



**The Masked Employee and False
Performance: Detecting unethical
behaviour and investigating its effects
on work relationships**

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Declaration

I declare that I have NOT been a registered candidate, or enrolled student, for another award of an academic or professional institution.

I declare that NO material contained in my thesis has been used for any other submission for an academic award.

I declare that I have NOT been employed by the University of Worcester during the period of registration for my research degree.

I declare that the contribution claimed in my thesis is original and a result of my own work. Wherever contributions of others are involved, this is clearly acknowledged and referenced. Where I have quoted from work of others, the source is always given. With exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work.

Marie Dunnion

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Just as I appreciate those who have enriched my work, I hope that others can use the knowledge contained here within to enhance their lives in some significant respect. We are all connected and this thesis is my contribution to the permanent mosaic...

“Every act, thought, and choice adds to a permanent mosaic; our decisions ripple through the universe of consciousness to affect the lives of all. Every act or decision made that supports life supports all life, including one’s own” – (Hawkins, 2005, p. 259).

Abstract

The Masked Employee and False Performance: Detecting unethical behaviour and investigating its effects on work relationships

This thesis was undertaken to investigate a specific type of unethical behaviour in the workplace within the context of the United Kingdom (UK) public sector. The main research aim was to develop an understanding of how to detect false performers. Parnell and Singer (2001) proposed the construct of False Performance (FP) when developing the Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS) to measure organisational charlatanism (OC). According to their definition, false performers are those individuals who seek to improve their perceived performance at the expense of their actual performance. This type of employee deliberately portrays themselves as being better able to perform in a job role than they know themselves to be capable of.

In the current study, the phenomenon of FP was explored in two phases using a sequential, mixed methods approach. The present research sought to address the gaps in the literature by extending previous quantitative efforts and carrying out the first qualitative study in this area. In the first qualitative phase, eight focus groups (n=51) were conducted, and grounded theory was used to analyse the data and generate theory. Management and Non-Management were questioned about their perceptions and experiences of FP, especially relating to the job interview and the performance appraisal interview. The intention was not to identify false performers in the focus groups, but rather to extract themes and patterns of FP behaviour. Results identified five categories common to both Management and Non-Management: Perceptions of FP in the Workplace; FP in the Interview; Does Trust Really Matter to the False Performer?; The Effect of FP on Co-Worker Morale; and Tackling FP in the Workplace.

In the second phase, the qualitative results were used to inform the quantitative study. The focus group data helped to generate items for the development of a new measure of FP i.e. the False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ). To achieve the objective of producing a reliable new instrument, the FPQ was systematically developed in six stages, concluding with two phases of questionnaire administration. Using an item analytic and factor analytic approach, the FPQ was distributed in two phases (stages 5 and 6) in order to refine the item set. In stage 5, a 53-item version of the FPQ was tested on a sample of 129 employees in three public sector organisations. In stage 6, the FPQ was further refined and a 21-item FPQ was administered to a sample of 219 employees in four public sector organisations.

Following exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, a final 16-item solution with two subscales was found to have good reliability ($\alpha=0.76$). In contrast, the nine-item OCS was found to demonstrate relatively low reliability ($\alpha=0.55$). These findings indicate that the current study has generated a more robust and reliable measure of FP, thus achieving the overall objective of developing a new measure of FP i.e. the 16-item FPQ. As regression analyses revealed a significant but negative beta for job performance as a predictor of FP ($\beta=-.159$, $p<0.05$), this indicates that the lower the job performance, the higher the score on the FPQ, thus suggesting that employees rating highly in FP are likely to be substituting FP for job performance. Whilst FP was negatively and significantly correlated with job performance, no significant correlation was found between the Impression Management (IM) scale and the job performance scale. This suggests that whilst an IM score reveals little about actual job performance, a score on the FPQ could help predict future job performance.

The thesis concludes by considering the future applications and practical implications of this research, which include: a) An increased understanding of how to detect FP in the workplace; b) Better selection processes; c) Fairer performance evaluation processes; and d) A more ethical work environment characterised by improved trust among co-workers.

