

ScienceDirect



Review

Professions, honesty, and income Kelly A. Nault¹ and Stefan Thau²

Abstract

Professional choices influence valued outcomes such as income, life satisfaction, and social status. However, public opinion polls consistently illustrate that an individual's profession also influences how honest one is perceived to be, and people are motivated to see themselves as honest for many reasons. Why would people choose professions that do not confer them with the benefits of honesty? Survey data reveals honesty perceptions to positively correlate with a profession's conferred prestige (i.e., perceived value to society) and negatively correlate with a profession's annual income. The tradeoff between income and honesty perceptions suggests a wage differential mechanism—employees may maintain a positive self-concept through increased income which compensates for costs incurred by working in a profession characterized by low honesty.

Addresses

¹ IE Business School, Spain

² INSEAD, Singapore

Corresponding author: Nault, Kelly A. (kelly.nault@ie.edu)

Current Opinion in Psychology 2022, 47:101403

This review comes from a themed issue on Honesty and Deception

Edited by Maurice E. Schweitzer and Emma Levine

For a complete overview see the Issue and the Editorial

Available online 24 June 2022

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2022.101403

2352-250X/© 2022 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Keywords

Honesty, Professions, Income, Prestige.

The choice of a profession, "a vocation or career, especially one that involves prolonged training and a formal qualification" [1], is perhaps one of the most consequential choices adults make in their lives. Professions influence highly valued outcomes such as income, life satisfaction, power, and social status [2,3], with higher-paid professions generally leading to better outcomes and lower-paid professions to poorer ones [4,5]. Most research in organizational and social psychology has focused on the negative experiences of some professions that are generally poorly paid, such as greater rates of

burnout and stress amongst teachers and nurses [6,7]. Research has also highlighted the positive experiences of higher-paid professions such as business executives who are seen as highly capable of achieving desired goals [8], and who enjoy greater status [9] and well-being [10]. Collectively, this research suggests that high-(versus low-) income professions are invariably superior in their ability to confer benefits onto their members.

For decades, public opinion polls (e.g., Gallup, Ipsos, Pew Research) have suggested that a person's choice of profession leads others to perceive them as more or less honest. For example, in 2021, eight in ten Americans (81%) rated nurses to be highly honest, with only one in ten (9%) rating members of Congress to be equally honest. Honesty, defined as "truthfulness, sincerity, or frankness" [11], is fundamental to maintaining a positive self-concept [12-14]. People want to think of themselves as honest because honesty is strongly valued in society; honest behavior gets rewarded, and dishonesty punished. In addition, being seen as honest can have far-reaching effects on individuals' social and economic outcomes because honest people are seen as trustworthy [15]. Therefore, maintaining an appearance of honesty is critical for both how individuals see themselves, as well as how others view them.

Studies have begun to acknowledge differences in honesty perceptions based on membership in a particular profession, yet little is known about how members of low-honesty professions cope with this disadvantage [e.g., 16]. In this paper we provide an overview of the role honesty plays in society, highlight unanswered puzzles present in the current literature, and review relationships between different professions and the levels of honesty, income, and prestige afforded to them. We conclude by identifying promising avenues for future research.

Honesty in society

Honesty is a universally valued moral virtue [17,18]. Parents teach their children to "tell the truth," religions their members that they should not lie, and laws punish dishonest citizens with fines and jail time for crimes such as perjury and fraud [19,20]. The ubiquity of honesty as a value in society makes it important for people to see themselves as honest [12,13]. Individuals actively work to maintain beliefs of themselves as honest because it is fundamental to viewing oneself as a "good"

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

person [13,21-23]. Thus, perceiving oneself as honest provides psychological benefits to individuals.

In addition, honesty leads to positive social consequences. Honesty signals trustworthiness [24-26], which helps reduce transaction costs [27,28] as well as increase cooperative behavior and deference to authority [29-32]. Trust also influences key outcomes for individuals because it is an avenue by which individuals can increase the quality and types of relationships and networks, or their social capital [33]. High social capital is positively correlated with personal well-being and economic development [34]. Notably, trust differences between people of high versus low socioeconomic status are reported to lead to economic inequality [35]. This suggests that, via trust, perceptions of honesty lead to both social and economic benefits.

