 9a exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{406}$= 1007.22, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.91; see Figure 8). Overall justice perceptions had a direct positive effect on social exchange quality, as measured by trust ($\beta = .47$, $p < .001$), and trust had a direct positive effect on reciprocative reactions ($\beta = .67$, $p < .001$), providing full support for hypotheses 6a and 6b (respectively). Overall justice perceptions had a direct positive effect on positive state affect ($\beta = .31$, $p < .001$), providing support for hypothesis 7a. The effect of positive state affect on reciprocative reactions was not significant ($\beta = .06$, $p = .13$), failing to provide support for hypothesis 7b. The correlation between positive state affect and trust was positive and significant ($\beta = .20$, $p < .01$), providing support for hypothesis 9a.

Test of Relationships between Justice, Trust, Negative State Affect & Reciprocative Reactions. The model testing hypotheses 8a-8b and 9b exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{411}$= 1010.59, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.92; see Figure 9). Hypothesis 8a-8b, which stated that overall justice perceptions would have a direct negative effect on negative state affect (8a), which would have a direct negative effect on reciprocative reactions (8b) was only partially supported.

Specifically, overall justice perceptions had a direct negative effect on negative state affect (β = -.10, p < .001), in support of hypothesis 8a. Negative state affect, however, was not statistically significantly related to reciprocative reactions (β = .03, p = .69), failing to provide support for hypothesis 8b. The correlation between trust and negative state affect was negative and not statistically significant (r = -.07, p = .06), failing to provide support for hypothesis 9b.

Test of Relationships between Justice, Trust, Positive State Affect & Self-Reported Faking Behavior. The model testing hypotheses 6c and 7c exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{230}$= 436.24, p < 0.001, RMSEA = 0.05, CFI = 0.97, NFI = 0.94; see Figure 10). Hypothesis 6c, which stated that trust would have a direct negative effect on self-reported faking behavior, was fully supported (β = -.29, p < .01). Hypothesis 7c, which stated that positive state affect would have a direct negative effect on self-reported faking behavior, was fully supported (β = -.36, p < .001).

Test of Relationships between Justice, Trust, Negative State Affect & Self-Reported Faking Behavior. The model testing hypothesis 8c exhibited strong fit ($\chi 2_{235}$= 480.38, p < 0.001, RMSEA = 0.05, CFI = 0.97, NFI = 0.94; see Figure 11). Hypothesis 8c, which stated that negative state affect would have a direct positive effect on self-reported faking behavior, failed to be supported though (β = .22, p = .16).

Test of the Effect of Invalidation Warnings on Justice Perceptions. The model testing hypothesis 11 exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{436}$= 1036.63, p < 0.001, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.91; see Figure 12). Hypothesis 11, which stated

that warnings of invalidation of test results would have a direct negative effect on overall justice perceptions, failed to be supported (β = .05, p = .58).

Test of the Effect of Job Fit Warnings on Justice Perceptions. The model testing hypothesis 13 exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{436}$= 1037.15, p < 0.001, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.91; see Figure 13). Hypothesis 13, which stated that warnings of job fit would have a direct positive effect on justice perceptions, failed to be supported (β = .15, p = .11).

Test of the Moderation of the Relationship between Invalidation Warnings and Justice Perceptions by Message Framing. To test hypothesis 12, which stated that message framing moderates the relationship between the warning of invalidation of test results and overall justice perceptions, the multiple groups analysis (MGA) approach to moderation in SEM was used (Cortina, Chen, & Dunlap, 2001; Williams, Edwards & Vandenberg, 2003). First, a model was run where the paths from the positively framed warning of invalidation of test results and the negatively framed warning of invalidation of test results and perceived behavioral control were constrained to be equal across groups. Overall, this model exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{467}$= 1081.19, p < 0.001, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.90; see Figure 14).

Next, a model was run where the constraints were removed and the paths from the positively and negatively framed warnings of invalidation of test results to overall justice perceptions were allowed to estimate freely across groups. This model exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{466}$= 1081.18, p < 0.001, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.90; see Figure 15). Warnings of positively- and negatively framed warnings of invalidation did not have a significant direct negative effect on overall justice

perceptions (β = .04, p = .73; β = .06, p = .60, respectively). Additionally, the moderator effect was not significant ($\chi 2_1$= 0.01, p > .05), failing to provide support for hypothesis 12.

Test of the Moderation of the Relationship between Job Fit Warnings and Justice Perceptions by Message Framing. The same procedure described above was used to test hypothesis 14, which stated that message framing moderates the relationship between the warning of job fit and overall justice perceptions. First, a model was run where the paths from the positively- and negatively framed warnings of job fit and overall justice perceptions were constrained to be equal across groups. Overall, this model exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{467}$= 1079.81, p < 0.001, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.90; see Figure 16).

Next, a model was run where the constraints were removed and the paths from the positively- and negatively framed warnings of job fit to overall justice perceptions were allowed to estimate freely across groups. This model exhibited moderate fit ($\chi 2_{466}$= 1079.81, p < 0.001, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.90; see Figure 17). Warnings of positively- and negatively framed warnings of job fit did not have a significant effect on overall justice perceptions (β = .10, p = .42; β = .10, p = .42, respectively). Additionally, the moderator effect was not significant ($\chi 2_1$= 0.00, p > .05), failing to provide support for hypothesis 14.

Additional Analyses

In order to determine the relative utility of the warning statements examined in the present study, additional analyses were conducted. Consistent with prior research, faking is reflected by *higher* scores on measures of desirable personality

traits (i.e., extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) and *lower* scores on measures of undesirable personality traits (i.e., neuroticism).

Effect of Warning Condition on Theory of Planned Behavior. A one-way MANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of warning statement content on the variables included in the model of the Theory of Planned Behavior. There was not a statistically significant difference in scores on the variables included in the model of the Theory of Planned Behavior (i.e., perceived behavioral control, favorable attitudes toward faking, positive subjective norms, intentions to fake, self-reported faking behavior) based on the warning message received, F (24, 1327) = 1.52, p = .051; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.91$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$.

Effect of Warning Condition on Big 5 Personality Scores. A one-way MANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of warning statement content on the Big 5 personality test scores. There was a statistically significant difference in personality test scores based on the warning message received, F (20, 1265) = 2.11, $p < .01$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.90$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. Specifically, warning message content had a statistically significant effect on neuroticism (F (4, 385) = 4.40, $p < .01$; partial $\eta^2 = .04$), extraversion (F (4, 385) = 4.47, $p < .01$; partial $\eta^2 = .04$), and conscientiousness (F (4, 385) = 6.77, $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .07$). To account for multiple ANOVAs being run, a Bonferroni correction was made and statistical significance at $p < .025$ was accepted. Results of Tukey's HSD post-hoc tests are detailed below.

Neuroticism. Mean scores for neuroticism were statistically significantly different between the unwarned condition and both the negative invalidation warning ($p < .01$) and the positive job fit warning ($p < .025$), but not between the unwarned condition and the positive invalidation warning ($p = .37$) or the negative job fit warning ($p = .60$). Mean scores reflect significantly greater faking on neuroticism in the unwarned condition ($M = 2.15$, $SD = .92$) than in the negative invalidation warning ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 1.11$, $d = .61$) or positive job fit warning ($M = 2.68$, $SD = 1.03$, $d = .54$).

Extraversion. Mean scores for extraversion were statistically significantly different between the unwarned condition and the positive job fit warning ($p < .01$), but not between the unwarned condition and the negative invalidation warning ($p = .034$), the positive invalidation warning ($p = .57$) or the negative job fit warning ($p = .99$). Mean scores reflect significantly greater faking on extraversion in the unwarned condition ($M = 4.80$, $SD = .80$) than in the positive job fit warning ($M = 4.33$, $SD = .92$, $d = .54$).

Conscientiousness. Mean scores for conscientiousness were statistically significantly different between the unwarned condition and the negatively invalidation warning ($p < .001$) and the positive job fit warning ($p < .001$), but not between the unwarned condition and the positive invalidation warning ($p = .086$) or the negative job fit warning ($p = .270$). Mean scores reflect significantly greater faking on conscientiousness in the unwarned condition ($M = 6.31$, $SD = .59$) than in the negative invalidation warning ($M = 5.75$, $SD = .85$, $d = .76$) or positive job fit warning ($M = 5.75$, $SD = .94$, $d = .71$).

Together, these analyses show that the negative invalidation and positive job fit warnings are most effective in minimizing faking behavior when measured as the Big 5 personality scores. The utility of warning statements, however, is a function of the extent to which they ***both*** deter faking behaviors as well as elicit positive (or at least not negative) reactions from test-takers. So, while negative invalidation and positive job fit warnings appear equally effective with respect to their ability to minimize faking behavior, a comprehensive analysis of relative utility includes the consideration of applicant reactions to these warning statements.

Effect of Warning Condition on Applicant Reactions.

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of warning statement content on the applicant reactions. Given the previous analyses revealed the negative invalidation and positive job fit warnings to be most effective with respect to minimizing faking behavior, the present analyses include comparisons between these two warning types and the unwarned condition (i.e., the positive invalidation and negative job fit warnings were not included in these analyses).

There was a statistically significant difference in applicant reactions based on the warning message received, F (32, 436) = 4.0, $p < .001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.60$, partial $\eta^2 = .23$. Specifically, warning message had a statistically significant effect on informational justice (F (2, 233) = 7.77, $p < .01$; partial $\eta^2 = .06$), interpersonal justice (F (2, 233) = 23.36, $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .17$), organizational attraction (F (2, 233) = 4.44, $p < .025$; partial $\eta^2 = .04$), reapplication intentions (F (2, 233) = 4.83, $p < .01$; partial $\eta^2 = .04$), benevolence (F (2, 233) = 8.92, $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .07$), and

reciprocative reactions (F (2, 233) = 4.32, $p < .025$; partial $\eta^2 = .04$). To account for multiple ANOVAs being run, a Bonferroni correction was made and statistical significance at $p < .025$ was accepted. Results of Tukey's HSD post-hoc tests are detailed below.

Informational Justice. Mean scores for informational justice were statistically significantly different between the unwarned condition and the positive job fit warning ($p < .001$); Mean scores reflect significantly *greater* levels of informational justice for the positive job fit warning ($M = 6.18$, $SD = .88$) compared to the unwarned condition ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.09$).

Interpersonal Justice. Mean scores for interpersonal justice were statistically significantly different between the negative invalidation warning and both the unwarned condition ($p < .001$) and the positive job fit warnings ($p < .001$); Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of interpersonal justice for the negative invalidation warning ($M = 5.57$, $SD = 1.18$) compared to both the unwarned condition ($M = 6.57$, $SD = .57$) and the positive job fit warning ($M = 6.55$, $SD = .67$).

Organizational Attraction. Mean scores for organizational attraction were statistically significantly different between the negative invalidation warning and the unwarned condition ($p < .025$); Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of organizational attraction for the negative invalidation warning ($M = 4.42$, $SD = 1.71$) versus the unwarned negative job fit warning ($M = 5.19$, $SD = 1.56$).

Reapplication Intentions. Mean scores for reapplication intentions were statistically significantly different between the negative invalidation warning and the unwarned condition ($p < .025$); Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of

reapplication intentions for the negative invalidation warning (M = 4.91, SD = 1.71) versus the unwarned condition (M = 5.57, SD = 1.38).

Benevolence. Mean scores for benevolence were statistically significantly different between the negative invalidation warning and both the unwarned condition ($p < .001$) and the positive job fit warning ($p < .001$); Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of benevolence for the negative invalidation warning (M = 3.73, SD = 1.49) versus the unwarned condition (M = 4.41, SD = 1.45) and the positive job fit warning (M = 4.66, SD = 1.31).

Reciprocative Reactions. Mean scores for reciprocative reactions were statistically significantly different between the negative invalidation warning and the unwarned condition ($p < .025$); Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of reciprocative reactions for the negative invalidation warning (M = 4.85, SD = 1.46) versus the unwarned condition (M = 5.39, SD = 1.21).

Taken together, the above results reflect that the positive job fit warning has a positive (or at least not negative) impact on applicant reactions, whereas the negative invalidation warning has a consistently negative impact on applicant reactions. Given that the positive job fit warning is equally as effective in deterring applicant faking behavior as is the negative invalidation warning, and elicits much more positive reactions from applicants, it may be prudent for organizations to consider utilizing this warning statement.

Study 1 Discussion

Study 1 sought to determine *how* warnings of invalidation and job fit function to minimize applicant faking behavior. Specifically, study 1 aimed to uncover the

mechanisms that underlie both of these warning consequence types. Consistent with expectations, warnings of invalidation of test results were found to function by lessening one's perceived behavioral control. That is, invalidation warnings minimize perceptions that one can fake effectively without getting caught. Alternatively, warnings of job fit were expected to function by lessening the favorability of one's attitudes toward faking, such that faking is no longer seen as in one's best interest. Results failed to support this hypothesis, as the relationship between job fit warnings and favorable attitudes toward faking – although negative—was not significant. A possible explanation is that statistical power may have played a role. Specifically, while the sample size for the variables in the Theory of Planned Behavior model (i.e., perceived behavioral, favorable attitudes toward faking, positive subjective norms, intention to fake, and self-reported faking behavior) were all n = 390, the sample sizes for the multiple warning conditions were smaller (n = 78). Although rules-of-thumb and best practices vary, it is recommended that multiple group analyses using SEM have at least 200 respondents per group (Kenny, 2011). This could explain the lack of significant results for all hypotheses related to the warning conditions that were tested via SEM.

Another aim of Study 1 was to assess whether message framing moderates these aforementioned relationships, such that negatively framed warnings of invalidation of test results are more strongly related to perceived behavioral control and positively framed warnings of job fit are more strongly related to favorable attitudes toward faking. Results, however, did not provide support for these hypotheses. In fact, the scores on perceived behavioral control and favorable attitudes

toward faking were exactly the same for positively and negatively framed messages of invalidation and job fit, respectively. That is, while manipulation check items did reveal differences in perceptions across the different warnings by message framing, these differences did not translate to any meaningful differences in the relationship between the warning statements and the particular outcome variables examined (i.e., perceived behavioral control and favorable attitudes toward faking). In short, the effect of message framing was much smaller than anticipated. Because of the jargon used in some of the manipulation check items (i.e., "the message was positively framed"), it is possible that participants may not have understood this item. Though standard deviations do not suggest misinterpretation, future research should consider modifying the wording of some manipulation check items.

While study 1 focused on uncovering the mechanisms that underlie warnings of various consequence type, in an attempt to identify *how* these different warning types function, additional analyses were conducted to examine the actual impact of these warnings on faking behavior and applicant reactions. With respect to minimizing faking behavior (as measured by both Big 5 personality test scores as well as self-reported faking behavior), the negative invalidation and positive job fit warnings were most effective. That is, only these two warning statements elicited personality test scores that differed statistically significantly from the unwarned condition in a direction consistent with less response distortion. The utility of warning statements, however, is a function of the degree to which they ***both*** deter faking behaviors as well as elicit positive (or at least not negative) reactions from test-takers. So, while negative invalidation and positive job fit warnings appear equally

effective with respect to minimizing faking behavior, a comprehensive analysis of relative utility includes the consideration of applicant reactions.

Similar to the above, study 1 aimed to examine *how* warnings of invalidation and job fit impact applicant reactions. Contrary to expectation, results did not support the prediction that invalidation warnings would have a direct negative effect on overall justice perceptions. Similarly, results did not support the prediction that job fit warnings would have a positive effect on overall justice perceptions or that message framing would moderate these relationships. Additional analyses, however, revealed that there was a significant effect of warning statement content on both informational and interpersonal justice, such that those who received the positive job fit warning experienced significantly greater levels of both information and interpersonal justice. While the current study utilized overall justice perceptions in the model of applicant reactions, these results suggest that including the aforementioned dimensions of justice in the model of applicant reactions may elicit more meaningful insights.

Additional analyses also revealed that the positive job fit warning has a positive (or at least not negative) impact on applicant reactions, whereas the negative invalidation warning has a consistently negative impact on applicant reactions (compared to the unwarned condition). Specifically, the negative invalidation warning was associated with significantly lower levels of organizational attraction, reapplication intentions, trustworthiness (as measured by benevolence) and overall reciprocative reactions. Taken together with the insights above, which illustrate that the negative invalidation and positive job fit warnings have similar effects on minimizing faking behavior, it appears that the positive job fit warning is most

advantageous in that it simultaneously deters applicant faking while eliciting positive (or at least not negative) applicant reactions from test-takers.

In an additional contribution to the literature, Study 1 expands the theoretical lens through which applicant reactions are viewed to include both trust and state affect. Results strongly support the integration of trust into the model of applicant reactions. Specifically, justice had a significant positive effect on perceptions of trust, which thereby had significant effects on both reciprocative reactions and faking behavior. That is, the more one perceives he/she is treated fairly, the more trust one has in the organization, which translates not just to organizational attraction, recommendation intentions, reapplication intentions, and the like, but also to one's *honesty* during the application process. By enhancing applicant perceptions of trust during the application process, organizations can simultaneously improve the quality of the social exchange relationship between organizations and applicants as well as minimize applicant faking behaviors.

The results of the inclusion of state affect in the model of applicant reactions were a bit more mixed. While justice had a significant impact on both positive and negative state affect, in contrast to prediction, neither positive nor negative state affect was significantly related to reciprocative reactions. Consistent with prediction, however, positive state affect had a significant negative effect on self-reported faking behavior. That is, those that were in a positive affective state were less likely to fake their responses on the personality test. Also of interest were the relationships between state affect and trust. Positive state affect was significantly correlated with trust, whereas the relationship between negative state affect was not significant. Given

these findings, researchers may choose to include positive state affect in models of applicant reactions – particularly when applicant honesty is a consideration.

