Cross-cultural differences in the attitude toward applicants' faking in job interviews

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Abstract

Purpose – This study questions whether applicants with different cultural backgrounds are equally prone to fake in job interviews, and thus systematically examines cross-cultural differences regarding the attitude toward applicants' faking (an important antecedent of faking and a gateway for cultural influences) on a large scale.

Design/methodology/approach – Using an online survey, employees' ($N = 3,252$) attitudes toward faking were collected in 31 countries. Cultural data were obtained from the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness project (GLOBE).

Findings – Attitude toward faking can be differentiated into two correlated forms (severe/mild faking). On the country level, attitudes toward faking correlate in the expected manner with four of GLOBE's nine cultural dimensions: uncertainty avoidance, power distance, in-group collectivism, and gender egalitarianism. Furthermore, humane orientation correlates positively with attitude toward severe faking.

Implications – For international personnel selection research and practice, an awareness of whether and why there are cross-cultural differences in applicants' faking behavior is of utmost importance. Our study urges practitioners to be conscious that applicants from different cultures may enter selection situations with different mindsets, and offers several practical implications for international personnel selection.

Originality/value – Cross-cultural research has been expected to answer questions of whether applicants with different cultural backgrounds fake to the same extent during personnel selection. This study examines and explains cross-cultural differences in applicants' faking in job interviews with a comprehensive sample and within a coherent theoretical framework.

Keywords: personnel selection, faking, cross cultural differences, job applicants, GLOBE

"I used to make up stuff in my bio all the time, that I used to be a professional ice-skater and stuff like that. I found it so inspirational. Why not make myself cooler than I am?"

(Stephen Colbert as cited in Mnookin, 2007)

Applicants' faking behavior in selection situations can be defined as the conscious distortion of answers in order to leave a good impression and thus increase the chances of being hired (Levashina & Campion, 2007; McFarland & Ryan, 2000). High faking prevalences have been reported for interviews (e.g., Donovan, Dwight, & Hurtz, 2003; König, Hafsteinsson, Jansen, & Stadelmann, 2011; Levashina & Campion, 2007; Weiss & Feldman, 2006) and for personality tests (e.g., Griffith, Chmielowski, & Yoshita, 2007). Ranging from expressing certain beliefs to outright storytelling, faking can take several forms and can be used by applicants within different self-report selection procedures (Ingold, Kleinmann, König, & Melchers, 2014; Levashina & Campion, 2006; Van Iddekinge, Raymark, & Roth, 2005).

Several studies have fueled practitioners' fear that faking threatens the validity of selection methods and distorts the ranking of applicants (Robie, Tuzinski, & Bly, 2006). In particular, some applicants seem to engage in more faking than others, which often changes their rank order (e.g., Berry & Sackett, 2009; Ellis, West, Ryan, & DeShon, 2002; Griffith et al., 2007; McFarland & Ryan, 2000; Rosse, Stecher, Miller, & Levin, 1998).

According to first preliminary studies, such differences among applicants in the amount of faking also seem to exist on the cultural level. Surveying students about their most recent job application, König et al. (2011) showed that faking prevalences (e.g., overemphasizing or exaggerating positive attributes, claiming to have knowledge that one does not have) in Switzerland are comparable to those in Iceland, but both are far smaller than US prevalences. In a follow-up study, König, Wong, and Cen (2012) demonstrated a comparability of Chinese and US prevalences. König and his colleagues suspected that unemployment or a cultural emphasis on modesty was responsible for these differences. In a study that surveyed students

about the importance of certain impression management tactics during job interviews (e.g., emphasizing individual strengths, pointing out obstacles that may influence job performance), Sandal et al. (2014) took a similar line: After excluding the US sample, they explained differences by referring to Schwartz's cultural values and income inequality. Although these first studies have only a limited capability to explain cross-cultural differences in faking (e.g., only student samples, small country samples, different constructs), they do point out an important (Myors et al., 2008; Robie et al., 2006; Rolland & Steiner, 2007) yet largely unanswered question: Is it not implausible to assume that applicants with different cultural backgrounds behave equally (i.e., fake to the same extent) during personnel selection? The goal of our study is thus to (a) systematically examine and (b) explain cross-cultural differences in applicants' faking in a comprehensive sample of employees from 31 countries and within a coherent cultural framework—the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness project (GLOBE; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004).

Theoretical Background

More and more organizations are becoming increasingly affected by globalization (Evans, Pucik, & Bjorkman, 2011): Organizations no longer limit their areas of operations to their home markets (Schuler, Budhwar, & Florkowski, 2002), and people go abroad to study and work (Carrington, 2013; Institute of International Education, 2013). Governments support such developments in order to ensure prosperity, for example by creating internal markets (including free movement of employees, e.g., European Commission, 2014b) and free trade zones (e.g., European Commission, 2014a), by directly regulating and optimizing their pools of migrants using special point systems (Carrington, 2013), or by establishing student exchange programs (European Commission, 2013).

However, globalization poses enormous challenges to organizations. One century of research in cross-cultural I-O psychology strongly suggests that employees from different cultures differ in terms of many characteristics. People from different cultures hold a different

understanding of work (England & Harpaz, 1990); they differ in basic performance attributions (e.g., DeCarlo, Agarwal, & Vyas, 2007) as well as in performance appraisals (Chiang & Birtch, 2010; Peretz & Fried, 2012) and compensation decisions (Zhou & Martocchio, 2001). Cross-cultural differences have also become apparent in more problematic aspects of work behavior, for example in deceptive negotiating behavior (Triandis et al., 2001) and the willingness to justify ethically suspect behavior (Parboteeah, Bronson, & Cullen, 2005), as well as in people's attitudes toward organizational behaviors, such as subordinate influence ethics (e.g., Ralston et al., 2009), whistle-blowing (Trongmateerut & Sweeney, 2013), or counterproductive work behavior (e.g., Holmquist, 2013).

Several theoretical approaches indicate the importance of understanding cross-cultural differences in applicants' attitudes toward faking for gaining an understanding of cross-cultural differences in faking behavior. First, the argument that individuals' attitudes toward a behavior influence their actual behavior (cf. Ajzen, 1991) has received much empirical support—both within and across cultures (e.g., Glasman & Albarracín, 2006; Godin et al., 1996; Hooft, Born, Taris, & van der Flier, 2006; Milfont, Duckitt, & Wagner, 2010; Wallace, Paulson, Lord, & Bond, 2005). This argument has also been incorporated in several faking models (McFarland & Ryan, 2000, 2006; Mueller-Hanson, Heggestad, & Thornton, 2006; Snell, Sydell, & Lueke, 1999). Second, and more importantly for the current study, attitude toward behavior is strongly influenced by culture (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010), as people act against a background (e.g., norms, values) which they share with others (Ajzen, 2012; Oreg & Katz-Gerro, 2006)—in other words, against a cultural background (cf. House & Javidan, 2004). In existing faking models, this line of argument has only been suggested. Thus, the attitude toward applicants' faking is a crucial antecedent of actual faking and simultaneously acts as a gateway for cultural differences in applicants' faking (see also Milfont et al., 2010; Payan, Reardon, & McCorkle, 2010). Whereas the former has already

been exploited to explain individual differences in applicants' faking, the latter provides a unique yet widely neglected first step in understanding cross-cultural differences.

Therefore, this study aims to develop theoretical arguments regarding why cultures should have different attitudes toward applicants' faking and to test these arguments in working adults from 31 countries. In the following paragraphs, we explicate how attitude toward applicants' faking during job interviews is related to the nine cultural dimensions outlined by GLOBE (House et al., 2004). These dimensions are: uncertainty avoidance, future orientation, power distance, institutional collectivism, humane orientation, performance orientation, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, and assertiveness.

Hypotheses

Uncertainty avoidance is "the extent to which members of an organization or society strive to avoid uncertainty by relying on established social norms, rituals, and bureaucratic practices" (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 11). Uncertainty-avoidant countries show extensive formalization and documentation, are less tolerant of rule-breaking, and consider risks very carefully (de Luque & Javidan, 2004). Thus, it would stand to reason that uncertainty avoidance is in conflict with faking due to the irresolvable uncertainty inherent in faking. First, the possibility of being caught represents an uncertainty from which applicants will immediately begin to suffer (cf., Dwight & Donovan, 2003). Second, faking makes communication less reliable (i.e., more uncertain), undermines trust, and endangers social relations (Mealy, Stephan, & Urrutia, 2007). Both of these uncertainties should lead highly uncertainty-avoidant cultures to avoid faking. In a similar vein, highly uncertainty-avoidant cultures show less corruption (Seleim & Bontis, 2009), which is another form of rule-breaking that carries the risk of getting caught, being punished, and of undermining social order. On the individual level, Bolin and Heatherly (2001) detected a substantial negative relationship between the expectation of getting caught and employees' approval of theft, which in turn predicted actual theft at the workplace. When considering uncertainty

avoidance as reflecting a cultural prevention focus (Rank, Pace, & Frese, 2004), there is further evidence that people from uncertainty-avoidant cultures refrain more often from unethical behavior (Gino & Margolis, 2011). This leads us to the first hypothesis.

H1: The higher the level of uncertainty avoidance in a country, the less positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews.