Chapter 1

Introduction

“It is probably no mere historical accident that the word person, in its first meaning, is a mask. It is rather a recognition of the fact that everyone is always and everywhere, more or less consciously, playing a role...It is in these roles that we know each other; it is in these roles that we know ourselves.”

(Park, 1950, p. 249)

1.1 Introduction to the False Performance Research

The current study has been undertaken to investigate the relatively new construct of False Performance (FP) in the United Kingdom (UK) public sector. There has been scant research into this phenomenon, so the current study seeks to address the gap in the literature by extending previous quantitative efforts (e.g. Parnell & Singer, 2001) and conducting the first qualitative study in this area. The literature describes FP as a form of work behaviour which involves employees disguising their incompetence by engaging in a series of self-promotional techniques. It is this “masked employee” who forms the focus of the present investigation. Parnell and Singer first proposed the construct of FP when developing the Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS) to measure organisational charlatanism (OC). They coined the term “organisational charlatan” to define those “individuals who seek to improve their perceived performance at the expense of their actual performance” (Parnell & Singer, 2001, p. 441). This type of employee deliberately portrays themselves as being better able to perform in a job role than they know themselves to be capable of. Parnell and Singer produced a nine-item instrument for measuring FP, with previous efforts having mainly relied on training individuals to recognise such behaviours. The OCS which they developed consists of nine items e.g. “It’s more important to look busy than to be busy” and “I try to dress better when I’m going to be seen by key organisational decision makers.” Following on from Parnell and Singer’s study, subsequent research into FP (e.g. Gbadamosi, 2006; Gbadamosi, Ndaba, & Oni, 2007) has used the more neutral, but synonymous, term of “false performer” to refer to the “organisational charlatan.” The current study will adopt this newer and more objective terminology in its investigation of FP.

Parnell and Singer (2001) maintain that the OCS can support Human Resources (HR) decision-making by providing managers with a tool for assessing employees’ tendencies towards FP behaviour. The job interview is one important setting in which an enhanced knowledge of FP could be utilised by HR. Although previous research has not investigated the practice of FP in the job interview, impression management (IM) studies indicate that self-promotion techniques are very likely to feature during a job interview. Previous research (e.g. Ellis, West, Ryan, & DeShon, 2002) has also shown that IM behaviours have a significant effect on performance appraisal ratings. Similarly, in administering the OCS, Parnell and Singer found positive and significant correlations between management evaluations and the OCS factor scores. These results suggest that management evaluations improve when subordinates place a greater emphasis on maximising their image and doing what they believe is expected within the organisation. This supports the notion that FP has a positive effect on subjective performance evaluations, such as those made in the job interview and the performance appraisal interview.

In order to clarify the concept of FP, Parnell and Singer (2001) underline the relationship between FP and other related phenomena. For instance, they review literature relating to ingratiation and IM, whilst explaining that FP is “is related to but not synonymous with impression management and ingratiation” (Parnell & Singer, 2001, p. 441). Based on Parnell and Singer’s description of the relationship between FP and IM, the current study treats FP as a sub-set of IM. That is, the current study regards FP as related to IM, but also as conceptually distinct. Since the work of Parnell and Singer, there has been very little research into FP, but two key studies (Gbadamosi, 2006; Gbadamosi et al., 2007) have provided further evidence for the construct of FP, as well as produced results to clarify the relationship between FP and several variables identified as likely predictors of FP. For example, in subsequent research, Gbadamosi et al. found an inverse and significant relationship between FP and trust in management, a result which implies that employees with low trust in management could be more likely to false perform in the workplace. This led Gbadamosi et al. to recommend that future research explore trust in management, as well as co-worker trust. They emphasise that the latter is especially critical because false performers seem more easily identifiable by co-workers.

