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IMPACT OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES ON FAKING BEHAVIOR

BY

NORAH BEVERLY KERUBO ORINA

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

Master of Science

Industrial/Organizational Psychology

South Dakota State University

2018

IMPACT OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES ON FAKING BEHAVIOR

This thesis is approved as a creditable and independent investigation by a candidate for the Master of Science in Industrial/Organizational Psychology degree and is acceptable for meeting the thesis requirements for this degree. Acceptance of this does not imply that the conclusions reached by the candidates are necessarily the conclusions of the major department.

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ABSTRACT

IMPACT OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES ON FAKING BEHAVIOR

NORAH BEVERLY KERUBO ORINA

2018

Despite the widespread use of personality tests over the past decades for personnel selection, personality tests are known to be fakable by applicants. Professionals often design interventions during the selection process to reduce applicant faking. The current research examined the impact of individual differences faking behavior that are known to be associated with faking behavior in applicants. They included integrity, self-control, self-monitoring, narcissism, impulsivity and external locus of control. This research tested hypotheses that applicants would fake differently on the various individual difference variables and whether the relationship between faking behavior and individual differences would be consistent across sex and job groups. Unfortunately, the results yielded no significance on most of the hypotheses. Taken together, organizations may still benefit from gaining deeper knowledge and understanding on how various individual differences impact faking behavior when considering sex and job groups to put forth appropriate interventions that will effectively reduce faking behavior in personnel selection.

INTRODUCTION

Personality tests have been widely used as one of the most popular assessments of personnel selection (Hough & Oswald, 2000). Approximately 30% of organizations around the world use personality tests for their managerial and organizational decisions (Tett, Christiansen, Robie, & Simonet, 2011). Much research has demonstrated that personality traits are indeed associated with important job-related criterion outcomes such as task performance, training proficiency, organizational citizenship behaviors, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Dudley, Orvis, Lebiecki, & Cortina, 2006; Hough, 1992; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000). Also, the use of personality tests can reduce adverse impact and provides incremental validity over cognitive ability tests in predicting job performance (Hough, Oswald, & Ployhart, 2001).

Despite the benefits that personality tests provide, some researchers and practitioners are reluctant to accept personality tests as a valid means of selecting employees due to concerns over applicant faking (Hough & Oswald, 2008). Kuncel and Borneman (2007) defined faking as an individual's conscious attempt to appear more favorable to a prospective employer by giving deceptive or misleading information with regards to his/her experiences, past behaviors, attitudes, interests and personality. Research examining the faking issue has clearly concluded that applicants are able to inflate their scores on personality tests (Griffith, Chmielowski, & Yoshita, 2007; Tett, Freund, Christiansen, Fox, & Coaster, 2012). For example, when respondents are given instructions to fake in laboratory settings, the scores produced on validity scales are more than one standard deviation. (Viswesvaran & Ones, 1999). Also, some literature points to

the fact that job applicants engage in faking in real personnel selection contexts, not just in laboratory settings (Donovan, Dwight, & Hurtz, 2003; Griffith, Chmielowski, & Yoshita, 2007; Griffith & Converse, 2011). Griffith and Converse (2011) reported that roughly 30% of potential job applicants engage in faking behavior and manage their impressions on pre-employment screening tools like personality tests. In addition, 47% of applicants in the United States admit to exaggerating positive attributes while another 62% admit to putting less emphasis on negative attributes that they possess on selection measures (Konig, Hafsteinsson, Jansen, & Stadelmann, 2011).

Consequently, researchers seek to discern whether faking presents a negative influence on the validity of personality tests and the quality of organizational decision-making in selection systems (Griffith, Chmielowski, & Yoshita, 2007). Many researchers suggest that when personality measures are faked, there is a detrimental effect on the construct validity due to the distortion of conceptual factor structure and inflation of factor inter-correlations (e.g., Ellingson, Sackett, & Hough, 1999; Montag & Comrey, 1990). The "Ideal Employee Factor" has been consistently found to be evident in faking conditions than in honest conditions (Lee, Mahoney, & Lee, 2017; Schmit & Ryan, 1993; Klehe et al., 2012). Ideal Employee Factor is described as when applicants distort their responses to meet requirements they consider to be of an ideal employee through an unconscious process to get a desired position (Smith, Hanges, & Dickson, 2001).

Although some researchers argue that faking has a negligible impact on criterion related validities (e.g., Ones & Viswesvaran, 1999; Barrick & Mount, 1996), many other researchers have found that faking can decrease criterion-related validities which is the degree to which a measure is related to an outcome such as job performance (Mueller-

Hanson, Heggstad, & Thornton, 2003; Peeters & Lievens, 2005; Komar, Komar & Robie, 2008). Dwight and Donovan (2003) found that individuals who inflate their responses even by a degree considered to be moderate, have the potential to displace candidates that are honest at the top of a selection pool by distorting rank ordering. This then leads to an unfair selection process. Thus, faking reduces the overall utility of selection systems (Anderson, Sison, & Wester, 1984; Christiansen, Johnston & Rothstein, 1994; Rosse, Stecher, Miller & Levin 1998).

It is of importance to understand various individual differences that have been associated with faking behavior (Levashina & Campion, 2007). Job applicants may be involved in different types of faking behavior depending on their individual differences, and this may have a differential relationship with actual faking behavior. According to Griffith, Lee, Peterson, and Zickar (2011), those with high self-monitoring and stable self-esteem are more likely to be associated with self-presentation faking behavior. Also, narcissists and those with high stable self-esteem are related to exaggeration faking behavior. Those with high levels of cognitive and behavioral impulsivity are likely to engage in reactive responding. Finally, those low in integrity and have an external locus of control are more likely to engage in fraudulent responding. The suggestion by Griffith et al., (2011) could help researchers and practitioners gain insight and a deeper understanding on specific faking behaviors and their associations with various individual differences.

Examining individual differences associated with faking can help to develop more effective and adaptive interventions in the selection process to reduce faking behavior. Levashina and Campion (2007) developed and validated the Faking Behavior Scale for

the employment interview based on a taxonomy of faking behaviors. The results of their study showed that faking behavior can be grouped into four categories. They included; ‘Slight Image Creation’ which includes individuals that exaggerate slightly but are close to the truth, ‘Extensive Image Creation’ includes individuals who invent job experience information and pretend to possess certain competencies, ‘Image Protection’ includes individuals who intentionally omit unattractive personal job-related information, and ‘Ingratiation’ includes individuals who try to make a favorable impression to get a good score regardless of their performance. Extensive image creation and image protection can be labeled as severe forms of faking while slight image creation and ingratiation as forms of mild faking. In their study, undergraduate job candidates were reported to use significantly more ingratiation, followed by slight image creation, image protection, and extensive image creation.

