



# When Job Candidates Experience Social Media Privacy Violations: A Cross-Culture Study

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## ABSTRACT

This study uses a cross-cultural sample from the U.S. and China to compare information privacy-protective responses to a breach in privacy during a job interview. Using a job recruitment scenario, the relationships among individuals' concern for information privacy, disposition to trust, judgment of moral issues, and their information privacy-protective responses were examined. Based on the multiple group analysis results, this paper find that the privacy-protective responses significantly vary between the American and Chinese cultures. The findings shed light on individuals' responses to privacy issues in the United States and China.

## KEYWORDS

Cross-Culture Study, Ethical Decision Making, Information Privacy Concern, Information Privacy-Protective Responses, Privacy, Trusting Disposition

## INTRODUCTION

With the growth of social media, organizations are increasingly using personal information posted on these social platforms to screen job candidates (Clark & Roberts, 2010). Information discovered during these searches helps Human Resource professionals better assess candidates for communication skills, professionalism, and organizational “fit”, as well as bring to light any “red flags” (Becton, Walkder, Gilstrap, & Schwager, 2019; Grasz, 2009; Kasper, 2015). Many job candidates are uncomfortable with these searches on social media (Black, Stone, & Johnson, 2015), developing increasingly negative opinions of an organization with more intrusive requests (Drake & Furner, 2020). Job candidates, when confronted with a request to disclose their social media username and password to the employer, judge such requests to be immoral and respond in ways that limit damage to their privacy (Drake, Hall,

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Becton, & Posey, 2016). This is not unexpected because privacy breaches and information misuse are widely recognized as critical concerns to individuals (Lowry, Cao, & Everard, 2011).

However, most of these studies were conducted within a single country. There is a gap in literature as to how job candidates from different cultures might react to such requests. This gap matters because multinational enterprises (MNE) must confront local cultural expectations when hiring job candidates in different areas. HR professionals in MNEs consider local cultural variations to better match perceptions with needs. With social networking technology evolving so quickly, HR professionals may struggle to match local cultural expectations with hiring practices and concerns. With global business continuously expanding, understanding cultural differences in ethical decision-making process is becoming more important (Vitell & Patwardhan, 2008).

Particularly with social media, privacy and self-disclosure preferences differ between USA and China populations (Lowry et al., 2011). The USA and China represent the two largest economies in the world, making them both likely targets for MNE. Yet, each country contains distinctly different cultures, broadly defined as western and eastern. According to Hofstede and Hofstede (1991), the two countries have salient differences across power distance, individualism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity. Perceived risk of disclosing personal information also impacts decisions to disclose personal information differently between western nations such as Australia, and eastern nations, such as Hong Kong (Treiblmaier & Chong, 2011). These differences also manifest themselves in the perceptions of algorithm-driven news services (Shin 2021) and mobile banking perception (Malaquias, de Oliveira Malaquias, Ha & Hwang, 2021). The differences in perceptions of information privacy breaches between American and Chinese job candidates is unknown.

Combining the ethical decision-making model (Jones, 1991; Woiceshyn, 2011) with the APCO (antecedents, privacy concerns, and outcomes) model (H. J. Smith, Dinev, & Xu, 2011), we propose that judgment of a privacy violation rests on individual characteristics and perceptions prior to the violation and results in responses that minimize or mitigate information disclosure after a breach. The theory is grounded in practice by focusing on HR professionals asking job candidates for social media account information for screening purposes, a practice that even if not widespread is documented to have occurred (O'Dell, 2012). The research questions for this study are: (1) what are the relationships among disposition to trust, information privacy concerns, judgment of moral issues, and protective responses of information privacy and (2) what are the key cultural differences that explain how national cultures react to these privacy issues.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 reviews the existing literature and theoretical background associated with our study and then proposes the research framework; Section 3 develops the hypotheses for this study; Section 4 describes the research methodology; Section 5 presents the analysis and results; Section 6 discusses the results and suggests directions for future research; and the last section summarizes our research.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **Privacy Model**

Information privacy concern is often raised by individuals when their information is collected, stored, used, and distributed. Past studies call for privacy-related research to develop a multilevel framework (Belanger & Crossler, 2011). Such a multilevel framework was proposed by H. J. Smith et al. (2011) in terms of the APCO macro model. According to this model, privacy concerns in terms of beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions are formed through privacy experiences, privacy awareness, personality differences, demographic differences, and culture/climate (Benamati, Ozdemir, & Smith, 2021). These concerns in turn drive behavioral reactions, including disclosures of information. Often a personal privacy calculus frames these reactions (Jozani, Ayaburi, Ko, & Choo, 2020; Kordzadeh & Warren, 2017).

Researchers have found individual factors are important elements in predicting individuals' intentions and behaviors with respect to privacy, such as gender (Chakraborty, Vishnik, & Rao, 2013; Mutambik, et. al., 2021; Sweeney, Arnold, & Pierce, 2010), age (Krambia-Kapardis & Zopiatis, 2008), education level (Eweje & Brunton, 2010), and personality traits (Bansal, Zahedi, & Gefen, 2010, 2016; Korzaan & Boswell, 2008). Two factors, however, dominate the choices and behaviors of individuals when disclosing information or responding to threats to their privacy - trust and privacy concerns. Several studies have found that trust mediates the relationship between privacy concerns and disclosure behaviors online (Joinson, Reips, Buchanan, & Schofield, 2010; C. Liu, Marchewka, Lu, & Yu, 2005; Taddei & Contena, 2013).

### **Ethical Decision-Making Model**

As suggested by Lowry, Dinev, and Willison (2017), privacy research should expand its theoretical foundations with reference theories. Ethical decision-making provides such a foundation. Privacy goes beyond just a control mechanism, referencing a deep desire to maintain a state of control over personal space and information (Drake, 2016). When that value is in jeopardy, a moral dilemma emerges that requires a resolution. This instantiates the ethical decision-making process.

In terms of privacy, we contend that within the context of information disclosure dilemmas, trust is integrated into a moral judgement. As Martin (2018) states, privacy violations by a firm lead to highly contextual judgments of a firm in terms of trust. Those judgments involve a moral assessment of the rightness or wrongness of the violation (Drake, 2016).

According to the ethical decision-making model, individuals make situation-specific decisions by recognizing moral issues, making moral judgments, establishing moral intent and engaging in moral behavior (Jones, 1991). As individuals experience moral dilemmas and find resolutions, they integrate those experiences, storing conclusions for later use in new moral dilemmas (Woiceshyn, 2011). Calling on those subconscious memories allows individuals to quickly identify and apply appropriate principles for action. According to this newer understanding of ethical decision-making, individuals may not even be aware they are dealing with a moral issue immediately, processing the morality of the situation subconsciously. However, their judgment reaches their consciousness and enables them to decide how to react within a specific context.