Profession-based honesty differences are critical to identify and understand because they can influence how individuals view themselves, as well as predict how the public interacts with and responds to members of these professions. Professions are a key trait by which we identify ourselves [36], and the profession to which one belongs is frequently shared in social interactions [37]. Therefore, one's profession becomes a salient characteristic by which observers make inferences about an individual's honesty.

Existing puzzles in the literature

The knowledge that membership in different professions influences perceived honesty begs two key questions. First, what leads certain professions to be seen as highly honest and others not? Past research claims that those with a higher income are stereotyped as less honest [38-40]. However, unacknowledged in previous literature is that high-earning professionals such as medical doctors and pharmacists repeatedly garner high honesty perceptions, while lower earning professions such as state officeholders are rated as very dishonest [41]. What explains this variance? Why don't all low-income employees similarly enjoy high honesty perceptions and high-income employees low honesty perceptions?

Second, given that dishonesty can lead to negative consequences such as low trust, as well as decreased help and increased anger and frustration from others [42–45], why do individuals in professions such as those of politician and advertising practitioner continue to enter and remain in dishonest professions when their skills and level of education should provide them the freedom to choose an alternative? Following this, do individuals engage in tradeoffs between the benefits and detriments of specific professions? Research on "dirty" and "high-risk" jobs suggests that undesirable working conditions are buffered by benefits like positive workgroup cultures and higher incomes [46,47]. Similarly,

high-responsibility jobs, which can lead to increased stress levels [48], often merit greater occupational prestige [49], a measure that reflects an occupation's perceived status in and value to society. These tradeoffs might create a market equilibrium that ensures a supply of workers into these jobs [47]. Given this, how are members of low honesty professional groups compensated so that they remain within the profession? Specifically, do individuals in low honesty professions benefit from greater annual income or prestige?

Determinants of category-based honesty perceptions

To answer these questions, we begin by examining how honesty perceptions are formed. Individuals are motivated to evaluate the honesty of others. Honesty is used as a signal of a person's underlying moral character, and therefore helps to determine whether someone is a "good" or a "bad" person [50-52]. Various sources of information are used to determine another's honesty. For example, congruency between a target's perceived attitude and emotions [53] and a target's nonverbal gestures (e.g., hand over heart, smile) [54,55] affect honesty perceptions. These characteristics, however, require personal knowledge about individuals which is not always available. Thus, observers must rely on alternative information when forming impressions of unknown others.

In such low-information instances, people rely on social categories and roles to determine the character of unknown others quickly and efficiently [56]. Specifically, knowledge about individuals' superficial characteristics (e.g., gender, race, profession) help observers categorize these individuals. Stereotypes about such groups subsequently shape perceptions and evaluations of target individuals [57-59]. For example, Gunia and Levine [60] find that observers make inferences about individuals' selling orientation, their likelihood of engaging in deception to benefit themselves, based on their occupational membership. In addition, knowledge about barriers to entry into specific groups and roles help shape our perceptions of others. When considering group membership in different professions, the educational and administrative requirements associated with for example, becoming and maintaining one's status as a doctor, lawyer, or politician may influence the characteristics we confer on members of these professions [57]. Thus, individuals are likely to rely on membership in a profession when making inferences about unknown others.

Profession-based differences in honesty perceptions

Honesty is particularly pertinent when interacting with professionals because it can help reduce exploitation in contexts of asymmetrical information [61] and reduce

monitoring costs associated with distrust in dishonest individuals [62]. Because we often engage with professionals specifically because of their relative expertise (e.g., their superior knowledge of medical or legal systems), believing that these professions are passing along honest information is central to creating productive interactions between professionals and consumers.