Levashina and Campion (2017) show that there are different faking behaviors in the employment interview and relates to my study which seeks to find out how individual differences impact faking behavior in personnel selection. This is since the proposition is that an understanding of individual differences would help to identify different faking behaviors. Therefore, identifying the individual differences on faking behavior may be of practical importance when developing adaptive interventions to reduce faking behavior in the employment setting. This is related to the present study that will be introduced below in detail.

A conceptual faking model by Griffith (2011)

Recently, Griffith and colleagues (2011) proposed a new model to explain the relationship between individual differences and faking behavior. Their model uses trait

contract classification theory, which proposes that individual differences play a role in an applicant's motivation to fake. Griffith and colleagues include traits with theoretical and empirical linkages to self-enhancement and deception which are associated with faking behavior. The individual differences included in Griffith et al's model are, self-esteem, narcissism, impulsivity, integrity/honesty-humility, and locus of control. (see Figure 1). The model proposed four categories of faking behavior, self-presentation, exaggeration, reactive responding, and deceptive responding. Individuals with high self-monitoring and high stable self-esteem are associated with the first category which is 'self-presentation' form of faking behavior. This includes individuals who strive to maintain a certain reputation before an audience. The second category, which is exaggeration, includes narcissists and those with high stable self-esteem. Exaggeration involves elevating one's past achievements far beyond the truth. Those with high levels of cognitive and behavioral impulsivity make the third category which is 'reactive responding' that involves individuals who don't have an intent to fake but later manipulate their responses when they realize they can. Lastly, the fourth category includes those low in integrity and those that have an external locus of control and are more likely to engage in 'deceptive responding'. Individuals engaging in fraudulent responding lie and cheat on personality items. The third and fourth category stand out and are of a darker shed since they represent severe forms of faking behavior that include deception as illustrated in Figure 1. When applicants engage in deception during the employment selection, this could potentially be the beginning of future deceptive behavior in the organization (Fleming & Zyglidopoulos, 2008). Also, the definition of faking suggests that it is deceptive behavior,

but mild faking is more socially acceptable than severe faking behavior (Levashina & Campion, 2007).

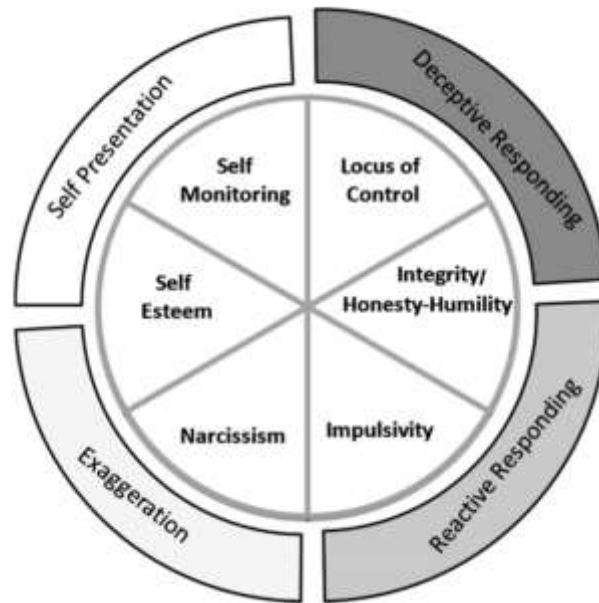


Figure 1. Association between individual differences and categories of faking behavior.
Note. Copied from Griffith, Lee, Peterson, & Zickar (2011).

Details of the six individual differences

1. Integrity

Integrity is defined as the quality of being honest and trustworthy (Sackett & Wanek, 1996). Individuals can be categorized into high or low integrity groups (Sackett & Wanek, 1996). High integrity is associated with responsibility, moderation and being reserved while low integrity is related to an individual who has no moral principles to be honest in a situation that allows for deception and they can get rewards for deceptive behavior. Employers therefore view high integrity as an essential employee characteristic (Coyne & Bartram, 2000). Subsequently, research has found that low integrity is an

antecedent for faking behavior since it can be associated with dishonesty and deception which applicants can engage in when filling out personality tests (McFarland & Ryan, 2000).

1. Narcissism

Narcissism is defined as a personality trait that is characterized by an excessive sense of self-importance, obsession with fame and success, predisposition to exploit others and lack of empathy, and envy (Tamborski & Brown, 2011). Jonason and Webster (2010) also found that applicant's attitudes toward faking are more positive if they possess a "darker" personality profile (e.g., high in machiavellianism or narcissism). Also, when individuals are low in integrity and high on the dark triad of personality (i.e., machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy), they tend to favor strategic behaviors that are more short term in interpersonal relations (Jonason & Schmitt, 2012), and adapt their behaviors to get the most resources from their interaction partners (O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel, 2012). The implication is that applicants may fake in personality tests to make a favorable impression during personnel selection process. In addition, narcissists tend to manipulate or exploit others to achieve their objectives (Hilbig & Zettler, 2015). Thus, a narcissistic applicant would participate in faking to achieve an objective such as acquiring a job.

2. Impulsivity

Impulsivity is defined as a broad concept that includes actions that are poorly conceived, prematurely expressed, overly risky, or inappropriate to the situation and that often results in undesirable outcomes (Barratt & Patton, 1983). Krosnick (1991) suggested that impulsive behavior may cause a respondent to accept the first available

choice when completing personality test items, rather than putting in the effort to weigh the alternatives to accurately respond to an item. This can be linked to faking since impulsive applicants may be highly motivated to fake but will carelessly respond to personality items and end up lowering their performance intentionally in those tests. Also, much research suggests that impulsivity is conceptually and empirically related to organizational delinquency (Gibson & Wright, 2001) which is linked to faking behavior.

3. Self-monitoring

Self-monitoring is defined as self-observation and self-control guided by situational cues to social appropriateness (Snyder, 1974). Applicants high on the trait of self-monitoring regulate and control the image they present to be congruent with the demands of social situations (tests) to form positive social appearances (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). High self-monitors are thought to be socially ambitious (Barrick, Parks, & Mount, 2005), attuned to situational cues, and possess in them the ability and willingness to modify their behavior accordingly. Turnley and Bolino (2001) found that individuals who were more effective when engaging in faking behavior were also high in self-monitoring compared to individuals who were low in self-monitoring. Also, Kilduff and Day (1994) further suggest that individuals who are high in self-monitoring are more likely to engage in behavior to get ahead in organizations. This can imply that high self-monitors will change their attitudes or engage in faking behavior to be appropriate for certain situations such as personality tests to be successful in employment interviews.