Because individuals exist within a cultural environment, observations within that culture often become embedded within the individual's subconscious ethical framework and manifest themselves in different approaches to ethical dilemmas (Craft, 2013; Robertson & Fadil, 1999). Accordingly, both cultural and individual factors impact this ethical decision making (O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2005). Our interest in this study is to investigate factors that have an impact on moral judgement, and in turn, moral intent in a privacy oriented ethical dilemma. Prior research suggests that privacy concerns and disposition to trust impact this judgment (Joinson et al., 2010; Martin, 2018).

### **Information Privacy Concerns**

Information privacy is at the heart of information technology (Lowry et al., 2017). Wide use of information technologies, such as social networks, has aggravated individuals' concerns of their information privacy. The concerns of information privacy have been increasing over the past decades with the development of information technology. Individuals' privacy concern is a pivotal factor that influences their willingness or unwillingness to divulge personal information others. If individuals have higher privacy concerns, they may feel their privacy rights are more easily threatened.

Information privacy refers to a desired level of access to one's personal information. Although the definition of information privacy varies widely, its elements have been well received by scholars. Information privacy can be violated in four dimensions, including collection, unauthorized secondary use, improper access, and errors (H. J. Smith, Milberg, & Burke, 1996).

As the APCO privacy macromodel suggests, privacy is a central concern impacting self-disclosure decisions. The interpretations of the concept of privacy should be within different contexts, i.e.,

time, matter, and space (Skinner, Han, and Chang, 2006). Stone and Stone (1990) consider privacy as individuals' value controlling for personal information. Clarke (1999) recognizes four dimensions of privacy based on different contexts, privacy of a person, personal behavior privacy, personal communication privacy, and personal data privacy.

## **Disposition to Trust**

Disposition to trust refers to "the extent to which a person displays a tendency to be willing to depend on others across a broad spectrum of situations and persons" (McKnight, Choudhury, & Kacmar, 2002, p. 339). This disposition is context independent and represents a general tendency to trust. Building off prior research in privacy, McKnight et al. (2002) proposed that disposition to trust includes four sub-constructs - benevolence, integrity, competence, and trusting stance. In terms of privacy, benevolence refers to a belief in the trustee that they are motivated and caring in how they protect personal information. Integrity refers to a belief that the trustee will keep their promises about protecting personal information. Competence refers to a belief that the trustee has the ability to protect personal information. Trusting stance refers to a stance that regardless of what one believes about people's benevolence, integrity, and competence, the truster assumes that acting as if one believes in trust results in better outcomes.

McKnight suggested trusting disposition impacted trusting beliefs. A body of recent research has shown mixed, but mostly positive results for how disposition to trust impacts decisions online. Kou and Thompson (2014) found that disposition to trust impacts trusting beliefs in virtual teammates. Drake, Byrd, and Hall (2012) discovered that consumers with a strong trusting disposition tended to consider more auction alternatives on eBay. However, when compared to an online apartment search, the disposition to trust had no impact on the number of apartments considered in an online forum (Drake & Byrd, 2013). X. Li, Hess, and Valacich (2006) found that disposition to trust had a small but significant impact on trusting beliefs of national identification systems.

However, for purposes of understanding disposition to trust in a particular context, researchers have argued that it is important to link trust-related constructs with particular actions and associations (Wiedmann, Hennigs, Varelmann, & Reeh, 2010). In this study, disposition to trust is associated with the moral judgment of the HR request and the interviewee's subsequent information privacy protective responses.

## **Judgment of Moral Issue**

Judgment of moral issue refers to the degree to which an individual judges a specific behavior morally acceptable (Bass, Barnett, & Brown, 1999). Moral judgment is critical for individuals before they make decisions on whether to behave ethically (Rest, 1986). The development of moral judgment is through interaction with individuals' environment and closely related to their ethical philosophy and other personal characteristics. Judgment of moral issue is the key predictor of moral intention and behavior (Jones, 1991). Deontological and teleological evaluations are two individuals' approaches to make their ethical judgments (Hunt & Vitell, 1986). Deontological evaluation is conducted based on personal values or rules of behaviors; teleological evaluation is made based on individuals' analysis of the desirability and probability of the consequences of the given ethical situation (Hunt & Vitell, 1986). These two jointly determine an individual's judgment of moral issue.

## **Information Privacy-Protective Responses**

Information privacy-protective responses (IPPR) refer to a set of behavioral responses to threats to information privacy (Son & Kim, 2008). The IPPR taxonomy categorizes responses into information provision (i.e., refusal and misrepresentation), private action (i.e., removal and negative word-of-mouth), and public action (i.e., complaining directly to online companies and complaining indirectly to third-party organizations).

Information refusal refers to “the users’ refusal to provide their personal information to the companies” (Son & Kim, 2008, p. 506). Information refusal is viewed as an information protective behavior, which is the major means of individuals’ information privacy protection (Son & Kim, 2008). For example, when job applicants receive a request to reveal private information during a job interview, a decision to refuse to provide that information will be made immediately if they are not willing to share. This means that information refusal may be the first reaction if an individual would like to protect his or her privacy.

Another information provision to protect against privacy threats is to falsify data. Described as misrepresentation by Son and Kim (2008), this technique amounts to users protecting personal information through misrepresenting the facts. By selectively altering facts about oneself, it protects the true facts from being discovered. By some accounts (Goings & Abel, 2011), 76% of Internet users have admitted to falsifying personal information to online companies.

Another specific action individuals can take when there’s a threat to privacy is to remove it, either selectively or in total. In terms of social media, there may be too much information to remove in total. However, shutting down the account would prevent others from viewing and retrieving the information.

Negative word-of-mouth refers to communication to acquaintances, friends, and relatives about dissatisfied experiences with offending companies (Son & Kim, 2008). Negative word-of-mouth is a form of private action in response to the privacy threat. For instance, job applicants will share their dissatisfied experiences with friends and family after the job interview if their information privacy has been jeopardized by hiring companies, thereby damaging the reputation of human resource units.

Besides private actions, individuals may make their problems public in terms of complaining directly to company. Although HR professionals may consider a request for social media information as problematic, executives in the company may question that policy if sufficient complaints come from perspective employees. Complaining directly to the executives may alter the policy, if not immediately, then after sufficient complaints makes the company question the policy.

When complaining directly to the company doesn’t work, job candidates may complain to third parties, such as newspapers, privacy groups, or politicians. Through third-party influence, the job candidate may hope to avoid direct confrontation yet still influence policy through indirect means. By making the complaint more public, the reputation of the firm may be harmed.

## HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

### The Impact of Concern for Information Privacy on Judgment of Moral Issue

Because privacy concern looks at an overall tendency to be worried about threats to information violations, when such a threat looms, individuals are likely to call on moral principles for evaluating the situation and making a moral judgment (Woiceshyn, 2011). As the potential harm from privacy violations increase, the saliency of a moral judgment increases (Drake et al., 2016). This perceived risk correlates highly with privacy concern (Yu, Li, He, Wang, & Jiao, 2020). On the one hand, people inherently have different concerns for privacy because of personality differences. On the other hand, the ethical dilemma environment also produces an effect on individuals’ concern for information privacy. In a business ethical situation, concern for information privacy will speed up individuals’ judgment of moral issue with ethical dilemmas arising.

