

The impact of Cross-Cultural Impression Management differences on recruitment and selection

By

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Abstract: This thesis explores how cultural differences impact impression management behaviors in an interview context. I first proposed a cross-cultural impression management model that may be used to predict how cultural values translate into impression management tactics in an interview setting. I then investigated cross-cultural differences in impression management use across five countries in an Asynchronous Video Interview (AVI) context. And finally, I investigated how cultural biases influence the selection process in an AVI context. In sum, this thesis consists of a theoretical contribution and two empirical studies which contribute to the literature in several key areas. These include constructing a novel cross-cultural impression management model for the interview context, being the first ever empirical study to investigate how CCIM differences impact applicant evaluations in an AVI context and investigating how cultural biases influence the selection process in an AVI context. I drew upon Schwartz's (2006) cultural value dimensions and individual level discriminatory biases theory to formulate propositions for my model, and later explain why higher evaluation scores may be attributed to certain cultural groups in an AVI context. My research is highly relevant as the COVID pandemic causes more and more organizations operate through online channels and recruit internationally.

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1.0 Introduction

1.1 The intersection of multiculturalism and job interviews

Our world is becoming more multicultural due to migration accessibility, softening governmental immigration policies, growth in international corporate assignments, and demand for a multi-skillset labour force (Lipsmeyer & Zhu, 2011). With organizations also being increasingly multicultural, there is a need for understanding the implications of having job applicants and interviewers from various cultural backgrounds interacting in an employment interview. First, the job interview is still considered to be the most used selection method by western organizations (Huffcutt & Culbertson, 2011) and is globally ranked second after work sample tests used for hiring purposes (Anderson, Salgado, & Hülsheger, 2010). Research further supports that many job seekers believe obtaining a job interview is essential to job seeking success (Saks, 2006) and that applicants expect to be interviewed as part of the selection process (Lievens, de Corte & Brysse, 2003). Interviews are designed to further assess (i.e. beyond CV/resume) an applicant's suitability for employment, but the asymmetrical power relations between interviewer and interviewee, structured format (i.e. interviewee's may only ask questions at end) of the communication process can often lead to misunderstandings (Demo, 2006). Cultural differences between applicants and interviewers add a new dimension of complexity to the interview where the chances of a misunderstanding in communication are dramatically increased (Peppas & Yu, 2005). What is more, cultural differences between interviewers and interviewees can influence selection decisions (Roberts & Campbell, 2006), which in turn limits job seeking success.

Within Canada, immigrants are a highly depended upon source of labour to replace the aging baby boomer demographic. In 2010, one in five persons residing in Canada were foreign

born, with the top sources of immigrants coming from culturally diverse backgrounds including China, the Philippines, India, USA, U.K. and France (StatsCan, 2010). Canadian employers have noted several benefits of hiring immigrants (Miller et al., 1998; Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007) and one of the more recent trends in international human resource management has been efforts to encourage cultural diversity in the workforce, recognizing the competitive value that multicultural organizations bring to the global market (Scullion, Vaiman & Collins, 2016). However, immigrants in Canada (and abroad), face several challenges in their job securing endeavors, most notably identified as a lack host-country work experience, transferability of qualifications, and host-country language competencies (StatsCan, 2010). These challenges are well recognized, but what is less understood is how cultural differences may also create barriers for immigrants in their job seeking efforts. There is evidence to suggest that cultural values influence how applicants present themselves during interviews (Sandal et al., 2014; Fell et al., 2016) and that the cultural distance(s) may impact evaluations (Manroop et al., 2013). For example, immigrants may present themselves during interviews in a manner that is consistent with their cultural values but not with those values/expectations of the interviewer. This may lead to selection biases where recruiters prefer certain cultural groups (i.e. those most similar to them) over others. It is thus the objective of this thesis to explore whether cultural values do indeed translate into preferences for certain behavioral tactics in the interview context, and whether discrepancies between an applicants employed tactics and those expectations of the interviewer lead to selection biases. Such findings have implications for multicultural societies such as Canada where increasing immigrant labour force(s) create new opportunities for cross-cultural interactions. Additionally, the current COVID-19 pandemic has forced organizations around the world to switch to remote/online mediums for conducting business including

recruitment and selection. Therefore, it is also necessary to explore how online recruitment tools such as Asynchronous Video Interviews (AVIs) facilitate cross-cultural interactions. I begin by briefly introducing the relevant bodies of literature to provide an informative context for this thesis.

1.2 Interviews

Traditional job interviews are social interactions between two (or more) individuals who want to exchange information or signals about their qualities (Bangerter, Roulin, & König, 2011). During this exchange of information, the interviewer(s) (and to a lesser extent the applicant) are attempting to establish two subjective indicators of “fit” (Kristof-Brown, 2000), person-job (P-J) fit and person-organization (P-O) fit. Research has found that using structured approaches to evaluating candidates is superior to relying on intuition and gut-based decisions even when performed by seasoned interviewers (Highhouse, 2008). Well designed interviews have strong predictive validity (i.e. how interview performance predicts actual performance on a job), construct validity (i.e. the appropriateness of job-related characteristics that one aims to assess via questions asked to the applicant), and high reliability (i.e. level of consistency reached by multiple interviewers). Interviews are an important process where images applicants portray strongly determines their chances of being hired (Barrick, Shaffer, & DeGrassi, 2009; Horverak, Bye, Sandal, & Pallesen, 2013). As our global labour force continues to become more culturally diverse, immigrants must learn how to actively manage their self-presentation strategies in an interview context but may be unaware of how best to do so in a foreign culture. Managing one’s self presentation, also known as impression management (IM), includes a large body of research that has been investigated in an interview context.

1.3 Impression Management

Research aimed at better understanding the dynamics of the job interview has found that a critically important factor that determines how interviewees are evaluated is their use of IM (Barrick et al., 2009; Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003). Successful IM can positively influence interview performance and hiring decisions (Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Mcfarland, Yun, Harold, Viera, & Moore, 2005). The study of IM dates to 1959 where social psychologist Erving Goffman (Goffman, 1959) produced a dramaturgical model of social life in his seminal work *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*. Following his work, other sociologists and social psychologists conducted original theoretical and empirical studies of IM (Jones, 1964; Schlenker, 1980). Throughout the 1980's an abundance of organizational researchers approached the study of IM with a scientific inquiry applying more analysis of IM as a fundamental interpersonal process (Arkin, Lake, & Baumgardner, 1986; Jones & Pittman, 1982; Schlenker, 1980; Mark Snyder, 1987; Tetlock & Manstead, 1985). In the early 1990's Schlenker and Weigold (1992) proposed the seminal idea that people attempt to regulate and control, sometimes consciously and sometimes without awareness, information they present to audiences, particularly information about themselves. Although researchers have used the terms impression management and self-presentation interchangeably, Leary & Kowalski (1990) argue that impression management is somewhat broader in scope, and that self-presentation is often concerned not only with managing the images held by others, but also with managing one's self-image. The three most common categories of impression management behaviors are self-promotion, ingratiation, and defensive IM. Self-promotional tactics include exemplification (convincing the target that one's behavior is good enough to use as a model for others), entitlements (taking major responsibility for positive events in one's background), enhancements (attempting to increase the value of an event), and describing qualities that one possesses

(Kacmar, Delery, & Ferris, 1992). Ingratiation tactics are directed at the target interviewer, with the goal of inspiring liking for the actor on behalf of the target. Ingratiation tactics may include directly or indirectly flattering the interviewer, opinion conformity, favor doing, and even feigned helplessness (Barrick et al., 2009). Defensive IM tactics include excuses and justifications (Schlenker & Weigold, 1992) or any behavior that repair one's image when it has been damaged either by one's own behavior (i.e. showing up late for an interview) or by information that surfaces during the interaction (i.e. having been fired from a previous job). Research suggests that IM use is related to interview performance ratings, but less so to job performance ratings (Barrick et al., 2009; Peck & Levashina, 2017). But what constitutes as effective or ineffective behavior(s) in terms of positively influencing interview performance, may depend highly on the cultural context.

1.4 Cultural Differences in Interviews

General approaches to investigating cross-cultural influence tactics (Hirokawa & Miyahara, 1986; Schermerhorn & Bond, 1991) have traditionally found that cultural values are associated with differences in preferences for the use of different influence tactics and/or strategies across cultures. Roberts and Campbell (2006) demonstrated that interviewers tend to judge candidates based on their own cultural assumptions and communicative style. However, the specific examination of IM tactics through a cross-cultural lens (particularly in an interview context) has been less extensively researched. Manroop et al. (2013) developed a model of cross-cultural differences on interview outcomes, but their model only includes self-promotion (i.e. no other-focused or deceptive IM) in understanding how influence tactics affect interviewer judgment and evaluation outcomes. Several scholars have noted this gap, as early as the mid 90's, Stevens and Kristof (1995) suggested it may be helpful for future studies to examine

whether IM tactics generalize to other populations (i.e. cross-culturally) and how they affect interviewers' evaluations. Bye et al. (2011) later pointed out how few studies have addressed cross-cultural variations in how applicants approach the job interview and implications of such differences for job opportunities. And most recently Derous (2017) highlighted the importance for future work considering IM in a cross-cultural context. Any gap is surprising given the fast rate at which the global labor market is becoming more and more multicultural. Additionally, this area of research is relevant and necessary seeing how applicants from different country backgrounds still suffer lower labor market outcomes when compared to equally qualified domestic applicants (OECD, 2008; 2015). Part of the issue these applicants may face, is selection discrimination based on their country of origin.

1.5 Selection Bias

Research has found that various forms of selection biases exist: sexual orientation (Weichselbaumer, 2003), age (Morgeson, Reider, Campion & Bull, 2008), gender (Wilkinson, Casey & Eley, 2014), attractiveness (Shahani, Dipboye & Gehrlein, 1993), physical disabilities (Brecher, Bragger & Kutcher, 2006) and race (Quillian, Heath, Pager, Midtbøen, Fleischmann & Hexel, 2019), and influence hiring decisions. However, with selection tools constantly evolving, new tools such as Asynchronous Video Interview (AVIs) have become increasingly popular for HR professionals to improve the efficiency of the initial screening process particularly for positions with numerous applicants and/or geographic challenges. However, very little is known about the effectiveness of using AVIs in the selection process and whether cultural differences communicated through this medium of interviewing has the potential for biases. Due to their restrictive nature (i.e. one-way communication), AVIs may be subject to both similar and different biases from those found within the FTF interview context. Such biases, if found, could

potentially be of serious concern/interest to HR personnel if they prevent organizations from reaching diversity objectives and/or subject them to discrimination lawsuits. There are no studies exploring such biases in an AVI context. This gap in the literature is significant given that international recruitment and selection commonly includes online platforms throughout the hiring process and this trend has dramatically increased due to the COVID-19 pandemic. For example, more than 70 companies have been reported to use AVIs for recruitment purposes with an expected eight million interviews by the end of 2018 (HireVue, 2020). The research conducted within this manuscript also addresses this gap.

1.6 Present Research and Contribution

This thesis consists of a theoretical piece and two empirical chapters with three studies which contribute to the cross-cultural impression management and international selection literature in several key areas. First, I develop a theoretical model for understanding how cultural values translate into preferences for, and use of, impression management (IM) tactics in employment interviews. Building upon previous cross-cultural models of workplace IM and relying on Schwartz's (2006) cultural value dimensions, I suggest that Autonomy-Embeddedness, Hierarchy-Egalitarianism, and Mastery-Harmony are each associated with differences in self-focused, other-focused and defensive IM tactics in interviews. Our model also predicts that cultural distance, and indirectly difference between applicant IM use and interviewers' expectations, will determine how interviewers evaluate applicant interview performance. Finally, my model takes into consideration the moderating role of interviewer individual differences (e.g., social dominance orientation, authoritarianism, ethnocentrism) in making such judgments. To my knowledge, this is the first ever cross-cultural impression management model tailored to an interview context.

My first empirical study investigates cross-cultural differences in IM use across five countries (Canada, Spain, Poland, India, and South Africa) in an AVI context. In this study, I explored how cross-cultural differences translate into preferred IM tactic use in an AVI context. Participants from the above mentioned five countries were invited to participate in asynchronous mock video interviews and then asked to self-report their IM use. This was the first study to investigate cross-cultural differences (of any kind) in an AVI context. My second empirical study investigated how cultural biases influence the selection process in an AVI context. In this study, I explored how cultural similarity/dissimilarity influences interviewer's evaluations of candidates. Professionals with HR experience from first the United States and then secondly the U.K. were separately recruited and exposed to a series of pre-recorded culturally diverse applicant videos (used from Study 1). I also asked participants/evaluators to self report individual levels of ethnocentrism, social dominance orientation and right-wing authoritarianism to determine whether these individual differences impacted how evaluation scores were attributed to certain cultural groups. My second empirical study was the first to investigate how cultural bias affects the selection process in an AVI context. This research is highly relevant during the COVID pandemic as more and more organizations operate through online channels and recruit internationally. I highlight the importance of organizations taking responsibility in developing culturally conscientious selection methods to avoid biased hiring decisions. In sum, this thesis develops a cross-cultural impression management model tailored to an interview context and further tests its propositions through two empirical studies in an AVI context.

2.0 A Cross-cultural Impression Management Model for the Interview Context

Many organizational settings are becoming more multicultural due to migration accessibility, softening governmental immigration policies, growth in international corporate assignments, and demand for a multi-skillset labour force. As immigrants and self-initiated expatriates relocate to new countries in search of employment, they are frequently confronted with cultural barriers that create a gap between their employment dreams and reality. The job interview is still considered to be the most commonly used selection method by western organizations (Huffcutt & Culbertson, 2011). Research aimed at better understanding the dynamics of the job interview has found that a critically important factor that determines how applicants are evaluated, and their subsequent chances of being hired, is their use of impression management (IM) (Barrick, Shaffer & DeGrassi, 2009; Higgins & Judge, 2004). If cultural differences exist between an interviewer and interviewee, then preferences for the use and interpretation of various IM tactics may also exist. Traditional approaches to investigating cross-cultural influence tactics (Hirokawa & Miyahara, 1986; Schermerhorn & Bond, 1991) have found that cultural values are indeed associated with differences in preferences for the use of tactics across cultures. More recent support for the notion that culture determines preference for certain IM tactics in an interview context is found in the selection literature (Deros, 2017; Konig, Hafsteinsson, Jansen & Stadelmann, 2011; Sandal et al. 2014). However, despite these initial studies, evidence for the relationships between cultural values and IM in job interviews remains limited.

A central reason is the lack of a comprehensive conceptual model to explain how cross-cultural differences can influence specific IM use, expectations, and interview outcomes. Manroop et al. (2013) proposed a model to illustrate how cross-cultural differences between

interviewers and interviewees can influence job interview decisions. Their model proposes, for instance, that some cultural dimensions (e.g., individualistic vs. collectivistic culture) generally impacts self-promotion by job applicants. However, their model is limited to a select number of cultural dimensions and IM tactics. My proposed model expands on Manroop et al.'s (2013) work by offering specific propositions for several IM tactics and uses a comprehensive cultural framework. In addition, to better understand cross-cultural differences in IM preferences and use in an interview context, I drew upon Schwartz's (2006) cultural value orientations and previous workplace cross-cultural impression management (CCIM) models (i.e. Bilbow, 1997; Ward & Ravlin, 2017). More specifically, Schwartz's (2006) value orientations provided a general overview of empirically-supported cultural differences around the world, whereas Bilbow (1997) and Ward and Ravlin's (2017) CCIM models were used to demonstrate how such differences translate into IM strategies in an interview context. As a result, I put forward a new CCIM model with propositions of how cross-cultural differences may translate into various IM tactics in an interview context.

My research contributes to both the CCIM and cross-cultural psychology literatures by proposing a comprehensive model to predict how cultural differences between interviewees and interviewers translate into specific differences in preferred IM strategies in an interview context. My model thus helps explain why applicants engage in different IM behaviors depending on their country of origin, why interviewers expect different behaviors from applicants and indirectly, why the use of one type of IM tactic is not always associated with the same positive rating by interviewers across cultures. From a practical standpoint, my model provides valuable insights and recommendations for individuals in charge of international recruitment and selection

efforts in organizations and furthers our understanding of the key role played by cultural differences in today's increasingly globalized and multicultural workforce.

I begin with an overview of IM tactics, interview research, and current cross-cultural IM literature. Next, I review existing workplace CCIM models, namely, Bilbow's (1997) CCIM model of discourse and Ward and Ravlin's (2017) CCIM model of influence. Following this, I introduce Schwartz's (2006) value orientations as my theoretical framework and propose an integrated CCIM model with general propositions applicable to an interview context.

2.1 Impression Management Tactics

The study of impression management dates to 1959 when social psychologist Erving Goffman produced a dramaturgical model of social life in his seminal work *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life* (Goffman, 1959). However, it was not until the 1980's that organizational researchers approached the study of IM with a scientific inquiry, exploring IM as a fundamental interpersonal process (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Tetlock & Manstead, 1985). Although many definitions exist, generally IM can be defined as tactics individuals use in order to manipulate the opinion or affective evaluation others have of them (Rosenfeld, Giacalone & Riordan, 1995). Throughout research, IM tactics have been investigated across several contexts between co-workers in organizations, applicants and interviewers in interviews, and even throughout day-to-day routine interactions. Although empirical research investigating IM has typically focused on only one of these contexts (i.e. interviews, workplace), there is commonality in the behaviors observed. Verbal IM tactics can be assertive (i.e. self-promotion, ingratiation) or defensive (Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley, & Gilstrap, 2008). Yet, the three most common categories of IM tactics are self-focused, other-focused, and defensive IM tactics (see Bolino et al., 2008). Self-focused tactics include various forms of self-promotion such as

exemplifications, entitlements, enhancements, and describing qualities that one possesses (Kacmar, Delery, & Ferris, 1992). Other-focused tactics such as ingratiation are directed at the target (i.e. interviewer or hiring organization), with the goal of inspiring liking for the actor on behalf of the target. Ingratiation tactics may include directly or indirectly flattering the interviewer, opinion conformity, favor doing, and even feigned helplessness (Barrick et al., 2009). Defensive IM tactics include excuses and justifications (Schlenker & Weigold, 1992) or any behavior that repairs one's image when it has been damaged (Tsai, Huang, Wu, & Lo, 2010). In addition to these three categories, IM research also distinguishes between honest (Bourdage, Roulin, & Tarraf, 2018) and deceptive (Levashina & Campion, 2007) forms of IM, meaning that each of the three categories of IM behavior (self-focused, other-focused, defensive) may be employed in an honest or deceptive manner. For example, honest self-promotion may include highlighting qualifications that an individual actually possesses (i.e. MBA, fluent in Chinese) whereas deceptive self-promotion (or image creation) involves claiming to have qualifications that one in fact does not have (i.e. never completed MBA and speaks only basic Chinese). Deceptive IM (or faking) has recently received much attention in the literature, particularly in the employment interview context (Roulin, Bangerter, & Levashina, 2015).

2.2 Interview IM

The unique social dynamics and high-stakes nature of the employment interview has generated extensive research about applicants' use of IM (Levashina & Campion, 2007), how IM is interpreted by interviewers (Kristof-Brown, Jansen, & Colbert, 2002; Roulin, Bangerter, & Levashina, 2014), and the effectiveness of various IM strategies (Barrick et al., 2009). IM is a fundamental mechanism through which applicants attempt to influence interviewers' perceptions of them (Bourdage et al., 2018), and assertive tactics such as self-promotion or ingratiation tend

to positively influence hiring decisions (Kacmar et al., 1992; Kristof-Brown et al., 2002). Studies examining the effect of IM in the job interview context have primarily focused on assertive IM because defensive IM is less frequently used (Kacmar et al., 1992; Stevens & Kristof, 1995). Additionally, nearly all job applicants engage in some form of IM (Ellis, West, Ryan & DeShon, 2002; Turnley & Bolino, 2001; Stevens & Kristof, 1995), but the way the interview is structured may encourage or discourage different behaviors (Ellis et al., 2002; McFarland, Ryan, & Kriska, 2003).

There are several systematic reviews and meta-analyses examining the impact of IM on interview ratings. For example, Barrick et al. (2009) found overall IM to be strongly correlated with interview performance ($r = .47$), also noting that all forms of IM tactics were meaningfully associated with interviewer ratings. Peck and Levashina (2017) later meta-analytically examined both self and other-focused IM tactics. They found IM to be used more frequently in the interview rather than on the job, and specifically self-focused tactics to be more effective ($r = .24$) than other-focused tactics ($r = .17$) in the interview.

Kristof-Brown et al. (2002) showed that applicants' use of IM tactics in interviews affect interviewer perceptions of person–job fit and applicant–interviewer similarity. Roulin et al. (2014) examined how interviewees' IM tactics influence interviewers' evaluations of their performance, finding that interviewers' perceptions do not converge with self-reported applicant IM. These authors suggest that what may actually matter in interviews is not the impression applicants think they are making, but interviewers' perceptions of applicant IM. These studies address some of the inconsistencies found in previous research by highlighting the importance of understanding the psychosocial processes of both 'sides of the equation' in interviews. That is, it is central to consider how an applicant's IM tactics are interpreted by the interviewer in

determining evaluation effectiveness. This is consistent with Macan's (2009) review of the interview literature, highlighting the importance of investigating the applicant and interviewer factors that may affect the interview process. There is also research looking at how individual differences predict IM use of applicants in an interview context. For example, Melchers, Roulin and Buehl's (2020) review of the interview faking literature shows that several personality traits are related to applicant's use of deceptive IM, while Bourdage et al. (2018) showed that personality is also associated with honest IM use. But less research has looked at cultural differences associated with IM use. The following section reviews some of the cross-cultural impression management literature explored to date.

2.3 Cross-cultural IM

Exploring how cultural differences translate into differences in influence strategies has peaked the interests of IM scholars since the mid 1980's. Early research on cross-cultural influence tactics (Hirokawa & Miyahara, 1986; Schermerhorn & Bond, 1991) showed that cultural values are associated with differences in preferences for the use of different influence tactics and/or strategies across cultures. In an interview context, some preliminary research has demonstrated how cross-cultural differences may translate into different preferences for specific IM tactics. For example, Bye et al. (2011) found significant differences in intended self-presentation during interviews across four countries, with the highest self-presentation intentions reported by Turks and Ghanaians. Schmid Mast, Frauendorfer and Popovic (2011) found that Canadian recruiters preferred hiring self-promoting applicants whereas Swiss recruiters preferred more modest applicants (i.e. high self-promotion versus low self-promotion). Deros (2017) showed that ethnic minorities (i.e. Moroccans in Belgium) and majorities (Belgians in Belgium) differed in their preference for IM tactics (i.e., self-promotion vs. opinion-conformity) and that

such differences led to more negative interview outcomes for minorities. Sandal et al. (2014) conducted a 10 country-study showing that cultural dimensions were associated with differences in the use of several IM tactics. For instance, cultures high on embeddedness, mastery, and hierarchy assigned a higher importance to self-presentation tactics than those cultures high on autonomy, harmony, and egalitarianism. In a similar manner, Fell, König and Kammerhoff (2016) systematically examined cross cultural differences across 31 countries in attitude towards applicants' faking, finding that attitudes towards faking correlate in the expected manner with four of GLOBE's (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) nine cultural dimensions. Most recently, König et al. (2020) explored the relationship between country-level economic variables and interview faking across 20 countries. They found that inequalities between the rich and poor within a country are positively correlated with faking behavior in interviews.

In sum, several preliminary studies suggest that cultural differences can impact preferences for IM tactics employed in interviews (for both the interviewee and interviewer). However, a conceptual model to systematically and specifically explain or predict how culture is associated with preferences for, and use of, various IM tactic is lacking. Such a model could assist with understanding the consequences of having an interviewer and interviewee from two different cultural backgrounds. Manroop et al.'s (2013) model represents an initial step towards understanding the influence of cultural values on job selection decisions. Their model includes several relevant forms of IM, such as self-promotion or verbal and non-verbal behaviors, and how they can impact interviewers' evaluations. It furthers our understanding of how cultural values can impact selection decisions in an interview context. However, their model is limited to exploring only two cultural dimensions and only one of the many types of verbal IM tactics (i.e. self-promotion), which have all been demonstrated to impact interviewer ratings (Barrick et al.,

2009; Peck & Levashina, 2017; Bourdage et al., 2018). My proposed model includes a more extensive list of IM tactics, including other-focused and defensive IM tactics (in addition to self-promotion), and proposed to rely on a comprehensive set of cultural factors for understanding how cultural values impact preferences for specific IM tactics in an interview context. The following section briefly reviews existing cross-cultural models of IM.

2.4 Existing CCIM Models

Two major CCIM models that have been developed over the past two decades. The first CCIM model in the workplace was developed by Bilbow (1997) in his study investigating the spoken discourse of Chinese and Western managers through business meetings at a Hong Kong airline. Bilbow (1997) analyzed cross-cultural differences in directive speech (i.e. request, commands, and suggestions) via recorded videos. The model is based off a 5-stage 'interactional sociolinguistic' methodological approach used by Tannen (1994), which seeks to identify 'trouble' (or mismanagement of impressions) within native and non-native interactions. Bilbow (1997) discusses 'mismanagement of impressions' in cross-cultural contexts as the notion that impressions we think we are projecting when we speak may not be the impression that hearers form of us. This becomes especially relevant in an interview context where cultural values may influence both the impressions we convey and the interpreters' attribution process.

Bilbow (1997) uses the term 'cross-cultural' as a shorthand way of describing any communication between two or more people who do not share a common linguistic or cultural background. His CCIM discourse model suggests that the IM attribution process is significantly affected by the cultural backgrounds (i.e. cultural values) of both speakers and hearers. In a communication episode, when a speaker and listener come from different cultural backgrounds (and thus possess different cultural values), there is an increased chance by each member for

mis-attributing the intent or meaning of a verbal/non-verbal message. Such misunderstandings are described as ‘discordant’ attributions, which may lead to the reinforcement of negative person-perceptions. Discordant attributions are important for consideration in an interview context given that one of the strongest predictors of interviewers' evaluations and recommendations is their subjective impressions of applicants' interview performance (Dipboye, 1992). Additionally, interview IM research shows that interviewers’ evaluations of applicants are more strongly associated with their own perceptions of IM use by applicants than by applicants’ actual IM use (Roulin et al., 2014).

Bilbow’s (1997) CCIM model is based on two premises: first, a speaker's discourse is shaped by their IM style, which is significantly affected by features of their socio-cultural environment, including their status, gender, ethnicity, language proficiency, or personality. Second, when a speaker's discourse passes through the filter of a hearer's perceptions, the hearer attributes certain characteristics to the speaker based on that discourse. That attribution process is also significantly affected by the hearer’s socio-cultural environment. The value in Bilbow’s (1997) CCIM model is its understanding of how cultural differences ‘filter’ both the speaker’s discourse and the hearer’s perceptions resulting in ‘discordant’ communication. However, this model is very general and thus limited in explaining how specific cultural differences translate into behaviors in the workplace.

More recently, Ward and Ravlin (2017) proposed an alternative CCIM model, unrelated to Bilbow’s, describing the link between cultural differences (i.e., values) and workplace influence and proactive behaviors shaping self, target, and contextual perceptions. These authors integrate Bozeman & Kacmar’s (1997) cybernetics model of IM, and Roberts’ (2005) model of social-identity based IM to examine how culturally different newcomers may develop an

influential voice through CCIM. Thus, where Bilbow's (1997) CCIM model focused on discourse, Ward and Ravlin's (2017) model focuses on influence. Their model includes several conceptual processes, some of which illustrate how cultural factors may influence preferences for various IM tactics. For example, they argue that employees evolving in a foreign context must first understand the cultural norms, values, and expectations from a target in that context, so that they can adapt their IM behaviors accordingly. Employees' understanding of the intercultural context can be enhanced through cultural knowledge and experience. And, the higher the employee's understanding is, the easier it is to identify discrepancies between actual and desired images, engage in IM behaviors to reduce discrepancies, and ensure successful interpersonal interactions. However, although Ward and Ravlin's (2017) CCIM model considers the importance of cultural difference in IM use and effectiveness, it does not explain why and how individuals from specific cultures would be more or less effective at influencing targets from other cultures.

