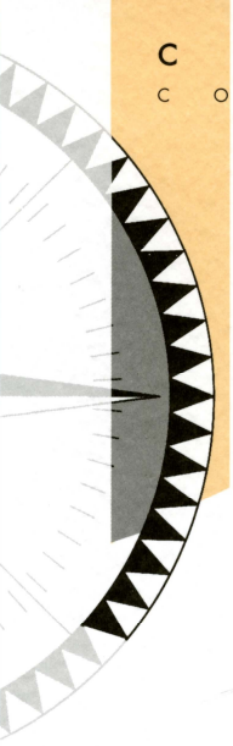

c o m p a s s
C O N S U L T I N G

White Paper

PERSONALITY AT WORK

VERSION 2.0

by

Peter Macqueen
Principal
Compass Consulting

MANAGEMENT
CONSULTANTS

- recruitment
- psychological assessment
- outplacement
- career development

Level 1
47-49 Sherwood Road
Toowong Qld 4066

Phone
(07) 3870 5265
Fax
(07) 3870 5263
Email
admin@compassconsulting.com.au
Web
www.compassconsulting.com.au

August 2008

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PERSONALITY AT WORK

INTRODUCTION

It is now recognised that research into personality was strongly discouraged in the USA for at least two decades (1965 to 1985). Much to the puzzlement and frustration of practitioners (and some academics), there was a tacit understanding that to submit personality based articles to the mainstream journals was a waste of time and effort.

Fortunately, the wheel has turned and as Landy and Conte (2007) note, there is substantial agreement that personality represents an important area of individual differences in the world of work. The popularisation of Emotional Intelligence (see relevant White Paper for details) is just part of this quest for understanding what makes people tick – including ourselves!

In 1965, Guion and Gottier published an influential paper entitled 'Validity of Personality Measures in Personnel Selection' in Personnel Psychology. Their research appeared to conclude that personality variables have minimal systematic relationship to work-related criteria. Nevertheless, the influential US Army sponsored project, Project A, supported the work of earlier researchers and formed the groundwork for the seminal Barrick and Mount (1991) Five Factor Model (FFM) meta-analysis of validities indicating the predictive power of personality with respect to job performance. The FFM taxonomy typically is portrayed as follows:

- Neuroticism / Anxiety
- Extraversion
- Conscientiousness → O.C.E.A.N.
- Agreeableness
- Openness to experiences.

However, the FFM (or Big Five) is not accepted universally. It is better at providing an understanding of the nature of personality at work than it is in producing fine-grained predictions. Some well known psychologists (such as Bob Hogan) claim that five factors are not sufficient. The Hogan model is based on seven factors, splitting Extraversion into Ambition and Sociability, and Openness into Inquisitive and Learning Approach. Others, such as Hough and Oswald (2008), note that there are seemingly important constructs missing. These constructs include locus of control, self esteem, self efficacy, positive affect, and negative affect. However, as often happens in psychology, there is an alternative perspective by others such as Judge and Bono (2001) who claim that these core self-evaluations are synonymous with Neuroticism. Regardless of the 'purity' of the FFM, the significant research findings with regard to the model have managed only limited influence on the design of the personality questionnaires used in personnel selection.

Hough and Oswald (2008) have summarised some of the major personality research findings as described briefly below. Typically, these findings are based upon meta-analyses and as such are comprised of many studies involving at times thousands of participants. This research has produced the following predictive outcomes for personality variables:

Personality and Major Life Outcomes

- Mortality, divorce, and occupational attainment, with correlations higher than those for cognitive ability predictors.
- Conscientiousness and its facets (that is, the sub-components of the dimension) predict health behaviours, drug use, and mortality.
- Alcoholism.

Personality and Performance

- Overall job performance; objective performance in getting ahead.
- Task performance.
- Training performance and learning and skill acquisition.
- Contextual performance such as organisational citizenship, altruism, job dedication, interpersonal facilitation, and generalised compliance.
- Managerial effectiveness, promotion and managerial level.
- Leader emergence and effectiveness as well as transformational leadership.
- Expatriate performance.
- Goal setting and, conversely, procrastination.
- Creativity and innovation.
- Personality based integrity tests predict overall job performance.

Personality and Counter-Productive Work Behaviours

- Counter-productive work behaviour (for example, theft, absenteeism, sabotage).
- Personality based integrity tests predict counter-productive work behaviour.
- Personality based integrity tests predict absenteeism.
- Team performance.
- Getting along and team work.

Personality and Job Satisfaction

- Job and career satisfaction.
- Personality variables are highly correlated with subjective well-being (SWB) with substantial correlations.