Past studies examining dishonesty in professions provide compelling evidence for our use of this categoriin characterizing unknown individuals. Specifically, experimental research [60] suggests that professions perceived to have high "selling-orientations," whereby members prioritize their own outcomes over customers' outcomes, are associated with perceptions of deception. This is because individuals in these professions are believed to communicate inaccurate information to their customers to obtain better outcomes for themselves. Members of these professions are therefore seen as trading off between helping themselves and being honest—the more "selling-oriented" a profession is, the less honest members of the profession are perceived to be. Selling-orientation is attributed not only to salespeople, but also to a wide variety of professions such as advertisers and investment bankers, whereas doctors, engineers, and professors are perceived to be low on this dimension.

In addition, providing evidence for the personal ramifications of profession-based honesty stereotypes, Pitesa et al. [16] examine the consequences of salespeople's self-perceived honesty. Across multiple studies, they observe that these professionals view themselves to be dishonest due to their need to communicate insincere information. Low honesty perceptions of themselves lead them to see others as less trustworthy. This finding suggests that membership in a low honesty profession can affect one's own self-concept and have behavioral consequences for social interactions.

Given these findings, it is likely that profession-based honesty perceptions are at least partly due to diverging perceptions of whether individuals will prioritize their own outcomes over others'. This adds complexity to previous views of honesty that suggest professions that grant similar salaries (e.g., doctor, politician), or those that require comparable educational or administrative merits (e.g., teacher, advertising executive), would be conferred similar levels of honesty. Instead, reported honesty perceptions are observed to be high for professions such as nurse, medical doctor, and teacher. These are categorized as helping professions [63], and thus in their nature is an assumption that others' needs will be put above one's own. Conversely, positions in advertising, banking, and politics are stereotyped as requiring persuading others to progress one's own self-interest. Our review of the literature thus suggests that individuals consider the likelihood of professionals' self-prioritization when determining the honesty of these individuals.

Compensating for low honesty perceptions

As aforementioned, negative consequences can stem from perceptions of low honesty such as a negative selfconcept and low trust [13,24-26], and dishonest individuals are observed to, in turn, trust others less [16]. Therefore, the question remains regarding why highly skilled and educated professionals choose to enter and remain in professions perceived to be dishonest, given the negative effects of doing so. A review of U.S. survey data between the years of 1997 and 2021 allowed us to explore whether tradeoffs between honesty, income, and occupational prestige help explain why low honesty professions remain desirable. (See Supplemental Material for more information on these data sources as well as data and syntax files used for analyses.) We focus on income and occupational prestige, the perceived social status of an occupation, because of their role in providing tangible benefits to individuals, such as greater happiness and health [4,5,64,65]. Higher income represents a resource with which individuals can directly gain access to desired outcomes (e.g., better medical care). Higher prestige gives individuals social status and reflects a job's value to society [66], which can lead to higher self-esteem and more favorable social interactions [67,68]. Thus, these benefits may compensate for the detriments of being a member of a dishonest profession.

The data reveal key relationships between honesty. income, and prestige. We observe income and trust to be negatively related ($\beta = -.28$), and prestige and trust to be positively related ($\beta = .48$). These associations are similar in magnitude to correlations found in secondary data surveying U.S. and international respondents between, for example, education and income ($\beta = .33$) and being of male gender and income ($\beta = .29$), as well as associations between social capital, a strong correlate of honesty, and well-being (β 's between .27 and .85) [69–71]. The positive relationship between prestige and honesty is consistent with past research citing positive effects of prestige on social capital [72], and positive correlations between the perceived competence and warmth of members of different professions, which encompass the traits of prestige and honesty, respectively [73]. In addition, consistent with past research on the negative association between personal income and honesty perceptions [38–40], professions with higher median wages garner lower honesty perceptions.