In sum, despite significant contributions from both Bilbow's (1997) and Ward and Ravlin's (2017) CCIM models in understanding the psychological processes that emerge in a cross-cultural interaction, neither model draws upon an established cultural framework to make specific predictions concerning how and why IM strategies work in one cultural context versus another. None of the models are specifically focused on the employment interview context either. To address these gaps, my proposed model draws upon Schwartz's (2006) value orientations, and then incorporates the specificities of the interview context.

2.5 Schwartz's Value Orientations

Researchers have several options for frameworks to choose among for making cross-cultural comparisons, many of which were mentioned and used above in our cross-cultural IM

literature review (i.e. Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004; Schwartz, 2006). Among these foundational cross-cultural frameworks I believe that Schwartz's (2006) value orientations is most suitable for investigating CCIM in an interview context given the criticisms surrounding Hofstede's work (see McSweeney, 2002; Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges & De Luque 2006; Brewer & Venaik, 2011), and the simplicity in using only three cultural dimensions, versus nine within the GLOBE project (House et al., 2004). Schwartz's (1994) initial theory of basic human values originally consists of ten motivationally distinct types of values (self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, security, conformity, tradition, benevolence, universalism) that are assumed to be recognised by members of most societies. These ten values relate dynamically to one another, in that some are compatible while others are opposed to each other. These ten values were later synthesized in the form of three cultural dimensions (also known as value orientations) for the purpose of making cross-cultural comparisons (Schwartz, 2006).

Schwartz's (2006) value orientations proposes three dimensions along which societal values differ and may be understood in comparison to each other. The first issue is defining the nature of the relation between the individual and the group (i.e., Embeddedness, Intellectual / Affective Autonomy¹). The second issue is guaranteeing responsible behaviour that will preserve the social fabric (i.e., Hierarchy / Egalitarianism). The third issue is concerning the relation of humankind to the natural and social world (i.e., Mastery / Harmony).

In autonomous cultures, people are viewed as bounded entities who express their own preferences, feelings, ideas, and abilities, and find meaning in their own uniqueness. Examples of

¹ Although Schwartz (2006) splits autonomy into intellectual/affective, for the purposes of this research I treat them as one.

important values in such cultures include broadmindedness, curiosity, creativity, pleasure, exciting life, and varied life. Countries such as France, the Netherlands, and Canada score high on this dimension. Autonomous cultures are contrasted with embeddedness, where people are viewed as entities embedded in the collectivity. Meaning in life comes largely through social relationships, through identifying with the group, participating in its shared way of life, and striving toward its shared goals. Embedded cultures emphasize maintaining the status quo and restraining actions that might disrupt in-group solidarity or the traditional order. Important values in such cultures are social order, respect for tradition, security, obedience, and wisdom. Countries such as Nigeria, Yemen, and China score high on this dimension.

Egalitarianism seeks to induce people to recognize one another as moral equals who share basic interests as human beings. People are socialized to internalize a commitment to cooperate and to feel concern for everyone's welfare. They are expected to act for the benefit of others. Important values in such cultures include equality, social justice, responsibility, help, and honesty. Countries such as Sweden, Finland, and Spain score high on this dimension. In contrast, hierarchy relies on hierarchical systems of ascribed roles to insure responsible, productive behavior. It legitimizes the unequal distribution of power, roles, and resources. People are socialized to take the hierarchical distribution of roles for granted and to comply with the obligations and rules attached to their roles. Values like social power, authority, humility, and wealth are highly important in hierarchical cultures. Countries such as China, Thailand, and South Korea score high on this dimension.

Harmony emphasizes fitting into the world as it is, trying to understand and appreciate rather than to change, direct, or exploit it. Important values in harmony cultures include world at peace, unity with nature, and protecting the environment. Countries such as Slovenia, Latvia, and

Italy score high on this dimension. Mastery is the polar cultural response to this problem. It encourages active self-assertion in order to master, direct, and change the natural and social environment to attain group or personal goals. Values such as ambition, success, daring, and competence are especially important in mastery cultures. Countries such as Israel, the USA, and South Korea score high on this dimension.

2.6 A Cross-cultural IM Model in Employment Interviews

I proposed to integrate Schwartz's (2006) value orientations with Bilbow's (1997) and Ward and Ravlin's (2017) CCIM models to produce a new model that predicts how cross-cultural differences may translate into various IM tactics in an interview context. My proposed model could be applied in research identifying cross-cultural differences in IM tactics that may be, for example, putting ethnic minority immigrants at a disadvantage during the hiring process. My model is illustrated in Figure 2.1. It captures the relationships between Schwartz's (2006) value orientations and applicants' and interviewers' preferences for the three types of IM tactics described above (self-focused, other-focused, and defensive IM tactics). I formulated a total of 11 propositions, with the first nine capturing the impact of Schwartz's (2006) three cultural dimensions and three forms of IM tactics, and the last two, illustrating how cultural distance can influence interviewers' ratings of applicant performance, and how individual differences moderate the interviewer's attribution processes. More precisely, I proposed that a larger cultural distance between the interviewer and applicant leads to larger differences in an applicant's IM behavior from that of the interviewer's expectations. Such differences lead to unfamiliarity, which inevitably should lead to poorer performance evaluations. My final proposition suggests that individual-level differences in interviewers' stable beliefs or attitudes (social dominance orientation - SDO, authoritarianism, or ethnocentrism) should play a moderating role in the

relationships, such that large differences in Schwartz's (2006) cultural dimensions between applicants and interviewers will have a more negative impact on performance ratings when interviewers are high in SDO, authoritarianism, or ethnocentrism.

2.6.1 Autonomy-Embeddedness and IM Tactics

My first set of propositions explore how Schwartz's (2006) autonomy-embeddedness cultural values may impact CCIM tactics in an interview context. As mentioned above, autonomy-embeddedness cultural values relate to the boundaries between the person and the group, where more autonomous values are associated with freedom of expression or finding uniqueness in one's identity and embeddedness relating to maintaining the status quo, and restraining actions that might disrupt social order. In an interview context, this dimension is particularly likely to affect the use of (and expectations about) self-focused IM tactics. In cultures higher in autonomy, individuals are more inclined to present an image of themselves that is unique or to highlight individual achievements when completing a task (i.e. self-enhancements). In contrast, cultures higher on embeddedness believe they are part of a collectivity where standing out and portraying an image of being different from everyone is frowned upon. Individuals from such cultures are thus less likely to emphasize individual skills or achievements. The use of self focused IM tactics (i.e. entitlements, self-enhancements) has been examined in the cross-cultural literature. For example, Sandal et al. (2014) found self-enhancement to be more prominent in North America and Western Europe (high autonomy) than in South-East Asia (high embeddedness). Schmid Mast et al. (2011) found that French-speaking Canadian recruiters (slightly higher autonomy than French-speaking Swiss) were more inclined to hire applicants that used self-promotional IM tactics. These findings suggest that cultures

higher in autonomy value self-promotion more than cultures high in embeddedness in an interview context.

Proposition 1a: Applicants from cultures high in autonomy engage in more self-focused IM than those from cultures high in embeddedness

Proposition 1b: Interviewers from cultures high in autonomy expect applicants to use self-focused IM behaviors more than those from cultures high in embeddedness

Schwartz (2006) discusses embeddedness cultural values as respecting social order, having obedience and self discipline. These values are likely to lead to behavioral restraints from engaging in direct comments about the interviewer who is viewed as being a person of authority. This is in sharp contrast with autonomy values such as curiosity, pleasure and broadmindedness that are more likely to motivate the applicant to engage in open exchanges with the interviewer. It is true that communication (of some form) is necessary to perform well in an interview, but I argue that cultural values such as embeddedness and autonomy will likely influence the level of comfort applicants feel in making direct comments about the interviewer (and interviewers' level of comfort with such behaviors). Other-focused IM represents ingratiation behavior(s) in its broadest sense (Bolino et al., 2008), with flattery and opinion conformity as subcategories. I argue that all applicants engage in other-focused IM but that cultural values dictate preferences for the form of other-focused IM employed. Flattery or intentional 'chit-chat' to build rapport differ from opinion conformity, where in an interview context, an applicant may subtly nod their head or respond to an interviewer's statement in agreement. The relationship between other-focused IM tactics and autonomy/embeddedness have been empirically investigated. For instance, Derous (2017) demonstrated that Belgian applicants and recruiters (high on autonomy) preferred opinion conformity over Moroccans (high on embeddedness).

Proposition 2a: Applicants from cultures high in autonomy engage in more opinion conformity, whereas those from cultures high in embeddedness engage in more flattery

Proposition 2b: Interviewers from cultures high in autonomy expect applicants to use opinion conformity more than those from cultures high in embeddedness

Perhaps one of the most complicated predictions of how embeddedness and autonomy values will translate into IM behaviors in an interview context concerns their relationship with defensive tactics. Defensive IM tactics include excuses and justifications when one's identity is threatened. I argue that cultural dimensions like embeddedness and autonomy do not simply influence the use of defensive IM tactics in interviews, but more specifically the use of honest versus deceptive defensive IM. Research related to defensive CCIM has found that applicants from embedded cultures show stronger tendencies to attribute their failures to external causes in order to meet role expectations (Kim & Nam, 1998). For example, Asians who are high in embeddedness fear being judged and 'losing face', causing them to lose group membership in the collectivity. As a result, they are more likely to engage in lying, or deceptive defensive IM in order to maintain their social status. This was empirically supported by Kim, Chiu, Peng, Cai, and Tov (2010) who found that east Asian students (i.e., from high embedded societies) were likely to report positive self-evaluations by denying possession of negative traits (i.e., making excuses or justifications). In line with these findings, Schwartz (2006) also lists protecting self image as one of the primary characteristics of embedded cultural values. On the other hand, autonomous cultures, as described by Schwartz (2006), value freedom of expression and broad mindedness which might make individuals more tolerant of (and comfortable with) communicating their negative qualities. In an interview context, applicants from high-autonomy cultures may be more likely to openly disclose the truth when their self image is being

threatened, such as when asked to provide reasons for being terminated from a previous employer or for an unexplainable time gap in one's resume.

Proposition 3a: Applicants from cultures high in autonomy engage in less deceptive defensive IM than those from cultures high in embeddedness

Proposition 3b: Interviewers from cultures high in autonomy expect applicants to use deceptive defensive IM more than those from cultures high in embeddedness

2.6.2 Hierarchy-Egalitarianism and IM Tactics

My next set of propositions explore how Schwartz's (2006) hierarchy-egalitarianism dimension may impact CCIM tactics in an interview context. This cultural dimension concerns how people go about behaving in a responsible manner that preserves the social fabric and, engage in productive work (through consideration and coordination of others) necessary to maintain society rather than compete destructively or withhold efforts (Schwartz, 2006).

Hierarchical societies are more accepting of power distances amongst their members and rely on ascribed roles to ensure responsible, productive behavior, whereas egalitarianism seeks to induce people to recognize one another as moral equals who share basic interests as human beings. This cultural dimension overlaps with Hofstede (1980) and GLOBE's (House et al., 2004) power distance dimension, leading us to explore research surrounding these terms interchangeably. In an interview context, I see this cultural dimension influencing IM behavior in several ways.

Self-focused IM tactics may include several forms of self-promotion not limited to exemplifications, entitlements and self-enhancements. Schwartz (2006) uses 'humble' as a value to characterize hierarchical societies suggesting a generally lower tendency to gloat or self-promote. However, individuals in hierarchical societies attribute greater legitimacy to impressing

people in positions of power (e.g., their superiors) than individuals in more egalitarian societies (Schermerhorn & Bond, 1991). The interview dynamic is such that the interviewer is often in a relative position of power over the interviewee in that, they are directing the conversation (via interview questions) and judging the interviewee's performance. Interviewers viewed as being in a superior position may motivate applicants from hierarchical societies to engage in IM behaviors to 'impress' them, such as self promotion tactics. In contrast, egalitarian societies may be less motivated to self-promote, perceiving for example, less benefit in 'selling oneself' to move up a ladder that isn't as high. Schwartz (2006) describes egalitarian values as accepting one's position in life, honesty, and overall equality. This notion was empirically supported by Thomsen, Sidanius, and Fiske (2007) who showed that Americans (high hierarchy) self-enhanced considerably more than did Danes (high egalitarianism). Similarly, König et al. (2011) found significantly higher prevalence rates of self-presentational behaviors by applicants in the United States than in Iceland and Switzerland (both high egalitarianism).

Proposition 4a: Applicants from cultures high in hierarchy engage in more self-focused IM than those from cultures high in egalitarianism

Proposition 4b: Interviewers from cultures high in hierarchy expect applicants to use self-focused IM behaviors more than those from cultures high in egalitarianism

Understanding the relationship between hierarchy-egalitarianism values and other-focused IM tactics requires a breakdown and individual consideration of the types of other-focused IM tactics. For example, flattery is classified as other enhancement, where an individual expresses a favorable evaluation of the target (Wayne & Kacmar, 1991). Opinion conformity is when an individual expresses values, beliefs, or opinions that are known to be similarly held by the target (Jones & Jones, 1964). In this manner, flattery can be understood as a direct form of

communication, whereas opinion conformity is subtler (or more indirect). In an interview context, applicants with egalitarian values are more likely to view the interviewer as an equal, leading to a higher likelihood of informal and direct communication patterns, such as flattery. In contrast, hierarchical values view and respect the power and authority of the interviewer resulting in asymmetrical power relationships. Applicants from hierarchical societies may worry that using direct forms of ingratiation tactics such as flattery or establishing rapport with the interviewer could be perceived as ‘stepping out of line’. However, opinion conformity may be an acceptable and even expected form of other-focused IM tactic to members of hierarchical societies.

Bilbow (1998) demonstrated empirically how cultural differences related to hierarchy-egalitarianism influence preferences for other-focused IM tactics (among other IM tactics) in an interview setting. Specifically, Chinese interviewers preferred indirectness, respectfulness and conservatism, whereas American interviewers preferred self-disclosure, explicitness and spontaneity. Bilbow (1998) also observed that the indirect discourse of Chinese applicants (high on hierarchy) was sometimes negatively interpreted by Western interviewers (high on egalitarianism) as symptomatic of ‘wooliness’, lack of comprehension or lack of ideas. In contrast, Chinese interviewers tended to expect Western interviewees to maintain considerable distance (i.e. avoid directly flattering the interviewer) and did not actively encourage intimate self-disclosure from them. Engaging in flattery and ‘chit-chat’ thus appears to be more acceptable (and thus more used/expected) in egalitarian cultures whereas subtle forms of other-focused IM such as opinion conformity are likely to be more common in hierarchical cultures.

Proposition 5a: Applicants from cultures high in hierarchy engage in more opinion conformity whereas those from cultures high in egalitarianism engage in more flattery

Proposition 5b: Interviewers from cultures high in hierarchy expect applicants to use opinion conformity more than those from cultures high in egalitarianism

Fell et al. (2016) pointed out that hierarchical (high power distance) societies have been found to be more corrupt, probably because they know that “rank and position in the hierarchy have special privileges” (see GLOBE, 2006: p. 8) and that fairness principles are commonly violated. Fell et al. (2016) investigated the general relationship of faking (equivalent to deceptive IM in general) with several GLOBE (House et al., 2004) dimensions across 31 countries, finding more positive attitudes toward faking in job interviews in countries with high power distance. Schwartz’s (2006) description of hierarchical cultures as valuing social power, authority and having a necessity to avoid humility, are consistent with GLOBE’s (House et al., 2004) characterization of hierarchical cultures. It also aligned with Fell et al.’s (2016) findings that it is considered more common practice and even acceptable for hierarchical societies to engage in deceit (i.e., faking) to protect or repair one’s image when faced with a difficult situation, such as when one’s personal identity is being threatened. Therefore, when faced with uncomfortable questions concerning an applicant’s performance or surfacing character weaknesses in an interview context, I expect a more deceptive defensive response from individuals of hierarchical societies. This behavior sharply contrasts egalitarianism’s commitment to equality, cooperation and of feeling concern for everyone’s welfare (Schwartz, 2006) where values such as honesty, equality and social justice are more likely to encourage honest defensive forms of IM.

Proposition 6a: Applicants from cultures high in hierarchy engage in more deceptive defensive IM than those from cultures high in egalitarianism

Proposition 6b: Interviewers from cultures high in hierarchy expect applicants to use deceptive defensive IM more than those from cultures high in egalitarianism

2.6.3 Mastery-Harmony and IM Tactics

My next set of propositions explores how Schwartz's (2006) mastery-harmony dimension may impact CCIM tactics in an interview context. This cultural dimension concerns how people manage their relations to the natural and social world. Harmony related values emphasize fitting into the world as it is, trying to understand and appreciate rather than to change, direct, or to exploit. This contrasts with mastery values which encourage active self-assertion in order to master, direct, and change the natural and social environment to attain group or personal goals. Mastery and harmony values can trigger different IM behaviors in an interview context. Mastery-oriented cultures such as the USA or Japan, endorse power or dominance over others and the physical environment, leading to a preference for employing IM tactics that portray a strong, competent, and confident applicant. For example, mastery encourages self-assertion, and values such as ambition, success and competence are highly prized. Previous research has also found that cultural differences stemming from mastery/harmony influence how self-presentation (i.e. self-promotion efforts) are considered legitimate and acceptable (König et al., 2011; Lopes & Fletcher, 2004). Additionally, in their 10-country study on intended self-presentation tactics in job interviews, Sandal et al. (2014) found that the mastery-harmony dimension explained the most variance in self-presentation efforts, in that mastery was positively related to self-promotion. In contrast, harmony's negative relationship with competitiveness and selfishness, as well as its greater emphasis on family/work life balance (Schwartz, 2006) makes assertive self-promotional behaviors less likely in an interview context.

Proposition 7a: Applicants from cultures high in mastery engage in more self-focused IM than those from cultures high in harmony

Proposition 7b: Interviewers from cultures high in mastery expect applicants to use self-focused IM more than those from cultures high in harmony

According to Schwartz (2006), harmonistic cultures value world at peace and seek to fit in with their social world. There is less desire to conquer and compete with others. In contrast, cultures high in mastery seek to encourage active self-assertion in order to master, direct, and change the natural and social environment to attain group or personal goals (Schwartz, 2006). Schwartz (2006) goes on to mention that mastery orientation may legitimize selfishness because it justifies self-assertion in order to get ahead. In their multi-level review of IM motives and behaviors, Bolino et al. (2008) describe ingratiation (assertive other-focused IM tactic) as the use of flattery and favor rendering to attempt to appear likeable. Thus, in an interview context, I predict that more assertive cultures (such as those high in mastery) seeking to master and direct their social world are more likely to engage in and prefer assertive other-focused IM use (i.e. flattery). In comparison, cultures attempting to ‘fit in’ with their social environment and placing a high value on acceptance (high harmony) are more likely to use other-focused IM tactics such as opinion conformity. For example, a Japanese interviewee (high on mastery) may view the interview as a social opportunity to portray an image of success and influence the interviewer’s perception of them using flattery to achieve their personal/group goals. In contrast, a Finnish applicant (high on harmony) may see such assertive other-focused tactics (flattery) aimed at manipulating the interviewer’s perception of them as less necessary and be more likely to use opinion conformity to ‘fit in’ with the social situation.

Proposition 8a: Applicants from cultures high in mastery engage in more flattery whereas those from cultures high in harmony engage in more opinion conformity

Proposition 8b: Interviewers from cultures high in mastery expect applicants to use flattery more than those from cultures high in harmony

Mastery values involve a strong emphasis on portraying an image of individual superiority and excellence (i.e., ambition, success, competence; Schwartz, 2006), which are likely threatened when applicants have to protect themselves (e.g., to deal with weaknesses related to one's resume, skills, and competencies pointed out by an interviewer). In cultures high on mastery such as Japan and Korea, the need to 'save face' and avoid damage to one's public image can lead to relying on deceptive defensive tactics, for instance, by omitting or hiding information that could threaten one's image. This is in sharp contrast to harmony cultures such as Slovenia and Finland who are more tolerant and demonstrate liberal attitudes towards other people, therefore accepting of weaknesses. From this viewpoint, job applicants in harmony cultures are less inclined to feel a need to cover their personal flaws or to present an overly ambitious image during job interviews, leading to more honest defensive IM behaviors.

Proposition 9a: Applicants from cultures high in mastery engage in more deceptive defensive IM than those from cultures high in harmony

Proposition 9b: Interviewers from cultures high in mastery expect applicants to use deceptive defensive IM more than those from cultures high in harmony

2.6.4 Impact on Interview Performance Evaluation

My proposed model suggests that the amount of cultural differences between interviewers and applicants will impact interview performance evaluations. Huffcutt, Van Iddekinge and Roth (2011) proposed a theoretical model of interview performance suggesting that personal characteristics such as cultural background could affect interviewee performance

and interviewer rating. Ward and Ravlin's (2017) CCIM model also points to the need for considering cultural distance or the 'magnitude' of value difference between applicants and interviewers. Manroop et al.'s (2013) model of cross-cultural differences on interview outcomes also proposes that "Interviewers are more likely to make negative judgment about the job candidates who respond to questions contrary to cultural expectations than candidates who respond to questions according to cultural expectations" (p. 3522). Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and its related cousin self-categorization theory (Turner & Oakes, 1986) describe how certain individual/intergroup behaviours and status differences are perceived as legitimate and either similar or foreign to oneself. Such processes lead to in-group favoritism where people give preferential treatment (i.e. better evaluations) to others when they are perceived to belong to the same ingroup.

Therefore, in an interview context, I believe that the larger the cultural distance between the applicant and the interviewer (and thus the larger the discrepancy between IM used and expected IM), the more negative the interview performance evaluations will be. I illustrate this point using Schwartz's (2006) cultural dimensions and various IM tactics in an interview context. For example, marginal differences in hierarchy-egalitarianism values between a Spanish applicant and a Belgian interviewer are less likely to produce 'discordant' interactions (Bilbow, 1997) than would Spanish applicant interviewed by an Indian interviewer, where a greater hierarchy-egalitarianism cultural distance exists. In this first scenario (Spanish / Belgian), although cultural differences in hierarchy-egalitarianism exist, they are marginal, associated with small discrepancies between applicant IM use and interviewer's IM expectations, and thus likely to have a small negative impact on performance evaluations. In contrast, the second scenario (Spanish / Indian) involves larger differences in hierarchy-egalitarianism and should result in a

larger discrepancy between the interviewer's expectations of desired IM tactics and the applicant's actual employment of those tactics. This will ultimately result in the interviewer evaluating the applicant more negatively. In this example Bilbow's (1997) CCIM model of discourse additionally reminds us that it is not only the applicant's cultural values and subsequent IM tactic preferences that contribute to 'discordant' communication(s) but also the interviewer's cultural values influencing the attribution processes of such IM tactics.

Proposition 10: The bigger the cultural distance between the applicant and the interviewer, the larger the discrepancy between the applicant's use and the interviewer's expectation(s) of (a) self-focused IM, (b) other-focused IM, and (c) defensive IM, and indirectly the lower the performance evaluation by the interviewer

The final piece of my model concerns individual differences that are likely to moderate the relationship between cultural distance of the applicant and the interviewer (and indirectly differences in IM tactics use vs. expectations) and interview performance ratings. These include social dominance orientation (SDO), authoritarianism, and ethnocentrism.

To illustrate how individual differences are likely to moderate the relationship between cultural distance between the applicant and the interviewer and interview performance ratings I drew upon Duckitt and Sibley's (2017) dual process motivational model (DPM) of ideology and prejudice. The DPM is an explanatory framework that encompasses both individual (Allport, 1954) and intergroup (Pettigrew, 1958) factors of prejudice. More specifically, the DPM includes three explanatory concepts to understand the motivational and psychological process of prejudice. First, two major social attitudinal predictors of individual differences from two distinct motivational goals/value dimensions are right wing authoritarianism (RWA) and social dominance orientation (SDO) (Duckitt & Sibley, 2017). A large body of research has found

RWA and SDO to be powerful predictors of prejudice (Proch, 2013; Sibley & Duckitt, 2008). This is in part because SDO is highly correlated with hierarchy (Duckitt & Sibley, 2017), and thus people who score high on SDO believe that there are and should be status differences among social groups, and they do not see these as wrong (Pratto Sidanius, Stallworth & Malle 1994). Thus, thinking that ‘one group is better’ than another is common/acceptable social practice. Additionally, RWA relates to the desires to protect and enhance the self and the ingroup leading to greater ingroup favoritism, and in some cases prejudice toward outgroups (Altemeyer, 1988). Therefore, those who score high on RWA are more likely to favor in-group versus out-group members. Secondly, the DPM explains how the underlying personality dimensions of RWA (i.e. low agreeableness and high conscientiousness) and SDO (i.e. low agreeableness) represent social/psychological bases of personality that also contribute to dangerous and competitive worldview beliefs (i.e. embeddedness values) that lead to an in-group preference for order, structure, stability and security. Finally, the DPM model explains how both individual and intergroup values cause prejudice and how they operate in a complimentary fashion. Therefore, I introduce SDO and RWA as having a moderating effect. More precisely, interviewers’ level of SDO and RWA will affect the strength of the relationship between cultural distance and interviewer’s evaluation of applicants, in that high levels of RWA/SDO will amplify the negative evaluations resulting from large cultural distances between interviewers and interviewees whereas low levels of RWA/SDO will weaken the effect of negative evaluations resulting from large cultural distances.

Finally, ethnocentrism, a construct measuring openness (or lack of) to foreign cultures and/or outsiders (Neuliep & McCroskey, 2013) is also likely to have an effect on how interviewers’ experiences interviewees’ behaviors that do not meet their expectations or conform

to their cultural norms. This is mainly because those high on ethnocentrism view their culture as the ‘center’ of the world, and a role model for other cultures. Individuals high on ethnocentrism generally dislike interacting with members of foreign cultures (Neuliep & McCroskey, 2013). Therefore, I also believe ethnocentrism plays an important role in moderating how an individual may view and assign evaluations to members of foreign cultures. For example, an interviewer high on ethnocentrism is more likely to assign negative evaluations to an interviewee’s behaviors (i.e. IM use) that are not consistent with the interviewer’s cultural expectations/norms (i.e. preferred IM), whereas those individuals who are low on ethnocentrism are likely to have more tolerance and openness to foreign behaviors such as IM use in a culturally distant episode. In this manner, I also believe that interviewers’ individual-level ethnocentrism will amplify and/or weaken the relationship between the cultural distance between them and interviewees and their evaluations of interviewees’ performance.

Proposition 11: The impact of the cultural distance between the applicant and the interviewer on performance evaluation will be moderated by interviewers’ individual-level (a) authoritarianism, (b) social dominance orientation, and (c) ethnocentrism.

2.7 Discussion

I proposed a CCIM model for understanding how cultural differences influence IM use and preferences in an interview context. Previous CCIM models of discourse (Bilbow, 1997) and influence (Ward & Ravlin, 2017) were designed for an organizational context. By integrating Schwartz’s (2006) cultural framework with these previous models of CCIM for the workplace, and existing interview IM research, I developed eleven propositions that predict how cultural values may influence IM tactic use and perceptions of such tactics for the interview context. My model examined how Schwartz’s (2006) cultural dimensions translate into preferred IM tactics

for both applicants and interviewers. It also highlights how the larger the discrepancy between applicants' IM use and interviewers' IM expectations, the more negative the performance evaluation of the applicant will be. Finally, I emphasized how interviewers' individual-level factors such as SDO, authoritarianism, and ethnocentrism moderate this impact. My model has several implications which are relevant for both cross-cultural psychology research and international human resource management practice.

2.7.1 Research Implications

My model contributes to the cross-cultural psychology and CCIM literature in several ways. First, my model may be used to further explore how cultural values translate into preferences for IM tactics for both applicants and interviewers in an interview context. Initial empirical CCIM work has already begun to examine how some cultural values translate into preferences for, and use of, IM tactics in interviews (Bye et al., 2011; König et al., 2011; Sandal et al., 2014; Fell et al., 2016; Derous, 2017). However, this research is limited to a few cultural elements or a limited number of countries/cultures. Given that our world comprises upwards of 227 countries (and even various cultures within), there is still a wealth of potential for additional empirical research to examine how cross-cultural differences translate in IM use and, even more so, how IM impacts interview performance ratings. The present conceptual model will help advance this line of research and can generate new studies to better understand IM use across cultures. More specifically, each of my first nine propositions can be tested empirically to explore how cultural values translate into preferences for IM tactics. Furthermore, if enough empirical studies are accumulated, a 'mapping' of IM tactic preferences for cultures around the globe could be created similar to how cultural psychologists have mapped the big five framework cross-culturally (McCrae et al., 2005; Schmitt et al., 2007).