Future orientation is defined as "the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies engage in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying individual or collective gratification" (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 12). Thus, future-oriented cultures emphasize the importance of future points in time while penalizing living in the moment (Venaik, Zhu, & Brewer, 2013). On the individual level, future planning often contradicts unethical business behavior (e.g., not being honest in serving consumers; Vitell, Rallapalli, & Singhapakdi, 1993), because unethical behavior often has negative consequences in the long term (e.g., buyers do not come back and they publicize their disappointment; Nevins, Bearden, & Money, 2007). On the cultural level, due to their preference for long-term success over putative short-term advantages, cultures with higher levels of future orientation show less corruption (Seleim & Bontis, 2009). There is reason to assume a similar mechanism for faking. Although applicants' faking provides egoistic advantages in the short term, it poses unfavorable post-entry consequences (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005) in the long term because it can lead to a poor person-job fit (Pace & Borman, 2006) and thereby to lower satisfaction, lower performance, and higher levels of strain (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). This leads us to the second hypothesis.

H2: The higher the level of future orientation in a country, the less positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews.

Power distance is "the degree to which members of an organization or society expect and agree that power should be stratified and concentrated at higher levels of an organization or government" (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 12). High power-distance societies have been

found to be more corrupt (Seleim & Bontis, 2009), probably because they know that "rank and position in the hierarchy have special privileges" (GLOBE Project Team, 2006, p. 8) and that fairness principles are commonly violated (Carl, Vipin, & Mansour, 2004). Given that faking can be understood as an ethically questionable behavior, this argument implies that societies with high power distance should be more tolerant of faking; especially because faking can be considered as a behavior that applicants might use to even out a lack of fairness in personnel selection. On the individual level, it has already been shown that faking is indeed positively correlated with perceptions of a lack of fairness in personnel selection (McFarland, 2003), which in turn suggests that applicants refrain from faking if they perceive the selection procedure to be fair (see also Sidani, Ghanem, & Rawwas, 2014; Snell et al., 1999). This leads us to the third hypothesis.

H3: The higher the level of power distance in a country, the more positive is its attitude toward faking in job interviews.

In societies with high institutional collectivism, "collective distribution of resources and collective action" are especially encouraged and rewarded (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 12). People living in cultures with high institutional collectivism are less willing to individually benefit at the expense of groups to which they belong, which has been confirmed in studies on cross-cultural differences in corruption (Seleim & Bontis, 2009) and on people's willingness to justify ethically questionable behavior (Parboteeah et al., 2005). In institutional-collectivistic cultures, group loyalty, acceptance, and welfare are more important than individual goals (Gelfand, Bhawuk, Nishii, & Bechtold, 2004). Accordingly, people in these cultures exhibit more social capital (i.e., are more trusting and civically engaged, Realo, Allik, & Greenfield, 2008). Collectivism, which has been suggested to be a central motive for prosocial behavior (Batson, Ahmad, & Tsang, 2002), contradicts putting others who do not fake at a disadvantage by faking—if people fake, they benefit at the expense of those who

don't, and societies high in institutional collectivism should disapprove of this. This leads to the fourth hypothesis.

H4: The higher the level of institutional collectivism in a country, the less positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews.

In societies with strong humane orientation, individuals are encouraged to be "fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, caring, and kind to others", and are rewarded for being so (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 13). On the one hand, humane-oriented cultures should perceive faking as unfair, as fakers might get the jobs in the place of those who deserve them. Accordingly, people from more humane-oriented cultures are less willing to justify ethically questionable behavior (Parboteeah et al., 2005). This implies that humane-oriented cultures should have a negative attitude toward faking. On the other hand, humane-oriented cultures are also described as being tolerant of mistakes and other small deviations from norms (GLOBE Project Team, 2006; Seleim & Bontis, 2009). This tolerance and forgiveness might lead to a more positive attitude toward applicants' faking if it is understood as only a small deviation from ethical norms or as a manifestation of placing "people and the public good before profits" (Budde-Sung, 2013, p. 348). In this realm, some might consider forgiveness to be an error (Bright, Stansbury, Alzola, & Stavros, 2011) or an overindulgence which encourages exploitation (Capron, 2004; Exline, Worthington, Hill, & McCullough, 2003), and which might even foster applicants' faking. This leads to the first research question.

RQ1: Is there a relationship between humane orientation in a country and the attitude toward faking in job interviews in that country?

In societies with a strong performance orientation, people are particularly rewarded for "performance improvement and excellence" (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 13). In performance-oriented countries, abilities are seen as crucial for success, and age, for example, is not considered as important in promotion (Javidan, 2004). Consequently, performance-oriented cultures are more competitive (Javidan, 2004), less corrupt (Badinger & Nindl, 2014; Seleim

& Bontis, 2009), and endorse meritocracy (a competitive system based on personal achievements). Valuing "principles of competition, open selection, careful evaluation of qualities, and of having a set of qualification standards and established recruitment process" (Poocharoen & Brillantes, 2013, p. 143), meritocracy is incompatible with getting a job merely due to engaging in faking: The job would go to a person who is not entitled to have it and, even more importantly, the person would be unable to perform successfully in the job due to a poor fit (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Crucially, moreover, the person would be unable to take the organization to excellence. This leads to the fifth hypothesis.

H5: The higher the level of performance orientation in a country, the less positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews.

In societies with high in-group collectivism, individuals particularly "express pride, loyalty and cohesiveness in their organizations or families" (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 12); family ties and respect for friends and family members are highlighted (Gelfand et al., 2004). In-group collectivistic countries emphasize the importance and welfare of those to whom one has a feeling of belonging or with whom one even shares a household (GLOBE Project Team, 2006). In these familistic cultures (Realo et al., 2008), people feel obliged to their kinship rather than to their society as a whole and exhibit less social capital (Realo et al., 2008); prosocial behavior might be exclusively applied to one's own in-group (Batson et al., 2002; Halevy, Bornstein, & Sagiv, 2008; Javidan, Dorfman, de Luque, & House, 2006). Such a form of cultural in-group favoritism could mean knowingly disadvantaging the out-group because the latter does not enjoy the support that the former receives (Bazerman & Banaji, 2004). Thus, ethically questionable behavior that can be interpreted as a way of supporting loved ones (i.e., in-group members), even if the out-group might be disadvantaged, is more socially accepted in cultures with a high level of in-group collectivism (Mazar & Aggarwal, 2011). If faking helps applicants to get a job, which in turn helps them to support their loved

ones, in-group collectivistic cultures will understand and tolerate this (see also Thackray, Tryba, & Griffith, 2013). This leads to the sixth hypothesis.

H6: The higher the level of in-group collectivism in a country, the more positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews.

Gender egalitarianism "reflects societies' beliefs about whether members' biological sex should determine the roles that they play in their homes, business organizations, and communities" (Emrich, Denmark, & Den Hartog, 2004, p. 347). On the one hand, if people are used to behaving according to gender-based expectations because they are influenced by a culture with low gender egalitarianism, they might also consider it normal for applicants to behave according to the expectations that recruiters have of them (Baeyer, Sherk, & Zanna, 1981; Jansen, König, Stadelmann, & Kleinmann, 2012; Schmid Mast, Frauendorfer, & Popovic, 2011). On the other hand, women and men often have to bring an extra effort (i.e., possessing special work experience, using certain strategies) to overcome ascribed gender roles. Such strategies could be considered as faking. Hareli, Klang, and Hess (2008) showed that typical female (male) jobs are considered as more suitable for female (male) applicants. When applying for gender-atypical jobs, women and men therefore have a better chance of being hired if they already possess gender-atypical work experience. This effect is particularly salient for women because applicants with gender-atypical work experience are themselves considered to be more gender-atypical. For men, the advantage of gender-atypical work experience becomes a disadvantage as soon as they apply for a gender-typical job (Hareli et al., 2008). When working in "masculine" fields (e.g., engineering), women have to use certain strategies to become accepted, for example "acting like one of the boys, accepting gender discrimination, achieving a reputation, seeing more advantages than disadvantages and adopting an anti-woman approach" (Powell, Bagilhole, & Dainty, 2009, p. 425; see also Eagly & Karau, 2002; Schilt & Williams, 2008; van Vianen & van Schie, 1995; Wang, Chiang, Tsai, Lin, & Cheng, 2013). Thus, we argue that cultures with low gender

egalitarianism should have a more positive attitude toward faking than cultures with high gender egalitarianism. This leads to the seventh hypothesis.

H7: The higher the level of gender egalitarianism in a country, the less positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews.

Cultures characterized by strong assertiveness cultivate goal pursuit, no matter what the costs are (Den Hartog, 2004). In such cultures, which are described as tough rather than tender (McCrae, Terracciano, Realo, & Allik, 2008, p. 806), achieving goals is of such high importance that unethical means should be more likely to be regarded as acceptable. Nonassertive cultures, by contrast, "value modesty as well as tenderness" (Den Hartog, 2004, p. 405), which would not be compatible with applicants' faking (König et al., 2011, 2012). Moreover, in assertive cultures, people describe themselves and typical others (McCrae et al., 2008) as more uncooperative, mistrustful, unfriendly, selfish, and less modest (i.e., less agreeable; Landy & Conte, 2010; McCrae & Costa, 2003; McCrae & Terracciano, 2008). The attitude toward faking should therefore be more positive in assertive than in nonassertive cultures (see also Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007). This argument is consistent with the finding that people in assertive cultures justify unethical behavior to a greater extent and report more corruption than people from nonassertive cultures (Parboteeah et al., 2005; Seleim & Bontis, 2009). This leads to the eighth hypothesis.