Mediated models involving Personality

- The relationship between conscientiousness and learning is mediated by goal commitment.
- Personality variables and work related criteria are affected by motivational and self-regulatory mechanisms.
- Positive emotions moderate stress reactivity and mediate recovery from stress. Over time, positive emotions help people high in psychological resilience effectively recover from daily stress.
- Status striving mediates the relationship between extraversion and sales performance, suggests that high extraverts or high status drivers are better performers.

The observant reader may wonder about the term 'personality based integrity tests'. The next four sections will consider some specific personality based issues that have attracted interest in recent years. The topics to be addressed in this paper include:

- Integrity Tests
- Leadership and Personality
- The 'Dark Side'
- Faking and Personality Tests.

BOX 1 WHAT THE NUMBERS MEAN

Reliability (Accuracy)
A measure of consistency, producing a correlation coefficient ranging from zero to one. Although other factors do need to be considered (for example, sample size and context), reliability coefficients may be evaluated as follows:

⇒ .85 - excellent
⇒ .8 - good
⇒ .7 - reasonable
⇒ .6 - adequate

Validity (Relevance)
A multi-faceted construct with both conceptual and statistical definitions. Tests do not have validities. It is the inferences made, based on the test scores, that have validities. For example, whilst tests of cognitive ability have been shown to be valid predictors of job performance, they are probably not valid predictors of ability to 'benchpress' in the gym!
Predictive and concurrent validities (correlation coefficients), ranging from zero to one, may be evaluated as follows:

⇒ .55 + - excellent
⇒ .45 to .54 - good
⇒ .35 to .44 - reasonable
⇒ .2 to .34 - adequate

NOTES: 1. Some psychometricians argue that a correlation coefficient of .3, even if statistically significant, may be meaningless. Then again, others argue that a predictive validity of .20 may offer 'utility', depending on the situation or context.

2. Percentage of variance (or overlap) between the predictor(s) and the criterion is equal to the square of the correlation coefficient. Thus, for a predictive validity of .6 (excellent), the predictor(s) accounts for 36% of the variance in the criterion.

Source: Adapted from Smith with Smith (2005, pp. 122 & 159).

INTEGRITY TESTS

Although the Big Five provides a very useful framework, it does not obviate the need to consider additional personality measures. Personality scales that assess more than one dimension of the Big Five are referred to as compound personality scales and include integrity tests, customer service scales, drug and alcohol scales, stress tolerance scales, and management potential scales. Integrity tests initially were designed to ascertain the particular likelihood of counter-productive work behaviours. In general, there are two types of such tests:

- Overt: eg. 'I have stolen company property on more than one occasion' (Yes/No), and
- Personality-based: eg 'If given half a chance, nearly all people would steal from their employer' (Strongly Agree through to Strongly Disagree response choices).

Interestingly, this line of research has produced some significant results and is also very effective in predicting managerial performance. Key elements of the Big Five Factors associated with integrity appear to be conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness. A number of these questionnaires have been used for security purposes and safety related matters. (See, for example, Ones and Viswesvaran, 2001.)

Deniz Ones is a prolific writer in the area of integrity tests and associated criterion focused personality tests. Conducting significant meta-analyses, she has formulated the following outcomes:

- The operational validity of integrity tests for productivity (from production records) was .28.
- In predictive studies conducted on job applicants, the operational validity of externally detected counter-productive behaviours was .39 for overt integrity tests and .29 for personality-based integrity tests. (Externally detected broad counter-productive behaviours for these two meta-analyses included violence on the job, absenteeism, tardiness, and disruptive behaviours but excluded theft.)
- In predictive studies conducted on job applicants, the operational validity of the supervisory ratings of overall job performance was .41.

It is also important to take into consideration the notion of 'incremental validity'. For example, cognitive tests are regarded as the single best predictor of job performance (assuming that we know nothing else about the individual) and this has been verified across many meta-analyses in various parts of the world. Schmidt and Hunter (1998) provide a good summary of the research and this topic is discussed in detail in another White Paper. However, the research has also indicated that personality measures can add to the predictive validity of cognitive tests and, in the prediction of overall job performance, integrity tests yield .14 incremental validity points over tests of general mental ability. Incremental validities of other compound personality scales range between .07 and .16. (Ones and Viswesvaran, 2001)

LEADERSHIP AND PERSONALITY

There are countless books and articles endeavouring to tackle the issue of 'Leadership'. Whilst management gurus such as Peter Drucker are not in agreement regarding the phenomenon of leadership (versus management), the leadership 'movement' has prompted much research and writing. This brief introduction to personality and leadership is not intended to cover leadership models, leadership development, or leadership strategies. However, the broader literature provides a very important canvass on which to consider personality factors.