Thus, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 1:** The higher the concern for information privacy that individuals have, the more likely they will judge the issue immoral.

## The Impact of Privacy Trusting Disposition on Judgment of Moral Issue

Moral judgment is usually developed quickly in an environment. Hence, individual factors often play more important roles than situational factors. Thus, individuals' personality is closely associated with the development of moral judgment (Bass et al., 1999). In privacy, general trust predicts the concern an individual has toward privacy and their propensity to self-disclose (Taddei & Contena, 2013). However, the four dimensions of trusting disposition will likely have a varied impact on judgment. With benevolence, job candidates see the best in people. Even when their privacy is threatened, they are still likely to extend the best intentions from that HR professional and unlikely to judgment those people immorally.

With integrity based trust, job candiates expects people to act on their word. If a company says they will view private information, the job candidates will likely to take them at their word. Hence, there's likely little impact on moral judgment.

In competence based trust, compentent professionals are pressumed to be moral in general (Murrell, 2017), and willing to protect confidentiality, secrecy, and privacy. Actions taken that contradict this expectation would likely lead to an immoral judgment. When an HR professional to explicitly violates privacy, the job candidate with high competence based trust may find the shock of the revelation immense.

Lastly, trusting stance suggests that the job candidate would act as if they trust the HR professional, even if they don't. In a situation where a privacy violation is emminant, someone with high trusting stance would likely continue to project a positive image on the situation and consider the situation as less immoral.

Thus, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 2a:** The higher the perception of general benevolence that individuals have, the less likely they will judge the issue immoral.

**Hypothesis 2b:** Perception of general integrity will likely have no impact on how they judge the immorality of the issue.

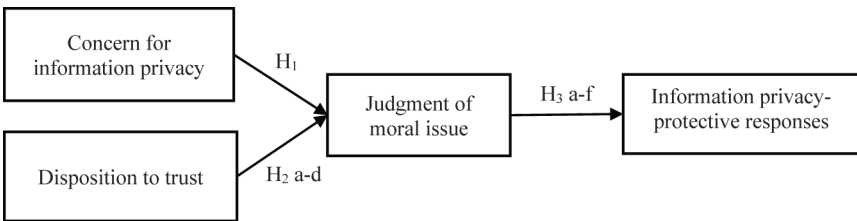
**Hypothesis 2c:** The higher the the perception of general competence that individuals have, the more likely they will judge the issue immoral.

**Hypothesis 2d:** The higher the trusting stance that individuals have, the less likely they will judge the issue immoral.

## The Impact of Judgment of Moral Issue on Information Privacy-Protective Responses

According to Rest (1986), moral judement and moral intent follow a sequential causal order as described Figure 1. Namely moral judgement has a direct impact on moral intent. Many past studies have confirmed that moral judgment or ethical judgement is the antecedent of moral intention (Yoon, 2012). For example, Tan (2002) found that consumers' moral judgement can influence their intention to purchase pirated software. After the formation of moral judgment, individuals are then motivated to

Figure 1. Research model



develop intentions and act. In the context of human recourse recruitment privacy dilemma, individuals' moral intention is closely associated with their protective responses (Drake et al., 2016). In this study, we measure individuals' intention to protect their privacy using Son and Kim's (2008) six responses.

Thus, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 3:** The higher moral judgement that individuals make, the higher responses of refusal [ $H_{3a}$ ], misrepresentation [ $H_{3b}$ ], removal [ $H_{3c}$ ], negative word-of-mouth [ $H_{3d}$ ], complaining directly to online companies [ $H_{3e}$ ], and complaining indirectly to third-party organizations [ $H_{3f}$ ] that they intend to conduct.

### Cross-Country Effects

Nationality is an important personal attribute that can influence individuals' ethical decision making. Moral reasoning in different cultures is significant different (Husted, Dozier, McMahon, & Kattan, 1996). Many past studies have investigated the cross-country effects of information privacy concerns and trust. For example, Bellman, Johnson, Kobrin, and Lohse (2004) used a global survey and found differences in Internet privacy concerns due to cultural values, Internet experience, and the desires of political institutions.

Between China and US, differences of privacy expectations are more pronounced. Chinese have long been users of more protective technologies to hide personal information (Zhang, Chen, & Wen, 2002). More recently, Y. Li, Rho, and Kobsa (In press) found that US social network site users show less concern for interactional privacy concern than Chinese users. However, Chinese users are more willing to share more demographic information but less likely to share social information. This same study also found that US users adopted more nuance in the context of the relationship than Chinese users when decided to disclose information or assessing privacy risk. Yet, Chinese social media users continue to use social media in a large part because of social factors, such as social identity, subjective norms, and group norms (Zhou & Li, 2014). These studies suggest that Chinese users will generally make more privacy judgments based on broad dispositional factors, such as trust, and than US users, which tend to focus on situational specific factors. Thus, the cross-country effects about individuals' ethical decision-making vary depending on specific cultures and contexts.

Thus, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 4:** The impact of disposition to trust and privacy concerns on moral judgment will be stronger in China than in the USA.

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### Participants and Procedures

This study employed a survey to collect primary data. We first measured the subjects' disposition to trust and their information privacy concern by the questionnaire. As vignettes in survey research can produce more valid and more reliable results (Alexander & Becker, 1978), the subjects were then provided a vignette (see Appendix) to measure participants' opinion towards the given scenario. In this vignette, participants were asked to consider an interview with a company that perfectly matched their skills, location, salary, and working conditions. During the interview, the interviewers state that they require all job applicants to share their username and password to all social media accounts to help establish the character of applicants. We set this scenario as our research vignette because this phenomenon is an actual ethical dilemma in the job market (Lukaszewski, Stone, & Johnson, 2016). On one hand, firms screen applicants by acquiring an applicants' personal information prior to offering employment in order to make a better decision. On the other hand, job applicants hold

more personal privacy concerns and are likely to make moral reactions during this process (Black, Stone, & Johnson, 2015).

Data in the United States was collected through the online website *Qualtrics*. Data in China was collected through a paper-based survey. All participants were required to have at least one social media account. To understand job applicants' trust and privacy perspectives to hiring firms, the participants answered the questions based on the given scenario related to the privacy concerns issue during the job interview.

Overall, 285 participants in the US and 453 in China completed the survey. After removing questionnaires that exhibited false responses (e.g., the same response for all questions) and those with missing responses, a total of 237 US subjects and 402 China subjects were included for our analysis. The effective response rates are 83.16% and 88.74% respectively. The profile of participants is shown in Table 1. The participants were also asked to indicate their job search plan over the next two months. Out of the 237 US subjects, 78.1% planned to list themselves as a job applicant on a website in the next two months. Out of the 402 China subjects, 74.4% planned to list themselves as a job applicant on a website in the next two months.

## Preliminary Analyses

Prior to starting the analysis, we conducted an examination of the dataset, including missing data analysis and two bias checks (non-response and common method). We tested our data set to ensure that the assumption of missing completely at random (MCAR) by using Little's MCAR test was met. The result showed that the data were missing completely at random ( $\chi^2 (1196) = 348.940, p=.302$ ).