H8: The higher the level of assertiveness in a country, the more positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews.

A summary of the hypotheses and the research question is provided in the results section in Table 6.

Method

All analyses were conducted in R 3.0.3 (R Core Team, 2014); R packages are mentioned in order of their first use during analysis.

Sample

Attitude toward faking was examined in 31 countries (Table 1). Data were collected by a company providing global surveying services; the sample consisted of $N = 3,252$ employees from more than 21 different occupational areas (Table 2). The ages ranged from 18 to 78 years ($M = 36.19$, $SD = 11.51$). Participants taking part in our online survey were given the chance to enter a lottery of non-cash prizes or to donate to a charity organization. Of the participants, 47% were female (52% male, 1% did not indicate their gender); all countries—perhaps with the exception of Colombia (67% male, 32% female)—were gender-balanced (Table 1). Of all participants, 96% indicated having had at least one job interview ($Mdn = 5$), and 48% indicated that their current job includes leading others.

Procedure

Participants were asked to express their attitude toward typical forms of applicants' faking behavior within an everyday scenario. When deciding on the scenario, we aimed to control possible irrelevant effects (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2014; International Test Commission, 2010; Wilkinson, 1999) by (a) giving participants from every country the chance to imagine a situation that is actually of an "everyday" nature to them, (b) lowering potential effects of social desirability by assessing strategies used by others, (c) minimizing the possibility that some participants could find themselves in the potentially awkward situation of eavesdropping on others, and (d) concealing the gender of the protagonists due to the potential inappropriateness in certain cultures (e.g., unmarried men and women talking to each other).

Thus, after being welcomed, participants read the following text:

Please, imagine you are queuing for something (e.g., subway, supermarket checkout counter, concert):
As it happens, you overhear two people talking about their recent job interviews. During their chat, they
mention different strategies for improving their chances of getting a job. Please indicate what you
generally think about using these strategies!

After reading these instructions, participants expressed their attitude toward typical forms of faking (Table 3), which were taken from Levashina and Campion (2007, pp. 1654–1656).

Translation process

The questionnaire was made available in 17 languages, for every country in its official language(s) (Table 1). We translated the eleven items concerning attitude toward faking from English into German. The remaining items were written directly in English and German. The German version of the questionnaire was the origin for the remaining 15 different language versions; translators received the English version as additional help. In view of the limitations of the standard translation-back-translation procedure, a collaborative translation approach was established (i.e., relying on translator dyads who first translate independently and then discuss their versions; Douglas & Craig, 2007). Every dyad received a short form guide (based on Hambleton & Zenisky, 2011) in order to sensitize them to the various pitfalls, enable them to gain further insights into the translation process, and to discuss possible problems.

Measures

Attitude toward faking. Countries' mean attitude toward applicants' faking was measured using 11 items (Table 3), which participants evaluated on a five-point semantic differential scale from 1 *(bad)* to 5 *(good).* Each item represents a faking behavior class (taken from Levashina & Campion, 2007). By choosing a basic evaluative dimension, we minimized potential translation problems and ensured that we were using a universal rating scale that is applicable in every culture (International Test Commission, 2010; Osgood, 1964).

Cultural dimensions. When examining country characteristics, we used GLOBE's societal practices scores (cf., Meyer et al., 2012; Peretz & Fried, 2012; for details see GLOBE Project Team, 2006, 2012; House et al., 2004), which are available from the GLOBE Project

Team (2004). In 62 societies, the GLOBE project surveyed a total of 17,370 managers about their cultures (House & Hanges, 2004). GLOBE's nine dimensions have, on average, four items and a reliability of .77 (GLOBE Project Team, 2006; Hanges & Dickson, 2004). Regarding country-level variance, Hanges and Dickson (2004, p. 133) report an ICC(1) of .25 for GLOBE's practices scales. In our study, we included 31 countries out of those examined by GLOBE (for country-specific information on GLOBE's cultural data see Chhokar, Brodbeck, & House, 2007; Hanges & Dickson, 2004).

Data quality checks

Given that careless responding is an issue that needs to be addressed in any survey-based research (Meade & Craig, 2012), we first excluded two persons with an identical identification number. Second, 14 individuals were excluded because of their implausible (for employees) age of 17 years and younger or 80 years and over. Third, we identified and excluded 46 multivariate outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 99) by individual Mahalanobis distance ($df = 11$, $p < .001$). Fourth, we identified and excluded 155 persons who belonged to the 5% fastest responders (time range [44 s;134 s]). Steps three and four (Meade & Craig, 2012) were conducted separately for each country subsample. Thus, 3,252 persons remained for further analyses (Table 1). R packages descr (Aquino, 2013), plyr (Wickham, 2011), and reshape (Wickham, 2007) were used for data preparation.

<div align="center">

Results

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Factor structure and measurement equivalence

Prior to the country-level analysis, relatively extensive analyses were conducted on factor structure and measurement equivalence of the attitudes toward faking. A summary of these analyses is provided in this paper; please see the supplementary material for more detailed information (available upon request from the corresponding author).

To investigate the factor structure of our attitude toward faking measure, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) followed by a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA;

Gerbing & Hamilton, 1996); EFA and CFA were conducted using the R packages psych

(Revelle, 2014) and lavaan (Rosseel, 2012) respectively. The two-factor solution (Table 3)

suggested a distinction between the two correlated factors ($r = .74$) *attitude toward severe*

faking versus *attitude toward mild faking* (i.e., whether applicants used severe forms of

faking or whether they engaged in mild forms of faking). Often, the former also requires

planning (e.g., telling fictional stories), whereas the latter can be used more spontaneously in

the selection situation (e.g., expressing the same opinions as the interviewer). Attitude toward

severe faking ($\alpha = .83$) as well as toward mild faking ($\alpha = .79$) showed good reliability. Table

4 reports the fit of this two-factor structure to the pooled data (Model 1) and of an alternative

one-factor structure (Model 2), with Model 1 showing a better fit, $\Delta\chi^2_{SB}(\Delta df = 1) = 439.43$, p

$< .01$. For our data, we had to refuse Levashina and Campion's (2007) four-factor model of

faking in job interviews because the covariance matrix of the latent variables was not positive

definite and due to its comparatively poor fit ($\chi^2_{SB}(df = 38) = 955.55$; $CFI_{SB} = .91$; $RMSEA_{SB}$

$= .09$).

Measurement equivalence analyses are necessary for cross-cultural research because

they test the requirement that measures are understood in the same way in different cultures

(Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998; but for a critical view on measurement equivalence see,

e.g., Schmitt, 2013). We relied on the approach of Byrne and van de Vijver (2010) after the

initial configural model (Model 3 in Table 4) yielded a poor fit. After deleting items 7

(distancing) and 5 (inventing) and allowing item 11 (masking) to load on both factors (Model

4 in Table 4), the configural Model 4 yielded a very acceptable fit ($\chi^2 = 1,744.12$; $df = 775$;

$CFI = .91$; $RMSEA = .11$; $SRMR = .07$; $\chi^2_{SB} = 1,426.77$; $CFI_{SB} = .92$; $RMSEA_{SB} = .09$)

(Byrne, 1994). This model also fitted the pooled data very well (Model 5 in Table 4, see

Figure 1); the model was plotted using the R package semPlot (Epskamp, 2014). Thus,

configural equivalence of the two-dimensional structure of attitudes toward applicants' faking

behaviors could be successfully established. An additional test for metric equivalence

moderately supported the notion that the measurement weights of the model were also very similar across countries (χ^2_{SB} =1,920.26; df =1,015; CFI_{SB} = .89; $RMSEA_{SB}$ = .09); the $RMSEA$ value was acceptable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), in contrast to the CFI. As explained by Vandenberg and Lance (2000), testing for scalar equivalence (i.e., equal measurement weights and equal item intercepts across countries) "is not appropriate because difference in item location parameters would be fully expected" (p. 38). Measurement equivalence tests were conducted using the R package semTools (Pornprasertmanit, Miller, Schoemann, & Rosseel, 2013). Further analyses (Fontaine & Fischer, 2011) showed (a) a substantial amount of variance on the country level for attitude toward severe faking (12%) as well as toward mild faking (11%) and (b) that our structural model fitted the country-level data very well. For calculating the amounts of variance on the country level, we used the R packages lme4 (Bates, Maechler, Bolker, & Walker, 2014).

Overall, we concluded that our data allow the testing of the postulated country-level hypotheses (cf., Bartram, 2013; Schmitt, 2013; Schmitt, Golubovich, & Leong, 2011; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998).

Culture and attitude toward faking

In line with previous studies (e.g., Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001; Gelfand et al., 2011; Gentry & Sparks, 2012; Hofstede & McCrae, 2004; House et al., 2004), we used national culture scores and country means for the country-level analysis.

