Examining the Effect of Organizational Culture on Faking in the Job Interview

by

Damian Canagasuriam

A Thesis Submitted to
Saint Mary's University, Halifax, Nova Scotia
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Applied Psychology
(Industrial-Organizational Psychology)

August 2020, Halifax, Nova Scotia

© Damian Canagasuriam, 2020.

Approved: Dr. Nicolas Roulin
Supervisor

Approved: Dr. Camilla Holmvall
Reader

Approved: Dr. Marguerite Ternes
Reader

Approved: Dr. Deborah Powell
External Examiner

Date: August 18th, 2020

Abstract

Examining the Effect of Organizational Culture on Faking in the Job Interview

by Damian Canagasuriam

Abstract: Deceptive impression management may alter interviewers' perceptions of applicants' qualifications, and consequently, decrease the predictive validity of the job interview. In examining faking antecedents, research has given little attention to situational variables. Using a between-subjects experiment, this research addressed that gap by examining whether organizational culture impacted both the extent to which applicants faked during an employment interview and the manner in which they faked. Analyses of variance revealed that organizational culture did not affect either the extent to which applicants faked nor the manner in which they faked their values. However, when taking into account applicants' perceptions of the ideal candidate, organizational culture was found to affect the manner in which applicants faked their personality. Overall, the findings provide some support for the dynamic model of applicant faking and suggest that applicants may be able to fake their personalities during job interviews to increase their person-organization fit.

August 18th, 2020.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I had never previously written a thesis, and so this journey was new and challenging for me. I could not have achieved this feat without the immense help and support I received from my supervisor Dr. Nicolas Roulin. Your help from the brainstorming stage to the thesis proposal stage to the – at-times frustrating - Results stage is very much appreciated. Your willingness to go above and beyond in your support from your quick response times to your openness to chat about difficulties is remarkable and helped keep me on track during this long journey. My thesis would not be what it is without your help; thank you!

I would also like to thank my committee members, Dr. Camilla Holmvall and Dr. Marguerite Ternes for their time and valuable feedback. I know acting as a committee member can be a big commitment and I appreciate you taking the time to review my proposal and final draft. Your insightful comments and keen eyes have helped me strengthen my thesis and have helped me think more critically about the important issues it discusses.

Table of Contents

Effect of Organizational Culture on Faking in the Job Interview

"Culture can become a 'secret weapon' that makes extraordinary things happen." – Jon

Katzenbach, leading practitioner in organizational strategies at Strategy&

These words help demonstrate the importance ascribed to organizational culture due to its

perceived ability to impact organizational success and employee satisfaction (e.g., Deal &

Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Indeed, research has demonstrated a relationship

between organizational culture and organizational effectiveness outcomes (e.g.,

Al-Alawi et al., 2007; Hartnell et al., 2011; Stock et al., 2007). While culture's effects on current

employees and organizational outcomes have received considerable attention, its effects on

prospective employees have received relatively little attention. Job applicants gain information

about organizations (e.g., regarding their culture) prior to completing selection procedures, and

this knowledge influences their behaviour during the selection process (e.g., Roulin & Krings,

2020). However, no research has examined how organizational culture may influence applicant

deceptive impression management (deceptive IM) during the job interview. I addressed this gap

by examining how organizational culture affected both the extent to which applicants engaged in

deceptive IM during a job interview and the manner in which they engaged in deceptive IM.

Further, I examined mechanisms that may have accounted for any differences in applicants' use

of deceptive IM across organizational cultures.

The selection process involves an exchange of information between applicants and

organizations (Bangerter et al., 2012). Given that applicants are the primary target of evaluation

in selection processes, many applicants may be motivated to provide false information about

themselves to create favourable perceptions. In providing false information and distorting

responses, I propose that applicants take a dynamic approach. Drawing on signalling theory and

dynamic models of applicant faking (e.g., Bangerter et al., 2012; Roulin & Krings, 2016), I contend that applicants utilize the information they have gathered about an organization to structure their use of deceptive IM in the job interview. In this research, I examined how knowledge of organizational culture, in particular, may affect the extent to which applicants use deceptive IM during the job interview and the manner in which they use it. I theorized that organizational culture (competitive, collaborative, and control) impacts the extent to which applicants use deceptive IM, how they distort their personality, and what values they claim to espouse.

In addition to examining the effect of organizational culture on deceptive IM during the interview, this research had a practical goal. Specifically, it aimed to foster recommendations that can be used by organizations to decrease the degree to which their applicants deceptively respond to interview questions. This goal is of importance given that deceptive responses can decrease the predictive validity of the interview (Gilmore et al., 1999; Levashina & Campion, 2006).

In this study, I attempted to achieve the theoretical and practical goals with a threefold investigation. Firstly, building on signalling theory and faking models (e.g., Bangerter et al., 2012; Roulin & Krings, 2016), I examined whether applicants were more likely to exaggerate and lie about their qualifications during an interview if they believed that the hiring company had a competitive organizational culture as compared to a collaborative culture or compared to when they had no information on the organizational culture. Secondly, building on earlier empirical work that examined applicant faking as an adaptive response (e.g., Roulin & Krings, 2020), I examined whether applicants distorted their personalities (e.g., feigned lower agreeableness) and/or altered their approach to team work-related interview questions (e.g., feigned a results-

orientation) in a manner dependent upon the culture of the hiring organization to increase their person-organization fit (see Kristof, 1996). Finally, drawing on Roulin et al.'s (2016) model of dynamic applicant faking and person-organization fit, I examined whether any differences in applicant deceptive IM across organizational cultures could be accounted for by the following five factors: (a) beliefs about the extent to which other applicants used deceptive IM; (b) beliefs about the extent to which the organization views deceptive IM as acceptable; (c) beliefs about the extent to which the ideal candidate is agreeable; (d) beliefs about the extent to which the ideal candidate is honest and humble; and (e) beliefs about the extent to which the organization values 'results' more than 'teamwork.' The threefold investigation helped illuminate the relationship between organizational culture and applicant faking in the job interview.

Organizational Culture

What is Organizational Culture?

Prior to describing how organizational culture affected applicants' use of deceptive IM during the job interview, it is important to clarify how organizational culture was conceptualized in this research. There are numerous definitions of organizational culture, which stems from it being studied across multiple disciplines including anthropology and sociology as well as psychology. However, the theoretical definition this research will use – an operational definition will be provided later - is the one put forth by Schein (2004). Schein describes organizational culture as a "pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaption and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (p. 17).

To grasp this definition, one must consider Schein's (1983) propositions on how culture is formed. Schein theorized that organizational culture was initially developed by the organization's founder and then shaped based on the extent to which the organization's members felt the founder's approach was helping them meet the organization's goals (external adaptation). Further he believed that cultures developed not only in response to external problems but also as a means of increasing security and comfort for members. That is, he suggested that cultures developed shared languages, norms, and understandings based on a need for reducing uncertainty (internal integration). Ultimately, he believed that culture - whether based on the need for external adaptation or internal integration - was the result of a learning process by which members adapted to their environment (Schein, 2010). Schein's definition of culture is important because it helps explain culture's pattern of development and capture its implicit nature.

Given that this research examined the effect of organizational culture, an operational definition of organizational culture that was conducive to experimental manipulation was imperative. Schein's (2004) conceptualization of organizational culture is important because he is one of the most well-known and highly cited authors on organizational culture (Ehrhart et al., 2014). However, Schein (2004) theorized that culture is a "pattern of shared assumptions…;" and since assumptions are not easily conveyed to outside observers (e.g., job applicants), this definition of culture is not conducive to manipulation. Given this, I proposed an alternative definition of culture for operational purposes that outlined more surface level aspects of culture that could be manipulated. The proposed definition incorporated the concept of 'values' to the work of Schwartz and Davis (1981), who defined culture as a "pattern of beliefs and expectations shared by the organization's members" (p. 33). Specifically, this study's operational definition of organizational culture is "a pattern of values, beliefs, and expectations shared by an

organization's members." Thus, this study examined how manipulating an organization's values, beliefs, and expectations (organizational culture) impacted applicants' use of deceptive IM during a job interview[1].

Levels of Culture

When examining organizational culture, it is important to consider its structural components. One of the most accepted frameworks for culture is that put forth by Schein (2004) in which he described culture as consisting of three levels: artifacts, espoused values and beliefs, and basic underlying assumptions. Schein (2004) described artifacts as "all the phenomena that one sees, hears, and feels when one encounters a new group with an unfamiliar culture" (p. 25). It represents the surface elements of culture and includes how people dress, the layout of the environment, the logo, stories, technology and products, and published lists of values. Schein argues that although artifacts may be identical in form across organizations, their meaning can only be deciphered by members of the organization. However, it stands to reason that certain artifacts such as lists of values may be accurately interpreted even by members outside an organization. This research took the position that an about us page is a type of artifact that can reflect an organization's values and be accurately interpreted by applicants.

Espoused values and beliefs refer to the values put forth by the organization's founder and/or the organization's management team (Schein, 2004). They refer to ideologies and principles about how to approach problems. For example, a value of 'diversity' suggests that a company is guided by a desire to have a workforce composed of men and women of various races, religions, sexual orientations, and/or ages. It is important to note that espoused values may

---

[1] Culture and climate are interrelated yet distinct constructs (Hartnell et al., 2011). Culture refers to an organization's artifacts, values and beliefs, and assumptions (Schein, 2004), while climate refers to what people see and experience in an organizational setting (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Muhammad, 2012)

not align with the values actually exemplified in organizations (values in use). For example, espoused values may simply represent management's aspirations for the direction of the company (Schein, 2010). Alternatively, a contradiction may also exist between an espoused value and a value in use due to the institutionalized value being viewed as superficial, or possibly due to employees not realizing that their behaviour fails to align with an espoused value (Ott, 1989).

Finally, basic underlying assumptions refer to values and beliefs that have become so ingrained in an organization's thinking and behaviour that they are now taken for granted as truths. For example, Schein (2004) describes how a manager in a company's early history may start spending money on advertising and that if a pattern of increased revenue associated with advertising spending develops, the organization will take for granted that the value of advertising can be debated. Rather the company will develop the assumption that advertising is always a good approach to increase revenue. Assumptions constitute the deepest layer of culture, and many believe that they are the most important element for understanding culture (Ehrhart et al., 2014). Schein (2010), for example, argues that "the essence of a culture lies in the pattern of basic underlying assumptions" (p. 32).

While Schein's framework of culture is one of the most popular, others exist. For example, Ott (1989) proposed that culture consists of artifacts, patterns of behaviour, beliefs and values, and basic underlying assumption. This framework adds behaviour as an element and is valuable because it helps capture how behaviour differs across organizations and how it can be tied to values and assumptions – similar to the manner in which artifacts can be tied to them. Behaviour as an aspect of culture is also valuable because it helps account for how several measures of culture (e.g., the organizational culture profile; O'Reilly et al., 1991) are focused on

patterns of behaviour (Ehrhart et al., 2014). Given that behaviour is generally believed to be intertwined with culture, it is important that theory be able to account for the connection.

How to Study Culture?

In deciding how best to examine culture, one must first consider their view on culture. For those who view organizations *as* cultures (see Smircich, 1983), qualitative methods are usually most appropriate (Ehrhart et al., 2014) because they best capture the distinctiveness and intricacies of culture. On the contrary, for those who view organizations as *having* cultures quantitative methods will likely be most appropriate because they enable comparisons across organizations. In deciding which general approach to utilize, one must also consider the end goals of the research. For example, if the aim is to examine how organizational effectiveness outcomes vary by culture, then a quantitative approach is most appropriate. However, if the aim is to study a particular culture in depth, then a qualitative approach is most fitting.

This research takes the position that organizations exist beyond the realm of their assumptions, values, and artifacts, and consequently, that they *have* cultures. Thus, this study used a quantitative approach, specifically an experimental design. The selection of an experimental approach was further due to the aim to compare organizational cultures in terms of how they impacted applicants' use of deceptive IM. The comparison of cultures is best examined with an experimental approach because it enables causal inferences to be made about the effect of organizational culture on deceptive IM. In addition, an experimental approach yields numerical data which is ideal for effectiveness-related (e.g., deceptive IM use) comparisons (Ehrhart et al., 2014).

In conducting organizational culture research, another important element to consider is culture strength – also referred to as cultural penetration. Culture strength can be defined as the

degree to which an organization's assumptions and espoused values are adopted by its members

(Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Saffold, 1988; Schein, 2010). A strong culture involves a situation

where all members are aware of the organization's goals and are working toward them, while a

weak culture would involve members not having a shared understanding of the values and

patterns of behaviour (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

There are four primary conceptualizations of culture strength, specifically, sociological

penetration, psychological penetration, historical penetration (Louis, 1985), and artifactual

penetration (Saffold, 1988). Sociological penetration can be described as the "extent to which the

culture is shared across the members of the organization as a whole, including across various

groups or subcultures in the organization (horizontal penetration) and across layers of the

organizational hierarchy (vertical integration)" (Ehrhart et al., 2014, p. 174). This is the most

frequently implied meaning of culture strength and it is embodied in the aforementioned culture

strength conceptualization of Deal and Kennedy (1982). Psychological penetration refers to the

degree to which members of an organization internalize the assumptions, values, and beliefs of a

culture. A strong culture is when values and beliefs are firmly held by members. Historical

penetration concerns the length of time a culture has existed within an organization. Finally,

artifactual penetration refers to the degree to which the culture has come to be represented in

artifacts within the organization. The stronger the culture, the greater the number of meaningful

artifacts.

In this research, the first three areas of culture strength were used to guide the

development of the manipulations of organizational culture. Specifically, the first three types of

culture strength were used to ensure that participants interpreted the culture's values and beliefs

as the following: (a) shared across the organization (sociological penetration), (b) deeply held by

the individuals within it (psychological penetration), and (c) integral to its existence for a long period of time (historical penetration). This was done because strong manipulations of culture - which are aided by the application of various forms of culture strength - help isolate the effects of culture on examined variables. In this case, more clear conceptualizations of each culture helped lead to an increased ability to examine the relationship between organizational culture and deceptive IM.

To further enhance the manipulations, culture strength was also focused on through the lens of elemental coherence. Elemental coherence refers to the degree to which cultural elements are aligned with each other (Saffold, 1988). For example, an organizational value of integrity aligns with an organizational belief that one can trust their managers. This is since managers having integrity is consistent with them being truthful and fair to employees ((McFall, 1987). In designing the manipulations, care was taken to ensure consistency between the values and beliefs of each culture. This was done to strengthen the effect of organizational culture.

Organizational Culture in Selection

Organizational culture is relevant in personnel selection, in large part, because it guides how organizations determine a candidate's person-organization (P-O) fit (Cable & Judge, 1997). P-O fit can be described as the match between the characteristics of an individual and the characteristics of an organization (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). A match between an individual's and organization's characteristics (e.g., values) is important because it is associated with several positive outcomes such as greater organizational commitment, coworker satisfaction, and job satisfaction (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991). Thus, organizations aim to select candidates who fit in with their culture, in part,

because a strong P-O fit suggests that candidates will make more loyal, more supportive, and happier employees.

Signalling theory argues that job candidates are incentivized to adapt their behaviour to that of other actors such as hiring organizations (Bangerter et al., 2012). In the context of a job interview, signalling theory suggests that applicants (the senders) would aim to provide responses (messages) during interviews that make them come off to the organization (the receiver) as well-suited for both the position and organization. Given the importance that organizations ascribe to P-O fit, it follows that applicants could increase their interview evaluations by using deceptive IM to distort their characteristics to better align with the organization's culture. For example, applicants could feign being more open-minded to fit in with an innovative culture (Roulin & Krings, 2020). Thus, in addition to helping structure organization's evaluations of applicants' P-O fit, signalling theory suggests that organizational culture is important in selection because it can influence applicants' faking strategies.