Warren Bennis, a highly respected organisational theorist and writer, cites Michael (1982) (see Bennis and Nanus, 1985) in a book titled: 'Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge'. In it he notes the need for successful leaders to develop a new set of skills – the new competence:

- Acknowledging and sharing uncertainty
- Embracing error
- Responding to the future *(How about anticipating the future as well – my comment)*
- Becoming interpersonally competent (ie. listening, nurturing, coping with value conflicts, etc)
- Gaining self-knowledge.

More recent authors have taken these elements further and brought the term 'competencies' into the limelight. For example, Table 1 on the next page provides a useful framework for considering the necessary competencies for effective leadership:

Table 1:
Leadership Imperatives and Representative Competencies

Imperative	Issues	Representative Competencies
Cognitive	Complex information processing	Strategic decision making
	Organizational sense making	Establishing strategic direction
		Global business acumen
Social	Coordinating multiple units	Change leadership
	Implementing organization change	Visionary leadership
	Developing large networks	Building organization relationship
		Communication
Personal	Managing career and reputation	Executive disposition
	Reflecting personal values	Valuing diversity
		Building trust
Political	Building coalitions	Building business partnerships
	Persuading	Sales ability, persuasiveness
	Resolving conflicts	Managing conflict
Technological	Using technology in systems	Technical and professional knowledge
	Considering technology in strategies	Information monitoring
Financial	Strategic and short-term gains	Financial acumen
		Marketing and entrepreneurial insight
Staff	Building future leaders	Attracting and developing talent

Source: Howard, A. Identifying, Assessing, and Selecting Senior Leaders in Zaccaro, SJ and Klimoski, RJ (Eds) (2001), P311.

Bartram (2005) has developed an eight dimensional generic competency framework, relevant to the world of work. Instead of focusing upon the predictors (for example, the personality questionnaire or a set of ability tests) Bartram emphasised the need to focus on the criterion domain. The 'Great Eight' includes the following:

Leading / Deciding	Creating / Conceptualising
Supporting / Co-operating	Organising / Executing
Interacting / Presenting	Adapting / Coping
Analysing / Interpreting	Enterprising / Performing

Bartram's meta-analytic review noted that ability tests correlated with four of the eight competencies, and together ability and personality yielded operational abilities ranging from .20 to .44 on the eight competencies. These are solid results and provide support for matching the specificity of the predictors with the specificity of the criteria.

It is probably appropriate at this time to consider a clear divide in leadership research. There has been a long running debate regarding the notion of the 'great man' (with specific qualities or traits) versus the notion of the importance of the 'situation' or environment. The trait approach to defining leadership effectiveness has been described as too simplistic by well known managerial theorists such as Conger and Kanungo (1998). Nevertheless, Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt (2002) reviewed previous studies that had focused on the traits of effective or emergent leaders. The lack of appropriate structure which described personality meant that there were a wide range of traits being investigated under different labels. Nevertheless, the qualitative review of Judge et al (2002) did point to the importance of key factors such as adjustment and self-confidence.

We now consider leadership and personality using the Five Factor Framework, as it is worthwhile to refer back to the study by Judge et al (2002) where leadership (as measured by others' rankings, ratings, or nominations) were found to be positively correlated with:

- Extraversion (.31)
- Openness to experience (.24)
- Conscientiousness (.28)

But negatively correlated with:

- Neuroticism/Anxiety (-.24)

In other words, effective leaders are likely to be:

- sociable, outgoing, people orientated
- forward looking and change orientated
- diligent

but are unlikely to lack confidence and self-assurance or be tense and anxious.

However, a study by Shao and Webber (2006), using a sample of Chinese students (alumni of executive programs), found Extraversion to be a negative predictor of transformational leadership. Nicholson (1998), in studying personalities of Chief Executives of leading UK independent companies, found that leaders demonstrated significantly higher levels of Extraversion and Conscientiousness and lower levels of Neuroticism and Agreeableness compared with the general population norms.

The issue of Agreeableness being less important for leaders is a moot point as in order to 'reach the top' it would be necessary to display at least a modicum of this quality. An interesting paper (Personality and CWB: narrowing the profile of deviant employees, by Lisa Penney of University of Houston) presented at the 2008 SIOP Conference demonstrated that 'Conscientiousness' is not always good. Individuals high on this construct, but low on Emotional stability and Agreeableness, were more likely to display 'interpersonal deviance'. Whilst intuitively many practitioners have been aware of this phenomenon (that rule bound and inflexible work colleagues who are lacking in emotional control and concern for others are abrasive, intolerant and unreasonable), it is good to see research confirming our thoughts. Moreover, research from New Zealand and the USA has found that those who prefer a more participative managerial style score high on Agreeableness and Openness. Certainly it appears that culture (national as well as organisational) will play a big part in determining what are the desirable personality characteristics for an effective leader. This raises the whole issue of person-organisation fit as opposed to just person-job fit.