Tables 5 and 6 show the results of our hypothesis testing, which is based on a bivariate correlation analysis on the country level; correlation analysis was conducted using R package psych (Revelle, 2013). Partially supporting our first hypothesis, which claimed less positive attitudes toward faking in job interviews in countries with high uncertainty avoidance, we

found a significant negative correlation between the EFA-based regression factor score[1] (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) for the attitude toward mild faking and uncertainty avoidance (r = -.36, $p < .05$). Fully supporting our third hypothesis, which claimed more positive attitudes toward faking in job interviews in countries with high power distance, we found significant positive correlations between attitude toward severe ($r = .35$, $p < .05$) as well as toward mild ($r = .56$, $p < .01$) faking and power distance. Fully supporting our sixth hypothesis, which claimed more positive attitudes toward faking in job interviews in countries with high in-group collectivism, we found significant positive correlations between attitude toward severe ($r = .46$, $p < .01$) as well as mild ($r = .68$, $p < .01$) faking and in-group collectivism. Finally, fully supporting our seventh hypothesis, which claimed less positive attitudes toward faking in job interviews in countries with high gender egalitarianism, we found significant negative correlations between attitude toward severe ($r = -.39$, $p < .05$) as well as mild ($r = -.41$, $p < .05$) faking and gender egalitarianism. The significant positive correlation ($r = .45$, $p < .05$) between the attitude toward severe faking partially answers our first research question on whether there is a relationship between humane orientation in a country and the attitude toward faking in job interviews. Our results showed no relationships that contradict our hypotheses. However, no significant relationships were found between attitude toward faking and future orientation (H2), institutional collectivism (H4), performance orientation (H5), or assertiveness (H8).

Additional analysis

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[1] EFA-based regression factor scores were nearly perfectly correlated with their unit-weighted mean score counterparts (cf., Model 5 in Table 4, Figure 1), on the individual level as well as on the country level ($r_{severe\ faking} = .98$, $p_{severe\ faking} < .01$; $r_{mild\ faking} = .96$, $p_{mild\ faking} < .01$).

We also explored the suggested (e.g., König et al., 2011; Thackray et al., 2013) positive relationship between unemployment and the attitude toward faking by correlating the two attitude factor scores with countries' unemployment rates (Statistical System of the Republic of China, 2013; World DataBank, 2014). However, we found a statistically significant negative relationship (see also Table 5), which implies that severe faking is considered to be less positive in countries with high unemployment rates ($r = -.36$, $p < .05$).

For every country, we also created a cultural index of faking susceptibility (CIFS) by integrating countries' scores on those cultural dimensions that were significantly correlated with at least one of the two attitudes toward faking in job interviews (following the example of Chaplin, Phillips, Brown, Clanton, & Stein, 2000, in a different field). Given the significant relationships between the five cultural dimensions and attitudes toward faking, CIFS was computed as *power distance + humane orientation + in-group collectivism - uncertainty avoidance - gender egalitarianism*. Correlating CIFS with attitude toward severe as well as mild faking in job interviews, we found strong positive correlations of $r = .56$ ($p < .01$) and $r = .72$ ($p < .01$), respectively. Although correlations might be inflated due to choosing the five cultural dimensions that were the most relevant in our study, they illustrate the potential cumulative role of cultural characteristics in explaining differences in attitudes toward applicants' faking.

Discussion

The main goal of this study was to examine the relationship between culture and the attitude toward faking, a crucial predictor of faking behavior (McFarland & Ryan, 2000, 2006; Mueller-Hanson et al., 2006; Snell et al., 1999). Our results showed that (a) there are considerable cross-cultural differences in the attitude toward faking, (b) the attitude can be differentiated into two correlated forms (severe/mild faking), and (c) both attitudes correlate in the expected ways with cultural dimensions.

Differentiation of attitude toward faking

In our data, a one-factor model of faking attitude (e.g., McFarland & Ryan, 2000, 2006) provided a poorer fit to the data than a two-factor model. In this latter model, one factor represents attitude toward severe faking behaviors that often also require planning in advance (e.g., telling fictional stories prepared in advance), while the other factor captures attitude toward mild faking behavior that applicants can probably also use more spontaneously in their actual selection situation (e.g., trying to express the same opinion as the interviewer). This implies that the attitude toward faking is a more complex precursor of faking behavior than previously thought. Differing from mild forms of faking, severe faking could be seen as a more deliberate act. Thus, our results may also strengthen the idea of differentiating faking by a concept of severity (Donovan et al., 2003; Karam et al., 2013) that arises from aspects of deliberate intentions.

Findings regarding hypotheses

According to our results, five of the nine cultural factors identified by the GLOBE project (House et al., 2004) were related to the two attitudes toward faking. Uncertainty avoidance was negatively correlated with the attitude toward mild faking on the country level. This finding was expected because faking increases uncertainty by carrying a risk of being caught (Seleim & Bontis, 2009) as well as by undermining communication reliability (Mealy et al., 2007), and not only do uncertainty-avoidant cultures avoid risks, but they are also less tolerant of rule-breaking (de Luque & Javidan, 2004; House & Javidan, 2004). The negative relationship between uncertainty avoidance and attitude toward severe faking falls short of significance but does not completely contradict our argument of uncertainty being inherent in faking. Severe faking may indeed be considered as less uncertainty-evoking; it often requires planning and might reduce at least the uncertainty caused by the risk of being caught. Similarly, Littlepage and Pineault (1985) explained that planned lies can be more effective (i.e., believable) than spontaneous lies due to the possibly increased plausibility of planned lies as well as the more appropriate nonverbal behavior of the liar.

Power distance was positively correlated with both attitudinal faking dimensions, which confirms the assumption that applicants who are not treated independently of social status (i.e., are treated unfairly) are able to cope by engaging in faking (Carl et al., 2004; McFarland, 2003; Seleim & Bontis, 2009; Snell et al., 1999). This finding suggests that applicants from different cultures might have different fairness expectations regarding selection processes in general—not because of experiences with the respective organization, but because of experiences of interacting with more powerful others. For organizations, this finding might underline the necessity not only of providing fair selection processes (cf., Myors et al., 2008) but also of reassuring applicants that the processes are fair—especially those applicants who might have less experience of being treated fairly (e.g., Steiner & Gilliland, 1996).

In-group collectivism was also positively related to the attitude toward both attitudinal faking dimensions. This is consistent with our idea that faking can be considered as a behavior in which people engage with positive intentions. In in-group collectivistic cultures, faking not only increases applicants' own chances of being hired (Levashina & Campion, 2007; McFarland & Ryan, 2000) but, more importantly, it increases the chances of being able to support loved ones. Whereas these applicants and the members of their in-group likely consider faking as a prosocial, altruistic, supportive behavior, members of "any" out-group (competitors, organization, society) might rather consider it to be egoistic and unfair (e.g., Batson et al., 2002; Bazerman & Banaji, 2004; Realo et al., 2008).

Furthermore, and also in line with expectation, we found that attitudes toward both attitudinal faking dimensions were more negative in countries with high gender egalitarianism. In turn, faking is considered as more positive in countries where people's roles are biologically determined (Emrich et al., 2004). Whether applicants have to behave according to these roles (e.g., Baeyer et al., 1981) or whether they have to overcome them (e.g., Hareli et al., 2008), faking might be one possibility to achieve this. Thus, our finding

also extends Grover's (1993) argument about lying in organizations as a way of dealing with conflicting role expectations: In cultures with low gender egalitarianism, applicants have to adhere to certain gender-based roles (Emrich et al., 2004), and conflicts between such external role expectations and applicants' internal standards (Grover, 1993) are likely to become manifest during personnel selection situations. Thus, applicants may fake in order to resolve this conflict. Similarly to the case of power distance, organizations should take these differences in applicants' mindsets seriously. Positive attitudes toward faking could be interpreted as a further problem for organizations that do not actively and visibly fight gender inequality. It is to an organization's own advantage to reassure every applicant that it does not tolerate gender-based prejudice or discrimination (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 2002; Hareli et al., 2008; Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Morgan, Walker, Hebl, & King, 2013; Schilt & Williams, 2008).

Additionally, we found a positive relationship between humane orientation and the attitude toward severe faking, which suggests that humane-oriented cultures' liability to forgive makes them more tolerant of faking (Seleim & Bontis, 2009). Although it has also been plausibly argued that faking has more negative connotations in humane-oriented countries due to their emphasis on fairness and altruism (House & Javidan, 2004), our results might be rather interpreted in favor of the forgiving characteristics of humane-oriented cultures (GLOBE Project Team, 2006). This finding might be considered as evidence for possible problematic side effects of forgiveness (Bright et al., 2011; Budde-Sung, 2013; Capron, 2004; Exline et al., 2003; Seleim & Bontis, 2009). It would be interesting to observe how applicants in forgiveness-prone cultures would react to faking warnings that include punishment (Dwight & Donovan, 2003). Although people often consider punishment as contradicting forgiveness, the two are conceptually distinct (e.g., Exline et al., 2003) and according to Strelan and van Prooijen (2013) the former can facilitate the latter.