Culture's impact on deceptive IM may extend beyond guiding applicants' deception strategies and also include impacting the *extent* to which applicants use deceptive IM (Roulin et al., 2016). Since an organization's culture impacts the type of applicants it attracts (e.g., Catanzaro et al., 2010; Judge & Cable, 1997), organizational culture may signal the extent to which an organization views deceptive behaviour as acceptable and convey whether the organization is likely to attract applicants who are more deceptive than average. For example, since competitiveness (Tett et al., 2006; Tett & Simonet, 2011) and competitive worldviews (Roulin & Krings, 2016) are associated with increased faking, individuals may believe organizations with competitive cultures are more accepting of faking and that they attract applicants who are more likely to fake. Believing this, other applicants may fake more than they

otherwise would to prevent their honesty from harming their chances of getting hired (Frank, 2006). Thus, organizational culture is an important phenomenon in the personnel selection process because it not only impacts how organizations select candidates but because it also may impact the extent to which applicants use deceptive IM in interviews.

<div align="center">**Deceptive Impression Management**</div>

Deceptive IM, also known as "faking," can be defined as "… the conscious distortion of answers to the interview questions in order to obtain a better score on the interview and/or otherwise create favourable perceptions" (Levashina & Campion, 2007, p. 1639). It can be organized into four types: slight image creation, extensive image creation, deceptive ingratiation, and image protection. Slight image creation involves slightly embellishing or altering the truth to make oneself appear to be a strong candidate, while extensive image creation involves inventing stories to achieve the same end. Deceptive ingratiation involves feigning agreement with an interviewer's or organization's views to appear to have greater person-job and/or greater person-organization fit. Finally, image protection involves choosing not to reveal past negative experiences that may portray oneself negatively in order to maintain a positive image.

Faking is a significant issue for organizations because it can limit the extent to which the employment interview predicts job performance (Levashina & Campion, 2006). Studies have in fact demonstrated a positive association between applicants' use of IM (including deceptive IM) during the interview and their interview scores (e.g., Barrick et al., 2009; Buehl et al, 2018; Van Iddekinge et al., 2005). This suggests that faking may alter interviewers' perceptions of applicants' suitability, and consequently, decrease the predictive validity of the interview (Gilmore et al., 1999; Levashina & Campion, 2006).

Why Applicants Fake

The personnel selection process can be described as an exchange of information between applicants and organizations (Bangerter et al., 2012). Applicants provide information pertaining to their suitability for a position and organizations provide information on themselves (e.g., on their organizational culture and their available positions). The information that actors exchange in this relationship is not always accurate, however, due to applicants and organizations having imperfectly aligned motives (Bangerter et al., 2012). For example, applicants are motivated by a desire to obtain employment while organizations are motivated by a desire to hire the most qualified applicants. This misalignment of motives can result in cheating (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). The most common form of it being applicants deceptively responding to interview questions to increase the perception that they are qualified for a position.

In examining factors that influence applicant faking, research has primarily focused on applicant characteristics (e.g., personality, cognitive ability, and attitudes toward faking) and, to a lesser extent, interview format (e.g., situational versus past behaviour questions) (Melchers et al., 2020); Mueller-Hanson et al., 2006; Law et al., 2016). However, research on the effect of situational variables on applicant faking has been limited to a few studies (e.g., Ho et al., 2019, 2020). For example, Ho et al. (2019) examined how perceived competition affected faking intentions and Ho et al. (2020) examined how a competitive climate affected faking intentions. However, studies such as these are scarce in the faking literature. The reduced attention given to situational variables is notable given that situational variables are more likely to result in practical recommendations that can reduce interview faking. For example, if certain organizational cultures were found to be associated with higher levels of interview faking, organizations could alter the aspects of their culture that were encouraging faking, or at least modify their selection processes and recruitment materials (e.g., 'about us' pages) to make the problematic aspects of their cultures

less apparent to applicants. On the other hand, outside of excluding applicants who score highly on traits associated with faking (e.g., competitiveness; Roulin & Krings, 2016) – which may also rule out strong applicants – there are limited ways to use knowledge of individual differences to decrease faking. Taking into account that deceptive IM is also very difficult to detect (Roulin et al., 2015), the alteration of situational factors is the most viable approach to reduce the impact of interview faking.

In the seminal paper on interview faking, Levashina and Campion (2006) contend that applicant faking is determined by three factors: capacity, willingness, and opportunity to fake. Levashina and Campion (2006) conceptualized 'capacity' as factors related to applicants' ability to distort their responses. Capacity to fake variables include cognitive ability, knowledge of the criteria being assessed, verbal skills, and social skills. Willingness to fake represents the psychological and emotional characteristics of individuals that influence the degree to which they are motivated to distort their responses. It includes factors such as personality, integrity, and belief in the likelihood of getting caught. Finally, opportunity to fake concerns situational factors beyond the applicant's control that directly affects their ability to fake. Such factors include whether the interview was conducted for recruitment or selection purposes, and whether the interview was structured or unstructured. Levashina and Campion's (2006) model helps capture the factors that can influence applicant faking; however, additional theories have added to it.

For example, Roulin et al., (2016) supplemented Levashina and Campion's (2006) model of faking by arguing that faking is affected by the degree to which applicants perceive competition for a job. They contend that applicants fake more if they possess high levels of competitiveness/competitive worldviews and if they are applying to an organization with a

competitive culture. They argue that these two factors influence faking by increasing applicants'

perception of competition.

Faking may be more likely in a situation of high perceived competition because

applicants may be more likely to think that they have a poor chance of obtaining employment.

Consequently, they may fake more than usual to compensate for the perceived decreased

likelihood of obtaining the job. This research examined the second component of perceived

competition in Roulin et al. (2016)'s model, specifically, the relationship between organizational

culture and the extent to which applicants fake in interviews. However, it built on Roulin et al.'s

(2016) model by also examining how organizational culture impacts the manner in which

applicants fake, and by examining mechanisms (e.g., beliefs about organization's acceptance of

faking) that may account for differences in faking across organizational cultures.

Drawing on signalling theory, I propose that applicants learn about organizations'

cultures during the selection process and that this knowledge impacts their behaviour during it.

Applicants may encounter information about an organization's culture while reviewing their

"about us" page. Alternatively, they may learn about an organization's culture through people

who have previously worked there, whether friends (via word-of-mouth) or strangers (via

company review websites such as 'Glassdoor'). Regardless of the source, the knowledge

gathered can provide applicants with information about an organization's values, beliefs, and

expectations, and guide their use of deceptive IM.

To better understand how organizational culture can impact the extent to which

applicants fake, one must consider the characteristics of cultures in-depth. Two groups into

which organizational cultures can be classified are competitive and collaborative cultures.

Competitiveness, whether embodied in environments (Stanne et al., 1999) or attitudes (Duckitt et

al., 2002), reflects a belief that winning is extremely important and should be striven for at all

costs. Thus, a competitive culture can be considered a pattern of values, beliefs, and expectations

predicated on the notion that success should be valued above all else. On the contrary,

collaboration can be defined as "a process of joint decision making among key stakeholders of a

problem domain about that domain" (Gray, 1989, p. 11). It reflects a process of working together

that prioritizes teamwork (including communication; Batt & Purchase, 2004) and member

inclusion (Sergiovanni, 2004). Given that collaboration emphasizes teamwork and member

inclusion, a collaborative culture can be considered a pattern of values, beliefs, and expectations

predicated on the notion that teamwork and member inclusion should be valued above all else.

Competitive culture can be likened to the 'market' culture type (see Hartnell et al., 2011)

which operates under the assumption that competitiveness results in productivity and financial

success (Cameron & Quinn, 1988; R. Quinn & Kimberly, 1984). On the contrary, a collaborative

culture can be likened to the 'clan' culture type (Hartnell et al., 2011) which operates under the

assumption that human affiliation, commitment, and employee involvement result in employee

satisfaction and organizational commitment (Cameron & Quinn, 1988; Hartnell et al., 2011).

Thus, an organization may possess a collaborative culture due to a belief that teamwork and a

focus on member inclusion are good approaches to increase employee satisfaction and achieve

long-term success (e.g., Glassop, 2002). Ultimately, whether an organization possesses a

competitive or collaborative culture can reflect whether it believes long term success lies in the

prioritization of results or teamwork (e.g., member inclusion).

Since an organization's culture influences the type of applicants it attracts (e.g.,

(Catanzaro et al., 2010; Judge & Cable, 1997)), information about an organization's culture may

help indicate its likely applicant pool and, consequently, indicate its applicant pool's likelihood

of faking. Schneider's (1987) attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) model contends that organizations attract applicants with similar values that reinforce the existing culture. Thus, it follows that competitive organizations would tend to attract trait-competitive candidates, while collaborative organizations would not. Trait-competitiveness is associated with elevated levels of faking (Roulin & Krings, 2016). Assuming that applicants are aware of this, they may assume that their fellow candidates for a position with a competitive organization may fake at above normal levels. Thus, applicants may fake more themselves as a means to compensate for the perceived increased likelihood of faking among their fellow applicants. In other words, since applicants' job prospects depend not only on their own qualifications but on those of their fellow applicants (Brown & Hesketh, 2004), applicants may fake more when interviewing for competitive organizations to prevent their honesty from placing them at a disadvantage relative to their fellow applicants (see Frank, 2006).

Whether an organization has a competitive or collaborative culture can also influence applicants' use of deceptive IM by influencing applicants' perceptions of the benefits of faking relative to the risks. Organizational culture may influence applicants' perceptions of the cost-benefit ratio of faking by indicating the extent to which an organization would view deceptive IM negatively. A competitive organizational culture may be perceived as having a less negative view on deceptive IM than a collaborative culture because the former emphasizes acting in a way that prioritizes success above all else (Stanne et al., 1999) while the latter does not (Sergiovanni, 2004). This is because a key component of competitive environments (Stanne et al., 1999) and competitive attitudes (Duckitt et al., 2002) is a win-at-all-costs mentality, while a more team-oriented mentality is a key component of collaborative environments and attitudes (Sergiovanni, 2004).

This contrast in the degree to which the cultures seem to be accepting of unethical behaviour - such as deceptive IM – in pursuit of a goal may lead to differences in faking behaviour. For example, upon learning that an organization is centred around a 'win-at-all-costs' mentality, applicants may fake more due to a belief that faking behaviour would be less likely to result in negative perceptions. Applicants may, for instance, be more likely to falsely claim to have similar interests as their interviewer out of a belief that the interviewer would be less likely to view this behaviour negatively even if they did suspect that it was insincere; the benefits of using deceptive ingratiation would outweigh the costs of getting caught. Thus, the extent to which applicants fake may differ depending on whether they are applying to an organization that is less likely to view suspected deceptive IM negatively (competitive culture) or more likely to view it negatively (collaborative culture). Specifically, they may use more deceptive IM when facing an organization with a competitive culture, as compared to when facing an organization with a collaborative culture, due to a belief that their use of deceptive IM is less likely to be viewed negatively. In addition, since applicants tend to assume that organizations about which they have no culture information are collaborative rather than competitive (Roulin & Krings, 2020), they may use more deceptive IM when facing an organization with a competitive culture than when facing a collaborative organization or one for which they have no culture information.

Given that a competitive organizational culture may foster the belief that faking is necessary to remain competitive in the selection process and the belief that the hiring organization may be relatively accepting of faking, I propose the following hypotheses:

H1a: A competitive organizational culture will be associated with higher levels of interview faking than a collaborative organizational culture or when no culture information is provided (control condition)

H1b: The relationship between organizational culture and faking will be partially

mediated by applicants' beliefs about the extent to which their fellow candidates will fake

H1c: The relationship between organizational culture and faking will be partially

mediated by applicants' beliefs about the extent to which the organization is accepting of faking

Person-Organization Fit

To further understand how perceptions of culture can impact applicant faking, person-

organization (P-O) fit must be considered. P-O fit can be generally defined as the level of

compatibility between applicants and organizations (Kristof, 1996). The compatibility can be

understood from the perspectives of supplementary fit and complementary fit. Supplementary fit

is when there is a match between the characteristics of the individual and the characteristics of

the organization (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). Complementary fit is when an individual's

characteristics help make the environment (e.g., organization) whole (Muchinsky & Monahan,

1987). In this research, I conceptualized P-O fit as supplementary rather than complementary fit.

The focus on supplementary fit is due to it receiving more support as the primary fit

conceptualization of organizations. For example, Schneider (1987) in his ASA model contended

that organizations tend to be become more homogeneous over time in terms of their values and

personality. He proposed that this was partly because organizations select candidates who match

– rather than complement – their characteristics.

Organizations search for applicants with strong P-O fit, in part, because a match between

an individual's and an organization's characteristics is associated with numerous positive

outcomes. For example, P-O fit predicts work attitude outcomes such as organizational

commitment and job satisfaction (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; O'Reilly et

al., 1991; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991). In addition, P-O fit predicts intentions to quit and

turnover (Chatman, 1991; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; O'Reilly et al., 2001). In their meta-analysis, Kristof-Brown et al., (2005) also found that P-O fit was moderately associated with coworker satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, and employees' trust in their managers.

Perhaps due in part to the empirical evidence to justify evaluations of P-O fit, many employers assess applicants' person-organization fit during job interviews (Cable & Judge, 1997). Knowing this, applicants may fake their attributes and qualifications in order to increase the perception that they are a good fit for an organization. Roulin and Krings (2020) provide support for this notion as they found that participants distorted their responses on a personality test to increase their fit with the organizational culture of the hiring organization. Specifically, participants who applied to an organization with a competitive culture distorted their responses to appear less agreeable and less honest and humble. While participants who applied to an organization with a less competitive culture distorted their responses to appear more agreeable and more honest and humble. This indicates that applicants use information about an organization's culture to infer the desired applicant profile, and then fake to reflect the sought-after characteristics.

This study built on Roulin and Krings (2020) by shifting the medium of examination from the personality test to the job interview. That is, it examined whether organizational culture affected the manner in which applicants faked their personalities in a job interview. Furthermore, this study added to the work of Roulin & Krings (2020) by examining not only whether organizational culture impacted the manner in which applicants faked their personalities, but by also examining whether it affected the extent to which applicants faked as well as whether it affected the manner in which they faked their values.

Personality in the Interview

Meta-analyses have revealed that personality is one of the most frequently assessed constructs in the employment interview (Huffcutt et al., 2001; Salgado & Moscoso, 2002). Huffcutt et al. (2001) found that personality was assessed in the interview more than any other construct, representing more than 60% of all rated characteristics. Further, Salgado and Moscoso (2002) found that personality was one of the four primary areas assessed by the conventional interview.

The focus on personality in interviews suggests that applicants have an incentive to fake their personality to increase their P-O fit. Research has also supported the notion that personality can be faked in interviews (Van Iddekinge et al., 2005). Thus, if applicants were able to identify the desired personality profile, they could fake their mannerisms and responses to interview questions in a way that maximizes their P-O fit.

Given that competitive and collaborative organizational cultures have contrasting values, beliefs, and expectations, applicants would need to fake their personalities differently depending on which of the two organizational cultures they were applying to. For example, since a competitive organizational culture is associated with high employee trait-competitiveness and the belief that success is a zero-sum game (Johnson & Johnson, 1999), applicants would need to fake their personalities in a manner that conveys that they are competitive and prefer relationships with negative outcome interdependence (i.e., their level of success is inversely related to others' level of success; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). On the other hand, since a collaborative organizational culture is associated with low trait-competitiveness, applicants would need to fake to convey that they are not competitive and prefer to have their success based on positive outcome interdependence (i.e., their level of success is positively related to others' level of success).