A potential limitation of Study 1 is the degree of desirability of the Customer Service Representative position to participants. Specifically, about half or 54% of participants agreed (i.e., rated as *Slightly Agree*, *Moderately Agree* or *Strongly Agree*) that, "The Customer Service Representative Position is a desirable position to me" (M = 4.37, SD = 2.05). Furthermore, the Customer Service Representative position was *not* desirable for 37% of participants (i.e., rated as *Slightly Disagree*, *Moderately Disagree*, or *Strongly Disagree*). Results of a one-way MANOVA indicated that there is a statistically significant difference in faking behavior based on attraction to the position, F (8, 342) = 3.99, $p < .001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.92$, partial $\eta^2 = .09$. Specifically, attraction to the position had a statistically significant effect on scores of neuroticism (F (1, 349) = 5.53, $p < .025$; partial $\eta^2 = .02$), extraversion (F (1, 349) = 19.68, $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .05$), agreeableness (F (1, 349) = 7.79, $p < .01$; partial $\eta^2 = .02$), conscientiousness (F (1, 349) = 5.29, $p < .025$; partial $\eta^2 = .02$), intention to fake (F (1, 349) = 5.37, $p < .025$; partial $\eta^2 = .02$). Please see Table 5 for means and standard deviations. Those participants attracted to the position responded in a significantly more socially desirable manner on the aforementioned personality variables, however, they indicated significantly lower levels of self-reported faking behavior than did their counterparts not interested in the position. This may indicate that those who are attracted to positions have the motivation not only to fake their responses to personality test items (to better their chances of being hired) but also to manage

impressions such that they are not perceived as responding dishonestly. The effects of the warning statements on faking behavior may actually be larger, in reality, than was seen here, as applicants are more motivated to fake for jobs that they find desirable.

A second limitation of study 1 is that warnings of invalidation and job fit were considered in isolation. The effect of these different consequence types, when given to test-takers together, remains unknown. Study 2 addressed this limitation by considering warnings of multiple consequences (i.e., invalidation and job fit together).

Study 2

Whereas Study 1 took into consideration the impact of warning test-takers of *either* invalidation of test results or job fit, study 2 examined the impact of warning test-takers of *both* invalidation of test results and job fit. That is, study 2 aimed to determine whether there is an additive effect of consequence type, such that warning of multiple consequences is more effective in lessening faking behavior than warning of either consequence alone. Study 2 examined warnings of multiple consequences (i.e., both invalidation of test results and job fit), taking into consideration message framing, with the goal of determining: a) whether warnings of multiple consequences are more effective in lessening faking behaviors than are warnings of single consequences, and b) what is the most effective multiple-consequence warning.

Additive Effect of Consequence Type. Given attitudes toward faking and perceived behavioral control have both been found to explain unique variance in intentions to fake (McFarland & Ryan, 2006), a warning statement that directly

effects *both* perceived behavioral control and favorable attitudes towards faking should, theoretically, be more effective in lessening faking behaviors than a single-consequence warning statement. Given that study 1 found warnings of invalidation and job fit to operate differently, such that warnings of invalidation lessened perceived behavioral control whereas warnings of job fit lessened the favorability of attitudes toward faking (although not statistically significantly), a warning of *both* invalidation of test results and job fit was expected to be more effective in lessening applicant faking behavior than warning of either invalidation of test results or job fit in isolation:

> *Hypothesis 1: Multiple-consequence warnings will be more effective in lessening faking behaviors than will single-consequence warnings.*

Multiple-Consequence Warning Effectiveness. Study 1 found negative invalidation and positive job fit warnings to be equally effective in deterring applicant faking behavior. That is, the positive invalidation and negative job fit warnings were not significantly different from the unwarned condition (with respect to personality test and self-reported faking scores). For these reasons, the original hypothesis was revised to read as follows:

> *Hypothesis 2: There will be an invalidation framing x job fit framing interaction on faking behavior, such that those who receive the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning will engage in less faking behavior than those who receive any of the other multiple-consequence warnings*

With respect to applicant reactions, it was clear in study 1 that the positive job fit warning resulted in much more positive applicant reactions than did the negative invalidation warning. It is unknown what the impact on applicant reactions would be if these two warning statements were presented together. For example, the negative

invalidation warning may outweigh any positive benefits associated with the positive job fit warning. Alternatively, the positive job fit warning may mitigate the negative impact of the negative invalidation warning on applicant reactions. As such, the following research question was posed:

> *Research Question 1: What is the impact on applicant reactions of providing test-takers with both the negative invalidation and positive job fit warnings?*

In sum, study 2 investigated: a) whether there is an additive effect of consequence type, such that warning of multiple consequences is more effective than warning of either consequence alone, b) whether the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning is the most effective multiple-consequence warning (with respect to deterring faking behavior), and c) what is the impact on applicant reactions of providing test-takers with both the negative and positive job fit warnings.

Study 2 Method

Participants

A total of 245 participants were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk. A number of qualification requirements were included (i.e., English as a first language, high school degree or GED, and at least 18 years of age). Participants received $8 in monetary compensation in exchange for their participation, which roughly equates to the federal hourly minimum wage rate.

Four participants were dropped from the study for failing to pass the quality control and manipulation check items, bringing the total sample size to 241. Specifically, two participants were excluded from analyses as they indicated being unable to assume the role of a job applicant; two participants were excluded from

analyses as they failed to recall the title of the position to which they were pretending to apply.

Of the participants, 186 (77%) were Caucasian/White, 20 (8%) were Black or African American, 16 (7%) were Hispanic or Latino, 11 (5%) were Asian, 6 (3%) were Two or More Races, 1 was American Indian and Alaskan Native and 1 was Other. The average age of the sample was 37.00 years (SD = 11.07), with 100 (42%) males and 141 (58%) females. The majority of participants (n = 193, 80%) were employed; of those, the majority (n = 149, 62%) work full-time. Additionally, the majority of participants (n = 180, 75%) had experience working in customer service.

Most of the analyses in study 2 utilize the full data set, which is a total of 631 participants (i.e., combines data from Study 1 with that of Study 2).

Design

Data were collected in a 2(warning of invalidation framing: positive vs. negative) x 2(warning of job fit framing: positive vs. negative) fully crossed factorial design.

Procedure

Participants were randomly assigned to one of four experimental warning conditions (i.e., positive job fit + positive invalidation, positive job fit + negative, negative job fit + positive invalidation, negative job fit + negative invalidation). For the full text of these warning conditions, please see Table 6. To control for potential order effects, the text of the invalidation and job fit warnings was counterbalanced. With the exception of the warning texts, the materials and procedure used in study 2 was identical to study 1. Participants were restricted to the warning statement page for

90 seconds, to ensure that they read the warning statement prior to advancing to the personality assessment.

Study 2 Results

Outlier and Missing Data Analysis

Univariate and multivariate outlier analyses revealed no outliers and there were no missing data. Prior to data analysis, correlations among all variables were considered (Table 7). Lastly, potential order effects were assessed by conducting a series of independent-samples t-tests on all dependent variables of interest (i.e., perceived behavioral control, favorable attitudes toward faking, subjective norms, intention to fake, self-reported faking behavior, justice, trust, positive and negative affect, and reciprocative reactions) comparing the counterbalanced warning conditions (i.e., negative invalidation + negative job fit vs. negative job fit + negative invalidation; positive invalidation + positive job fit vs. positive job fit + positive invalidation; negative invalidation + positive job fit vs. positive job fit + negative invalidation; positive invalidation + negative job fit vs. negative job fit + positive invalidation). All t-test results were not significant, ruling out potential order effects. Thus, counterbalanced warning conditions were combined.

Hypothesis Testing

Mean differences in self-reported faking behavior as well as personality test scores (a typical proxy for faking behavior) were examined in the following hypothesis tests.

Self-Reported Faking Behavior. Hypothesis 1 stated that multiple-consequence warnings would be more effective in lessening faking behaviors than

would single-consequence warnings. To test this hypothesis, an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare self-reported faking behavior across single- and multiple-consequence warning conditions. To do so, the data collected in study 1 on the single-consequence warnings were compared to that collected in study 2 on the multiple-consequence warnings. Self-reported faking behavior did not differ statistically significantly between the single-consequence (M = 2.40, SD = 1.67) and multiple-consequence warning conditions (M = 2.23, SD = 1.64), t(551) = 1.20, p = .23, d = .10 taken as a whole.

Personality Test Scores. Additionally, independent samples t-tests revealed scores on the Big 5 personality dimensions did not differ statistically significantly between single-consequence and multiple consequence warnings. Specifically, extraversion did differ significantly between single-consequence (M = 4.51, SD = 0.88) and multiple-consequence warning conditions (M = 4.34, SD = 0.91), t(551) = 2.25, p = .03, d = .19. Neuroticism did not differ significantly between single-consequence (M = 2.58, SD = 1.06) and multiple-consequence warning conditions (M = 2.73, SD = 1.08), t(551) = -1.71, p = .09, d =.14. Openness to experience did not differ significantly between single-consequence (M = 4.81, SD = 0.68) and multiple-consequence warning conditions (M = 4.73, SD = 0.82), t(551) = 1.23, p = .22, d = .11. Agreeableness did not differ significantly between single-consequence (M = 5.49, SD = 0.69) and multiple-consequence warning conditions (M = 5.48, SD = 0.84), t(551) = 0.09, p = .93, d = .01. Conscientiousness did not differ significantly between single-consequence (M = 5.88, SD = 0.84) and multiple-consequence warning conditions (M = 5.89, SD = 0.78), t(551) = -.26, p = .80, d = .01.

Hypotheses 2, which stated that there would be an invalidation framing x job fit framing interaction on faking behavior, such that those who received the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning would engage in less faking behavior than *all other* multiple consequence warning conditions was tested with a 2(warning of invalidation framing: positive, negative) x 2(warning of job fit framing: positive, negative) ANOVA. The interaction between warning of invalidation framing and warning of job fit framing on self-reported faking behavior was not significant, failing to provide support for hypothesis 2, F (1, 237) = 0.07, p = .80.

Research Question 1 asked, *What is the impact on applicant reactions of providing test-takers with both the negative invalidation and positive job fit warnings?* A one-way MANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of warning statement content (i.e., unwarned, negative invalidation, positive job fit, and negative invalidation + positive job fit) on applicant reactions. There was a statistically significant difference in applicant reactions based on the warning message received, F (42,843) = 3.49, p < .001; Wilk's Λ = 0.62, partial η^2 = .15. Specifically, warning message content had a statistically significant effect on informational justice (F (3, 294) = 9.89, p < .001; partial η^2 = .09), interpersonal justice (F (3, 294) = 16.02, p < .001; partial η^2 = .14), organizational attraction (F (3, 294) = 3.74, p < .025; partial η^2 = .04), reapplication intentions (F (3, 294) = 3.45, p < .025; partial η^2 = .03), and benevolence (F (3, 294) = 6.47, p < .001; partial η^2 = .06). To account for multiple ANOVAs being run, a Bonferroni correction was made and statistical significance at p < .025 was accepted. Results of Tukey's HSD post-hoc tests are detailed below.

Informational Justice. Mean scores for informational justice were statistically significantly different between the unwarned condition and both the positive job fit ($p < .001$) and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination ($p <.001$). Mean scores reflect significantly *greater* levels of informational justice for the positive job fit warning ($M = 6.18$, $SD = .88$) and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination ($M = 6.32$, $SD = .67$) compared to the unwarned condition ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.09$). Furthermore, mean sores for informational justice were statistically significantly different between the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination and the negative invalidation warning ($p <.001$). Mean scores reflect significantly *greater* levels of informational justice for the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination ($M = 6.32$, $SD = .67$) compared to the negative invalidation warning combination ($M = 5.82$, $SD = 1.02$).

Interpersonal Justice. Mean scores for interpersonal justice were statistically significantly different between the negative invalidation warning and the unwarned condition ($p < .001$), the positive job fit warning ($p < .001$), and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning ($p < .001$). Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of interpersonal justice for the negative invalidation warning ($M = 5.57$, $SD = 1.18$) compared to the unwarned condition ($M = 6.57$, $SD = .57$), the positive job fit warning ($M = 6.55$, $SD = .67$), and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning ($M = 6.44$, $SD = .86$).

Organizational Attraction. Mean scores for organizational attraction were statistically significantly different between the negative invalidation warning and the unwarned condition ($p < .025$); Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of

organizational attraction for the negative invalidation warning (M = 4.42, SD = 1.71) versus the unwarned negative job fit warning (M = 5.19, SD = 1.56). There were no statistically significant differences between the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination and either the positive job fit (p = .95) or the unwarned condition (p = 1.0)

Reapplication Intentions. Mean scores for reapplication intentions were statistically significantly different between the negative invalidation warning and the unwarned condition (p < .025); Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of reapplication intentions for the negative invalidation warning (M = 4.91, SD = 1.71) versus the unwarned condition (M = 5.57, SD = 1.38). There were no statistically significant differences on reapplication intentions between the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination and either the positive job fit warning (p = .95) or the unwarned condition (p = .95).

Benevolence. Mean scores for benevolence were statistically significantly different between the negative invalidation warning and the unwarned condition (p < .025), the positive job fit warning (p < .001), and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination (p < .025); Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of benevolence for the negative invalidation warning (M = 3.73, SD = 1.49) versus the unwarned condition (M = 4.41, SD = 1.45), the positive job fit warning (M = 4.66, SD = 1.31), and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning (M = 4.44, SD = 1.26).

Together, these results illustrate that the positive job fit warning, when combined with the negative invalidation warning, mitigates the negative impact of the

negative invalidation warning on applicant reactions, such that the combination warning (negative invalidation + positive job fit) elicits more positive applicant reactions than does the negative invalidation warning alone.

Supplemental Analyses

Given results support that the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning elicits more positive applicant reactions than does the negative invalidation warning alone, an unanswered question is whether this combination warning lessens applicant faking to a greater degree than does the negative invalidation or positive job fit warning alone. While results did not support hypothesis 2 (which stated that there would be an invalidation framing x job fit framing interaction on faking behavior, such that those who received the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning would engage in less faking behavior than *all other* multiple consequence warning conditions), it is unknown whether the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination would be more or less effective in lessening applicant faking behavior than would the negative invalidation or positive job fit warning alone.

Effect of Warning Condition on Theory of Planned Behavior. A one-way MANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of warning statement content on the variables included in the model of the Theory of Planned Behavior. There was a statistically significant difference in scores on the variables included in the model of the Theory of Planned Behavior (i.e., perceived behavioral control, favorable attitudes toward faking, positive subjective norms, intention to fake, self-reported faking behavior) based on the warning message received, F (15, 801) = 2.02, $p < .025$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.90$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. Specifically, warning message content had a

statistically significant effect on self-reported faking behavior F (3, 294) = 6.23, p < .001; partial η^2 = .06. To account for multiple ANOVAs being run, a Bonferroni correction was made and statistical significance at p < .025 was accepted. Results of Tukey's HSD post-hoc tests are detailed below.

Self-Reported Faking Behavior. Mean scores for self-reported faking behavior were statistically significantly different between the unwarned condition and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination (p <.001), but not between the unwarned condition and the negative invalidation (p = .04) or positive job fit warnings (p = .04). Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of self-reported faking behavior for the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination (M = 1.94, SD = 1.32) compared to the unwarned condition (M = 3.18, SD = 2.14).

Effect of Warning Condition on Personality Test Scores. A one-way MANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of warning statement content (i.e., unwarned, negative invalidation, positive job fit, and negative invalidation + positive job fit) on faking behavior (i.e., personality test scores). There was a statistically significant difference in personality test scores based on the warning message received, F (15, 801) = 2.96, p < .001; Wilk's Λ = 0.86, partial η^2 = .05. Specifically, warning message content had a statistically significant effect on neuroticism (F (3, 294) = 7.72, p < .001; partial η^2 = .07), extraversion (F (3, 294) = 6.07, p < .01; partial η^2 = .06), agreeableness (F (3, 294) = 3.40, p < .025; partial η^2 = .04), and conscientiousness (F (3, 294) = 8.34, p < .001; partial η^2 = .08). To account for

multiple ANOVAs being run, a Bonferroni correction was made and statistical significance at $p < .025$ was accepted. Results of Tukey's HSD post-hoc tests are detailed below.

Neuroticism. Mean scores for neuroticism were statistically significantly different between the unwarned condition and the negative invalidation ($p < .01$), the positive job fit ($p < .001$) and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination ($p < .001$). Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of faking for the negative invalidation ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 1.11$), the positive job fit ($M = 2.68$, $SD = 1.03$), and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination ($M = 2.96$, $SD = 1.19$) compared to the unwarned condition ($M = 2.15$, $SD = .92$).

Extraversion. Mean scores for extraversion were statistically significantly different between the unwarned condition and both the positive job fit ($p < .01$) and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination ($p < .01$), but not between the unwarned condition and the negative invalidation warning ($p = .03$). Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of faking for the positive job fit ($M = 4.33$, $SD = .92$) and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination ($M = 4.19$, $SD = 1.03$) compared to the unwarned condition ($M = 4.80$, $SD = .80$).

Agreeableness. Mean scores for agreeableness were statistically significantly different between the unwarned condition and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination ($p < .025$), but not between the unwarned condition and the negative invalidation ($p = .39$) or the positive job fit warning ($p = .05$). Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of faking for the negative invalidation + positive job

fit warning combination (*M* = 5.31, *SD* = .77) compared to the unwarned condition (*M* = 5.65, *SD* = .55).

Conscientiousness. Mean scores for conscientiousness were statistically significantly different between the unwarned condition and the negative invalidation ($p < .001$), the positive job fit ($p < .001$) and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination ($p < .01$). Mean scores reflect significantly *lower* levels of faking for the negative invalidation (*M* = 5.75, *SD* = .85), the positive job fit (*M* = 5.75, *SD* = .94), and the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination (*M* = 5.79, *SD* = .91) compared to the unwarned condition (*M* = 6.31, *SD* = .59).