**Table 1. Profile of the Participants**

Category	US (N=237)	China (N=402)
Gender		
Male	57.0%	41.8%
Female	43.0%	58.2%
Age		
<26	49.4%	76.1%
26-30	22.8%	14.2%
>30	27.8%	9.7%
Education		
Bachelor and/or less	41.4%	74.6%
Master degree and/or some graduate work	57.8%	23.5%
Doctorate and/or Professional degree	1.7%	1.9%
Social Media Experience: In the past month, how often did you surf social media sites?		
Never	12.2%	5.2%
Less than once a week	37.6%	29.6%
At least once a week	27.4%	15.4%
Once a day	11.8%	39.6%
2-4 times per day	7.6%	7.7%
More than 4 times a day	3.4%	2.5%



In order to preserve the maximum number of cases, we substituted a simple mean for the missing data (Little and Rubin, 1987).

To test whether there was non-response bias, we compared early respondents with late respondents in terms of age and Internet usage experience. The results showed there were no statistically significant differences between these two groups. We thus determined that non-response bias did not present a problem for this study.

To examine common method bias, we used the procedures suggested by Podsakoff and his colleagues (2003) during the processes of the design of study and data collection. Following the guidelines, we protected respondent-researcher anonymity, provided respondents with clear directions, and proximally separated independent and dependent variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). We then tested for bias statistically. Harman's one-factor test (Brewer, Campbell, & Crano, 1970) was used to determine if common method bias is a threat to the validity of this study's results. The unrotated factor solution indicates that no factor accounts for 50% or more of the variance, which suggests that common method bias in our study is not a significant threat to the validity. We also ran Lindell and Whitney's (2001) test that used a marker-variable technique in the model. The maximum shared variance with other variables was 0.027 (2.7%), again indicating no common method bias.

## Measures

All the items were adapted from past literature and modified as needed for this study (see Appendix). As the study was conducted under in both the United States and China, the survey was first developed in English and then translated into Chinese (Brislin, 1970) by one of the coauthors. To ensure its accuracy, two professional English-Chinese translators checked the translations. When there was a discrepancy, the three met to discuss and rectify the issue so that the conveyed meaning was the meaning intended.

The construct of information privacy-protective responses were drawn from Son & Kim (2008). Concern for information privacy was measured using Stewart and Segars (2002) 4-items scale, which was used to show individuals' concern intensity when organizations ask for their private information. Privacy trusting disposition was measured using McKnight et al. (2002) 12-item scale that includes the dimensions of benevolence, integrity, competence, and trusting stance. For the measurement of this construct, we asked participants to rate their intention to trust during a recruitment process in our given scenario. The construct of moral judgment was developed using Reynolds (2006) 3-item scale. Information privacy-protective responses were evaluated using the Son and Kim (2008) 12-item scale. For the measurement, we asked participants to rate the degree to which they would refuse to give information to a company and speak to their friends about their bad experience with the hiring company.

## DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

SEM can examine proposed causal paths among constructs (Gefen, Rigdon, & Straub, 2011). Compared with other analysis techniques such as linear regression, SEM is best suited to our research. To test the cross-country effects, multi-group analysis was conducted. This study analyzed the data using IBM Amos 22.

### Descriptive Statistics, Reliability and Validity

Table 2 presents the means, standard deviations of constructs of the full sample, US sample, and China sample. T-tests were used to examine differences between the US and China samples for all the constructs except PPR intention-negative word-of-mouth (see Table 2).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics

	Full sample (N=639)		US sample (N=237)		China sample (N=402)		t-test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	t-value	p-value
Concern for information privacy	5.56	1.21	5.70	1.15	5.48	1.25	2.253	0.025*
Benevolence	4.24	1.10	3.81	1.50	4.50	1.27	6.150	0.000***
Integrity	4.39	1.23	4.01	1.34	4.62	1.11	6.163	0.000***
Competence	4.85	1.18	4.62	1.26	4.98	1.11	3.811	0.000***
Trusting Stance	4.56	1.41	3.74	2.04	3.46	1.56	12.86	0.000***
Judgment of moral issue	5.53	1.28	3.73	1.41	5.05	1.16	5.513	0.000***
Refusal	4.71	1.80	5.89	1.22	5.32	1.27	8.030	0.000***
Misrepresentation	3.74	1.99	5.42	1.65	4.29	1.75	12.14	0.000***
Removal	4.72	1.87	2.61	1.95	4.40	1.70	2.501	0.013*
Negative word-of-mouth	5.79	1.39	4.48	2.13	4.86	1.68	1.831	0.068
Complaining directly to online companies	3.89	1.80	5.92	1.50	5.71	1.32	4.469	0.000***
Complaining indirectly to third-party organizations	3.56	1.76	4.30	1.99	3.65	1.63	1.915	0.056

Note: \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001

## Testing the Measurement Model

Both exploratory and confirmatory analysis were performed. An exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation for all constructs was first conducted to identify the factor structure. The measurement model consists of ten latent factors and 30 indicators. The results indicated that most items loaded on a distinct construct and their factor loadings were greater than 0.5. The fourth item in the optimism construct loaded beyond a measurement of .5 and was removed from analysis.

We then analyzed a measurement model to assess the measurement quality of constructs by using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The range of loadings for concern for information privacy is .776 to .910. The range of loadings for the four privacy trusting deposition factors is as follows: benevolence, .741 to .923; integrity, .700 to .880; competence, .720 to .874; trusting stance, .712 to .857. The range of loadings for judgment of moral issue t is .763 to .897. The range of loadings for the four information privacy-protective response factors is as follows: refusal, .820 to .962; misrepresentation, .860 to .985; removal, .880 to .980; negative word-of-mouth, .850 to .976; complaining directly to online companies, .890 to .987; complaining indirectly to third-party organizations, .920 to .978.

To assess data reliability and construct validity, we examined extracted factor loadings, Cronbach's alphas, CRs, and AVEs (see Table 3) and correlation coefficients among constructs (see Table 4). Our results indicate good convergent validity.

Construct reliability was assessed based on the Cronbach's alphas and composite construct reliabilities (CR). The Cronbach's alphas for each group (ranging from .52 to .95) show a satisfactory degree of internal consistency reliability of the measures (Bollen & Lennox, 1991). The composite construct reliabilities (CR) were computed with the formula:  $\rho = (\sum \lambda_i)^2 / ((\sum \lambda_i)^2 + \sum \theta_i)$ , where  $\lambda_i$  refers to the  $i_{th}$  factor loading and  $\theta_i$  refers to the  $i_{th}$  error variance (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). As shown in Table 1, CRs range from 0.81 and 0.98, greater than the commonly accepted cutoff value of .70 (Hair et al., 2009), which demonstrates the adequate reliability of the measures.