4. Self esteem

Self-esteem is defined as the value that people place on themselves (Baumeister, 1993). Kernis (2003) proposed that the self-esteem trait can be split into two: secure self-

esteem and fragile self-esteem; and both can self-enhance to a similar degree but may do so due to different reasons. Individuals with secure self-esteem are more likely to self-present; while those with fragile self-esteem are more likely to exaggerate. Exaggeration and self-presentation in personality tests is closely linked to faking behavior (Griffith et al, 2011). Therefore, individuals with fragile self-esteem may engage in self-enhancement as a defense mechanism to protect themselves against a threat to their self-worth, but those with secure self-esteem are likely to participate in inflation of their scores (Marcus, 2009). Also, Brown (1986) found that individuals that were more likely to rate themselves higher than they rated others on a wide variety of personality traits were those high on self-esteem. Since these individuals rate themselves higher than others, this can lead to higher scores on personality tests that are not true, and this is a contributing factor to faking behavior.

5. Locus of control

According to Rotter (1990), Locus of Control (LOC) refers to the extent to which individuals believe that they can control event outcomes to their own behavior. Snell et al. (1999) suggested that LOC may be an individual difference likely to be related with faking behavior. Research was therefore done to determine the direction of locus control in relation to faking and found that those with an external LOC make less ethical decisions (Trevino & Youngblood, 1990), and are more willing to engage in cheating (Coleman & Mahaffey, 2000). Also, applicants with an external locus of control and those low on integrity are likely to engage in fraudulent responding (Judge & Bono, 2001). Thus, during selection, individuals with an external LOC may fake because of a perceived lack of control of the process. In addition, (Judge and Bono (2001) reported

that hiring of fakers with external LOC may later impact the organization negatively with lower job performance.

Individual differences and job group

A meta-analytic investigation of job applicant faking on personality measures by Birkeland, Manson, Kisamore, Brannick, and Smith (2006), reported effect size differences on the Big Five personality dimensions between applicants and non-applicants that ranged from .11 to .45 showing that applicants score differently on individual difference variable measures. Applicants had significantly higher scores than non-applicants on conscientiousness, extraversion, openness and emotional stability. Applicants increased their scores on extraversion but deflated their scores on agreeableness in sales jobs. The effect size difference concludes that applicants could adapt their responses to exhibit personality characteristics that they think are relevant to a specific job. Zhao and Seibert (2006) found that on the measure of agreeableness, entrepreneurs tend to score lower than members of other occupations because typically a good entrepreneur should score low on agreeableness for negotiation purposes. When applicants perceive personality traits to be job relevant, they are more likely to fake those personality traits required by the job (Furnham, 1990).

Tett, Freund, Christiansen, Fox and Coaster (2012) assessed faking on emotional intelligence by combining effects of cognitive ability, opportunity to fake, and trait job-relevance. 150 undergraduates completed a test under the honest and faking condition. In the faking condition, participants were asked to respond in a way to appear ideal for one of three jobs. The findings were that faking was greater with those who had a greater opportunity to fake and on job relevant traits. In addition, past research has found that

when applying for particular jobs, individuals can fake in line with the requirements of that specific job (Furnham, 1990; Raymark & Tafero, 2009, Velicer & Weiner, 1975).

Individual differences and sex

Since sex and individual difference variables interact to influence behavior (Deaux and Major 1987), previous research supports that with respect to ethical beliefs and behavior of men and women, the likelihood for men to use severe forms of faking behavior such as lying is higher than that of women (Volkema, 2004). There is little past research that has studied the relationship between individual differences and faking behavior across sex.

Present Investigation and Hypotheses

Individual differences in faking include Machiavellianism, narcissism, integrity, cognitive ability, self-monitoring, motivation and willingness to fake, (Mueller-Hanson, Heggstad, & Thornton, 2006; Snell et al., 1999). Little information has been found on which individual differences are most important in faking behavior across sex and job groups. A major goal of the current study is to identify which individual differences are more associated with faking behavior, as this has not been studied before to the best of my knowledge. Also, my study seeks to find out whether the relationship between faking behavior and individual differences is consistent across sex. Lastly my study focuses on whether the relationship between faking behavior and individual differences is consistent across job groups. Some studies, (e.g., Furnham, 1990; Zhao & Seibert, 2006) have provided information on this. My study therefore seeks to provide more information on these areas. Therefore, the following were hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1: Some individual difference variables will have a more significant contribution in explaining the variance of faking than others.

This knowledge would be useful for organizations to make a more informed decision on reducing faking behavior by categorizing faking behaviors. For example, organizations can categorize faking behavior as being mild or severe, which aids in decision making. They might decide to use further tests on those they consider severe fakers.

To find out the relationship between faking behavior and individual differences in males and females, the following was hypothesized:

Hypothesis 2: There will be significant differences in faking scores between males and females on the individual difference variables.

This information would contribute to developing Differential Item Functioning (DIF) free faking behavior scales to ensure items used to measure faking behavior can be used fairly without showing any differences between males and females.

Finally, to investigate the relationship between individual differences and faking behavior across job groups (e.g., education, business, engineering, health related job groups). The following was hypothesized:

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between faking behavior and individual differences will be significantly different across job groups.

This information would help practitioners know how to better frame questions or use interviewing techniques that are not so obvious to the specific job requirements. This would be useful in reducing faking behavior.

METHOD

Participants

A sample of one hundred and twenty-nine undergraduate students from a large Midwestern university voluntarily participated in the study. Of these, 98 (76%) were females and 31 (24%) were males. The survey was conducted using an online survey that was made available on QuestionPro. Some students received extra credit for their participation in the study.

Design

A within-subjects design was used where the same participants were asked to complete a survey twice (once under the honest condition, and once under the faking condition.) The design was suitable because it accounts for variability in faking behavior within a person (Griffith, Chmielowski, & Yoshita, 2007). Conscientiousness personality dimension scores were used for analysis since past research indicates that when instructed to fake participants are more likely to fake on conscientiousness to make their scores look good (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1998). Faking behavior was operationalized by the difference score for conscientiousness dimension between the faking and honest conditions.