Secondly, my model may advance personnel selection research and help to better understand how cultural factors may influence applicants' preferences for certain IM tactics that due to cultural factors, may not be preferred behaviors of the interviewer. Future empirical research could examine a wide range of applicant/interviewer combinations to test how performance ratings are affected by cultural distance. Such knowledge may clarify why members of certain cultural groups receive poorer evaluations (and subsequently struggle to find employment despite having strong qualifications) when interviewing in culturally distant contexts. For example, Propositions 10 and 11 could be tested by selecting applicant-interviewer pairs from culturally-similar nations (i.e. Sweden vs. Finland) and then culturally-distant nations (i.e. Germany vs. Philippines), to examine whether cultural distance between applicants and interviewers (and indirectly discrepancies in IM use vs. expectations) negatively impacts performance evaluation. These studies could also measure interviewers' level of SDO, RWA, or ethnocentrism to examine whether the impact of cultural distance is reduced for more 'open-minded' (e.g., low-SDO or RWA) or less-ethnocentric interviewers.

Additional research could investigate the complexity of multiple interviewers, such as typically found in a panel interview, where panel members can come from varying cultural backgrounds. Such a research design would require access to the individual evaluation scores of each panel member and include applicants (from various cultural backgrounds) both culturally similar and dissimilar to the panel members. For example, if an interview panel with members from Japan, Brazil, and Canada collectively interviewed various applicants from each of their respective countries (or culturally-similar countries), individual panel member evaluation scores could offer insights into whether cultural preferences for certain IM tactics exist. Research

opportunities such as those mentioned above should examine laboratory settings and field studies, action research, etc.

2.7.2 Practical Implications

As globalization continues to progress and workers from around the world with various cultural background migrate to new environments in search of employment and a better life, such theoretical models are necessary in helping to understand the cultural adaptational challenges that they face. This is particularly relevant in multicultural societies (e.g., within North America and Western Europe) where it is highly likely to have interviewers and interviewees from various cultural backgrounds. Interviewers in such contexts would benefit from better understanding why and how applicants from different cultures engage in different IM behaviors. They could then incorporate this information in their performance evaluations, which could potentially help reduce risks associated with bias and hiring discrimination. For example, my theoretical framework could be used as the foundation for developing cross-cultural training programs aimed at reducing biased decisions. Research demonstrates that organizations have an important responsibility to provide cross-cultural training to their interviewers regarding how to appropriately manage interactions with culturally diverse job candidates (Peretz & Rosenblatt, 2011). As such, my model is also applicable in the training of professional human resource managers or line managers in charge of interviewing applicants, selection committees (in businesses, universities, etc.), as well as government immigration departments to assist with immigrant cultural adaptation.

My CCIM model could also be used to develop training content for applicants applying for jobs in a new/different culture and provide them with job interview skills that go beyond professional attire and language proficiency by adding a cultural element of instruction. This

might be particularly relevant for government immigration agencies seeking to assist immigrants with their intercultural adaptation process. Beyond the interview context, my model also has practical implications for immigrants' or expatriates' intercultural adjustments in everyday life. For example, individuals from hierarchical societies immigrating to Canada (a high egalitarian country) may be unfamiliar with social norms for interacting with cashiers, apartment neighbors, and waiters in restaurants. Canada's egalitarianism values encourage friendly dialogue regardless of how meaningless the conversation may seem, such as "how is your day going so far?" or a comment about the weather. The absence of such 'small talk' (although acceptable and common in more hierarchical societies) may give the impression of being cold, and subsequently negatively influence the quality of interaction(s) (and in turn intercultural experience) the immigrant faces. Longitudinal research designs could also be applied to assess whether CCIM training can help immigrants in their job search, as well as their overall intercultural adjustment.

2.7.3 Conclusion

In this paper, I proposed a cross-cultural IM model applicable to the interview context. My new model offers insights into how cultural values impact job applicants' and interviewers' preferences for IM tactics, and thus lays the foundation for future empirical work investigating how interview performance (and subsequently employment offers) may be affected by cultural differences. A better understanding of cultural preferences for specific IM tactics can also be used to develop more effective cross-cultural training programs for applicants, interviewers, and government immigration bodies, to ensure a more inclusive hiring process and help with the intercultural adjustment or expatriates and immigrants. Such efforts are needed to adapt to the changes in our ever increasingly globalized world.

3.0 Investigating Impression Management Use Across Five Countries Using Asynchronous Video Interviews

Technological advancements such as the internet, e-mail, and online videoconferencing have radically changed the global labour market by creating new channels that facilitate international recruitment and selection (Tippins, 2015). Both expatriates and organizations, have benefited from such technological advancements by seeing their options for prospective employers and potential talent pool, respectively, dramatically increase. One emerging pre-screening/selection tool is the digital interview, also known as Asynchronous Video Interview (AVI) which typically involves applicants reading or listening to pre-recorded questions and then recording their responses. AVIs are growing in popularity with more than 70 companies offering digital interview solutions (Software Advice, 2017; HireVue, 2020). HireVue alone saw an increase in the number of video interviews conducted from 13,000 interviews in 2012, to more than eight million interviews by the end of 2018 (HireVue, 2020). The benefits of using such a tool for selection are numerous (Brenner, Ortner, & Fay, 2016), with some clients reporting a 62% improvement in time-to-hire rates and reduction in travel costs by up to 50% (ConveyIQ, 2020). These benefits make AVIs a tempting, cost-effective option for organizations to use in their selection process.

However, scholars have demonstrated that this mode of selection differs significantly from and is less accepted than traditional face to face (FTF) interviews (Basch, Melchers, Kegelmann, & Lieb, 2020). In acknowledgment of these differences, a small body of research is growing on better understanding 'how' AVIs differ from traditional FTF interviews, and the resulting implications for both organizations and potential applicants in using them (Langer, Konig & Krause, 2017; Ryan & Derous, 2019; Lukacik, Bourdage & Roulin, 2020). However, as

of yet, no research exists exploring cross-cultural factors that could affect how applicants from different cultures experience AVIs, and the majority of existing AVI research cited throughout this manuscript uses solely German applicants. This is surprising, given that one of the largest benefits of AVI technology is its ability to reach applicants from cultures all over the world. This benefit has been noted on the Hirevue homepage which is the world leader in conducting AVI interviews for over 700 companies. It could therefore be of interest to organizations using AVIs for selection to know that for example, applicants from certain cultures ‘present’ themselves better through an AVI medium than applicants of similar qualifications from other cultures. Cultural differences in how applicants present themselves or manage their impressions could be expressed differently through an AVI medium. IM has been cited in the literature as linked to successfully receiving employment offers (Barrick, Shaffer, & DeGrassi, 2009; Horverak, Bye, Sandal, & Pallesen, 2013). But cultural factors have been found to influence how members of different nationalities use impression management tactics and thus present themselves in an interview (Bye, Sandal, van de Vijver, Sam, Çakar & Franke, 2011; Sandal et al., 2014). Given this, I wonder if cross-cultural differences exist in how applicants present themselves in an AVI context?

To investigate this question, this research tested propositions 1-9 from my theoretical model developed in Chapter 2. Specifically, I explored the IM use of interviewees across five countries within an AVI context. I drew upon Schwartz’s (2006) cultural framework to explain differences in self-reported IM use across Canadian, Polish, Spanish, Indian and South African applicants. My study addresses a gap in cross-cultural AVI literature and is highly relevant at a time when COVID-19 has forced many organizations to conduct interviews and day-to-day

affairs via online platforms. What follows is a literature review of AVIs, IM tactics, and cross-cultural interview research.

3.1 What are AVIs?

Asynchronous video interviews (AVIs) also known as digital interviews, are conducted without live interaction. Typically, a company assigns an interviewer to pre-record the desired interview questions and invites potential candidates to digitally record their answers (Brenner, Ortner, & Fay, 2016; Chamorro-Premuzic, Winsborough, Sherman, & Hogan, 2016). There are several noted benefits of using AVIs and their use has rapidly increased over the past eight years (ConveyIQ, 2020; HireVue, 2020). This rapid increase reflects the growing popularity stemming from numerous benefits to organizations in using AVIs as a method to conduct interviews.

Benefits of using AVIs has been noted in the literature as increased capacity for handling a large number of recruits, streamlining of selection procedures, decreased administrative strain by ensuring only the most qualified candidates pass to the next levels of the selection process and increased organizational effectiveness via consolidated access to stored information along the application process (Mejia & Torres, 2018; Stone et al. 2015). However, AVIs also present several weaknesses that organizations must be aware of. For example, a meta-analysis by Blacksmith, Willford, and Behrend (2016) found that interviewees are generally more skeptical and less accepting of technology-mediated interviews compared to face to face (FTF) interviews. However, this meta-analysis was based almost exclusively on video-conference/telephone interviews and it is therefore possible that AVIs require separate consideration. Further, the increasingly transactional nature of electronic hiring systems may also lead to negative perceptions, such as an impersonal feeling, a lack of real-time feedback and a feeling of not being able to portray oneself in a realistic way (Guchait, Ruetzler, Taylor, & Toldi, 2014). In this

manner, digital interviews may restrain applicants from applying specific interviewer directed behavior such as other-focused IM (i.e. ingratiating). Finally, there are also people with privacy concerns related to using new technologies for selection procedures (Stone-Romero, Stone, & Hyatt, 2003).

A small but growing body of research has explored various aspects of AVI's. For example, in exploring the predictive validity of AVIs, Brenner et al. (2016) found that perceived usefulness/ease of use predicted applicants' attitudes towards AVI's, and that openness moderated this relationship. Langer et al. (2017) compared AVI's to videoconference interviews looking for differences in applicants' reactions as well as interviewer ratings; finding participants experienced digital interviews to be creepier, less personal, and expressed privacy concerns. They also found that participants in digital interviews received better interview ratings. Langer, König, and Papathanasiou (2019) later conducted an experiment where participants watched and assessed videos depicting a highly automated interview for high-stakes (selection) and low-stakes (training), finding that automated high-stakes interviews led to ambiguity and less perceived controllability than low-stakes automated interviews. Automated interviews refer to AVIs with AI-based computers making decisions/evaluating content. These authors concluded that highly automated interviews diminished overall acceptance through lower social presence and fairness. And finally, Basch et al. (2020) explored potential reasons why AVIs are less accepted than traditional FTF interviews, finding perceived fairness to be a primary issue. However, there still lacks cross-cultural research using AVIs. This gap is surprising given that arguably one of the greatest benefits of using AVI's are its far-reaching potential to recruit and select applicants globally. Especially at a time when COVID-19 has forced many organizations

to conduct interviews and day-to-day affairs via online platforms, such research is urgently needed.

3.2 Importance of IM in interviews

In exploring the literature on the importance of IM in an interview context, a considerable amount of evidence suggests that the images applicants portray in the interview influences interview ratings and subsequent chances of being hired (Barrick et al., 2009; Horverak et al., 2013). It is thus possible, that the image members of various nationalities are presenting in an interview context, may be placing them at an advantage or disadvantage (from their competition) depending on the 'fit' with image expectations of the interviewer. Furthermore, applicants from various cultures may be consciously presenting an image considered to be ideal according to their cultural standards but received adversely by members of cultures with different expectations. For example, applicants from countries high in mastery and hierarchy (i.e. India, South Korea) are generally taught to present an image of success and competence (i.e. denying any faults) which may come across as arrogant or ingenuine to a Norwegian interviewer that values honesty and egalitarianism (Schwartz, 2006). However, such behaviors would be evaluated more favourably in the eyes of an Indian/South Korean interviewer. Conscious efforts directed towards controlling one's image, relates directly to IM. Formally, IM describes efforts by an actor to create, maintain, protect, or otherwise alter an image held by a target audience (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997). IM can be classified as assertive or defensive, with assertive further broken down into self- and other-focused behaviors (Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley, & Gilstrap, 2008). Self-focused IM includes self-promotional behavior(s) such as self-enhancements, entitlements and boasting one's image. Other-focused IM includes behaviors aimed at a target audience such as flattery, opinion conformity and other forms of ingratiation. A

third category defensive IM, is the least researched among all forms and includes making excuses and justifications when one's image is being damaged (Tsai, Huang, Wu, & Lo, 2010). Research has demonstrated that applicants tend to use self-focused considerably more than the other two forms of IM (other-focused & defensive) and has thus received the most attention in the literature (Kacmar, Delery, & Ferris, 1992; Stevens & Kristof, 1995). In addition to these three categories, researchers have also begun to distinguish between honest and deceptive forms of IM (Bourdage, Roulin, & Tarraf, 2018), where say an applicant in a job interview is honestly self-promoting, complimenting the interviewer, or defending one's image versus doing so by lying (i.e. deceptively). In sum, there are several tactics applicants can employ in an interview to win a favourable rating from the interviewer(s). I believe these strategies vary considerably across cultures but are consistent in their motivation to manage impressions and receive desirable outcomes such as job offers (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). Although applicants from various nationalities may be highly motivated to present themselves ideally during interviews, due to cultural differences, their approach varies.

What is more, the intersectionality of AVIs and IM is likely to produce unique dynamics that are both similar and different from IM behaviors found in traditional FTF interviews. For example, due to the lack of live feedback and inability for dynamic interaction between interviewer and applicant, AVIs should involve less other-focused IM (such as ingratiation) than traditional interviews. However, to date, there is no published empirical evidence about applicants' IM use in AVIs. Lukacik et al. (2020) commented on how research examining IM in AVI context is lagging. These authors proposed a framework for examining the role and impact of specific design features of AVIs, and highlight how pre-interview design decisions by organizations and completion decisions by applicants can influence reactions and behaviors

during the interview, as well as post-interview outcomes (Lukacik et al., 2020). These authors made several IM behavioral predictions in comparing AVIs to traditional FTF interviews including less other-focused IM (such as ingratiation) than traditional interviews due to the inability to dynamically interact with a live human being. However, they also mention that applicants may compensate for this inability to utilize other-focused tactics by using more self-focused strategies in AVIs than would typically be expected in FTF interviews (Lukacik et al. 2020). Additionally, the presence of a 'preview window' and other cognitive load inducing features in an AVI may make it more difficult for applicants to use deceptive IM effectively than would otherwise be the case in FTF interviews.

3.3 Cross-cultural IM

Cross-cultural IM research has found that people tend to self-enhance or present themselves, in domains that are congruent with norms and values in their culture (Kurman, 2003; Sedikides, Gaertner, & Toguchi, 2003). Therefore, the role of culture and its relationship to successful IM tactics employed in an interview setting is of relevance to understanding cross-cultural IM strategies. Cross-cultural IM (CCIM) involves adapting the conveyed self-image to suit a different cultural environment (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). The success of a given IM strategy depends on the cultural environment because particular strategies are appropriate in some cultures but not others (Kamau, 2009). Some preliminary research exists investigating cross-cultural IM differences in an interview context. Research has found significant cultural differences in how applicants from around the globe employ IM tactics and even differences in how interviewers evaluate those tactics. For example, one study found that self promotion tactics such as claiming to be the best at anything one does, was considered less central to making a good impression by mainstream Norwegians than by immigrants from

several countries within South East Asia (Bye et al. 2014; Sandal & Endresen, 2002). Another study by Sandal et al. (2014) examined the extent to which preferred self-presentation tactics are linked with cultural values. Results from their study found that the importance assigned to self-presentation tactics was larger among individuals from cultures emphasizing embeddedness, mastery, and hierarchy, suggesting that cultural preferences for IM tactics did indeed exist. Cultural preference(s) for IM tactics was also found in a study by Schmid Mast, Frauendorfer, and Popovic (2011) where Canadian recruiters favored a presentation style that is in line with their culturally valued characteristics. Canadian recruiters were more inclined to hire self-promoting as compared to modest Swiss applicants (Schmid Mast et al., 2011). More recently Derous (2017) also found cultural preference(s) for IM tactics across Belgians and Moroccans. Derous (2017) investigated whether ethnic minorities (Moroccans in Belgium) and majorities (Belgians in Belgium) differ in their preference(s) for IM tactics and how this difference may influence any discrepancy in interview outcomes. She found that interview ratings were higher when ethnic minorities used opinion conformity (i.e. majority-preferred IM tactic) and lower when minorities used entitlements (i.e. minority-preferred IM tactic). And lastly, Fell and Konig (2016) conducted a 43-country cross-cultural investigation of faking in a scenario-based interview study with repeated measures design. Drawing upon GLOBE's cultural framework their research found significant differences with respect to faking across cultures. Overall, the literature suggests that cultural values translate into preferences for certain behaviors in an interview context. However, none of the previous studies used AVIs as a selection tool. I am interested in exploring how cultural differences translate into various IM tactics within this unique technological medium. What follows is my hypotheses formulation.

3.4 Hypotheses Formulation

In the following section, I drew upon Schwartz's (2006) value orientations and the propositions developed in chapter 2 to predict how cross-cultural value differences will influence IM tactics across five distinct countries in an AVI context. More specifically, I integrated my theoretical propositions from Chapter 2 and applied them to Schwartz's (2006: 20) visual roadmap (Co-Plot Map) to predict how Canadian, Polish, Spanish, Indian and South African applicants differ with respect to self-focused IM, other-focused (i.e. ingratiation) and deceptive/honest defensive IM.

Schwartz's (1992, 1995) theory of basic human values originally consists of 10 motivationally distinct types of values (self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, security, conformity, tradition, benevolence, universalism) that are assumed to be recognised by members of most societies. These 10 values relate dynamically to one another, in that some are compatible while others are opposed to each other. The theory defines these values as desirable, trans-situational goals that vary in importance as guiding principles in people's lives (Kluckhohn, 1951; Rokeach, 1973). Schwartz's (2006) values represent conscious goals that are responses to three universal requirements with which all individuals and societies must cope: needs of individuals as biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interaction, and requirements for the smooth functioning and survival of groups. These 10 values were then organized into three cultural dimensions for effective cross-national comparisons. Each dimension represents a response to a basic issue that confronts all societies:

The first basic issue is to define the nature of the relation between the individual and the group. A large body of literature suggests that resolutions of this issue give rise to the most important cultural dimension. This dimension most frequently labelled individualism-collectivism (Hofstede, 1980; Kim, Triandis, Kâğitçibaşı, Choi, & Yoon, 1994) is referred to as

autonomy-embeddedness by Schwartz (2006). Embeddedness represents members who are embedded in the collectivity and find meaning in life largely through relationships with others. Countries high on this dimension, such as Yemen, China draw significance from participating in and identifying with the group in carrying on its shared way of life. Its opposite, autonomy represents individuals that are bounded entities who find meaning in their own uniqueness and seek to express their own internal attributes and are encouraged to do so. Countries such as France and Germany are highly autonomous.

The second basic issue concerns how responsible behavior can preserve the social fabric. How can people be induced to consider the welfare of others, coordinate with them, and thereby smoothly manage the unavoidable interdependencies among people. Hierarchy, is a resolution to this issue using power differences, relying on hierarchical systems of ascribed roles. People are socialized and sanctioned to fulfill their roles, the roles define social obligations, and acceptance of the hierarchical order assures compliance with the rules that preserve the social fabric. Countries such as South Korea, Thailand and India are highly hierarchical. Its opposite egalitarianism recognizes that people have shared interests that can serve as bases for voluntary agreements to cooperate. Others are portrayed as equal to self in deservingness, so that people become committed to their welfare too. Countries high in this dimension include Italy, Spain, and Finland.

The third basic issue concerns the relation of humankind to the natural and social world. Fitting into the world and accepting it as it is, trying to preserve rather than to change or exploit it represents Harmony values, and includes countries such as Slovenia, Latvia. The polar response to harmony, mastery, means to actively master and change the world, to bend it and

assert control. Those high in Mastery see the world as an object to exploit and further personal or group interests. Countries such as India and USA are high in mastery.

These three cultural dimensions have laid the foundation for a visual framework that places over 70 countries from around the world on a visual co-plot map to assist with making cross-national comparisons. Similar to other cross-cultural researchers (i.e. House et al., 2004; Hofstede, 1980), Schwartz developed eight regional clusters which include: West European, English-speaking, Latin American, East Central and Baltic European, Orthodox East European, South Asia, Confucian influenced, and African and Middle Eastern. As illustrated in Figure 3.1, the five countries in the present study were selected based on their distinct positioning on Schwartz's (2006) cultural dimension values Co-Plot map. For example, Spain belongs to the West European cluster which is the highest of all regions on egalitarianism, intellectual autonomy, and harmony. This includes democratic, welfare states where concern for the environment is especially high (Ester, Halman, & Seuren, 1994). Canada falls under Schwartz's (2006) English-speaking region and is especially high in autonomy and mastery and low in harmony, resulting in a cultural orientation that encourages an assertive, pragmatic, entrepreneurial, and even exploitative orientation to the social and natural environment. Poland falls under the East-Central European and Baltic culture region which is characterized as somewhat moderate in all of Schwartz's (2006) dimensions. South Africa falls under the Schwartz's (2006) Africa region which are especially high in embeddedness and low in autonomy. They emphasize finding meaning in life largely through social relationships with in-group members and protecting group solidarity and the traditional order rather than cultivating individual uniqueness (Gyekye, 1997). And finally, India falls under the South Asia region which is particularly high in hierarchy and embeddedness and low in harmony which points to an

emphasis on fulfilling one's obligations in a hierarchical system, obeying expectations, greater status or authority and expecting humility and obedience from those in inferior roles.

I drew upon Schwartz's (2006) value orientations and test my propositions 1-9 developed in Chapter 2 to predict how cultural values will influence the use of three types of IM (self-focused, other-focused and defensive IM) in an interview context. I start with self-focused IM behaviors, such as self-promotion, self image creation and entitlements. As described in Chapter 2, self-focused IM should be more prevalent in countries high in embeddedness (vs. autonomy),

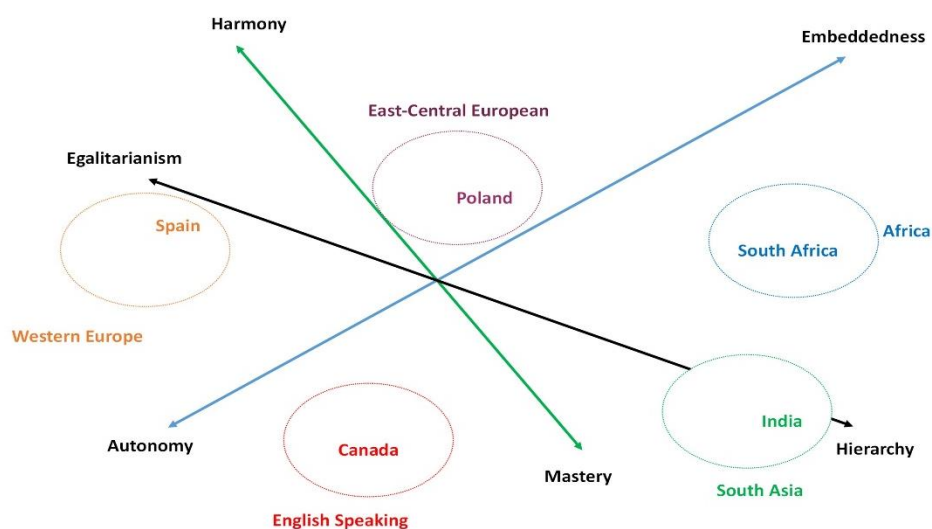


Figure 3.1 – Five country positioning on Schwartz's (2006) dimensions

hierarchy (vs. egalitarianism), and mastery (vs. harmony). Individuals from cultures higher in autonomy focus more on their uniqueness and independence and less on satisfying their in-groups and are less likely to engage in IM (e.g., Lalwani et al., 2006; Triandis & Suh, 2002). A 10-country study by Sandal et al (2014) found autonomy to be negatively related to self-presentation efforts in general. Specifically, German, Italian, and Norwegian samples reported lower scores on all self-presentation tactics than those countries higher in embeddedness (Sandal

et al., 2014). People from hierarchical cultures also seem to engage in more self-focused IM where highly competitive environments encourage individuals to stand out. For instance, two separate studies found Americans (high hierarchy) self-enhanced considerably more than individuals from Denmark, Iceland, and Switzerland (high egalitarianism) (Thomsen et al., 2007; Konig et al., 2011). And finally, mastery-oriented cultures such as the USA or Japan, endorse power or dominance over others and the physical environment, leading to a preference for employing IM tactics that portray a strong, competent, and confident applicant. In a recent cross-cultural IM investigation, differences in mastery/harmony (individual excellence) values were found to explain the largest proportion of variance in self-presentation across 10 countries including Ghana, Malaysia, Germany, Norway, Hong Kong, Iran, Italy, Turkey, Russia and USA (Sandal et al., 2014). Those countries high in mastery (individual excellence) such as Malaysia, USA and Ghana reported higher levels of self-focused IM than did Germany, Norway, and Italy (i.e. higher in harmony).

As such, among the five countries examined in the present study, self-focused IM should be particularly prevalent for applicants from India, which is high on embeddedness, hierarchy, and mastery. Self-focused IM should also be relatively prevalent for applicants from South Africa, which is also high on embeddedness and hierarchy. Self-focused IM should be less prevalent for applicants from Canada, which is high on mastery, but low on hierarchy and embeddedness. Applicants from Poland, which scores moderately on all three cultural dimensions, should fall somewhere in the middle of my sample. Finally, Spain, which is high on autonomy, egalitarianism, and harmony, should engage the least in self-focused IM among my five sampled countries. In summary, I expect the following:

Hypothesis 1: Applicants from India will engage in most self-focused IM, followed by South Africa, Poland, Canada and Spain.

My second hypothesis investigates differences in other-focused IM tactic use across my five sampled countries. Although my Chapter 2 theoretical model predicts differences in flattery/opinion conformity across cultures, the present study is restricted to an AVI context where subtle forms of other-focused IM such as opinion conformity are difficult to use. The use of ingratiation is a direct form of other-focused IM and has been extensively studied in interview settings (Barrick et al., 2009; Levashina et al., 2014; Bourdage et al., 2018) In order to increase the opportunity for ingratiation, the present study includes a video introduction of the interviewer providing a brief background of the company and the interview process. In doing so I intended to create an opportunity for other-focused IM to emerge in an AVI context. Specifically, I was interested in investigating whether cultural differences impact ingratiation use across the five sampled countries in an AVI context. I proposed that ingratiation should be more prevalent in countries high in autonomy (vs. embeddedness), egalitarianism (vs. hierarchy), and mastery (vs. harmony). This is because cultures higher in autonomy and egalitarianism tend to value curiosity, pleasure, broadmindedness, and equality which should encourage applicants to engage in more direct interactions with the interviewer. Such direct exchanges are in sharp contrast to embeddedness and hierarchical values respecting social order, discipline and obedience leading to behavioral restraints from engaging in direct comments about the interviewer who is viewed as being a person of authority. And finally, individuals from cultures high in mastery value succeeding and getting ahead through self-assertion and proactively master, direct and change their social world to advance their personal interests. Therefore, higher mastery should lead to

more ingratiation, a self-assertive method to please the interviewer and receive favorable evaluations.

Given this, I expected ingratiation to be mostly prevalent in applicants from Canada, which is high on autonomy, egalitarianism, and mastery. Ingratiation should also be relatively prevalent in applicants from Spain, which is similarly high on autonomy and egalitarianism but low in mastery. In contrast ingratiation should be the least prevalent in applicants from South Africa, which is high on both high on hierarchy, embeddedness and moderate in mastery. I expected India, with similar levels of hierarchy and embeddedness as South Africa but higher in mastery to engage in slightly more ingratiation. Finally, I expected applicants from Poland, which scores moderately on all three cultural dimensions, to fall somewhat in the middle of these countries with respect to ingratiation use. In summary, I expected the following:

Hypothesis 2: Applicants from Canada will engage in the most ingratiation, followed by Spain, Poland, India and South Africa.