Discriminant validity was first assessed by examining the factor correlations. Although there are no firm rules, inter-construct correlations below 0.71 provide evidence of measure distinctness, and

thus discriminant validity. No factor correlation is greater than .7, which demonstrates discriminant validity (see Table 4). Another way to examine discriminant validity is to compare the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) to the inter-construct correlation. When the square root of AVE is larger than the corresponding squared inter-construct correlation estimates, it suggests that the indicators have more in common with the construct they are associated with than they do with other constructs, which also provides evidence of discriminant validity (Kline, 2005). The data provided in Table 3 and Table 4 suggests the adequate divergent validity of the measures.

## Structural Model

After confirming adequate fit for the measurement model, we assessed the fit of our structural model using the structural equation modeling (SEM) approach and IBM Amos 22. Hypotheses were first tested with the full sample. The hypothesized model appears to fit the data well, as shown in Figure 2. The post-hoc modifications were not conducted because of the good fit of the data to the model.

The goodness-of-fit of the structural model was tested by adopting different indices. The model chi-square is statistically significant  $\chi^2$  (df) = 2817.671, df = 618,  $p < .001$ , which indicates that the exact fit hypothesis is rejected. The value of  $\chi^2/\text{df} = 4.559$ , which is less than 5, accounts for a better fit (Segars & Grover, 1998). Our result represents a good overall fit. However, this test is highly sensitive. We, therefore, examined other measures of goodness-of-fit. The comparative fit index (CFI) value of 0.891, which is acceptable (Hair et al., 2009). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of 0.075, which is less than 0.1, is also deemed adequate. Thus, we conclude that our data adequately fit the measurement model.

In order to assess the cross-country effect, we performed the multi-group analysis between the US sample and China sample (see Figures 3 and 4). With the evidence of acceptable fit of the model, we proceeded to test our hypotheses.

## Hypotheses Testing

The hypotheses presented earlier were tested collectively. Each indicator was modeled in a reflective manner; the seven latent variables were linked as hypothesized. Model estimation was done using the maximum likelihood technique. We chose maximum likelihood parameter estimation over other estimation methods (e.g., weighted least squares, two-stage least squares) because the data were fairly normally distributed (Kline, 2005).

Hypothesis 1 indicated that a higher individuals' concern for information privacy will impact their judgment of moral issue. As shown in Figure 2, our results support Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2a to Hypothesis 2d showed that the job applicants with higher levels of trust regarding benevolence, integrity, competence, and trusting stance will result in greater levels of judgment of moral issue. Our results partially support our hypotheses. On one hand hypothesis 2a and 2c were supported, which indicates the two aspects of disposition to trust, benevolence and competence, have an effect on the judgment of moral issue. However, hypothesis 2a was negatively significant; hypothesis 2c was positively significant. On the other hand, integrity and trusting stance, have no significant impact on the judgment of moral issue (hypothesis 2b and 2d). Hypotheses 3a-f stated that the individuals' higher moral judgement will impact their intent to protect their information privacy protection higher, i.e., refusal (H3a), misrepresentation (H3b), removal (H3c), negative word-of-mouth (H3d), complaining directly to online companies (H3e), and complaining indirectly to third-party organizations (H3f). Our results indicated that all the hypotheses were supported.

To test hypothesis 3, we conducted multi-group analysis to compare the path coefficients for the US sample and China sample (See results in Table 5). In the US model, concern for information privacy is the only antecedent that can influence the judgment of moral issue. Disposition to trust is not significant. Judgment of moral issue has a very significant impact on individuals' intent to protect their information privacy in all aspects. In the China model, in addition to the factor of concern for information privacy, competence and trusting stance also positively impact the judgment of moral issue.

Table 3. Loadings, Cronbach's alphas, CR and AVEs

	Full sample (N=639)				US sample (N=237)				China sample (N=402)			
	Loading	$\alpha$	CR	AVE	Loading	$\alpha$	CR	AVE	Loading	$\alpha$	CR	AVE
Concern for information privacy (CIP)		.888	.891	.671		.860	.864	.614		.903	.908	.713
CIP1	.776				.783				.770			
CIP2	.818				.743				.850			
CIP3	.875				.819				.910			
CIP4	.804				.787				.840			
Benevolence (PTD_B)		.834	.845	.647		.891	.897	.745		.777	.852	.658
PTD_B_1	.741				.777				.770			
PTD_B_2	.910				.923				.880			
PTD_B_3	.750				.883				.780			
Integrity (PTD_I)		.857	.858	.669		.896	.898	.745		.815	0.813	0.593
PTD_I_1	.880				.882				.870			
PTD_I_2	.814				.870				.730			
PTD_I_3	.755				.837				.700			
Competence (PTD_C)		.813	.816	.597		.834	.839	.635		.795	0.798	0.568
PTD_C_1	.731				.771				.720			
PTD_C_2	.761				.740				.760			
PTD_C_3	.824				.874				.780			
Trusting Stance(PTD_TS)		.831	.837	.633		.824	.834	.628		.774	0.811	0.590
PTD_TS_1	.735				.712				.740			
PTD_TS_2	.857				.829				.830			
PTD_TS_3	.790				.830				.730			
Judgment of moral issue (MJ)		.845	.846	.648		.823	.862	.677		.856	0.861	0.673
MJ_1	.765				.763				.800			
MJ_2	.806				.803				.860			
MJ_3	.842				.897				.800			
Refusal (IPPR_R)		.931	.934	.825		.947	.949	.862		.913	0.918	0.789
IPPR_R_1	.918				.962				.890			
IPPR_R_2	.963				.980				.950			
IPPR_R_3	.839				.838				.820			
Misrepresentation (IPPR_M)		.961	.962	.893		.985	.985	.957		.927	0.931	0.818
IPPR_M_1	.926				.985				.860			
IPPR_M_2	.973				.982				.960			
IPPR_M_3	.936				.968				.890			

continued on following page

Table 3. Continued

	Full sample (N=639)				US sample (N=237)				China sample (N=402)			
	Loading	$\alpha$	CR	AVE	Loading	$\alpha$	CR	AVE	Loading	$\alpha$	CR	AVE
Removal (IPPR_RM)		.957	.958	.884		.978	.978	.938		.939	0.941	0.842
IPPR_RM_1	.936				.990				.890			
IPPR_RM_2	.981				.984				.980			
IPPR_RM_3	.903				.930				.880			
Negative word-of-mouth (IPPR_NW)		.933	.935	.827		.952	.955	.877		.919	0.920	0.793
IPPR_NW_1	.906				.976				.850			
IPPR_NW_2	.942				.979				.910			
IPPR_NW_3	.880				.849				.910			
Complaining directly to online companies (IPPR_CDOC)		.960	.961	.891		.978	.978	.938		.942	0.943	0.848
IPPR_CDOC_1	.938				.987				.890			
IPPR_CDOC_2	.969				.967				.970			
IPPR_CDOC_3	.924				.951				.900			
Complaining indirectly to third-party organizations (IPPR_CITO)		.964	.965	.901		.979	.979	.940		.950	0.951	0.865
IPPR_CITO_1	.949				.978				.920			
IPPR_CITO_2	.948				.96				.930			
IPPR_CITO_3	.950				.970				.940			

Note: CIP: concern for information privacy; PTD\_B: benevolence; PTD\_I: integrity; PTD\_C: competence; PTD\_TS: trusting stance; RJ: moral judgment; IPPR\_R: refusal; IPPR\_M: misrepresentation; IPPR\_RM: removal; IPPR\_NW: negative word-of-mouth; IPPR\_CDOC: complaining directly to online companies; IPPR\_CITO: complaining indirectly to third-party organizations companies

Benevolence plays a negative role in the judgment of moral issue. As the results of the U.S. model, judgment of moral issue has also positively influence individuals' intent to protect their information privacy. However, except the relationship between judgment of moral issue and misrepresentation, the past coefficients in the U.S. model are higher and more significant than those in the China model. This indicates that individuals in the U.S. are more likely to have a positive intent to protect their privacy.