Procedure

Participants from two classes in the psychology department and four classes in the education department completed the survey at time 1 under the honest condition. After approximately two weeks, the same participants completed the survey at time 2 under the

faking condition. The participants that completed the survey at both time 1 and 2 received extra credit in some of the classes. Random responding on the survey which is defined as responding to questions without little thought, was addressed by putting random question checks such as ‘Click ‘I agree’ if you are a human being’. In the honest condition, participants were asked to complete individual difference measures derived from Griffith’s model and the Big Five personality measures. The group in the honest condition received instructions to complete the questionnaires as honestly as possible. The same instructions from *Byle and Holtgraves (2008)* were used:

Please answer the following questions as honestly as possible. The answers you provide will be used for research purposes only and will not be used to evaluate you in any way. It is important that you answer the following questions as honestly as possible, so please provide responses that are accurate.

In the faking condition, participants were asked to fill out a survey with only the Big Five personality measures and a question with five job groups where they provided which job group their dream job belongs to. They were instructed to answer the survey questions in way such a way as to make a favorable impression as possible.

The same instructions from *Byle and Holtgraves (2008)* were used:

You are in the final stage of the hiring process for a job in your field that starts at \$70,000 a year. The only thing that stands in your way is the following test, which is used to select the best applicants from a pool of others who are equal to yourself in credentials. To get the job, you need to set yourself apart from the other applicants by looking good on this test. In other words, your success on this test depends on whether or not you get the job. Your task is to

look as good in the eyes of the employer as possible on this test. (Byle & Holtgraves, 2008).

The instruction that followed was:

‘When you think of your ‘dream job’, what job category does it belong to?’

This was used to find out which job groups the participants dream jobs belonged to.

Initially, participants were asked to choose their job groups according to the following categories; education related occupations, business related occupations, healthcare related occupations, legal related occupations and engineering related occupations. However, the participants mostly selected two main groups which were education and healthcare related occupations. Therefore, the two main groups that were mainly selected, education and healthcare related occupations, were used for analysis. Also, if a student was detected as a random respondent, their responses were removed from the final data set before analysis.

Measures

All measures used a Likert scale on a 5-point rating scale ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree for all items. The alphas indicated are from literature.

Big-Five personality measure The Big Five personality measure was constructed using the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP; Goldberg, 1992). Measures were from the NEO, revised version of the NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R; Costa & McCrae, 1992). Each of the five measures consisted of 10 items. The measures included openness to experience, neuroticism, extraversion, conscientiousness and agreeableness. Examples

of what? included; 'I often feel blue', 'I feel comfortable around people', 'I have a vivid imagination', 'I have a good word for everyone' and 'I pay attention to details'. Provide an example for each of the personality dimensions.

Integrity The Values in Action scale test (Peterson & Seligman, 2004) was used to measure integrity. The scale had 9 items with an Alpha of .72. High scores indicated higher levels of integrity. For example, 'I'm true to my own values' or 'I believe that honesty is the basis for trust.'

Self-monitoring was measured using 10 items of a scale, Snyder (1974) with an Alpha of .82. For example, 'I put on a show to impress people' or 'I would make a good actor.'

Self-Esteem 10 items provided by Rosenberg (1965) If the scale has a name, use it! were used to measure self-esteem with an Alpha of .84. For example, 'I just know I will be a success' or 'I'm less capable than most people.'

Locus of control External locus of control was measured using 10 items from a scale provided by Levenson (1981) if the scale has a name, use it. with an Alpha of .71. For example, 'I believe that events in my life are determined only by me' or 'I feel that my life lacks direction.'

Narcissism was measured using 10 items from a new measure of hypersensitive narcissism (Tamborski & Brown, 2011) with an Alpha of .72. For example, 'I dislike

sharing the credit of an achievement with others' or 'I often interpret the remarks of others in a personal way.'

Impulsivity was measured using 11 items from the Abridged Big Five-dimensional Circumplex model (Hofstee, de Raad, & Goldberg, 1992), Alpha=.78. For example, 'I keep my emotions under control' or 'I blurt out whatever comes to mind.'

Job Group Job group was measured using five broad job categories adapted from the Standard Occupational Classification Manual (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018). They included: Education related occupations, Business related occupations, Healthcare related occupations, Legal related occupations and Engineering related occupations.

RESULTS

Prior to data analysis, faking was studied by having the same group of participants complete the personality test under the honest and faking conditions. The anticipation was that the participants in the faking condition would have higher faking scores than those in the honest condition. Analysis confirmed that there was faking as the manipulation check showed that there was a mean difference in faking behavior between the honest and faking condition. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean for conscientiousness (faking behavior) for participants. There was a significant difference in the mean for participants' conscientiousness scores in the faking condition ($M=3.93$, $SD=0.86$) compared to the honest condition ($M=3.68$, $SD=0.89$), $t(256) = -3.28$, $p < .05$ and effect size. $d = 0.3$ (d was computed using the formula by Cohen, 1988 for within-subjects data). The significant difference in the mean suggests that the means of participants' conscientiousness in the faking and honest condition are different but the effect size of $d=0.3$ was small. However, the manipulation check was not as successful since the small effect size shows that the difference in the faking and honest condition for conscientiousness score yielded was a small difference. Table 1 displays the means, and standard deviations across the five dimensions.

Table 1
Manipulation check comparing means between honest and faking condition.

Dimension	Honest Condition		Faking Condition	
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
Op.	3.46	1.03	3.60	1.00
Con.	3.68	0.89	3.93	0.86
Ex.	3.40	1.01	3.43	1.00
Ag.	3.86	0.89	4.08	0.84
Neu.	2.68	1.00	2.36	1.03

Note. $N=129$. Op. = Openness; Con.= Conscientiousness; Ex. = Extraversion; Ag. = Agreeableness; Neu.=Neuroticism.

Table 2 (below) displays correlations, means and standard deviations for the variables used from Griffith's model. Impulsivity dimension was positively correlated with faking ($r = .15$) but further analysis to determine significance of the Pearson correlation indicated that there was no significant positive association between impulsivity and faking, $r(127) = .15, p > .05$). The remaining individual difference variables were not significantly correlated to faking, self-esteem ($r = .09$), self-monitoring ($r = -.04$), locus of control ($r = .09$), narcissism ($r = .05$) and integrity ($r = .02$). Although locus of control and self-esteem were highly correlated ($r = .75$), tests for multicollinearity indicated that a very low level of multicollinearity was present, Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) = 2.45 for self-esteem, 1.23 for self-monitoring, 2.60 for locus of control, 1.45 for impulsivity, 1.40 for narcissism and 1.34 for integrity.