It has also been argued by some that personality plays an increasingly important part in the prediction of leader effectiveness at more senior levels within an organisation. It can be argued that as an individual rises to very senior ranks within an organisation, they have an opportunity for greater personal latitude in terms of their behaviour (at least on a short-term basis) and thus their 'personality' is less constrained by organisational rules and demands. *In fact, Kaiser and Hogan (2007) suggest that personality is the most important factor in explaining the individual differences between leaders and have noted that the validity of personality as a predictor of leadership is greater than that of cognitive ability (eg. Judge, Ilies, and Colbert, 2004).*

In a somewhat different twist with regard to leadership, Zhao and Seibert (2006), in studying personality and entrepreneurial status, found that entrepreneurs scored higher in Conscientiousness and Openness and lower in Agreeableness and Neuroticism than did managers. Entrepreneurs are more likely to explore opportunities, take risks, and put people offside, but need to be disciplined and focused. Interestingly, entrepreneurs may be good at starting a business, but may lack the qualities or skills to be good leaders (and managers).

The issue of personality and leadership appears to be very much under-developed compared to the attention given to predicting overall job performance of subordinates. Given the prominence of significant organisational failures (attributed to the failure of the leaders) in recent years, this may need to change.

The next section will now take the issue of personality and leadership one step further by considering what is known as the 'dark side' of personality.

THE DARK SIDE OF PERSONALITY

A recent paper by Terry Leap (2008) appearing in the MIT Sloan Management Review leads with 'When bad people rise to the top' as the title of the paper. He states that 'Surprisingly often, executives with impressive track records are mysteriously transformed into corrupt and tyrannical monsters once they become CEOs' (page 23). Popular and academic articles examining this theme are now in vogue. Books which address psychopathy include titles such as:

- 'Without Conscience: The Disturbing World of the Psychopaths Amongst Us' (Hare, 1993)
- 'The Psychopath: Emotion in the Brain' (Blair, Mitchell, and Blair, 2005) and
- 'Snakes in Suits: When Psychopaths Go To Work' (Babiak and Hare, 2006)

Of course, there are numerous examples in Australia, and in other parts of the world, with regard to not just leadership and (in) competence but what has become known as the exhibition of 'dark side' characteristics or pyschopathy.

Kaiser, Hogan and Craig (2008) refer to a number of studies related to executive 'over confidence' or arrogance. They noted studies using different methodologies have found that arrogant CEOs are more likely to make risky acquisitions and pay more for them than their market value. Furthermore, Chatterjee and Hamrick (2007) conclude that arrogant CEOs also change strategy more frequently, make increasingly expensive acquisitions, and produce less consistent results.

A useful framework for considering the dark side is through the use of instruments such as the Hogan Development Survey (Hogan and Hogan, 1997). This questionnaire contains one hundred and fifty (150) items scored for eleven (11) scales, each containing fourteen (14) items. While Hogan's mainstream questionnaire (Hogan Personality Inventory) focuses more on the bright side, the HDS focuses on the dark side and can be aligned with the personality disorders within the DSM-IV typology of the American Psychiatric Association. The HDS themes are as follows:

. Excitable	. Leisurely	. Diligent
. Sceptical	. Bold	. Dutiful
. Cautious	. Mischievous	. Imaginative
. Reserved	. Colorful	

For example, someone gaining an extremely high score on the 'Bold' dimension could be considered narcissistic in terms of being unusually self-confident, having feelings of grandiosity or entitlement and an over-valuation of their capabilities. On the other hand, someone with a very strong 'Mischievous' score could be considered anti-social, being manipulative, deceitful and exploitative.

Of course, pyschopathy is not limited to certain organisational leaders, politicians or dictators. Characters such as Iago (Shakespeare's play, Othello) may be considered anti-social whereas Richard III may be considered narcissistic and anti-social.

This raises the issue of the charismatic leader who creates a very good impression, but who does not really deliver and who creates significant problems for the organisation and work colleagues.

The existence of narcissism at a senior level has prompted authors such as Berglas (2002) to comment upon the perils of behavioural-based coaching whereby coaching may enhance a sense of grandiosity within the coachee.

Babiak and Hare (2006) offer some practical suggestions when confronted with a psychopath within one's organisation. Apart from the clear advice not to label an individual as a psychopath, their suggestions are summarised in Box 2 below.