In addition, the data suggest that the tradeoff between honesty and income is somewhat larger for individuals in low versus high prestige positions. A one unit decrease in the percentage of people who believe a given profession is honest leads to an estimated \$335.10 increase in annual income. For example, between 1998 and 2018, stockbrokers (a low prestige, low honesty profession) earned on average \$82,939.33 annually, whereas chiropractors (a similarly low prestige, yet high honesty profession) earned only \$65,103.33 annually. Additionally, those in high prestige/low honesty professions are observed to earn more than those in high prestige/high honesty professions; a one unit decrease in the percentage of people who believe a given profession is honest leads to an estimated \$173.67 increase in annual income. This is evident when taking a high prestige/low honesty profession such as that of business executive (\$56,744.29 average annual wage) and comparing it to the high prestige/high honesty profession of high school teacher (\$52,148.33 average annual wage).

These data are suggestive of a phenomenon by which professionals trade off honesty for income, especially in low-prestige professions. Increased income may be beneficial for two reasons. First, individuals may use greater income to compensate for the inconveniences of working in a profession believed to be dishonest, for example, the increased transaction and monitoring costs needed to effectively conduct business [27,28,62]. Second, individuals may consider their relatively high income level as evidence to maintain a positive selfconcept. Research on contingent self-worth [74–76] suggests that successes and failures within a specific domain influence one's self-esteem to the extent that an individual believes that domain to be indicative of worth. Thus, for those viewing salary as a signal of personal value, higher incomes may be used as evidence of self-worth, offsetting any negative feedback stemming from membership in a profession characterized by low honesty.

Clearly, these data are correlational and are focused on only a small subset of all professions. We consider them suggestive of a trade-off mechanism enabling people to maintain a positive self-concept, but future research employing experimental designs to examine this effect is needed to test this possibility in a causal manner. We acknowledge the difficulty of doing so, given the structural dissimilarity between making choices in the lab versus those naturally occurring.

Future research directions

This review highlights the differences in honesty attributed to members of varied professions and reveals a potential wage differential process by which people maintain their positive self-concept within professions characterized by low honesty. These findings pave the way for future research on the relationships between honesty, prestige, and income. First, given the observed negative relationship between income and honesty, future studies examining who suffers the consequences of low honesty (e.g., employees, consumers) as well as

how employees maintain positive self-concepts in professions characterized by dishonesty would be helpful to better understand members' experiences. Research suggests that individuals engage in varied self-protection strategies (e.g., self-affirmation, reframing work actions more positively, overreporting competence) to restore positive self-evaluations when experiencing threat [77–79]. Identifying whether and when professionals develop and employ coping mechanisms to manage perceptions of low honesty would shed further light.

Additionally, research examining whether individuals entering low versus high honesty professions accurately estimate the level of honesty for their profession and if not, identifying the bases of these inaccuracies (e.g., lack of knowledge, belief in one's ability to change the status quo) could help explain why individuals continue to be attracted to low honesty professions. Lastly, given that those in dishonest professions may lack the opportunity to prove their honesty, identifying if and how individuals are able to overcome stereotypes of dishonesty and foster trust between themselves and their clients could provide information for how to interrupt cycles that work to perpetuate negative beliefs.

Conclusion

In sum, professions provide a categorical system by which people infer the honesty of member individuals. Distinct characteristics of professions, namely prestige and income, show strong positive and negative relationships, respectively, with perceived honesty. The inverse relationship between honesty and income suggests that individuals may trade off one for the other, welcoming increased compensation to maintain a positive self-concept when working in a profession characterized by low honesty.

Declaration of competing interest

Nothing declared.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2022.101403.

References

Papers of particular interest, published within the period of review, have been highlighted as:

- * of special interest
- Oxford university press: profession. 2022, March. n, https://www.oed.com/viewdictionaryentry/Entry/152052.
- De Neve JE, Ward G: Does work make you happy? Evidence from the world happiness report. Harv Bus Rev 2017, 4:1-7.
- Xie Y, Killewald A, Near C: Between- and within-occupation inequality: the case of high-status professions. Ann Am Acad Polit Soc Sci 2016, 663:53-79, https://doi.org/10.1177/ 0002716215596958.