My final hypothesis considered differences in how applicants engage in honest versus deceptive defensive IM. As described in Chapter 2, honest defensive IM should be more prevalent in countries high in autonomy (vs. embeddedness), egalitarianism (vs. hierarchy), and harmony (vs. mastery). This is because cultures higher in autonomy and egalitarianism value freedom of expression, broadmindedness, and equality (Schwartz, 2006) making individuals in these cultures more comfortable communicating negative qualities. This contrasts with cultures high in embeddedness and hierarchy, such as many Asian cultures, where reporting positive self-evaluations by denying possession of negative traits and attributing failures to external causes has been supported in research (Kim & Nam, 1998; Kim et al., 2010). Additionally, mastery values of ambition, success, competence (Schwartz, 2006) are threatened when applicants must

protect themselves (e.g., acknowledge weaknesses) leading to using deceptive defensive IM to protect one's self image.

Given this, I expected deceptive defensive IM to be mostly prevalent in applicants from India, which is high on embeddedness, hierarchy, and mastery. Deceptive defensive IM should also be relatively prevalent in applicants from South Africa, which is similarly high on embeddedness and hierarchy but moderate in mastery. In contrast, honest defensive IM should be most prevalent in applicants from Spain which is low on hierarchy, embeddedness, and mastery, followed by Canada who is also low in hierarchy and embeddedness but high in mastery. Finally, I expected applicants from Poland, which scores moderately on all three cultural dimensions, to fall somewhat in the middle of these countries. In summary, I expected the following:

Hypothesis 3: Applicants from India will engage in the most deceptive defensive IM, followed by South Africa, Poland, Canada and lastly Spain.

My next set of hypotheses consider how self-focused IM, other-focused IM (opinion conformity/flattery) and honest/deceptive defensive IM will affect interview performance. Given that no research to date has explored the relationship between IM use and interview scores in an AVI context, I base my theory on the pre-existing face-to-face interview literature. First of all, several studies have focused on the consequences of IM behaviors in the interview setting (McFarland, Ryan, & Kriska, 2003), and they have in general concluded that IM, whether in the form of self-promotion or ingratiation, does indeed influence hiring decisions (Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Kacmar & Carlson, 1999; Kacmar et al., 1992; Stevens & Kristof, 1995). In their meta-analysis exploring various aspects of IM and interview performance, Barrick et al (2009) found that applicants use of self-presentation tactics had the second highest influence on interviewer

ratings following appearance. Later, Levashina et al. (2014) completed a similar analysis of various IM tactics and their impact(s) on interviewer ratings. The results of their meta-analysis specifically showed that self-promotion IM had the strongest impact on interviewer ratings, followed by other-focused and defensive IM. I therefore predicted that:

H4a: Self-focused IM will have a positive effect on interview performance

The above research suggests there is also a positive relationship between other-focused IM and performance (Barrick et al., 2009; Levashina et al., 2014). Ingratiation is an example of such other-focused IM tactics that researchers have explored in terms of its effectiveness in interviews. For example, Bourdage et al. (2018) explored the antecedents and consequences of Honest versus Deceptive ingratiation in an interview context in terms of hirability, P-O fit, and P-J fit. They found honest IM demonstrated positive relationships with several of the interviewer-rated variables, whereas deceptive IM did not. In fact, deceptive IM had neither positive nor negative impact on interview performance. Given the difficulty of interviewers detecting/distinguishing deceptive IM (see Roulin et al., 2015), Bourdage et al.'s (2018) findings also led to the conclusion that the overall reported impact of IM (e.g., Barrick et al., 2009) in previous meta-analytical studies seems to be mostly due to honest IM but not deceptive IM. Although an AVI context provides less opportunity for other-focused IM tactics such as ingratiation to emerge, based on the above research, I believed its use would have a positive effect on interview performance. Specifically, I predicted that:

H4b: Ingratiation will have a positive impact on interview performance

Although research has found inconsistent results regarding the impact of deceptive IM on interview ratings (Buehl & Melchers, 2017; Levashina & Campion, 2007; Roulin et al., 2014),

many interviewers accept and promote honest IM (Jansen et al., 2012). A recent study by Bourdage et al. (2018) found honest defensive IM to be positively associated with hirability ratings whereas deceptive defensive IM was not. Most recently Melchers et al. (2020) further found deceptive defensive IM (i.e., image protection) was generally unrelated to interview outcomes. I therefore predicted the following:

H4c: Honest defensive IM will have a stronger positive relationship than deceptive defensive IM on interview performance

3.5 Method

3.5.1. Participants

I originally recruited a total of 345 ‘job applicants’ from Canada (68), Spain (65), Poland (73), India (69) and South Africa (70). Several videos/responses were unusable due to various reasons most commonly being poor video/audio quality. Applicants who skipped or failed to respond to at least 3 of the 8 interview questions were also not included in my final sample. After data clean-up, my final sample consisted of 309 participants. All applicants were recruited using Prolific and Respondent online recruitment platforms. Demographic filters included nationality, current country of residence and ethnicity (for the South African sample). Participants that met these criteria were invited via a URL link to an online AVI platform. The online AVI platform is an interactive research tool where video recordings can be uploaded/viewed in addition to collecting responses to survey items, informed consent forms and demographic information. All participants were offered an equivalent of approximately \$10-15 CAD (i.e. Prolific uses British pounds; Respondent uses USD) as financial compensation for successful completion of the study. Table 3.1 lists my final sample and demographic variables across all five countries.

3.5.2 Interview

Upon following the URL link to the AVI platform, applicants were presented with an informed consent form that included details of the interview process as well as instructions on how to successfully record their interview responses online. After obtaining informed consent, all applicants were instructed to self-record responses to a series of structured interview questions. Before the interviews, applicants were exposed to a short-pre-recorded

Table 3.1 – Participant Demographics

	Male	Female	Total	Age	Work Experience	Job Interviews	Time Living Abroad
India	48	12	60	28.7 (5.8)	6.4 (4.1)	8.3 (7.4)	1.3 (2.9)
Canada	35	29	64	30.7 (11.5)	11.9 (10.3)	11.7 (13.5)	0.6 (2.0)
South Africa	32	33	65	29.7 (6.7)	7.3 (6.1)	6.1 (5.1)	2.0 (4.1)
Spain	32	26	58	28.9 (8.5)	7.3 (7.5)	7.1 (9.3)	1.8 (3.0)
Poland	35	27	62	24.2 (5.6)	4.3 (4.5)	4.5 (5.9)	0.7 (2.1)

*Work experience, Age, Time living abroad measured in years. Job interviews represents number of non-AVI interviews. All variables show mean values with standard deviations in parentheses.

video of the primary investigator, posing as the interviewer, giving a mock introduction of the position being applied for and instructions on how to record interview responses. Applicants were informed that they were applying for a management associate position in the retail sector, offering a generous benefits package and asked to respond to nine past-behavioral questions. Past-behavioral questions rely on the general principle of decades of psychological research that the best predictor of future behaviour is past behaviour (Janz, 1982). I experienced a technical error in uploading video questions #7 (**Question #7:** *Describe a situation where you were successfully able to convince someone or some people to see things your way. How did you achieve this?*) and #8 (**Question #8:** *Tell me about a time when you had to convince someone or many people to see things your way. Or convince someone or some people to do things that you wanted them to do?*). Originally, I intended to include a teamwork-related question for #8 but mistakenly uploaded a question similar in content to #7. For this reason, I omitted question #8

from the BARS data analysis. After noticing this error, I continued with the same series of questions to keep uniformity across all participants in all countries. My final question list can be found in Appendix A and includes three questions aimed at surfacing self-focused IM, two questions for other-focused and three questions targeting defensive IM. Examples include “*Tell me about a time when you had to go above and beyond the call of duty in order to get a job done (Self-focused)*”, “*How does HSBC’s culture of being a diverse and global team fit with your values? (Other-focused)*” and “*Can you describe a situation where you received a negative evaluation from your supervisor at work or in school? What was the reason for the evaluation, and how did you handle it? (Defensive)*”. Applicants were also given time to review the job and company description, which allowed them to prepare as they would in real life for the interview.

3.5.3 Measures

At the end of each interview, applicants were asked to complete a 28-item self-report measure of Honest and Deceptive Impression Management the HIIM-S and IFB-S (Bourdage et al., 2018). This measure includes seven measures with four items each (i.e. 28-items) capturing both Honest and Deceptive impression management on a 5-point Likert scale. Sample items of honest IM include self-promotion ($\alpha = .68$) “*I made sure to let the interviewer know about my job credentials*”, honest ingratiation ($\alpha = .70$) “*I discussed interests I shared in common with the interviewer*”, honest defensive ($\alpha = .64$) “*I gave reasons why I felt I benefited positively from a negative event I was responsible for*”. Sample items of deceptive IM include slight image creation ($\alpha = .76$) “*I distorted my answers to emphasize what the interviewer was looking for*”, extensive image creation ($\alpha = .82$) “*I told fictional stories prepared in advance of the interview to best present my credentials*”, deceptive ingratiation ($\alpha = .70$) “*I tried to express the same opinions and attitudes as the interviewer*” and image protection ($\alpha = .72$) “*When asked directly, I*

did not mention my true reason for quitting previous jobs”. Following this survey, applicants provided various demographic information including age, gender, work experience, number of interviews, and time living abroad.

Interview performance. The coding team consisted of three members, the primary investigator and two trained undergraduate research assistants. As a team, we developed an interview behavior anchored rating scale (BARS) as a rubric for scoring applicant video responses. BARS have been demonstrated as an effective tool for reducing assimilation effects on selection interview ratings (Lubbe & Nitsche, 2019). Rubric development included first identifying the core competency assessed. For example, question 3 “*Tell me about a school or work situation where you made a memorable mistake and explain how you handled it?*” assessed resilience/humility/honesty and the ability to demonstrate personal growth/learning from past failures. Rubric scores were created based on how well applicants demonstrated these competencies. Using Q3 as an illustrative example, a level 1 response was indicated by *No situation is described, and/or actions do not demonstrate personal growth / learning. Examples might include:* A) suggesting that there is nothing they can do so they will just move on, B) not acknowledging their mistakes and holding themselves accountable (e.g. blaming others or external factors), C) Avoiding dealing with people who were affected, D) not developing any strategies or plans to avoid the same mistake in the future. Whereas a level 5 response was indicated by *A situation is clearly described and strongly demonstrates growth / learning. Actions may include:* A) critically reflecting upon mistake, trying to identify causes and solutions, B) acknowledging the mistake and taking responsibility for it, C) communicating to people who were affected (or expressed desire to do so), D) developing strategies to avoid potentially similar problems in the future. After developing a list of criteria that resembles both a

level 1 and level 5 response, we then discussed how many of the level 1 / level 5 criteria were necessary to score a 2, 3 and/or 4. For example, An applicant's response with zero criteria from level 5 list, and any number of criteria from level 1 list, would result in a 1. An applicant response that was relatively balanced with items from level 1 and level 5 response would score a 3. Judgements were made for scoring a 2 or 4, when responses more closely resembled those of level 1 or level 5, respectively. Given that I took into account the 'frequency' of responses that aligned with higher or lower level scores, my BARS actually include features of a Behavior observation scale (BOS), which made this rubric more of a hybrid between BARS/BOS. Each video was graded on a 5-point scale. After members of the research team came to agreement on designing the BARS, we then piloted 10 videos each to check for inter-rater reliability. Intraclass correlation coefficient's (ICC) were calculated for each of the eight questions and ranged from .72 (Q6) - .96 (Q1).

3.5.4 Data Analysis

Mean differences of self-reported measures across all five countries were analyzed for significant statistical difference. Additionally, interview performance scores from BARS were analyzed for correlations with self-reported IM scores across all five countries. Data analysis was conducted using SPSS to identify any significant differences in IM tactics used across the five sampled countries. I first investigated whether there were significant differences in mean scores between countries for my demographic variables (i.e. work experience, job interviews, time living abroad), and, if so, whether controlling for these variables impacted my findings. ANOVA revealed mean work experience scores $F(4, 303) = 10.24, p = .001$, job interviews $F(4, 303) = 6.06, p = .001$, and time living abroad $F(4, 303) = 2.80, p = .026$ were different across my five countries. However, entering each of these demographics as covariates in multivariate analyses

did not significantly impact the results (i.e., did not change the country differences in terms of IM use).

3.6 Results

3.6.1 Data Screening

I reviewed several variables from my data for univariate and multivariate outliers. I used z-scores of +/- 3.29 as my cut-off point to explore the presence of outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Although several outliers were identified, none were removed from the data for final analysis. My univariate analysis revealed outliers in several of the demographic variables. These include two outliers for the variables Job interviews ($z = 10.19; 4.68$), eight outliers for Living abroad, and four outliers for both Age and Work experience which were matching participants. My non demographic variables included two outliers for Deceptive extensive image creation ($z = 3.62; 3.35$) and one outlier for each of Deceptive slight image creation ($z = 3.32$) and Deceptive image protection ($z = 3.86$). My Multivariate outlier analysis revealed two outliers within the Spanish participant group ($p = .001; p = .001$). I used Mahalanobis distance on a Chi-square distribution to identify outlier values of less than $p = .001$. I reviewed item responses for these outlying participant ID's and did not find evidence of intentional data misrepresentation (i.e. acquiescence, central tendency, disacquiescence) that would justify removing any further participants. Additionally, Cook's distance was investigated to see if these outlier values with a Cook's D were higher than three times the mean (Cook, 1977). I did not find any problematic outlier cases and proceeded with hypotheses testing.

3.6.2 Hypotheses Testing

Measurement Invariance Testing. I was first interested in determining whether any group comparisons were possible. I investigated a basic confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) across the five groups using AMOS Version 25. Table 3.2.1 summarizes fit indices for the overall model (i.e. including all 7 IM measures, 4 items each) investigated for each country. I used the RMSEA, the CFI, and the Tucker–Lewis Fit Index (TLI) (Tucker & Lewis, 1973) to assess model adequacy. RMSEA values of .05 or less represent good fit whereas values between .05 and .08 indicate reasonable fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). CFI and TLI values should be greater than .90 (Bentler, 1990, 1992). My results indicate that all groups (including overall sample) failed to fit my model. Given these poor fit indices, I decided not to proceed with testing for measurement invariance, given that further model restrictions (i.e. configural, scalar, metric) would not likely produce a stronger model fit. Despite the poor model fit, I proceeded to investigate/test my hypotheses and discuss this finding under my limitations. Any meaningful comparisons of means in the following section should thus be interpreted with caution.

Table 3.2.1 Model Fit Indices of Confirmatory Factor Analysis across 5 countries

Country	$\chi^2(df)$	P	RMSEA	CFI	TLI
Overall	550.819 (329)	.001	.105	.668	.619
India	551.558 (329)	.001	.107	.708	.665
Canada	554.279 (329)	.001	.105	.776	.743
South Africa	497.200 (329)	.001	.089	.738	.669
Poland	579.429 (329)	.001	.116	.623	.567
Spain	550.819 (329)	.001	.105	.668	.619

RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index.

Table 3.2.2 summarizes the mean score differences for my seven IM variables across five countries. Using SPSS, I conducted a one-way multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) to investigate for significant differences in these self-reported measures between countries. Overall, I found a statistically significant difference in IM use across my five countries $F(7, 297) = 1337.03, p < .001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.031$. Further, tests of between-subjects effects revealed significant differences for each IM measure at the country level. For my first hypothesis, I found

significant differences across five countries in honest self-promotion $F(4, 303) = 5.51, p = .001$. Post-hoc analysis using Tukey revealed India was significantly higher than Canada ($p = .001$), South Africa ($p = .002$), Spain ($p = .003$) and Poland ($p = .006$). No other significant differences were found across the remaining countries. I also found significant differences across countries for two other assertive IM tactics, namely deceptive slight image creation $F(4, 303) = 4.85, p = .001$ and deceptive extensive image creation $F(4, 303) = 4.07, p = .003$. Post-hoc analyses of slight image creation revealed that Poland was significantly higher than South Africa ($p = .001$) and Spain was also higher than South Africa ($p = .026$).

Table 3.2.2 – Means and standard deviations for HIIM scale and BARS across 5 countries

	HS	HI	HD	DS	DE	DG	DI	BARS
India	3.98 (.73)	3.25 (.89)	3.81 (.70)	2.00 (1.02)	1.68 (.97)	2.85 (.99)	1.85 (1.03)	21.9 (7.48)
Canada	3.40 (.87)	2.55 (.93)	3.23 (.87)	1.96 (.94)	1.46 (.81)	2.44 (.91)	1.59 (.69)	25.4 (6.59)
South Africa	3.45 (.82)	2.86 (.90)	3.52 (.91)	1.64 (.66)	1.40 (.75)	2.42 (.97)	1.65 (.74)	25.6 (6.90)
Spain	3.45 (.79)	2.62 (.78)	3.13 (.74)	2.12 (.94)	1.87 (.96)	2.47 (.80)	1.85 (.80)	21.2 (5.94)
Poland	3.48 (.72)	2.91 (.84)	3.10 (.74)	2.31 (.82)	1.91 (1.03)	2.67 (.81)	2.06 (.81)	20.1 (5.62)
Full Sample	3.55 (.81)	2.84 (.90)	3.36 (.84)	2.00 (.90)	1.66 (.93)	2.57 (.91)	1.80 (.83)	22.9 (6.88)

HS = Honest self-promotion, HI = Honest ingratiation; HD = Honest defensive; DS = Deceptive slight image creation; DE = Deceptive extensive image creation; DG = Deceptive ingratiation; DI = Deceptive defensive image protection.

Similar post-hoc analysis of extensive image creation found Poland to be higher than Canada ($p = .046$) and South Africa ($p = .015$), and Spain was also higher than South Africa ($p = .035$). In sum, I did find support for India being significantly highest in honest self-promotion but no support to rank the remaining countries in this tactic was found. Therefore, these findings provide partial support for H1.

For my second hypothesis, I found a significant difference in both honest ingratiation $F(4, 303) = 6.16, p = .001$ and deceptive ingratiation $F(4, 303) = 2.63, p = .034$ across my five

sampled countries. Post-hoc analysis of honest ingratiation revealed that India was significantly higher than both Canada ($p = .001$) and Spain ($p = .001$) but no significant differences in deceptive ingratiation across countries were found. I originally predicted that Canada would report highest levels of ingratiation, and India would be 2nd lowest across my sampled countries. Therefore, I reject H2.

For my third hypothesis, MANOVA revealed a significant difference in deceptive defensive image protection across countries $F(4, 304) = 3.33, p = .011$. Post-hoc analysis revealed the only significant mean differences found were that Poland scored higher than Canada ($p = .012$) and South Africa ($p = .034$). No other significant differences across countries were found. Given that I predicted India followed by South Africa would score highest in deceptive defensive image protection, I reject H3. Finally, I also found significant differences in honest defensive IM across the five sampled countries, $F(4, 303) = 8.61, p = .001$. Post-hoc analysis revealed that India was significantly higher than Canada ($p = .001$), Spain ($p = .001$) and Poland ($p = .001$). Additionally, South Africa scored significantly higher than Poland ($p = .028$).

Table 3.3 summarizes correlations among study variables. Interestingly, all significant correlations with interview performance were negative. For example, deceptive slight image creation (assertive IM tactic) had a significant negative correlation with interview performance ($r = -.14, p < .05$). Deceptive extensive image creation (assertive IM tactic) also negatively correlated with interview performance ($r = -.19, p < .01$), and finally deceptive ingratiation had a significant negative correlation with interview performance ($r = -.19, p < .01$).

Table 3.3 – Correlations among study variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Age	28.5	8.21											
2 Experience	7.47	7.29	.87**										
3 Interviews	7.54	9.01	.33**	.38**									
4 Living A	1.27	2.97	.30**	.24**	-.13*								
5 BARS	22.92	6.88	.09	.09	.13*	.05							
6 HS	3.55	.81	.08	.07	.06	.02	.09						
7 HI	2.84	.90	-.14*	-.13*	-.02	-.12*	-.04	.48**					
8 HD	3.36	.84	.03	.04	.06	-.06	.10	.38**	.38**				
9 DS	2.00	.90	-.20**	-.19**	-.02	-.11*	-.14*	.17**	.39**	.03			
10 DE	1.66	.92	-.15**	-.15**	-.07	-.08	-.19**	.11	.29**	-.004	.67**		
11 DG	2.57	.91	-.16**	-.17**	-.001	-.18**	-.11	.36**	.64**	.24**	.61**	.50**	
12 DI	1.80	.83	-.19**	-.19**	-.05	-.13	-.19**	.19**	.34**	.07	.61**	.63**	.53**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. HS = Honest self-promotion, HI = Honest ingratiation; HD = Honest defensive; DS = Deceptive slight image creation; DE = Deceptive extensive image creation; DG = Deceptive ingratiation; DI = Deceptive defensive image protection.

I ran a linear multiple regression analysis with the seven IM measures as predictors and interview performance (BARS) as my dependent variable. Table 3.4 offers a summary of the output. Honest self-promotion ($b = .091$, $SE = .559$, $B = .129$, $p = .052$) and deceptive defensive image protection ($b = -1.086$, $SE = .645$, $B = -.131$, $p = .093$) were not significantly associated with interview performance, but the p-values were approaching significance. There was a positive relationship between self promotion and interview performance, although it did not reach significance. The remaining five IM variables were far from being significant predictors of interview performance. Differences between correlation and regressions results are possibly due to controlling for the effect of the other predictors and/or the presence of multi-collinearity. For example, several of the deceptive IM variables in the right side of correlation table 3.3 were strongly correlated with one another and so the estimates in the regressions were weaker.

I then proceeded to conduct a relative importance analysis, which revealed that my predictors explained 7.3% of the variance in my dependent variable. The importance analysis suggests that extensive image creation explained 26.25% of the 7.3% variance, followed by deceptive defensive IM explaining 23.37% of that variance, and then honest self-promotion

Table 3.4 – Multiple Regression Table

Variable	b	SE B	β	t	p	Rescaled rel. weight
(Constant)	21.236	2.089		10.165	.001	
HS	1.091	.559	.129	1.951	.052	15.58
HI	-.375	.612	-.049	-.612	.541	2.33
HD	.728	.517	.088	1.408	.160	12.76
DS	.298	.657	.039	.453	.651	6.56
DE	-.851	.618	-.114	-1.377	.170	26.25
DG	-.316	.660	-.042	-.478	.633	13.13
DI	-1.086	.645	-.131	-1.684	.093	23.37

*dependent variable: interview performance. HS = Honest self-promotion, HI = Honest ingratiation; HD = Honest defensive; DS = Deceptive slight image creation; DE = Deceptive extensive image creation; DG = Deceptive ingratiation; DI = Deceptive defensive image protection.

explaining 15.58% (see Table 3.4). These findings generally confirm the significant and strong correlations for extensive image creation and deceptive ingratiation and also confirms that the fact these variables did not show up as significant in the multiple regression analysis likely due to the multi-collinearity.

My next series of hypotheses investigated how IM tactics impacted interview performance. Reviewing hypotheses 4a, I predicted assertive IM tactics (i.e. honest self promotion, deceptive slight image creation, deceptive extensive image creation) would have a positive impact on interview performance. As mentioned above, my correlation table demonstrates that deceptive slight image creation and deceptive extensive image creation both significantly correlated with interview performance but in the negative direction. However, my multiple regression analysis revealed honest self promotion as a (marginally) significant predictor of interview performance. Therefore, these findings offer partial support for hypothesis 4a. Next, I predicted that ingratiation would have a positive impact on interview performance. As illustrated above, both honest and deceptive ingratiation did not significantly correlate with interview performance, therefore I reject hypothesis 4b. Finally, I predicted that honest defensive IM would have a stronger positive relationship than deceptive defensive IM (deceptive image protection) on interview performance. Honest defensive IM did indeed have a positive effect on interview performance ($r = .10$) but only deceptive defensive IM significantly correlated with interview performance ($r = -.19, p = .01$) and this relationship was negative, therefore I partially accept hypothesis 4c.

3.6.3. Multilevel Analyses for IM-Interview Performance

I conducted a multi-level regression analysis to determine if IM scores were predictors of interview performance (BARS) scores when incorporating country-level grouping. I tested three

models in total. The first model was a random intercept model which allowed the intercepts to randomly vary between countries. Because no predictors are included in the model at level 1, the intercepts were equal to the country BARS means for the level 1 outcome variable (i.e. interview performance). In this case the grand mean BARS score was 22.86. Within group variance on BARS scores was $\sigma_W^2 = 42.84$ and the between group variance on BARS scores was $\sigma_B^2 = 4.32$. When tested for significance, only the level 1 residual variance was significant ($b = 42.84$, $SE = 3.47$, $p = .001$) whereas the variance for intercept random effects was not significant ($b = 4.32$, $SE = 3.17$, $p = .172$). In addition to testing the variance components for statistical significance, I also calculated the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) to further evaluate the level of non-independence in the outcome at level 1. The ICC represents the expected correlation between any two random chosen participants in the same group. I used ICC values of $> .05$ as considered to be an indicator of a non-trivial amount of non-independence (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). For the current model, the ICC was 0.092 [$4.32 / (42.84 + 4.32)$], suggesting substantial clustering of the data. These findings supported the use of Hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) to analyze the data.

I then tested a second model with random intercept and fixed level-1 factors, to estimate the variance for the intercept random effects and the level 1 residual variance. Estimates of fixed effects output revealed that both the intercept ($b = 20.23$, $SE = 2.23$, $p = .001$) and Honest self-promotion ($b = 1.28$, $SE = .536$, $p = .018$) were significant. None of the other fixed effects were significant. Examining covariance parameters, the within group variance for BARS scores was $\sigma_W^2 = 40.78$ and the between group variance on BARS scores was $\sigma_B^2 = 3.53$. When tested for significance, only the level 1 residual variance was significant ($b = 40.78$, $SE = 3.31$, $p = .001$) whereas the variance for intercept random effects was not significant ($b = 3.53$, $SE = 2.68$, p

= .172). The ICC for the current model was $ICC = 0.08 [3.53 / (40.78 + 3.53)]$, still suggesting substantial clustering of the data and further supporting the use of HLM to analyze the data.

The final model tested a random intercept and slope for level 1 factors. Estimates of fixed effects output revealed again that both the intercept ($b = 20.34$, $SE = 2.05$, $p = .001$) and Honest self-promotion ($b = 1.27$, $SE = .55$, $p = .021$) were significant. Examining covariance parameters, the within group variance on BARS scores was $\sigma_W^2 = 40.54$ and the between group variance on BARS scores was $\sigma_B^2 = 0.64$. When tested for significance, only the level 1 residual variance was significant ($b = 40.54$, $SE = 3.31$, $p = .001$) whereas the variance for intercept random effects was not significant ($b = 0.064$, $SE = 0.044$, $p = .142$). The ICC for the current model was $ICC = 0.002 [0.064 / (40.54 + 0.064)]$, which fell below my threshold suggesting that independence may be trivial. In conclusion, these additional analyses confirmed my initial regressions with honest self-promotion being the only significant predictor of interview performance (BARS) even when considering country nesting.

3.6.4 Additional Analyses

Examining mean scores in interview performance across countries, South Africa scored highest ($M = 25.57$, $SD = 6.90$), followed by Canada ($M = 25.41$, $SD = 6.59$), India ($M = 21.90$, $SD = 7.45$), Spain ($M = 21.21$, $SD = 5.94$), and Poland ($M = 20.08$, $SD = 5.62$). South Africa was significantly higher than India $t(123) = 2.795$, $p < .006$, $d = 0.511$; Spain $t(121) = 3.736$, $d = 0.677$; $p = .001$, and Poland $t(125) = 4.904$, $p = .001$, $d = 0.872$. Canada was also significantly higher than India $t(122) = 2.715$, $p = .008$, $d = 0.499$, Spain $t(120) = 3.684$, $p = .001$, $d = 0.669$; and Poland $t(124) = 4.877$, $p = .001$, $d = 0.87$.

3.7 Discussion

This study investigated cross-cultural differences in IM use across five countries in an AVI context. In doing so, I tested propositions 1-9 of my theoretical model in Chapter 2. Although some research exists examining IM tactics in an AVI context (Langer et al., 2020; Basch et al., 2020), to the best of my knowledge, no published research exists examining IM in AVIs across countries. Note that I examined cross cultural IM in an AVI context, but the AVI component was not a central element of my study/design. I was thus primarily interested in whether cross cultural factors (i.e. nationality) impacted IM use. Secondly, I was interested in exploring whether patterns previously established in the FTF IM interview literature (i.e. self-focused IM & interview performance) would be similar in an AVI context and whether cross-cultural differences found in the present study were consistent with previous cross-cultural IM research. Overall, my results provided only limited evidence for the country differences in IM that my model proposed in Chapter 2. Determining whether Schwartz's (2006) framework is suitable for predicting IM use and/or whether my model requires conceptual revisions, however, would require additional cross-cultural sampling. I organized this discussion into four sections, cross-cultural differences, self-focused, other-focused, and deceptive/defensive IM findings.