BOX 2 DEALING WITH A PSYCHOPATH

Handling a 'Psychopathic' Boss:

⇒ Build and maintain reputation as a good performer
⇒ Put it in writing
⇒ Avoid confrontations
⇒ Make a formal complaint
⇒ Leave on your own terms
⇒ Make good use of your performance appraisal
⇒ Get on with your life and your career

Handling a 'Psychopathic' Co-worker:

⇒ Consider reporting abusive behaviour
⇒ Consider leaving

Handling a 'Psychopathic' Subordinate:

⇒ Continuously improve your leadership and management skills
⇒ Build and maintain rapport with your staff
⇒ Build and maintain a strong relationship with your boss
⇒ Keep good notes and documents
⇒ Use your company performance management process
⇒ Seek advice from Human Resources

Handling a 'Psychopath' as a Client:

⇒ Get paid up front
⇒ Be very careful about boundaries
⇒ Remain in charge
⇒ Check everything out
⇒ Be alert to distortions and gaps
⇒ Be aware of the tings that go awry – you will become the enemy
⇒ Keep copious notes on everything

The existence of 'toxic' bosses raises the question of why they are so prevalent. There are probably three answers:

1. Toxic bosses still can have some significant strengths, and their potential weaknesses may be overlooked.
2. There is a clear issue of inappropriate selection practices.
3. Characteristics may well be quite dormant, and probably related to the first two reasons.

Problems may not emerge not until certain situational factors or triggers are activated. As the latitude of action expands (for example, through job promotion) and as these external forces increase, these dark side characteristics are more likely to emerge.

PERSONALITY TESTS AND 'FAKING'

Despite generally being supported as effective tools for personnel selection, personality measures have been criticised because of their susceptibility to being 'faked' by motivated applicants who are able to determine the 'right' or 'most positive' answer to each question (Morgeson, F.P., Campion, M.A., Dipboye, R.L., Hollenbeck, J.R., Murphy, K., and Schmitt, N. (2007). This is in direct contrast to cognitive ability tests, where it is impossible for candidates to fake the right answer despite their being motivated to do so.

The phenomenon of 'faking good' on personality measures has been investigated using a variety of terms including response dissimulation, impression management, social desirability, unlikely virtues, self-enhancement and self-presentation. Whilst each of these terms has its own unique definition, they all incorporate the candidate practice of modifying scores on personality measures during motivated applicant conditions (Griffith and McDaniel, 2006).

Research on 'faking good' has been conducted along three lines of inquiry (Rees and Metcalfe, 2003). The first line of inquiry is whether it is possible for applicants to fake good on personality questionnaire results when *told* to do so. It has been found that when respondents are directed to follow generalised fake good instructions (Barrick and Mount, 1996) and role-specific fake good instructions, they are able to distort their responses on personality measures in the socially desirable direction (Tett, R.P., Anderson, M.G., Ho, C.L., Yang, T.S., Huang, L., and Hanvongse, A., 2006).

Viswesvaran and Ones (1999) meta-analysed studies comparing the mean responses of individuals in fake-good and honest conditions on personality measures categorised into one of the Big Five dimensions and found that, when instructed, individuals were able to increase their scores by nearly one-half standard deviation.
However, whilst researchers agree that personality measures are able to be faked, there is debate regarding the prevalence of this in real-world settings (Davies, Norris, Turner and Wadlington, 2005). In an effort to address whether faking occurs in 'real world' situations, a second research paradigm is employed.

The second research paradigm for examining faking on personality measures in selection situations involves the *comparison of applicant and non-applicant responses* on a specific personality measure (Ellingson, Sackett and Connelly, 2007). This paradigm attempts to answer the second line of inquiry into faking: whether people intentionally fake. A growing number of studies employing this research paradigm reveal faking does in fact occur during employment settings (Tett et al., 2006; Hough and Furnham, 2003). Hough (1998) found mean effect sizes from 0.04 to 0.56 between applicants and incumbents across multiple personality measures in three studies. These differences are solid and it is clear that individuals are able to 'fake' personality measures during selection situations, and that a substantial number of individuals involved in 'real world' situations do fake.

Whilst researchers agree that personality measures can be faked, they disagree on the effects of the distortion on the validity of personality measures. The third line of inquiry addresses this concern. The majority of studies attempting to address this issue use one of three research designs, each of which involves *comparisons between two groups:*

- respondents directed to fake good rather than respond honestly
- respondents high versus low on impression management tendencies
- applicants versus non-applicants (Tett et al., 2006).

Several researchers have argued that faking does not decrease criterion-related validity coefficients (Mueller-Hansen, Heggestad and Thornton, 2003; Ones, Dilchert, Viswesvaran, and Judge, 2007; Barrick and Mount, 1996; Tett et al., 2006). In addition, efforts made to control for the effects of socially desirable responding have resulted in either no effect, or the attenuation of criterion-related validity (Barrick and Mount, 1996; Christiansen, Goffin, Johnston and Rothstein, 1994; Mueller-Hansen et al., 2003). These findings have resulted in some researchers concluding that faking is not a major issue in selection situations (Ones et al, 2007; Hogan, Hogan and Roberts, 1996).