In sum, these results illustrate that the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination is just as effective in minimizing applicant faking behavior than either the negative invalidation or positive job fit warning alone, and in some cases, is even more effective (i.e., agreeableness, self-reported faking behavior)

Study 2 Discussion

Study 2 explored the potential impact of multiple-consequence warnings (i.e., warning of both invalidation of test results and job fit) on both faking behaviors as well as applicant reactions. Contrary to prediction, at the broad level, hypothesis testing revealed no statistically significant differences between multiple and single consequence warnings on either personality test scores or self-reported faking behavior. It should be noted, however, that these analyses collapsed together multiple conditions that may have, in effect, "washed out" the effect of multiple consequence (vs. single consequence) warnings. Further analyses conducted with respect to Research Question 1 revealed that the positive job fit warning, when combined with

the negative invalidation warning, mitigated the negative impact that the negative invalidation warning had on applicant reactions, such that the combination warning (negative invalidation + positive job fit) elicited more positive applicant reactions than did the negative invalidation warning alone. Furthermore, supplemental analyses clearly illustrate that the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning combination is just as effective at minimizing applicant faking behavior as either the negative invalidation or positive job fit warning alone – and, in some cases – is even more effective. As such, organizations may benefit from including the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning prior to personality testing as part of the application process.

General Discussion

Manipulating the truth appears to be a fundamental human phenomenon (e.g., Goffman, 1959; Levin & Zickar, 2002). Children begin to tell lies as young as 2 years of age (Evans & Lee, 2013). Lying increases with age and is a pervasive behavior among adults (DePaulo, Kashy, Kirkendol, Wyer, & Epstein, 1996). Student survey research indicates, "50% or more…admit to cheating on examinations or other assessments" (Cizek, 1999, pp. 34-35). The media highlights incidents of ivy-league college students cheating on exams (*New York Times*, 2013), high-profile CEOs found guilty of resume embellishment (CNNMoney.com, 2012), and even individuals paying off employees of the Department of Motor Vehicles to obtain commercial drivers licenses fraudulently (New York Daily News, 2013). These examples are similar in that they represent situations in which the individuals were "caught" after information could not be verified. The actual extent to which people have furthered

their academic and professional careers through dishonest means is unknown, however, as some acts of dishonesty undoubtedly go undiscovered.

When manipulation of the truth enters the context of personnel selection, the consequences can be great. The utility and validity of selection systems may be undermined (e.g., Donovan et al., 2013; Mueller-Hanson et al., 2003). Individuals may be accepted for positions for which they are not well suited, leading to a plethora of potential negative outcomes including physical, emotional, and mental distress (e.g., Edwards, 1992; Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison, 1998; Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Kristoff-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Such individuals are more likely to withdraw and exit organizations because their true personality, attitudes, and values are inconsistent with those of the organization (e.g., Judge & Cable, 1997; Schneider, 1987). As such, faking has potential negative consequences for both organizations and applicants alike. Organizations are understandably motivated to deter applicant faking in some way, and warning statements are one of the most common methods currently in use to minimize applicant faking behaviors. Very little research, however, has investigated alternative content to the traditional warning statements (Dwight & Donovan, 2003).

The current research aimed to advance our understanding of warning statements through the achievement of three main objectives. First, the effect of two dimensions of warning statement content (consequence type and message framing) on applicant faking behaviors were examined, with a specific focus on the underlying mechanisms through which warnings of different consequence type function to impact faking behavior. Consistent with McFarland and Ryan (2006), the Theory of

Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) was utilized as a theoretical framework. An understanding of how warning statement content functions is needed in order to design the most effective warning statements. Findings support predictions that invalidation warnings function by lessening one's perceived behavioral control. On the contrary, results did not support the prediction that job fit warnings function by lessening the favorability of one's attitudes towards faking as the relationship between job fit warnings and favorable attitudes toward faking – although negative – was not statistically significant. Also contrary to prediction, message framing did not moderate these aforementioned relationships. That is, the scores on perceived behavioral control and favorable attitudes toward faking were exactly the same for positively and negatively framed messages of invalidation and job fit, respectively. In short, the effect of message framing was much smaller than anticipated.

A second objective of the current research was to assess the impact of warning statement content on applicant reactions. In doing so, the theoretical lens through which applicant reactions are examined was expanded beyond organizational justice, to include social exchange quality, as measured by trust. Results support the expansion of the model of applicant reactions to include trust in the organization. Specifically, fair treatment on the part of organizations during the selection process strengthens the quality of the social exchange relationship through enhanced trust in the organization, thereby increasing the likelihood of reciprocation on the part of applicants. Most interestingly, the reciprocation on the part of applicants took the form not just of attraction to the organization, reapplication intentions, etc., but also of honest responses on the personality test.

A third goal of the current research was to examine whether there is an additive effect of consequence types, such that warning of both invalidation of test results and job fit has a stronger effect on faking behavior than does warning of either consequence alone. Hypothesis testing, however, did not support these predictions.

Additional analyses were conducted across both Study 1 and Study 2 to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomena. Although the focus of Study 1 was on uncovering the mechanisms that explain *how* different warning types function, additional analyses investigated the actual impact of these different warning types on faking behavior. Results revealed that the negative invalidation and positive job fit warnings were the only warning statements to elicit scores statistically significantly different from the unwarned condition (in the direction that reflects less faking). As stated previously, the utility of warning statements is a function of the extent to which they both deter applicant faking behavior and elicit positive (or at least not negative) applicant reactions. Additional analyses revealed that the positive job fit warning elicited positive (or at least not negative) applicant reactions from test takers, whereas the negative invalidation warning elicited negative reactions – compared to the unwarned condition. As such, the positive job fit warning holds greater potential utility than does the negative invalidation warning. Interestingly, however, when the negative invalidation and positive job fit warnings are provided together, the positive job fit warning mitigates the negative impact of the negative invalidation warning on applicant reactions. Furthermore, this combination warning (negative invalidation + positive job fit) is just as effective at minimizing applicant faking behavior as either the negative invalidation or the positive job fit warning

alone – and, in some cases – is even more effective. As such, organizations may reap the greatest benefits from including the negative invalidation + positive job fit combination warning prior to personality testing as part of the application process. In doing so, they will simultaneously lessen applicant faking and improve applicant reactions.

Limitations

The current research is not without limitation. First, one may question whether the motivation of test-takers asked to assume the role of job applicants truly resembles the motivation of actual job applicants. Likewise, authentic selection settings are likely to be associated with an implicit assumption that the organization *may* attempt to punish dishonest responding, regardless of whether or not they are explicitly warned (Lammers et al., 2014). The motivations to fake, as well as the motivations *not* to fake, are likely more extreme in authentic selection contexts. Nonetheless, we asked participants to assume the role of a job applicant and assessed their ability to do so. Only those individuals who were able to take on that role were included in the analyses. Second, the self-report measure of faking behavior may be limited in its accuracy, given test-takers may fabricate their responses to these questions as well. The current research is set up, however, such that honest responding on this scale is strongly encouraged. Additionally, there is no motivation to fake on this scale, as there might be in real selection settings. Thirdly, some hypothesis tests (i.e., impact of message framing on perceived behavioral control, favorable attitudes toward faking) may have been limited by a lack of power. Specifically, it is recommended that multiple group analyses using SEM have at least

200 respondents per group (Kenny, 2011). While the sample size for the variables in the Theory of Planned Behavior model (i.e., perceived behavioral control, favorable attitudes toward faking, positive subjective norms, intention to fake, and self-reported faking behavior) were all n = 390, the sample sizes for the multiple warning conditions were smaller (n = 78). This could explain the lack of significant results for all hypotheses related to the warning conditions that were tested via SEM. Lastly, the ability to generalize these results is somewhat limited by the fact that warning statements were communicated via video (in addition to writing), whereas, the norm in practice today is to communicate solely via writing. It is unknown whether or not the salience of the warnings was greater given this communication method.

Future Research

Given the lack of research with respect to warning statement content, there are many different directions in which future research can be taken. First, how the proposed warning statement content impacts responses to other personality tests could be investigated. Similarly, how the proposed warning statement content impacts other selection contexts (e.g., biodata, situational judgment tests, employment interviews) could be explored. Another potential venue of future research would be to compare communication methods of warning statements. As mentioned above, the current study communicated warning statements to applicants via video. It is unknown whether this is a more or less effective method of communication compared to a written warning. It would be interesting to examine if including visual stimuli to illustrate the arguments being made could strengthen the effectiveness of the message, given much research supports the power of visual material in persuasion

and attitude change (e.g., Joffe, 2008). While the video warnings used here depicted an organizational leader who merely voiced the warning statements, different types of videos could be created that engage the test-taker and portray visual cues of warning statement content (e.g., positive benefits of being in a job for which one is a good fit). Currently, warning messages operate by way of the central route to persuasion in that test-takers must think about the content of the arguments of a message (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). By including visual stimuli, however, warning messages have the potential of also operating by way of the peripheral route. Characteristics of the presenter could be altered to increase the credibility of the source. For example, job fit warnings could be communicated by someone who is in obvious state of distress and discusses the negative outcomes that he/she experienced as a result of faking on the personality test. Another potential avenue of future research would be to assess alternative warning content (e.g., reminding applicants' of their morals and values; Pace & Borman, 2006). Given the strong relationship between positive subjective norms and intention to fake, future research should investigate warning statement content aimed at influencing one's perceptions of subjective norms. A warning could be designed that informs test-takers that, "Most people think falsifying responses on applications for employment is wrong". Again, it would be interesting to look at the effectiveness of this warning when combined with the invalidation and job fit warnings, as they all may function differently. Future research should also examine whether the effectiveness of warning statement content is dependent upon one's goal(s) in applying for a job. If one's goal is to obtain any job in order to be able to fulfill basic psychological needs (e.g., shelter, food, etc.), then the warning of job fit

will likely be less effective than if one's goal is to get into a job that will turn into a long-term career. That is, the reasons one seeks employment may impact warning effectiveness. Lastly, future research should take a longitudinal approach to determine whether the way in which an applicant is treated in the selection process impacts their subsequent behaviors after they leave the selection setting.

Conclusion

Despite the fact that personality tests are widely used in selection procedures, much research confirms that applicants are both willing and able to respond dishonestly to test items. Given the negative impact of applicant faking behavior on test validity and utility, practitioners are understandably motivated to lessen applicant faking in some way. Furthermore, the Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing indicates that "Reasonable efforts should be made to assure the integrity of test scores by eliminating opportunities for test takers to attain scores by fraudulent means" (Standard 5.6). As such, practitioners have an ethical responsibility to design test procedures in such a way that minimizes dishonest responding. Explicit warnings against faking are commonly included in test instructions to deter applicants from faking. Few studies, however, have examined alternative warning statement content or the way in which warning statement content operates to impact faking behavior or effect applicant reactions. The current research aimed to fill these gaps in the literature.

The current study investigated the potential effectiveness of a new type of warning statement – one that educates applicants on the benefits of being in a job for which one is a good fit. Results support that this positive job fit warning is just as

effective at minimizing applicant faking behaviors as is the typical warning statement used in practice today (i.e., negative invalidation). Furthermore, results support that the positive job fit warning elicits much more positive reactions from applicants than does the negative invalidation warning, supporting its greater utility. Most interestingly, when the negative invalidation warning and the positive job fit warning are combined and given to applicants together, the positive job fit warning mitigates the negative impact on applicant reactions of the negative invalidation warning. Furthermore, this combination warning is slightly more effective than either of the single-consequence warnings alone (i.e., negative invalidation and positive job fit). As such, organizations could benefit by presenting test takers with the negative invalidation + positive job fit warning prior to personality testing in the context of selection.

A significant contribution of the current research was the expansion of the theoretical lens through which applicant reactions are examined to include social exchange quality, as measured by trust. Results support the inclusion of this variable in the model of applicant reactions. Interestingly, applicants reciprocate the fair treatment they receive from the organization during the selection process not just with increased trust in, and attraction to, the organization – but also with increased honesty in their responses personality test items. That is, fair treatment of applicants on the part of the organization leads to increased trust in the organization that is reciprocated with increased applicant honesty. It seems that informing applicants of what is in their best interest (i.e., responding honestly to get into a job for which they are a good fit) turns out to be in the best interest of organizations, as well.

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Table 1
Study 1 Warning Condition Texts

Warning Type	Warning Message Text
Negatively framed Warning of Invalidation of Test Results	The test you are going to complete calls for your honest responses. Be aware of the following two points: 1) The test contains questions that are designed to identify those who attempt to fake their responses. Research has shown that these questions are an effective way of identifying individuals who provide inaccurate information about themselves. 2) Dishonest or distorted self-descriptions may invalidate your results. In other words, faking might result in you not being considered for the job of customer service representative.
Positively framed Warning of Invalidation of Test Results	The test you are going to complete calls for your honest responses. Please keep in mind the following two points: 1) The test contains questions that are designed to identify those who respond honestly. Research has shown that these questions are an effective way of identifying individuals who provide accurate information about themselves. 2) Honest self-descriptions will validate your results. In other words, responding honestly will allow you to be considered for the job of customer service representative.
Negatively framed Warning of Job Fit	The test you are going to complete calls for your honest responses. Be aware of the following two points: 1) Research has shown that personality tests can accurately predict who is a poor fit for the job. By responding dishonestly, inaccurate selection decisions are possible. 2) Responding dishonestly will harm you in the long run. Research has shown that those applicants who respond dishonestly are more likely to be selected for jobs for which they are a poor fit. When individuals are a poor fit for the job, they feel uncomfortable and unnatural in their positions and experience job stress, job dissatisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and can get physically sick. They are more likely to leave their positions. Being dishonest about who you are will lead you to a position for which you are not well suited. This will contribute to you living a less happy and healthy life.
Positively framed Warning of Job Fit	The test you are going to complete calls for your honest responses. Please keep in mind the following two points: 1) Research has shown that personality tests can accurately predict who is a good fit for the job. By responding honestly, you will help us to make the most accurate selection decisions possible. 2) Responding honestly is in your long-term best interest as well. Research has shown that those applicants who respond honestly are more likely to be selected for jobs for which they are a good fit. When individuals are a good fit for the job, they feel comfortable and natural in their positions and experience job satisfaction, well-being, and good physical health. They are more likely to thrive in their positions. Being honest about who you are will lead you to a position for which you are far better suited. This will contribute to you living a happier and healthier life.

Table 2: *Study 1 & Study 2 Scales*

Dimension	Facet (if applicable)	Item Content	Variable Name
Neuroticism	Anxiety	I worry about things.	IPIP92
		I fear for the worst.	IPIP51
		I am afraid of many things.	IPIP17
		I get stressed out easily.	IPIP2
	Anger	I get angry easily.	IPIP72
		I get irritated easily.	IPIP68
		I lose my temper.	IPIP24
		I am not easily annoyed.*	IPIP58
	Depression	I often feel blue.	IPIP102
		I dislike myself.	IPIP6
		I am often down in the dumps.	IPIP8
		I feel comfortable with myself.*	IPIP60
	Self-Consciousness	I find it difficult to approach others.	IPIP98
		I am afraid to draw attention to myself.	IPIP29
		I only feel comfortable with friends.	IPIP74
		I am not bothered by difficult social situations.*	IPIP45
	Immoderation	I go on binges.	IPIP94
		I rarely overindulge.*	IPIP90
		I easily resist temptations.*	IPIP117
		I am able to control my cravings.*	IPIP40
	Vulnerability	I panic easily.	IPIP9
		I become overwhelmed by events.	IPIP87
		I feel that I'm unable to deal with things.	IPIP107
		I remain calm under pressure.*	IPIP63
Extraversion	Friendliness	I make friends easily.	IPIP47
		I feel comfortable around people.	IPIP22
		I avoid contacts with others.*	IPIP73
		I keep others at a distance.*	IPIP59
	Gregariousness	I love large parties.	IPIP7
		I talk to a lot of different people at parties.	IPIP83
		I prefer to be alone.*	IPIP54

Table 2: *Study 1 & Study 2 Scales*

		I avoid crowds.*	IPIP55
	Assertiveness	I take charge.	IPIP62
		I try to lead others.	IPIP91
		I take control of things.	IPIP23
		I wait for others to lead the way.*	IPIP65
	Activity Level	I am always busy.	IPIP28
		I am always on the go.	IPIP120
		I do a lot in my spare time.	IPIP46
		I like to take it easy.*	IPIP113
	Excitement-Seeking	I love excitement.	IPIP36
		I seek adventure.	IPIP56
		I enjoy being reckless.	IPIP10
		I act wild and crazy.	IPIP116
	Cheerfulness	I radiate joy.	IPIP93
		I have a lot of fun.	IPIP30
		I love life.	IPIP27
		I look at the bright side of life.	IPIP49
Openness to Experience	Imagination	I have a vivid imagination.	IPIP70
		I enjoy wild flights of fantasy.	IPIP95
		I love to daydream.	IPIP34
		I like to get lost in thought.	IPIP88
	Artistic Interests	I believe in the importance of art.	IPIP110
		I see beauty in things that others might not notice.	IPIP114
		I do not like poetry.*	IPIP86
		I do not enjoy going to art museums.*	IPIP14
	Emotionality	I experience my emotions intensely.	IPIP25
		I feel others' emotions.	IPIP33
		I rarely notice my emotional reactions.*	IPIP66
		I don't understand people who get emotional.*	IPIP11
	Adventurousness	I prefer variety to routine.	IPIP50
		I prefer to stick with things that I know.*	IPIP52

Table 2: *Study 1 & Study 2 Scales*

		I dislike changes.*	IPIP64
		I am attached to conventional ways.*	IPIP119
	Intellect	I love to read challenging material.	IPIP20
		I avoid philosophical discussions.*	IPIP5
		I have difficulty understanding abstract ideas.*	IPIP103
		I am not interested in theoretical discussions.*	IPIP41
	Liberalism	I tend to vote for liberal political candidates.	IPIP71
		I believe that there is no absolute right and wrong.	IPIP15
		I tend to vote for conservative political candidates.*	IPIP75
		I believe that we should be tough on crime.*	IPIP19
Agreeableness	Trust	I trust others.	IPIP79
		I believe that others have good intentions.	IPIP61
		I trust what people say.	IPIP96
		I distrust people.*	IPIP43
	Morality	I use others for my own ends.*	IPIP35
		I cheat to get ahead.*	IPIP57
		I take advantage of others.*	IPIP13
		I obstruct others' plans.*	IPIP21
	Altruism	I am concerned about others.	IPIP1
		I love to help others.	IPIP85
		I am indifferent to the feelings of others.*	IPIP78
		I take no time for others.*	IPIP76
	Cooperation	I love a good fight.*	IPIP84
		I yell at people.*	IPIP101
		I insult people.*	IPIP32
		I get back at others.*	IPIP16
	Modesty	I believe that I am better than others.*	IPIP3
		I think highly of myself.*	IPIP12