3.7.1 Country Differences

My cross-cultural predictions as to which countries would engage in the most IM tactics should be interpreted with caution due to poor model fit observed in my CFAs. However, my hypothesis for honest-self promotion was partially supported. As predicted, India did indeed engage in the highest levels of honest-self promotion across my sample. The mean scores for self-reported self-focused IM use was nearly identical in the remaining four countries, suggesting a potential cross-cultural behavioral understanding and/or interpretation of the importance to

self-promote in an interview context. Cultural factors (i.e. high hierarchy, mastery, embeddedness) discussed in this research were used to support this prediction but socio-economic factors may also have played a role (Konig, Langer, Fell & Pathak, 2020). For example, among the five sampled countries, India has the highest population and lowest GDP per capita, creating a competitive environment for scarce resources. Such conditions tend to favour those who 'stand out' in a positive light from among the crowd, thus encouraging high levels of self-promotion. I believe the same reasoning supports why Indian applicants also engaged in the highest levels of both honest and deceptive ingratiation across my sample. In that, ingratiating the interviewer was interpreted as another behavior that could provide strategic advantage for receiving favourable evaluations. In contrast to Indian participants, Canadians self-reported among the lowest levels for several of my measures, including honest-self promotion, honest ingratiation, deceptive extensive image creation, deceptive ingratiation, and deceptive image protection. Given that the mock-interviewer was a native Canadian, it is possible that Canadian participants may have been influenced to act within their 'cultural norms' in order to receive a favourable evaluation. Canadian values such as honesty, fairness, and equality (Schwartz, 2006) may have resulted in less deceptive extensive image creation, deceptive ingratiation and deceptive image protection. Similarly, South African participants scored low on nearly all deceptive IM measures. Interestingly both South Africa and Canada scored the highest on interview performance.

My cross-cultural mean score differences for slight and extensive image creation demonstrated inconsistent patterns with previous cross-cultural IM research. For example, Fell et al (2016) investigated cross-cultural differences in intentions to fake (conceptually similar to slight / extensive image creation) using GLOBE cultural dimensions. They found that intentions

to fake had significant negative relationships with uncertainty avoidance and gender egalitarianism, but positive relationships with power distance and in-group collectivism. This pattern suggests that countries such as India and South Africa with high hierarchy (power distance) and embeddedness (in-group collectivism) should have scored highest in slight/extensive image creation. However, Spain and Poland self-reported the highest levels of slight and extensive image creation, and these variables significantly negatively correlated with interview performance. It is possible that differences in study design found within Fell et al.'s (2016) 31-country study investigating 'intentions' focused on in-person interviews compared to the present study investigating self-reported practices in AVIs, contributed to such differences.

3.7.2 Self-focused IM

I found evidence to support that applicants across all countries in the AVI context engaged in high levels of honest self-promotion and that these behaviors positively predicted interview performance. In their conceptual AVI framework, Lukacik et al (2020) proposed that design features such as giving applicants extra preparation time may result in more self-focused IM, either by being able to recall and use a more relevant experience (i.e. honest IM; Bourdage et al., 2018) or by borrowing or inventing an experience (i.e. deceptive IM; Levashina & Campion, 2007). I found high levels of self-focused IM use across my sample. On the honest side, I found evidence to support that self-promoting oneself positively impacts interview performance whereas on the deceptive side, these assertive tactics may lead to negative evaluations.

The deceptive side of self-promotion, namely slight image creation and extensive image creation were both found to negatively impact interview performance in an AVI context. Interestingly, although honest self promotion scores for Indian applicants were the highest and Indians used significantly more honest self-promotion across my sample, Indian applicants did

not engage in equally high levels of slight nor extensive image creation (deceptive self-promotion tactics) which suggests a potential awareness that these items were dishonest, perhaps due to social desirability, recorded lower scores for the deceptive side of this assertive IM tactic. However, this finding should be interpreted with caution, given that mean scores for both deceptive assertive tactics (slight and extensive image creation) were among the lowest mean scores across all countries, suggesting more of a general absence in their use. My linear multiple regression analysis did not find any significant predictors in interview performance. Overall, honest-self promotion mean scores were the highest across all IM measures and was the closest variable approaching significance in predicting interview performance in an AVI context. These findings were consistent with previous FTF literature investigating the relationships between self-promotion and interview performance (Ellis et al., 2002; Barrick et al., 2009; Bourdage et al., 2018).

3.7.3 Other-focused IM

My study did not find evidence to support that ingratiation use positively impacts interview performance in an AVI context. Specifically, I found that both honest and deceptive ingratiation did not correlate with or significantly predict interview performance across all countries. This finding is unlike previous research examining other-focused IM use in FTF interviews (Barrick et al., 2009; Levashina et al., 2014; Bourdage et al., 2018), where a positive relationship has frequently found support. I offer two explanations for this finding. First, it is possible that my BARS did not include enough criteria that could be impacted by ingratiation. Despite self-reporting moderate levels of ingratiation, my participants' use of ingratiation could have been ineffective with respect to impacting interview performance. Secondly, and perhaps in conjunction with my first explanation, ingratiation lacked impact on interview performance

because my applicants could not directly ingratiate the interviewer, due to the limitations of the AVI platform. Lukacik et al (2020) proposed that AVI designs which include video introductions and recorded questions would increase social presence and thus provide a target for the applicant to ingratiate, allowing applicants to use other-focused IM strategies like opinion conformity or flattery. However, despite employing both design features in my study (i.e. video introduction and video recorded questions) I did not find any significant impact of using ingratiation on interview performance in an AVI context. My findings were more consistent with Basch et al.'s (2020) investigation of social presence and intentions to use IM in interviews across various media forms (i.e. AVIs, teleconference) where participants missing physical presence of one's conversation partner seemed to represent a barrier for applicants to effectively use other-focused IM in AVIs.

Apart from India, I did not find any significant differences in ingratiation use (both honest/deceptive) across my sample. Again, this is most likely in part due to the limited opportunity to ingratiate in an AVI context and/or the BARS evaluation criteria's ability to be impacted by ingratiation use. Given the poor model fit indices found in the CFA, it is also possible that people from different cultures within my sample understand IM differently (or interpreted/used the IM measure differently). However, it is worth noting that my moderate mean scores for both honest and deceptive ingratiation use suggest that applicants did use some forms of ingratiation or at the very least, they self-reported to have engaged in such behaviors during their video responses. I therefore offer two considerations. First, applicants may have overreported their ingratiation use. Actual ingratiation use may have been low/difficult to employ during the interview recordings, but due to social desirability applicants self-reported using these behaviors. For example, several of the ingratiation measure items such as "*I found*

out about values and goals that I shared with the organization, and made sure to emphasize them” or *“I discussed interests I shared in common with the interviewer”* were very difficult to actually employ during the one-way AVI format, but could have easily been interpreted as ideal behaviors for ‘fitting in’ with the organization and increasing chances of a job offer. This could explain why despite mean scores of ingratiation suggest moderate use, their use was unrelated to BARS-coded interview performance. Secondly, there is also the possibility that my BARS evaluation criteria were focused exclusively on objective job-related qualifications and did not include elements that would be impacted by ingratiation use. In other words, applicants did use some forms of ingratiation in their responses, but perhaps due to the BARS evaluation criteria, the raters and subsequent interview performance ratings were not influenced. Whether it is the former or latter (or another) explanation, this finding has strategic relevance for organizations recruiting employees for positions that require other-focused influence tactics (i.e. sales, consulting) where effective ingratiation use may be highly sought after. For example, if some AVIs designs restrict applicants from demonstrating such skills, those positions would be better filled using FTF interviews and judgements about a candidate’s suitability for a position requiring such skills via AVI may be distorted. Future AVI research should examine design features that optimally encourage other-focused IM tactics before reaching any conclusions.

3.7.4 Deceptive IM

In their review of the faking IM literature, Melchers et al (2020) expressed interest in investigating how other-technological mediums (i.e. AVIs) would impact applicant faking. In the present empirical study, my deceptive IM measures had lower mean scores but higher alpha reliabilities than my honest IM measures. Therefore, I found support for Melchers et al.’s (2020) proposition that faking is less common than honest IM (for AVI context). I believe this is a result

from what previous theoretical models of faking have argued that more structured interview formats should reduce applicants' opportunity to fake (Levashina & Campion, 2006; Roulin et al., 2016). That is, in addition to using structured interview questions, the AVI format in my study likely further restricted faking potential. For example, similar to highly structured FTF interviews, AVIs offer no opportunity for rapport building between interviewer-interviewee, probing, or for applicants to ask simple questions (although FTF interviews typically offers an opportunity for this at the end).

However, despite low mean scores across all countries, I observed that deceptive image protection negatively correlated with interview performance. Applicants engage in defensive IM (and particularly deceptive defensive IM) when they are less qualified for the job. It is therefore possible that those applicants who knew they performed poorly in the video recordings (and overall interview) reported using more image protection because they felt they had to (i.e. they were less qualified and had to hide/downplay some weaknesses to still appear strong in their interview). This explains why some applicants engaged in/self-reported more image protection. Although my hypothesis predicted Indian and South African participants would score highest in defensive image protection, Poland was the only country that scored significantly higher in this measure than other countries, and interestingly, scored the lowest on interview performance. Again, these country comparisons should be interpreted with caution given the poor CFA model fit. The question then is why using more image protection was associated with negative performance ratings. One explanation is that in using such tactics applicants did not meet most of the criteria to receive points (i.e. high scores) and/or constructed responses that went against the criteria outlined in the BARS. For instance, the ABCD criteria for my BARS question 3, assigns high scores to those applicants who demonstrate resilience/humility/honesty and 'the ability to

demonstrate personal growth/learning from past failures’, which interestingly, is the opposite of what someone who uses image protection would say (i.e. downplay mistakes or pretend I never make mistakes). In this manner, I believe my negative association between image protection and interview performance reflects the evaluation criteria designed in my BARS.

3.7.5 Limitations

The first and most obvious limitation is the poor model fit via CFA for the HIIM-S/IFB-S measure for the overall sample and each individual country. The inability to confirm measurement equivalence means any country comparisons should be interpreted with caution. Several of the reliability scores for my IM measures were slightly below the acceptable range ($\alpha < .70$) and some within country issues appeared. For example, India honest deceptive IM reliability was especially problematic ($\alpha = .40$), suggesting either measurement inequivalence related to cultural interpretation, or simply issues using the HIIM-S/IFB-S measure in an AVI context. Some of the findings in this study were counter intuitive, which may be explained by low reliability scores for some of the measures. For example, India scored much lower for honest defensive IM but much higher for defensive image protection. It is unusual to be much lower for the honest side of a construct but much higher for the deceptive side of the same construct (and generally poor reliabilities for all the honest IM tactics but good for the deceptive IM ones). Given these findings and the overall low reliabilities it is possible that some items were more difficult to interpret/understand for some of the non-native speakers. However, given that even the Canadian sample (i.e. native English speakers) failed to fit my 7-factor IM structure it is possible that small sample sizes also contributed to poor model fit.

Secondly, it is possible that the effects found within my regression analysis were smaller than when looking at individual correlations for the following reasons. First, in a regression I

control for the effect of the other predictors and secondly due to multi-collinearity. I note that as evidenced in my correlation table, some predictors were strongly correlated with one another causing the estimates in the regressions to be automatically weaker. And the stronger effects seen in my correlation table also reappeared when observing the relative importance analysis results.

Finally, I also would like to mention several methodological limitations. First of all, although I made efforts to design this study to be as realistic as possible, participants were aware that this mock interview was for research purposes, thus creating a 'low stakes' interview in comparison to that of a real situation. These low stakes may have affected participant motivation. Secondly, participants came from various educational and socio-economic backgrounds which may have impacted the external validity of my study, in that many participants who participated in the interview study would not necessarily apply for a similar position in real life. Additionally, the small sample size(s) across countries likely affected the generalizability of the results. Lastly, cross-sectional surveys and self-report measures for IM are subject to commonly discussed external validity issues (Bowen & Wiersema, 1999).

3.7.6 Future Directions

I hope to see additional IM research in an AVI context that includes both mono and cross-cultural studies. Future cross-cultural research could explore additional countries that substantially differ from one another in terms of cultural values to determine whether differences in AVI exist. I also encourage future AVI research to explore design features that could optimally promote other-focused IM tactics. Having longer video introductions that include several organizational culture elements, as well as divulging personal information of the interviewer are examples of designs that could potentially encourage additional other-focused IM. Finally, as mentioned above, I suggest that future cross-cultural IM research include

measures that are ‘tailored’ to an AVI context, with both value (i.e. intentions) and practice (i.e. retrospectively self-reporting actual behaviors) items for similar constructs to further understand what if any differences exist. The HIIM-S/IFB-S measure was problematic in the present study design and I thus encourage future AVI context research to explore alternative measures.

4.0 Examining the Impact of Cultural Preferences on Selection Bias in an AVI Context

Selection is the process of choosing among individuals who have been recruited to fill existing or projected job openings. The selection process has important strategic significance, given that the quality of a firm's human resources is often the single most determining factor in whether the organization succeeds and how it distinguishes itself from the competition. There is an abundance of evidence in the literature supporting this positive relationship between employee selection and organisational performance (Kamoche et al. 2004; McCourt and Eldridge 2003; Boxall and Purcell 2008). In the global setting, among emerging trends in the importance of strategic talent management, there has been a growing recognition of the value of having a diverse workforce and an increased effort to encourage cultural diversity (Scullion, Vaiman & Collins, 2016). Today's globalized economy requires organizations to recruit employees from diverse cultural backgrounds with strong cultural awareness, language competencies and varying perspectives shared in the form of knowledge transfer management. For example, research has found that top management's commitment to the selection of culturally competent staff is important to drive the success of global knowledge transfer and management (Zheng & Menzies, 2015). In sum, to stay competitive, multinational corporations need to strategically recruit, select, and deploy their global talents (Scullion et al., 2016).

One of the most common selection methods employed by organizations is face-to-face interviews (Huffcutt & Culbertson, 2011). Traditional to-face (FTF) interviews have been found to be highly beneficial in gathering additional information (i.e. behavioral cues) beyond a CV/resume about candidates during the selection process in order to make judgments of employment suitability (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998; Huffcutt & Arthur, 1994). However, they are also subject to several potential biases. For example, research exploring selection biases has

found that interviewers may discriminate based on sexual orientation (Weichselbaumer, 2003), age (Morgeson, Reider, Campion & Bull, 2008), gender (Wilkinson, Casey & Eley, 2014), attractiveness (Shahani, Dipboye & Gehrlein, 1993), physical disabilities (Brecher, Bragger & Kutcher, 2006) and race (Quillian, Heath, Pager, Midtbøen, Fleischmann & Hexel, 2019). These conscious or unconscious preferences exert influence when it comes to hiring and ultimately play a role in who ends up getting the job. Additionally, research has demonstrated that interviewers often seek to confirm their favourable first impressions and as a result, end up asking less evaluative questions which in turn reduces the possibility of an objective evaluation (see Brunt, 2016; Derous et al., 2016). Efforts and recommendations on how to create more structured interview processes that help reduce the potential for several of these biases in FTF interviews are discussed throughout the literature (i.e. Macan, 2009; Dipboye, Wooten & Halverson, 2004; Pogrebtsova, Luta, & Hausdorf, 2020).

However, selection tools are constantly evolving. For example, the use of technology such as Asynchronous Video Interviews (AVIs) is becoming increasingly popular for HR professionals in improving the efficiency of the initial screening process particularly for positions with numerous applicants and/or geographic challenges (i.e. hiring out of region/country). AVIs are growing in popularity with more and more companies offering digital interview solutions (Software Advice, 2017; HireVue, 2017). However, very little is known about the effectiveness of using AVIs in the selection process. Due to their restrictive nature (i.e. one-way communication), AVIs may be subject to both similar and different biases from those found within the FTF interview context. For example, similar to FTF interviews, biases related to ethnicity and/or non-native accents influencing performance evaluations can also occur within AVIs; whereas biases that are technologically related (i.e. background in video, internet

connection and audio quality) may be unique to AVIs. Such biases, if found, could potentially be of serious concern/interest to HR personnel if they prevent organizations from reaching diversity objectives and/or subject them to discrimination lawsuits. For example, countries like Canada [Canadian charter of rights], U.S.A. [Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964] and across the EU [article 21 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights] have strict laws against various forms of hiring discrimination. To avoid legal repercussions choosing candidates from a multi-cultural workforce such as Canada, organizations must ensure that their selection tools and procedures (including newly emerging technologies such as AVIs) are reduced as much as possible from both intentional and unintentional systematic biases (i.e. discrimination). Although several areas of biases exist, the scope of the present study is on specifically examining bias/discrimination based on country of origin/nationality.

Although some research exists examining selection biases based on country of origin/nationality in FTF interviews (Petersen & Dietz, 2005; Derous, Ryan & Nguyen, 2012; Veit & Thijsen, 2019), there are no studies exploring such biases in an AVI context. This gap in the literature is significant given that international recruitment and selection commonly includes online platforms throughout the hiring process and this trend has dramatically increased due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The present study addresses this gap by exploring how American and British HR professionals evaluate applicants from five culturally distinct countries in an AVI context. I drew upon Schwartz's (2006) cultural orientations and individual measures from Duckitt and Sibley's (2017) dual process motivational model (DPM) of ideology and prejudice to develop my hypotheses and explain the findings.

4.1 AVIs

Asynchronous video interviews (AVI's) also known as digital interviews, are conducted without live interaction. Typically, a company assigns an interviewer to pre-record the desired interview questions and invites potential candidates to digitally record their answers (Brenner, Ortner, & Fay, 2016; Chamorro-Premuzic, Winsborough, Sherman, & Hogan, 2016). Benefits of using AVIs have been noted in the literature as increased capacity for handling a large number of recruits, streamlining of selection procedures, decreased administrative strain by ensuring only the most qualified candidates pass to the next levels of the selection process and increased organizational effectiveness via consolidated access to stored information along the application process (Mejia & Torres, 2018; Stone, Deadrick, Lukaszewski & Johnson, 2015). However, AVIs also present several weaknesses that organizations must be aware of. For example, a meta-analysis by Blacksmith, Willford, and Behrend (2016) found that interviewees are generally more skeptical and less accepting of technology-mediated interviews compared to FTF interviews. However, this meta-analysis was based almost exclusively on videoconference/telephone interviews and it is therefore possible that AVIs require separate consideration. Further, the increasingly transactional nature of electronic hiring systems may also lead to negative perceptions, such as an impersonal feeling, a lack of real-time feedback and a feeling of not being able to portray oneself in a realistic manner (Guchait, Ruetzler, Taylor and Toldi, 2014). Finally, there are also people with privacy concerns related to using new technologies for selection procedures (Stone-Romero, Stone, & Hyatt, 2003). In sum, AVIs requires separate investigation(s) from traditional FTF interview research in order to understand the implications and consequences of their use in the selection process.

A small but growing body of research has explored various aspects of AVIs. For example, in exploring the predictive validity of AVIs, Brenner et al. (2016) found that perceived

usefulness/ease of use predicted applicants' attitudes towards AVIs, and that openness moderated this relationship. Langer, König and Krause (2017) compared AVI's to videoconference interviews looking for differences in applicants' reactions as well as interviewer ratings. They found that participants experienced digital interviews to be "creepier", less personal, and associated with more privacy concerns. They also found that participants in digital interviews received better interview ratings than traditional FTF interviews. Langer, König and Papathanasiou (2019) later conducted an experiment where participants watched and assessed videos depicting a highly automated interview (with a female virtual character as the interviewer) for high-stakes (selection) and low-stakes (training), finding that automated high-stakes interviews led to ambiguity and less perceived controllability than low-stakes automated interviews. Automated interviews refer to AVIs with AI-based computers making decisions/evaluating content. These authors concluded that highly automated interviews diminished overall acceptance through lower social presence and fairness. And finally, Basch, Melchers, Kegelmann and Lieb (2020) recently explored potential reasons why AVIs are less accepted than traditional FTF interviews, finding perceived fairness to be a primary issue. Whether or not AVIs are 'fair' and an unbiased tool in the selection process has relevance to organizations given that literature has found that the improvement of fairness perceptions positively influences perceived organizational attractiveness (see Walker, Helmuth, Feild & Bauer, 2015).

Given that AVIs are visual recordings, they can still present evaluators with similar surface level demographic information (i.e., ethnicity) and audio cues (i.e. non-native accents) found in FTF interviews that may suggest the applicant is from a foreign country. Therefore, is it possible that AVIs create opportunities for discrimination and selection biases. However, to date

no research exists examining whether AVIs could be susceptible to culturally biased selection processes. A large body of literature over the past 50 years has investigated ethnic hiring discrimination and consistently found it to be a real issue in FTF interviews (see Zschirnt & Ruedin, 2016). However, much less research exists examining hiring discrimination/biases based on country of origin/nationality. Therefore, the present study is interested in investigating whether AVIs may be biased based on applicant's country of origin/nationality.

4.2 Selection Bias

Traditionally hiring discrimination literature has focused on differences between blacks (African Americans) and whites in the U.S. (i.e. Wexley & Nemeroff, 1974) and over many decades an abundance of 'ethnic' related hiring discrimination research has accumulated. This literature is too vast to cover in entirety and is not the scope of the present study therefore I highlight a few recent studies (i.e. covering ethnic discrimination) and then proceed to country of origin/nationality-based hiring discrimination literature. As an overview, a meta-analysis investigating change over time in the level of hiring discrimination (towards African-Americans & Latinos) in U.S. labor markets found no evidence of change in the level of hiring discrimination against African Americans over the past 25 years, and only modest evidence of a decline in discrimination against Latinos (Quillian, Pager, Hexel, & Midtbøen, 2017). The meta-analysis sampled 28 studies with methods including measuring resume/application response rates under various ethnic names and using actors of various ethnic backgrounds to attend job interviews and measure offers. Similarly, hiring and promotion decisions based on race within the hospitality industry (i.e. customer facing roles) also confirms the presence and issue with ethnic related hiring discrimination (Moore, Susskind & Livingston, 2016) in the USA. Beyond ethnicity, hiring discrimination researchers have also examined the impact(s) of native versus

non-native accents on hiring discrimination bias. For example, Purkiss, Perrewé, Gillespie, Mayes, and Ferris (2006) examined implicit sources of biases in employment interview judgments and decisions finding that ethnic named applicants speaking with accents were viewed less positively by interviewers than ethnic named applicants without accents and non-ethnic named applicants with and without an accents. Their research also confirmed that these biases effected hiring decisions. As to why such biases related to accent occur, the authors highlight literature supporting that accents can influence perceptions regarding intelligence, kindness, social status, economic class, national origin, and obviously ethnicity (see Lippi-Green, 1997; Nesdale & Rooney, 1990). For example, in the U.S., previous research has found that French accents often are associated with sophistication and Asian accents tend to be linked with high economic and educational attainments (Cargile, 2000; Lippi-Green, 1997). Moving beyond the scope of the U.S., Zschirnt and Ruedin (2016) similarly conducted a meta-analysis of 738 correspondence tests in 43 separate studies conducted in OECD countries between 1990 and 2015 finding that discrimination (ethnic & racial) has remained widespread across OECD countries in the last 25 years. Finally, Quillian et al (2019) conducted a follow-up meta-analysis (to their original in 2017) of 97 field experiments of hiring discrimination across nine countries in Europe and North America. Similarly, to their previous findings, they found significant discrimination against non-white natives in all countries as well as low levels of discrimination against white immigrants. Their findings also revealed discrimination in hiring practices fell on a continuum ranging from non-white immigrants (highest) to white natives (lowest). Significant cross-country differences in hiring discrimination were also found. For example, France and Sweden had the highest level of discrimination, whereas Germany, Norway, and the United States had the lowest rates of discrimination (Quillian et al., 2019). Differences by country were

larger and more significant than most of the measured social and study factors included in the study. Although the majority of selection bias research examines how applicant ethnicity affects hiring decisions, some research also exists investigating how specifically country of origin/birthplace influences hiring discrimination. For example, Petersen and Dietz (2005) examined the effects of subtle and blatant prejudice and the enforcement of workforce homogeneity on employment discrimination. German participants were advised to maintain a homogeneous (i.e., German) workforce. Under these instructions, Germans selected fewer foreign applicants for job interviews than did participants who did not receive this advice. In a similar design (i.e. with German applicants receiving supervisor advice), Petersen and Krings (2009) examined the impact of organizational context variables on employment discrimination by analyzing the effects of ethical codes of conduct, code enforcement, and supervisor advice on selection decision making regarding minority candidates. They found that supervisor advice to prefer ingroup members lowered suitability ratings of outgroup members. However, ethical codes of conduct referring to equal opportunities limited this form of discrimination. This study has particular implication for how influential leadership and anti-discrimination policies may impact selection biases.

Veit and Thijsen (2019) recently examined how employers in Western European countries respond to job applications from majority and minority group members, with minority job applicants being either very similar (domestic-born and/or European origin) to the majority population or rather different (foreign-born and/or Middle Eastern/African). They found that discrimination increases for minorities from origin countries that are culturally more distant (Middle Eastern/African vs. European origin). Although some between country differences existed, overall employers in all five countries discriminated against foreign-born minorities of

Middle Eastern and African origin (Veit & Thijsen, 2019). Hiring discrimination specifically against Arabs was also found in a recent meta-analysis (Bartkoski, Lynch, Witt & Rudolph, 2018). In varying birthplace and group of origin within their research design, these authors were able to demonstrate how signals of ‘cultural distance’ affect ethnic discrimination in hiring situations.

While most of the literature has found bias against foreign natives and minorities, it is also worth mentioning some research has found bias in favour of hiring such out-groups. For example, Kroll and Ziegler (2016) explored fairness toward job applicants differing in gender and ethnicity in a video-based assessment interview with Germans (native) and Turks (immigrants). Communication skills and capacity to work in a team were specifically assessed. These authors did not find any evidence for discrimination against ethnic minority Turks and interestingly found applicants of Turkish origin received better evaluations compared to German natives.

The selection literature offers several insights as to why country of origin/nationality biases in selection may occur. First, the objectives of a typical interviewer commonly include determining how well the applicant ‘fits’ with the job (P-J fit) and organization (P-O fit) (see Kristof-Brown et al., 2002a; Kristof-Brown et al., 2002b; Kristof-Brown & Jansen, 2007). However, using person-organization fit criteria to ‘qualify’ a candidate leads to unavoidable biases in the selection process. For example, the use of person-organization fit assessments rests on the assumption that similarities attract, which increases the likelihood that interviewers will select candidates that more closely resemble themselves (see Cable & Judge 1997; CIPD 2015). In other words, using person-organization fit criteria to ‘qualify’ a candidate supports discriminatory psychosocial processes such as similar-to-me bias (Sears & Rowe, 2003), which

can lead interviewers to negatively perceive potential applicants that are different from them. Similar-to-me bias is where interviewers tend to provide more favourable ratings to candidates who possess either demographic, personality or attitudinal characteristics similar to their own, regardless of the value of those characteristics to the job (Sears & Rowe, 2003). In sum, similar-to-me bias suggests that interviewers are more inclined to favourably evaluate those applicants with similar demographic and behavioral characteristics to their own. The hiring of similarities increases the potential for greater homogeneity in the workplace and results in lower levels of management capacity (Boxall & Purcell, 2008). Hiring a homogeneous workforce works against diversity objectives, can create issues related to groupthink, and makes organizations open to costly discrimination lawsuits (CIPD, 2015).