Table 2
Means, standard deviations and scale reliabilities for each variable.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.Consentiousness(Faking)	-						
2. Self- Esteem	-.09	(.82)					
3. Self-Monitoring	-.04	.15*	(.88)				
4. Locus of Control	-.09	.75*	.06	(.66)			
5. Impulsivity	.15	.12	-.38*	.24*	(.79)		
6. Narcissism	-.05	-.39*	.06	-.42*	-.37*	(.65)	
7. Integrity	.02	.34*	-.09	.42*	.34*	-.34*	(.68)
Mean	.25	3.73	2.50	3.57	3.60	2.87	4.07
SD	.54	1.05	0.73	0.95	0.93	1.00	0.84

Note. $N=129$. * A correlation that is significant at $p < 0.05$. Values on the diagonal represent reliability estimates.

Hypothesis 1

Table 3 (below) displays the results of a multiple regression analysis to predict faking behavior score. The independent variables were the variables in were self-esteem, self-monitoring, locus of control, impulsivity, narcissism and integrity. The different individual difference variables accounted for only a trivial amount of variance in participants' faking behavior ($R^2 = 0.04$, $p < .05$).

The regression coefficients were self-esteem ($\beta = -.07$, $p > .05$), self-monitoring ($\beta = .03$, $p > .05$), locus of control ($\beta = -.15$, $p > .05$), Impulsivity ($\beta = .21$, $p > .05$), Narcissism ($\beta = -.07$, $p > .05$) and integrity ($\beta = .02$, $p > .05$), Hypothesis 1, with suggested that some individual difference variables will have a more significant contribution in explaining the variance of faking than others, was not supported.

Table 3
Multiple Regression Predicting Faking Behavior

Predictors	β	SE	t	P
Constant	0.36	1.01	0.36	0.72
Self- Esteem	-0.07	0.15	-0.48	0.63
Self-Monitoring	0.03	0.08	0.48	0.63
Locus of control	-0.15	0.19	-0.79	0.43
Impulsivity	0.21	0.12	1.64	0.10
Narcissism	-0.07	0.13	-0.54	0.59
Integrity	0.02	0.15		
F	0.92			
R ²	0.04			

Note. $N=129$. *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

Supplementary Analysis

A supplementary analysis was conducted separately using scores of conscientiousness in the honest and faking condition since the initial analysis did not yield anticipated results. The results are shown below in table 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3.

Table 4.1 below displays correlations, means and standard deviations for variables using conscientiousness scores in the honest condition and faking condition. In the faking condition, the individual difference variables were significantly correlated to faking, self-esteem ($r = .58$), locus of control ($r=.62$), impulsivity ($r = .26$), narcissism ($r = -.23$) and integrity ($r = .34$). Self-monitoring was not correlated to faking ($r = -.11$). Table 4.2 below displays correlations, means and standard deviations for the variables using conscientiousness scores in the faking condition. In the honest condition, the individual difference variables were significantly correlated to faking, self-esteem ($r = .38$), locus of control ($r = .43$), impulsivity ($r =.35$) and integrity ($r = .30$). Self-monitoring was not correlated to faking ($r = -.13$).

Table 4.1
Means, standard deviations and scale reliabilities for each variable.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Conscientiousness (Faking condition)	-	-						
2. Conscientiousness (Honest condition)	-	-						
3. Self-Esteem	0.38*	0.58*	(.82)					
4. Self-Monitoring	-0.13	-0.11	0.15	(.88)				
5. Locus of Control	0.43*	0.62*	0.75*	0.06	(.66)			
6. Impulsivity	0.35*	0.26*	0.12	-0.38*	0.24*	(.79)		
7. Narcissism	-0.24*	-0.23*	-0.39*	0.06	-0.42*	-.37*	(.65)	
8. Integrity	0.30*	0.34*	0.34*	-0.09	0.42*	0.34*	-.35*	(.68)

Note. $N=129$. * A correlation that is significant at $p < 0.05$. Values on the diagonal represent reliability estimates.

Ideally, correlations should be higher for faking condition than honest condition but contrary to expectations, higher correlations were found for honest condition than faking condition. These results indicate that minimal faking was present which shows that the operationalizing of faking behavior was potentially not successful. The correlations between locus of control and other variables were high and therefore due to multicollinearity issue, the locus of control variable was removed before multiple regression analysis was done.

Table 4.2 (below) displays results of a simultaneous multiple regression analysis to examine whether faking behavior score using conscientiousness scores in the honest condition. Altogether, the individual difference variables accounted for variance in participants' faking behavior ($R^2 = 0.41$) with self-esteem being the only significant predictor of faking behavior.

Table 4.2
Multiple regression predicting faking using conscientiousness scores in the honest condition

Predictors	β	SE	t	P
Constant	-0.01	0.75	-0.08	0.99
Self- Esteem	0.64	0.09	7.37	<.001***
Self-Monitoring	-0.11	0.06	-1.88	0.06
Impulsivity	0.15	0.09	1.59	0.11
Narcissism	0.11	0.10	1.14	0.26
Integrity	0.16	0.11	1.47	0.14
F	17.13			
R ²	0.41			

Note. N=129. ***p < 0.001, **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05.

Table 4.3 below displays results of a simultaneous multiple regression analysis to predict faking behavior score using conscientiousness scores in the faking condition. The different individual difference variables accounted for some variance in participants' faking behavior ($R^2 = 0.25$) with self-esteem and impulsivity being significant predictors of faking behavior.

Table 4.3
Multiple regression predicting faking using conscientiousness scores in the faking condition

Predictors	β	SE	t	p
Constant	0.38	1.01	0.38	0.70
Self- Esteem	0.44	0.12	3.80	<.001***
Self-Monitoring	-0.07	0.08	-0.92	0.36
Impulsivity	0.35	0.13	2.79	<.001***
Narcissism	0.04	0.13	0.32	0.75
Integrity	0.16	0.15	1.09	0.28
F	8.40			
R ²	0.25			

Note. N=129. ***p < 0.001, **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05.

Initially, faking behavior was operationalized as the difference between conscientiousness scores in the honest and faking condition. Regression results yielded no significant results. Although hypothesis 1 was not supported initially, supplementary results using conscientiousness scores separately indicated that self-esteem and impulsivity were significant in explaining faking behavior.