While future orientation, institutional collectivism, and performance orientation were assumed to be negatively correlated with positive attitude toward faking because applicants' faking has negative long-term consequences (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Pace & Borman, 2006), disadvantages others (e.g., Gelfand et al., 2004; Seleim & Bontis, 2009), and contradicts the striving for excellence (e.g., Javidan, 2004; Poocharoen & Brillantes, 2013), no correlations were found at all. In cultures high on these dimensions, people should have had less positive attitudes toward faking due to its negative consequences in their future (future orientation), its negative consequences for distant others (institutional collectivism), or due to both (performance orientation). Applying the concept of moral intensity (Jones, 1991, p. 372), which "captures the extent of issue-related moral imperative in a situation", could provide a possible explanation for our findings. In the case of the three aforementioned culture dimensions, the mechanisms that have been assumed to emphasize negative consequences of faking and thereby to reduce positive attitudes toward faking may have also reduced three important aspects of the moral intensity of faking: temporal immediacy (i.e., time lag between behavior and consequences), proximity (i.e., distance between agent and affected party), and concentration of effect (i.e., specificity of affected party). Thus, we speculate whether cultural mechanisms of future orientation, institutional collectivism, and performance orientation may have depreciated the moral intensity of faking to such an extent that faking can barely be recognized as a moral issue (Jones, 1991).

We assumed that tough, less modest, and less agreeable cultures would try to achieve goals at any cost (e.g., Den Hartog, 2004; König et al., 2011; McCrae et al., 2008). However, no relationship was found at all between cultures' attitudes toward faking and assertiveness. Our results contradict previous findings of relationships between assertiveness and other ethically ambivalent behaviors (see also Parboteeah et al., 2005; Seleim & Bontis, 2009). Perhaps the reason for this contradiction lies in faking itself. Besides being an ethically questionable behavior which is carried out to succeed in a job interview and to assert oneself,

faking can also ensure a smooth course of interactions with others, such as in a job interview (Kristof-Brown, Barrick, & Franke, 2002). This smooth course of interactions is also the reason why Kristof-Brown et al. (2002) assume positive relationships between individuals' agreeableness and their use of impression management. Therefore, in view of the ability of faking to smooth the course of a job interview, it could be asserted that less agreeable (i.e., highly assertive) cultures might have rather negative attitudes toward faking.

The role of unemployment

It has previously been suggested that unemployment might promote faking (e.g., König et al., 2011; Thackray et al., 2013). However, the two attitudes toward faking were negatively related to countries' unemployment rates. In countries with high unemployment rates, where more people are desperately seeking a job, applicants' faking is evaluated more negatively. This is an interesting finding, but perhaps not entirely surprising. Control beliefs, such as in meritocracy, make people of lower status (e.g., unemployed people) believe that hard work (e.g., education) will lead to future success; they are able to cope with their situation by considering themselves as "soon to haves" rather than "have nots" (McCoy, Wellman, Cosley, Saslow, & Epel, 2013, p. 317). Especially in countries with high unemployment, faking might accordingly be considered as a vital threat to such controllability, which can barely be tolerated. Thus, attitude toward applicants' faking might be considered as less positive in countries with high unemployment rates (see also Greenberg et al., 1990).

Limitations

Like all studies, our study is not free of limitations. (a) The power of our study could have been higher—our analyses are only based on 31 countries. Although it would be optimal to consider an even greater number of countries, our study does go clearly beyond existing country comparisons, especially in the field of applicants' faking and impression management (König et al., 2011, 2012; Sandal et al., 2014). (b) GLOBE's cultural dimensions are based on data that were collected from 1994 to 1997 (House, 2004), and

cultural values can change over time (Hamamura, 2012; Taras, Rowney, & Steel, 2009).

However, Taras, Steel, and Kirkman (2012) meta-analytically demonstrated that cultural

indices often show very strong test-retest reliabilities and even validities two decades after

data collection. (c) Since GLOBE's nine cultural dimensions are intercorrelated (see also

House et al., 2004), one may suggest replacing our analysis with multivariate analytical

approaches. However, in this case, we would have to drop several hypotheses (i.e., cultural

dimensions) in order to increase the predictor-country proportion (e.g., Tabachnick & Fidell,

2013). In fact, our approach provides unique advantages (e.g., preservation of the theoretical

integrity of the cultural framework, no cultural relationship is overlooked, conceptual

transparency) and overcomes several shortcomings (e.g., application of a more recent,

broader cultural framework; larger country sample) of previous cross-cultural studies (Bond

& van de Vijver, 2011; Engelen & Brettel, 2011; Franke & Richey, 2010; see also Kerr,

1998). Nevertheless, we hope that future studies will exploit our broad study to examine

rather specific aspects of cross-cultural differences in applicants' faking. (d) Our study is

limited to one selection procedure: job interviews. However, according to our data, nearly

every employee has at least had to pass one job interview during personnel selection.

Furthermore, the use of job interviews across countries is far more common than that of

personality tests, for example (Dipboye, Macan, & Shahani-Denning, 2012; Donovan et al.,

2003; Ryan, McFarland, Baron, & Page, 1999). Thus, setting our study in the context of job

interviews seems to be appropriate for two reasons: First, surveyed employees from different

countries will be more familiar with a job interview scenario. Second, researchers and

practitioners will probably appreciate more research in this context (Highhouse, 2008;

Levashina & Campion, 2007; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). (e) Like most other studies (Engelen

& Brettel, 2011), our study implicitly assumes cultural homogeneity within every country.

However, it is not appropriate to ask participants for ethnic background information in some

countries (e.g., Chrisafis, 2009; Crumley, 2009). Indeed, participants from some countries

might even consider questions about certain ethnic background to be a political statement. Both issues might have upset some survey participants.

Future research

Our study systematically and carefully examines and explains cross-cultural differences in applicants' attitudes toward faking, an important prerequisite of faking behavior in job interviews (McFarland & Ryan, 2000, 2006; Mueller-Hanson et al., 2006; Snell et al., 1999). However, there is still a great deal to be achieved. Future research should further investigate the role of applicants' attitudes toward faking in terms of actual faking behavior in job interviews as well as other self-report selection procedures (e.g., personality tests). In our study, we proposed theoretical arguments on how attitude toward faking in job interviews is related to culture. Future research that explicitly tests our assumed mechanisms is needed, and should also demonstrate whether cross-cultural differences will hold for actual faking behavior (Burns & Christiansen, 2011), such as measured in experimental (applicant vs. honest condition) or field studies. In the attempt to explain differences in applicants' faking behavior, theoretical models (McFarland & Ryan, 2000, 2006; Mueller-Hanson et al., 2006; Snell et al., 1999) have mainly focused on applicants' individual characteristics. Thus, if values are addressed as being relevant for predicting faking behavior, previous models have mainly focused on *applicants'* individual values, and we also addressed country-level cultural influences only on part of the applicant. Future research should examine cultural influences beyond those brought in by the applicants themselves. Possible research questions might be the following: Are interviewers' attitudes toward applicants' faking also related to cultural characteristics? Do interviewers' attitudes fit with applicants' attitudes (Jansen et al., 2012)? What are the consequences of cultural (mis)fit, even if it is merely assumed by either party?

Theoretical implications

Our study has important theoretical implications: In line with general behavioral models (e.g., Ajzen, 1991) and in accordance with previous research (e.g., Milfont et al.,

2010), our study underscores the importance of understanding cross-cultural differences in behavioral attitudes. Thus, models that describe faking (in an interview but also in other selection methods) should therefore include attitude toward faking in order to render their behavioral predictions more precise and to seek cross-cultural validity (e.g., McFarland & Ryan, 2000, 2006). The GLOBE study (House et al., 2004) was conceptualized in order to explain cross-cultural differences in successful leadership, and researchers have begun to use GLOBE's cultural model for explaining other phenomena beyond leadership (cf., Engelen & Brettel, 2011). Our study contributes to this by showing that GLOBE's cultural model also explains meaningful cultural variance in the new field of applicant selection. Thus, our study provides GLOBE with additional validation as a helpful framework for explaining cross-cultural differences in applicant behavior.

Practical implications

Our study is also important for selecting organizations that need to know more about the role of culture. More precisely, our study urges organizations to be aware of cultural differences between applicants, which are likely to be of relevance in selection situations—as applicants may enter selection situations with different mindsets. In particular, applicants may differ in their attitude toward faking (i.e., the extent to which they evaluate faking as good or bad), making faking behavior more or less likely (e.g., McFarland & Ryan, 2006; Snell et al., 1999). We would like to emphasize three perspectives of practical implications: dealing with discrimination, providing cross-cultural training, and culturally guided implications. First, our findings fuel the discussion on whether applying identical assessment standards to applicants from different groups (e.g., cultures) can have discriminatory consequences for certain groups (Cascio & Aguinis, 2011, 2011; Tett et al., 2006) and shed new light on previous suggestions on how to deal with these consequences (Lindsey, King, McCausland, Jones, & Dunleavy, 2013; Ployhart & Holtz, 2008). When conducting job interviews across different cultures, organizations could consider integrating multiple

selection methods (Pulakos & Schmitt, 1996), weighting predictor or criterion scores (Hough, Oswald, & Ployhart, 2001), or using more differentiated predictor scores (e.g., banding; Hough et al., 2001). However, cultural adaption of personnel selection often comes with dangerous side effects, such as legal risks or reduced validity (e.g., Cascio & Aguinis, 2011; König et al., 2011; Lindsey et al., 2013; Ployhart & Holtz, 2008). In this realm, the findings of our study also foster further interest in rather modest but less double-edged suggestions on how to deal with adverse impact in personnel selection, especially at this early stage of research (Bartunek & Rynes, 2010). Organizations could consider using structured rather than unstructured job interviews (Hough et al., 2001; Moscoso, 2000; Ployhart & Holtz, 2008), as the former can generally limit subjectivity (Lindsey et al., 2013). When selecting from culturally diverse pools of applicants and possibly facing the risk of cultural differences in applicants' behavior (e.g., faking), organizations (e.g., WHO, ILO) could also consider using interviewer teams with culturally aligned or at least culturally diverse backgrounds in order to minimize the likelihood of misinterpreting applicant behavior.