In addition to the above discussed similar-to-me bias, the literature also commonly refers to Tajfel and Turner's (1986) social identity theory to explain psychosocial process of hiring discrimination. Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and its related cousin self-categorization theory (Turner & Oakes, 1986) describe how certain individual/intergroup behaviours and status differences are perceived as legitimate and either similar or foreign to oneself. Such processes lead to in-group favoritism where people give preferential treatment (i.e. better evaluations) to others when they are perceived to belong to the same ingroup. For example, researchers have demonstrated that race similarity between the evaluator and the applicant similarity may favorably influence applicant assessments more than other demographic categories (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Research shows that applicants who are racially similar to hiring managers receive more favorable interview assessments and are more likely to receive job offers than are applicants who are racially dissimilar (Dovidio & Gaertner, 2000; Goldberg, 2005). Social identity theory and the social categorization perspective suggest that hiring

managers tend to categorize themselves and others into social categories, such as race, and evaluate members of their own group or category more favorably (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

Therefore, I develop my hypotheses for the present study by integrating both social identity theory and the above discussed similar-to-me bias with propositions 10/11 developed in chapter 2. In chapter 2, proposition 10 of my theoretical model proposed that a larger cultural distance between interviewers and interviewees would create larger discrepancies in IM use/expectations thus impacting evaluation performance. Based on social identity theory and similar-to-me bias, and within the context of the present study, I believe that the closer/more similar the applicant's country of origin is to the interviewers', the more positive the evaluation in an AVI should be (and the more distant/different the more negative the evaluation).

Schwartz's (2006) cultural value dimensions offers insights into which countries are more culturally similar/distant from each other and are based on how humanity confronts three issues: defining the nature of the relation between the individual and the group (i.e. Embeddedness, Intellectual / Affective autonomy), guaranteeing responsible behaviour that will preserve the social fabric (i.e. Hierarchy / Egalitarianism), and the relation of humankind to the natural and social world (i.e. Mastery / Harmony). How societies collectively approach these three issues is explained by values falling along three continuums, autonomy versus embeddedness, hierarchy versus egalitarianism, and mastery versus harmony. Therefore, in the present study I selected five countries to explore that significantly differ from each other with respect to falling along these dimensions. For example, figure 4.1 illustrates a country co-plot using Schwartz's (2006) cultural dimensions and the six countries relevant to the present study (i.e. U.S. participants and 5 country applicants). According to Schwartz (2006), American participants are culturally most similar to Canadian applicants, and culturally most distant from Spanish applicants. Research

supports the general notion that the larger the cultural distance between interviewer and interviewee, the more negatively behavioral differences will impact evaluation. Manroop, et al.'s (2013) model of how cross-cultural differences impact interview outcomes proposes that “Interviewers are more likely to make negative judgment about the job candidates who respond to questions contrary to cultural expectations than candidates who respond to questions according to cultural expectations” (p. 3522). For example, an American HR interviewer who is evaluating a Spanish applicants’ responses, may assign lower scores due to cultural differences that impact behavioral expectations.

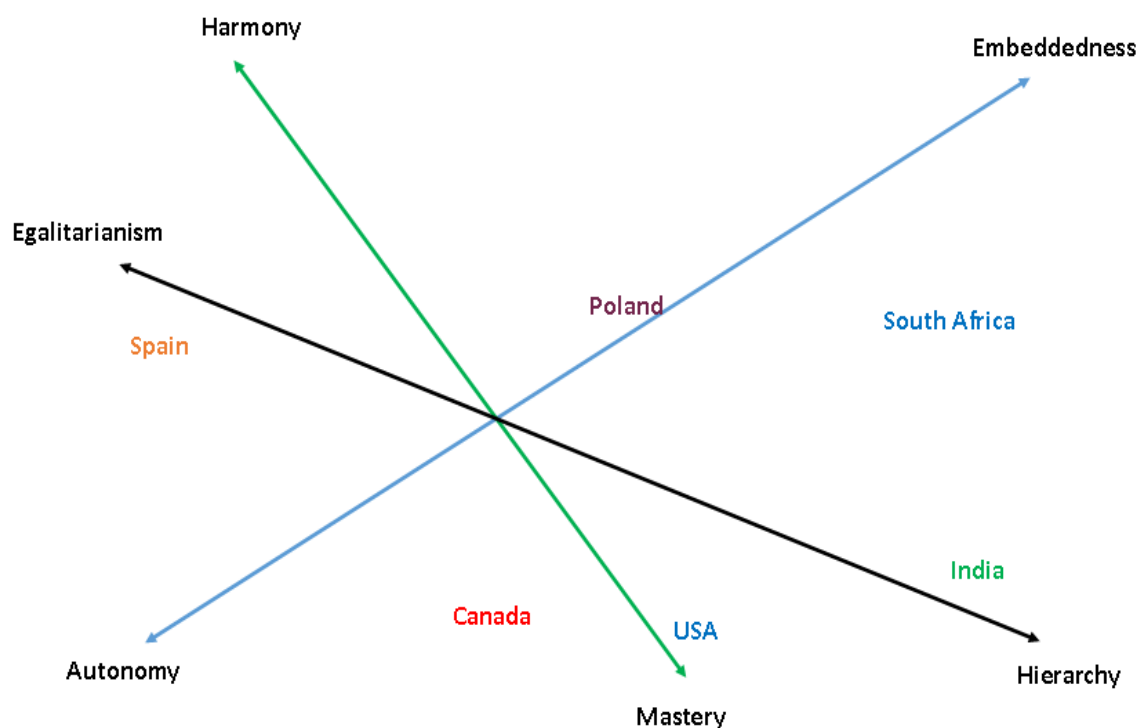


Figure 4.1 – 5 country co plot

In the present study I endeavor to test my proposition for the first time in an AVI context by presenting American interviewers (i.e. participants) with the task of evaluating the

performance of applicants from five culturally distinct countries (Canada, Spain, Poland, India, South Africa). Based on the discussion above, I predict:

Hypothesis 1: Participants will assign higher evaluations to applicants that are culturally similar to them, and lower evaluations to applicants that are culturally dissimilar.

4.2.1 Ethnocentrism

As mentioned above, similar-to-me bias (Sears & Rowe, 2003) and social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) help explain why members of certain cultural groups may prefer/view more favourably members within their own groups versus out-group members. In the context of the present study, I hypothesized that the larger the cultural distance between interviewers and applicants, the lower performance evaluation applicants will receive. However, I also believed there are some boundary conditions to this general effect. Specifically, I believed that the interviewer's individual differences in bias will moderate the effect of negative evaluations of applicants with large cultural distances from those of the interviewer. To investigate this, I drew upon my final proposition from my theoretical model in chapter 2, which predicted that individual differences such as levels of ethnocentrism, right-wing authoritarianism and social dominance orientation would moderate how interviewers assign performance evaluations to applicants that are dissimilar from them. I predicted, for example, that high interviewer levels of any of these constructs would amplify negative evaluations from large cultural distances with applicants whereas low interviewer levels of these individual constructs would weaken negative evaluations assigned to applicants. In the present study, I was interested in empirically testing this theory in an AVI context. I proceed to review the literature for each construct.

Ethnocentrism refers to levels of openness (or lack of) to foreign cultures and/or outsiders (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). Those high on ethnocentrism view their culture as ‘center’ of the world, superior to, and a role model for other cultures. Individuals high on ethnocentrism also generally dislike interacting with members of foreign cultures (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). There is also empirical support to suggest that levels of ethnocentrism vary across countries (Neuliep, Chaudoir and McCroskey, 2001) and particularly relevant to the present study, that American evaluators higher on ethnocentrism evaluated Korean applicants (high cultural distance) more negatively than American applicants (Neuliep, Hintz and McCroskey, 2005). Lin, Rancer, and Trimbitas (2005) similarly found a negative relationship between Romanian students’ levels of ethnocentrism and their intercultural willingness-to communicate with non-Romanians. American participants high on ethnocentrism have also been found to assign lower performance evaluations to applicants with non-native accents (Neuliep & Speten-Hansen, 2013).

Based on these findings, I believed ethnocentrism may play an important role in moderating how American participants in the present study will view and assign evaluations to members of foreign cultures. For example, participants high on ethnocentrism are more likely to assign negative evaluations to applicants with non-native accents, demographic and culturally foreign behaviors, whereas participants that score low on ethnocentrism will likely be less impacted by such cultural differences. In this manner, I believed that interviewers’ individual-level ethnocentrism will amplify and/or weaken the relationship between the cultural distance between them and interviewees and their evaluations of interviewees’ performance. Specifically, I predicted:

Hypothesis 2: The impact of the cultural distance between the applicant and the interviewer on performance evaluation will be moderated by interviewers' individual-level ethnocentrism.

4.2.2 Social Dominance Orientation & Right-Wing Authoritarianism

Next, I considered how two major social attitudinal predictors of prejudice, right wing authoritarianism (RWA) and social dominance orientation (SDO), would impact evaluations interviewers assign to applicants from various cultural backgrounds. Duckitt and Sibley discuss the interactive/complimentary effects of RWA and SDO in their dual-process model (DPM) of prejudice (Duckitt & Sibley, 2017). Their DPM explains how the underlying personality dimensions of RWA (i.e. low agreeableness and high conscientiousness) and SDO (i.e. low agreeableness) represent social/psychological bases of personality that contribute to dangerous and competitive worldview beliefs (i.e. embeddedness values) that lead to an in-group preference for order, structure, stability and security. A large body of research has found RWA and SDO to be powerful predictors of prejudice (Proch, 2013; Sibley & Duckitt, 2008).

SDO is an individual difference variable that indicates support for the “domination of ‘inferior’ groups by ‘superior’ groups” (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999, p. 48). Research has found SDO to be a valid predictor of a range of biases across cultures (Lee, Pratto, & Johnson, 2011). This is in part because SDO is highly correlated with hierarchy (Duckitt & Sibley, 2017), and thus people who score high on SDO believe that there are and should be status differences among social groups, and they do not see these as wrong (Pratto, Sidanius, Stallworth & Malle, 1994). There are specific studies that have examined how SDO impacts hiring decisions. For example, Umphress, Simmons, Boswell, and Triana (2008) found that American participants high in SDO reported that they were less likely to select a potential team member who is a member of a low-status group than those American participants who were low in SDO. Hansen

and Davidio (2016) also examined how SDO predicts willingness to hire non-native speakers. In their study, they asked American participants to watch either an Asian or Latino applicant and give hiring recommendations. They found that SDO predicted hiring recommendations of the speakers, in that those participants high in SDO were less likely to give hiring recommendations to Asian/Latino applicants (Hansen & Davidio, 2016). Based on these findings, I predicted that interviewers' level of SDO would affect the strength of the relationship between cultural distance and interviewer's evaluation of applicants, in that high levels of SDO would amplify the negative evaluations resulting from large cultural distances between interviewers and interviewees whereas low levels of SDO would weaken the effect of negative evaluations resulting from large cultural distances. I predicted:

Hypothesis 3: The impact of the cultural distance between the applicant and the interviewer on performance evaluation will be moderated by interviewers' individual-level social dominance orientation.

Finally, RWA relates to the desires to protect and enhance the self and the ingroup leading to greater ingroup favoritism, and in some cases prejudice towards outgroups (Altemeyer, 1988). Therefore, those who score high on RWA are more likely to favor in-group versus out-group members. This effect has been empirically investigated in the discrimination/prejudice literature. For example, Petersen and Dietz (2000) examined social discrimination in a personnel selection context between Western(in-group) and Eastern (out-group) Germans. They found that only high scorers in RWA discriminated against out-groups when instructed to do so. Charles-Toussaint and Crowson (2010) also found that RWA positively correlated with American students' prejudice towards international students. And most recently, Narimana, Hadaricsc, Soufizadehb and Kende (2020) found that RWA positively and strongly

predicted Hungarian nationals' discrimination towards Roma and Jewish minorities in Hungary. Therefore, I believed RWA would also have an individual level moderating effect on the cultural distance between interviewers and interviewees and the evaluations assigned to applicants. Again I predicted that interviewers' level of RWA would affect the strength of the relationship between cultural distance and interviewer's evaluation of applicants, in that high levels of RWA would amplify the negative evaluations resulting from large cultural distances between interviewers and interviewees whereas low levels of RWA would weaken the effect of negative evaluations resulting from large cultural distances. In sum, I predicted:

Hypothesis 4: Higher levels of right-wing authoritarianism will be associated with higher evaluations for in-group members and lower evaluations for out-group members

4.3 U.S. Based Study

4.3.1 U.S. Study Methods

4.3.1.1 Participants. In this study I recruited a total of 150 American participants with HR/interview related experience through the Prolific online recruitment platform. Data cleanup/analysis revealed some missing values but no severe item-response related issues. First, I examined the attention checks included for each measure (i.e. SDO, RWA, Ethnocentrism) such as "I often eat cement" and "I have never used a computer", to which all participants successfully passed. I then screened data for extreme patterns of acquiescence, disacquiescence and central response tendency but did not find any issues. Finally, I also reviewed several variables from my data for univariate and multivariate outliers. I used z-scores of +/- 3.29 as my cut-off point to identify outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Only one value for SDO fell outside of this cut-off range, ($z = 3.40$) which prompted a closer examination of this participant's

responses. I used Cook's distance to investigate whether responses of this outlier were higher than three times the mean (Cook, 1977). Value responses did not exceed this threshold and generally appeared normal thus did not remove this participant from the data set.

In the end, I decided to keep all 150 data points. The final sample included 57% male, 82% Caucasians with a mean age of 42.6 years ($SD = 12.4$). Participants reported having an average of 8.6 years ($SD = 12.3$) of HR related experience, conducted on average 51.8 interviews in their lifetime, and spent .69 years ($SD = 2.0$) living abroad. It is also worth noting that 20% reported having some experience using AVIs. Participants were compensated £10 pounds for successful completion of this study.

4.3.1.2 Procedure. In this study participants were invited to view and score a series of applicant videos for a mock interview conducted in Chapter 3. I selected only the top three applicant performers (i.e. based on their BARS score for questions 1-4) from each country from Chapter 3. In selecting the top three performers, I tried to control for evaluations being positively / negatively assigned simply due to high/low performing applicants. However, the Polish and Spanish interviewee BARS scores were noticeably lower than those from India, South Africa, and Canada. Despite this variance, all selected applicants spoke advanced English. I recruited American participants with HR related experience/backgrounds via the Prolific platform. Upon following the URL link to the Qualtrics platform, applicants were presented with an informed consent form that included details of the research study. Participants were informed that they were acting as interviewers for a management associate position with HSBC bank. After obtaining informed consent, all participants were provided with the initial four questions asked during the mock interview in Study 1, and the job description. Before watching the interview videos, participants were also provided with a scoring rubric. Each participant was randomly

assigned five interviewees (i.e. 1 from each country) and asked to view/evaluate their responses to four questions for a total of 20 videos. The fourth applicant video for each country included six constructs (found in the rubric) that participants were asked to complete/evaluate applicants on. After watching all 20 videos, participants were asked to also complete several measures and answer demographic questions.

4.3.1.3 Measures.

Applicant performance rating. Participants used a rating scale developed by Gorman et al. (2018) designed to evaluate applicants of asynchronous web-based video employment interviews. This measure evaluates a total of 12 constructs/work-related attributes including general intelligence, conscientiousness, interpersonal skills, leadership, creativity, job knowledge and innovation. I removed some constructs (i.e. verbal ability, education & training, experience, general work history, creativity, job knowledge) that were less or not applicable to the context of my study; a final version of the six constructs used in this study can be found in Appendix A. The measure instructs participants with the following “*Using the applicant’s responses in the video, please use the following rating scale to make an inference regarding the applicant’s true level of each of the following work-related attributes.*” Participants use a 5-point Likert scale to evaluate applicants on each construct. This scoring was completed after having watch all four videos for each applicant.

Ethnocentricity. I used a revised ethnocentrism scale developed by Neuliep and McCroskey (2013) to measure participants attitudes towards foreigners. This version includes 22 items, of which 15 are scored, using a 5-point Likert scale on a Strongly disagree to Strongly agree continuum. The seven removed items are originally included to balance the number of positively and negatively worded items. Sample items include “*People in my culture could learn*

a lot from people in other cultures”, “Most people from other cultures just don't know what's good for them”, and “I respect the values and customs of other cultures”. Authors of this scale have found alpha reliabilities to range from .80 to .90 (Neuliep & McCroskey, 2013). I also found strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .89$).

Social Dominance Orientation. I used the SDO7 developed by Ho and co-authors (2015) to measure individual participant levels of social dominance orientation. This version includes 16 items grouped into 4-dimensions, Pro-trait dominance, Con-trait dominance, Pro-trait anti-egalitarianism and Con-trait egalitarianism. A 7-point Strongly favor – Strongly Oppose continuum was used. The Con-trait items are reverse-scored before computing the composite scale mean. Sample items include *“Some groups of people must be kept in their place.”* and *“We should not push for group equality.”*. Using this measure, I found good internal consistency ($\alpha = .79$).

Right-wing authoritarianism. I used a short authoritarianism scale developed by Buzimic and Duckitt (2018) to measure individual participant levels of authoritarianism. This short version includes six items graded on a 5-point Strongly agree – Strongly disagree Likert scale. Sample items include *“It's great that many young people today are prepared to defy authority”* and *“God's laws about abortion, pornography, and marriage must be strictly followed before it is too late”*. The scale measures three dimensions of authoritarianism, namely Conservatism or Authoritarian Submission, Traditionalism or Conventionalism, and Authoritarianism or Authoritarian Aggression. Using this measure, I found very good internal consistency ($\alpha = .86$).

4.3.2 U.S. Study Results

4.3.2.1 Correlations. Table 4.1 summarizes correlations among study variables. As expected, all three of my measures (i.e. RWA, SDO, Ethnocentrism) significantly correlated with each other. Age significantly correlated with HR experience ($r = .47, p < .01$) and right-wing authoritarianism ($r = .19, p < .05$). Self-reported levels of right-wing authoritarianism and ethnocentrism negatively correlated with all country-interviewee evaluations but none of these were significant. However, self-reported levels of social dominance orientation significantly and negatively correlated with Spanish interviewee evaluations ($r = -.22, p < .01$). Finally, evaluations scores of applicants from all countries significantly and positively correlated with one another.

Table 4.1 – Correlations among study variables

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Age	42.58	12.36									
2	HR Exp	8.62	12.92	.47**								
3	RWA	2.23	.88	.19*	.12							
4	SDO	2.47	.54	.08	.01	.43**						
5	ETHNO	1.76	.52	.02	.01	.60**	.49**					
6	Poland	2.92	.71	-.08	-.07	-.03	-.14	.03				
7	Spain	3.28	.80	-.01	.06	-.09	-.22**	-.14	.40**			
8	India	3.78	.77	.02	.01	-.09	-.10	-.16	.26**	.27**		
9	South Africa	4.23	.68	.08	.09	-.11	-.09	-.11	.30**	.50**	.33**	
10	Canada	3.78	.74	-.02	-.10	-.06	-.05	-.05	.28**	.25**	.22**	.24**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. *Poland/Spain/India/South Africa/Canada variables refer to evaluation scores received by interviewee in those respective countries.

4.3.2.2 Hypotheses testing. I conducted a within-subjects repeated measure ANOVA to test whether mean score differences across the five countries were statistically significant. To do so, I first treated each construct/attribute that interviewees were evaluated on (i.e. intelligence, conscientiousness, mental ability, communication skills, interpersonal skills & leadership) as scale items belonging to a single construct. I tested the alpha reliabilities of these six constructs/attributes for each country to see if I could justify combining them into a single construct for analysis. My alpha reliability scores across all five countries were indeed very

strong ($\alpha = .88 - .91$), which allowed me to combine them as a single composite score (i.e. 1 for each country) for analysis.

There was a statistically significant difference in mean scores across my five countries, Wilks' Lambda value of .245 and $F(4, 144) = 111.191, p = .001$. Mauchly's Test of Sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity had not been violated, $\chi^2(9) = 15.782, p < .072$, and therefore, a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was not used. Table 4.2 summarizes descriptive statistics and mean score differences across the five countries. South African mean scores were significantly highest ($M = 4.23, SD = .68$), followed by Canada ($M = 3.78, SD = .74$) and India ($M = 3.78, SD = .77$) which were not statistically different from one another but both higher than Spain ($M = 3.28, SD = .80$) and Poland ($M = 2.92, SD = .72$). In order to determine ranking/order with respect to cultural distance from USA among my five-country sample, I used Schwartz's (2008) country dimension scores. For each cultural dimension, I calculated the difference score between USA and the respective country, then added these for all dimensions. For example, the USA harmony score is 3.46 and for Canada 3.83, leaving us with a difference of 0.37. I calculated difference scores for all five of my sampled countries, for all seven of Schwartz's (2008) country dimension scores (i.e. hierarchy, egalitarianism, mastery, harmony, embeddedness, intellectual autonomy, affective autonomy). I then proceeded to combine all difference scores (using absolute values) to arrive at a composite difference score. This composite difference score was used to determine how culturally similar/dissimilar each country is from USA. From most similar to dissimilar I ended with the following order: Canada (1.45), Poland (1.85), South Africa (2.07), India (2.42) and Spain (3.02). Based on these results, I found partial support for my first hypothesis that country level evaluations would decrease as cultural distance from U.S.A. increases.

4.3.2.3 Moderation analyses. The following section tests the moderating role of the three measures, RWA, SDO and ethnocentrism to determine whether I accepted or rejected hypotheses 2-4. First, I tested the moderating role of ethnocentrism by including it as a covariate in the repeated-measure ANOVA. My results suggest that although the country of origin effect remained significant, $F(4, 584) = 11.546, p < .001$, the country of origin x ethnocentrism interaction was not, $F(4, 584) = 1.063, p < .373$. As such, these findings did not support hypothesis 2. Secondly, I tested the moderating role of SDO in the same manner. Results suggest that although the country-of-origin effect remained significant, $F(4, 584) = 3.068, p < .018$, the country-of-origin x SDO interaction was not, $F(4, 584) = 0.988, p = .411$. These findings did not support hypothesis 3. Finally, I tested the moderating role of RWA by including it as a covariate in the repeated-measure ANOVA. Results suggest that although the country-of-origin effect remained significant, $F(4, 584) = 15.21, p < .001$, the country-of-origin x RWA interaction was not, $F(4, 584) = 0.15, p = .96$. As such, these findings did not support hypothesis 4.

4.3.2.4 Additional Analyses. I was then interested in investigating how these mean scores differed from assigned BARS scores in Chapter 3. To test this, I conducted a series of paired samples t-test to compare whether the BARS scores assigned to applicants in Chapter 3 significantly differed from the scoring/evaluation's applicants received from participants in Chapter 4 - Study 1. Overall, BARS mean scores were higher than evaluation scores received in Chapter 4 – Study 1, however the pattern of scoring was consistent with South African highest and Poland lowest. Table 2 illustrates differences between BARS scores interviewees were assigned by the research team in Chapter 3, and the interview performance evaluation scores received by HR participants in Chapter 4 (Study 1). There was a significant difference in the mean BARS/evaluation scores for South Africa, India, Canada, Spain, and Poland.

Table 4.2 – Mean scores in performance/evaluation across five countries

Country	Present study M(SD)	Confidence Intervals	BARS M(SD)	Mean Difference	T-test values	p	Cohen's d
South Africa	4.23 (.68)	4.12 – 4.34	4.83 (.06)	.60	t(149) = 10.67	.001	1.24
Canada	3.78 (.74)	3.66 – 3.90	4.58 (.06)	.80	t(148) = 12.99	.001	1.52
India	3.78 (.77)	3.66 – 3.91	4.56 (.31)	.78	t(148) = 12.52	.001	1.33
Spain	3.28 (.80)	3.15 – 3.41	3.96 (.12)	.68	t(149) = 10.56	.001	1.19
Poland	2.92 (.72)	2.80 – 3.03	3.87 (.35)	.95	t(149) = 15.19	.001	1.69

For my final analysis, I computed mean difference scores between BARS from Chapter 3 and the evaluation composite scores obtained in the present study. I used these mean difference scores to conduct an additional repeated measure ANOVA with the objective of obtaining a somewhat better indicator of cultural bias where I control for objective performance. This additional repeated measure ANOVA served as a direct test of the amount of bias between countries. Results confirm a statistically significant difference in mean scores across the five countries, Wilks' Lambda value of .84 and $F(4, 144) = 6.879, p = .001$. Mauchly's Test of Sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity had not been violated, $\chi^2(9) = 15.55, p = .077$, and therefore, a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was again not used. Table 2 summarizes mean and mean difference scores. Using the same difference scores, I also tested moderations (i.e. SDO, RWA, ETHNO) to see if the amount of bias was larger/smaller depending on these individual differences. First, I tested the moderating role of ethnocentrism by including it as a covariate in the difference score repeated-measure ANOVA. My results revealed that the country of origin effect was not significant, $F(4, 584) = 2.146, p = .074$, and the country of origin x ethnocentrism interaction was also not significant, $F(4, 584) = .651, p = .619$. As such, these findings also did not support hypothesis 2. Secondly, I tested the moderating role of SDO in the same manner. Results suggest that the country-of-origin effect was not significant, $F(4, 584) =$

1.411, $p = .229$, and the country-of-origin x SDO interaction was also not significant, $F(4, 584) = 0.919, p = .449$. These findings also did not support hypothesis 3. Finally, I tested the moderating role of RWA by including it as a covariate in the repeated-measure difference score ANOVA.

Results reveal that the country-of-origin effect remained not significant, $F(4, 584) = .277, p = .885$, and the country-of-origin x RWA interaction was also not significant, $F(4, 584) = 0.15, p = .96$.

4.3.3 U.S. Study Discussion

This study investigated cultural bias based on country of origin in an AVI context. This research tested propositions 10 and 11 from my theoretical model in Chapter 2. I asked American participants with HR experience to view and evaluate the performance of applicants from five culturally distinct countries. I hypothesized that those applicants that are from countries which are more culturally distant from the American culture (i.e. Spain) would receive lower ratings than those applicants that were deemed culturally similar (i.e. Canada). I also investigated whether individual differences such as self-reported levels of right-wing authoritarianism, social dominance orientation and ethnocentrism moderated the effect of cultural differences on evaluations. Although mean score differences in evaluations across my five countries were significantly different, I found that the way candidates from different countries were rated by hiring professionals in this study was consistent with the more objective BARS performance ratings from Chapter 3. Specifically, South African applicants scored the highest in both BARS scores from Chapter 3 as well as evaluation scores received in Chapter 4 – Study 1. Further, Polish, and Spanish applicants who were lowest on BARS in Chapter 3 were also lowest in Chapter 4 – Study 1. Canadian and Indian interviewees fell in the middle. Concerning my first hypothesis, Canadians scored higher than Spanish and Polish applicants, which is consistent with

my predictions. However, South African applicants scored higher than Canadians which is likely due to their objective superiority in interview performance supported by the BARS scores received in Chapter 3.

Additional analyses including a repeated measures ANOVA of mean difference scores as well as moderation analyses of individual difference measures confirmed these results. Based on these findings, I was unable to determine if the differences/effects I found in the present study were caused by country/cultural differences or by the objective quality of the candidates' responses (i.e. BARS scores assigned in Chapter 3). Therefore, I could not safely conclude whether there were any bias/discrimination. I proceeded to design a second study (Chapter 4 – Study 2) which more rigorously controlled for BARS scores and could thus better determine whether cultural bias affects evaluation performance.

4.4 U.K. based study

My second study investigating selection bias in an AVI context more tightly controls for BARS score differences across the five countries of interviewees and uses a U.K. participant pool. I selected a U.K. sample to explore a potentially different perspective (i.e. British citizens strong cultural exposure to east Indians versus American citizens strong cultural history with African Americans) from my American sample, while maintaining an Anglophone/English-speaking region. In deciding whether to generate different hypotheses for my U.K. sample (from those developed above in Study 1), I reviewed Schwartz's (2006) country-map co-plot. According to Schwartz (2006), the U.K. is higher in autonomy, egalitarianism and slightly higher on harmony than the U.S.A., but still falls within the Anglo-Saxon/English speaking region. Specifically, the U.K. is located closer than the U.S.A. to Canada, but similarly distant from the

remaining four countries in this study (i.e. Spain, Poland, South Africa, India). Therefore, I tested the same hypotheses established in Study 1 for the present study.

4.4.1. U.K. Study Methods

4.4.1.1 Participants. In study 2 I recruited a total of 100 British participants with HR/interview related experience through the Prolific online recruitment platform. The mean age of my participants was 44.5 (SD = 12.05), with 53% female, and 90% Caucasian. My participants had an average of 8.3 years of HR-related experience, 19% had experience using AVI interviews and on average lived 1.1 years abroad (i.e. outside of U.K.). Data cleanup/analysis revealed some missing values, and two univariate outliers (SDO, $z = 3.35$; ETHNO, $z = 4.19$) but no severe item-response related issues. Additionally, all participants passed my three attention checks embedded within my measures. Therefore, I decided to keep all 100 data points. Participants were compensated £10 pounds for successful completion of this study.