- Benzeval M, Judge K: Income and health: the time dimension. Soc Sci Med 2001, **52**:1371–1390, https://doi.org/10.1016/s0279536(00)00244-6. PMID: 11286362.
- Easterlin RA: Income and happiness: towards a unified theory. Econom J 2001, 111:465-484, https://doi.org/10.1111/1468 0297.00646.
- Khan F, Khan Q, Kanwal A, Bukhair N: Impact of job stress and social support with job burnout among universities faculty members. Paradigms 2018, 12. 201+, https://link.gale.com/apps/ doc/A584101361/AONE? u=anoñfc8b8e8e&sid=googleScholar&xid=ba9e8187.
- Toh SG, Ang E, Devi MK: Systematic review on the relationship between the nursing shortage and job satisfaction stress and burnout levels among nurses in oncology/ haematology settings. Int J Evid Base Healthc 2012, 10: 126-141, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-1609.2012.00271.x.
- Wu SJ, Bai X, Fiske ST: Admired rich or resented rich? How two cultures vary in envy. J Cross Cult Psychol 2018, 49: 1114-1143, https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022118774943
- Singh-Manoux A, Adler NE, Marmot MG: Subjective social status: its determinants and its association with measures of ill-health in the Whitehall II study. Soc Sci Med 2003, 56: 1321–1333, https://doi.org/10.1016/s0277-9536(02)00131-4.
- 10. Cummins RA: Personal income and subjective well-being: a review. J Happiness Stud: An Interdisciplinary Forum on Subjective Well-Being 2000, 1:133–158, https://doi.org/10.1023/A: 1010079728426
- 11. Collins: Definition of honesty. 2022, June. https://www. collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/honesty
- Aguino K, Reed II A: The self-importance of moral identity. J Pers Soc Psychol 2002, 83:1423-1440, https://doi.org/10.1037/ 0022-3514 83 6 1423
- 13. Mazar N, Amir O, Ariely D: The dishonesty of honest people: a theory of self-concept maintenance. J Market Res 2008, 45: 633-644, https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkr.45.6.633.
- 14. Speer SPH, Smidts A, Boksem MAS: Cognitive control increases honesty in cheaters but cheating in those who are honest. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2020, 117:19080-19091, https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2003480117.
- 15. Evans AM, Krueger JI: The psychology (and economics) of trust. Soc. and Personality Psychology Compass 2009, 3: 1003–1017, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2009.00232.x.
- Pitesa M, Goh Z, Thau S: **Mandates of dishonesty: the psychological and social costs of mandated attitude expression**. *Organ Sci* 2018, **29**:418–431.

The authors examine how self-perceptions of dishonesty impact trust impressions of others. Findings reveal that salespeople perceive themselves to be dishonest, leading to lower trust in those with whom they interact.

- 17. Kinnier RT, Kernes JL, Dautheribes TM: A short list of universal moral values. Counsel Val 2000, 45:4-16, https://doi.org/ 10.1002/j.2161-007X.2000.tb00178.x.
- 18. Raiborn CA, Payne D: Corporate codes of conduct: a collective conscience and continuum. J Bus Ethics 1990, 9:879-889, https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00382911.
- 19. U.S. Code 1341 § 2008.
- 20. U.S. Code 1621 § 1994..
- 21. Greenwald AG: The totalitarian ego: fabrication and revision of personal history. *Am Psychol* 1980, **35**:603–618, https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.35.7.603.
- Griffin DW, Dunning D, Ross L: The role of construal processes in overconfident predictions about the self and others. J Pers Soc Psychol 1990, 59:1128-1139, https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-
- Sanitioso R, Kunda Z, Fong GT: Motivated recruitment of autobiographical memories. J Pers Soc Psychol 1990, 59: 229–241, https://doi.org/10.1037//0022-3514.59.2.229.