Conversely, other researchers suggest that faking may have a marked influence on selection decisions in employment contexts (Morgeson et al., 2007), and that even modest applicant faking has a pronounced influence on these decisions, reducing selection utility (Morgeson et al., 2007; Weiner and Gibson, 2000). Individual differences in applicants willingness to fake increases these effects (Griffith, Chmielowski, Snell, Frei and McDaniel, 2000), with individuals faking excessively likely to score very high (Rosse, Stecher, Miller and Levin, 1998). Consequently, when only a relatively small number of successful appointees from the applicant pool are needed, those who fake have an advantage over those who are honest, possibly comprising the majority of individuals employed (Mueller-Hanson et al., 2003).

The above provides an overview of the research literature. This is a topic which keeps appearing at significant Organisational Psychology conferences globally. Practitioners need to deal with client and candidate concerns about individuals misrepresenting themselves, either through deliberate distortion or through the existence of blind spots. However the same applies to interviews and other self presentation methods. As personality assessment and research become more sophisticated, we are hoping to unravel the phenomenon of 'faking'. This may well be needed as we witness the growing emergence of publications such as 'Ace the Corporate Personality Test' (Hoffman, 2001) – a book readily available and designed to help people present themselves in a different light.

CONCLUSION

There is a wealth of solid research indicating that personality is an important predictor of work-based criteria. Despite the criticisms of individuals such as Robert Spillane (see, for example, Spillane and Martin, 2005), the evidence is compelling. Furthermore, it should not be considered just a western phenomenon. A recent article published by Chuchai Smithikrai (2007) examined the predictive power of each facet of the FFM on job success in a Thai sample that consisted of 2,518 people from 7 occupations. The research found that Neuroticism/Anxiety was significantly negatively correlated with job success, while Extraversion and Conscientiousness were significantly positively correlated with job success. Conscientiousness was a significant predictor of job success for 6 of the 7 occupations. Extraversion was a significant predictor for success in jobs with significant interpersonal contact. Not surprisingly, the 'winner' was that of Extraversion and its association with success in sales.

We will never achieve highly predictive measures using broad predictors (eg. Extraversion), broad criteria (eg. job success), and broad occupational groupings (eg. Salesperson). Let us take sales as an example. There is a vast difference between a salesperson required to cold call, apply 'spin' and look for a quick hit versus the salesperson required to sell (or influence) where there is a premium placed on long-term relationships, follow up, and perhaps team work. However, the greater the congruency between the predictor and the criterion in terms of breadth or specificity, the higher the anticipated correlation.

The field is still ripe for further research, with several themes of interest attracting both academics and practitioners. While some of these themes have been canvassed in this White Paper, other issues of interest include the following:

- Does personality become a more important predictor of performance once a person has moved through the early or transition stages within a new position? In the early stages, cognitive abilities are likely to be quite predictive.
- Individuals such as Bob Hogan (Hogan, 2005) have stressed that behaviours are determined by both environmental and individual factors. It is likely that the context could affect the magnitude of the predictive validities for personality.
- Are linear relationships the best way of undertaking the research and in conducting the analyses? Could it be that there is 'too much of a good thing'? For example, Conscientiousness is the best single predictor of performance across a broad range of jobs, yet individuals with a very strong level of Conscientiousness may be rigid, rule bound, and lacking in creative qualities. Such an individual may prove a frustrating work colleague in a number of contexts, finding it difficult to quickly change their priorities and focus.
- Much of the research to date has been based on what is known as Classical Test Theory (CTT). The increasing use of Item Response Theory (IRT), particularly with respect to the development of adaptive cognitive tests, has

prompted consideration of using IRT in modelling the personality domain. There are issues associated with the use of IRT in relation to personality (as opposed to cognitive) tests but there is optimism that greater insight into personality traits and 'faking' on tests can be developed through use of appropriate IRT models. (Zickar, 2001)

- As research becomes more sophisticated and perhaps as greater liaison between academics and practitioners is generated, we may find ways to explore compound traits that yield greater validity. Compound traits already have been discussed in the context of Integrity Tests.

Perhaps it is appropriate to finish with two quotes from the recent literature:

> *"The accumulated evidence supports the use of self-report personality scales in organizational decision making, including personnel selection."*
> (Ones et al, 2007, p. 1010).