Second, where requirements for successful international personnel selection are not met yet, organizations could also consider cross-cultural training for their interviewers (Bhawuk, 2001; Fiedler, Mitchell, & Triandis, 1971; Lindsey et al., 2013; Livermore, 2014; for an overview see Leung, Ang, & Tan, 2014). Since selection situations (e.g., job interviews) are very specific work situations, Leung et al.'s (2014, p. 511) concept of "in situ intercultural competence" might be worthy of consideration: Cross-cultural interview training for selection practitioners should teach "demonstrated sets of coordinated behaviors that are instrumental for achieving desired results or outcomes in specific intercultural contexts".

Third, since attitudes toward faking correlate with several cultural dimensions, our findings might have certain culturally guided implications. These might help to thwart cultural expectations and predispositions of applicants which could cause problems for applicants and organizations (cf., Gerhart, 2009). The relationships between power distance

as well as gender egalitarianism and attitude toward applicants' faking, for example, might encourage organizations to visibly provide applicants with selection processes and work environments that are fair and free of gender-based discrimination. We also speculate whether our findings could help to prevent applicants from faking by identifying culture-specific moral reminders that increase applicants' attention to cultural priorities that contradict faking (Mazar, Amir, & Ariely, 2008). For example, applicants in highly in-group collectivistic cultures might refrain from faking if they are less convinced that they would really be able to help their families by faking their way into a job. Applicants in highly uncertainty-avoidant cultures might be responsive to warnings that emphasize the risk of getting caught when faking (e.g., Dwight & Donovan, 2003) as well as the consequences of faking for social relations (Mealy et al., 2007).

Conclusions

Although this study is an important step on the road to understanding cross-cultural differences in applicant behavior, we would urge further studies and interviewer training rather than call for culture-specific adaptations, which are often risky. Given the globalization of the business world (Evans et al., 2011) and the challenges faced by organizations on a daily basis (Leung et al., 2014; Ryan, Leong, & Oswald, 2012), the field of selection clearly needs more research employing a cross-cultural perspective.

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Table 1

Information about the 31 Country Samples, Clustered according to GLOBE's (Gupta &

Hanges, 2004) *Societal Clusters: Language of Survey, Sample Sizes, Gender, and Age*

Cluster	Language(s)	*n*	Gender		Age	
			Male	Female	*M*	*SD*
Anglo						
Australia	English	104	49%	51%	39.25	12.75
Canada	English (*n* = 54), French (*n* = 53)	107	48%	52%	39.34	12.42
Ireland	English	103	51%	46%	35.47	12.42
New Zealand	English	105	49%	51%	39.78	13.78
United Kingdom	English	104	49%	49%	37.52	11.28
United States	English	102	50%	50%	42.21	13.70
Confucian Asia						
China	Chinese	106	48%	52%	32.17	6.78
Hong Kong	Chinese	108	51%	49%	32.46	9.72
Japan	Japanese	107	52%	48%	41.80	10.00
South Korea	Korean	106	54%	45%	33.99	8.12
Taiwan	Chinese	102	53%	47%	34.41	9.70
Eastern Europe						
Poland	Polish	103	52%	47%	37.91	10.77
Russia	Russian	105	50%	50%	33.30	10.18
Germanic Europe						
Austria	German	102	46%	53%	34.74	10.76
Germany	German	109	50%	49%	37.66	11.02
Netherlands	Dutch	104	47%	51%	43.75	12.67
Switzerland[a]	French (*n* = 55), German (*n* = 54)	109	55%	42%	34.10	10.22
Latin America						
Argentina	Spanish	107	52%	47%	33.47	9.12
Brazil	Brazilian Portuguese	105	55%	44%	30.69	9.20
Colombia	Spanish	104	67%	32%	27.37	10.03
Mexico	Spanish	110	50%	50%	35.26	10.38
Latin Europe						
France	French	108	49%	51%	38.00	11.39
Italy	Italian	105	53%	47%	36.55	8.87
Portugal	Portuguese	106	54%	44%	33.66	8.81
Spain	Spanish	102	53%	45%	36.54	10.23
Switzerland[a]	French (*n* = 55), German (*n* = 54)		55%	42%	34.10	10.22
Nordic Europe						
Denmark	Danish	102	54%	44%	43.98	14.16
Finland	Finnish	104	54%	45%	39.50	13.44
Sweden	Swedish	101	50%	50%	43.62	13.16
Southern Asia						
India	English	105	51%	49%	32.97	9.05
Malaysia	English	103	54%	45%	31.25	8.21
Thailand	Thai	104	54%	46%	29.65	6.39
Total		3,252	52%	47%	36.19	11.51

Note. [a] GLOBE sorts the French-speaking part of Switzerland into the Latin Europe cluster

and the German-speaking part into the Germanic cluster.

Table 2

Occupational Areas according to the Statistical Classification of Economic Activities in the

European Community (European Commission, 2008)

Occupation	*n*	%
Manufacturing	297	9
Other service activities	290	9
Education	258	8
Human health and social work activities	237	7
Information and communication	220	7
Administrative and support service activities	214	7
Professional, scientific and technical activities	199	6
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	189	6
Financial and insurance activities	186	6
Construction	159	5
Accommodation and food service activities	125	4
Transportation and storage	112	3
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	111	3
Arts, entertainment and recreation	78	2
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	65	2
Real estate activities	56	2
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	54	2
Mining and quarrying	22	1
Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities	19	1
Activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods- and services-producing activities of households for own use	13	0
Activities of extraterritorial organisations and bodies	9	0
Other	339	10
Total	3,252	100

Table 3

Items Measuring Attitude Toward Faking (taken directly from Levashina & Campion, 2007, pp. 1654–1656) with Factor Loadings for

Exploratory Factor Analysis with Promax Rotation

		Faking	
Item	Text	Severe	Mild
1. Constructing	Telling fictional stories prepared in advance to best present one's credentials	**.90**	-.15
2. Embellishing	Exaggerating the impact of own performance in past jobs	**.67**	.00
3. Interviewer enhancing	Creating the impression that one thinks highly of the interviewer by exaggerating the interviewer's qualities	**.61**	.16
4. Borrowing	Borrowing work experiences of others and make them sound like one's own, when not having a good answer	**.55**	.19
5. Inventing	Stretching the truth to give a good answer	**.43**	.27
6. Tailoring	During the interview, distorting answers to emphasize what the interviewer is looking for	-.02	**.72**
7. Distancing	Trying to suppress one's connection to negative events in the own work history	-.07	**.69**
8. Opinion conforming	Trying to express the same opinions and attitudes as the interviewer	.02	**.67**
9. Omitting	Trying to avoid discussion of job tasks that one may not be able to do	-.06	**.63**
10. Fit enhancing	Enhancing the fit with the job in terms of attitudes, values, or beliefs	-.07	**.62**
11. Masking	When asked directly, not mentioning problems that one had in past jobs	.27	**.31**

Note. N = 3,252. Factor loadings > .30 are in bold face.