24. Bellucci G, Park SQ: Honesty biases trustworthiness impressions. J Exp Psychol Gen 2020, 149:1567-1586, https://doi.org/ 10.1037/xge0000730

The authors examine the relationship between honesty and trust. Using experimental studies, results reveal that initial impressions of honesty lead to trust, even when signs of dishonesty are later

- Grover SL: Lying in organizations. In Antisocial behavior in organizations. Edited by Giacalone RA, Greenberg J, Sage Publications, Inc.; 1997:68-84.
- 26. Perry RW, Mankin LD: Organizational trust, trust in the chief executive and work satisfaction. Publ Person Manag 2007, 36: 165-179, https://doi.org/10.1177/009102600703600205.
- 27. Bromiley P, Cummings LL: Transaction costs in organisations with trust. Research on negotiation in organizations. JAI Press;
- 28. Uzzi B: Social structure and competition in interfirm networks: the paradox of embeddedness. Adm Sci Q 1997, 42: 35-67, https://doi.org/10.2307/2393808.
- 29. Brann P. Foddy M: Trust and the consumption of a deteriorating common resource. J Conflict Resolut 1987, 31: 615-630.
- 30. Parks CD, Henager RF, Scamahorn SD: Trust and reactions to messages of intent in social dilemmas. J Conflict Resolut 1996, 40:134-151, https://doi.org/10.1177/ 0022002796040001007
- 31. Miller G: Managerial dilemmas: the political economy of hierarchy. Cambridge University Press; 1992.
- 32. Tyler TR: Psychological models of the justice motive: antecedents and distributive and procedural justice. J Pers Soc Psychol 1994, 67:850-863.
- 33. Coleman JS: Social capital in the creation of human capital. Am J Sociol 1988, 94:95–120.
- 34. Morrone A, Tontoranelli N, Ranuzzi G: How good is trust?: measuring trust and its role for the progress of societies OECD Statistics Working Papers 2009, 3, https://doi.org/10.1787/ 220633873086.
- 35. Pitesa M, Thau S, Pillutla MM: Workplace trust as a mechanism of employee (dis)advantage: the case of employee socioeconomic status. Res Organ Behav 2017, 37:83-101, https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.riob.2017.10.006.
- 36. Robertson PJ, Hooley T, McCash P. The Oxford handbook of career development. Oxford University Press; 2021.
- 37. Svennevig J: Getting acquainted in conversation: a study of initial interactions. John Benjamins Publishing; 2000.
- Jost JT, Burgess D, Mosso CO: Conflicts of legitimation among self, group, and system: the integrative potential of system justification theory. In The psychology of legitimacy: emerging perspectives on ideology, justice, and intergroup re-lations. Edited by Jost JT, Major B, Cambridge University Press; 2001:363-388.
- 39. Lane RE: The fear of equality. Am Polit Sci Rev 1959, 53:35-51.
- 40. Lerner MJ: The belief in a just world: a fundamental delusion. 1980. Plenum.
- 41. Saad L: U.S. ethics ratings rise for medical workers and teachers. 2020. Gallup, https://news.gallup.com/poll/328136/ethics-ratingsrise-medical-workers-teachers.aspx.
- 42. Gunderson CA, Baker A, Pence AD, ten Brinke L: Interpersonal consequences of deceptive expressions of sadness. Pers Soc Psychol Bull 2021:1-13, https://doi.org/10.11

The authors examine reactions to inauthentic emotional expressions. Observers use empirically valid cues to determine authenticity of emotions, and offer less sympathy and help to dishonest individuals.

Keck S: Group reactions to dishonesty. Organ Behav Hum Decis Process 2014, 124:1-10, https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.obhdp.2013.12.006.