Research on the relationship between competitiveness and personality (e.g., Fletcher & Nusbaum, 2008) suggests that agreeableness and honesty-humility (H-H; Lee & Ashton, 2004) are negatively associated with competitiveness (Roulin & Krings, 2020). Since individuals who are competitive tend to care less about others' expectations, and fairness and modesty (Fletcher & Nussbaum, 2008), it follows that they would be less agreeable and less honest and humble. On the contrary, since individuals who are collaborative/less competitive tend to care more about the well-being of others (e.g., group members) and are more moral and modest (Fletcher & Nusbaum, 2008), it follows that they would be more agreeable and honest-humble. Thus, I propose that applicants who apply to a competitive organization distort their personality during the interview to appear less agreeable and less honest and humble, while those applying to a collaborative organization distort their personality to appear more agreeable and more honest and humble. In addition, since applicants tend to assume that organizations about which they have no culture information are collaborative (e.g., Roulin & Krings, 2020), I propose that applicants who apply to an organization under such conditions distort their personality to appear more agreeable and more honest and humble. I further propose that the relationships between culture and agreeableness and culture and H-H are partially accounted for by applicants' beliefs about the extent to which the ideal candidate is agreeable and honest and humble, respectively.

H2a: A competitive organizational culture, in comparison to a collaborative culture and when no culture information is provided (control condition), will be associated with applicants presenting lower levels of agreeableness

H2b: Applicants' beliefs about the extent to which the ideal candidate is agreeable will partially mediate the relationship between organizational culture and presented agreeableness

H3a: A competitive organizational culture, in comparison to a collaborative culture, will

be associated with applicants presenting lower levels of honesty-humility

H3b: Applicants' beliefs about the extent to which the ideal candidate is honest and

humble will partially mediate the relationship between organizational culture and presented

honesty-humility

Values in the Interview

In addition to altering their personality to increase their fit with an organization's culture,

applicants may fake their values to increase their fit with an organization's culture. Interviewers'

evaluations of applicants' P-O fit include assessments of the degree to which applicants' values

align with those of the hiring organization (Cable & Judge, 1997). The focus on values in

evaluating P-O fit suggests that applicants may be able to increase their interview scores by

faking to match the values of the organization.

An organization's values are part of its organizational culture, and thus, values tend to

vary between cultures (R. E. Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981). For example, competitive cultures tend

to be associated with values such as 'results are our first priority' and 'win-at-all-costs' (see

Roulin & Krings, 2020). On the contrary, collaborative cultures tend to be associated with values

such as 'teamwork is important for success' and 'every member's opinion is valuable.' Given

that values systematically differ across organizational cultures (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991),

applicants may fake their values and beliefs differently depending on how they perceive an

organization's culture. For example, applicants may fake a 'results' orientation when applying to

a competitive organization and a teamwork orientation when applying to a collaborative

organization. In addition, since applicants perceive organizations on which they have no culture

information as collaborative (Roulin & Krings, 2020), they may also fake a teamwork orientation

when applying to an organization on which they have no information on the culture. Further, I

contend that since collaborative and competitive cultures present different implied values in

relation to their emphasis on 'short-term results' relative to 'teamwork,' they will lead to

different responses to team-based questions. To demonstrate this, consider the following

dilemma:

A team that you oversee has to develop a leadership training program for a client. You

have three consultants in the team: two senior consultants who are very qualified and one junior

consultant who is willing to work very hard but whose experience and capabilities in this area

are very limited. This is a very important project and your team is under high time pressure from

the client. How would you allocate work between the three consultants? To what extent would

you involve the junior team member?

In responding to this question, one must consider the extent to which they value 'results'

(i.e., doing well on the project) over 'team cohesion and member inclusion' (i.e., including the

junior member in the project). If faking to fit in with a competitive culture, an applicant may

indicate that they would try to provide the junior member with only menial tasks and exclude

them from more complex activities. However, if faking to fit in with a collaborative culture, an

applicant may indicate that they would try to involve the member in key activities, but perhaps

have someone review the work to ensure that it was being done correctly. The contrasting

approaches reflect different beliefs regarding the importance of short-term success relative to

team member inclusion. I propose that individuals applying to organizations with competitive

cultures are more likely to prioritize results over member involvement and team cohesion and

that a contradictory pattern is found among individuals applying to organizations with

collaborative cultures. I further propose that the relationship between organizational culture and

the extent which applicants claim to value short-term results relative to teamwork is mediated by the extent to which applicants believe the hiring organization values short-term results over teamwork. Thus, I propose the following hypotheses:

H4a: A competitive organizational culture, in comparison to a collaborative culture and when no information on the culture is provided (control condition), will be associated with a greater emphasis on results relative to teamwork

H4b: The relationship between organizational culture and the extent to which applicants value results more than teamwork will be partially mediated by the extent to which applicants believe the organization values results more than teamwork

Present Study

In summary, the present study investigated how organizational culture affects deceptive IM use in the job interview. It specifically tested a model (see *Figure 1*) that explains how organizational culture may affect the extent to which applicants use deceptive IM in the job interview and the manner in which they use it. It used asynchronous video interview (AVI) technology (see Bolton & Wolfston Jr, 2014) to conduct the interviews and is the first study to examine the effect of organizational culture on actual faking in a job interview context.
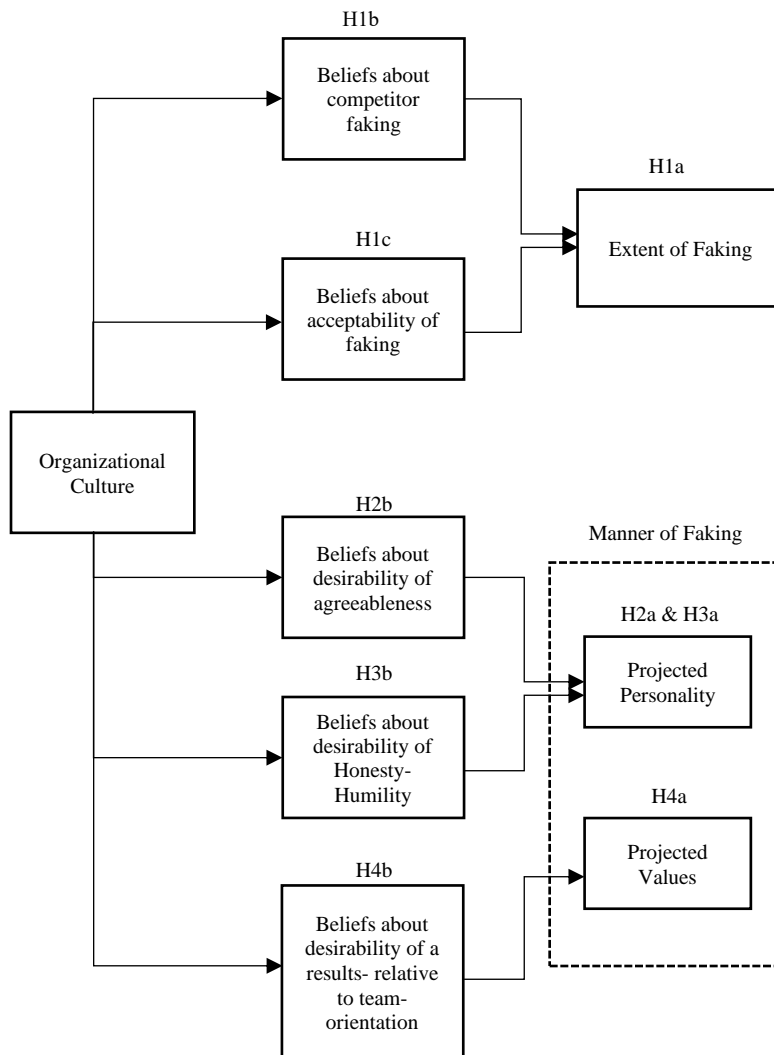
Figure 1
Model of how organizational culture affects deceptive impression management during the employment interview.

Method

Power Analysis

An a priori power analysis was conducted using G*Power to determine the necessary

sample size to achieve a power of .80. A medium-effect size of .30 was used as this was the most

conservative effect size found in Van Iddekinge et al., (2005), which examined the degree to

which personality could be faked in interviews. The .30 effect size is the Cohen's d value and

represents the standardized mean difference between ratings from the applicant and honest conditions. An effect size of .30 should be appropriate given that personality faking would likely be the most difficult of the researched phenomena (e.g., results versus team orientation faking) to detect. The analysis revealed that a final sample of 111 participants would be necessary. Assuming that ~10 percent of participants would not complete the study or pass the attention check, the plan was to recruit 120 participants; however, this number was increased to 146 to ensure that the sample size target would be met.

Sample

146 participants were recruited from the United States and Canada through Prolific. Prolific (www.Prolific.co) is an online crowdsourcing platform that provides access to participants who are willing to complete research studies in exchange for compensation (Palan & Schitter, 2018). It provides high quality data in terms of response rate, internal reliability and naivety, and its data quality is on par with that of the popular online crowdsourcing platform Amazon Mechanical Turk (www.mturk.com; Peer et al., 2017). Prolific was chosen over Amazon Mechanical Turk, in part, because Prolific allows researchers to collect identifiable information about participants (e.g., video responses). Only participants with managerial experience were allowed to participate. In addition, only participants who passed the attention check (i.e., "please select agree") were included in the final sample. Participants were also removed if their video links did not work or if their responses were inaudible/incomprehensible. This left a final sample of 130 participants.

The mean age was 39.41 years (SD =12.62). 48.5% identified as female, 49.2% identified as male, and 2.3% identified as other. The majority was white (74.6%) with the remainder being East Asian (7.7%), Black (6.9%), Mixed, (6.2%), South Asian (2.3%), Middle Eastern (1.5%),

and Aboriginal (.8%). The sample was well educated with 59.2% holding either a Bachelor's

(35.4%), Master's (19.2%), or Doctoral degree (4.6%); the remainder had either an Associate or

Professional degree (20%) or a High School diploma (20%). Most were employed either full-

time (58.5%) or part-time (16.9%); the remainder was unemployed and actively seeking work

(14.6%) or unemployed and not actively seeking work (10%). The mean number of traditional

interviews participants had previously completed was 16.02 ($SD = 22.57$), and the mean number

of AVIs they had previously completed was .73 ($SD = 1.87$) with most participants having never

previously completed an AVI. The mean managerial experience was 7.3 years ($SD = 7.95$).

Procedure

The participants were directed to an online AVI and survey platform called VIPP

(https://vipp-project.com/). Participants were provided with an online consent form (see

Appendix A) that outlined the risks, benefits, and compensation (i.e., 4 British Pound Sterling)

associated with participation. Those who agreed to the terms were asked to complete a captcha

requirement and indicate their age. Those who completed the captcha and indicated that they

were over the age of 18 were allowed to continue with the interview and survey.

They were instructed to imagine that they had applied for the position of 'Business

Manager,' and that they had received an interview request (see Appendix B). They were then

presented with a job description for the position that outlined the responsibilities and desired

skills and characteristics (see Appendix C). Next they were presented with an 'about us' page

that described the hiring organization (see Appendix D). The about us pages were crafted using

the organizational culture material from Roulin & Krings (2020). After reviewing the about us

page, participants were asked to complete an asynchronous video interview (AVI). An AVI is a

form of interview that is conducted through the internet (Basch et al., 2020; Langer et al., 2017).

Applicants are presented with questions – either through text on the screen or through pre-recorded videos - and then they are asked to respond through their webcam and microphone. The responses are then evaluated at a later time by the hiring organization. The AVI consisted of six questions (see Appendix E). The questions were designed using best practices as described in Roulin (2017) and Catano et al., (2016). Further they were designed in such a manner as to elicit all four forms of deceptive IM. Two questions assessed short-term 'results' versus 'teamwork' orientation, and consequently, their behaviourally anchored rating scales were designed - according to best practices (Catano et al., 2016) - to assess the degree to which respondents prioritized short-term performance over member inclusion and teamwork. To help increase the external validity of the interview process and the likelihood that participants took it seriously, an incentive was offered for them to perform their best. Specifically, participants were informed that the top ten percent of interviewers for each of the three conditions would receive an additional five British Pound Sterling.

After completing the interview, participants were informed that the mock selection process was finished and that they should answer all remaining items honestly. Participants then indicated the extent to which they faked during it using a revised version of the 16-item self-report interview faking behaviour scale (IFB-S; see Appendix F) from Bourdage and colleagues (2018). They also completed eight items (items one and two each had four sub-items; see Appendix G) with one item to assess each of the following: (a) the extent to which they believe their fellow applicants for the position faked; (b) the extent to which they believe that the organization would be accepting of suspected deceptive IM (e.g., insincerely claiming to share values with the organization); (c) the extent to which they believe the ideal candidate is agreeable; (d) the extent to which they believe the ideal candidate is honest and humble; (e) the

degree to which they believe the organization values 'results' relative to 'team cohesion and

team member inclusion;' (f) the extent to which they believe the hiring organization had a

competitive culture (manipulation check); (g) the extent to which they believe the hiring

organization had a collaborative culture (manipulation check); and finally, (h) the degree to

which they took the interview seriously. After answering the eight items, participants used a self-

report Relative Percentile (RP) personality assessment (Dunlop et al., 2019; Goffin & Olson,

2011) to self-assess their level of agreeableness (4 items) and H-H (4 items). A RP measure was

used to assess personality because an RP personality assessment has been found to meet several

of the preconditions for effective use of an RP measure (Beer, 2014; Goffin & Olson, 2011). In

addition, it was chosen because comparative measures such as RP measures have been found to

be better predictors of relevant criterion than Likert-type scales. (Olson et al., 2007). The RP

personality assessment was modelled based off previous RP measures (e.g., Dunlop et al., 2019;

Powell & Goffin, 2009), and involved participants indicating the percentile in which they

believed they fell for the four facets of agreeableness (i.e., forgivingness, gentleness, flexibility,

and patience) and the four facets of H-H (i.e., sincerity, fairness, greed avoidance, and modesty;

see Appendix H). Finally, they completed a demographics questionnaire (see Appendix I) that

asked them to indicate their age, gender, ethnicity, highest level of education, employment status,

years of managerial experience, experience with traditional interviews, and experience with

AVIs. They also completed an attention check item that asked them to select "agree" on a

'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' Likert scale. After the demographic questionnaire,

participants were presented with the feedback letter (see Appendix J).

Design

      Participants were randomly assigned to a competitive, collaborative, or control organizational culture condition. Organizational culture was manipulated through the 'about us' page (see Appendix D). The competitive culture condition had an about us page that described the organization as 'results-oriented.' The competitive culture manipulation was based on the competitive worldviews measure (Duckitt et al., 2002) and the manipulation used in Roulin and Krings (2020). The collaborative culture condition had an about us page that described the organization as 'team-oriented.' The collaborative culture manipulation was derived using previous conceptualizations of a collaborative culture (Sergiovanni, 2004) and teamwork (Glassop, 2002). Finally, the control condition had an about us page that only provided the name of its founder and described the services offered by the company.

Measures

      Interview Faking Behaviour Scale – Shortened (IFB-S; Bourdage et al., 2018). A revised version of the 16-item IFB-S scale was used to assess the extent to which participants deceptively responded to questions during the interview. The IFB-S was revised so that all of the deceptive ingratiation items only captured participant attempts to align their interview responses with the opinion and values of the organization rather than of the interviewer. For example, the item "I tried to find out the interviewer's views and incorporate them in my answers as my own" was changed to "I tried to incorporate the organization's views into my answers as my own. The IFB-S consists of four sub-scales, specifically, slight image creation, extensive image creation, image protection, and deceptive ingratiation. Slight image creation concerns the slight embellishment or altering of responses. Extensive image creation concerns elaborate distortions such as inventing stories or lying about possessing core skills (e.g. French fluency). Image

protection involves trying to maintain a good image by avoiding discussion of weaknesses such as negative work experiences and lack of skills. Finally, deceptive ingratiation involves feigning beliefs similar to the organization/interviewer or insincerely praising the organization/interviewer to create favourable perceptions. Sample revised IFB-S items include "I distorted my answers to emphasize what the organization was looking for" (slight image creation) and "I tried to express the same opinions and attitudes as the organization" (deceptive ingratiation). Responses were provided on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *to no extent* to 5 = *to a very great extent*). The internal consistency (i.e., Cronbach's Alpha) of the four sub-scales of the IFB-S ranged from .67 (deceptive ingratiation) to .86 (extensive image creation). The overall internal consistency of the IFB-S was .90.