Hypothesis 2

As a preliminary test, an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean for conscientiousness (faking behavior) between males and females across individual differences. There was no significant difference in the mean for males ($M=0.31$, $SD=0.62$) and females ($M=0.22$, $SD=0.76$, $t(127) = 0.67$, $p > .05$, $d=-0.01$), which suggests there is no difference in faking behavior between males and females.

ANCOVA results showed that there was a significant interaction of self-esteem and integrity on faking behavior by sex, ($\beta = -.62$, $p < .05$), ($\beta = -.79$, $p < .05$) respectively. There were no significant results for the other individual difference variables for self-monitoring ($\beta = -.62$, $p > .05$), locus of control ($\beta = .04$, $p > .05$), impulsivity ($\beta = -.27$, $p > .05$) and narcissism ($\beta = .19$, $p > .05$).

ANCOVA results for individual differences by sex are shown in tables 5 below.

Table 5.1

ANCOVA results for self-esteem by sex.

Variable	B	SE	t	P
Sex	2.29	1.15	1.99	0.04*
Self- esteem	0.41	0.27	1.49	0.138
Sex self- esteem	-0.62	0.29	-2.1	0.03*

Note: *p < 0.05

Table 5.2

ANCOVA results for self-monitoring by sex.

Variable	β	SE	t	P
Sex	0.65	0.43	1.51	0.13
Self-monitoring	-0.04	0.07	-0.54	0.59
Sex self-monitoring	-0.62	0.29	-2.1	0.07

Note: *p < 0.05

Table 5.3

ANCOVA results for locus of control by sex.

Variable	β	SE	t	P
Sex	-0.23	1.12	-0.21	0.84
Locus of control	-0.16	0.28	-0.59	0.56
Sex locus of control	0.04	0.31	0.13	0.90

Note: *p < 0.05

Table 5.4
ANCOVA results for impulsivity by sex.

Variable	β	SE	t	P
Sex	0.92	1.18	0.78	0.44
Impulsivity	0.40	0.30	1.35	0.18
Sex impulsivity	-0.27	0.32	-0.83	0.41

Note: *p < 0

Table 5.5
ANCOVA results for narcissism by sex.

Variable	β	SE	t	P
Sex	-0.59	0.78	-0.75	0.45
Narcissism	-0.19	0.25	-0.79	0.42
Sex narcissism	0.19	0.28	0.67	0.50

Note: *p < 0.05

Table 5.6
ANCOVA results for integrity by sex.

Variable	β	SE	t	P
Sex	3.05	1.45	2.09	0.04*
Integrity	0.72	0.34	2.13	0.03*
Sex integrity	-0.79	0.37	-2.16	0.03*

Note: *p < 0.05

Although the preliminary t-test provided no significant differences between males and females in faking behavior, ANCOVA yielded results of little interaction indicating that females scored higher on self-esteem and integrity compared to men although this could be due to females being more than males in the sample. The results of the interaction plots are shown in figure 2 and 3 below.

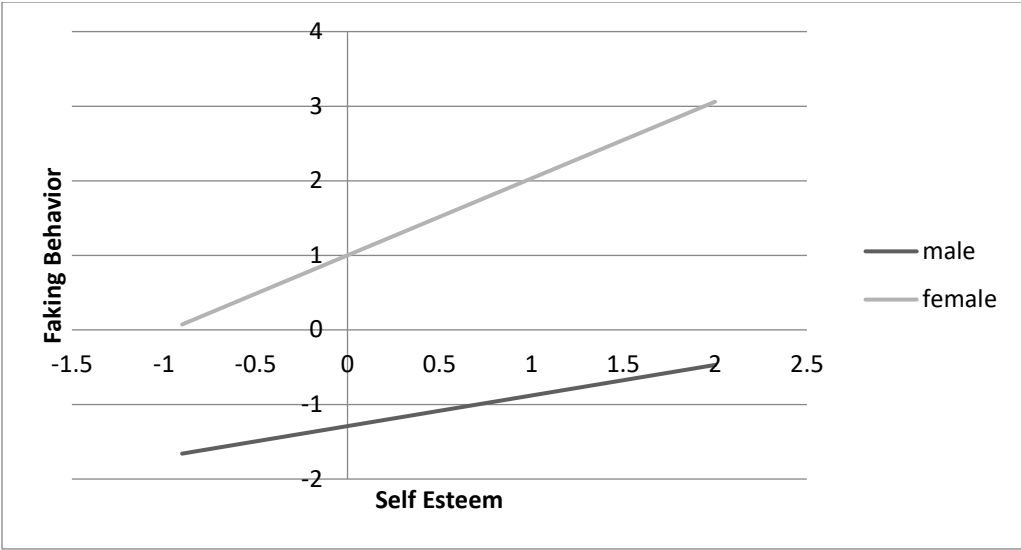


Figure 2. Interaction plot for sex and self-esteem on faking behavior scores.

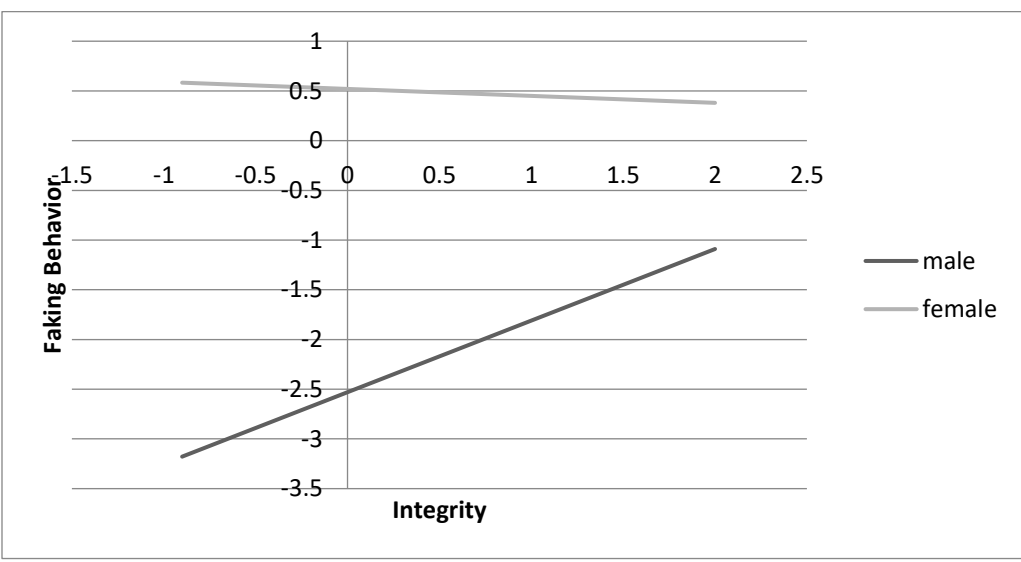


Figure 3. Interaction plot for sex and integrity on faking behavior scores.