> *"…psychologists neither ignore nor deny the importance of situational factors on work-related behaviours. People who work with poor equipment, in a declining industry with dysfunctional supervision and uncompetitive pay are likely to be poor performers, whatever their profile. Equally, a well-managed company can get the best out of its workers. What trait psychologists do want, however, is the recognition that there are obvious, robust and meaningful differences between workers' attitudes and behaviour, which can be explained and predicted."*
> (Furnham, 2008, p. 140).

REFERENCES

Babiak, P., & Hare, R.D. (2006). *Snakes in suits: When psychopaths go to work.* New York: Harper Collins.

Barrick, M.R., & Mount, M.K. (1991). The big five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 44, 1 – 26.

Barrick, M.R., & Mount, M.K. (1996). Effects of impression management and self deception on the predictive validity of personality constructs. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81* (3), 261-272.

Bartram, D. (2005). The great eight competencies: A criterion-centric approach to validation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 1185 – 1203.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge.* New York: Harper & Row.

Berglas, S. (2002). The very real dangers of executive coaching. *Harvard Business Review*, 80 (6), 86 – 92.

Blair, J., Mitchell, D., & Blair, K. (2005). *The psychopath: Enstein and the brain.* Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Chatterjee, A., & Hambrick, D.C. (2007). It's all about me: Narcissistic CEOs and their effects on company strategy and performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 52 (3), 351 – 386.

Christiansen, N.D., Goffin, R.D., Johnston, N.G., & Rothstein, M.G. (1994). Correcting the 16PF for faking: Effects on criterion-related validity and individual hiring decisions. *Personnel Psychology*, 47, 847-860.

Conger, J.A., & Kanungo, R.N. (1998). *Charismatic leadership in organisations.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Davies, S., Norris, D., Turner, J., & Wadlington, P (2005). *Cheating, guessing, faking and self-presentation in assessment responses.* Paper presented at the 20th Annual SIOP Conference, Los Angeles.

Ellingson, J.E., Sackett, P.R., & Connelly, B.S (2007). Personality assessment across selection and development contexts: Insights into response distortion. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92* (2), 386-395.

Furnham, A. (2008). *Personality and intelligence at work: Exploring and explaining individual differences at work.* New York: Routledge.

Griffith, R.L., Chmielowski, T.S., Snell, A.F., Frei, R.L., & McDaniel, M.A. (2000). *Does faking matter? An examination of rank order changes in applicant data.* Paper presented at the 15th Annual SIOP Conference, New Orleans.

Griffith, R., & McDaniel, M. (2006). The nature of deception and applicant faking behaviour. In R. Griffith & M. McDaniel (Eds.), *A Closer Examination of Applicant Faking Behaviour* (pp. 1-19).Connecticut: Information Age Publishing.

Guion, R.M., & Gottier, R.F. (1965). Validity of personality measures in selection. *Personnel Psychology*, 18, 135 – 164.

Hare, R.D. (1993). Without conscience: The disturbing world of the psychopaths among us. New York: The Guildford Press.

Hoffman, E. (2001). Ace the corporate personality test. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Hogan, R. (2005). In defense of personality measurement: New wine for old whiners. *Human Performance*, 18, 331 – 341.

Hogan, R., & Hogan, J. (1997). Hogan Development Survey Manual. Tulsa, OK: Hogan Assessment Systems.

Hogan, R., Hogan, J., & Roberts, B.W. (1996). Personality measurement and employment decisions: Questions and answers. *American Psychologist, 51,* 469-477.

Hough, L.M. (1998). Effects of intentional distortion in personality measurement and evaluation of suggested palliatives. *Human Performance, 11,* 209-244.

Hough, L.M., & Furnam, A. (2003). Use of personality variables in work settings. In W. Borman, D. Ilgen & R Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology: Industrial and organisational psychology* (Vol 12, pp. 131-169). Hoboken, NY: Wiley.

Hough, L.M., & Oswald, F.L. (2008). Personality testing and I-O psychology: Asking questions, offering answers, discussing unknowns, and providing direction. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 1 (3).

Howard, A. (2001). Identifying, assessing, and selecting senior leaders. In S.J. Zaccaro & R.J. Klimoski (Eds.) *The nature of organizational leadership: Undertaking the performance imperative confronting today's leaders.* (pp 305 – 346). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Judge, T.A., & Bono, J.E. (2001). A rose by any other name: Are self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism, and locus of control indicators of a common construct? *Personality psychology in the workplace*, (pp 93 – 118). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Judge, T.A., Bono, J.E., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M.W. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87 (4), 765 – 780.

Judge, T.A., Ilies, R., & Colbert, A.E. (2004). Intelligence and leadership: A quantitative review and test of theoretical propositions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 542 – 552.