Following on from the work of Parnell and Singer (2001), the present study seeks to gain further support for the construct of FP by conducting mixed methods research (MMR) in UK public sector organisations. MMR is defined “as the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17). The current study seeks to extend the work of Parnell and Singer for several reasons. In constructing the OCS, Parnell and Singer sought “a critical balance between adequate domain sampling and parsimony” (p. 445). As a result, they designed the OCS as a “fairly short measure” (Parnell & Singer, 2001, p. 445) in an effort to minimise response and fatigue bias. However, it should be noted that, generally, ten items is considered the absolute minimum for a reliable scale in psychological testing (Kline, 1993). As the nine-item OCS falls slightly short of the absolute minimum, it is potentially inadequate in its measurement of FP. It is possible that the brevity of the scale may have come at the expense of producing an instrument which fully measures FP. Furthermore, Parnell and Singer explain that in order to generate items for the OCS, “an exhaustive set of 92 items believed to reflect attitudinal dimensions of OC were proposed by the researchers” (p. 445). As such, the items which make up the OCS reflect only the researchers’ subjective perceptions of OC. In contrast, the current study will generate an exhaustive set of items based on the input of Management and Non-Management employees drawn from a variety of public sector organisations.

In the first phase of the current study, focus group methodology will be employed and rich qualitative data will be gathered for the purpose of contributing a truly original perspective to the subject area of FP. Analysis of this data, using grounded theory, will help to identify a wide range of behaviours comprising FP, and this will assist in verifying whether the existing items in the OCS appropriately measure FP. The focus group study will also assist in developing the definition of FP and gaining further support for the construct of FP. The focus groups will also be used to examine how FP is likely to manifest during the job interview process and in performance appraisal interviews, something which previous FP research has not investigated. Furthermore, as trust has been shown to have a significant relationship to FP (e.g. Gbadamosi et al., 2007), the focus group discussions will explore how FP interacts with trust in management and trust in co-workers. As the literature (e.g. Gbadamosi et al., 2007) suggests that FP is probably more recognisable by co-workers, the present study will also examine how FP affects relationships in the workplace.

During the second quantitative phase of the study, focus group data will be used to generate items for the construction of a new measure of FP i.e. the False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ). The questionnaire will be distributed in two separate phases in order to refine and develop the new FPQ item set. In both phases, the questionnaire will be circulated to employees in public sector organisations, and the findings will be collated with the qualitative results in order to present a final discussion and conclusion.

The current study aims to achieve the following objectives in order to enhance knowledge and understanding of FP.

1.2 Research Objectives

The overall aim of the research is to investigate FP as an unethical behaviour in UK public sector organisations and to develop a measure to identify false performers i.e. those individuals who seek to improve their perceived performance at the expense of their actual performance (Parnell & Singer, 2001).

The overall aim of the research will be achieved through meeting the following specific objectives:

1. Review the existing literature relating to FP and associated concepts, such as impression management (IM) and counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs). Clarify conceptual issues regarding the construct and definition of FP.

2. Enhance understanding of how FP operates and affects people in the workplace by employing focus group methodology to explore FP in a variety of public sector organisations. Specifically research: a) The role of FP in job interviews; b) The role of FP in performance appraisal interviews; c) Job performance; d) Work relationships; e) Trust in management; and f) Trust in co-workers.
3. Develop a new instrument to measure FP i.e. the False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ). Qualitative data will be used to write items for inclusion in the FPQ. In this way, the current study will expand on the existing research (e.g. Parnell & Singer, 2001) by generating the items necessary to produce a more comprehensive scale than the existing nine-item Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS).
4. Pilot-test the FPQ in order to ensure clarity and content validity. Refine the initial items through pre- and post-pilot consultation with experts.
5. Distribute the self-report FPQ in two phases within the public sector. In the first phase, construct FPQ items using an item analytic approach on a small sample. In the second phase, construct the final FPQ using an item analytic and factor analytic approach on a larger sample.
6. Demonstrate the reliability and validity of the new FPQ instrument.
7. Collate the qualitative and quantitative data in order to assess the potential challenges which FP poses for organisations. For example, how it impacts on the job interview process, affects performance appraisal interviews, and potentially creates low trust and dissension amongst co-workers.