Overall, hypothesis 2 was partially supported as there was a moderating effect on only self-esteem and integrity but not on the other individual differences. The results indicate that there can be a difference in faking behavior between males and females depending on individual differences.

Hypothesis 3

As a preliminary test, an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean for conscientiousness (faking behavior) across job groups. There was no significant difference in the mean for job group 1 (Education) ($M=0.22$, $SD=1.31$) and job group 3 (Healthcare) ($M=0.25$, $SD=1.31$, $t(112) = -0.22$, $p > .05$), which suggests that there is no difference between individual differences and faking behavior across job groups.

ANCOVA was used to test hypothesis 3 (restate the hypothesis somewhere) Results showed that there were no significant results for individual difference variables. For self-esteem ($\beta = -.12$, $p > .05$), self-monitoring ($\beta = -.08$, $p > .05$), locus of control ($\beta = .02$, $p > .05$), impulsivity ($\beta = -.01$, $p > .05$), narcissism ($\beta = -.03$, $p > .05$) and integrity ($\beta = .21$, $p > .05$). These results suggest is no difference in the relationship between faking behavior and individual differences across job groups. Therefore, hypothesis 3 was not supported. The results are illustrated in tables 6 below.

Table 6.1
ANCOVA results for self-esteem by job group.

Variable	β	SE	t	P
Job Group	0.13	0.37	0.36	0.721
Self- esteem	-0.12	0.21	-0.58	0.564
Job Group x self- esteem	-0.03	0.10	-0.33	0.740

Note: * $p < 0.05$

Table 6.2
ANCOVA results for self-monitoring by job group.

Variable	β	SE	t	P
Job Group	0.31	0.18	1.69	0.092
Self-monitoring	-0.03	0.07	-0.44	0.664
Job Group x self-monitoring	-0.08	0.04	-1.70	0.091

Note: * $p < 0.05$

Table 6.3
ANCOVA results for locus of control by job group.

Variable	β	SE	t	P
Job Group	0.10	0.44	0.23	0.816
Locus of control	-0.13	0.28	-0.44	0.660
Job Group x locus of control	0.02	0.12	0.22	0.828

Note: *p < 0.05

Table 6.4
ANCOVA results for impulsivity by job group.

Variable	β	SE	t	P
Job Group	-0.03	0.39	-0.70	0.944
Impulsivity	0.15	0.25	0.61	0.545
Job Group x impulsivity	-0.01	0.11	-0.08	0.937

Note: *p < 0.05

Table 6.5
ANCOVA results for narcissism by job group.

Variable	β	SE	t	P
Job Group	0.09	0.35	0.25	0.800
Narcissism	-0.11	0.25	0.44	0.662
Job Group x narcissism	-0.03	0.12	-0.23	0.815

Note: *p < 0.05

Table 6.6
ANCOVA results for integrity by job group.

Variable	β	SE	t	P
Job Group	-0.86	0.57	-2.09	0.133
Integrity	-0.45	0.28	2.13	0.106
Job Group x integrity	0.21	0.14	-2.16	0.127

Note: *p < 0.05

DISCUSSION

Despite the prevalence of faking behavior in personnel selection systems and the negative impacts associated with faking, an unresolved concern is the identification of the antecedents of faking behavior (Stewart, Darnold, Zimmerman, Parks, & Dustin, 2010; Arthur, Glaze, Villado, & Taylor, 2010). Several categories of antecedents have been discussed which include an individual's personality, beliefs or attitudes. It is therefore important for further research to be done with a focus of specifically identifying which individual variables or situational variables are more associated with faking behavior and how this affects selection systems in organizations. Also, various methods of studying faking behavior have advantages as well as disadvantages (Gordon & Gross, 1978; Lautenschlager, 1986). Thus, importance of refining methodologies of studying faking behavior (Hogan, Barrett & Hogan, 2007) should be emphasized to improve how faking behavior is assessed. The focus should be on refining the present methods used such as using within-subject's design to study faking behavior and not necessarily just provide more studies on faking. Although current research indicates that warnings may be used in personnel selection as an intervention to reduce faking behavior (e.g., Landers, Sackett & Tuzinski, 2011; Converse et al., 2008), it would first be useful to know more information about the individual differences that exist between those individuals since this could provide more insight on those that pay attention and follow warnings compared to those who ignore them.

The present study aimed to test the following hypotheses: First, will some individual difference variables have a more significant contribution in explaining the variance of faking than others? Second, will there be significant differences in faking scores between males and females on the individual difference variables? And third, will the relationship between faking behavior and individual differences be significantly different across job groups?

The above hypotheses were tested and just one hypothesis was partially supported as the results of the other hypothesis were not significant. For hypothesis 1 which stated that some individual difference variables will have a more significant contribution in explaining the variance of faking than others. It was anticipated that some individual differences would explain more variance than others to show which individual differences are more associated with faking, but no evidence of support was found from the initial analysis. However, supplementary analyses showed that the individual difference variables were significantly correlated with faking behavior. Supplementary analysis also showed that self-esteem and impulsivity were significant in explaining faking behavior when using scores for conscientiousness in the honest and faking conditions separately.

Hypothesis 2 which stated that males and females will have significantly different faking scores on the individual difference variables, was partially supported with females having higher faking scores than males on self-esteem and integrity. The expected results were that there would be a difference in faking behavior scores between males and females on all the individual difference variables, but this was not the case for all the variables. This result could imply that differences in the relationship between sex

and faking behavior for the various individual difference variables exist for certain variables and not others due to true differences or maybe the items used show differences in males and females. Lastly, for hypothesis 3 which whether there was a difference in the relationship between faking behavior and individual differences across job groups. It was expected that faking behavior would be significantly different according to the various job groups, but no evidence of support was found.