## DISCUSSION

### Implication for Theory

Overall, this study makes contributions to the privacy literature by providing empirical insights into the relationships among individuals' concern for information privacy, disposition to trust, judgment of moral issue, and information privacy-protective responses across cultures. Past studies have focused on privacy's impact on self-disclosure (Y. Li et al., In press; Z. Liu & Wang, 2018). We extend the understanding information privacy by studying how a potential privacy violation instantiates moral decision making and various information privacy-protective responses across cultures. There are some differences among the relationships in the US and China contexts.

In recent years, trust related research has been receiving increased attention in the context of e-commerce (Lu, Wang, & Hayes, 2012) and organizational team behavior (Paul, Drake, & Liang,

Table 4. The construct correlations

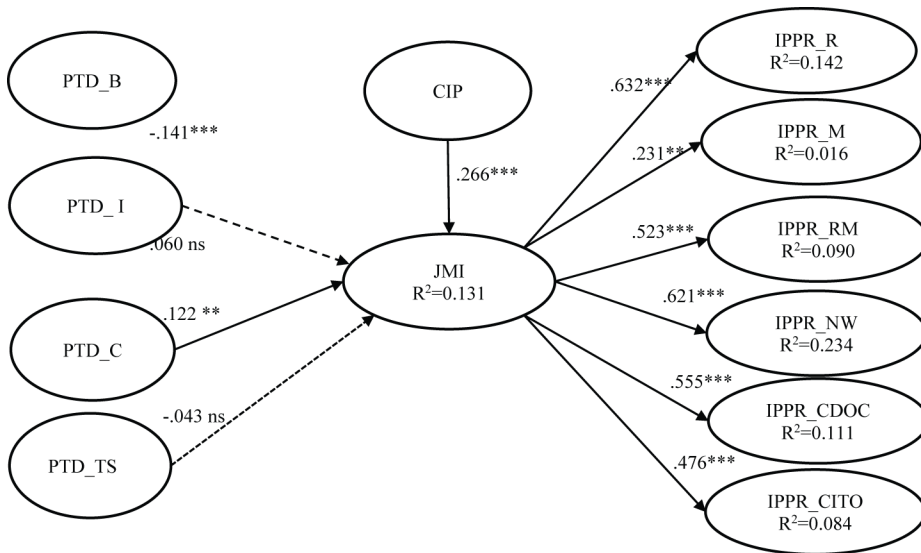
		CIP	PTD_B	PTD_I	PTD_C	PTD_TS	MJ	IPPR_R	IPPR_M	IPPR_RM	IPPR_NW	IPPR_CDOC	IPPR_CITO
Full sample	CIP	.819											
	PTD_B	.056	.804										
	PTD_I	.019	.575**	.818									
	PTD_C	.074	.350**	.473**	.773								
	PTD_TS	-.080*	.447**	.507**	.448**	.796							
	MJ	.262**	-.076	.011	.090*	-.045	.805						
	IPPR_R	.091*	-.101*	-.045	-.014	-.159**	.325**	.908					
	IPPR_M	.058	.117**	.134**	.110**	.281**	.074	-.034	.945				
	IPPR_RM	.130**	.062	.051	.072	.103**	.231**	.123**	.460**	.940			
	IPPR_NW	.191**	-.096*	-.036	.067	-.012	.417**	.231**	.119**	.312**	.909		
	IPPR_CDOC	.100*	-.022	.009	-.011	-.108**	.255**	.306**	.032	.131**	.166**	.944	
	IPPR_CITO	.034	-.019	-.015	-.044	-.049	.216**	.233**	.234**	.187**	.069	.639**	.949
US sample	CIP	.784											
	PTD_B	-.019	.863										
	PTD_I	-.013	.554**	.863									
	PTD_C	-.032	.309**	.466**	.797								
	PTD_TS	-.211**	.451**	.554**	.467**	.792							
	MJ	.264**	-.142*	-.033	.027	-.107	.823						
	IPPR_R	.040	-.148*	-.110	-.024	-.145*	.542**	.928					
	IPPR_M	.040	.038	-.041	-.017	.077	.061	.089	.978				
	IPPR_RM	.066	.043	-.026	.016	.001	.239**	.265**	.442**	.969			
	IPPR_NW	.126	-.143*	-.085	.028	-.130*	.476**	.457**	.116	.270**	.936		
	IPPR_CDOC	.091	.048	-.010	-.010	-.136*	.427**	.482**	.113	.242**	.322**	.969	
	IPPR_CITO	.039	.051	-.048	-.011	-.068	.310**	.409**	.282**	.305**	.217**	.735**	.970
China sample	CIP	.844											
	PTD_B	.144**	.811										
	PTD_I	.078	.545**	.770									
	PTD_C	.163**	.342**	.447**	.754								
	PTD_TS	.065	.343**	.381**	.403**	.768							
	MJ	.242**	.050	.134**	.191**	.175**	.820						
	IPPR_R	.082	.045	.122*	.070	.055	.139**	.888					
	IPPR_M	.151**	.000	.098*	.102*	.127*	.273**	.131**	.904				
	IPPR_RM	.194**	.037	.078	.095	.125*	.278**	.091	.485**	.918			
	IPPR_NW	.224**	-.033	.035	.117*	.148**	.373**	.072	.207**	.366**	.891		
	IPPR_CDOC	.085	-.003	.107*	.037	.058	.089	.129**	.129**	.068	.020	.921	
	IPPR_CITO	.019	-.048	.051	-.053	.032	.131**	.089	.311**	.089	-.071	.547**	.930

Note: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.001

Square root of the AVEs on diagonal. Each construct of square root of the AVE exceeds the inter-construct correlation for adequate discriminant validity.