1.3 Thesis Structure

This thesis consists of nine chapters, the structure of which is summarised below.

Chapter 1 provides a brief introduction to the subject area of FP and it outlines the specific objectives of the research study.

Chapter 2 introduces the construct of FP and the main body of literature which has thus far investigated this phenomenon. It also examines associated concepts such as impression management (IM) and counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs), mainly in order to clarify the conceptual differences between FP and other related constructs.

Chapter 3 explores the role of FP in job interviews and performance appraisals. It looks at the way in which FP behaviours influence subjective performance evaluations, such as those made by interviewers conducting job interviews and performance appraisal interviews.

Chapter 4 focuses on the effect of FP on work relationships. It examines the disruptive influence which FP might have on other employees working alongside the false performer, and the role which colleagues might play in recognising FP. Special attention is placed on the way in which FP interacts with trust in management and trust in co-workers.

Chapter 5 describes the methodology which was employed in the initial qualitative research phase, the qualitative study representing the dominant paradigm in this thesis. In the first phase, qualitative data was gathered using focus groups, and transcripts analysed using grounded theory. A total of 51 employees in four UK public sector organisations participated in eight focus group discussions in which they were asked about their perceptions and experiences of FP. This chapter also presents a detailed description of the research design, sample demographic information, procedure, and data analysis technique.

Chapter 6 presents the qualitative results which emerged from the focus group discussions. The focus group study produced a wealth of rich material in relation to the core construct of FP, as well as many of its associated variables. Results from the eight focus groups identified five categories common to both Management and Non-Management: Perceptions of FP in the Workplace; FP in the Interview; Does Trust Really Matter to the False Performer?; The Effect of FP on Co-Worker Morale; and Tackling FP in the Workplace.

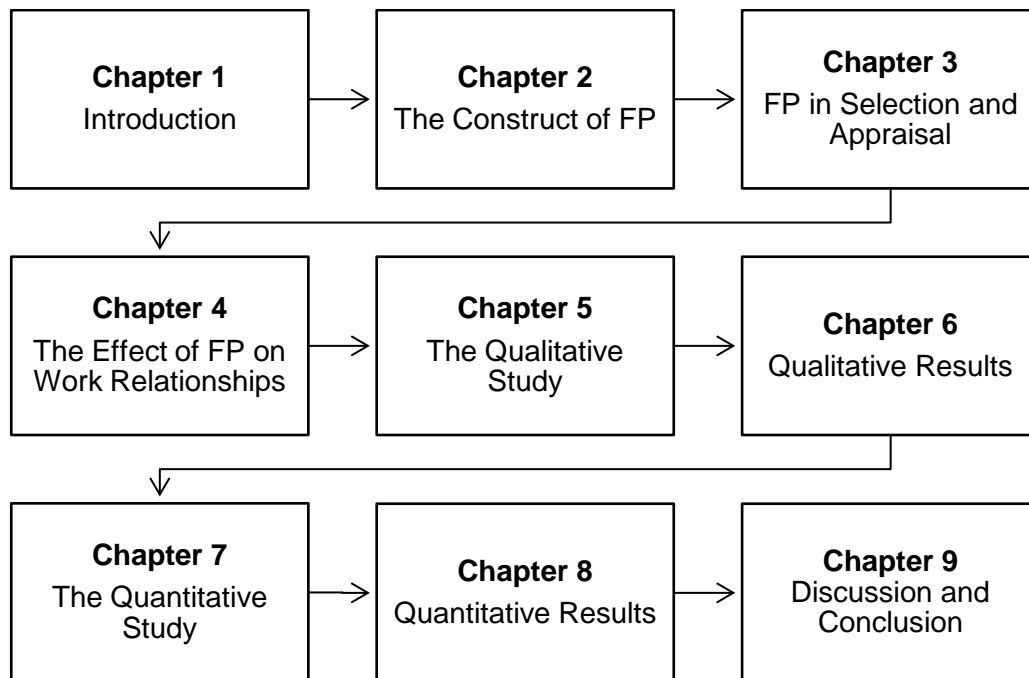
Chapter 7 details the first four stages of the quantitative study. This chapter describes the systematic procedure which was employed in designing the False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ). During this phase of analysis, the qualitative data was used to generate items for the construction of the new FPQ.