Self-Report Relative Percentile Measure (Dunlop et al., 2019). A relative percentile measure of personality based on the work of Dunlop and colleagues (2019) was used to assess agreeableness and H-H. The RP measure relied on a slider scale from 1-100 to allow participants to indicate the percentile in which they believe they fell for each of the four facets of agreeableness and the four facets of H-H relative to a theoretical reference group of 100 random adults in North America. Participants were provided with the name of the facet and its definition. Facet names and definitions were taken from the HEXACO website (http://hexaco.org/). Upon reviewing a facet, participants moved the slider to indicate their personality relative to the North American adult population. For example, if a participant believed they were more 'sincere' than 75% of the North American population, they moved the slider to 75. The Cronbach's Alpha for agreeableness and H-H was .50 and .64, respectively. This is consistent with the findings of Dunlop et al., 2019 which reported values of .65 for agreeable and .69 for H-H.

Observer-Report Relative Percentile Measure (Dunlop et al., 2019). Two graduate Industrial-Organizational Psychology students (including myself) acted as raters by evaluating participants' personalities, specifically their agreeableness and H-H. Raters watched each participants' interview responses and evaluated mannerisms (e.g., tendencies to speak quickly) speech patterns (e.g., tendencies to use softer language), and descriptions of past experiences. These three elements were used to inform raters' evaluations of applicants' agreeableness and H-H, which were rated for each facet (i.e., forgiveness, gentleness, flexibility, and patience for A; sincerity, fairness, greed, and modesty for H-H). The raters were blind to the culture condition of each participant. Participant blindness was ensured by organizing the list of participants by Prolific ID and not providing any information on participants' organizational culture condition. First an introductory meeting was held where a booklet with rater instructions was provided to both raters and personality facet definitions were discussed. Next a pilot test was conducted in which the two raters independently rated the first 16 participants' personalities in terms of the four agreeableness and four H-H facets. They assigned percentile scores from 10-100 in 10-point increments for each facet (e.g., 60th, 70th, or 80th percentile; see Appendix K). Past research (e.g. Barrick et al., 2000; Van Iddekinge et al., 2005) has provided evidence that personality can be gauged during structured interviews, and thus, the raters should have provided an accurate sense of participants' presented agreeableness and H-H. For the pilot test, the intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) for agreeableness and H-H overall were .70 and .77, respectively. After the successful pilot test, the raters went onto rate the next 84 participants. At this second check, the ICCs had reduced significantly to .41 and .59 for agreeableness and H-H, respectively. A meeting was then held to reach a consensus on cues that could potentially signal higher levels of agreeableness and H-H. After the meeting, the raters rated the final 30 participants. The final

ICCs were .55 for both agreeableness and H-H. Given that personality can be difficult to assess

in interviews (Van Iddekinge et al., 2005), these were considered appropriately high ICCs

(LeBreton & Senter, 2008). Internal consistency for agreeableness and H-H was .94 and .91,

respectively.

      Teamwork versus Results Orientation. A similar rater approach as that described for

the observer-report RP personality measure was used to assess teamwork versus results

orientation. Specifically, the two raters were provided with a booklet that included the two

teamwork-based questions and the behaviourally anchored rating scales to evaluate responses on

teamwork versus results orientation. A pilot test was conducted on the first 16 participants.

Participants assigned scores from results-oriented (1) to team-oriented (5) (see Appendix L). The

pilot test yielded ICCs of .80 and .90. Raters then continued with the next 84 participants. The

second check on participants 1-100 found ICCs of .69 and .83. These were deemed sufficiently

high and ratings continued. The final value orientation ICCs for participants 1-130 on the two

teamwork questions were .60 and .76. The final overall value orientation ICC was .66.

      Performance. The two raters also evaluated each participant on the extent to which they

believed the applicant would be a good fit for the position based on their overall performance

during the interview in 5-point increments from 5-100 (e.g., 70, 75, or 80). The introductory

meeting covered what criteria should be used to evaluate performance (e.g., experience, skills,

characteristics). After the meeting, a pilot test with the first 16 participants yielded an ICC of .80.

This was deemed sufficiently high, and raters evaluated the next 84 participants. The second

check yielded an ICC of .68. This ICC was also deemed appropriate. The final ICC for

performance across all 130 participants was .65.

Results

Attention Check and Manipulation Checks

The mean response to the interview seriousness item "I took the interview seriously" was 4.55 ($SD = .67$). The item relied on a 1 (to no extent) to 5 (to a great extent) Likert scale, and thus, a mean of 4.55 suggested that most participants took the interview seriously. In addition, there were no differences between the competitive ($M = 4.52$, $SD = .74$), collaborative ($M = 4.56$, $SD = .63$), and control group ($M = 4.56$, $SD = .63$) in terms of the degree to which they took the interview seriously $F(2, 127) = .05$, $p = .95$. The high level of involvement suggests that the results may have some external validity, despite the mock interview format. All participants also passed the attention check further suggesting that the results may be generalizable. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to examine whether ratings of perceived organizational culture on "competitive" and "collaborative" varied by culture condition. The ANOVA confirmed that the about us page culture manipulation was effective: those in the competitive culture condition perceived their culture as more competitive ($M = 4.50$, $SD = .80$) than those in the collaborative condition ($M = 3.68$, $SD = .85$) or control condition perceived their own ($M = 3.59$, $SD = 1.05$), $F(2, 127) = 14.14$, $p < .01$. Similarly, those in the collaborative culture condition ($M = 4.22$, $SD = .69$) and control condition ($M = 3.95$, $SD = .89$) perceived their culture as more collaborative than those in the competitive condition ($M = 3.19$, $SD = 1.30$), $F(2, 127) = 12.62$, $p < . 01$. As was found in Roulin and Krings (2020), the control condition's scores were similar to the collaborative condition's which suggests that when no culture information is provided, participants assume that the organization's culture is collaborative.

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for the main study variables are presented in Table 1. A check for univariate outliers revealed one extreme outlier; this case was

excluded from the relevant analyses. To check for multivariate outliers, the Mahalanobis distance and Cook's distance of all the variables to be involved in the mediated regression analyses were evaluated. No cases were removed based on this criterion as no case had both a sufficiently large Mahalanobis distance and Cook's distance.

Extent of Faking

To test Hypothesis 1a that a competitive organizational culture will be associated with the highest levels of faking, I conducted a one-way ANOVA. Prior to conducting the ANOVA, I confirmed that the assumption of normality was satisfied as the three groups' distributions were associated with skew and kurtosis values less than |2.0| and |9.0|. Additionally, I confirmed that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was satisfied based on Levene's F test: $F(2, 126) = 0.92$, $p = .40$. The ANOVA found no significant effect of organizational culture on the extent to which participants faked, $F(2, 126) = 0.8$, $p = .92$; there was no difference in self-reported faking between the competitive culture ($M = 1.85$, $SD = .72$), collaborative culture ($M = 1.81$, $SD = .61$), and the control condition ($M = 1.87$, $SD = .63$). The results did not support Hypothesis 1a and suggested that organizational culture does not impact the extent to which participants fake.

Next, I conducted mediated regression analyses using the PROCESS macro to test Hypotheses 1b and 1c that posited that the relationship between organizational culture and faking will be partially mediated by applicants' beliefs about the extent to which their fellow candidates will fake (H1b) and by the extent to which the organization is accepting of faking (H1c). The competitive group was compared to the control group and collaborative group and the collaborative group was compared to the control and competitive group.

There was no significant indirect effect of organizational culture on extent of faking through beliefs about the extent to which other applicants faked: competitive culture was $b = -.00$, $SE = .06$, 95% CI [-.13, .09] and collaborative culture was $b = -.11$, $SE = .07$, 95% CI [-.26, .00] (see Table 2). Similarly, there was no significant indirect effect of organizational culture on extent of faking through beliefs about the extent to which the organization is accepting of faking: competitive culture was $b = .04$, $SE = .04$, 95% CI [-.04, .13] and collaborative culture was $b = -.02$, $SE = .04$, 95% CI [-.12, .06] (see Table 2). These results do not support Hypotheses 1b and 1c and suggest that neither beliefs about other applicants' faking nor beliefs about an organization's acceptance of faking mediate the relationship between organizational culture and faking. Interestingly, it was found that both the extent to which participants believed other applicants faked (H1b mediator) and the extent to which participants believed that the organization is accepting of faking (H1c mediator) were significant predictors of faking, $b = .30$, $SE = .07$ $p < .01$ and $b = .20$, $SE = .06$, $p = .01$, respectively. This suggests that perceptions of the extent to which other applicants fake and perceptions of the extent to which the organization is accepting of faking may affect faking but that organizational culture does not affect faking directly or through those two mediators.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Main Study Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Overall Faking	1.86	.72	-																			
2. Slight Image Creation	1.81	.90	.90**	-																		
3. Extensive Image Creation	1.44	.81	.81**	.70**	-																	
4. Image Protection	1.89	.94	.83**	.62**	.58**	-																
5. Deceptive Ingratiation	2.29	.82	.77**	.64**	.42**	.50**	-															
6. Other Applicants Faked	2.83	.87	.48**	.38**	.45**	.50**	.25**	-														
7. Org Accepts Faking	2.11	.93	.43**	.37**	.39**	.34**	.30**	.45**	-													
8. Ideal Candidate is A	3.16	1.14	-.01	.02	-.08	-.04	.08	-.04	-.14	-												
9. Ideal Candidate is H-H	3.41	1.21	-.23*	-.27**	-.19*	-.21*	-.07	-.21*	-.37**	.63**	-											
10. Results vs Team Value	46.23	22.86	-.13	-.04	-.19*	-.19*	-.01	-.29*	-.26**	.39**	.42**	-										
11. Self-Report A	69.58	13.73	-.06	-.08	-.02	-.07	-.01	-.11	-.00	.10	.10	.06	-									
12. Self-Report H_H	75.00	14.42	-.26**	-.23**	-.22*	-.25**	-.16	-.16	-.15	.06	.18*	.18*	.41**	-								
13. Teamwork Overall	3.62	.59	-.30**	-.37**	-.28**	-.17*	-.20**	.02	-.10	.12	.14	-.04	.04	.06	-							
14. Observed A	53.65	12.60	-.19*	-.22*	-.22*	-.11	-.06	-.19	-.15	.25**	.19*	-.03	.26**	.15	.38**	-						
15. Observed H-H	58.12	11.80	-.23**	-.30**	-.27**	-.13	-.08	-.25**	-.10	.14	.19*	-.04	.19*	.16	.40**	.79**	-					
16. Overall Performance	63.35	15.06	-.08	-.11	-.13	-.08	.07	-.05	-.10	.06	.10	-.05	-.04	.10	.36**	.41**	.52**	-				
17. Age	39.33	12.49	-.26**	-.25**	-.20*	-.21*	-.18*	-.27**	-.20*	-.07	.07	.11	.12	.19*	.19*	.14	.12	.15	-			
18. Managerial Experience	7.44	8.02	-.30**	-.23**	-.26**	-.29**	-.19*	-.18*	-.21*	-.02	.11	.02	.10	-.20*	.15	.14	.09	.18*	.69	-		
19. TI Experience	15.82	22.85	-.12	-.12	-.05	-.14	-.05	.03	-.04	.06	.11	-.10	.08	.14	.12	.03	.05	.09	.04	.06	-	
20. AVI Experience	.71	1.87	.02	.03	.04	-.03	.01	.08	.10	.22*	.13	.10	.20*	.07	.01	-.01	-.10	-.15	-.18*	-.15	.22*	-

Note: Listwise N = 123. IM = Impression Management. A = Agreeableness. H-H = Honesty-Humility. TI = Traditional Interview. AVI = Asynchronous Video Interview. Observer A & Observer H = ratings for agreeableness and honesty-humility during the interview.

Table 2

Regressions for tests of mediation for extent of faking hypotheses

	Other Applicants Faked	Org Accepts Faking	Self-reported faking (IFB-S)
Step 1			
Constant	2.96** (.13)	2.09** (.15)	1.95** (.11)
Competitive culture	-.01 (.18)	.22 (.20)	-.10 (.15)
Collaborative culture	-.36 (.19)	-.08 (.21)	-.14 (.16)
R^2	.04	.02	.08
Step 2			
Constant			.64** (.21)
Competitive culture			-.14 (.13)
Collaborative culture			-.01 (.14)
Other applicants faked			.30** (.07)
Organization accepts faking			.20** (.06)
R^2			.30
Indirect effects			
Competitive culture -> Others faked -> Faking			-.00 (.06)
Collaborative culture -> Others faked -> Faking			-.11 (.07)
Competitive culture -> Org. accepts -> Faking			.04 (.04)
Collaborative culture -> Org. accept -> Faking			-.02 (.04)

Note: Listwise $N = 129$. Values are unstandardized b-values with standard errors in parentheses. Competitive culture = competitive culture versus control and collaborative culture. Collaborative culture = collaborative culture versus control and competitive culture. Org accepts = belief about the organization's acceptance of faking. IFB-S = Interview faking behaviour scale – shortened. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Personality Faking

To test Hypotheses 2a and 3a that a competitive organizational culture would lead to applicants presenting lower levels of agreeableness and H-H, respectively, I used three faking indicators as dependent variables (see Table 3, for means, SDs, and ANOVA results). Multiple personality faking indicators have been used by Roulin and Krings (2020).

First, I conducted one-way ANOVAs to compare the observer-report agreeableness and H-H scores across the three conditions. Prior to conducting the ANOVAs, I confirmed that the assumption of normality was satisfied as the three groups' distributions were associated with

skew and kurtosis values less than |2.0| and |9.0|. I also confirmed that the assumption of

homogeneity of variance was satisfied for both agreeableness and H-H based on Levene's F test:

$F(2, 126) = 0.90$, $p = .41$ (agreeableness) and $F(2, 126) = 1.00$, $p = .37$ (H-H). The ANOVAs

showed no significant effect of organizational culture on either presented agreeableness, $F(2,$

$126) = .55$, $p = .58$ or presented H-H during the interview, $F(2, 126) = 1.39$, $p = .25$ (see Table 3

for means and SDs).

Second, to test Hypotheses 2a and 3a I also calculated and compared the raw differences

between the self-report personality scores (honest condition) and the observer-report personality

scores (selection condition) across the three culture conditions using one-way ANOVAs. The

raw difference scores were calculated by subtracting self-report personality scores from the

observer-report personality scores with positive scores indicating that participants faked to

increase perceptions of a trait and negative scores indicating that participants faked to decrease

perceptions of a trait. Prior to conducting the ANOVAs, I confirmed that the skew and kurtosis

values of the raw difference scores were less than |2.0| and |9.0|. I also confirmed that the

assumption of homogeneity of variance was met: Levene's F test was $F(2, 127) = .91$, $p = .41$ for

the agreeableness raw difference score and $F(2, 127) = .56$, $p = .57$ for the H-H raw difference

score. Similar to the findings of the observer-report personality ANOVAs, the ANOVAs using

the raw difference scores found no significant effect of organizational culture on either presented

agreeableness, $F(2,127) = .18$, $p = .84$ or presented H-H during the interview, $F(2, 127) = .19$, p

$= .83$ (see Table 3 for means and SDs).

Finally, as a third approach to test Hypotheses 2a and 3b, I calculated and compared

regression-adjusted difference scores (RADS) using the self-report personality scores (honest)

and the observer-report personality scores (selection) across the three culture conditions using

one-way ANOVAs. RADS were discussed by Burns and Christiansen (2011) and applied by

Roulin and Krings (2020). The RADS were calculated by regressing the observer-report

(selection condition) personality scores on the self-report (honest condition) personality scores;

the RADS are the residuals of the regression (Burns & Christansen, 2011).