Table 4

Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Structure of Attitudes toward Faking

	Maximum Likelihood Estimates						Robust Scaled Estimates			
	χ^2	df	p	CFI	RMSEA [90% CI]	SRMR	χ^2_{SB}	p_{SB}	CFI_{SB}	$RMSEA_{SB}$ [90% CI SB]
Model 1: Test of 2-factor model (pooled data)	984.45	43	.00	.93	.08 [.08;.09]	.04	716.92	.00	.94	.07 [.07;.07]
Model 2: Test of 1-factor model (pooled data)	1,618.68	44	.00	.88	.11 [.10;.11]	.05	1,177.42	.00	.89	.09 [.09;.09]
Model 3: Test of 2-factor model (configural model)	3,481.32	1,333	.00	.85	.12 [.12;.13]	.08	2,780.70	.00	.88	.10 [.10;.11]
Model 4: Test of 2-factor model w/o items 5 (inventing) & 7 (distancing), item 11 (masking) loading on both factors (configural model)	1,744.12	775	.00	.91	.11 [.10;.12]	.07	1,426.77	.00	.92	.09 [.08;.10]
Model 5: Test of 2-factor model w/o items 5 (inventing) & 7 (distancing), item 11 (masking) loading on both factors (pooled data)	457.28	25	.00	.96	.07 [.07; .08]	.03	341.61	.00	.96	.06 [.06; .07]

Table 5

Intercorrelations, Means, and Standard Deviations of Dependent Variables on the Country Level

Measures	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Faking, severe[a]	0.00	0.33											
2. Faking, mild[b]	0.00	0.31	.86**										
3. Unemployment rate[c]	7.25	4.67	-.36*	-.25									
4. Uncertainty avoidance	4.33	0.61	-.20	-.36†	-.19								
5. Future orientation	3.91	0.49	.01	-.22	-.30+	.73**							
6. Power distance	5.12	0.40	.35†	.56††	.15	-.63**	-.62**						
7. Institutional collectivism	4.34	0.45	.14	-.05	-.29	.26	.39*	-.40					
8. Humane orientation	4.03	0.43	.45*	.22	-.33+	.13	.27	-.20	.45*				
9. Performance orientation	4.17	0.36	.18	.12	-.35+	.43*	.53**	-.39	.30	.25			
10. In-group collectivism	4.87	0.78	.46††	.68††	.02	-.65**	-.51**	.73	-.23	.08	-.20		
11. Gender egalitarianism	3.40	0.34	-.39†	-.41†	.10	-.08	-.19	-.28	-.07	.00	-.47**	-.18	
12. Assertiveness	4.05	0.36	-.25	-.16	.05	-.06	.09	.04	-.50**	-.51**	.27	.07	-.22

Note. Intercorrelations on country level ($N = 31$). GLOBE scores are matched as follows: Scores for Germany are means of East and West Germany scores; Scores for Switzerland are means of French- ($n = 55$) and German-speaking ($n = 54$) Switzerland scores.

[a] Factor scores; unit-weighted mean score (cf. Model 5 in Table 4, Figure 1) = 2.40 ($SD = 0.32$). [b] Factor scores; unit-weighted mean score (cf. Model 5 in Table 4, Figure 1) = 3.12 ($SD = 0.32$). [c] Unemployment rates (percentage of labor force) were taken from World DataBank (2014); Taiwanese unemployment rates were taken from Statistical System of the Republic of China (2013).

+ $p < .10$, two-tailed. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed. † $p < .05$, one-tailed. †† $p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 6

Summary of the hypotheses and the research question on the relationships between GLOBE's

cultural dimensions and attitude toward faking factors

		Faking	
		Severe	Mild
H1:	The *higher* the level of uncertainty avoidance in a country, the *less* positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews	n. s.	Confirmed
H2:	The *higher* the level of future orientation in a country, the *less* positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews	n. s.	n. s.
H3:	The *higher* the level of power distance in a country, the *more* positive is its attitude toward faking in job interviews	Confirmed	Confirmed
H4:	The *higher* the level of institutional collectivism in a country, the *less* positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews	n. s.	n. s.
RQ:1	Is there is *a relationship* between humane orientation in a country and the attitude toward faking in job interviews in that country?	Approved	n. s.
H5:	The *higher* the level of performance orientation in a country, the *less* positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews	n. s.	n. s.
H6:	The *higher* the level of in-group collectivism in a country, the *more* positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews	Confirmed	Confirmed
H7:	The *higher* the level of gender egalitarianism in a country, the *less* positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews	Confirmed	Confirmed
H8:	The *higher* the level of assertiveness in a country, the *more* positive is the attitude toward faking in job interviews	n. s.	n. s.
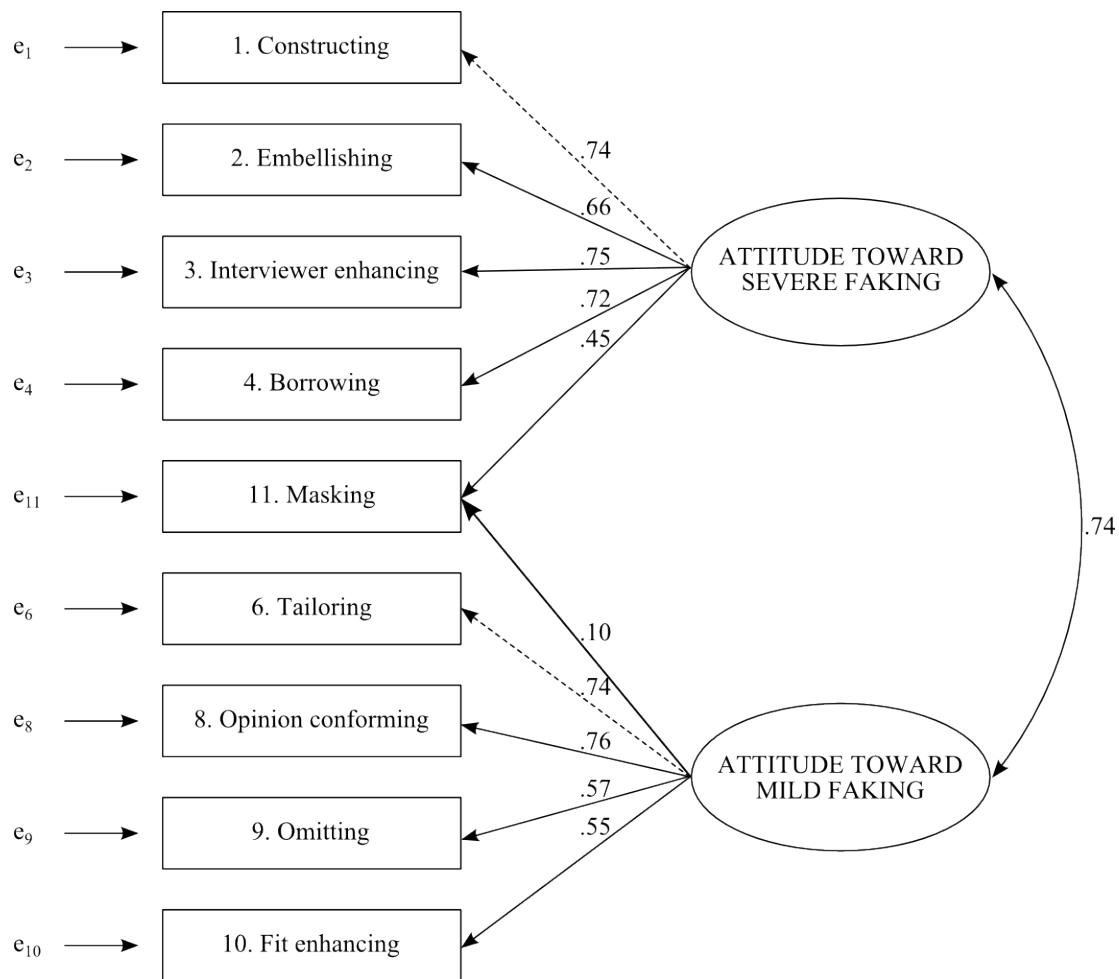
Figure 1. Confirmatory factor analysis model (*N* = 3,252) with two correlated attitude toward faking factors (see Model 5 in Table 4). Factor loadings of constructing and tailoring were fixed to 1. All parameter estimates are significant at *p* < .01.

Supplementary material

Cross-Cultural Differences in the Attitude toward Applicants' Faking in Job Interviews

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Method

Factor structure

To investigate the factor structure of our attitude toward faking measure, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) followed by a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA; Gerbing & Hamilton, 1996). For the EFA, which was conducted using the R package psych (Revelle, 2014), we conducted a principal axis analysis (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003; Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986) with promax rotation (Lee & Ashton, 2007) after pooling the data across all countries. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) index of .91 indicated very good sampling adequacy (Dziuban & Shirkey, 1974). A scree test suggested a one- or two-factor structure (Table 3); as the upper limit, parallel analysis suggested five factors (Hayton, 2009). The two-factor solution suggested a distinction between the two correlated factors ($r = .74$) *attitude toward severe faking* versus *attitude toward mild faking* (i.e., whether applicants used severe forms of faking or whether they engaged in mild forms of faking). Often, the former also requires planning (e.g., telling fictional stories), whereas the latter can be used more spontaneously in the selection situation (e.g., expressing the same opinions as the interviewer). Attitude toward severe faking ($\alpha = .83$) as well as toward mild faking ($\alpha = .79$) showed good reliability.

To test the fit of the suggested two-factor structure, we conducted a CFA (Gerbing & Hamilton, 1996). Since the data did not meet the requirements of multinormality ($kurtosis_{Mardia} = 52.72$, $p < .01$; $skewness_{Mardia} = 3,526.95$, $p < .01$), the CFA was based on robust maximum-likelihood estimation and additional Satorra-Bentler scaled (SB) test statistics (Byrne & van de Vijver, 2010; Rosseel, 2012). Multinormality was inspected using the R package MVN (Korkmaz & Goksuluk, 2014); the CFA was conducted using the R package lavaan (Rosseel, 2012). Table 4 reports the fit of the two-factor structure to the pooled data (Model 1) and of an alternative one-factor structure (Model 2), with Model 1 showing a better fit, $\Delta\chi^2_{SB}(\Delta df = 1) = 439.43$, $p < .01$. For our data, we had to refuse

Levashina and Campion's (2007) four-factor model of faking in job interviews because the covariance matrix of the latent variables was not positive definite and due to its comparatively poor fit (χ^2_{SB} = 955.55; df = 38, CFI_{SB} = .91; $RMSEA_{SB}$ = .09).