Table 2: *Study 1 & Study 2 Scales*

		I have a high opinion of myself.*	IPIP53
		I boast about my virtues.*	IPIP44
	Sympathy	I sympathize with the homeless.	IPIP111
		I feel sympathy for those who are worse off than myself.	IPIP48
		I am not interested in other people's problems.*	IPIP118
		I try not to think about the needy.*	IPIP80
Conscientiousness	Self-Efficacy	I complete tasks successfully.	IPIP26
		I excel in what I do.	IPIP77
		I handle tasks smoothly.	IPIP18
		I know how to get things done.	IPIP81
	Orderliness	I like to tidy up.	IPIP82
		I often forget to put things back in their proper place.*	IPIP105
		I leave a mess in my room.*	IPIP38
		I leave my belongings around.*	IPIP99
	Dutifulness	I keep my promises.	IPIP89
		I tell the truth.	IPIP37
		I break rules.*	IPIP67
		I break my promises.*	IPIP109
	Achievement-Striving	I do more than what's expected of me.	IPIP106
		I work hard.	IPIP100
		I put little time and effort into my work.*	IPIP31
		I do just enough work to get by.*	IPIP108
	Self-Discipline	I am always prepared.	IPIP69
		I carry out my plans.	IPIP42
		I waste my time.*	IPIP104
		I have difficulty starting tasks.*	IPIP97
	Cautiousness	I jump into things without thinking.*	IPIP115
		I make rash decisions.*	IPIP4
		I rush into things.*	IPIP112

Table 2: *Study 1 & Study 2 Scales*

		I act without thinking.*	IPIP39
Quality Check Items		I was able to adopt the mindset of a real job applicant.	Quality1
		My answers were the same as they would have been had the application process been real.	Quality2
		The Customer Service Representative Position is a desirable position to me.	Quality3
		I would definitely choose to apply for the Customer Service Representative Position if it was a real position and I was out of work.	Quality4
Negative State Affect		Afraid	PANAS1
		Scared	PANAS2
		Nervous	PANAS3
		Jittery	PANAS4
		Irritable	PANAS5
		Hostile	PANAS6
		Guilty	PANAS7
		Ashamed	PANAS8
		Upset	PANAS9
		Distressed	PANAS10
Positive State Affect		Active	PANAS11
		Alert	PANAS12
		Attentive	PANAS13
		Determined	PANAS14
		Enthusiastic	PANAS15
		Excited	PANAS16
		Inspired	PANAS17
		Interested	PANAS18
		Proud	PANAS19
		Strong	PANAS20
Basic Negative Emotional Scales	Fear	Afraid (captured above)	PANAS1
		Scared (captured above)	PANAS2
		Frightened	PANAS21
		Nervous	PANAS22
		Jittery (captured above)	PANAS4

Table 2: *Study 1 & Study 2 Scales*

		Shaky	PANAS23
	Hostility	Angry	PANAS24
		Hostile (captured above)	PANAS6
		Irritable (captured above)	PANAS5
		Scornful	PANAS25
		Disgusted	PANAS26
		Loathing	PANAS27
	Guilt	Guilty (captured above)	PANAS7
		Ashamed (captured above)	PANAS8
		Blameworthy	PANAS28
		Angry at self	PANAS29
		Disgusted with self	PANAS30
		Dissatisfied with self	PANAS31
	Sadness	Sad	PANAS32
		Blue	PANAS33
		Downhearted	PANAS34
		Alone	PANAS35
		Lonely	PANAS36
Basic Positive Emotional Scales	Joviality	Happy	PANAS37
		Joyful	PANAS38
		Delighted	PANAS39
		Cheerful	PANAS40
		Excited (captured above)	PANAS16
		Enthusiastic (captured above)	PANAS15
		Lively	PANAS41
		Energetic	PANAS42
	Self Assurance	Proud (captured above)	PANAS19
		Strong (captured above)	PANAS20
		Confident	PANAS43
		Bold	PANAS44
		Daring	PANAS45
		Fearless	PANAS46

Table 2: *Study 1 & Study 2 Scales*

	Attentiveness	Alert (captured above)	PANAS12
		Attentive (captured above)	PANAS13
		Concentrated	PANAS47
		Determined (captured above)	PANAS14
	Serenity	Calm	PANAS48
		Relaxed	PANAS49
		At ease	PANAS50
Need to Fake		I have the necessary skills and abilities to perform this job well.*	NeedFake1
		I am well suited for this position.*	NeedFake2
		My natural personality is a perfect match for this position.*	NeedFake3
Favorable Attitudes Toward Faking		Faking on application tests is a good way to better my chances of being hired.	AttitudeFake1
		Responding dishonestly to test items is definitely worth the risk of getting caught.	AttitudeFake2
		Lying during the selection process is not wise.*	AttitudeFake3
		Falsifying my responses on an application is useful.*	AttitudeFake4
		Responding dishonestly is not in my long-term best interest.*	AttitudeFake5
		Lying during the selection process will lead to negative outcomes.*	AttitudeFake6
		I have a lot to gain from falsifying my responses on application tests.	AttitudeFake7
Subjective Norms		Most people who are important to me would look down on me if I lied on a selection test.*	SubNorm1
		My friends frequently fake their responses to selection tests.	SubNorm2
		Most people who are important to me would understand if I responded dishonestly to a selection test.	SubNorm3
		Most people my age lie to some degree during the application process.	SubNorm4
Perceived Behavioral Control		It would be easy for me to lie on a selection test.	BehControl1
		It is difficult to lie on selection tests and NOT get caught.*	BehControl2
		If I had wanted to, I could have easily faked my responses on this test to improve my scores.	BehControl3
		It is unlikely I would be caught if I responded dishonestly to items on a selection test.	BehControl4

Table 2: *Study 1 & Study 2 Scales*

Intention to Fake	I would never lie on a selection test.*	IntentFake1
	I would consider faking my responses to items on a selection test if it would increase my chances of getting the job.	IntentFake2
	I would likely enhance my positive qualities when applying for a job.	IntentFake3
	I would likely downgrade my negative qualities when applying for a job.	IntentFake4
	I would never say something untrue about myself in a selection test.*	IntentFake5
	I would consider responding in a way that would make me seem like the ideal candidate for the job.	IntentFake6
Self-Reported Faking Behavior	I made up false answers during the testing process to create a more favorable impression.	FakeBehavior1
	I withheld information during the testing process to create a more favorable impression.	FakeBehavior2
	I exaggerated my positive qualities during the testing process to create a more favorable impression.	FakeBehavior3
	I minimized my negative qualities during the testing process to create a more favorable impression.	FakeBehavior4
	I cheated to get ahead.	FakeBehavior5
	I answered all questions during the testing process completely honestly.*	FakeBehavior6
Past Faking Behavior	In the past, I have made up false answers during selection procedures to create a more favorable impression.	PastFake1
	In the past, I have withheld information during selection procedures to create a more favorable impression.	PastFake2
	In the past, I have exaggerated my positive qualities during selection procedures to create a more favorable impression.	PastFake3
	In the past, I have minimized my negative qualities during selection procedures to create a more favorable impression.	PastFake4
	In the past, I have cheated to get ahead.	PastFake5
	In the past, I have always answered all questions during selection procedures completely honestly.*	PastFake6
Overall Justice Perceptions	I think that the testing process is a fair way to select people for the job of customer service representative.	OverallJ1
	I think that the test itself was fair.	OverallJ2
	Overall, the method of testing used was fair.	OverallJ3

Table 2: *Study 1 & Study 2 Scales*

Informational Justice		The organization was candid in their communications with me.	InformationalJ1
		The organization thoroughly explained procedures to me during the testing process.	InformationalJ2
		The organization provided a reasonable explanation for why the specific selection procedures were used to hire people for the customer service representative position.	InformationalJ3
		The organization was straightforward and sincere about the application process and what it entailed.	InformationalJ4
		The organization treated me honestly and openly during the testing process.	InformationalJ5
Interpersonal Justice		I was treated in a polite manner during the testing process.	InterpersonalJ1
		I was treated with dignity during the testing process.	InterpersonalJ2
		I was treated with respect during the testing process.	InterpersonalJ3
		I was never subjected to improper treatment during the testing process.	InterpersonalJ4
		I was treated with courtesy during the testing process.	InterpersonalJ5
Procedural Justice		The testing procedures represented a fair means of selecting people for the job.	ProceduralJ1
		The testing procedures were free of bias.	ProceduralJ2
		The testing procedures were based on accurate information.	ProceduralJ3
		The testing procedures reflected high ethical and moral standards.	ProceduralJ4
Trustworthiness	Ability	This organization is very capable of performing well.	Ability1
		This organization is known to be very successful at the things it tries to do	Ability2
		There is a lot of knowledge within this organization.	Ability3
		I am confident about this organization's ability to succeed.	Ability4
	Benevolence	This organization (ICP Incorporated) is very concerned about my welfare.	Benevolence1
		My needs and desires are important to this organization (ICP Incorporated).	Benevolence2
		This organization would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.	Benevolence3
		This organization really looks out for what is important to me.	Benevolence4

Table 2: *Study 1 & Study 2 Scales*

		This organization will go out of their way to help me.	Benevolence5
	Integrity	This organization has a strong sense of justice	Integrity1
		I am confident that this organization would always stick to their word.	Integrity2
		This organization tries hard to be fair in dealing with people.	Integrity3
		From what I can tell, this organization's actions and behaviors are consistent.	Integrity4
		I like this organization's values.	Integrity5
		Sound principles seem to guide this organization's behaviors.	Integrity6
Overall Trust		This organization keeps my interests in mind when making decisions.	OverallTrust1
		I would be willing to let this organization have control over my future in this company.	OverallTrust2
		If this organization asked why a problem occurred, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.	OverallTrust3
		It is important for me to have a good way to keep an eye on this organization.	OverallTrust4
		Increasing my vulnerability to criticism by this organization would be a mistake.*	OverallTrust5
		If I had my way, I wouldn't let this organization have any influence over decisions that are important to me.*	OverallTrust6
Reciprocative Reactions	Satisfaction with Selection Process	In general, I am satisfied with the testing process.	SatSelectProc1
		Participation in the testing process was a positive experience.	SatSelectProc2
	Organizational Attractiveness	Based on my experience with the testing process, my desire to continue interacting with this organization is strong.	OrgAttract1
		Based on my experience with the testing process, I can envision a future with this organization.	OrgAttract2
	Job Pursuit Intentions	Based on my experience with the testing process, I would seriously consider this organization as a possible employer.	JobPursuit1
		Based on my experience with the testing process, I would request additional information about this organization.	JobPursuit2
		Based on my experience with the testing process, I would sign up for an interview with this organization.	JobPursuit3
	Job Acceptance Intentions	Based on my experience with the testing process, I would accept a job offer from this organization.	JobAccept1
		Based on my experience with the testing process, I would turn down a job offer from this company.*	JobAccept2

Table 2: *Study 1 & Study 2 Scales*

	Reapplication Intentions	Based on my experience with the testing process, I would apply for a job with this organization again.	ReappIntent1
		Based on my experience with the testing process, if another position became open with this company, I would be interested in applying.	ReappIntent2
	Recommendation Intentions	Based on my experience with the testing process, I would encourage others to apply for employment with this organization.	RecoIntent1
		Based on my experience with the testing process, if a friend of mine was considering applying for job with this company, I would tell them to reconsider.*	RecoIntent2
Manipulation Check Items		What was the title of the position for which you were pretending to apply?	Manipulation1
		Which of the following were listed as qualifications?	Manipulation2
		The message was positively framed.	Manipulation3
		The message was negatively framed.	Manipulation4
		The message was threatening.	Manipulation5
		The message communicated to me what was in my long-term best interest.	Manipulation6
		The message referred to dishonest responding.	Manipulation7
		The message referred to honest responding.	Manipulation8
		The message referenced that the falsification of test responses would lead to removal from the applicant pool.	Manipulation9
		The message referenced the potential consequences of being in a job for which one is a poor fit.	Manipulation10
		The message was caring.	Manipulation11
		The message frightened me.	Manipulation12
General Regulatory Focus	Promotion Focus	I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations.	RegFocus3
		I often think about the person I would ideally like to be in the future.	RegFocus5
		I typically focus on the success I hope to achieve in the future.	RegFocus6
		I often think about how I will achieve academic success.	RegFocus8
		My major goal in life right now is to achieve my ambitions.	RegFocus12
		I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to reach	RegFocus14

Table 2: *Study 1 & Study 2 Scales*

		my "ideal self"—to fulfill my hopes, wishes, and aspirations.	
		In general, I am focused on achieving positive outcomes in my life.	RegFocus16
		I often imagine myself experiencing good things that I hope will happen to me.	RegFocus17
		Overall, I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure.	RegFocus18
	Prevention Focus	In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life.	RegFocus1
		I am anxious that I will fall short of my responsibilities and obligations.	RegFocus2
		I often think about the person I am afraid I might become in the future.	RegFocus4
		I often worry that I will fail to accomplish my academic goals.	RegFocus7
		I often imagine myself experiencing bad things that I fear might happen to me.	RegFocus9
		I frequently think about how I can prevent failures in my life.	RegFocus10
		I am more oriented toward preventing losses than I am toward achieving gains.	RegFocus11
		My major goal right now is to avoid becoming a failure.	RegFocus13
Neutral Objects Satisfaction		I am satisfied with the city in which I live.	NeutralObj1
		I am satisfied with the neighbors I have.	NeutralObj2
		I am satisfied with the high school that I attended.	NeutralObj3
		I am satisfied with today's cars.	NeutralObj4
		I am satisfied with the local newspapers.	NeutralObj5
		I am satisfied with my relaxation time.	NeutralObj6
		I am satisfied with television programs.	NeutralObj7
		I am satisfied with local speed limits.	NeutralObj8
		I am satisfied with advertising.	NeutralObj9
		I am satisfied with the telephone service.	NeutralObj10
		I am satisfied with public transportation.	NeutralObj11
Qualitative Items		How did the message that ICP Incorporated communicated to you prior to your completion of the personality test make you feel?	MessageFeel

Table 2: *Study 1 & Study 2 Scales*

	How did the message that ICP Incorporated communicated to you prior to your completion of the personality test impact the way in which you responded to the personality test items?	MessageRespond
	How did the message that ICP Incorporated communicated to you prior to your completion of the personality test impact your perception of the organization?	MessagePerception
	What are your thoughts on responding dishonestly to personality test items during the selection process?	DishonestRespond
Ability to Identify Criteria (ATIC)	Answering the following item correctly is relevant for a good evaluation: "I worry about things."	ATIC1
	Answering the following item correctly is relevant for a good evaluation: "I get angry easily."	ATIC2
	Answering the following item correctly is relevant for a good evaluation: "I am comfortable around people."	ATIC3
	Answering the following item correctly is relevant for a good evaluation: "I am always busy."	ATIC4
	Answering the following item correctly is relevant for a good evaluation: "I have a vivid imagination."	ATIC5
	Answering the following item correctly is relevant for a good evaluation: "I prefer variety to routine."	ATIC6
	Answering the following item correctly is relevant for a good evaluation: "I am concerned about others."	ATIC7
	Answering the following item correctly is relevant for a good evaluation: "I love to help others."	ATIC8
	Answering the following item correctly is relevant for a good evaluation: "I complete tasks successfully."	ATIC9
	Answering the following item correctly is relevant for a good evaluation: "I do more than what's expected of me."	ATIC10

Note: Asterisks (*) indicate item is reverse-coded

Table 3: *Study 1 Correlation Matrix*

Measure	N	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Favorable Attitudes Toward Faking	390	2.95	1.11	(0.72)									
2. Positive Subjective Norms	390	3.43	1.58	0.73**	(0.86)								
3. Perceived Behavioral Control	390	4.40	1.64	0.60**	0.60**	(0.85)							
4. Intention to Fake	390	3.87	1.67	0.75**	0.75**	0.64**	(0.91)						
5. Self-Reported Faking Behavior	390	2.55	1.80	0.66**	0.55**	0.45**	0.69**	(0.96)					
6. Justice	390	4.92	1.58	-0.49**	-0.46**	-0.35**	-0.46**	-0.42**	(0.92)				
7. Trust	390	4.62	0.96	-0.34**	-0.32**	-0.26**	-0.35**	-0.23**	0.45**	(0.70)			
8. Positive Affect	390	4.76	1.22	-0.35**	-0.33**	-0.25**	-0.33**	-0.25**	0.37**	0.31**	(0.91)		
9. Negative Affect	390	1.42	0.79	0.22**	0.18**	0.13*	0.17**	0.14**	-0.19**	-0.19**	-0.19**	(0.92)	
10. Reciprocative Reactions	390	5.27	1.26	-0.27**	-0.25**	-0.22**	-0.27**	-0.19**	0.54**	0.70**	0.32**	-0.19**	(0.95)

Note. *p<.05; **p<.001; Means indicate average on a 7-pt Likert Agreement Scale; Internal consistency alpha values are listed in the parentheses on the diagonal

Table 4: *Study 1 CFA Results*

Unobserved Variable (Name in R)	Variable Description	Final Measurement Model (R Script Including Modifications)	χ^2 statistic	df	*p*-value	NFI	CFI	RMSEA

PBC	Perceived Behavioral Control	#PBC CFA2
		PBC_CFA2 <- '
		PBC =~ BehControl1 + BehControl2 + BehControl3 + BehControl4
		BehControl2 ~ ~BehControl4'
			.23	1	*p*=.63	1.00	1.00	0.00