4.4.1.1 Procedure. Study 2 replicated the above procedure, measures, and methodologies found in Study 1 apart from substituting different interviewees with more objectively comparable BARS ratings. For study 2 I selected three 'average' performing applicants (i.e. based on their BARS score for questions 1-4) from each country from Chapter 3. Specifically, interviewees included in this scored 14 or 15 on their BARS rating. British participants recruited in this study were otherwise provided with an identical experience as found in Study 1 (i.e. informed consent form, job description, scoring rubric, etc.) and asked to complete the same measures (i.e. SDO, RWA, Ethnocentrism) post video viewing. Similar to those found in Study 1, all three measures demonstrated good to excellent reliability scores ($\alpha = .73 - .93$).

4.4.2 U.K. Study Results

4.4.2.1 Correlations. Table 3 summarizes correlations among study variables for Study 2. As expected, all three of my measures (i.e. RWA, SDO, Ethnocentrism) significantly correlated with each other. Age significantly correlated with HR experience ($r = .53, p < .01$). Although some of the country evaluation scores significantly correlated with one another, many did not, which I observed as a different finding from Study 1. Finally, none of my measures (SDO, RWA, Ethnocentrism) significantly correlated with country evaluation scores.

Table 4.3 – Correlations among study variables

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Age	44.52	12.05									
2	HR Exp	8.31	8.19	.53**								
3	RWA	2.64	.75	-.10	.12							
4	SDO	1.96	.68	.08	.01	.45**						
5	ETHNO	2.32	.39	-.09	-.22**	.45**	.42**					
6	Poland	2.94	.66	-.04	-.18	.08	.02	.04				
7	Spain	2.78	.83	-.13	-.03	.10	-.11	-.01	.45**			
8	India	3.41	.79	-.17	-.11	.11	.01	-.05	.29**	.36**		
9	South Africa	3.55	.74	.01	-.15	-.02	.01	-.02	.08	.07	.20*	
10	Canada	3.57	.71	.04	-.04	.15	-.12	.08	.09	.04	.21*	.04

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. *Poland/Spain/India/South Africa/Canada variables refer to evaluation scores received by interviewee in those respective countries.

4.4.2.2 Hypotheses Testing. I conducted a within-subjects repeated measure ANOVA to test whether mean score differences across my five countries were statistically significant. To do so, I first treated each construct/attribute that interviewees were evaluated on (i.e. intelligence, conscientiousness, mental ability, communication skills, interpersonal skills & leadership) as scale items belonging to a single construct. I tested the alpha reliabilities of these six constructs/attributes for each country to see if I could justify combining them into a single construct for analysis. My alpha reliability scores across all five countries were indeed very

strong ($\alpha = .85 - .92$), which allowed me to combine them as a single composite score (i.e. 1 for each country) for analysis.

I used the same process conducted in Chapter 4 – Study 1 to compute a distance score for each of my five countries from the U.K., which resulted in a slightly different order. From most similar to dissimilar, Canada (1.05), Spain (2.56), Poland (2.61), South Africa (3.07), and India (3.48). There was a statistically significant difference in mean scores across the five countries, Wilks' Lambda value of .524 and $F(4, 96) = 21.816, p = .001$. Mauchly's Test of Sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity had not been violated, $\chi^2(9) = 16.671, p < .054$, and therefore, a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was not used. Table 4.4 summarizes descriptive statistics and mean score differences across the five countries. Mean evaluation scores for Canada ($M = 3.57, SD = .71$), South Africa ($M = 3.55, SD = .74$) and India ($M = 3.41, SD = .79$), were not statistically different from one another. However, these three countries' mean evaluation scores were significantly higher than evaluation scores for both Poland ($M = 2.94, SD = .66$) and Spain ($M = 2.78, SD = .83$). Given these results, I partially accepted my first hypothesis that country level evaluations would decrease as cultural distance from U.K. increases. Canadian applicants were rated significantly more positively than Spanish/Polish applicants, but South African and Indian participants were rated higher than expected.

4.4.2.3 Moderation Analyses. The following section tests the moderating role of my three measures, RWA, SDO and ethnocentrism to determine whether I accepted or rejected hypotheses 2-4. First, I tested the moderating role of ethnocentrism by including it as a covariate in the repeated-measure ANOVA. My results suggested that both the country of origin effect $F(4, 392) = 1.001, p < .407$, and the country of origin x ethnocentrism interaction $F(4, 392)$

= .302, $p < .876$ were not significant. As such, these findings did not support hypothesis 2. Secondly, I tested the moderating role of SDO in the same manner. Results suggested that although the country-of-origin effect remained significant, $F(4, 392) = 3.110$, $p < .015$, the country-of-origin x SDO interaction was not, $F(4, 392) = 0.605$, $p = .659$. These findings did not support hypothesis 3. Finally, I tested the moderating role of RWA by including it as a covariate in the repeated-measure ANOVA. Results suggested that although the country-of-origin effect remained significant, $F(4, 392) = 2.997$, $p < .019$, the country-of-origin x RWA interaction was not, $F(4, 392) = 0.001$, $p = .998$. As such, these findings did not support hypothesis 4.

4.4.2.4 Additional Analyses. In order to offer consistency with Chapter 4 – Study 1, I analyzed mean score differences between country level evaluation scores and the composite BARS score for interviewees from those countries. As illustrated in Table 4.4, Spain and Poland both received mean evaluation scores that were significantly lower than the composite BARS score. Mean difference scores were also significant for India, but not for Canada and South Africa which provides some evidence of some form of bias in evaluations.

Table 4.4 – Mean scores in performance/evaluation across five countries

Country	Present study M(SD)	Confidence Intervals	BARS M(SD)	Mean Difference	T-test values	p	Cohen's d
Canada	3.57 (.71)	3.66 – 3.90	3.75 (.97)	.18	$t(99) = 1.497$.136	.212
South A	3.55 (.74)	3.40 – 3.70	3.67 (.65)	.12	$t(99) = 1.218$.225	.172
India	3.41 (.79)	3.26 – 3.57	3.67 (.65)	.26	$t(99) = 2.541$.012	.359
Poland	2.94 (.66)	2.81 – 3.07	3.67 (1.0)	.73	$t(99) = 6.092$.001	.862
Spain	2.78 (.83)	2.62 – 2.95	3.58 (.67)	.80	$t(99) = 7.499$.001	1.06

4.4.3 U.K. Study Discussion

I conducted a second study investigating selection bias based on country of origin in an AVI context. This research tested propositions 10 and 11 from my theoretical model in Chapter 2. My second study more rigorously controlled for the performance of interviewees (i.e. BARS) across the five countries and substituted American for British participants as ‘evaluators’. I found significant differences in mean scores across my five-country sample, surprisingly, with similar patterns to those found in Study 1. For example, mean evaluation scores for Canadian, South African, and Indian interviewees were significantly higher than those evaluation scores assigned to Spanish and Polish interviewees in both studies. Despite controlling more rigorously for BARS scores in Study 2, this consistency in my findings (i.e. low Spanish/Polish evaluations) suggests that cultural factors may have influenced how participants evaluated interviewees in a biased manner. Therefore, I did find partial support for proposition 10 from my theoretical model that cultural distance may be associated with interview evaluations. However, Schwartz’s (2006) cultural dimensions framework did not support my findings and offers little insight as to why such differences in mean evaluation scores were found. For example, according to Schwartz’s (2006) co-plot map, South Africa and India are ‘culturally’ more distant than Spain and Poland, from the U.K. (and U.S.) on hierarchy and embeddedness, which should have led to different findings from those found in this research.

This was further confirmed by the composite cultural distance scores which found countries most similar to the U.K to be Canada followed by Spain, Poland, South African, and finally India. On the other hand, Canada being the most ‘culturally’ similar to the U.K. (and U.S.) amongst the five countries, did receive high evaluation scores across both studies, providing partial support for my first hypothesis. Hence there are likely other factors at play, and I offer the following explanation(s) for the results found in this study. First, I argue that the

connected cultural history of the three countries with British roots (i.e. Canada, South Africa, India) may have received higher scores than Poland and Spain due to cultural similarities, that go above and beyond differences in levels of embeddedness and/or hierarchy. This idea is particularly relevant in an interview context where cultural factors have been found to influence applicant behaviors (Sandal et al. 2014), and interviewer preferences for culturally similar behaviors (Derous, 2017; Konig et al. 2011). That is, and in accordance with my first hypothesis, I do believe that cultural similarities/dissimilarities influence applicant evaluations in an interview context, but the past British colonial history is more relevant in influencing evaluation scores than are differences/similarities in Schwartz's (2006) cultural dimensions. I therefore suggest that the shared history across these three nations represents a potential boundary condition on the effect of culture.

Secondly, it is highly possible that language barriers/differences (i.e., English as first/national language vs. not) influenced evaluation scores assigned to interviewees. For example, research has shown that native versus non-native accents can influence hiring discrimination bias (Purkiss et al., 2006). Accents can also influence perceptions regarding intelligence, kindness, social status, economic class and national origin (Lippi-Green, 1997; Nesdale & Rooney, 1990). Canada, India, and South Africa all have English as an official working language within their respective countries whereas Poland and Spain do not. Although interviewee accents existed and were likely perceived/noticed by all participants (except the U.S. – Canada dynamic) in both studies, the British/English root accents have a common ancestor that creates familiarity and distinguishes them from the Polish/Spanish accents and general fluency. However, in carefully selecting participants for this study, English language proficiency was high and similar for all candidates. Additionally, I noticed that Indian applicants' accent was

noticeably stronger (i.e. at times more difficult to comprehend) than were accents observed from Polish and Spanish applicants. For this reason, I do not believe that language proficiency was primarily responsible for the lower evaluations assigned to Polish and Spanish applicants.

4.4. General Discussion

Overall, I conducted two empirical studies in Chapter 4 investigating selection bias in an AVI context. I tested propositions 10 and 11 from my theoretical model in Chapter 2. The first study invited American participants to assign evaluation scores to applicants from five culturally distinct countries, whereas in the second study I asked British participants to act as evaluators. Despite having more rigorously controlled for applicant BARS scores in the second study, I found consistent selection bias against Polish and Spanish participants. This provided partial support for proposition 10 in my theoretical model. I also explored the impact of individual differences such as social dominance orientation, right-wing authoritarianism and ethnocentrism have on evaluation scores assigned to interviewees from various countries. However, I was surprised to find that none of these moderators were significant in influencing how evaluations were assigned. In this manner, I failed to find support for proposition 11 of my theoretical model in Chapter 2. One possible explanation is the low mean scores for each of my measures which created insufficient variance for any interaction effects to be detected. Social desirability may also have contributed to lower item responses for my individual differences' measures. Especially with 'seasoned' participants such as those found within online recruitment platforms (i.e. Prolific) where the overall construct (i.e. ethnocentrism, social dominance orientation) that is being measured could be easier to detect than for those participants who are less experienced/exposed to research surveys. Finally, and within the context of current global affairs, there is a 'Black lives matter' movement which may have increased the

sensitivity/awareness of participants to item measures that capture preferences for in-group/majority members versus out-group/minority members. I note that all South African interviewees in the present study were black, and across both studies this group received amongst the highest ratings.

Unlike previous research (i.e. Proch, 2013; Sibley & Duckitt, 2008), I did not find RWA and SDO to be ‘powerful’ predictors of prejudice. I also did not find support for findings in previous research (i.e. Neuliep et al., 2005) that levels of ethnocentrism influenced how American evaluators evaluated minorities. Although Veit and Thijsen (2019) found Western European countries discriminated against foreign-born minorities of Middle Eastern and African origin, I only found evidence for discrimination against Spanish and Polish (i.e. Caucasian European) applicants.

4.4.1 Practical Implications.

I believe that this research has practical implications for cross-cultural hiring, particularly in an AVI context. For example, some research has found that instructions by superiors to use legitimate performance criteria to evaluate job candidates can reduce biases (Umphress et al., 2008). Organizations should also develop hiring practices that try to recognize the value in having a variety of applicants from different cultural backgrounds. I acknowledge that efforts to change any corporate culture to be more inclusive with respect to hiring practices are likely to be met with resistance at first, but research has demonstrated success in training and moulding employees to be aligned with corporate/management cultural identity (Almeida et al., 2015). If an organization determines that hiring biases do in fact exist, it may be relevant for them to include diversity management training into their HR practices and ensure that such training incorporates country of origin and language as diversity elements.

4.4.2 Limitations

The greatest limitation from Study 1 is my varying / unequal BARS scores across applicants and countries. Although I made intentional efforts to select the best three applicants from each country, according to my BARS scores from Study 1, these applicants were not equal in performance. To compensate for this limitation, I launched a second study controlling for interviewee performance but included different applicants making generalizations/comparisons across Study 1 and Study 2 more difficult. There is also the limitation of using difference scores (see Edwards, 2001), to analyze and make judgments concerning cross-cultural differences. I also acknowledge the limitations of using an experimental design where mock interviews are not the same as real job interviews. On this matter, both applicants and interviewers may act differently in a real-life setting. And finally, the AVI format I selected likely differs from in-person interviews and given my insignificant findings for bias moderators, could have decreased some of the biases.

4.4.3 Future Directions

I have three recommendations for future research. First, future studies should include additional sample(s) of applicants from countries beyond the five explored in this study. Equally valuable would be to alternate/manipulate the evaluators' country of origin to see if similar or different findings emerge. Second, I encourage exploring the use of different cultural frameworks in developing and testing hypotheses related to how culture predicts behavior in an interview setting (i.e. Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004). And finally, given that I found no moderating effect using my three measures of individual differences, I encourage future research to explore other measures of bias suitable for an interview context such as Cultural Tolerance

scale (Gasser & Tan, 1999), Intercultural Willingness to Communicate scale (Kassing, 1997) or Nationalism/Patriotism scale (Kosterman & Feshbach, 1989).

4.4.4 Conclusion

This is the first empirical study that investigates any form of cultural biases in an AVI context. In two separate studies, I specifically explored how American and then British participants assigned performance evaluations to interviewees from five different cultures. I also collected data on three measures of individual differences that could potentially moderate these evaluations. In both studies, I found those interviewees from countries with British history (i.e. India, South Africa, Canada) received higher evaluations than did those interviewees from Poland and Spain. Interestingly, none of my individual difference measures were significant in moderating how evaluations were attributed. I believe that my findings have particular significance for HR departments of companies engaged in online recruitment. Similar-to-me bias, with respect to British history may have led to unintentional biases against Polish and Spanish interviewees.

5.0 General Discussion

This thesis explored how culture impacts behavioral preferences in an interview setting and how these behaviors are perceived by hiring managers of various cultures and subsequently influence hiring decisions. Specifically, I proposed a CCIM model for understanding how cultural differences influence applicant IM use and interviewer preferences for such use in an interview context. For my model, I drew upon Schwartz's (2006) cultural framework / dimensions to develop eleven propositions that predict how cultural values translate into preferred IM tactics for both applicants and interviewers. I then proceeded to test these propositions over the course of two empirical studies within an AVI context. Conducting research within an AVI context has practical relevance as a selection tool that has been growing in popularity and recently necessary during social distancing and the COVID pandemic.

In my first empirical study, interviewees/participants from Canada, India, South Africa, Poland, and Spain were invited to participate in a mock interview via AVI and self-report their IM use. I found that Indian applicants engaged in the highest levels of honest-self promotion across my sample, but self-focused IM use was nearly identical in the remaining four countries. Interestingly, self-focused IM mean scores were the highest amongst all IM measures suggesting a consistent cross-cultural understanding in the importance to self-promote in an interview context. I found evidence to support that honest self-promotion behaviors positively predicted interview performance. Additionally, I found evidence to support that honestly self-promoting oneself positively impacts interview performance whereas doing so deceptively may lead to negative evaluations. My findings were consistent with previous FTF literature investigating the relationships between self-promotion and interview performance (Ellis et al., 2002; Barrick et al., 2009; Bourdage et al., 2018). Although I predicted that self-focused IM would be the strongest

predictor of interview performance, it appears that in the cases of Canada and South Africa, the absence of deceptive IM tactics led to higher evaluation scores. The deceptive side of self-promotion, namely slight image creation and extensive image creation were both found to negatively impact interview performance in an AVI context. My cross-cultural mean score differences for slight and extensive image creation demonstrated inconsistent patterns with previous cross-cultural IM research (Fell et al., 2016). Countries such as India and South Africa with high hierarchy (power distance) and embeddedness (in-group collectivism) should have scored highest in slight/extensive image creation, however it was Spain and Poland who self-reported the highest levels in these measures.

My study did not find evidence to support that ingratiation use positively impacts interview performance in an AVI context. This finding is unlike previous research examining other-focused IM use in FTF interviews (Barrick et al., 2009; Levashina et al., 2014; Bourdage et al., 2018), where a positive relationship has frequently found support. Despite self-reporting moderate levels of ingratiation, my participants' use of ingratiation could have been ineffective with respect to impacting interview performance because applicants could not directly ingratiate the interviewer, and/or my BARS did not incorporate criteria to reward these behaviors. These findings support Basch et al.'s (2020) investigation of social presence and intentions to use IM in interviews across various media forms (i.e. AVIs, teleconference) where participants missing physical presence of one's conversation partner seemed to represent a barrier for applicants to effectively use other-focused IM in AVIs. Apart from India, I did not find any significant differences in ingratiation use (both honest/deceptive) across my sample.

My deceptive IM measures had lower mean scores but higher alpha reliabilities than my honest IM measures supporting Melchers et al.'s (2020) proposition that faking is less common

than honest IM (for AVI context). I also found support for the notion that more structured interview formats (i.e. AVIs) should reduce applicants' opportunity to fake (Levashina & Campion, 2006; Roulin et al., 2016). I observed that deceptive image protection negatively correlated with interview performance but believe this negative relationship reflects the evaluation criteria designed in my BARS.

My second empirical study investigated selection bias based on country of origin in an AVI context. I recruited American and British participants with HR-hiring experience to view and evaluate a series of videos / applicants from five sampled countries collected in Study 1. I found significant differences in mean scores across my five-country sample, in that scores for Canadian, South African, and Indian interviewees were significantly higher than those evaluation scores assigned to Spanish and Polish interviewees. My findings (i.e. low Spanish/Polish evaluations) suggest that cultural factors may have influenced how participants evaluated interviewees in a biased manner. In sum, I only found evidence for discrimination against Spanish and Polish (i.e. Caucasian European) applicants.

I also explored the impact that individual differences such as social dominance orientation, right-wing authoritarianism and ethnocentrism have on evaluation scores assigned to interviewees from various countries. Unlike previous research (i.e. Proch, 2013; Sibley & Duckitt, 2008; Neuliep et al., 2005) I was surprised to find that none of these moderators were significant in influencing how evaluations were assigned. I therefore failed to find support for proposition 11 of my theoretical model in Chapter 2 and suggest that future research use alternative measures of individual differences and/or participants from non-recruitment platforms to see if any changes emerge.

5.1 Exploring Other Cultural Frameworks

In this thesis I found a lack of support for Schwartz's (2006) cultural dimensions based on my findings across both empirical studies. I was therefore curious to explore how other renowned cross-cultural frameworks could potentially assist/offer insights into my findings. Specifically, I explored Hofstede (1980) and GLOBE (House et al., 2004). Table 5.1 compiles country scores with all cultural dimensions for Hofstede (1980), GLOBE (House et al., 2004) and Schwartz's (2008) frameworks. I first observed different dimensions are used for each framework but also commonalities exist. For example, power distance and individualism (found

Table 5.1 – Cultural framework comparison of country scores for various dimensions

		U.K.	USA	Canada	India	Poland	Spain	S. A.
GLOBE*	Performance Orientation	4.08	4.49	4.49	4.25	3.89	4.01	4.66
	Assertiveness	4.15	4.55	4.05	3.73	4.06	4.42	4.36
	Future Orientation	4.28	4.15	4.44	4.19	3.11	3.51	4.64
	Humane Orientation	3.72	4.17	4.49	4.57	3.61	3.32	4.34
	Institutional collectivism	4.27	4.20	4.38	4.38	4.53	3.85	4.39
	In-group collectivism	4.08	4.25	4.26	5.92	5.52	5.45	5.09
	Gender egalitarianism	3.67	3.34	3.70	2.90	4.02	3.01	3.66
	Power distance	5.15	4.88	4.82	5.47	5.10	5.52	4.11
	Uncertainty Avoidance	4.65	4.15	4.58	4.15	3.62	3.97	4.59
Hofstede	Power distance	35	40	39	77	68	57	49
	Individualism	89	91	80	48	60	51	65
	Masculinity	66	62	52	56	64	42	63
	Uncertainty Avoidance	35	46	48	40	93	86	49
	Long Term Orientation	51	26	36	51	38	48	34
	Indulgence	69	68	68	26	29	44	63
Schwartz	Harmony	3.91	3.46	3.83	3.92	3.86	4.47	3.86
	Embeddedness	3.34	3.67	3.46	3.97	3.86	3.31	4.03
	Hierarchy	2.33	2.37	2.09	3.05	2.51	1.84	2.59
	Mastery	4.01	4.09	4.12	4.28	3.84	3.80	3.89
	Affective autonomy	4.26	3.87	4.00	3.48	3.32	3.67	3.48
	Intellectual autonomy	4.62	4.19	4.50	4.02	4.31	4.99	3.85
	Egalitarianism	4.92	4.68	4.80	4.45	4.48	5.23	4.52

*GLOBE practices scores used

within Hofstede & GLOBE), are similar (if not identical) to hierarchy and autonomy within Schwartz's (2006) framework. Additionally, mastery and harmony resemble descriptions for

performance orientation, and human orientation, respectively. Masculinity/Gender egalitarianism as well as future orientation/long-term orientation also seem to overlap. Overall, I acknowledge overlapping similarities and differences across the three frameworks. To assess whether an alternative framework would better align/explain my empirical findings, I computed a composite ‘distance’ score similar to the process used in Chapter 4. That is, I calculated, for example, each country dimension score difference from the U.S., and then added those difference scores to arrive at a single composite difference score. Using Hofstede’s (1980) scores, I ended with the following order with respect to most similar to dissimilar to U.S.: Canada, South Africa and then nearly identical scores for the remaining three countries. However, with the same process applied to the U.K. I ended up with Canada, South Africa, India, Spain and finally Poland. These results, using the Hofstede (1980) framework to calculate distance scores of my five sampled countries from the U.K., almost perfectly (alternate Poland with Spain) supports my findings in Chapter 4 – Study 2. Interestingly, when calculating GLOBE ‘practice’ distance scores from the U.S., I ended up with the same ordering (Canada, South Africa, India, Spain, and Poland), however GLOBE ‘practice’ distance scores from the U.K. places India as the furthest (i.e. Canada, South Africa, Poland, Spain, India).

Overall, my theoretical model did not effectively predict how cultural values influence IM behavior in an interview context. This suggests that the model should be re-worked in certain areas to better support future research. Especially if meaningful predictions are to be achieved in an AVI context. I suggest the following revisions to both IM content and cultural value framework within the propositions. Originally, across propositions 1, 4, 7, I predicted that high autonomy, mastery and hierarchy values would be positively associated with self-focused IM. However, given that all countries in this sample self reported high levels of self-focused IM (i.e.

regardless of cultural differences), the theoretical model may need to be more specific, about the type of self-focused IM employed (i.e. honest or deceptive). Honest and Deceptive IM are different approaches to self-promoting that can be encouraged (or not) based on societal values. In highly competitive (high hierarchy/embeddedness) cultures (i.e. India/Korea) it may be advantageous to self-promote honestly, but less so deceptively, for if one were to be caught lying, the ‘collective’ penalty, shame, and loss of honour (i.e. losing face; see Kim & Nam, 1998) are serious deterrents. Comparatively, cultures high on autonomy/egalitarianism value individual creativity (Schwartz, 2006) and thus stating to more proficient than one really is has less consequences and may even be considered more culturally acceptable. This approach to refining self-focused predictions is similar to the other-focused IM propositions which distinguished between flattery and opinion conformity. It is also worth noting that the propositions in my theoretical model do not distinguish between values and practices (see House et al., 2004). Therefore, although the differences in IM tactics reported across my five-sample country were not supported by my theoretical model, but caution if the same failure to support would be found in a real-life context measuring ‘actual’ behaviors. For example, the Indian applicants self-reported low levels of deceptive IM (contrary to my model’s predictions) but they may have actually engaged in a substantial amount of lying (i.e. faking/deception) to enhance their self-presentation.

Next, with respect to proposition 10 regarding cultural distance and evaluations, I suggest replacing Schwartz’s (2006) framework with that of GLOBE’s (House et al., 2004). In table 5.1 above, I demonstrated that GLOBE’s (House et al., 2004) framework with respect to distance scores better supports the actual findings within my empirical studies in Chapter 4. However, employing such a substantial change would also require consideration (or re-evaluation) of

propositions 1-9. I believe this to be worth the effort, but instead of navigating through the complexity of all nine dimensions within the GLOBE (House et al., 2004) framework, I suggest using only those that have the greatest impact/highest relevance to interview behavior(s). For example, Fell et al. (2016) found that with respect to faking behavior in interviews, only four of GLOBE's dimensions were significant predictors. In-group collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and gender egalitarianism (similar to the original 4 dimensions of Hofstede, 1980) would replace Schwartz's (2006) dimensions and new predictions could be formulated.

5.2 Next Steps in CCIM Research

Based on the lack of fit between Schwartz's (2006) cultural dimensions and my empirical findings from Chapters 3 and 4, and the greater fit between Hofstede (1980) / GLOBE (House et al., 2004) frameworks, I have several suggestions for future cross-cultural research in interviews. First, my theoretical model in Chapter 2 could be reworked to substitute Schwartz's (2006) dimensions for one of these alternative frameworks (Hofstede/GLOBE) given the stronger empirical support received. I originally selected Schwartz's (2006) framework over alternative options due to its relative simplicity but using another framework such as GLOBE (House et al., 2004) with nine cultural dimensions may provide a more comprehensive approach to understanding/predicting cultural differences.

It would also be worth exploring the relative 'weighting' of influence each dimension has towards predicting IM behaviors in an interview context. For example, differences stemming from Masculinity/Gender egalitarianism and Future/long-term orientation may be less predictive of cultural differences in interview-related behaviors than would be differences in assertiveness,

power distance. For example, the high-stakes competitiveness of the interview context may encourage less “future-oriented behaviors such as delaying gratification” (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004) and more immediate self-promoting behaviors across all candidates regardless of cultural values. In the same vein, however the “collective minimizes gender inequality” may be less salient in influencing behaviors on an individual level.

Further, in the present study, I found that Indian applicants self-promoted the most among my applicants and received high evaluation scores. Indian culture is associated with high levels of assertiveness, power distance which may have contributed to self-promotion behaviors more than other cultural characteristics. Future work could explore statistically how much/which cultural factors predict which IM behaviors. Investigating such matters could be accomplished by including measures of cultural values (i.e. individualism/collectivism: Sivadas et al., 2008) alongside IM measures. This would provide clarity in determining which cultural dimensions are most relevant to influencing behaviors within an interview context.

Future research should explore additional countries beyond the five covered here. Selecting countries with cultural variance is also encouraged to maximize diversity. A research design that alternates the ‘interviewer’s’ country of origin could also lead to interesting findings. For example, in Chapter 4, in addition to U.S. and British evaluators, data from Spanish, Polish, Indian, Canadian, and South African evaluators would provide a more holistic picture on cross-cultural behavioral preferences. However, the time and cost of a such a design were beyond the scope of this thesis. Additionally, I hope to see additional IM research in an AVI context that includes both mono and cross-cultural studies. Future cross-cultural research could explore additional countries that substantially differ from one another in terms of cultural values to determine whether differences in AVI exist. My choice of five countries was limited to

participant availability across online recruitment platforms (i.e. Prolific, Respondent) which were helpful in overcoming COVID-19 related challenges. I also encourage future AVI research to explore design features that could optimally promote other-focused IM tactics. Having longer video introductions that include several organizational culture elements, as well as divulging personal information of the interviewer are examples of designs that could potentially encourage additional other-focused IM. Finally, as mentioned above, I suggest that future cross-cultural IM research include measures that are ‘tailored’ to an AVI context, with both value (i.e. intentions) and practice (i.e. retrospectively self-reporting actual behaviors) items for similar constructs to further understand what if any differences exist.