Measurement equivalence

Measurement equivalence analyses are necessary for cross-cultural research because they test the requirement that measures are understood in the same way in different cultures (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998; but for a critical view on measurement equivalence see, e.g., Schmitt, 2013). Given that the traditional approach to test measurement equivalence (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998) lacks applicability to large-scale cross-country studies (Byrne & van de Vijver, 2010), we relied on the approach of Byrne and van de Vijver (2010).

Initially, we tested the two-factor structure for configural equivalence (i.e., the similarity of patterns of factor loadings across countries); the R package lavaan (Rosseel, 2012) was used for unconstrained equivalence testing. This configural model (see Model 3 in Table 4) yielded a poor fit; in three countries (Australia, Ireland, the Netherlands), the covariance matrices of the two latent variables were not positive definite. We received 348 robust modification indices for this configural model that were greater than $\chi^2(df = 1)$. Their maximum was 41.66 and they appeared for every country, item, and latent factor.

As suggested by Byrne and van de Vijver (2010), we then explored which items, countries, and combination of the two would have to be deleted to reach an acceptable model fit of the configural model (Model 3 in Table 4); for more details on the procedure see Byrne and van de Vijver (2010). The R packages e1071 (Meyer, Dimitriadou, Hornik, Weingessel, & Leisch, 2014) and stringr (Wickham, 2012) were used for exploring items and countries.

Possible problematic countries. Argentina, Australia, Colombia, Denmark, Finland, India, Malaysia, Poland, Russia, and Sweden had the five lowest or highest, respectively, mean standardized path coefficients; latent as well as observed variables were standardized (Rosseel, 2012). Argentina, Colombia, Denmark, Hong Kong, India, Ireland, New Zealand,

Portugal, Spain, and USA had the five lowest (highest) standard deviations of standardized path coefficients. The standardized path coefficients of Taiwan and Thailand showed statistically significant skewness and kurtosis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) on $p < .05$. Colombia, Denmark, Finland, India, Malaysia, New Zealand, South Korea, Taiwan, Thailand, and UK had the five lowest (highest) standardized path coefficient minima. Denmark, Hong Kong, Ireland, Mexico, Poland, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, and Thailand had the five lowest (highest) standardized path coefficient maxima. Brazil, Denmark, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Russia, and USA hold the eleven item minima. Brazil, Colombia, India, and Thailand hold the eleven item maxima. Denmark, India, Mexico, and the Netherlands were the five countries whose item scores lay the most often beyond the 99% confidence interval of the eleven items. India, Russia, and Thailand were the countries whose item scores were at least once considered as outliers. India and Thailand were the countries whose item scores showed at least once a standardized difference from the corresponding country-level median of at least 2.5 (e.g., Cohen, 1977); every difference between a country item score and this item's median was standardized by the country-level standard deviation of this item. According to these analyses, we considered Colombia, Denmark, India, Russia, and Thailand as the probably most problematic countries. We added Australia, Ireland, and the Netherlands because the covariance matrices of the two latent variables were not positive definite in case of the configural model (see Model 3 in Table 4) in these three countries. Thus, we identified eight countries that possibly cause the poor fit of the configural model (see Model 3 in Table 4).

Possible problematic items. Next, we identified for every country separately which modifications of Model 1 (Table 4) would be necessary in order to achieve a CFI_{SB} value of at least .95; we obtained 94 necessary modifications. The six most frequent modifications concerned items 1 (constructing), 2 (embellishing), 4 (borrowing), 5 (inventing), 7

(distancing), and 11 (masking). Thus, we identified six items that possibly cause the poor fit of the configural model (see Model 3 in Table 4).

Inspection of model fit after deleting (pairs of) possible problematic countries, (pairs of) possible problematic items, or combinations of both. Next, 42 more configural models were necessary to identify which of the problematic countries, items, and combinations of both cause the misfit of Model 3 (Table 4); we deleted separately, with replacement of the eight possibly problematic countries, the six possibly problematic items, and each of the 28 country pairs before repeatedly investigating the fit of Model 3 (Table 4). No country deletion or the deletion of any country pair considerably improved ($\Delta CFI_{SB} \geq$ .01) the fit of Model 3 (Table 4), but four items seem to be responsible for its misfit. Deleting item 7 (distancing) did improve the model fit ($\Delta CFI_{SB} = .01$) but, like in Model 3 (Table 4), the covariance matrices of the latent variables were not positive definite in Australia, Ireland, and the Netherlands. Deleting item 1 (constructing) did also improve the model fit ($\Delta CFI_{SB} = .01$) but the covariance matrices of the latent variables were not positive definite in two more countries. Thus, deleting item 1 (constructing) would have been very problematic not only because of the model's fitting problems in five countries but also because item 1 is the marker item for the factor *attitude toward severe faking* in the EFA (Table 3); it was not considered further. Deleting item 5 (inventing) did not improve the model fit ($\Delta CFI_{SB} = .004$) but the covariance matrix of the latent variables was not positive definite in only one of the aforementioned countries. Deleting item 11 (masking) improved the model fit ($\Delta CFI_{SB} = .02$) but the covariance matrices of the latent variables were not positive definite in the three aforementioned countries. Four more configural models were necessary to identify which item pair could be deleted in order to maximize the fit of Model 3 (Table 4). Deleting items 5 (inventing) and 7 (distancing) did improve the model fit ($\Delta CFI_{SB} = .02$) but the covariance matrices of the latent variables were not positive definite in one of the three aforementioned countries. Deleting items 5 (inventing) and 11 (masking) did also improve the model fit

($\Delta CFI_{SB} = .03$) but the covariance matrix of the latent variables was not positive definite in one of the three aforementioned countries. Deleting items 7 (distancing) and 11 (masking) did improve the model fit ($\Delta CFI_{SB} = .04$). The same was true for deleting items 5 (inventing) and 7 (distancing), while allowing item 11 (masking) to load on both factors ($\Delta CFI_{SB} = .05$; Model 4 in Table 4). Model 4 was also reasonable according to the initial EFA where the two factor loadings of item 11 (masking) did not differ very much (Table 3). Model 4 yielded a significantly better fit than the model without items 7 (distancing) and 11 (masking), $\Delta\chi^2_{SB}(\Delta df = 31) = 200.62$, $p < .01$. Additional deletions of one or two of the eight problematic countries (36 models) did not further improve the fit of Model 4.

The configural Model 4 (Table 4) reached a very acceptable fit ($\chi^2 = 1{,}744.12$; $df = 775$; $CFI = .91$; $RMSEA = .11$; $SRMR = .07$; $\chi^2_{SB} = 1{,}426.77$; $CFI_{SB} = .92$; $RMSEA_{SB} = .09$) (Byrne, 1994). This model also fitted the pooled data very well (Model 5 in Table 4, see Figure 1); the model was plotted using the R package semPlot (Epskamp, 2014). Thus, configural equivalence of the two-dimensional structure of attitudes toward applicants' faking behaviors could be successfully established.

An additional test for metric equivalence moderately supported the notion that the measurement weights (i.e., loadings) of the model were also very similar across countries ($\chi^2_{SB} = 1{,}920.26$; $df = 1{,}015$; $CFI_{SB} = .89$; $RMSEA_{SB} = .09$); the $RMSEA$ value was acceptable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), in contrast to the CFI. As explained by Vandenberg and Lance (2000), testing for scalar equivalence (i.e., equal measurement weights and equal item intercepts across countries) "is not appropriate because difference in item location parameters would be fully expected" (p. 38). As expected, the test revealed absence of scalar equivalence ($\chi^2_{SB} = 3{,}682.25$; $df = 1{,}225$; $CFI_{SB} = .71$; $RMSEA_{SB} = .14$). Measurement equivalence tests were conducted using the R package semTools (Pornprasertmanit, Miller, Schoemann, & Rosseel, 2013).

Finally, we followed the advice to test whether our structural model also exists on the country level (Fontaine & Fischer, 2011): Intra-class correlation, computed as country-level variance divided by the sum of country-level and residual variance, revealed that there was a substantial amount of variance on the country level for attitude toward severe (12%) as well as toward mild faking (11%); intra-class correlations were computed using the R package lme4 (Bates, Maechler, Bolker, & Walker, 2014). A CFA showed that our structural model fitted the country-level data very well (χ^2_{SB} = 459.17; df = 50; CFI_{SB} = .94; $RMSEA_{SB}$ = .07), which means configural equivalence between individual and country level. Because this analysis generates two warnings, we repeated it without item 11 (masking) loading on both factors (χ^2_{SB} = 619.17; df = 52; CFI_{SB} = .92; $RMSEA_{SB}$ = .08) and inspected the modification indices. This analysis also revealed high robust modification indices for an additional loading of item 11 (masking) on attitude toward severe faking ($MI_{Individual\ Level}$ = 155.66, $MI_{Group\ Level}$ = 1.95).

Overall, we concluded that our data allow the testing of the postulated country-level hypotheses (cf., Bartram, 2013; Schmitt, 2013; Schmitt, Golubovich, & Leong, 2011; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998).

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