Chapter 8 describes the final two stages of the development of the FPQ and reports the results of the questionnaire study. The FPQ was distributed in two separate phases in order to refine the item set. In the first phase, a 53-item version of the FPQ was tested on a sample of 129 employees in three public sector organisations. In the second phase, the FPQ was further refined and a 21-item FPQ was administered to a sample of 219 employees in four public sector organisations. The outcome of the quantitative study was a 16-item FPQ.

Chapter 9 discusses the qualitative and quantitative findings and provides a concluding argument. The conclusion also considers the limitations of the current study and offers recommendations for future research.

Figure 1.1 charts the entire thesis through Chapter 1 to Chapter 9.

Figure 1.1 Thesis Overview



Chapter 2

The Construct of False Performance

“With every day, and from both sides of my intelligence, the moral and the intellectual, I thus drew steadily nearer to that truth by whose partial discovery I have been doomed to such a dreadful shipwreck: that man is not truly one, but truly two” – *Jekyll and Hyde*.

(Stevenson, 1886, p. 70)

2.1 Chapter Overview

The following chapter provides an introduction to False Performance (FP), competency and competencies, Organisational Charlatanism (OC), impression management (IM), and the other literature associated with FP. By reviewing these research areas, the aim is to more clearly define the construct of FP and delineate the rationale underlying each of the proposed research hypotheses. This chapter will conclude with a summary of the current research need and the research questions which have emerged from the literature review.

2.2 A Grounded Theory Approach to the Literature Review

The style of the literature review, spanning Chapters 2-4, reflects the research methodology which was used in the current study. The investigation of FP was conducted using mixed methods research (MMR), with the qualitative study representing the dominant aspect of the research. MMR is inclusive, pluralistic and complementary and, as such, it includes induction (or discovery of patterns), deduction (testing of theories and hypotheses), and abduction (uncovering the best set of explanations for understanding results) (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). By adopting a pragmatic research position (pragmatism solves traditional philosophical dualisms by finding a middle ground), in accordance with the tenets of MMR, the current study aimed to integrate the strengths of qualitative and quantitative research to produce a superior account of FP in response to the research questions posed.

The emphasis on the qualitative paradigm is signified in the literature review by virtue of the fact that the reading has been guided by grounded theory methodology. As the role of reading existing literature in grounded theory is controversial (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007), it was important to carefully consider how the literature would be approached in the current study. Based upon Glaser and Strauss's (1967) initial conception of grounded theory, some suggest that "the researcher has to set aside theoretical ideas to allow a substantive theory to emerge" (Dey, 1999, p. 1). However, others argue that it is not necessary to completely ignore the existing literature (e.g. Urquhart, 2001). According to Urquhart, the grounded theory mandate about literature is simply designed to guide the researcher to be more inductive rather than deductive, and to listen to the data rather than impose preconceived ideas on it. Emerson, Fretz and Shaw (1995) underline the impracticality of setting all theories aside, thereby decontextualising the research. Nolas (2011) explains that reading around the research topic provides a context for the investigation which, in turn, allows the researcher to appropriately position their research by indicating what knowledge has already been found versus the gaps that remain in the literature.