ATF	Favorable Attitudes Toward Faking	#ATF CFA6
		ATF_CFA6 <- '
		ATF =~ AttitudeFake1 + AttitudeFake2 + AttitudeFake3 + AttitudeFake5 + AttitudeFake6+ AttitudeFake7
		AttitudeFake5 ~ ~AttitudeFake6
		AttitudeFake3 ~ ~AttitudeFake7
		AttitudeFake1 ~ ~AttitudeFake6
		AttitudeFake1 ~ ~AttitudeFake3'
			15.52	5	*p*<.01	0.99	0.99	0.07

SUBN	Positive Subjective Norms	#SUBN CFA2
		SUBN_CFA2<- '
		SUBN =~ SubNorm1 + SubNorm2 + SubNorm3 + SubNorm4
		SubNorm2 ~ ~SubNorm4'
			3.43	1	*p*=.06	1.00	1.00	0.08

ITF	Intention to Fake	#ITF CFA5
		ITF_CFA5<- '
		ITF =~ IntentFake1 + IntentFake2 + IntentFake3 + IntentFake4 + IntentFake5 + IntentFake6
		IntentFake3 ~ ~IntentFake4
		IntentFake1 ~ ~IntentFake5
		IntentFake1 ~ ~IntentFake2
		IntentFake2 ~ ~IntentFake5'
			2.4	5	*p*=.80	1.00	1.00	0.00

FAKB	Self-Reported Faking Behavior	#FAKB CFA4
		FAKB_CFA4<- '
		FAKB =~FakeBehavior1 + FakeBehavior2 + FakeBehavior3 + FakeBehavior4 + FakeBehavior5 + FakeBehavior6
		FakeBehavior3 ~ ~FakeBehavior4
		FakeBehavior2 ~ ~FakeBehavior4
		FakeBehavior2 ~ ~FakeBehavior3'
			16.51	6	*p*<.05	1.0	1.0	0.07

Note: all parameter estimates significant at $p < .001$

Table 4: *Study 1 CFA Results*

Unobserved Variable (Name in R)	Variable Description	Final Model R Script (Includes Modifications)	χ^2 statistic	df	*p*-value	NFI	CFI	RMSEA

POSA	Positive Affect	#POSA CFA13
		POSA_CFA13<- 'POSA =~ PANAS11 +
		PANAS12 + PANAS13 + PANAS14 +
		PANAS15 + PANAS16 + PANAS17 +
		PANAS18 + PANAS19 + PANAS20
		PANAS12 ~ ~PANAS14
		PANAS19 ~ ~PANAS20
		PANAS16 ~ ~PANAS17
		PANAS12 ~ ~PANAS13
		PANAS15 ~ ~PANAS16
		PANAS15 ~ ~PANAS17
		PANAS16 ~ ~PANAS19
		PANAS13 ~ ~PANAS18
		PANAS12 ~ ~PANAS18
		PANAS13 ~ ~PANAS14
		PANAS14 ~ ~PANAS18
		PANAS11 ~ ~PANAS17'
			83.45	23	*p*<.001	.97	.98	.08

NEGA	Negative Affect	#NEGA CFA8
		NEGA_CFA8 <- 'NEGA =~ PANAS1 +
		PANAS2 + PANAS3 + PANAS4 +
		PANAS5 + PANAS6 + PANAS7 +
		PANAS8 + PANAS9 + PANAS10
		PANAS1 ~ ~PANAS2
		PANAS7 ~ ~PANAS8
		PANAS3 ~ ~PANAS4
		PANAS5 ~ ~PANAS6
		PANAS3 ~ ~PANAS9
		PANAS4 ~ ~PANAS5
		PANAS4 ~ ~PANAS9'
			93.67	28	*p*<.001	.97	.98	.08

TRST	Trust	#TRST CFA6
		TRST_CFA6 <- 'TRST =~ OverallTrust1 +
		OverallTrust2 + OverallTrust3 +
		OverallTrust5 + OverallTrust6
		OverallTrust5 ~ ~OverallTrust6
		OverallTrust3 ~ ~OverallTrust5'
			10.68	3	*p*<.05	.98	.99	.08

Note: all parameter estimates significant at $p < .001$

Table 4: *Study 1 CFA Results*

Unobserved Variable (Name in R)	Variable Description	Final Model R Script (Includes Modifications)	χ^2 statistic	df	*p*-value	NFI	CFI	RMSEA

RECREA	Reciprocative Reactions	#RECREA CFA10
		RECREA_CFA10 <- 'RECREA =~ SatSelectProc1 + SatSelectProc2 + OrgAttract1 + OrgAttract2 + JobPursuit1 + JobPursuit2 + JobPursuit3 + JobAccept1 + JobAccept2 + ReappIntent1 + ReappIntent2 + RecoIntent1 + RecoIntent2
		ReappIntent1 ~ ~ReappIntent2
		SatSelectProc1 ~ ~SatSelectProc2
		OrgAttract1 ~ ~OrgAttract2
		JobAccept1 ~ ~JobAccept2
		JobPursuit3 ~ ~JobAccept1
		JobAccept2 ~ ~RecoIntent2
		OrgAttract2 ~ ~JobPursuit1
		SatSelectProc2 ~ ~OrgAttract1
		SatSelectProc1 ~ ~OrgAttract1'
			199.10	56	*p*<.001	.96	.98	.08

JUST	Justice	#JUST CFA1
		JUST_CFA1 <- 'JUST =~ OverallJ1 + OverallJ2 + OverallJ3'
			0		0	1.0	1.0	0

Note: all parameter estimates significant at p < .001

Table 5: *Means and Standard Deviations for Low/High Attraction to Position*

Variable	Attraction to Position	N	Mean	SD
Neuroticsm	Low	142	2.66	1.20
	High	209	2.39	0.94
Extraversion	Low	142	4.31	1.01
	High	209	4.72	0.73
Openness	Low	142	4.73	0.77
	High	209	4.84	0.63
Agreeableness	Low	142	5.40	0.71
	High	209	5.60	0.63
Conscientiousness	Low	142	5.84	0.92
	High	209	6.04	0.75
AttitudeFakeScale	Low	142	3.15	1.05
	High	209	2.84	1.15
IntentFakeScale	Low	142	4.15	1.63
	High	209	3.72	1.70
FakeBehaviorScale	Low	142	2.73	1.89
	High	209	2.47	1.72

Table 6: *Study 2 Warning Condition Texts*

Warning Type	**Warning Message Text**
Negative Invalidation + Negative Job Fit	The test you are going to complete calls for your honest responses. Be aware of the following four points: 3) The test contains questions that are designed to identify those who attempt to fake their responses. Research has shown that these questions are an effective way of identifying individuals who provide inaccurate information about themselves. 4) Dishonest or distorted self-descriptions may invalidate your results. In other words, faking might result in you not being considered for the job of customer service representative. 5) Research has shown that personality tests can accurately predict who is a poor fit for the job. By responding dishonestly, inaccurate selection decisions are possible. 6) Responding dishonestly will harm you in the long run. Research has shown that those applicants who respond dishonestly are more likely to be selected for jobs for which they are a poor fit. When individuals are a poor fit for the job, they feel uncomfortable and unnatural in their positions and experience job stress, job dissatisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and can get physically sick. They are more likely to leave their positions. Being dishonest about who you are will lead you to a position for which you are not well suited. This will contribute to you living a less happy and healthy life.
Positive Invalidation + Negative Job Fit	The test you are going to complete calls for your honest responses. Please keep in mind the following four points: 1) The test contains questions that are designed to identify those who respond honestly. Research has shown that these questions are an effective way of identifying individuals who provide accurate information about themselves. 2) Honest self-descriptions will validate your results. In other words, responding honestly will allow you to be considered for the job of customer service representative. 3) Research has shown that personality tests can accurately predict who is a poor fit for the job. By responding dishonestly, inaccurate selection decisions are possible. 4) Responding dishonestly will harm you in the long run. Research has shown that those applicants who respond dishonestly are more likely to be selected for jobs for which they are a poor fit. When individuals are a poor fit for the job, they feel uncomfortable and unnatural in their positions and experience job stress, job dissatisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and can get physically sick. They are more likely to leave their positions. Being dishonest about who you are will lead you to a position for which you are not well suited. This will contribute to you living a less happy and healthy life.

Warning Type	Warning Message Text
Negative Invalidation + Positive Job Fit	The test you are going to complete calls for your honest responses. Be aware of the following four points: 3) The test contains questions that are designed to identify those who attempt to fake their responses. Research has shown that these questions are an effective way of identifying individuals who provide inaccurate information about themselves. 4) Dishonest or distorted self-descriptions may invalidate your results. In other words, faking might result in you not being considered for the job of customer service representative. 5) Research has shown that personality tests can accurately predict who is a good fit for the job. By responding honestly, you will help us to make the most accurate selection decisions possible. 6) Responding honestly is in your long-term best interest as well. Research has shown that those applicants who respond honestly are more likely to be selected for jobs for which they are a good fit. When individuals are a good fit for the job, they feel comfortable and natural in their positions and experience job satisfaction, well-being, and good physical health. They are more likely to thrive in their positions. Being honest about who you are will lead you to a position for which you are far better suited. This will contribute to you living a happier and healthier life.
Positive Invalidation + Positive Job Fit	The test you are going to complete calls for your honest responses. Please keep in mind the following four points: 3) The test contains questions that are designed to identify those who respond honestly. Research has shown that these questions are an effective way of identifying individuals who provide accurate information about themselves. 4) Honest self-descriptions will validate your results. In other words, responding honestly will allow you to be considered for the job of customer service representative. 5) Research has shown that personality tests can accurately predict who is a good fit for the job. By responding honestly, you will help us to make the most accurate selection decisions possible. 6) Responding honestly is in your long-term best interest as well. Research has shown that those applicants who respond honestly are more likely to be selected for jobs for which they are a good fit. When individuals are a good fit for the job, they feel comfortable and natural in their positions and experience job satisfaction, well-being, and good physical health. They are more likely to thrive in their positions. Being honest about who you are will lead you to a position for which you are far better suited. This will contribute to you living a happier and healthier life.

Table 7: *Study 2 Correlation Matrix*

Measure	N	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Favorable Attitudes Toward Faking	631	2.91	1.10	(0.72)									
2. Positive Subjective Norms	631	3.42	1.56	0.73**	(0.85)								
3. Perceived Behavioral Control	631	4.32	1.65	0.59**	0.61**	(0.85)							
4. Intention to Fake	631	3.78	1.71	0.76**	0.74**	0.64**	(0.91)						
5. Self-Reported Faking Behavior	631	2.43	1.75	0.67**	0.55**	0.43**	0.67**	(0.96)					
6. Justice	631	4.96	1.59	-0.46**	-0.42**	-0.34**	-0.42**	-0.39**	(0.91)				
7. Trust	631	4.58	0.96	-0.38**	-0.35**	-0.29**	-0.39**	-0.26**	0.50**	(0.68)			
8. Positive Affect	631	4.75	1.21	-0.32**	-0.30**	-0.24**	-0.31**	-0.21**	0.33**	0.32**	(0.90)		
9. Negative Affect	631	1.45	0.86	0.23**	0.22**	0.11**	0.21**	0.22**	-0.17**	-0.17**	-0.21**	(0.93)	
10. Reciprocative Reactions	631	5.26	1.27	-0.26**	-0.25**	-0.20**	-0.25**	-0.20**	0.56**	0.69**	0.31**	-0.17**	(0.95)

Note. *p<.05; p<.001; Internal consistency alpha values are listen in the parentheses on the diagonal

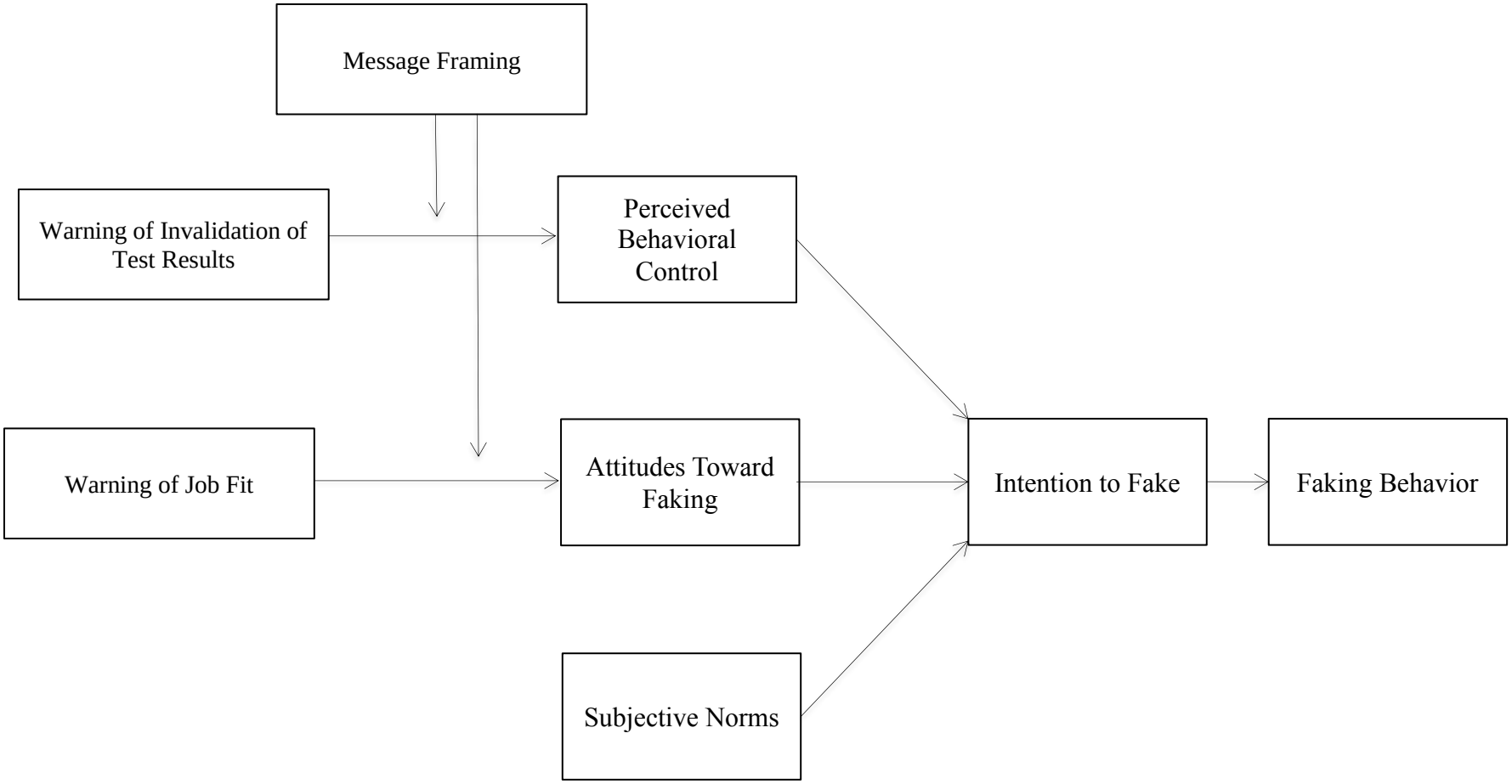

Figure 1. *Conceptual Model of the Impact of Warning Statement Content on Applicant Faking Behavior*

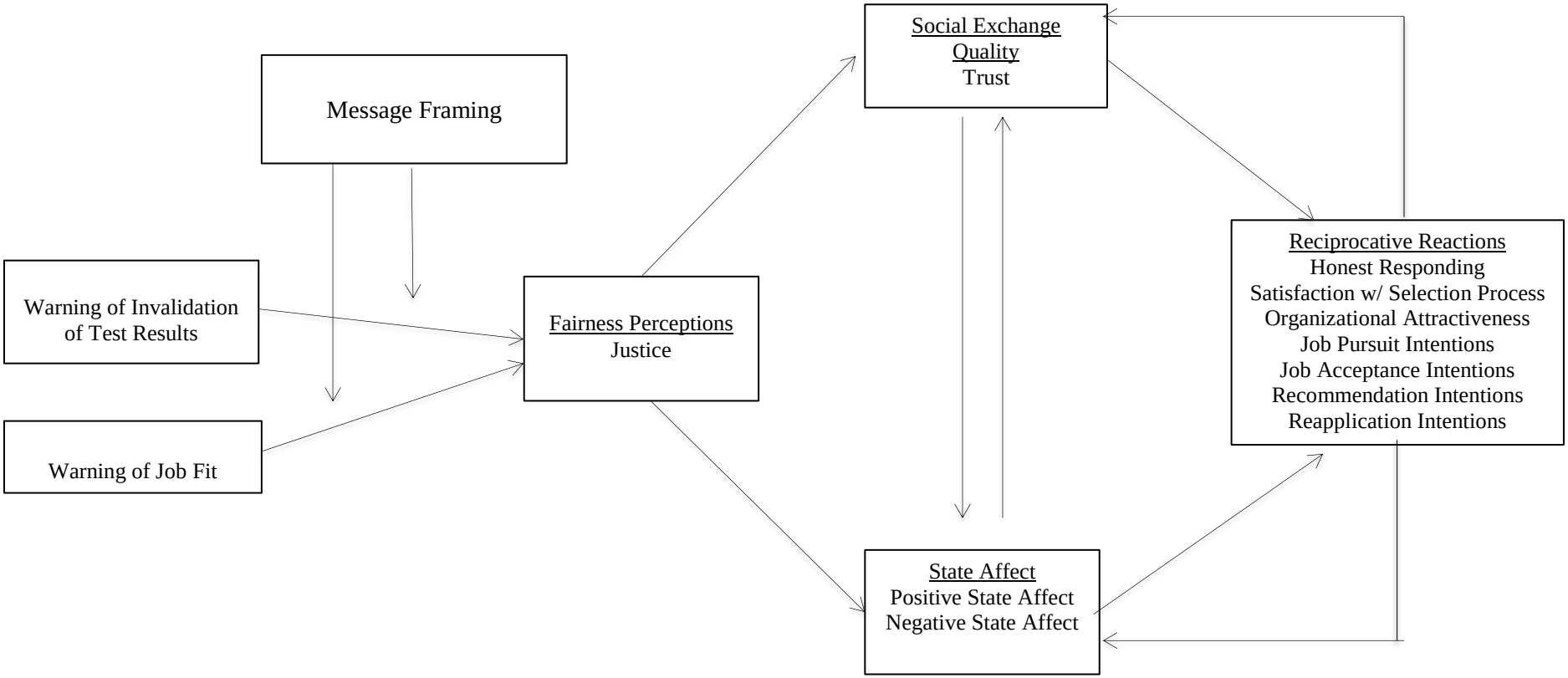

Figure 2. *Conceptual Model of the Impact of Warning Statement Content on Applicant Reactions*