One of the limitations for the research design of Chapter 4 concerns the online recruitment platform used to gather participants. These participants most likely participate frequently in online surveys and are therefore ‘seasoned’ survey responders. The more surveys completed means it becomes easier to ‘detect’ the underlying construct, and, if this construct is measuring negative traits (i.e. SDO, RWA, Ethnocentrism) can encourage item responses reflecting social desirability. I therefore encourage future research to access organizational samples.

Another direction for future research would be to develop and evaluate the effectiveness of interview training programs that focus on IM behaviors. For example, CCIM behaviors identified as being ‘effective’ and ‘desirable’ by western recruiters could potentially be modeled and developed through training sessions. Related to the present research, Polish and Spanish applicants who received the lowest evaluation scores in Chapter 4 could be invited to CCIM training programs with an experimental control group design that measures pre-post evaluation scores. It would be interesting to see if CCIM tactics are a ‘coachable’ skill that could be applied,

for example, to immigration agencies that assist foreigners with their job seeking efforts. Some research already indicates a positive relationship between interview coaching and performance (Maurer et al., 2001, 2008; Tross & Maurer, 2008). An additional level would be to add a cross-cultural element. Such research could have relevant implications for government policy and corporate efforts aimed at assisting immigrant applicants with interview effectiveness and cultural acclimatization. Additionally, CCIM tactics that are successfully transferrable to an interview context are likely to be equally useful in a workplace context, extending the value of such training efforts.

On the organizational side, future research should also explore the effectiveness of training interviewers/raters who are engaged in systematic selection biases (knowingly or unknowingly). Similar to the approach used in this thesis, internal applied research that uses otherwise equivalent candidates from various nationalities to explore whether systematic selection biases exist within an HR department could be useful. If such biases are surfaced, then training programs that focus on ‘awareness’ in addition to educating how different behaviors or those that do not meet expectations do not necessarily equate with lower performing candidates could be used to foster a culture of hiring equality. A shift in focus from managing diversified skills to managing diverse values (Farndale et al., 2015) is often required to achieve success in overcoming any employee resistance to management efforts aimed at moulding employees to be more aligned with a culturally inclusive corporate identity (Almeida et al., 2015).

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7.0 Appendices

Appendix A

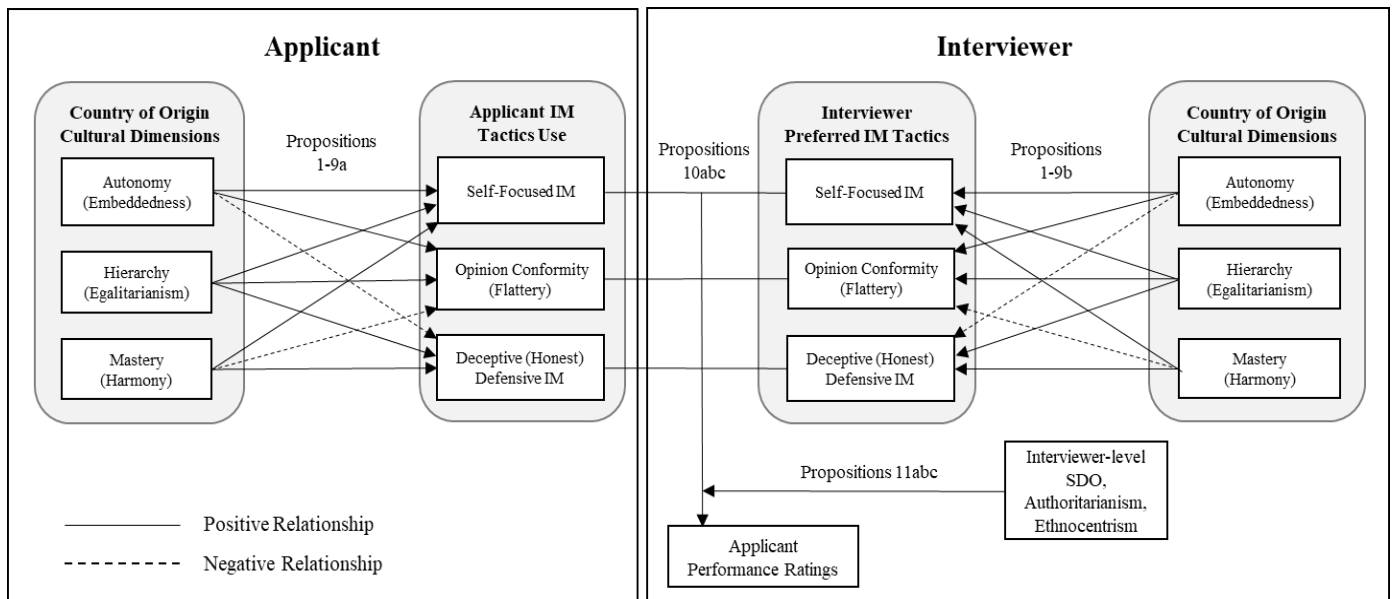


Figure 2.1 Cross-cultural impression management model for the interview context

Appendix B

Integrating Schwartz dimension with model propositions to formulate Hypotheses

Country	Schwartz dimension	Co-plot Level on dimension	Relevant model Proposition	Predicted IM behavior			Overall expected behavior
				Self-focused	Other-focused ingratiation	Honest/ Deceptive Defensive	
Spain	Autonomy Egalitarianism Harmony	High High High	1a, 4a, 7a 2a, 5a, 8a 3a, 6a, 9a	- - -	High High Low	Honest Honest Honest	Low self focused, high ingratiation, honest defensive
Canada	Autonomy Egalitarianism Harmony	High High Low	1a, 4a, 7a 2a, 5a, 8a 3a, 6a, 9a	- - +	High High High	Honest Honest Deceptive	Mod self focused, high ingratiation, honest defensive
Poland	Autonomy Egalitarianism Harmony	Med Med Med	1a, 4a, 7a 2a, 5a, 8a 3a, 6a, 9a	NP NP NP	NP NP NP	NP NP NP	*No preference for all behaviors
South Africa	Autonomy Egalitarianism Harmony	Low Low Med	1a, 4a, 7a 2a, 5a, 8a 3a, 6a, 9a	+ + NP	Low Low NP	Deceptive Deceptive NP	Mod self focused, low ingratiation, deceptive defensive
India	Autonomy Egalitarianism Harmony	Low Low Low	1a, 4a, 7a 2a, 5a, 8a 3a, 6a, 9a	+ + +	Low Low High	Deceptive Deceptive Deceptive	Strong self-focused, low ingratiation, deceptive defensive

Appendix C

Short Honest Interview Impression Management (HIIM-S) scale

Honest IM – Self-promotion	
HSPROM11	I made sure to let the interviewer know about my job credentials
HSPROM3	I made sure the interviewer was aware of my skills and abilities
HSPROM5	I let the interviewer know how my qualifications were well-suited for the position
HSPROM9	I brought up my past work experience to make the interviewer aware of my competence
Honest IM – Ingratiation	
HINGRT3	I tried to find out the values or opinions the interviewer and I shared in common, and was vocal about these
HINGRT5	I found out about values and goals that I shared with the organization, and made sure to emphasize them
HINGRT9	When the interviewer expressed views that I shared, I focused on incorporating these into my answers
HINGRT12	I discussed interests I shared in common with the interviewer
Honest IM – Defensive	
HDEFIM1	I gave the interviewer an honest account of why I lacked control over past negative events that came up during the interview
HDEFIM2	I recounted to the interviewer steps I had taken to prevent the recurrence of negative events or occurrences in my past
HDEFIM5	I shared my past regrets about how I handled certain situations, and how I would improve in the future
HDEFIM8	I gave reasons why I felt I benefited positively from a negative event I was responsible for
Deceptive IM – Slight Image Creation	
ICEMB4	I exaggerated my responsibilities on my previous jobs
ICTAI7	I distorted my answers based on the comments or reactions of the interviewer
ICTAI8	I distorted my answers to emphasize what the interviewer was looking for
ICFIT14	I inflated the fit between my values and goals and the values and goals of the organization
Deceptive IM – Extensive Image Creation	
ICCON18	I told fictional stories prepared in advance of the interview to best present my credentials
ICCON20	I made up stories about my work experiences that were well developed and logical
ICINV31	I invented some work situations or accomplishments that did not really occur
ICBOR34	When I did not have a good answer, I borrowed work experiences of other people and made them sound like my own
Deceptive IM – Ingratiation	

INCON55	I tried to find out the interviewer's views and incorporate them in my answers as my own
INCON56	I tried to express the same opinions and attitudes as the interviewer
INCON57	I tried to appear similar to the interviewer in terms of values, attitudes, or beliefs
INENH64	I complimented the organization on something, however insignificant it may actually be to me
Deceptive IM – Image Protection	
IPOMI42	When asked directly, I did not mention my true reason for quitting previous jobs
IPMAS46	When asked directly, I did not mention some problems I had in past jobs
IPMAS49	I covered up some "skeletons in my closet"
IPDIS51	I clearly separated myself from my past work experiences that would reflect poorly on me.

Appendix D

Interview Questions

1. One of the requirements of this position is having a strong interest in sales and customer service. Can you tell me how you demonstrated these interests in the past?
2. How does HSBC's culture of being a diverse and global team fit with your values? Can you tell me a situation where you demonstrated these values?
3. Tell me about a school or work situation where you made a memorable mistake and explain how did you handle it?
4. Tell me about a time when you had to go above and beyond the call of duty in order to get a job done?
5. We consider our organizational culture to be responsible and risk-averse, instilling trust in our clients. Can you provide an example of how these values fit with yours?
6. Describe a situation in which you were able to successfully convince someone or several people to see things your way or to do some thing you wanted them to do?
7. Can you describe a situation where you received a negative evaluation from your supervisor at work or in school? What was the reason for the evaluation, and how did you handle it?
9. Can you tell me about a time when you had to keep a positive attitude when facing a difficult situation?

Appendix E

Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale (BARS)

Competency assessed:	Sales/Customer Service: The ability to influence customers and ensure that they have a decent experience interacting with the organization.				
Question type:	Past-behavioural				
Question:	1. One of the requirements of this position is having a strong interest in sales and customer service. Can you tell me how you demonstrated these interests in the past?				
Scoring scale:	1	2	3	4	5
SCORING GUIDE:					
1	3			5	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Examples provided are unrelated or loosely related to customer service/sales, or - A lack of interest in sales and customer service is demonstrated. - The candidate does not demonstrate knowledge and skills that are related to customer service and sales. - The candidate's example does not demonstrate their sales and customer service skills in a work-related setting (e.g. a personal example outside of work that could not be applied in a work-related setting, such as at home with family or friends). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Examples provided are somewhat/adequately related to customer service and sales. They might be vague or general at times. - Some interest in customer service and sales is demonstrated. - Candidate has some knowledge and skills that are related to customer service and sales. - The candidate's example does not directly demonstrate their sales and customer services skills at work (e.g. may use a personal example outside of work), but it could still be applied in a work-related setting, such as assisting a friend or relative to find a product that meets a need. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Examples provided are strongly related to customer service and sales, or, - The candidate is able to sophisticatedly connect their experience with sales and customer service. - A strong interest and enthusiasm in sales and customer service is demonstrated. - The candidate understands and demonstrates the necessary skills and knowledge that it takes to become a role model in sales and customer service (e.g., provides an example of a successful sales experience). - The candidate's example demonstrates their sales and customer services skills in a work-related setting (e.g., store, retail, call center). 	

Competency assessed:	Diversity and Global Mindset: The ability to work with people from different backgrounds and learn from it.				
Question type:	Past-behavioural				
Question:	2. How does HSBC's culture of being a diverse and global team fit with your values? Can you tell me a situation where you demonstrated these values?				
Scoring scale:	1	2	3	4	5
SCORING GUIDE:					
1	3			5	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No situation is described, and the candidate's example does not align his/her values/behaviors with global mindset values / behaviors. This includes responses: - A) simply list their experience without explaining what they have learned and or the skills they demonstrated in terms of diversity and global mindset, or, - B) not talk about a situation where they need to work with people from different backgrounds - C) may state something that is potentially discriminatory and does not demonstrate diversity or global values. - D) that do not demonstrate their skills and values in handling diversity in a work-related setting (e.g. may use a personal example that could not be applied at work, such as having a friend from different background). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A situation is somewhat clearly described, and the candidate's example somewhat aligns his/her values/behaviors with global mindset values / behaviors. Examples might include a combination of desired behaviors described in band 5 with undesired behaviors in band 1. (score 2 or 4, if response better matches 1 or 5, respectively). Further guidelines include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - people who list 3+ relevant good elements but 0 bad = 5 - 3+ good elements and 1 bad = 4 - 2 max. good elements and 1-2 bad = 3 - 1 max. good element and 1-2 bad elements = 2 - Only bad elements = 1 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A situation is clearly described, and the candidate's example strongly aligns his/her values / behaviors with global mindset values / behaviors. This includes responses: - A) describe skills used to handle diversity or learnings from the situation in terms of diversity and global mindset (e.g. working abroad for several years help them to develop critical communication skills that consider cultural sensitivity and language barriers) - B) have experience working abroad, and/or with people from different backgrounds at work (e.g. people with different nationalities or disabilities). - C) the situation and strategies described by the candidate could be applied to various situations where working in a diverse setting is required. - D) the candidate's example demonstrates their skills and values in handling diversity in a work-related setting.
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Competency assessed:	Resilience/humility/honesty: The ability to demonstrate personal growth/learning from past failures.				
Question type:	Past-behavioural				
Question:	3. Tell me about a school or work situation where you made a memorable mistake and explain how you handled it?				
Scoring scale:	1	2	3	4	5
SCORING GUIDE:					
1	3			5	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No situation is described, and/or actions do not demonstrate personal growth / learning. Examples might include: - A) suggesting that there is nothing they can do so they will just move on - B) not acknowledging their mistakes and holding themselves accountable (e.g. blaming others or external factors) - C) Avoiding dealing with people who were affected 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A situation is adequately described and somewhat demonstrates growth / learning. Examples might include a combination of desired behaviors described in band 5 with undesired behaviors in band 1. (score 2 or 4, if response better matches 1 or 5, respectively) - The candidate's example demonstrates their resilience/humility/honesty 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A situation is clearly described and strongly demonstrates growth / learning. Actions may include: - A) critically reflecting upon mistake, trying to identify causes and solutions - B) acknowledging the mistake and taking responsibility for it - C) communicating to people who were affected (or expressed desire to do so) 			

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - D) not developing any strategies or plans to avoid the same mistake in the future. - The candidate's example is not related to an academic or work setting 	<p>aptitude in an academic- or work-related setting. Further guidelines include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - people who list 3+ relevant good elements but 0 bad = 5 - 3+ good elements and 1 bad = 4 - 2 max. good elements and 1-2 bad = 3 - 1 max. good element and 1-2 bad elements = 2 - Only bad elements = 1 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - D) developing strategies to avoid potentially similar problems in the future. - The candidate's example demonstrates their resilience/humility/honesty aptitude in an academic- or work-related setting and their actions/steps could be used and modelled in different situations.
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Competency assessed:	Initiative: One's ability to go above and beyond what is expected of them				
Question type:	Past-behavioural				
Question:	4. Tell me about a time when you had to go above and beyond the call of duty in order to get a job done?				
Scoring scale:	1	2	3	4	5
SCORING GUIDE:					
1	3			5	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The situation is not described or does not involve the need for initiative - Actions taken by the candidate does not demonstrate how they go above and beyond what is expected of them (e.g., engage in basic job requirements, do the tasks assigned to them). - Or the candidate took initiative, but the example does not demonstrate initiative in a work-related setting (e.g. a personal example outside of work) that could not be applied in a work-related setting (e.g., exercising extra hard at the gym). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The situation is somewhat clear and involves some need for initiative. - Actions taken by the candidate demonstrate some initiative. However, they might be vaguely described, are minimal, or are unnecessary given the situation (e.g., stayed a few minutes after hours to finish a task). - Or the candidate's example does not directly demonstrate initiative at work (e.g. a personal example outside of work), but it could still be applied in a work-related setting, such as offering to help a neighbor with chores. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The situation is clearly described and involves the need for initiative. - Actions taken by the candidate clearly demonstrates that they go above and beyond what is expected of them (e.g., helping a coworker in need, putting several extra work hours to finish a project, engaging in activities out of work hours to help their company). - The candidate's example demonstrates initiative in a work-related setting or with work-related outcomes. 	

Competency assessed:	Responsible and Risk-Averse values: The ability to assess risks, follow safe/conservative and practical solutions.				
Question type:	Past-behavioural				
Question:	5. HSBC's values are conservative and risk averse instilling trust in our clients. Can you provide an example of when you demonstrated these values in the past?				
Scoring scale:	1	2	3	4	5
SCORING GUIDE:					

1	3	5
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No situation is described, and the candidate does not align his/her values/behaviors with risk averse values/behaviors. Examples may include: - A) Not evaluating risks carefully and thoroughly. - B) Suggesting solutions that are not practical and contain high, unjustified risks. - C) Withholding information pertaining to risks when dealing with stakeholders. - D) Does not instill trust in stakeholders and persuades them based on limited evidence. - E) The candidate's example does not demonstrate risk-averse values in a work-related setting. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The situation is adequately described, and the candidate somewhat aligns his/her values/behaviors with risk averse values/behaviors. Examples might include a combination of desired behaviors described in band 5 with undesired behaviors in band 1. (score 2 or 4, if response better matches 1 or 5, respectively). Further guidelines include: - people who list 3+ relevant good elements but 0 bad = 5 - 3+ good elements and 1 bad = 4 - 2 max. good elements and 1-2 bad = 3 - 1 max. good element and 1-2 bad elements = 2 - Only bad elements = 1 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A situation is clearly described, and the candidate strongly aligns his/her values/behaviors with risk-averse values/behaviors. Examples might include: - A) Evaluating different possible strategies/options and assessing the associated risks in the situation - B) Suggesting solutions that are practical and involve a positive ratio of rewards relative to risks - C) Explaining all potential risks to stakeholders clearly - D) Having an action plan to instill trust in stakeholders that also minimizes risks. - E) The candidate's example demonstrates risk-averse values in a work-related setting.

Competency assessed:	Resilience/humility/honesty: The ability to demonstrate personal growth/learning from past failures.				
Question type:	Past-behavioural				
Question:	6. Can you describe a situation where you received a negative evaluation from your supervisor at work or in school? What was the reason for the evaluation, and how did you handle it?				
Scoring scale:	1	2	3	4	5
SCORING GUIDE:					
1	3	5			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No situation is described and/or actions do not demonstrate personal growth / learning. Examples might include: - A) suggesting that there is nothing they can do so they will just move on - B) not acknowledging their mistakes and holding themselves accountable (e.g. defensively explaining that the supervisor was unfair) - C) communicating with supervisor in a defensive way - D) not developing any strategies to avoid potentially similar problems in the future. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A situation is adequately described and somewhat demonstrates growth / learning. Examples might include combination of desired behaviors described in band 5 with undesired behaviors in band 1. (score 2 or 4, if response better matches 1 or 5, respectively) Further guidelines include: - people who list 3+ relevant good elements but 0 bad = 5 - 3+ good elements and 1 bad = 4 - 2 max. good elements and 1-2 bad = 3 - 1 max. good element and 1-2 bad elements = 2 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A situation is clearly described and strongly demonstrates growth / learning. Actions may include: - A) reflecting upon the evaluation, trying to identify causes and ways to improve - B) acknowledging their flaws and taking responsibility for it - C) communicating with supervisor in a constructive way (e.g. eager to learn and listen to the feedback provided) - D) developing strategies to avoid potentially similar problems in the future. - The candidate's example demonstrates their 			

- The candidate's example is not related to a work or academic setting.	- Only bad elements = 1 - The candidate's example demonstrates their resilience/humility/honesty aptitude in an academic- or work-related setting.	resilience/humility/honesty aptitude in an academic- or work-related setting and their actions/steps could be used and modelled in different situations.
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Competency assessed:	Persuasion: The ability to convince and motivate others toward personal views and actions.				
Question type:	Past-behavioural				
Question:	7. Describe a situation in which you were able to successfully convince someone or several people to see things your way or to do something you wanted them to do?				
Scoring scale:	1	2	3	4	5
SCORING GUIDE:					
1	3			5	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The situation is not described or does not involve the need for persuasion. - The behaviors and actions taken by the candidate does not demonstrate persuasion, or - Strategies used by the candidate are ineffective in persuading others or could only be applied successfully to a very limited extent. - Or the candidate's example does not demonstrate their persuasion skills in a work-related setting (e.g. a personal example outside of work that could not be applied in a work-related setting, such as persuading a friend to do them a favor). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The situation is adequately described and somewhat involves the need for persuasion. - The behaviors and actions taken by the candidate demonstrate an attempt to persuade others that was only partly successful (e.g., did not full convince others but had to reach some kind of compromise). - Strategies used by the candidate could be applied in some but not all work situations. - Or the candidate's example does not clearly demonstrate their persuasion skills at work (e.g. a personal example outside of work), but it could still be applied in a work-related setting, such as persuading someone to buy or sell something. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The situation is clearly described and involves the need for persuasion. - The behaviors and actions taken by the candidate clearly demonstrate their motivation and success in persuading others. - Strategies used by the candidate could be applied effectively in a wide variety of professional situations. - The candidate's example demonstrates their persuasion skills in a work-related setting (e.g., convinced coworkers or supervisor to follow their advice, idea, suggestions, etc.). 	

Competency assessed:	Perseverance: The ability to overcome challenges and keep a positive attitude during hardship.				
Question type:	Past-behavioural				
Question:	9. Can you tell me about a time when you had to keep a positive attitude when facing a difficult situation?				
Scoring scale:	1	2	3	4	5

SCORING GUIDE:		
1	3	5
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No situation is described or does not demonstrate perseverance. Examples might include: - A) stating general things like “keep moving forward with a smile” - B) not developing any action plan to tackle the situation - C) trying to avoid and/or ignore the situation - D) displaying negative thinking patterns that do not demonstrate perseverance. - The candidate’s example does not demonstrate their perseverance in a work-related setting and is not applicable at work (e.g. perseverance at the gym). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A situation is adequately described and somewhat demonstrates perseverance. Actions and behaviors might include a combination of desired behaviors described in band 5, with undesired behaviors in band 1. (score 2 or 4, if response better matches 1 or 5, respectively) Further guidelines include: - people who list 3+ relevant good elements but 0 bad = 5 - 3+ good elements and 1 bad = 4 - 2 max. good elements and 1-2 bad = 3 - 1 max. good element and 1-2 bad elements = 2 - Only bad elements = 1 - The candidate’s example demonstrates their perseverance in a non-work-related setting, but their behaviors and actions could help them persevere at work (e.g. perseverance in a difficult course at school). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A situation is clearly described and strongly demonstrates perseverance. Actions might include: - A) using stress-management strategies - B) developing a clear and realistic action plan - C) keeping an open-minded and can-do attitude - D) attempting to resolve the situation to the best of their ability, given clear thought and evaluative processes. - The candidate’s example demonstrates their perseverance in a work-related setting.

Appendix F

Job and company description - *Management associate Trainee – Retail banking*

HSBC Bank is a leading international bank and legendary financial services provider in North America, Latin America, the Caribbean and Central America, and parts of Asia. We are dedicated to helping our 21 million customers become better off through a broad range of advice, products and services, including personal and commercial banking, wealth management, corporate and investment banking. We operate in a responsible, risk-averse culture that builds and instills trust in our clients.

What you'll be doing

As a Management Associate Trainee, you will spend four 6-month rotations doing various positions in different locations (Toronto, Seoul, Mexico City, Rio de Janeiro) within retail banking. This two-year training period is designed to prepare you to be a Branch Manager, one of the most prestigious jobs in retail banking. As an essential member of the International Banking Branch network, the focus is to provide exceptional service throughout the customer's journey by:

- Taking a proactive approach to discovering our customer needs
- Educating our customers about financial products and services
- Building customer's financial plans using a holistic approach to help them achieve their goals
- Nurturing strong, long-standing relationships
- Developing, retaining and growing the branch business through individuals and team
- Provide an exceptional customer service experience

Qualifications

Bachelor's degree (or near completion)
 Positive attitude and results-oriented mindset
 Excellent interpersonal and communication skills
 Leadership and teamwork skills
 Strong interest in sales and customer service
 Second language (asset)

Job Benefits

Salary: \$47,500.00 /year + annual bonus
 Stock options
 3-weeks paid vacation
 Low interest rate on lending products

Location(s): multiple locations

As Canada's International Bank, we are a leader when it comes to inclusion. We are a diverse and global team, speaking more than 100 languages with backgrounds from more than 120 countries. We value the unique skills and experiences each individual brings to the bank and are committed to creating and maintaining an inclusive and accessible environment for everyone.

Job Type: Full-time

Appendix G

Scales used for Study 2

Rating Scales Used to Code AVIs (Gorman et al., 2018)

Using the applicant's responses in the video, please use the following rating scale to make an inference regarding the applicant's true level of each of the following work-related attributes.

1. General intelligence: intellectual capacity, mental ability, ability to learn, analytical ability
2. Applied mental skills: problem-solving, judgment, decision-making, critical thinking, planning, organizing
3. Conscientiousness: dependability, responsibility, reliability, timeliness, sense of duty, motivation
4. Communication skills: oral communication, communication skills, expression, ability to present ideas
5. Interpersonal skills: interpersonal skills / relations, social skills, social sensitivity, working with others
6. Leadership: leadership, coaching, maintaining control, directing others, discipline

Ethnocentrism Scale - Neuliep & McCroskey (2013)

Below are items that relate to the cultures of different parts of the world. Work quickly and record your first reaction to each item. There are no right or wrong answers. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each item using the following five-point scale:

1. Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.
2. My culture should be the role model for other cultures.
3. People from other cultures act strange when they come to my culture.
4. Lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture.
5. Other cultures should try to be more like my culture.
6. I am not interested in the values and customs of other cultures.
7. People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures.
8. Most people from other cultures just don't know what's good for them.
9. I respect the values and customs of other cultures.

10. Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.
11. Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.
12. I have many friends from different cultures.
13. People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere.
14. Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.
15. I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.
16. I apply my values when judging people who are different.
17. I see people who are similar to me as virtuous.
18. I do not cooperate with people who are different.
19. Most people in my culture just don't know what is good for them.
20. I do not trust people who are different.
21. I dislike interacting with people from different cultures.
22. I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.

Short Right-Wing Authoritarian scale (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2018)

1. It's great that many young people today are prepared to defy authority. (Conservatism or Authoritarian Submission) (R)
2. What our country needs most is discipline, with everyone following our leaders in unity (Conservatism or Authoritarian Submission)
3. God's laws about abortion, pornography, and marriage must be strictly followed before it is too late. (Traditionalism or Conventionalism)
4. There is nothing wrong with premarital sexual intercourse. (Traditionalism or Conventionalism) (R)
5. Our society does NOT need tougher government and stricter laws. (Authoritarianism or Authoritarian Aggression) (R)
6. The facts on crime and the recent public disorders show we have to crack down harder on troublemakers, if we are going to preserve law and order. (Authoritarianism or Authoritarian Aggression)

Note. R indicates the item is reverse scored.

SDO7 Scale – (Ho et al., 2015)

Pro-trait dominance:

1. Some groups of people must be kept in their place.
2. It's probably a good thing that certain groups are at the top and other groups are at the bottom.
3. An ideal society requires some groups to be on top and others to be on the bottom.
4. Some groups of people are simply inferior to other groups.

Con-trait dominance:

5. Groups at the bottom are just as deserving as groups at the top.
6. No one group should dominate in society.
7. Groups at the bottom should not have to stay in their place.
8. Group dominance is a poor principle.

Pro-trait anti-egalitarianism:

9. We should not push for group equality.
10. We shouldn't try to guarantee that every group has the same quality of life.
11. It is unjust to try to make groups equal.
12. Group equality should not be our primary goal.

Con-trait anti-egalitarianism:

13. We should work to give all groups an equal chance to succeed.
14. We should do what we can to equalize conditions for different groups.
15. No matter how much effort it takes, we ought to strive to ensure that all groups have the same chance in life.
16. Group equality should be our ideal.

Note: The con-trait items should be reverse-scored before computing a composite scale mean.