2016). McKnight et al. (2002) found disposition to trust is important in e-commerce decisions. However, studies on trust issues with ethical decision making in cross-culture contexts have not been well discussed yet. Through this study, we find that the four sub-constructs of disposition to trust produce different effects on the judgment of a moral issue. From the full sample analysis results,

Figure 2. Results of the structure model: Full sample

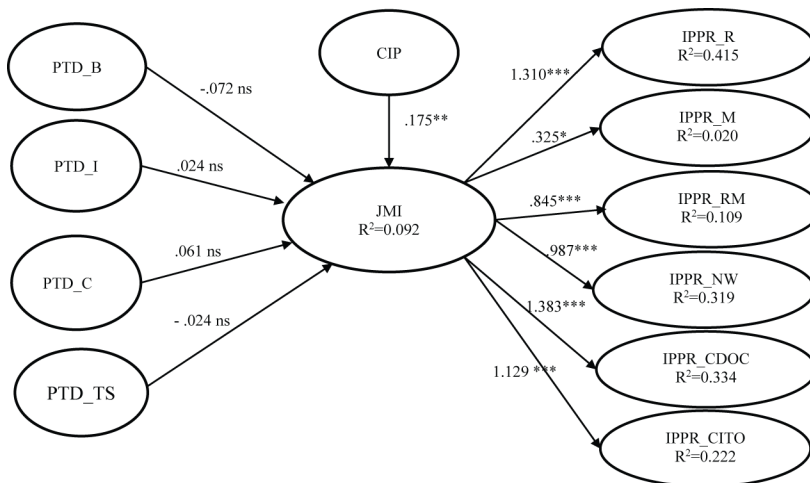


Note: \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

CIP: Concern for Information Privacy; PTD\_B: Benevolence; PTD\_I: Integrity; PTD\_C: Competence; PTD\_TS: Trusting Stance; JMI: Judgment of Moral Issue; IPPR\_R: Refusal; IPPR\_M: Misrepresentation; IPPR\_RM: Removal; IPPR\_NW: Negative Word-of-Mouth; IPPR\_CDOC: Complaining Directly to Online Companies; IPPR\_CITO: Complaining Indirectly to Third-party Organizations Companies

Model fitness:  $\chi^2$  (df) = 2817.671 (618),  $p < 0.001$ , CFI = .891, GFI = .794; IFI = .891; RMSEA (90C.I.) = .075 (.072, .078)

Figure 3. Results of the structure model: US sample

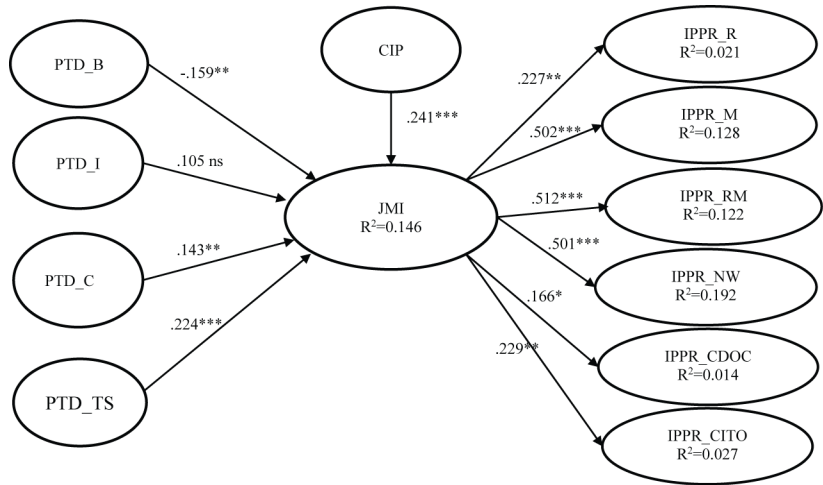


Note: \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

CIP: Concern for Information Privacy; PTD\_B: Benevolence; PTD\_I: Integrity; PTD\_C: Competence; PTD\_TS: Trusting Stance; JMI: Judgment of Moral Issue; IPPR\_R: Refusal; IPPR\_M: Misrepresentation; IPPR\_RM: Removal; IPPR\_NW: Negative Word-of-Mouth; IPPR\_CDOC: Complaining Directly to Online Companies; IPPR\_CITO: Complaining Indirectly to Third-party Organizations Companies

Model fitness:  $\chi^2$  (df) = 3490.101 (1236),  $p < 0.001$ , CFI = .889, GFI = .768; IFI = .890; RMSEA (90C.I.) = .054 (.051, .056)

Figure 4. Results of the structure model: China sample



Note: \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

CIP: Concern for Information Privacy; PTD\_B: Benevolence; PTD\_I: Integrity; PTD\_C: Competence; PTD\_TS: Trusting Stance; JMI: Judgment of Moral Issue; IPPR\_R: Refusal; IPPR\_M: Misrepresentation; IPPR\_RM: Removal; IPPR\_NW: Negative Word-of-Mouth; IPPR\_CDOC: Complaining Directly to Online Companies; IPPR\_CITO: Complaining Indirectly to Third-party Organizations Companies

Model fitness:  $\chi^2$  (df) = 2042.153 (618),  $p < 0.001$ , CFI = .869, GFI = .777; IFI = .870; RMSEA (90C.I.) = .076 (.072, .079)

we can find that disposition to trust to some extent has an effect on the judgment of moral issue, in particular for individuals' benevolence and competence. However, when we split the two samples, the effect has significant changes. Disposition to trust has little impact on the judgment of moral issue in the U.S. culture setting. However, competence and trusting stance in China culture produce a significant effect on the judgment of moral issue. One possible reason is that disposition to trust in the US business setting is not as strong as in China. For example, the concept of benevolence in the past US business model has been lacking for a long time (Lovett, Simmons, & Kali, 1999). This difference might be caused by the role of personal relationships or *guanxi orientation* when creating sharing information and knowledge (Huang, Davison, & Gu, 2011) and job satisfaction (Chang, Shen, & Wu, 2020). The trust that is built on personal relationship produces various effects even more than legal means (Lovett, Simmons, & Kali, 1999). Ethical issues associated with trust that is built on the personal relationship are different. Through this study, we extend the understanding of the differences of trust in different ethical moral environments.

Although nationality can influence ethical decision-making, its role is still unclear among different culture contexts (O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2005). Recent studies even show mixed results about ethical beliefs or behavior in cross culture studies. More context-based studies are called to identify the difference. The comparison of the intent of information privacy-protective responses between USA and China deepens the understanding of culture factors in ethical decision making. Individuals in the U.S. culture tend to be more willing to protect their information privacy than in China.

### Implication for Practice

This study provides an approach to understand the trust and privacy issues during the recruitment process. A traditional way to acquire a job applicants' information is through formal documents such as a personal resume. However, basic information such as educational background is not enough for companies to identify job applicants' characteristics and make an appropriate decision for employment.