Prior to conducting the ANOVAs, I confirmed that the skew and kurtosis values of the

RADS were less than |2.0| and |9.0|. I also confirmed that the assumption of homogeneity of

variance was met: Levene's F test was $F(2, 127) = .74$, $p = .48$ for the agreeableness raw

difference score and $F(2, 127) = .63$, $p = .53$ for the H-H raw difference score. The ANOVAs of

the RAD scores also found no significant effect of organizational culture on either presented

agreeableness, $F(2, 127) = .64$, $p = .53$ or presented H-H, $F(2, 127) = 1.04$, $p = .36$.

Table 3

Faking in Various Organizational Culture Conditions

| | *M (SD)* for each condition | | | | Cohen's *d* | |
| | | | | | Comp - Collab | Comp - Control |
Measure	Competitive	Collaborative	Control	*F* value		
Personality scores (selection condition)						
Agreeableness	53.23 (13.25)	55.18 (10.90)	51.92 (12.88)	.55	.16	.10
Honesty-Humility	59.79 (11.93)	58.72 (10.23)	55.73 (12.33)	1.39	.10	.33
Raw difference scores (selection vs. honest condition)						
Agreeableness	-15.97 (17.84)	-14.92 (12.65)	-17.02 (16.84)	.18	.07	.06
Honesty-Humility	-16.05 (19.54)	-17.96 (15.62)	-15.72 (17.65)	.19	.11	.02
Regression-adjusted difference scores (selection vs. honest)						
Agreeableness	-.01 (1.09)	.13 (.87)	-.12 (1.01)	.64	.12	.10
Honesty-Humility	.13 (1.03)	.02 (.88)	-.17 (1.06)	1.04	.11	.21

Note. $N = 130$. Comp – Collab = competitive culture vs collaborative culture. Comp - Control = competitive culture vs control condition.
  * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Overall, the results do not support H2a and H3a suggest that organizational culture does

not impact how participants fake their personality during job interviews. Specifically, they

suggest that whether an organization has a competitive or collaborative culture has no effect on the degree to which their applicants feign agreeableness or H-H.

Next, I conducted mediated regression analyses using PROCESS to test Hypotheses 2b and 3b that posited that the relationship between organizational culture and presented agreeableness (H2b) and presented H-H (H3b) during the interview will be partially mediated by beliefs about the extent to which the ideal candidate is agreeable and H-H, respectively. The competitive group was compared to the control and collaborative group and the collaborative group was compared to the control and competitive group. There was a significant indirect effect of organizational culture on presented agreeableness through beliefs about the extent to which the ideal candidate is agreeable. Specifically, the effect of competitive culture in comparison to the control condition and collaborative culture on presented agreeableness was $b = -.3.09$, $SE = 1.25$, 95% CI [-5.76, -.93]. However, there was not a significant indirect effect of collaborative culture in comparison to the control condition and competitive culture ($b = -.44$, $SE = .66$, 95% CI = [-1.81, .86]) (see Table 4). Similarly, there was a significant indirect effect of competitive culture on presented H-H through beliefs about the extent to which the ideal candidate is H-H: competitive culture was $b = -2.05$, $SE = 1.07$, 95% CI = [-4.52, -.29] (see Table 4). However, there was not a significant indirect effect of collaborative culture on presented H-H ($b = .45$, $SE = .55$, 95% CI = [-.48, 1.74]). The non-significant indirect effects of the collaborative culture for both presented agreeableness and presented H-H are likely due to the competitive culture and control condition results canceling out. The significant indirect effects of competitive culture on both presented agreeableness and presented H-H provide partial support for Hypotheses 2b and 3b.

Interestingly, both mediation hypotheses were supported in spite of the ANOVAs for the observer-report personality scores, raw difference personality scores, and RADS personality scores showing no effect of organizational culture on faking (i.e., not showing a significant c path) (H2a & H3a). The significant mediations suggest that when applicants' perceptions of the ideal personality are considered, there is a significant effect of organizational culture on both presented agreeableness and presented H-H. The mediation analyses in addition to supporting Hypotheses 2b and 3b help to qualify the non-significant ANOVA findings of H2a and H3a. Specifically, they suggest that there may have been a suppression effect taking place where the true relationship between organizational culture and presented agreeableness and H-H was not revealed. For example, since the direct effect of competitive culture on presented H-H was positive and significant and the indirect effect of competitive culture on presented H-H through ideal H-H was negative, it may be that the two effects were cancelled in the ANOVA analyses. Thus, the mediation results suggest that there may be an effect of organizational culture on presented personality after all.

Value Faking

To test Hypothesis 4a that a competitive organizational culture, in comparison to a collaborative culture and control condition, will be associated with a greater emphasis on results relative to teamwork, I conducted a one-way ANOVA. Prior to conducting the ANOVA, I confirmed that the assumption of normality was satisfied as the three groups' distributions on results versus team orientation were associated with skew and kurtosis values less than |2.0| and |9.0|.

Table 4
Regressions for tests of mediation for personality hypotheses

	Ideal candidate is agreeable	Presented agreeableness during interview
Agreeableness		
Constant	3.54** (.17)	51.92** (1.94)
Competitive culture	-1.04** (.23)	1.31 (2.64)
Collaborative culture	-.15 (.24)	3.26 (2.64)
R^2	.16	.01
Step 2		
Constant		41.39** (3.91)
Competitive culture		4.40 (2.75)
Collaborative culture		3.70 (2.66)
Ideal candidate is agreeable		2.98** (.97)
R^2		.08
Indirect effects		
Competitive culture -> Ideal A -> Faking		-3.09* (1.26)
Collaborative culture -> Ideal A -> Faking		2.65* (1.17)

	Ideal candidate is H-H	Presented H-H during interview
Honesty-Humility		
Constant	3.61** (.18)	55.73** (1.80)
Competitive culture	-.88** (.24)	4.06 (2.46)
Collaborative culture	.20 (.25)	2.99 (2.55)
R^2	.15	.02
Step 2		
Constant		47.34** (3.62)
Competitive culture		6.11* (2.52)
Collaborative culture		2.53 (2.58)
Ideal candidate is H-H		2.32** (.50)
R^2		.07
Indirect effects		
Competitive culture -> Ideal H-H -> Faking		-2.05* (1.07)
Collaborative culture -> Ideal H-H -> Faking		.45 (.55)

Note: Listwise $N = 130$. Values are unstandardized b-values with standard errors in parentheses. Competitive culture = competitive culture vs others. Collaborative culture = collaborative culture vs others. H-H = Honesty-Humility. Ideal A = extent to which the ideal candidate is agreeable. Ideal H-H = extent to which the ideal candidate is H-H. * $p <. .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Additionally, I confirmed that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was satisfied

based on Levene's F test: $F(2,127) = .350$, $p = .71$. The ANOVA showed no significant effect of

organizational culture on the extent to which participants demonstrated a results versus

teamwork orientation, $F(2,127) = 1.24$, $p = .29$. There were not any significant differences on

results versus teamwork orientation between the competitive ($M = 3.71$, $SD = .60$), collaborative

($M = 3.57$, $SD = .52$), or control conditions ($M = 3.51$, $SD = .74$). The results do not support the

notion that applicants may fake their values such as their results versus teamwork orientation to

better fit the culture of an organization.

Finally, I conducted a mediated regression using PROCESS to test Hypothesis 4b that

stated that the relationship between organizational culture and results versus teamwork

orientation will be partially mediated by applicants' beliefs about the extent to which the

organization values results relative to teamwork. The control group and collaborative group

acted as the reference group for the competitive group and the control group and competitive

group acted as the reference group for the collaborative group. Applying to a company with a

competitive culture (as compared to one in which no culture information was provided or one

with a collaborative culture) did not indirectly lead to faking to appear more results-oriented, b =

-.01, SE = .06, 95% CI [-.14, .10] (see Table 5). Similarly, applying to a company with a

collaborative culture (as compared to one in which no culture information was provided or one

with a competitive culture) did not indirectly lead to faking to appear more team-oriented, b =

.00, SE = .03, 95% CI [-.04, .07] (see Table 5).

However, it is important to note that organizational culture did affect the extent to which

participants believed that the organization valued results relative to teamwork, $F(2,121) = 13.03$,

$p < .01$. Specifically, those in the collaborative condition ($M = 55.79$, $SD = 17.62$) believed that

their organization valued teamwork to a greater extent than those in the competitive condition (M

$= 33.33$, $SD = 25.29$ and the control condition ($M = 49.98$, $SD = 18.60$). This suggests that

whether an organization has a competitive or collaborative culture may indicate to applicants what values it cherishes.

Additional Analyses

As an exploratory analysis I also examined whether organizational culture had an effect on interview performance by conducting a one-way ANOVA. First, I confirmed that the assumption of normality was satisfied (i.e., skew and kurtosis values were less than |2.0| and |9.0|, respectively). Second, I confirmed that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was satisfied: Levene's F test, $F(2,127) = 1.15$, $p = .32$. The ANOVA revealed that there was a significant effect of culture on performance, $F(2, 127) = 3.20$, $p = .04$. Tukey's post-hoc tests revealed that the competitive culture condition ($M = 67.45$, $SD = 12.88$) outperformed the collaborative culture condition ($M = 60.18$, $SD = 14.61$) with a d value of .53. No differences were found between the control condition ($M = 61.46$, $SD = 16.38$) and the competitive nor collaborative conditions. The higher performance scores for the competitive condition suggests that applicants may perform better on interviews when they believe that the hiring organization holds a 'win-at-all-costs' mentality.

Gender differences were examined between the conditions. It was found that men ($M = 60.24$, $SD = 14.96$) and women ($M = 59.17$, $SD = 14.85$) performed equally well in the collaborative condition, $p = .82$. In addition, men ($M = 69.38$, $SD = 16.39$) and women ($M = 65.97$, $SD = 10.66$) performed equally well in the competitive condition, $p = .39$. This suggests that organizational culture may not lead to gender differences in interview performance.

Table 5
Regressions for tests of mediation for results vs teamwork hypotheses

	Org values results vs. teamwork	Results vs. Teamwork during interview
Constant	49.98** (3.25)	3.51** (.10)
Competitive culture	-16.64** (4.57)	.24 (.14)
Collaborative culture	5.80 (4.60)	.06 (.14)
R^2	.18	.03
Step 2		
Constant		3.47** (.17)
Competitive culture		.25 (.14)
Collaborative culture		.06 (.14)
Org values Results vs. Teamwork		.00 (.00)
R^2		.03
Indirect effects		
Competitive culture -> Org values -> Value Faking		-.01 (.06)
Collaborative culture -> Org values -> Value Faking		.00 (.03)

Note: Listwise $N = 130$. Values are unstandardized b-values with standard errors in parentheses. Competitive culture = competitive culture versus control and collaborative culture. Collaborative culture = collaborative culture versus control and competitive culture. Org values = extent to which participants believe the organization values results relative to teamwork
* $p <. .05$; ** $p < .01$

Discussion

Recent research has suggested that organizational culture may affect how job applicants fake on personality tests (Roulin & Krings, 2020). However, the effect of organizational culture on deceptive IM in the job interview had not been examined. The purpose of this research was to investigate whether organizational culture may affect both the extent to which applicants engage in deceptive IM during a job interview and the manner in which they may engage in deceptive IM during a job interview. The results suggest that organizational culture does not affect the extent to which applicants fake nor the manner in which they fake their values but that it may impact the manner in which they fake their personality.

Firstly, contrary to the first hypothesis, it was found that whether applicants were applying to an organization with a competitive, collaborative, or an undisclosed culture (control condition)

did not affect the extent to which they reported faking during the job interview. In addition, it was found that there was no indirect effect of organizational culture on extent of faking through either beliefs about other applicants' faking nor beliefs about the organization's acceptance of faking. These findings suggest that applicants do not fake more when interviewing for an organization with a competitive culture, even when taking into account the applicants' beliefs about other applicants' faking and the organization's acceptance of faking.

The findings do not align with those of Ho et al., (2020) which found that perceptions of a competitive climate led to an increased willingness to fake compared to perceptions of a non-competitive climate. The discrepancy between the effect of competition on willingness to fake in that research and the effect of a competitive organizational culture on actual faking in this study may be due to inaccurate participant perceptions on how a competitive climate may affect their faking in an actual interview. Specifically, it may be that applicants for an organization with a competitive climate overestimate how much they would fake in an actual interview and/or those in a non-competitive or collaborative culture or control condition may underestimate how much they would fake. Further applicants may ascribe too much importance to the competitiveness of an organizational culture when reporting their willingness to fake in a potential interview without considering other factors (e.g., perceived cost of getting caught faking, difficulty to fake) that may impact their actual faking behaviour. The finding that organizational culture does not affect the extent to which applicants fake also does not support Roulin et al.'s (2016) model which posits that applicants fake more if they are applying to an organization with a competitive culture. The model theorized that applicants would fake more if they were applying to an organization with a competitive culture due to an increased perception of competition.

However, while culture was not found to affect the extent to which applicants faked, the notion that perceptions of competition would lead to greater faking did receive support. Specifically, both beliefs about other applicants' faking and beliefs about the organization's acceptance of faking predicted applicant faking. The former finding in particular suggests that perceptions of competition may lead to greater faking as applicants' beliefs about the extent to which their fellow applicants' faked may be an indication of applicants' perceptions of the competitiveness of the selection process. The finding that beliefs about other applicants' faking was associated with faking also provides support for Snell et al.'s (1999) model of faking that proposed that applicants' perceptions of other applicants' faking may lead to changes in applicants' own faking behaviour. In addition, the results align with the findings of Graham et al., (1994) which found that students cheated more if they thought that a large number of students at their school cheated. Overall, the findings provide some support for both Roulin et al.'s (2016) model and Snell et al.'s (1999) model that perceptions of competition and beliefs about other applicants' faking, respectively, may lead to increased faking.

Secondly, it was found that a competitive organizational culture, in comparison to a collaborative culture and a control condition, was associated with lower levels of both presented (i.e., observer-reported) agreeableness and presented H-H when taking into account applicants' beliefs about the ideal candidate's agreeableness and H-H levels, respectively. While organizational culture did not have an effect on personality faking on its own, the inclusion of applicants' perceptions of the ideal personality provided support for the second set of hypotheses by revealing a relationship between organizational culture and personality faking. The results provide support for Roulin and Krings' (2020) assertion that applicants use information about an organization's culture to infer the desired applicant profile, and then fake to reflect the sought-

after characteristics. Specifically, the results demonstrate that applicants infer an ideal

personality profile of low agreeableness and low H-H from organizations with a competitive

culture and fake their personalities during job interviews to better fit those two personality

descriptions. The findings are valuable because they demonstrate that the effect of organizational

culture on faking is not limited to personality tests (see Roulin & Krings, 2020) but that culture

can also affect faking in job interviews.

      Finally, contrary to my hypothesis, it was found that organizational culture did not

affect how participants faked their values in the job interview. Specifically, whether participants

were assigned to a competitive culture, collaborative culture, or control condition did not affect

the extent to which they reported espousing a results orientation versus a team orientation. It is

interesting to note though that organizational culture did affect the extent to which the applicants

believed that the organization valued results versus teamwork. That is, those in the competitive

condition tended to believe that their hiring organization primarily valued results while those in

the collaborative and control conditions tended to believe that their hiring organization primarily

valued teamwork. These findings indicate that applicants may infer an organization's results

versus teamwork orientation from the competitiveness level of its organizational culture.

However, applicants may have a difficult time faking to reflect the perceived results versus

teamwork orientation.

      The difficulty may be due to the cognitive complexity involved with understanding

the dilemmas presented in situational questions (both of the questions assessing values were

situational questions), recalling the organization's values, and understanding which response

would signal an espousal of the organization's values. It may have been easier for participants to

fake their values if open-ended questions asking about their values were presented instead of

situational questions. This may have decreased the cognitive load and made it easier for

participants to fake. This is since a reduced cognitive load is associated with less faking and less

deception, more generally (Levashina & Campion, 2006; Vrij et al., 2008; Vrij & Mann, 2006).