The main goal of this study was to examine the relationship between individual differences and faking behavior across sex and job type. The results were largely insignificant. The limitations in this study may explain the largely non-significant results. This study had a small sample size and possible random responding that was not detected among participants. Using a larger sample size would yield better results. The data from the manipulation check suggests an increase in faking behavior when comparing between the faking and honest condition. However, over half of the sample did not successfully fake as they had higher scores in the honest condition compared to the faking condition. Also, some participants did not have a score difference when comparing between the honest and faking condition. It could be that the instructions did not work, or the manipulation was not strong enough to encourage faking behavior in participants.

Using a simulated setting for this study is another limitation. some participants might not have adhered to the instructions or may have not been motivated enough to fake thus reducing the success of the manipulation check. In addition, there may have been too little incentives offered. In addition, the duration between time 1 and 2 would be longer than two weeks to reduce carry over effects. Also, concerning order effects, there may have been order effects since all participants filled out the survey in the faking

condition first. This may be an issue given some studies have found that order effects are evident in faking research in that those asked to answer questions in the honest condition first are able to fake more than those who answer questions in the faking condition first (provide references).

However, more research is encouraged on this matter as an understanding of how the various individual differences lead to different forms of faking behavior is essential especially in practical settings where methods of reducing faking behavior such as use of warnings are implemented. Also, such information could provide a deeper understanding and better insight into the type of person scoring high on tests in personnel selection when they're said to be faking. For example, certain individuals may engage in specific faking behaviors due to their individual differences. Knowledge of this could provide more information to aid decision making during selection. Finally, practitioners may use this information to develop more effective interventions to help reduce faking behavior while ensuring to put into consideration sex differences and job groups. This includes using appropriate items that don't cause differential item functioning to reduce any possible potential harm of adverse impact as the measures will be used fairly on males and females.

Future research should therefore aim at using data from employees in a real applicant setting by comparing data from incumbents with data from actual applicants. This would ensure replication of results and increase in generalizability of findings to actual employee selection settings. This would also yield more accurate results compared to simulated settings since laboratory settings may not promote faking in participants to provide desired results. Also, developing better methods of measuring faking behavior

should be considered as there were differences in the results from the initial analysis and supplementary analysis that were conducted in this study. A clear method of operationalizing faking behavior would yield more accurate results.

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APPENDIX

A. AGREEABLENESS

1. Have a good word for everyone.
2. Believe that others have good intentions.
3. Respect others.
4. Accept people as they are.
5. Make people feel at ease.
6. Have a sharp tongue.
7. Cut others to pieces.
8. Suspect hidden motives in others.
9. Get back at others.
10. Insult people.

B. NEUROTICISM

1. Often feel blue.
2. Dislike myself.
3. Am often down in the dumps.
4. Have frequent mood swings.
5. Panic easily.
6. Rarely get irritated.
7. Seldom feel blue.
8. Feel comfortable with myself.
9. Am not easily bothered by things.
10. Am very pleased with myself.

C. OPPENENESS TO EXPERIENCE

1. Believe in the importance of art.
2. Have a vivid imagination.
3. Tend to vote for liberal political candidates.
4. Carry the conversation to a higher level.
5. Enjoy hearing new ideas.
6. Am not interested in abstract ideas.
7. Do not like art.
8. Avoid philosophical discussions.
9. Do not enjoy going to art museums.
10. Tend to vote for conservative political candidates.

D. SELF-ESTEEM

1. Feel comfortable with myself.
2. Just know that I will be a success.

3. Seldom feel blue.
4. Like to take responsibility for making decisions.
5. Know my strengths.
6. Dislike myself.
7. Am less capable than most people.
8. Feel that my life lacks direction.
9. Question my ability to do my work properly.
10. Feel that I'm unable to deal with things.

E. SELF-MONITORING

1. Would make a good actor.
2. Put on a show to impress people.
3. Am likely to show off if I get the chance.
4. Am the life of the party.
5. Am good at making impromptu speeches.
6. Like to attract attention.
7. Use flattery to get ahead.
8. Hate being the center of attention.
9. Would not be a good comedian.
10. Don't like to draw attention to myself.

F. LOCUS OF CONTROL

1. Believe that my success depends on ability rather than luck.
2. Believe that events in my life are determined only by me.
3. Just know that I will be a success.
4. Believe that by working hard a person can achieve anything.
5. Feel comfortable with myself.
6. Always know why I do things.
7. See difficulties everywhere.
8. Believe that unfortunate events occur because of bad luck.
9. Can't stand on my own.
10. Feel that my life lacks direction.

G. EXTRAVERSION

1. Feel comfortable around people.
2. Make friends easily.
3. Am skilled in handling social situations.
4. Am the life of the party.
5. Know how to captivate people.
6. Have little to say.
7. Keep in the background.
8. Would describe my experiences as somewhat dull.

9. Don't like to draw attention to myself.
10. Don't talk a lot.

H. CONSCIENTIOUSNESS

1. Am always prepared.
2. Pay attention to details.
3. Get chores done right away.
4. Carry out my plans.
5. Make plans and stick to them.
6. Waste my time.
7. Find it difficult to get down to work.
8. Do just enough work to get by.
9. Don't see things through.
10. Shirk my duties.

I. IMPULSIVITY

1. Keep my emotions under control.
2. Let others finish what they are saying.
3. Demand attention.
4. React intensely.
5. Talk even when I know I shouldn't.
6. Often make a fuss.
7. Shoot my mouth off.
8. Blurt out whatever comes into my mind.
9. Barge in on conversations.
10. Am easily excited.
11. Like to gossip.

J. NARCISSIM

1. I can become entirely absorbed in thinking about my personal affairs, my health, my cares or my relations to others.
2. My feelings are easily hurt by ridicule or by the slighting remarks of others.
3. When I enter a room, I often become self-conscious and feel that the eyes of others are upon me.
4. I dislike sharing the credit of an achievement with others.
5. I dislike being with a group unless I know that I am appreciated by at least one of those present.
6. I feel that I am temperamentally different from most people.
7. I often interpret the remarks of others in a personal way.
8. easily become wrapped up in my own interests and forget the existence of others.
9. I feel that I have enough on my hands without worrying about other people's troubles.

10. I am secretly “put out” when other people come to me with their troubles asking me for my time and sympathy.
11. I talk a great deal about myself, my experiences, my feelings and my ideas.
12. I have great faith in my own ideas and my own initiative.

K. INTEGRITY

1. Am trusted to keep secrets.
2. Keep my promises.
3. Believe that honesty is the basis for trust.
4. Can be trusted to keep my promises.
5. Am true to my own values.
6. Lie to get myself out of trouble.
7. Am hard to understand.
8. Feel like an imposter.
9. Like to exaggerate my troubles.