- Kramer RM: The sinister attribution error: paranoid cognition and collective distrust in organizations. Motivation and emotion. Motiv Emot 1994, 18:199–230.
- Main KJ, Dahl DW, Darke PR: Deliberative and automatic bases of suspicion: empirical evidence of the sinister attribution error. J Consum Psychol 2007, 17:59–69, https://doi.org/ 10.1207/s15327663jcp1701_9.
- Ashforth BE, Kreiner GE: "How can you do it?": dirty work and the challenge of constructing a positive identity. Acad Manag Rev 1999, 24:413–434, https://doi.org/10.2307/259134.
- Rosen S: The theory of equalizing differences. In The handbook of labor economics. Edited by Ashenfelter OC, Layard R, Amsterdam: North-Holand; 1986:641–692.
- Gonçalves A, Fontes L, Simães C, Gomes AR: Stress and burnout in health professionals. In Occupational and environmental safety and health. Edited by Arezes PM, Baptista JS, Barroso MP, Carneiro P, Cordeiro P, Costa N, Melo RB, Miguel AS, Perestrelo G, Springer; 2019:563–571.
- Simpson RL, Simpson IH: Correlates and estimation of occupational prestige. Am J Sociol 1960, 66:135–140. http://www. jstor.org/stable/2773157.
- Cohen TR, Morse L: Moral character: what it is and what it does. Res Organ Behav 2014, 34:43–61, https://doi.org/10.2139/ ssrn.2443685.
- Rosenberg S, Nelson C, Vivekananthan PS: A multidimensional approach to the structure of personality impressions. J Pers Soc Psychol 1968, 9:283–294, https://doi.org/10.1037/h0026086.
- Wojciszke B: Affective concomitants of information on morality and competence. Eur Psychol 2005, 10:60–70, https://doi.org/10.1027/1016-9040.10.1.60.
- Danvers AF, Hu JI, O'Neil MJ: Emotional congruence and judgments of honesty and bias. Collabra: Psychology 2018, 4: 40, https://doi.org/10.1525/collabra.178.
- 54. Krys K, Vauclair CM, Capaldi CA, Lun VMC, Bond MH, Dominguez-Espinosa A, Torres C, Lipp OV, Manickam LSS, Xing C, Antalikova R, Pavlopoulos V, Teyssier J, Hur T, Hansen K, Szarota P, Ahmed RA, Burtceva E, Chkhaidze A, Cenko E, Denoux P, Fulop M, Hassan A, Igbokwe DO, Isik I, Javangwe G, Malbran M, Maricchiolo F, Mikarsa H, Miles LK, Nader M, Park J, Rizwan M, Salem R, Schwarz B, Shah I, Sun CR, van Tilburg W, Wagner W, Wise R, Yu AA: Be careful where you smile: culture shapes judgments of intelligence and honesty of smilling individuals. J Nonverbal Behav 2016, 40:101–116, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10919-015-0226-4.
- Parzuchowski M, Szymkow A, Baryla W, Wojciszke B: From the heart: hand over heart as an embodiment of honesty. Cognit Process 2014, 15:237–244, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10339-014-0606-4.
- 56. Leung WKS, Chang MK, Cheung ML, Shi S: Swift trust development and prosocial behavior in time banking: a trust transfer and social support theory perspective. Computers in Hum Bev 2022, 129, 107137, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2021.107137.

The authors examine when and how trust can be developed quickly. Findings reveal that category- and institution-based trust positively affect the development of trust towards NGOs.

57. Kroeger F, Racko G, Burchell B: How to create trust quickly: a comparative empirical investigation of the bases of swift trust. Camb J Econ 2021, 45:129–150, https://doi.org/10.1093/ cje/beaa041.

The authors report the results of a systematic review on the bases of swift trust. Findings reveal reputational and institutional information play a role in encouraging trust.

 Brewer MB: When stereotypes lead to stereotyping: the use of stereotype in person perception. In Stereotypes and stereotyping. Edited by Macrae CN, Stangor C, Hewstone M, Guilford Press; 1996:254–275.

- Jussim L, Fleming CJ, Coleman L, Kohberger C: The nature of stereotypes: II. A multiple-process model of evaluations. J Appl Soc Psychol 1996, 26:283–312, https://doi.org/10.1111/ j.1559-1816.1996.tb01851.x.
- 60. Gunia BC, Levine EE: Deception as competence: the effect of occupational stereotypes on the perception and proliferation of deception. Organ Behav Hum Decis Process 2019, 152: 122–137, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2019.02.003.

The authors examine perceptions of deception across different professions. Findings reveal that this trait is desirable for occupations that necessitate a selling-orientation.