Overall, the findings suggest that participants have a difficult time faking their values,

specifically their results versus team orientation. However, additional research should examine

the role of question type and the role that cognitive load may play in decreasing faking.

The exploratory examination of the effect of organizational culture on

interview performance revealed that applicants in the competitive condition outperformed those

in the collaborative condition. There were no differences between the conditions in terms of

extent of faking (i.e., deceptive IM), so the difference in performance suggests that the

competitive organizational culture resulted in applicants better using honest IM interview tactics.

It may have been that the competitive organizational culture primed a results-orientation which

led to applicants focusing on the key aspects of both the interview questions and their

professional experiences. This may have resulted in the applicants better answering the questions

and more effectively arguing why they would be a good fit for the position.

The exploratory examination also revealed that men and women performed

equally well across both the collaborative and competitive conditions. Women tend to avoid

competitive situations while men tend to be drawn to them (Niederle & Vesterlund, 2007). This

study suggests that while women may tend to avoid competitive situations, they may perform

just as well as men in competitive situations such as interviews for organizations with

competitive organizational cultures. However, this finding should be interpreted cautiously as it

does not align with past research that has found that women tend to perform worse than men in

competitive environments, even when they are able to perform similarly well in non-competitive

environments (e.g., Gneezy et al., 2003). This research is the first to examine gender differences

in interview performance across different types of organizational cultures. Thus, more research is

needed to discern the relationship between gender and interview performance across

organizational cultures of varying levels of competitiveness.

Practical Implications

This study may yield several practical implications. Firstly, the finding that both

beliefs about the extent to which other applicants faked and beliefs about the extent to which the

organization is accepting of faking predicted the extent to which applicants faked suggests that

there are steps organizations can take to reduce faking in job interviews. For example,

organizations may be able to signal to prospective employees that they value integrity and

truthfulness and that all applicants should be honest in the selection process. Organizations may

incorporate integrity and honesty into their organizational culture and make their espousal of

these values known to applicants by mentioning them in their about us page. This may lead to

applicants faking less during their job interview as they try to embody the values to increase their

P-O fit.

A second practical implication of this study arises from its finding that

organizational culture may affect how applicants fake their personality. The knowledge that an

organization's culture can affect how participants fake their personality can be used to establish a

need for more fake-resistant measures. For example, the finding may justify organizations

making a shift toward using personality-specific situational and past behaviour questions to

assess applicants' personalities instead of using general interview questions and self-report

personality inventories (Roulin & Krings, 2020). The use of personality-specific situational and

past behaviour questions to assess personality might make personality faking more difficult for

applicants and provide organizations with a better sense of applicants' P-O fit. This is since specific, detailed questions about personality may be harder to fake than questions that only indirectly assess personality since the former would involve a greater cognitive load (Levashina & Campion, 2006; Vrij et al., 2008; Vrij & Mann, 2006).

A third practical implication of this study is that situational questions may be viewed as a good tool to assess applicants' values during a job interview. The results of the study revealed that applicants were able to identify the appropriate value espoused by their hiring organization but unable to fake effectively to reflect the specific value (e.g., results orientation). The study used situational questions to assess applicants' values, and the cognitive complexity involved with faking situational questions effectively may have made the questions more difficult to fake. Thus, situational questions and perhaps past behaviour questions (given that they also are difficult to fake; see Pennock, 1998) may be good choices for organizations to use to assess participants' values in job interviews.

Finally, this study has practical value because it has been able to demonstrate that a competitive organizational culture may not systematically disadvantage women and may not result in them faring worse in job interviews. However, it is important to note that this research finding contradicts a large body of past work which has found that women avoid and perform worse in competitive environments (Gneezy et al., 2003; Niederle & Vesterlund, 2007). The finding from this study suggests that there may be a more complex relationship between competitive environments and performance and that a competitive organizational culture – despite being more consistent with the male gender role (Niederle & Vesterlund, 2007) – may not systematically lead to women being at a disadvantage in the selection process.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

A key limitation of this study was its reliance on a mock interview rather than an actual interview. External validity was enhanced by incentivizing participants with a monetary bonus if they scored in the top tenth percentile of interviewees. The study even appeared to have some external validity as participants reported that they took the mock interview as seriously as they would have taken a real one. However, the monetary bonus may still have been insufficient to achieve strong external validity as the strong attention check results may have been due to participant fears of having compensation withheld if they did not indicate that they took the interview seriously. It is difficult to manipulate organizational culture in a study using real organizations, so the reliance on mock interviews may be a limitation inherent to research examining the effect of organizational culture on behaviour in the selection process. External validity may have also been limited due the study's reliance on AVIs. However, while the results may not generalize to actual in-person interviews given the differing mediums, they may provide a good indication of how organizational culture may affect faking in AVIs, which are gaining in popularity (Torres & Mejia, 2017).

Another limitation of this study was that the sample consisted of participants of various professional backgrounds. Although the participants were selected so that they all had management experience, many did not have experience that was particularly relevant for a Business Manager position. This may have resulted in experience having an impact on faking that did not even out across the conditions. Specifically, there may have been significant differences across participants in business management experience that led to differences in the extent to which participants faked as an adaptive response. The various professional backgrounds could have obscured the true relationship between organizational culture and extent of faking.

Future research should better control for professional experience by ensuring that all participants have experience in the desired domain. For example, if the position is Business manager for an organization that does accounting and leadership training, all participants should have some experience in managing a white-collar organization.

Another limitation of this study was that it only relied on situational interview questions to examine values. The study's inability to examine how participants may have faked their values on open-ended questions and past behaviour questions is a notable concern as it may have been easier for participants to fake their values on one of these two question types compared to situational questions. Open-ended questions in particular may have been easier to fake and may have consequently led to participants in the competitive condition faking a results orientation and those in the collaborative and control conditions faking a teamwork orientation. Future research should examine whether organizational culture affects value faking across different types of interview questions. In terms of values, future research should also examine different types of organizational cultures (e.g., 'clan' cultures; see Hartnell et al., 2011) to see how they would affect value faking. The examination of the effect of culture on different types of values such as human affiliation, commitment, and employee involvement (see Cameron & Quinn, 1988) may be valuable for examination as well.

An additional limitation of this study was that it did not use behaviourally anchored rating scales (BARS) to evaluate participants on their performance during the interview. BARS are a type of interview marking guide that provides definitions of the constructs to be assessed by a set of interview questions and specific behavioural examples of excellent, average, and poor answers (Georganta & Brodbeck, 2018). They add structure to interviews which been associated with psychometric benefits such as greater validity and reduced bias (Hollwitz & Wilson, 1993;

Kutcher & Bragger, 2004). The reliance on an overall 1-100 assessment instead of BARS may have resulted in less accurate results. Further, the results may have been subjected to a bias that resulted in an inflation of the competitive group's scores. For example, the raters may have been more likely to view the competitive group as displaying better qualifications because the competitive culture manipulation may have resulted in applicants appearing more confident and assertive. Future research should use BARS for all interview question to better examine the effect of organizational culture on interview performance.

Another limitation of this study was that it relied on observer-report personality and rater-assessed team versus results orientation scores that had low inter-rater reliability. The low levels of inter-rater reliability suggest that personality and value orientation may not have been accurately assessed, and consequently that the non-significant results of organizational culture on personality and value orientation (when the mediating variables were excluded) may not reflect the true relationships between the variables. The low levels of reliability may have been due to a lack of clarity in the rating guidelines or due to the difficulty involved with rating personality and value orientation. Future research should utilize a more systematic process for evaluating participants' personalities. This may include creating lists of verbal behaviours that would constitute the presence of the various facets of a personality trait (e.g., agreeableness). Future research should also ensure that ratings of value orientation rely on BARS that account for a wide array of potential responses as this would help remove discrepancies for more rare cases. Several follow-up meetings should also be held to review, understand, and correct significant discrepancies.

Another limitation related to the personality ratings was that there were low inter-correlations between the facets of each personality trait (e.g., patience). This suggests that the four facets for each trait did not adequately demonstrate that that they were part of one unitary construct. Future research should examine whether certain facets are harder to assess during interviews and focus on the facets that are more reliably assessed. Specifically, future research should investigate whether organizational culture leads to differences in personality during an interview by examining personality at the facet level rather than the trait level.

An additional limitation of this study was its sample size. The effect size that was used to determine the appropriate sample size for this study was a Cohen's d value of .30. This value was chosen because it was believed to be the most conservative effect size among all the researched phenomena (e.g., personality faking in interviews). However, this may not have been accurate. Specifically, recent research (i.e., Ho et al., 2019, 2020) suggests that the effect size for situational effects (e.g., competitive climates) on faking is relatively small (e.g., .08 - .19). Thus, the most difficult to detect effect in the study may have been the effect of organizational culture on extent of faking. Consequently, the study should have based its sample size requirement on the more conservative values found in situational variable-focused works that examined extent of faking such as Ho et al. 2019, 2020. Future research should examine the effect of culture on faking using a significantly larger sample size to help determine whether there were meaningful relationships between variables that were not captured by this study.

Another limitation of the study was that the competitive culture manipulation may have had limited external validity. The competitive culture manipulation emphasized values such as a 'win-at-all-costs' mentality and 'ruthlessness in the pursuit of a goal.' These are values that may not be shared and promoted by even the most competitive organizations in the world. Thus,

the findings based off of the extreme competitive culture manipulation may not be generalizable

to real organizations. Future research should examine whether more realistic manipulations of

organizational culture also demonstrate an effect on personality faking and job interview

performance.

A final limitation of this study was that it assessed applicants' beliefs about the

extent to which the organization espoused a results versus teamwork orientation using only a

single item that put the two elements on opposing sides. It can be argued that results and

teamwork orientations are not polar opposites, and consequently that a participant indicating that

they strongly value results relative to teamwork is not an indication that teamwork is unimportant

to them. Future research should use at least two items to assess results versus teamwork

orientation with one item assessing results orientation and the other assessing teamwork

orientation. The use of two items would make it easier to discern whether applicants to a

competitive organization tend to believe that their organization values results and whether

applicants to a collaborative organization tend to believe that their organization values

teamwork. Further, the use of two items would provide a better indication of the degree to which

both elements are perceived to be important to each type of organization (e.g., how important

both results and teamwork are to a competitive organization).

Conclusion

This study was the first to examine how organizational culture may affect actual

faking during the job interview. Acting under the proposition that applicants take a dynamic

approach to faking, I examined whether organizational culture affected both the extent to which

applicants faked during a job interview and the manner in which they faked. Theoretically, the

results provided some support for the notion that applicants fake as an adaptive response to better

fit in with the culture of a hiring organization. Specifically, when taking into account applicant

beliefs about the ideal candidate, it was found that applicants faked their personality to better fit

in with the culture of the hiring organization. However, applicants did not fake their values. In

addition, applicants did not fake to different extents based on organizational culture. Practically,

the results suggest that it is important that organizations align the elements of their culture with

the traits that they want their applicants to embody during the selection process. Overall, the

study represents a first step toward understanding the effect of organizational culture on faking in

the job interview.

References

Bangerter, A., Roulin, N., & König, C. J. (2012). Personnel selection as a signaling game. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *97*(4), 719–738. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0026078

Barrick, M. R., Jonathan A. Shaffer, & Sandra W. DeGrassi. (2009). What you see may not be what you get: Relationships among self-presentation tactics and ratings of interview and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*, 1394–1411. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0016532

Barrick, M. R., Patton, G. K., & Haugland, S. N. (2000). Accuracy of interviewer judgments of job applicant personality traits. *Personnel Psychology*, *53*(4), 925–951.

Basch, J. M., Melchers, K. G., Kegelmann, J., & Lieb, L. (2020). Smile for the camera! The role of social presence and impression management in perceptions of technology-mediated interviews. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*.

Batt, P. J., & Purchase, S. (2004). Managing collaboration within networks and relationships. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *33*(3), 169–174.

Beer, A. (2014). Comparative personality judgments: Replication and extension of robust findings in personality perception using an alternative method. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *96*(6), 610–618.

Bolton, J. M., & Wolfston Jr, J. H. (2014). *Asynchronous video interview system*.

Bourdage, J. S., Roulin, N., & Tarraf, R. (2018). "I (might be) just that good": Honest and deceptive impression management in employment interviews. *Personnel Psychology*, *71*, 597–632. https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12285

Bretz, R. D., & Judge, T. A. (1994). The Role of Human Resource Systems in Job Applicant

Decision Processes. *Journal of Management*, *20*(3), 531–551.

https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639402000301

Brown, P., & Hesketh, A. (2004). *The mismanagement of talent: Employability and jobs in the

knowledge economy*. Oxford University Press.

Buehl, A.-K., Melchers, K. G., Macan, T., & Kühnel, J. (2018). Tell Me Sweet Little Lies: How

Does Faking in Interviews Affect Interview Scores and Interview Validity? *Journal of

Business and Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-018-9531-3

Cameron, K. S., & Quinn, R. E. (1988). *Organizational paradox and transformation.*

Catano, V., Wiesner, W., & Hackett, R. (2016). Recruitment and Selection in Canada (Vol.

Sixth). *Toronto: Nelson Education*.

Catanzaro, D., Moore, H., & Marshall, T. R. (2010). The impact of organizational culture on

attraction and recruitment of job applicants. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *25*(4),

649–662.

Chatman, J. (1991). Matching People and Organizations: Selection and Socialization in Public

Accounting Firms. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 459.

Deal, T., & Kennedy, A. (1982). Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life //

Review. *Worklife*, 27.

Denison, D. R., & Spreitzer, G. M. (1991). Organizational culture and organizational

development: A competing values approach. *Research in Organizational Change and

Development*, *5*(1), 1–21.

Duckitt, J., Wagner, C., Du Plessis, I., & Birum, I. (2002). The psychological bases of ideology

    and prejudice: Testing a dual process model. *Journal of Personality and Social*

    Psychology, *83*(1), 75. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.83.1.75

Dunlop, P. D., Holtrop, D., Schmidt, J. A., & Butcher, S. B. (2019). Investigating relative and

    absolute methods of measuring HEXACO personality using self-and observer reports.

    Zeitschrift Für Psychologie.

Ehrhart, M. G. (2014). *Organizational climate and culture: An introduction to theory, research,*

    and practice. New York : Routledge.

Fletcher, T. D., & Nusbaum, D. N. (2008). Trait competitiveness as a composite variable:

    Linkages with facets of the big-five. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *45*(4), 312–

    317. https://doi.org/j.paid.2008.04.020

Frank, R. H. (2006). *Microeconomics and behavior*. McGraw-Hill.

Georganta, E., & Brodbeck, F. C. (2018). Capturing the four-phase team adaptation process with

    Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS). *European Journal of Psychological*

    Assessment.

Gilmore, D. C., Stevens, C. K., Harrell-Cook, G., & Ferris, G. R. (1999). Impression

    management tactics. In R. W. Eder & M. M. Harris (Eds.), *The employment interview*

    handbook (pp. 321–336). Sage.

Glassop, L. I. (2002). The Organizational Benefits of Teams. *Human Relations*, *55*(2), 225–249.

    https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726702055002184

Gneezy, U., Niederle, M., & Rustichini, A. (2003). Performance in competitive environments:

    Gender differences. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *118*(3), 1049–1074.

Goffin, R. D., & Olson, J. M. (2011). Is it all relative? Comparative judgments and the possible improvement of self-ratings and ratings of others. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *6*(1), 48–60.

Graham, M. A. (1994). Cheating at small colleges: An examination of student and faculty attitudes and behaviors. *Journal of College Student Development*, *35*(4), 255–260.

Gray, B. (1989). *Collaborating: Finding common ground for multiparty problems*.

Hartnell, C. A., Ou, A. Y., & Kinicki, A. (2011). Organizational culture and organizational effectiveness: A meta-analytic investigation of the competing values framework's theoretical suppositions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(4), 677–694. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021987

Ho, J. L., Deborah M. Powell, Pat Barclay, & Harjinder Gill. (2019). The Influence of Competition on Motivation to Fake in Employment Interviews. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, *18*(2), 95–105. https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000222

Ho, J. L., Powell, D. M., Spence, J. R., & Perossa, A. (2020). Willingness to fake: Examining the impact of competitive climate and hiring situations. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*.