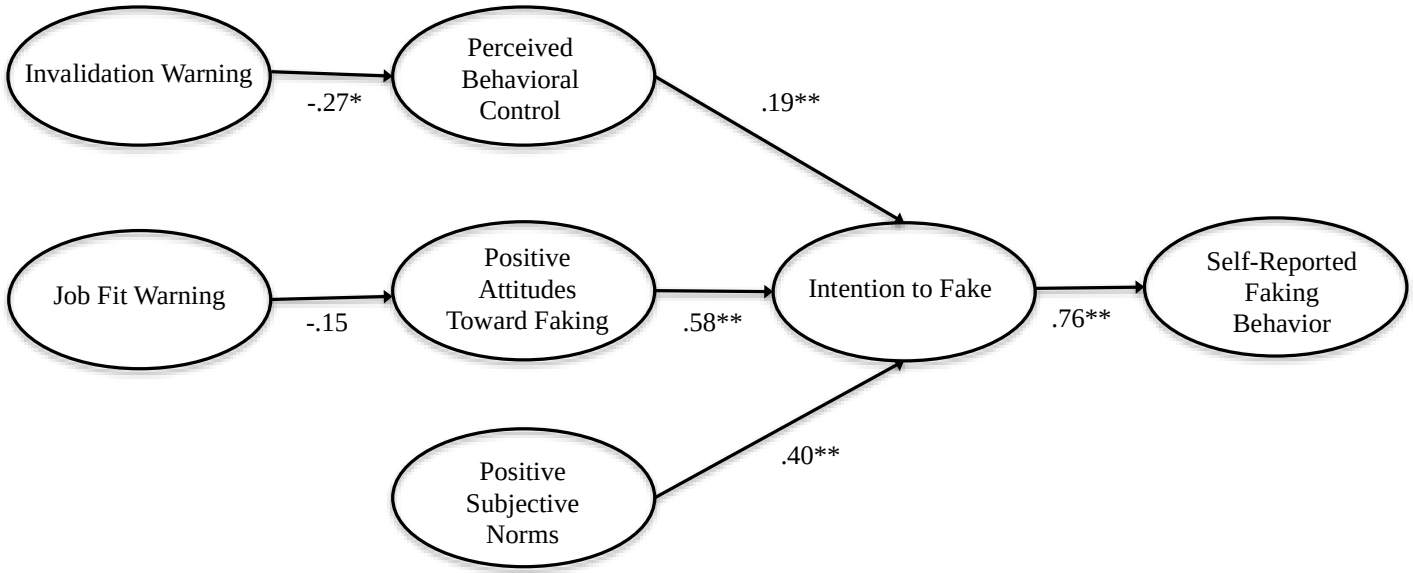

Figure 3. Test of Theory of Planned Behavior and Impact of Warnings on PBC and Positive Attitudes Toward Faking

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{332} = 1212.27$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.08, CFI = 0.91, NFI = 0.88

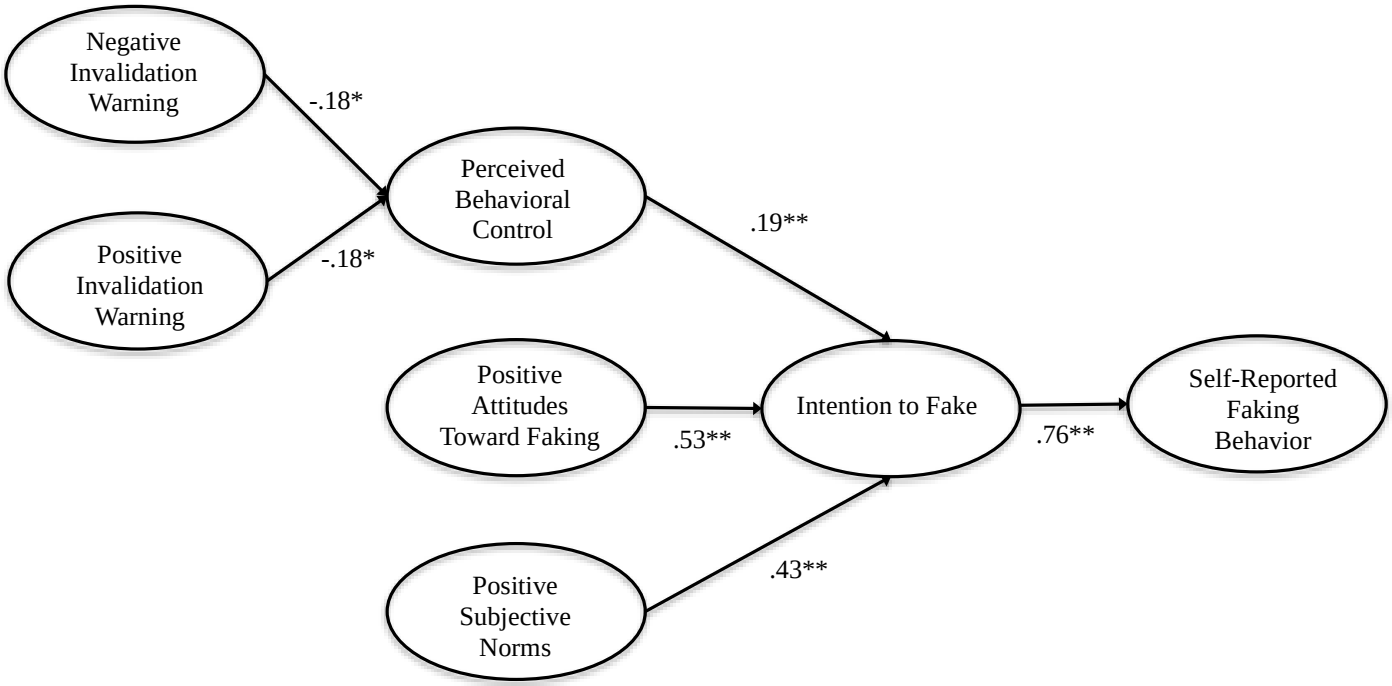

Figure 4. Test of Moderation of the Relationship between Invalidation Warnings and PBC by Message Framing – Paths Constrained to be Equal

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{332} = 919.22$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.07, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.91

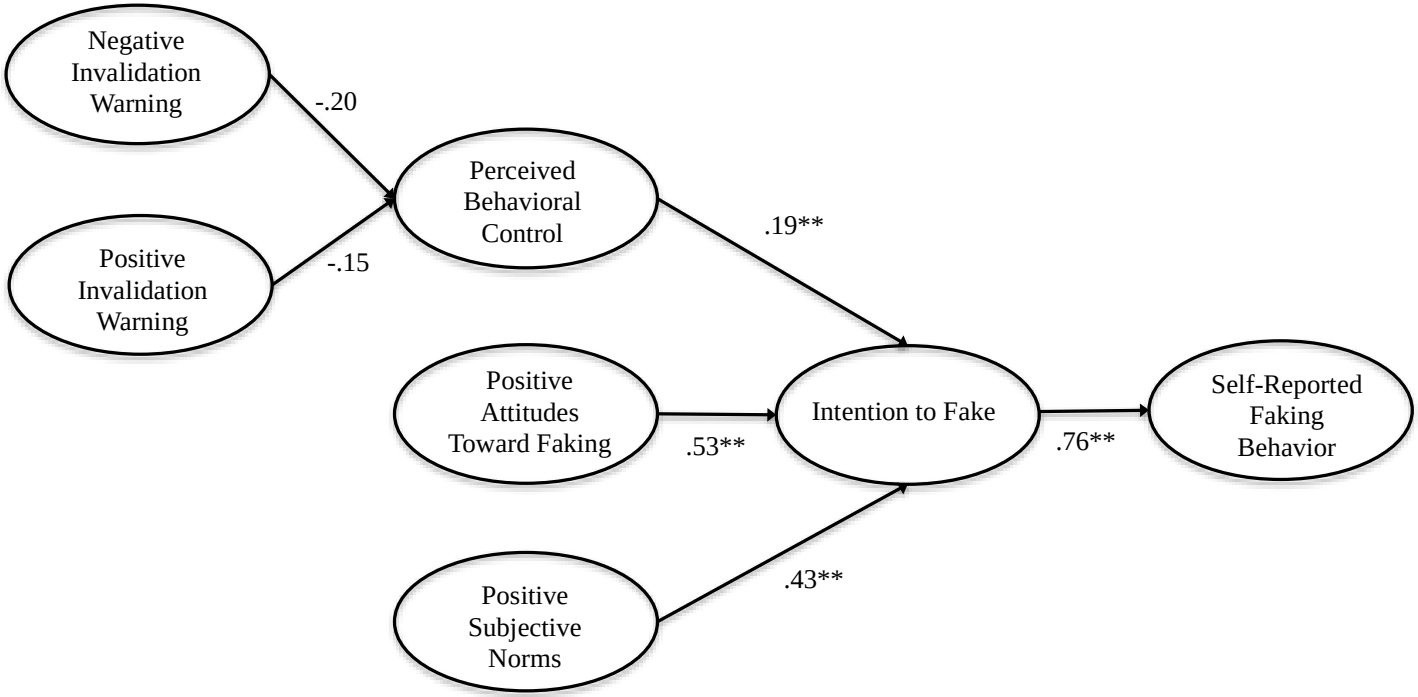

Figure 5. Test of Moderation of the Relationship between Invalidation Warnings and PBC by Message Framing – Paths Free to Estimate

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{331} = 919.19$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.07, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.91

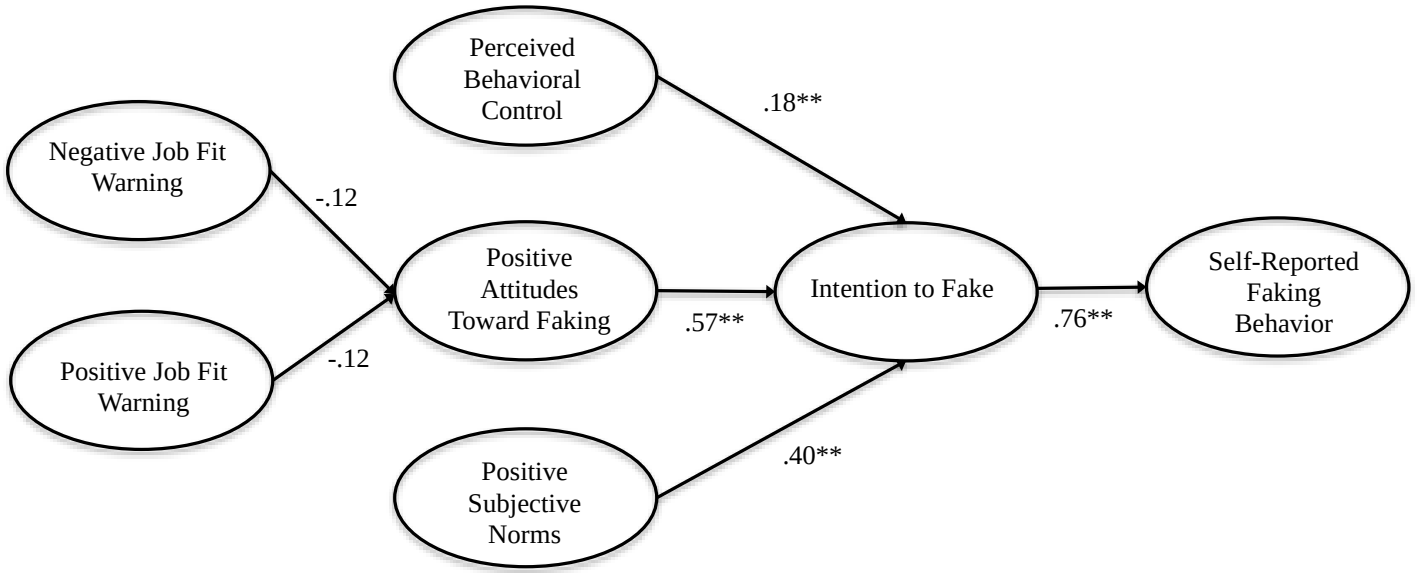

Figure 6. Test of Moderation of the Relationship between Job Fit Warnings and ATF by Message Framing – Paths Constrained to be Equal

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{332} = 1058.35$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.08, CFI = 0.92, NFI = 0.89

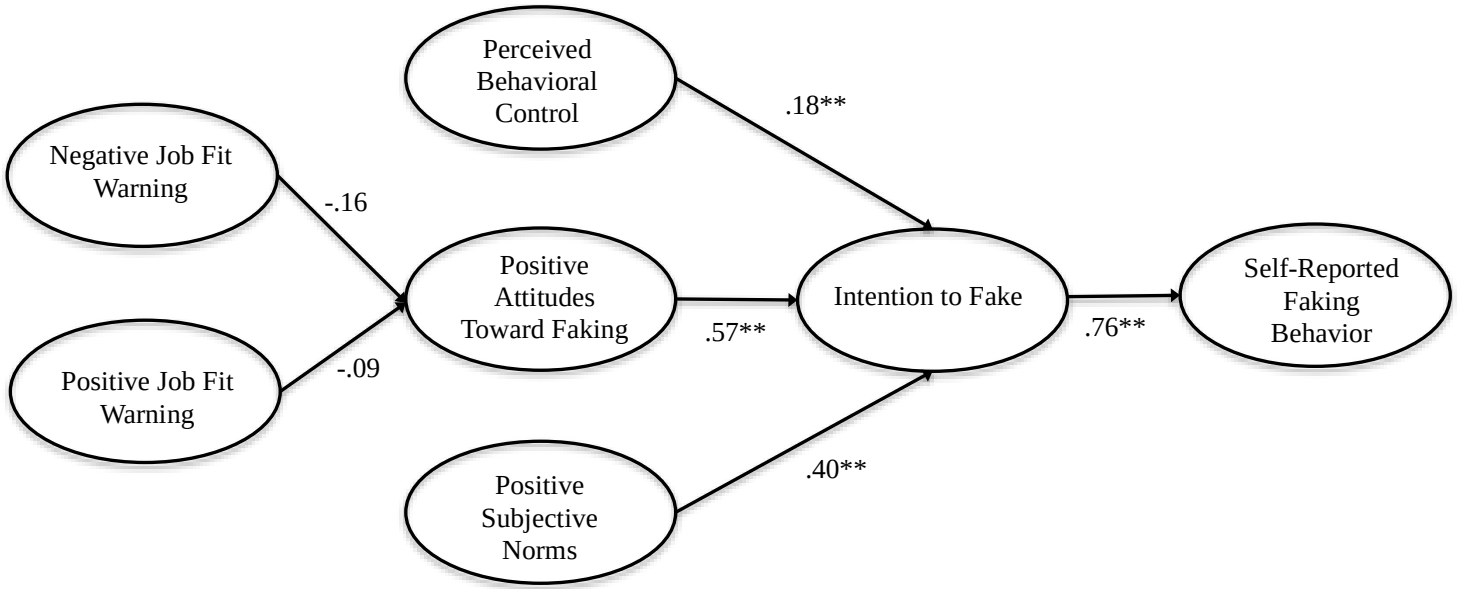

Figure 7. Test of Moderation of the Relationship between Job Fit Warnings and ATF by Message Framing – Paths Free to Estimate

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{331} = 1057.86$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.08, CFI = 0.92, NFI = 0.89

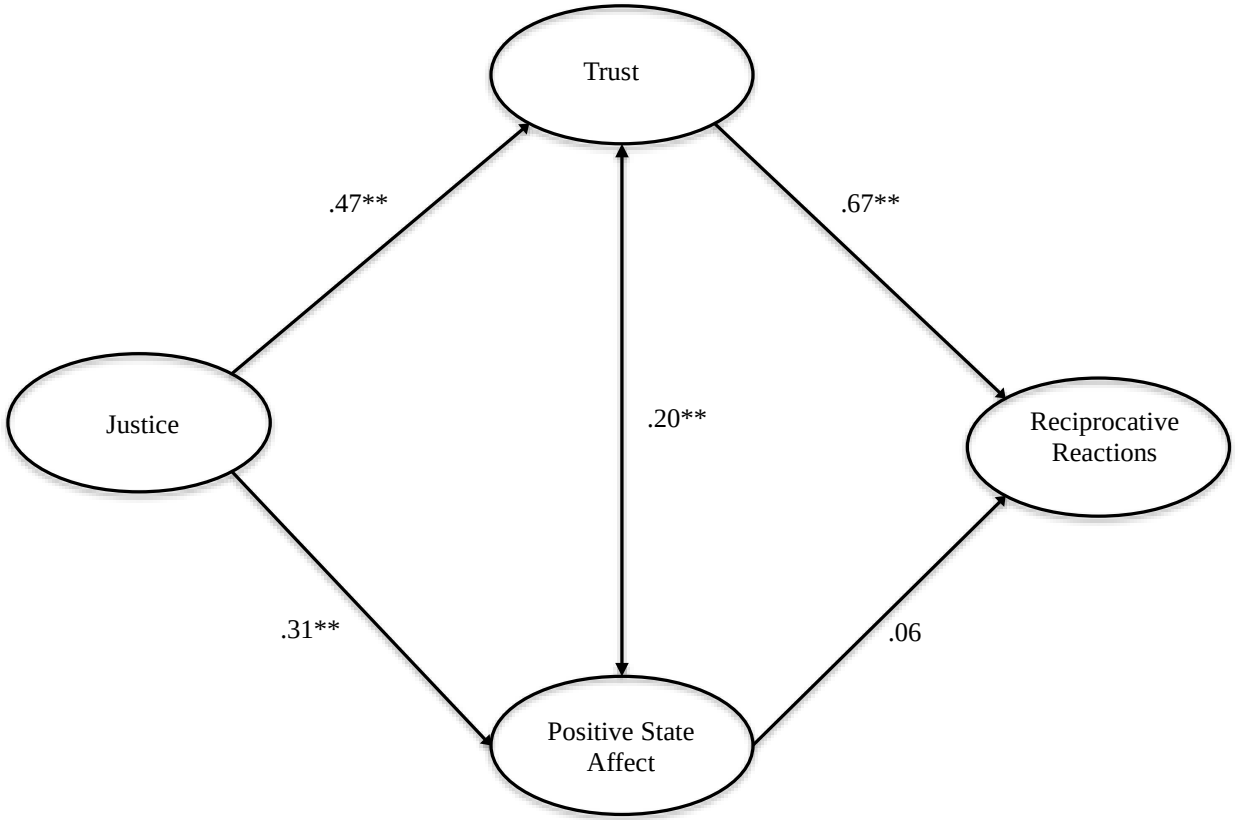

Figure 8. Test of Relationships between Justice, Trust, Positive State Affect & Reciprocative Reactions