- 61. Akerlof GA: The market for "lemons": wuality uncertainty and the market mechanism. *Q J Econ* 1970, **84**:488–500, https://doi.org/10.2307/1879431.
- Jensen MC, Meckling WH: Theory of the firm: managerial behavior, agency costs and ownership structure. J Financ Econom 1976, 3:305–360.
- APA Dictionary of Psychology: helping professions. 2022, June. https://dictionary.apa.org/helping-professions.
- 64. Fujishiro K, Xu J, Gong F: What does "occupation" represent as an indicator of socioeconomic status?: exploring occupational prestige and health. Soc Sci Med 2010, 71: 2100–2107, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2010.09.026.
- Twenge JM, Cooper AB: The expanding class divide in happiness in the United States, 1972–2016. Emotion 2022, 22: 701–713, https://doi.org/10.1037/emo0000774.
- Goyder J, Frank K: A scale of occupational prestige in Canada, based on NOC major groups. The Canadian J of Sociology/ Cahiers Canadiens de Sociologie 2007, 32:63–83, https://doi.org/ 10.2307/20460616.
- Faunce WA: Occupational status-assignment systems: the effect of status on self esteem. Am J Sociol 1989, 95:378–400.
- Matthews KA, Räikkönen K, Everson SA, Flory JD, Marco CA, Owens JF, Lloyd CE: Do the daily experiences of healthy men and women vary according to occupational prestige and work strain? Psychosom Med 2000, 62:346–353, https://doi.org/ 10.1097/00006842-200005000-00008.
- Bartolini S, Sarracino F: Happy for how long? How social capital and economic growth relate to happiness over time. *Ecol Econ* 2014, 108:242–256, https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.ecolecon.2014.10.004.
- Bjornskov C: Social capital and happiness in the United States. Applied Research in Quality of Life 2008, 3:43–62, https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-008-9046-6.
- Furnham A, Cheng H: Social-demographic indicators, cognitive ability, personality traits, and region as independent predictors of income: findings from the UK household longitudinal study (UKHLS). *J Intell* 2018, 6, https://doi.org/10.3390/iintelligence6020019.
- Menardo E, Viola M, Pierluigi I, Cretella C, Cubelli R, Balboni G: Socioeconomic status, cultural capital, and social capital in adults: a structural equation model. *Psicothema* 2022, 34: 74–83, https://doi.org/10.7334/psicothema2021.231.
- 73. Friehs MT, Lukassowitz FA, Wagner U: **Stereotype content of*** occupational groups in Germany. *J Appl Soc Psychol* 2022: 1–17, https://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12872.

The stereotype content of 13 occupational groups is examined. The two dimensions of stereotypes (competence and warmth) are found to be positive correlate for professions.

- Crocker J, Sommers SR, Luhtanen RK: Hopes dashed and dreams fulfilled: contingencies of self-worth and graduate school admissions. Pers Soc Psychol Bull 2002, 9:1275–1286, https://doi.org/10.1177/01461672022812012.
- Crocker J, Wolfe CT: Contingencies of self-worth. Psychol Rev 2001, 108:593–623, https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.108.3.593.

- Kernis MH, Waschull SB: The interactive roles of stability and level of self-esteem: research and theory. In Zanna MP. Advances in experimental social psychology, vol. 27. Academic Press; 1995: 93–141, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60404-9.
- Ghosal S, Jana S, Mani A, Mitra S, Roy S: Sex workers, stigma, and self-image: evidence from Kolkata brothels. Rev Econ Stat 2022:1–18, https://doi.org/10.1162/rest_a_01013.
- Steinhart Y, Jiang Y: Securing the future: threat to self-image spurs financial saving intentions. J Pers Soc Psychol 2019, 117:741-757, https://doi.org/10.1037/pspa0000159.
- 79. Wakeman SW, Moore C, Gino F: A counterfeit competence: after threat, cheating boosts one's self-image. *J Exp Soc Psychol* 2019, **82**:253–265, https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.jesp.2019.01.009.