Hollwitz, J., & Wilson, C. E. (1993). Structured interviewing in volunteer selection. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, *21*(1), 41–52.

Huffcutt, A. I., Conway, J. M., Roth, P. L., & Stone, N. J. (2001). Identification and meta-analytic assessment of psychological constructs measured in employment interviews. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*, 897–913.

Ismail Al-Alawi Adel. (2007). Organizational culture and knowledge sharing: Critical success

    factors. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *11*(2), 22–42.

    https://doi.org/10.1108/13673270710738898

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1999). Making cooperative learning work. *Theory Into

    Practice*, *38*(2), 67–73. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405849909543834

Judge, T. A., & Cable, D. M. (1997). Applicant personality, organizational culture, and

    organization attraction. *Personnel Psychology*, *50*(2), 359–394.

    https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1997.tb00912.x

Kristof, A. L. (1996). Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations,

    measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology*, *49*(1), 1–49.

    https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1996.tb01790.x

Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. (2005). Consequences of

    individual's fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-

    group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology*, *58*(2), 281–342.

    https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2005.00672.x

Kutcher, E. J., & Bragger, J. D. (2004). Selection Interviews of Overweight Job Applicants: Can

    Structure Reduce the Bias? 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *34*(10), 1993–2022.

Langer, M., König, C. J., & Krause, K. (2017). Examining digital interviews for personnel

    selection: Applicant reactions and interviewer ratings. *International Journal of Selection

    and Assessment*, *25*(4), 371–382. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijsa.12191

LeBreton, J. M., & Senter, J. L. (2008). Answers to 20 questions about interrater reliability and

    interrater agreement. *Organizational Research Methods*, *11*(4), 815–852.

    https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428106296642

Lee, K., & Ashton, M. C. (2004). Psychometric properties of the HEXACO Personality

    Inventory. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *39*(2), 329–358.

    https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327906mbr3902_8

Levashina, J., & Campion, M. A. (2006). A model of faking likelihood in the employment

    interview. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *14*, 299–316.

    https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2389.2006.00353.x

Levashina, J., & Campion, M. A. (2007). Measuring faking in the employment interview:

    Development and validation of an interview faking behavior scale. *Journal of Applied

    Psychology*, *92*, 1638–1656. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.6.1638

McFall, L. (1987). Integrity. *Ethics*, *98*(1), 5–20.

Melchers, K. G., Roulin, N., & Buehl, A. (2020). A review of applicant faking in selection

    interviews. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *28*(2), 123–142.

Muchinsky, P. M., & Monahan, C. J. (1987). What is person-environment congruence?

    Supplementary versus complementary models of fit. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*,

    31(3), 268–277. https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(87)90043-1

Mueller-Hanson, R. A., Heggestad, E. D., & Thornton, G. C. (2006). Individual differences in

    impression management: An exploration of the psychological processes underlying

    faking. *Psychology Science*, *48*(3), 288–312.

Niederle, M., & Vesterlund, L. (2007). Do women shy away from competition? Do men compete

    too much? *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *122*(3), 1067–1101.

Olson, J. M., Goffin, R. D., & Haynes, G. A. (2007). Relative versus absolute measures of

    explicit attitudes: Implications for predicting diverse attitude-relevant criteria. *Journal of

    Personality and Social Psychology*, *93*(6), 907.

O'Reilly, I. I. I., Jennifer Chatman, & David F. Caldwell. (1991). People and organizational

culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of

Management Journal*, *34*(3), 487–516. https://doi.org/10.5465/256404

Ott, J. S. (1989). *The organizational culture perspective*. Pacific Grove, CA : Brooks/Cole.

Palan, S., & Schitter, C. (2018). Prolific. Ac—A subject pool for online experiments. *Journal of

Behavioral and Experimental Finance*, *17*, 22–27.

Peer, E., Brandimarte, L., Samat, S., & Acquisti, A. (2017). Beyond the Turk: Alternative

platforms for crowdsourcing behavioral research. *Journal of Experimental Social

Psychology*, *70*, 153–163. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2017.01.006

Pennock, R. P. (1998). *Fakability in structured interviews: Comparison of situational and past

behavior formats*.

Peters, T. J. (1982). *In search of excellence: Lessons from America's best-run companies* (1st

ed..). New York : Harper & Row.

Powell, D. M., & Goffin, R. D. (2009). Assessing personality in the employment interview: The

impact of training on rater accuracy. *Human Performance*, *22*(5), 450–465.

Quinn, R. E., & Rohrbaugh, J. (1981). A Competing Values Approach to Organizational

Effectiveness. *Public Productivity Review*, *5*(2), 122–140.

https://doi.org/10.2307/3380029

Quinn, R., & Kimberly, J. (1984). The management of transitions. *New Futures: The Challenge

of Transition Management. New York: Dow Jones-Irwin*.

Roulin, N., & Krings, F. (2016). When winning is everything: The relationship between

competitive worldviews and job applicant faking. *Applied Psychology: An International

Review*, *65*(4), 643–670. https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12072

Roulin, Nicolas. (2017). *The Psychology of Job Interviews*. Routledge.

Roulin, Nicolas, & Krings, F. (2019). Faking to fit in: Applicants' response strategies to match

organizational culture. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, No Pagination Specified-No

Pagination Specified. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000431

Saffold, G. (1988). Culture Traits, Strength, And Organizational Performance: M. *Academy of

Management. The Academy of Management Review*, 546.

Salgado, J. F., & Moscoso, S. (2002). Comprehensive meta-analysis of the construct validity of

the employment interview. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*,

11(3), 299–324.

Schein, E. H. (1983). The role o f the founder in creating organizational culture. *Organizational

Dynamics*, *12*(1), 13–28. https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(83)90023-2

Schein, E. H. (2004). *Organizational culture and leadership* (3rd ed..). San Francisco : Jossey-

Bass.

Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational Culture and Leadership: Vol. Fourth edition*. Jossey-Bass;

nlebk.

http://library.smu.ca:2048/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&

db=nlebk&AN=335269&site=ehost-live

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, *40*(3), 437–453.

https://doi.org/doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.1987.tb00609.x

Schwartz, H., & Davis, S. M. (1981). Matching corporate culture and business strategy.

Organizational Dynamics, *10*(1), 30–48. https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(81)90010-3

Sergiovanni, T. (2004). Collaborative Cultures and Communities of Practice. *Principal

Leadership*, *5*(1), 48–52.

Smircich, L. (1983). Concepts of Culture and Organizational Analysis. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *28*(3), 339. https://doi.org/10.2307/2392246

Snell, A. F., Sydell, E. J., & Lueke, S. B. (1999). Towards a theory of applicant faking: Integrating studies of deception. *Human Resource Management Review*, *9*, 219–242. https://doi.org/0.1016/S1053-4822(99)00019-4

Stanne, M. B., Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1999). Does competition enhance or inhibit motor performance: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *125*(1), 133–154. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.125.1.133

Stock, G. N., McFadden, K. L., & Gowen, C. R. (2007). Organizational culture, critical success factors, and the reduction of hospital errors. *International Journal of Production Economics*, *106*(2), 368–392. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2006.07.005

Tett, R., Anderson, M., Ho, C., Yang, T., Huang, L., & Hanvongse, A. (2006). Seven nested questions about faking on personality tests: An overview and interactionist model of item-level response distortion. *A Closer Examination of Applicant Faking Behavior*, 43–83.

Tett, R. P., & Simonet, D. V. (2011). Faking in personality assessment: A "multisaturation" perspective on faking as performance. *Human Performance*, *24*(4), 302–321. https://doi.org/10.1080/08959285.2011.597472

Torres, E. N., & Mejia, C. (2017). Asynchronous video interviews in the hospitality industry: Considerations for virtual employee selection. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *61*, 4–13.

Van Iddekinge, C. H., Raymark, P. H., & Roth, P. L. (2005). Assessing personality with a structured employment interview: Construct-related validity and susceptibility to

response inflation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(3), 536–552.

https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.3.536

Vancouver, J. B., & Schmitt, N. W. (1991). AN EXPLORATORY EXAMINATION OF

PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT: ORGANIZATIONAL GOAL CONGRUENCE.

Personnel Psychology, *44*(2), 333–352. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-

6570.1991.tb00962.x

Vrij, A., & Mann, S. (2006). Criteria-Based Content Analysis: An empirical test of its underlying

processes. *Psychology, Crime & Law*, *12*(4), 337–349.

https://doi.org/10.1080/10683160500129007

Vrij, A., Mann, S. A., Fisher, R. P., Leal, S., Milne, R., & Bull, R. (2008). Increasing Cognitive

Load to Facilitate Lie Detection: The Benefit of Recalling an Event in Reverse Order.

Law and Human Behavior, *32*(3), 253–265.

Appendices

Appendix A

Consent Form

Informed Consent Form

Examining Factors that Influence the Validity of the Job Interview

SMU REB #

Principal Investigator: Damian Canagasuriam
Email: Damian.Canagasuriam@smu.ca

Faculty Supervisor: Dr. Nicolas Roulin
Email: Nicolas.Roulin@smu.ca

Psychology Department, Saint Mary's University

923 Robie Street, Halifax, NS B3H 3C3, Canada

INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

You are being invited to participate in a study that is being conducted in the Psychology Department at Saint Mary's University. The goal of our study is to examine how the validity of the job interview may be impacted by situational factors.

You will be asked to participate in a mock asynchronous video interview (AVI) and complete a series of questions following the interview. Your participation is entirely voluntary: you can leave the study at any time and you have the right to refuse to answer any question without penalty or loss of compensation. The investigators have no financial interest in conducting this study.

WHO IS ELIGIBLE TO PARTICIPATE?

Participants must be at least 18 years old, currently reside in Canada or the United States, and be currently employed or actively seeking a job.

WHAT WILL PARTICIPATION INVOLVE?

You will be asked to imagine that you are applying for a business manager position that you are very interested in. You will then be asked to complete a 6-question online interview. Your responses will be video recorded for data analysis purposes.

Example questions include:

- Describe a time when you felt that your leadership skills were making a positive impact on your team's morale?

- What skills and characteristics do you possess that would make you a good fit for the Business Manager position?

After completing the interview, you will be asked to answer a series of questions related to the interview, your personality, and your demographic information.

The online interview is conducted using your computer webcam. Thus, it is important that you use a computer with the webcam enabled. Please note that the interview platform does not function well with Safari, but works well with other browsers (e.g., Firefox, Chrome, etc.,). Please ensure that your sound is on and that you are able to complete the study in a quiet environment. The study should take a total of 30 minutes.

WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF THE RESEARCH?

The benefits you may receive from participating in this study include: (a) a greater understanding of psychology research, (b) an opportunity to practice interviewing (b) an opportunity to contribute to scientific research.

WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL RISKS FOR PARTICIPANTS?

There are minimal risks associated with participating in this study. However, it is possible that you may experience some frustration given the difficulty of some of the interview questions.

WHAT WILL BE DONE WITH MY INFORMATION?

We will collect both the video-recordings of your responses and your answers to the questionnaires. This data will be collected through the researchers' online interview platform and be stored on the researchers' secure online database on Amazon Web Services in Canada. The data will also be downloaded and stored on the researchers' password-protected computers at Saint Mary's University, in Canada.

The only identifying information that will be collected will be in form of the interview recordings. We will not collect any other personal information (such as names or contact information). Only the researchers and our collaborators will have access to the video recordings and questionnaire responses. The videos will also be watched and coded by raters (e.g., research

assistants) for data analysis purposes. The videos and questionnaire responses will be retained indefinitely, which is a regulation imposed by the scientific field. Non-identifying data may be shared with the research community through publications, conferences, and presentations. The recordings will never be published.

WHAT COMPENSATION IS AVAILABLE FOR PARTICIPATION?

You will receive a basic compensation of £4 directly through Prolific provided that you (a) reached the end of the study and (b) took the study seriously (e.g., responded to all of the interview questions).

In addition, as an added bonus, the 10 participants who are judged to have had the strongest interviews will receive a bonus of £3.

HOW CAN I WITHDRAW FROM THE STUDY?

Your participation is voluntary, and you have the right to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose to withdraw, you can do so by simply closing your browser. However, by doing so you will no longer be eligible for full compensation. If you would like to withdraw your data after completing the interview, you can do so within one month upon completing the study by emailing the principal investigator (Damian Canagasuriam) at damian.canagasuriam@smu.ca and providing your Prolific ID. Please note that that your data will be used unless a data withdrawal request is made

HOW CAN I FIND OUT MORE ABOUT THE STUDY?

If you have any questions about the study, or experience any adverse effects from taking part, please contact the principal investigator (Damian Canagasuriam), by emailing damian.canagasuriam@smu.ca. If you are interested in the study's results, you can send an email to the above-listed email address after April 25th, 2020 for a summary of the findings.

CERTIFICATION

The Saint Mary's University Research Ethics Board has reviewed this research. If you have any questions or concerns about ethical matters or would like to discuss your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Chair of the Research Ethics Board at ethics@smu.ca or 902-420-5728.

SIGNATURE OF AGREEMENT:

I understand what this study is about, its potential risks and benefits, and by consenting, agree to take part in it. This in no way constitutes a waiver of my rights to legal recourse in the event of research-related harm. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can end my

participation at any time without penalty. I have had adequate time to think about the research study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

Please keep an e-copy of this form for your records.

Appendix B

Study Introduction

Imagine that you that you are **currently looking for a job** as a Business Manager. Over the past few months, you reached out to several companies and provided your resume. This morning you received an email from one of those companies: BGG Consulting.

The email informs you that you are being invited for a **job interview** for their **Business Manager** position. It states that the interview will take place today and will be conducted online using asynchronous video interview (AVI) technology.

By searching the internet, you learn that an AVI is a type of interview in which you do not directly interact with an interviewer. Instead, you read interview questions and then record your responses using your computer webcam. The interviewer then reviews your responses at a later time.

The email states that your interview will contain a total of six questions. It adds that your video-recorded responses will be watched at a later time by BGG Consulting's management team to determine whether you would be a good fit for their Business Manager position.

Study Information:

Please make sure that your computer or tablet has a webcam and that the sound is turned on. Please also try to complete this interview in quiet environment.

We want you to take this interview as seriously as you would a real interview. To help motivate you, we will be giving the top 10 interview performers a bonus payment of £3.00

On the next two pages, you will be provided with a job description of the Business Manager position and with BGG Consulting's About Us page.

Appendix C

Business Manager Job Description

Business Manager

WE ARE LOOKING FOR OUR NEXT CORPORATE LEADER!

At BGG Consulting, obtaining success for our clients is our first priority! To achieve this, we need the best Business Managers. And we are currently looking for a talented and driven corporate leader to join our team.

Job Description:

We are looking for a growth-minded Business Manager that understands what it takes to implement large-scale strategies and achieve sustained success. The ideal candidate should be experienced in training, managing, and mentoring staff, as well as capable of making various aspects of the business run efficiently from sales to human resources. Interpersonal and leadership skills are essential as strong communication skills among our leaders is vital to our success. Candidates should be able to use data to identify areas for growth and develop corresponding business strategies. Candidates should be quick thinkers and capable of adapting to changes in the business landscape.