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{406} = 1007.22$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.91

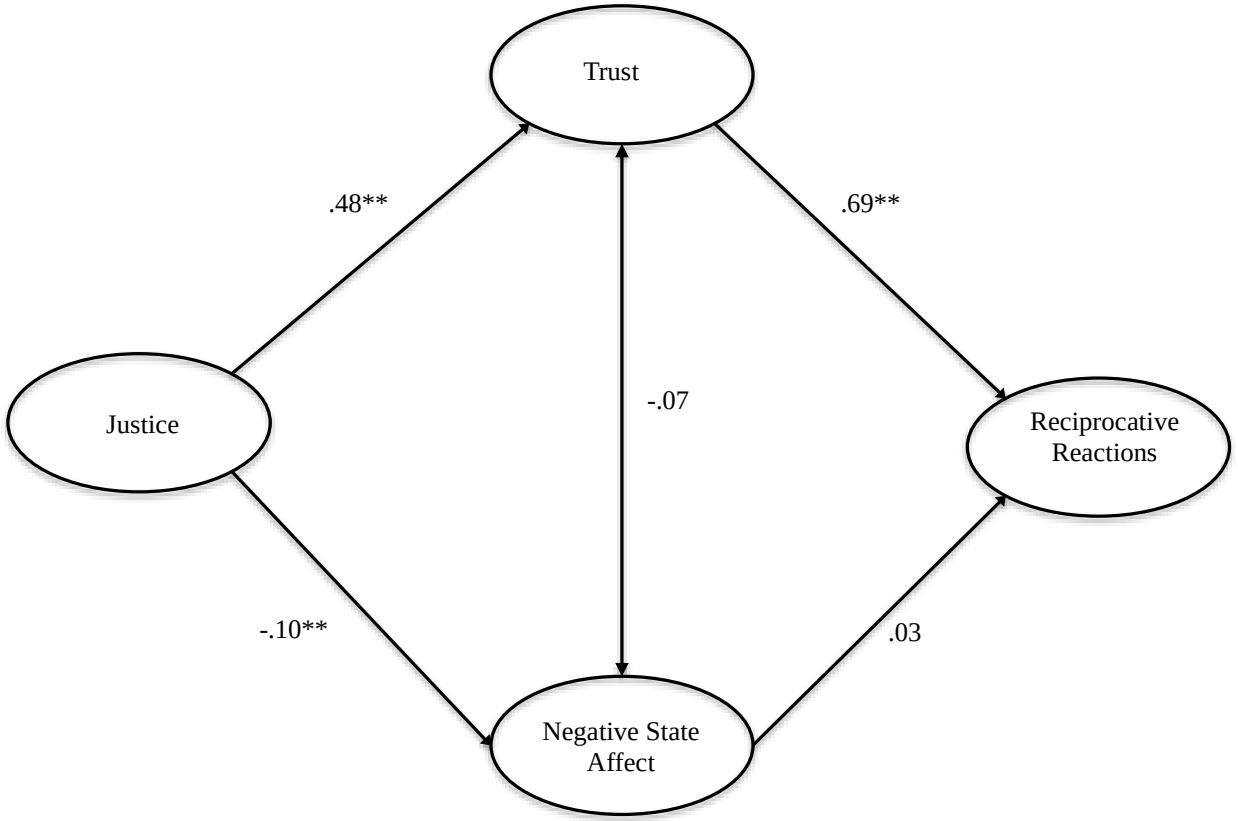

Figure 9. Test of Relationships between Justice, Trust, Negative State Affect & Reciprocative Reactions

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{411} = 1010.59$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.92

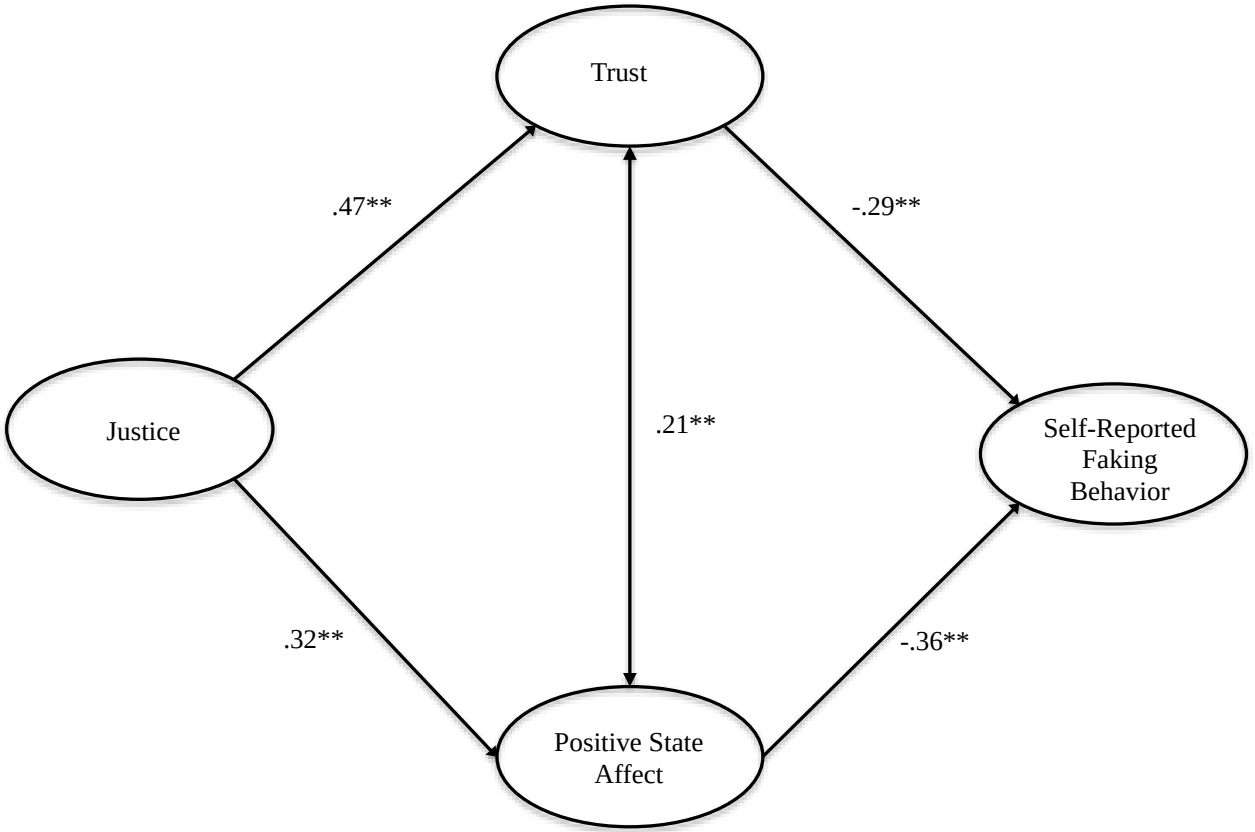

Figure 10. Test of Relationships between Justice, Trust, Positive State Affect & Self-Reported Faking Behavior

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{230} = 436.24$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.05, CFI = 0.97, NFI = 0.94

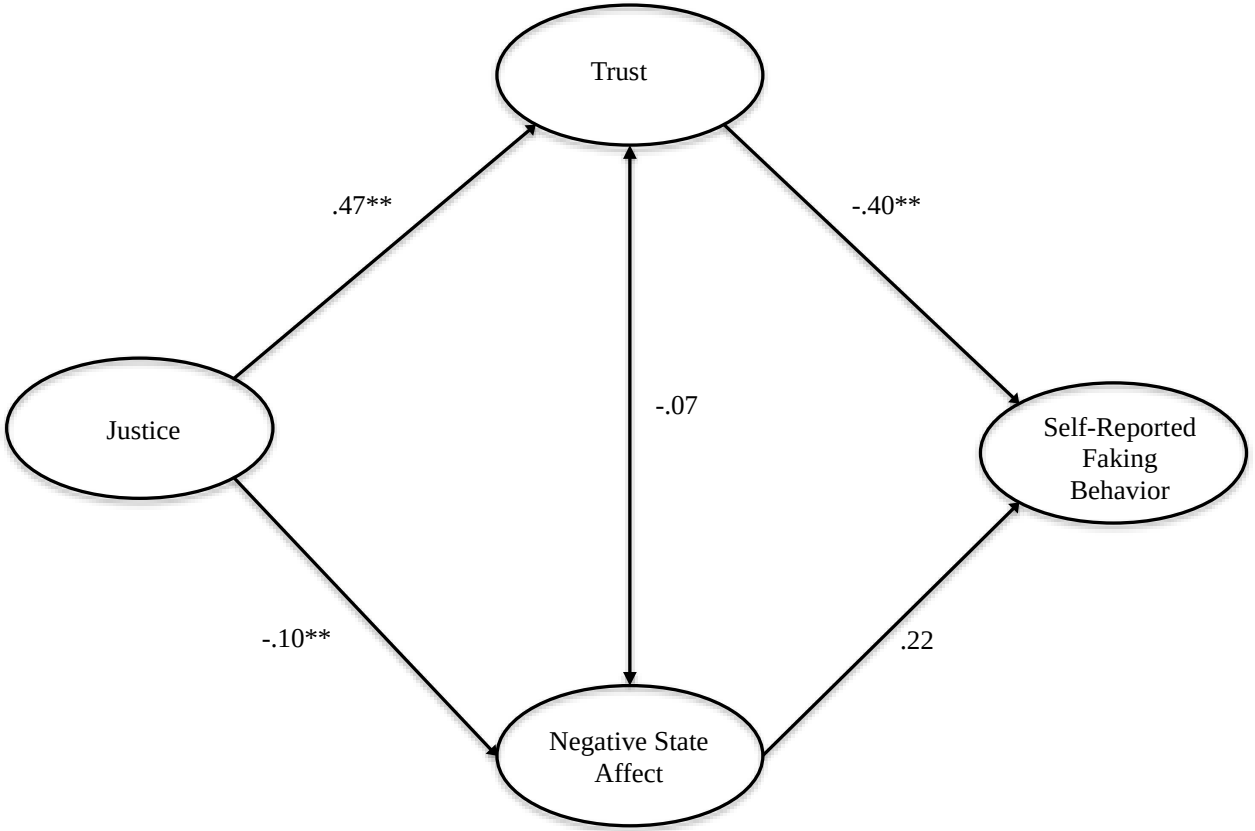

Figure 11. Test of Relationships between Justice, Trust, Negative State Affect & Self-Reported Faking Behavior

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{235} = 480.38$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.05, CFI = 0.97, NFI = 0.94

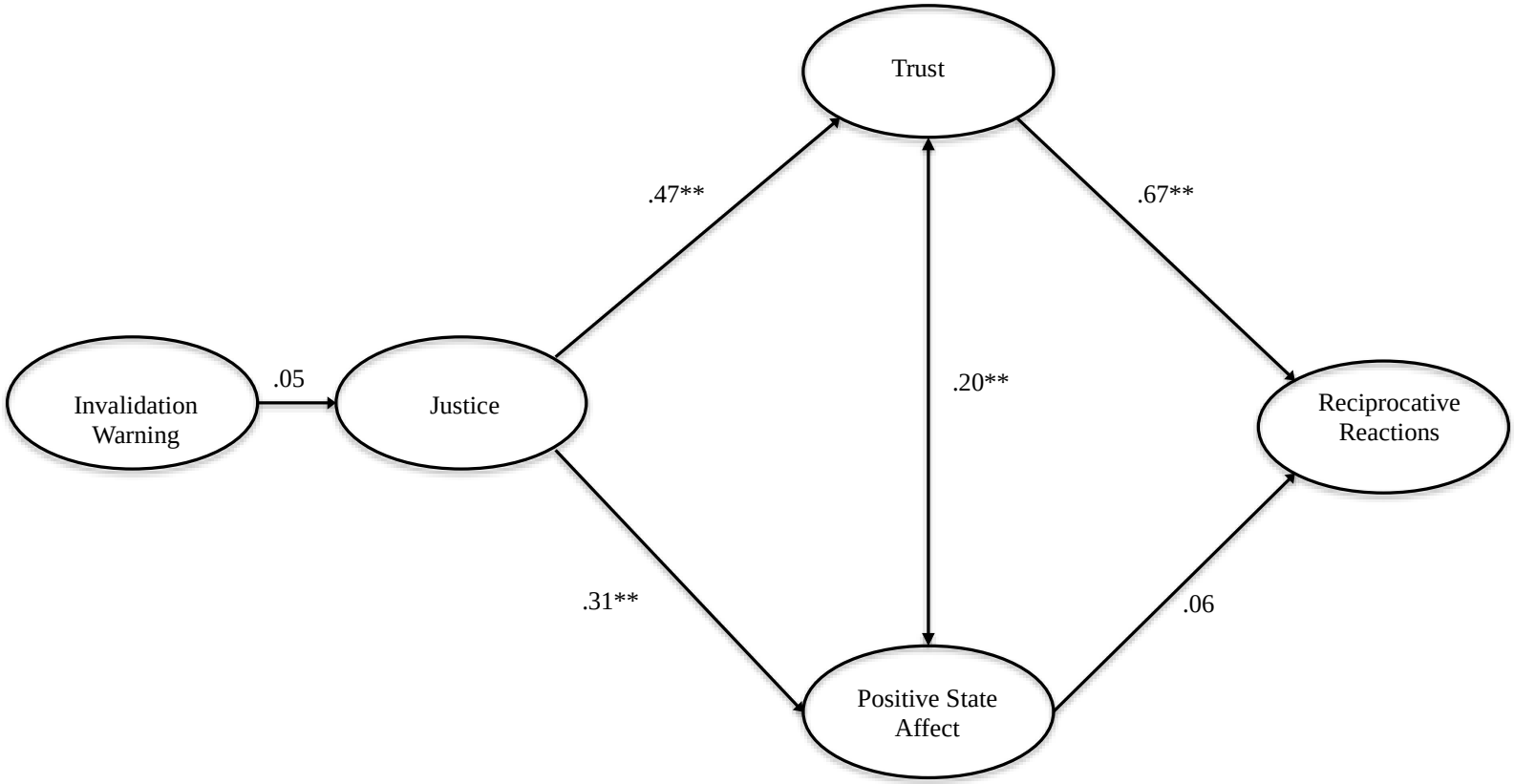

Figure 12. Test of the Effect of Invalidation Warnings on Justice Perceptions

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{436} = 1036.63$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.91

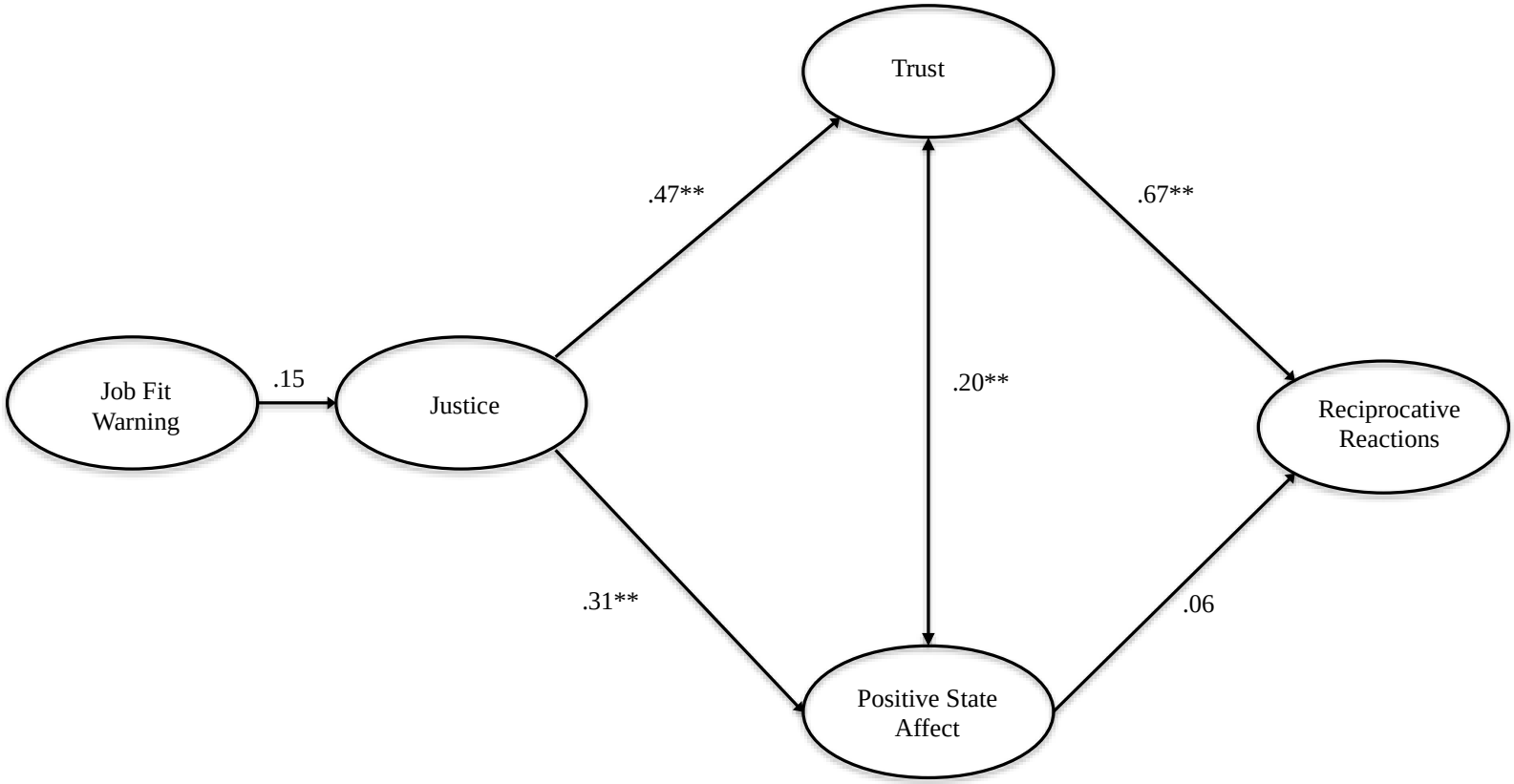

Figure 13. Test of the Effect of Job Fit Warnings on Justice Perceptions

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{436} = 1036.63$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.91