**Table 5. Results of hypotheses testing for US and China comparison**

Relationships	Group	$\beta$	p-Value	Support?
Concern for information privacy → Judgment of moral issue	US	.175	.002	Yes
	China	.241	<0.001	Yes
Benevolence → Judgment of moral issue	US	-.072	.109	No
	China	-.159	.012	Yes
Integrity → Judgment of moral issue	US	.024	.638	No
	China	.012	.115	No
Competence → Judgment of moral issue	US	.061	.230	No
	China	.143	.017	Yes
Trusting stance → Judgment of moral issue	US	-.074	.087	No
	China	.224	.001	Yes
Judgment of moral issue → Refusal	US	1.310	<0.001	Yes
	China	.227	.008	Yes
Judgment of moral issue → Misrepresentation	US	.325	.046	Yes
	China	.502	<0.001	Yes
Judgment of moral issue → Removal	US	.845	<0.001	Yes
	China	.512	<0.001	Yes
Judgment of moral issue → Negative word-of-mouth	US	.987	<0.001	Yes
	China	.501	<0.001	Yes
Judgment of moral issue → Complaining directly to online companies	US	1.383	<0.001	Yes
	China	.166	0.03	Yes
Judgment of moral issue → Complaining indirectly to third-party organizations companies	US	1.129	<0.001	Yes
	China	.229	.003	Yes

Recognizing a way to improve recruitment, companies have begun to tap into personal information from social networking sites (SNSs) (W. P. Smith & Kidder, 2010). In doing so, trust and privacy issues have been raised because people in general regard their personal information as confidential. This study offers practitioners a better understanding of the antecedents of applicants' moral judgement development and outcomes towards their privacy protection.

Culture norms can lead to the formation of a privacy policy (Drake, 2016). A good privacy policy can make a company gain reputation. Otherwise, improper use of privacy policy will be likely to lead to negative responses. Past studies indicate that U.S. companies are most likely to have a privacy policy (Lukaszewski, Stone, & Johnson, 2016). Other developing countries such as China, information privacy policies may be neglected. Yet, multinational enterprises are most likely to adopt a restrictive "one size fits all" privacy policy (Shah, White, & Cook, 2007). Organizations in different cultural settings should formulate a privacy policy that can make individuals accept when they collect data or information from individuals. The findings of this study also show the potential results of invading information privacy. This indicates the importance of a good privacy policy.

USA and China have evident different cultures and economic systems. People in these two societies are likely to hold different cultures values. This can also reflect their intent to respond to the privacy concerns. For example, our findings indicate that individuals in an ethical dilemma in

the US culture are more likely to refuse outright or complain directly to the company. Chinese job applicants were less likely to do so.

## Limitations and Future Research Directions

As other studies, there are some limitations to this study. First, the generalizability of the results is limited because we used student samples from U.S. and China. While the majority of students intended to seek a job in the near future, the respondents do not necessarily represent active job seekers. Furthermore, younger job seekers may induce a different set of privacy concerns than older job seekers. For these reasons, the representativeness of the sample may be limited. Future research on the information privacy-protective responses of active job seekers is recommended.

Second, scholars in the ethical decision-making field usually use scenarios to conduct their study. While this is necessary to maintain an ethical research study, scenarios focus on the specific context (e.g., human resource recruitment). Our results may not be applicable to other contexts to discuss the differences of information privacy-protective responses. Future studies can extend the research context to other scenarios or other culture settings and find the differences.

Third, this study measured information privacy-protective responses by indicating individuals' intents rather than true behaviors. For ethical reasons, this study could not induce a privacy dilemma to its participants, so it was unable to observe the actual behaviors of privacy protection during the recruitment process. Privacy protection intentions may be significantly related to the actual behavior, but do not necessarily lead to the actual acts of information privacy protection. This is a limitation to make further inferences. It is recommended that additional studies look at historic evidence or conduct interviews with individuals that have experienced privacy dilemmas to discover if they behave in ways that the intentions predict.

Last, it is worth noting that the data collection methods and sample sizes of U.S. and China samples are different in this study. U.S. data were collected through online platform while China data were collected on the spot. This to some extent might affect the statistical effect when doing a comparison study. We encourage future research to expand sample population and roughly get the equal sample size from these two cultures.

## CONCLUSION

In our research, given a certain research context and measure the participants' responses, the similarities and differences in the information privacy-protective responses of business students in two countries, the United States and China, have been discussed. Factors that can influence this process, concerns for information privacy, disposition to trust, and cross-country effects are analyzed. The significant contribution of this study is in understanding the differences of responses on information privacy protection. The findings should also increase understanding of privacy and trust perspectives of the recruitment process that will fuel the next leap in knowledge in the human resource management field.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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## APPENDIX: INSTRUMENT

### Vignette

Imagine you are interviewing with an organization for a position that perfectly fits your skills, location, salary, and working conditions. During the interview, the interviewer informs you that due to problems in the past, they now request all job applicants to share their username and password to all social media accounts to help establish the character of the applicants. The interviewer indicates that they will review these accounts over the coming two weeks and then make their decision.

### Concern for Information Privacy

1. It usually bothers me when companies ask me for personal information.
2. When companies ask me for personal information, I sometimes think twice before providing it.
3. It bothers me to give personal information to so many people
4. I am concerned that companies are collecting too much personal information about me.

### Privacy Trusting Disposition

#### *Benevolence*

1. In general, people really do care about the privacy of others.
2. The typical person is sincerely concerned about respecting the privacy of others.
3. Most of the time, people care enough to try to be considerate of others privacy, rather than just looking out for themselves.

#### *Integrity*

1. In general, most folks keep their promises to keep private things private.
2. I think people generally try to back up their promises of confidentiality with their actions.
3. Most people are honest in their desire to protect the privacy of others.

#### *Competence*

1. I believe that most professional people do a very good job at protecting privacy.
2. Most professionals are very knowledgeable about the consequences of privacy violations.
3. A large majority of professional people are competent at keeping personal information private.

#### *Trusting Stance*

1. I usually trust people to respect my personal information until they give me a reason not to trust them.
2. I generally give people the benefit of the doubt that they can protect personal information when I first meet them.
3. My typical approach is to trust new acquaintances with respecting personal information until they prove I should not trust them.

### Judgment of Moral Issue

Please specify the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

1. The interviewer's request would make me uncomfortable.
2. It is clearly immoral for the organization to make this request.
3. Complying with the interviewer's request is wrong for me to do.

## **IPPR Intention**

### ***Refusal***

Please specify the extent to which you would refuse to give your username and password to the organization because you think it is too personal.

1. Very unlikely/very likely
2. Not probable/probable
3. Impossible/possible

### ***Misrepresentation***

Please specify the extent to which you would falsify some of your personal information if you comply with the interviewer's request.

1. Very unlikely/very likely
2. Not probable/probable
3. Impossible/possible

### ***Removal***

Please specify the extent to which you would take actions to have information removed from the social media platform if you comply with the interviewer's request.

1. Very unlikely/very likely
2. Not probable/probable
3. Impossible/possible

### ***Negative Word-of-Mouth***

Please specify the extent to which you would speak to your friends and/or relatives about the interviewer's request.

1. Very unlikely/very likely
2. Not probable/probable
3. Impossible/possible

### ***Complaining Directly to Online Companies***

Please specify the extent to which you would write or call executives in this organization to complain about the interviewer's request.

1. Very unlikely/very likely
2. Not probable/probable
3. Impossible/possible



### *Complaining Indirectly to Third-Party Organizations*

Please specify the extent to which you would write or call an elected official, a news agency, or a business organization to complain about the request.

1. Very unlikely/very likely
2. Not probable/probable
3. Impossible/possible

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