Kaiser, R.B., & Hogan, R. (2007). *The dark side of discretion.* In J. Hunt (Series Ed.) & R. Hooijberg, J. Hunt, J. Antonakis, K. Boat, & N. Lane (Vol Eds.), *Monographs in leadership and management: Vol. 4. Being there even when you are not: Leading through strategy, systems and structure* (pp. 173 – 193). Oxford, England: JAI Press.

Kaiser, R.B., Hogan, R., & Craig, S.B. (2008). Leadership and the fate of organizations. *American Psychologist*, 63 (2), 96 – 100.

Landy, F.J., & Conte, J.M. (2007). *Work in the 21st century: An introduction to industrial and organizational psychology* (2nd Ed). Malden, M.A.: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Leap, T. (2008). When bad people rise to the top. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 49 (2), 23 – 27.

Michael, D.N. (1982). Planning – and learning from it. In J.M. Richardson, Jr. (Ed.), *Making it happen* (pp 175 – 180). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Association for the Club of Rome.

Morgeson, F.P., Campion, M.A., Dipboye, R.L., Hollenbeck, J.R., Murphy, K., & Schmitt, N. (2007). Reconsidering the use of personality tests in personnel selection contexts. *Personnel Psychology*, 60, 683-729.

Mueller-Hanson, R., Heggestad, E.D., & Thornton, G.C. (2003). Faking and selection: Considering the use of personality from select-in and select-out perspectives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 348-355.

Nicholson, N. (1998). Personality and entrepreneurial leadership: A study of the heads of the UK's most successful independent companies. *European Management Journal*, 16, 529 – 539.

Ones, D.S., Dilchert, S., Viswesvaran, C., & Judge, T.A. (2007). In support of personality assessment in organizational settings. *Personnel Psychology*, 60 (4), 995 – 1027.

Ones, D.S. & Viswesvaran, C. (2001). Integrity tests and other criterion-focused occupational personality scales (COPS) used in personnel selection. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 9, 31 – 39.

Rees, C.J., & Metcalfe, B. (2003). The faking of personality questionnaire results: Who's kidding whom? *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18, 156-165.

Rosse, J.G., Stecher, M.D., Miller, J.L., & Levin, R.A. (1998). The impact of response distortion on preemployment personality testing and hiring decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, (4), 634-644.

Schmidt, F.L., & Hunter, J.E. (1998). The validity and utility of selection methods in personnel psychology: Practical and theoretical implications of 85 years of research findings. *Psychological Bulletin,* 124 (2), 262 – 274.

Shao, L., & Weber, S. (2006). A cross-cultural test of the "five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership". *Journal of Business Research*, 59, 936 – 944.

Smith, M. with Smith, P. (2005). *Testing people at work: Competencies in psychometric testing.* Oxford: BPS Blackwell.

Smithikari, C. (2007). Personality traits and job successes: An investigation in a Thai sample. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 15 (1), 134 – 138.

Spillane, R., & Martin, J. (2005). *Personality and performance foundations for managerial psychology*. Sydney: UNSW Press.

Tett, R.P., Anderson, M.G., Ho, C.L., Yang, T.S., Huang, L., & Hanvongse, A. (2006). Seven nested questions about faking on personality tests. In R. Griffith & M. McDaniel (Eds.), *A closer examination of applicant faking behaviour* (pp. 43-83).Connecticut: Information Age Publishing.

Viswesvaran, C., & Ones, D.S. (1999). Meta-analysis of fakability estimates: Implications for personality measurement. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 59, 197-210.

Zhao, H., & Seibert, S.E. (2006). The big five personality dimensions and entrepreneurial status: A meta-analytical review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 259 – 271.

Zickar, M.J. (2001). Conquering the next frontier: Modeling personality data with item response theory. In B.W. Roberts & R. Hogan (Eds.), *Personality psychology in the workplace*, (pp 141 – 160). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Peter Macqueen, Principal of Compass Consulting, has over 20 years experience in Management Consulting. He is a Registered Psychologist and a Member of the College of Organisational Psychologists (Australian Psychological Society). He is also a Member or Foreign Affiliate of several overseas organisations: British Psychological Society; American Psychological Association; International Association of Applied Psychologists; International Test Commission and Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. He is a Fellow of the Institute of Management Consultants and an Associate Fellow of the Australian Human Resources Institute.

Peter has lectured in Psychological Assessment to postgraduate students at Griffith University. He has served as Secretary on the Qld Committee of the Board (now College) of Organisational Psychologists. Peter was also a member of a six person standing sub-committee of the National Committee charged with reviewing Psychological Testing and Assessment in Australia.

Acknowledgement is given to Tashaal Green (Griffith University Doctoral Student) for the section: Personality Tests and 'Faking'.