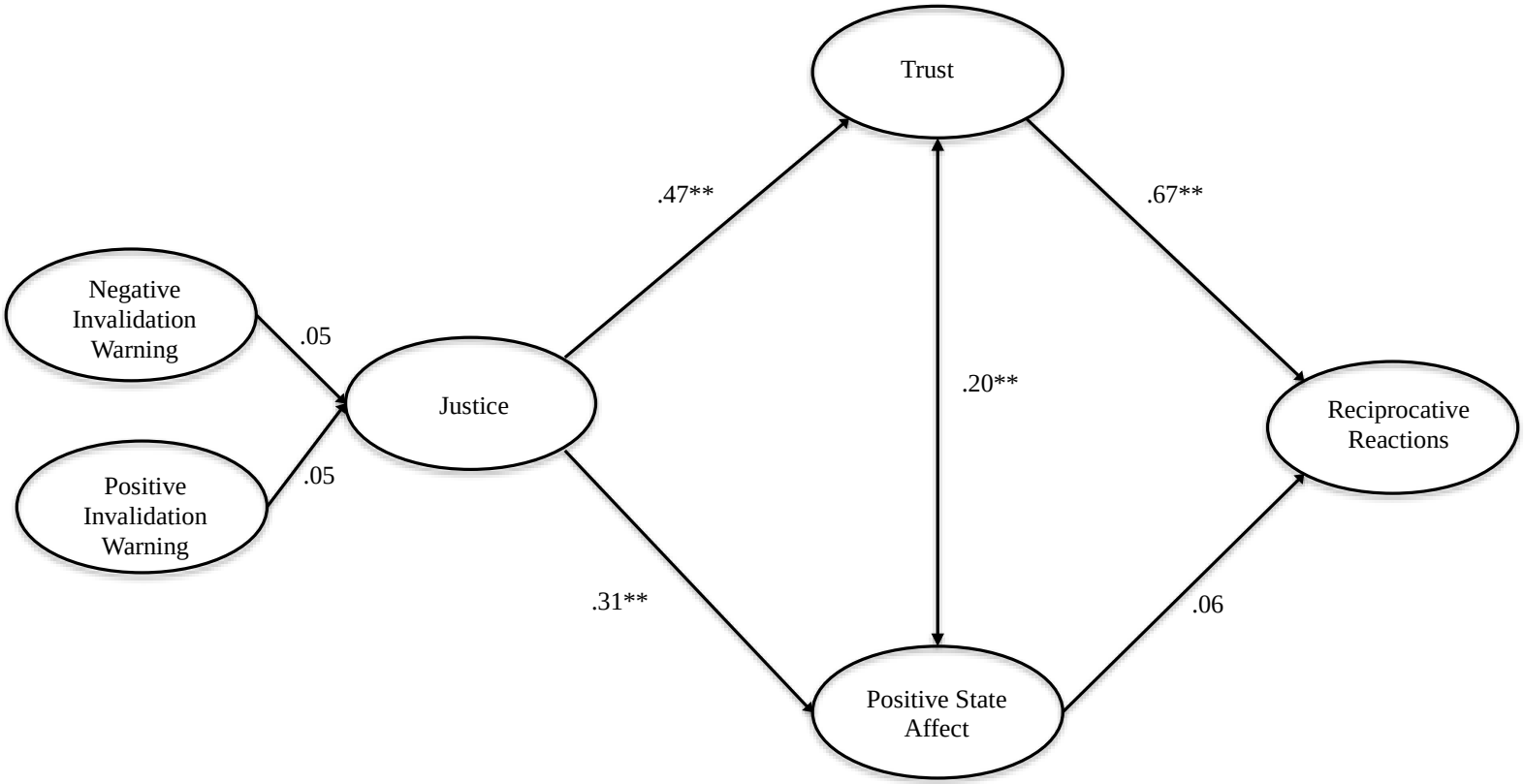

Figure 14. Test of the Moderation of the Relationship between Invalidation Warnings and Justice Perceptions by Message Framing – Paths Constrained to be Equal

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{467} = 1081.19$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.90

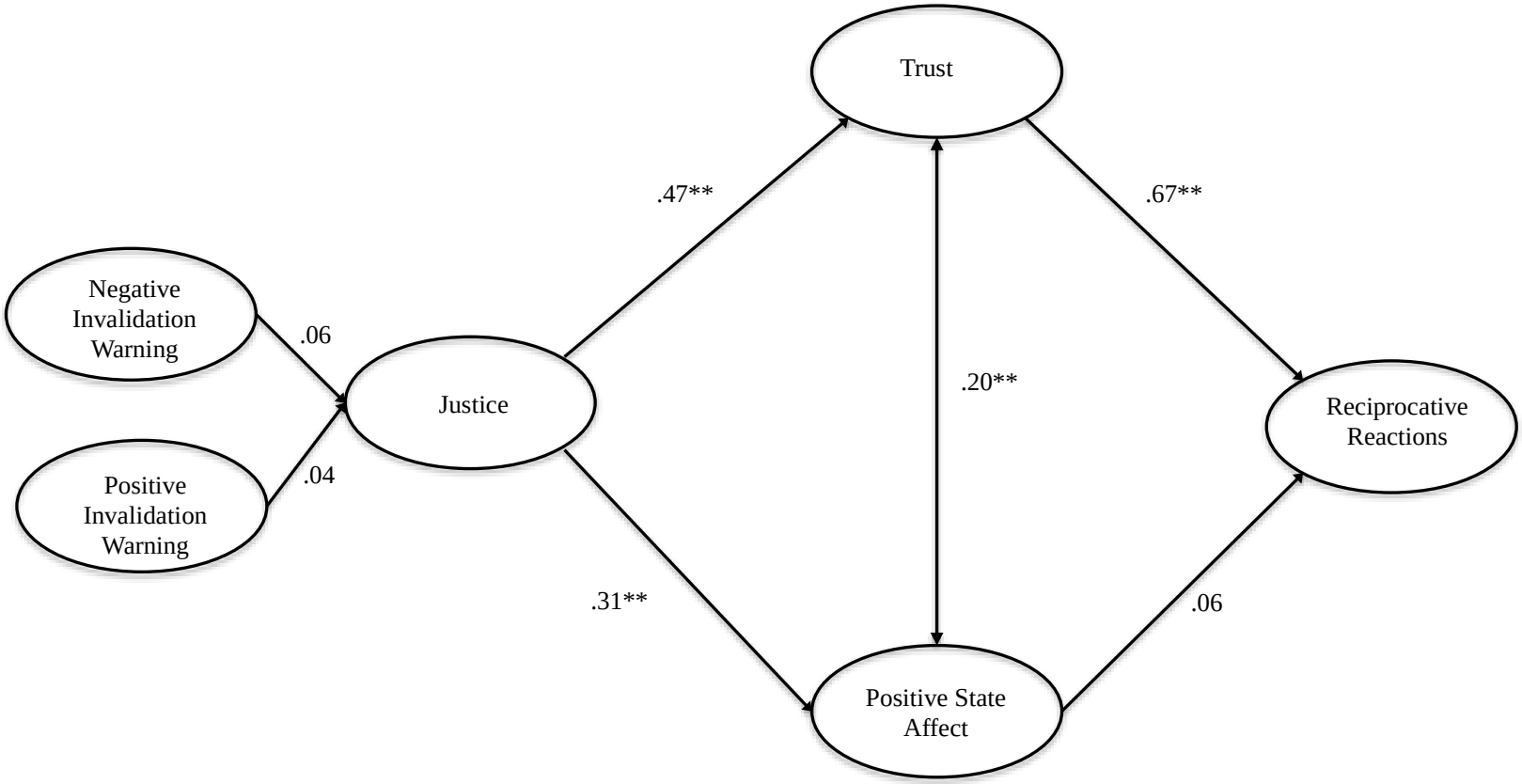

Figure 15. Test of the Moderation of the Relationship between Invalidation Warnings and Justice Perceptions by Message Framing – Paths Free to Estimate

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{466} = 1081.18$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.90

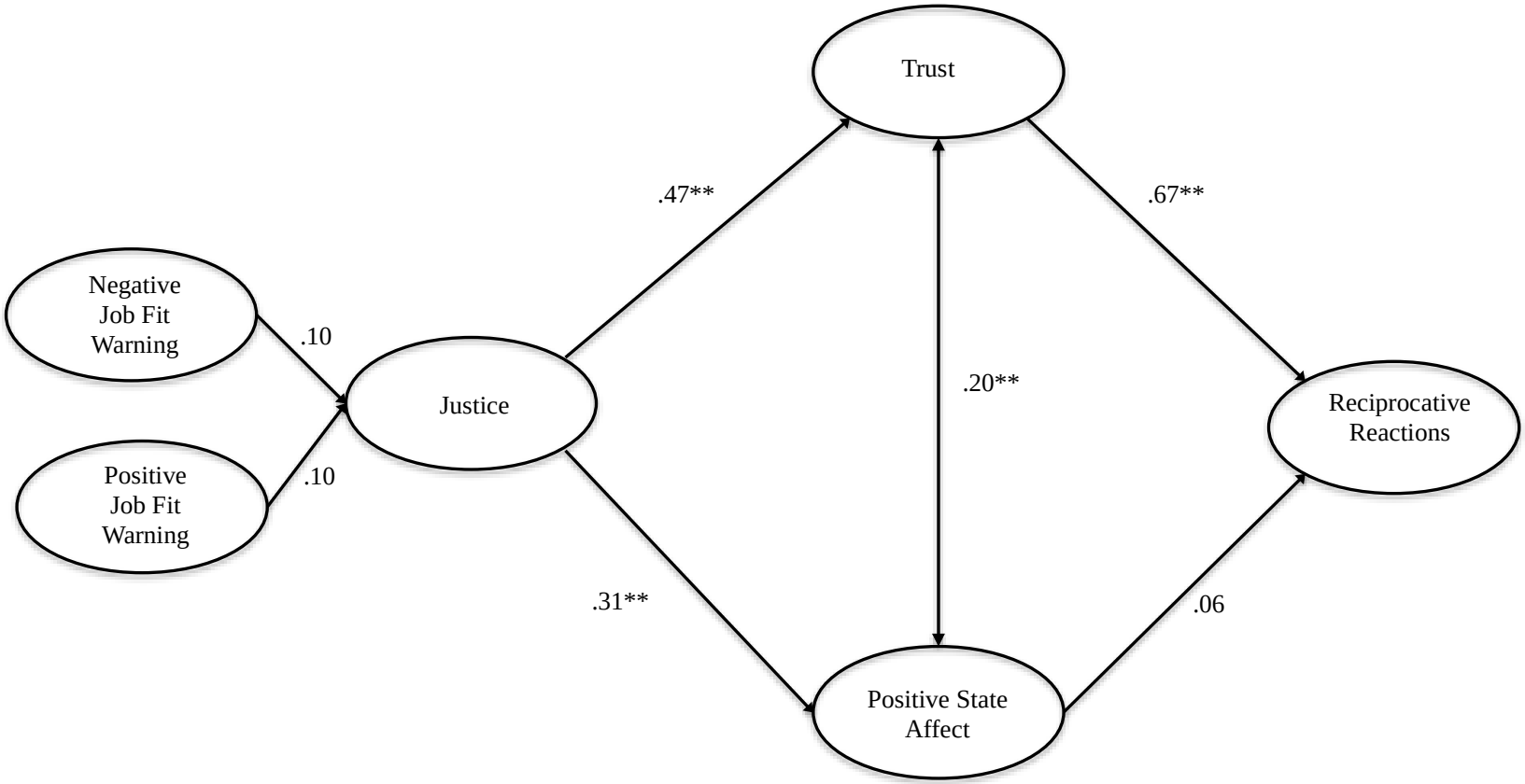

Figure 16. Test of the Moderation of the Relationship between Job Fit Warnings and Justice Perceptions by Message Framing – Paths Constrained to be Equal

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{467} = 1079.81$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.90

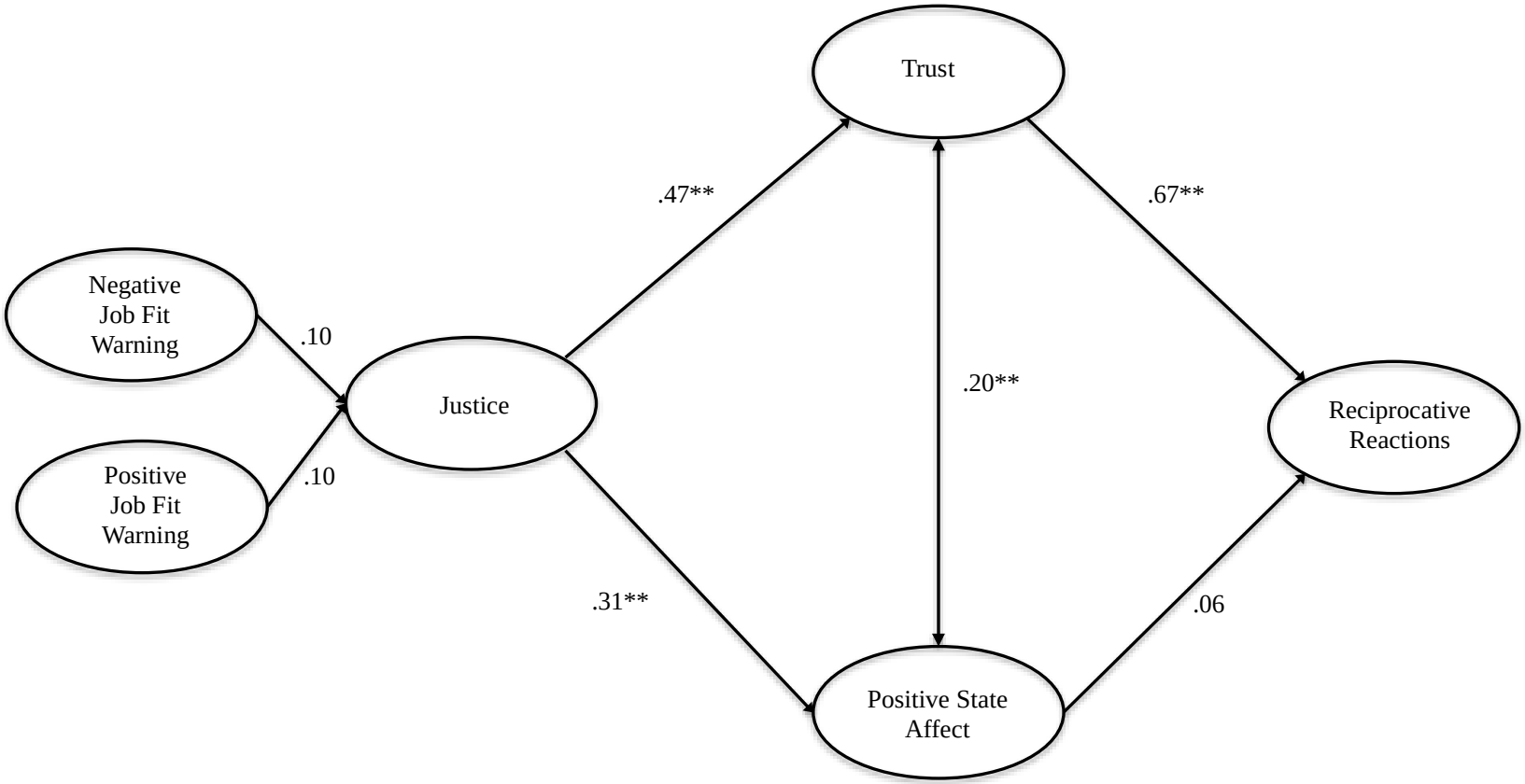

Figure 17. Test of the Moderation of the Relationship between Job Fit Warnings and Justice Perceptions by Message Framing – Paths Free to Estimate

Note: * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; $\chi 2_{466} = 1079.81$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.90

Appendix A

JOB DESCRIPTION

Job Title:	Customer Service Representative
Full/Part Time:	Both full-time and part-time
Base Pay:	$15.75/hr
Other Pay:	Bonuses based on customer satisfaction

RESPONSIBILITIES

- Confer with customers by telephone to provide information about products or services, take or enter orders, cancel accounts, or obtain details of complaints.
- Keep records of customer interactions or transactions, recording details of inquiries, complaints, or comments, as well as actions taken.
- Check to ensure that appropriate changes were made to resolve customers' problems.
- Determine charges for services requested, collect deposits or payments, or arrange for billing.
- Refer unresolved customer grievances to designated departments for further investigation.
- Contact customers to respond to inquiries or to notify them of claim investigation results or any planned adjustments.
- Resolve customers' service or billing complaints by performing activities such as exchanging merchandise, refunding money, or adjusting bills.
- Compare disputed merchandise with original requisitions and information from invoices and prepare invoices for returned goods.

QUALIFICATIONS

- High school diploma or equivalent
- Excellent communication skills
- Attention to detail and thoroughness in completing tasks
- General PC knowledge including Microsoft Office and Internet