Responsibilities:

- Forecasting a business plan for the company and managing employees in a manner that helps achieve the plan
- Supervising and overseeing company employees and activities
- Reporting to senior managers and executives about the condition of the company through annual reviews
- Working with other managers to create long-term company strategies
- Solving customer needs and concerns through product and service innovations

Qualifications:

- Problem-solving skills
- Exceptional verbal and written communication skills
- Analytical skills
- Knowledge of marketing and sales principles
- Ability to manage conflict between employees
- Ability to organize processes and people
- Minimum one year of managerial experience

Appendix D

'About Us' Pages

Competitive Culture

About BGG Consulting

At BGG Consulting our mission is to help organizations meet their financial and personnel goals. We support organizations by providing financial (e.g., accounting) and personnel (e.g., leadership training) services to help organizations and employees reach their full potential. We were founded in 1933 by Fredrick Blackwell on the principles that financial prosperity is the most important measure of a business' success, and that ruthlessness is often required to obtain financial success. These principles guide our actions and operations to this day. At BGG Financial we believe that winning – whether outperforming rival companies or achieving financial success for our clients - is *the* only important measure of success. These values have been vital to our professional victories and achievements throughout the years. Our organization fosters a competitive, win-at-all-costs mentality to drive success for our employees and clients. We know that sometimes you have to be cold-blooded and ruthless to outperform the competition and that is why we are one of the most successful and prestigious consulting companies in the world.

Collaborative Culture

About BGG Consulting

At BGG Consulting our mission is to help organizations meet their financial and personnel goals. We support organizations by providing financial (e.g., accounting) and personnel (e.g., leadership training) services to help organizations and employees reach their full potential. We were founded in 1933 by Fredrick Blackwell on the principles that employee well-being is the most important measure of an organization's success, and that teamwork and collaboration is often required to ensure employee well-being. These principles guide our actions and operations to this day. At BGG Consulting we believe that collaborative behaviour – whether going above and beyond to assist colleagues or prioritizing the inclusion of every team member - is an important measure of organizational success. These values have been vital to our professional achievements throughout the years. Our organization fosters a cooperative, team mentality to drive our clients' success and our employees' satisfaction. It is because we strive to put the team first that we are one of the most successful and prestigious consulting companies in the world.

* Will add the company logo and background details (e.g., design layout) to the about us pages in the actual study

Control Condition

About BGG Consulting

At BGG Consulting our mission is to help organizations meet their financial and personnel goals. We support organizations by providing financial (e.g., accounting) and personnel (e.g., leadership training) services to help organizations and employees reach their full potential

Appendix E

Interview Questions

1. What previous work experiences would make you a good Business Manager? Describe your previous responsibilities and how they have contributed to your development.

2. Describe a time when your leadership was challenged. How did you respond to the situation? What was the outcome?

3. Could you tell me about a time when you used your unique characteristics (e.g., personality, skills, values) to effectively manage a team or project?

4. A team that you oversee has to develop a leadership training program for a client. You have three consultants in the team: two senior consultants who are very qualified and one junior consultant who is willing to work very hard but whose experience and capabilities in this area are very limited. This is a very important project and your team is under high time pressure from the client. How would you allocate work between the three consultants? To what extent would you involve the junior team member?

5. Four high level executives, including yourself, are working to create a business plan for your organization for the coming year. You are more capable in this area than your other team members, and so you take the lead in crafting the plan. You keep the minutes and control the flow of information during your discussions. You believe that the business plan will likely turn out very well with you as the project lead, but you realize that you are only writing down ideas supportive of your own position and that you are deciding on key issues without consulting with the group. What would you do?

6. Could you tell me how your personal characteristics (e.g., personality and values) would make you a good fit for our organization? Please illustrate this with a specific professional experience.

Appendix F

Revised Version of the 16-item Self-Report Faking Behaviour Scale (IFB-S)

To no extent	To a little extent	To a moderate extent	To a considerable extent	To a very great extent
1	2	3	4	5

Slight Image Creation
1. I exaggerated my responsibilities on my previous jobs.
2. During the interview, I distorted my answers to emphasize what the organization was looking for.
3. I inflated the fit between my values and goals and the values and goals of the organization.
4. I tried to use information about the company to make my answers sound like I was a better fit than I actually was.

Extensive Image Creation
5. I made up stories about my work experiences that were well developed and logical.
6. I invented some work situations or accomplishments that did not really occur.
7. When I did not have a good answer, I borrowed work experiences of other people and made them sound like my own.
8. I claimed that I have skills that I do not have.

Image Protection
9. I clearly separated myself from my past work experiences that would reflect poorly on me.
10. I tried to avoid discussing my lack of skills or experiences.
11. When asked directly, I did not mention some problems that I had in past jobs.
12. I tried to avoid discussion of job tasks that I may not be able to do.

Deceptive Ingratiation
13. I tried to incorporate the organization's views in my answers as my own.
14. I tried to appear similar to the organization in terms of values, attitudes, or beliefs.
15. I complimented the organization on something, however insignificant it may actually be to me.
16. I tried to show that I shared the organization's views and ideas even if I did not.

Appendix G

Mediation Mechanisms, Manipulation Check, and External Validity Check

To no extent	To a little extent	To a moderate extent	To a considerable extent	To a very great extent
1	2	3	4	5

Mediation Mechanisms

1. To what extent do you believe your fellow applicants for the position did each of the following:
   i) exaggerated their responses
   ii) withheld negative information about themselves
   iii) used insincere flattery
   iv) lied
2. In your opinion, to what extent would BGG Consulting be accepting of applicants who did each of the following:
   i) exaggerated their responses
   ii) withheld negative information about themselves
   iii) used insincere flattery
   iv) lied to get the job
3. In your opinion, to what extent is BGG Consulting's ideal candidate agreeable (i.e., forgiving, lenient, and willing to compromise)?
4. In your opinion, to what extent is BGG Consulting's ideal candidate honest and humble?
5. To what extent do you believe BGG Consulting values 'results' compared to 'teamwork?'

Manipulation Check

6. In your opinion, to what extent does BGG Consulting have a competitive organizational culture?
7. In your opinion, to what extent does BGG Consulting have a collaborative organizational culture?

External Validity Check

8. To what extent did you take the interview seriously?

* All items will use a 1-5 Likert scale except item 5 which will use an Osgood type scale with 'results' on one side and 'teamwork' on the other. Items 1 and 2 each have four sub-items.

Appendix H

Relative Percentile Measure – Self-Report

For this exercise, you'll be given a set of personality traits, and you will be asked to rate your personality in comparison to a theoretical reference group of 100 random adults in North America.

For example, if you believe you are more forgiving than 75% of adults in North America, then move the slider to 75 out of 100.

Agreeableness

1. Forgivingness

Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel you rank on **forgivingness** relative to the adult population.

Forgivingness refers to one's willingness to feel trust and liking toward those who may have caused one harm. Low scorers tend "hold a grudge" against those who have offended them, whereas high scorers are usually ready to trust others again and to re-establish friendly relations after having been treated badly.

2. Gentleness

Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel you rank on **gentleness** relative to the adult population.

Gentleness refers to a tendency to be mild and lenient in dealings with other people. Low scorers tend to be critical in their evaluations of others, whereas high scorers are reluctant to judge others harshly.

3. Flexibility

Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel you rank on **flexibility** relative to the adult population.

Flexibility refers to one's willingness to compromise and cooperate with others. Low scorers are seen as stubborn and are willing to argue, whereas high scorers avoid arguments and accommodate others' suggestions, even when these may be unreasonable.

4. Patience

Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel you rank on **patience** relative to the adult population.

Patience refers to a tendency to remain calm rather than to become angry. Low scorers tend to lose their tempers quickly, whereas high scorers have a high threshold for feeling or expressing anger.

Honesty-Humility

1. Sincerity

   Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel you rank on **sincerity** relative to the adult population.

   Sincerity refers to a tendency to be genuine in interpersonal relations. Low scorers will flatter others or pretend to like them in order to obtain favors, whereas high scorers are unwilling to manipulate others.

2. Fairness

   Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel you rank on **fairness** relative to the adult population.

   Fairness refers to a tendency to avoid fraud and corruption. Low scorers are willing to gain by cheating or stealing, whereas high scorers are unwilling to take advantage of other individuals or of society at large.

3. Greed Avoidance

   Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel you rank on **greed avoidance** relative to the adult population.

   Greed avoidance refers to a tendency to be uninterested in possessing lavish wealth, luxury goods, and signs of high social status. Low scorers want to enjoy and to display wealth and privilege, whereas high scorers are not especially motivated by monetary or social-status considerations.

4. Modesty

   Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel you rank on **modesty** relative to the adult population.

Modesty refers to a tendency to be modest and unassuming. Low scorers consider themselves as superior and as entitled to privileges that others do not have, whereas high scorers view themselves as ordinary people without any claim to special treatment.

Appendix I

Demographics Questionnaire

1. What is your age?

2. How do you self-identify?
   a) Male   b) Female   c) Other

3. With what racial or ethnic group do you identify?
   a) White/ Caucasian
   b) Black
   c) East Asian (e.g., Chinese, Japanese, Korean)
   d) South Asian (e.g., Indian, Pakistani, Sri Lankan)
   e) Middle Eastern
   f) Aboriginal
   g) Mixed

4. Please select "agree."
   a) Strongly disagree
   b) Disagree
   c) Neutral
   d) Agree
   e) Strongly agree

5. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
   a) Less than High School
   b) High School
   c) Associate Degree or Professional Degree
   d) Bachelor's Degree
   e) Master's Degree
   f) Doctoral Degree
   g) Other

6. What is your employment status?
   a) Unemployed and actively seeking work   c) Employed part-time
   b) Unemployed and not actively seeking work   d) Employed full-time

7. How much experience have you had as a manager (in years)?

8. Approximately, how many traditional interviews have you completed in your life?

9. Approximately, how many asynchronous video interviews (AVIs) have you completed in your life?

Appendix J

Feedback Letter

Examining Factors that Influence the Validity of the Job Interview
SMU REB #

Principal Investigator: Damian Canagasuriam
Email: Damian.Canagasuriam@smu.ca

Faculty Supervisor: Dr. Nicolas Roulin
Email: Nicolas.Roulin@smu.ca

Psychology Department, Saint Mary's University,

923 Robie Street, Halifax, NS B3H 3C3, Canada

Dear participant,

Thank you for participating in our study.

The purpose of the study was to examine whether organizational culture affects applicants' use of deceptive impression management during the job interview. More specifically, we wanted to examine whether a company's culture (e.g., competitive or collaborative) affects the extent and manner in which their applicants disingenuously distort their responses during the job interview.

Any data pertaining to you as an individual participant will be kept confidential. Once all the data are collected and analyzed, we plan on sharing this information with the research community through publications, conferences, and presentations. The data will be aggregated, and no individual participants will be identified.

If you are interested in receiving more information about this study, or if you have any questions or concerns, you may contact the principal investigator (Damian Canagasuriam) at damian.canagasuriam@smu.ca.

This project was reviewed by the Saint Mary's University Research Ethics Board. Should you have any comments or concerns about ethical matters or would like to discuss your rights as a research participant, please contact the Chair of the Research Ethics Board at +1 902-420-5728 or ethics@smu.ca.

Prolific Completion Code:
Please copy and paste the code into Prolific to receive your £4 compensation. The top ten performers will also receive a bonus of £3.

Thank you,
The Research Team

Appendix K

Relative Percentile Measure – Observer-Report

For this exercise, you'll be given a set of personality traits, and you will be asked to rate each participants' personality in comparison to a theoretical reference group of 100 random adults in North America.

For example, if you believe the participant is more forgiving than 75% of adults in North America, then move the slider to 75 out of 100.

Agreeableness

1. Forgivingness

Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel the participant ranks on forgivingness relative to the adult population.

Forgivingness refers to one's willingness to feel trust and liking toward those who may have caused one harm. Low scorers tend "hold a grudge" against those who have offended them, whereas high scorers are usually ready to trust others again and to re-establish friendly relations after having been treated badly.

5. Gentleness

Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel the participant ranks on gentleness relative to the adult population.

Gentleness refers to a tendency to be mild and lenient in dealings with other people. Low scorers tend to be critical in their evaluations of others, whereas high scorers are reluctant to judge others harshly.

6. Flexibility

Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel the participant ranks on flexibility relative to the adult population.

Flexibility refers to one's willingness to compromise and cooperate with others. Low scorers are seen as stubborn and are willing to argue, whereas high scorers avoid arguments and accommodate others' suggestions, even when these may be unreasonable.

7. Patience

Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel the participant ranks on patience relative to the adult population.

Patience refers to a tendency to remain calm rather than to become angry. Low scorers tend to lose their tempers quickly, whereas high scorers have a high threshold for feeling or expressing anger.

Honesty-Humility

5. Sincerity

Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel the participant ranks on sincerity relative to the adult population.

Sincerity refers to a tendency to be genuine in interpersonal relations. Low scorers will flatter others or pretend to like them in order to obtain favors, whereas high scorers are unwilling to manipulate others.

6. Fairness

Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel the participant ranks on fairness relative to the adult population.

Fairness refers to a tendency to avoid fraud and corruption. Low scorers are willing to gain by cheating or stealing, whereas high scorers are unwilling to take advantage of other individuals or of society at large.

7. Greed Avoidance

Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel the participant ranks on greed avoidance relative to the adult population.

Greed avoidance refers to a tendency to be uninterested in possessing lavish wealth, luxury goods, and signs of high social status. Low scorers want to enjoy and to display wealth and privilege, whereas high scorers are not especially motivated by monetary or social-status considerations.

8. Modesty

Please indicate using the slider below, the percentile in which you feel the participant ranks on modesty relative to the adult population.

Modesty refers to a tendency to be modest and unassuming. Low scorers consider themselves as superior and as entitled to privileges that others do not have, whereas high scorers view themselves as ordinary people without any claim to special treatment.

Appendix L

Behaviourally Anchored Ratings Scales (BARS) for the Team-based Interview Questions

Question 1:
A team that you oversee has to develop a leadership training program for a client. You have three consultants in the team: two senior consultants who are very qualified and one junior consultant who is willing to work very hard but whose experience and capabilities in this area are very limited. This is a very important project and your team is under high time pressure from the client. How would you allocate work between the three consultants? To what extent would you involve the junior team member?

Scoring Guide:	
Rating	**Response**
5 (Results-oriented)	- exclude the weaker member to maximize performance and efficiency - have the weaker member contribute ideas but do not include any of them - have the weaker member work on tasks but do not include any of their work - do all the work yourself and/or with only the strong group members
4	
3 (Equally results- and team-oriented)	- try to include the weaker member, but limit their participation to only tasks (e.g., group brainstorming, editing, formatting) where they are capable/ where their performance would not negatively affect the team and end product - let them contribute but control their input - let them contribute but supervise their work
2	
1 (Team-oriented)	- try to involve the weaker member at an equal level as the other members and

EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ON FAKING

	accept an outcome below what could have otherwise been achieved
	- have the weaker member do tasks that are of equal importance as the other group members' tasks
	- involve the weaker member out of a belief that it will be a great development opportunity for them
	- value the weaker member's ideas at the same level as the other group members' ideas

Question 2:

Four high level executives, including yourself, are working to create a business plan for your organization for the coming year. You are more capable in this area than your other team members, and so you take the lead in crafting the plan. You keep the minutes and control the flow of information during your discussions. You believe that the business plan will likely turn out very well with you as the project lead, but you realize that you are only writing down ideas supportive of your own position and that you are deciding on key issues without consulting with the group. What would you do?

Scoring Guide:	
Rating	**Response**
5 (Results-oriented)	- continue with creating the business plan in exactly the same way - Only integrate others' ideas if they are obviously superior or more effective than your own - write down ideas that go against your opinions, but only act on those that align with your beliefs
4	

3 (Equally results- and team-oriented)	- consult with the group but try to primarily make decisions based on which ideas you think are best (whether your own or others). But be more open-minded - write down ideas that go against your opinions, but primarily act on those that align with your beliefs
2	
1 (Team-oriented)	- significantly change how you approach creating the business plan, so you include all members' ideas - consult with the group on every key decision and try to reach a consensus before making each decision - write down all ideas including those that contradict your own, and do not act on ideas that go against the group's general consensus

Appendix M

Assessing Applicant Performance

1. On a scale from 1-100, to what extent do you believe the applicant would be a good fit for the position based on their overall performance during the interview, and their skills, characteristics (e.g., personality), and experiences.