The grounded theory approach in the current study was heavily influenced by Goulding (2002) who also advises the grounded theory researcher to read for ideas in the literature and to connect these to the developing theory in order to support the interpretation of data. Based on the advice of Goulding and others, the researcher in this study opted to review the literature presented in Chapters 2-4. This enabled the researcher to identify gaps in the FP literature and design relevant research questions for use within the focus group discussions. Following qualitative data collection and analysis, the researcher was then able to return to the literature and compare their analysis with existing knowledge. However, to remain true to the principles of grounded theory, the literature was not used to formulate hypotheses prior to conducting the focus groups, the reason being that the objective of the focus groups was not to test existing theories, but rather to allow new ideas to emerge for exploration. In the quantitative phase subsequent to the focus group study, the qualitative results were then used to write questionnaire items for inclusion in the new False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ). It is at this stage in the research process that hypotheses were formulated based on both the literature review and qualitative study (see section 7.1.4). Thus, the structure of this thesis demonstrates how the dominant qualitative paradigm influenced the research design.

2.3 Rationale for Selection of the Public Sector

The current study represents the first investigation of FP in a UK public sector context, where it has not previously been examined. As FP is a relatively new area of study, the decision was made to focus on the construct of FP and not to deflect from this emphasis by carrying out compare-and-contrast research in both public and private sector organisations. The rationale for setting the study in the context of the public sector was to maximise the value of the research by selecting the sector deemed to be most stricken by the issue of FP. The existing literature suggests that this is the public sector, with Radnor and McGuire (2004) having described the public sector as being less competitive, less efficient, and poorer in performance than the private sector. In their review of the literature on public sector performance, they emphasise that there has been a Government initiative to develop performance management systems (PMS) in the public sector based on private sector practices. Radnor and McGuire explain that this action has come about because public sector PMSs are ineffective, largely due to the fact that they monitor performance in terms of diagnostic measures. As such, Radnor and McGuire contend that public sector performance management, ultimately, represents nothing more than a data collecting and reporting exercise. Consequently, targets are not properly set or considered and, as a result, public sector employees are less likely to take ownership for their work. Based on their research, Radnor and McGuire present a strong argument in their conclusion that performance management in the public sector is currently closer to fiction than fact.

Based on the evidence indicating that FP is more likely to be rife in the public sector due to less stringent PMSs (i.e. Radnor & McGuire, 2004), the present research sought to examine FP in the public sector. Accordingly, the current investigation expected: a) To uncover more instances of FP in the public sector; and b) To obtain a richer description of such FP through the use of focus group methodology in public sector organisations. It should also be noted that practical considerations, with regards to data access, to some degree reinforced the decision to locate the research in the context of the public sector. The researcher had an existing network of professional contacts which allowed them access to an opportunity sample of participants in a variety of public sector organisations. Access to private sector employees may well have been more difficult to negotiate without similar contacts in place.

As a result of situating the present study within the context of the public sector, it was recognised that this specific organisational context would have an influence on the research findings. Griffin (2007) discusses the effect of context upon organisational behaviour, explaining that “context is the set of circumstances in which phenomena (e.g. events, processes or entities) are situated” (p. 860). Griffin further explains that the context usually exists at a unit of analysis above the phenomena under investigation (Mowday & Sutton, 1993), and that the context can be used to explain some significant aspect of the phenomena (Cappelli & Sherer, 1991). In the current study, the phenomenon of FP was situated in the wider context of the public sector and this organisational context was in some way able to account for how FP could be expected to manifest in this particular work population. At a practical level, Griffin explains that context may range from differences in management practices to the broad economic features which characterise different countries. In the current study, the diversity between the public and private sector was mainly viewed in terms of their different approaches to performance management.

As previously explained with reference to Radnor and McGuire (2004), there was an expectation that there would be a greater incidence of FP behaviours in the public sector because of the specific values (e.g. less competitive) and PMSs associated with the public sector. This is consistent with Griffin’s (2007) contention that “contexts can increase or decrease the variation in the phenomena of interest in organizational behaviour” (p. 861). The influence of context was, thus, regarded as important because, depending on the context in which the behaviour under scrutiny is observed, different strengths, causal directions and base rates may emerge (Johns, 2006). Consequently, the decision to locate the present research in the context of the public sector may likely have produced a different picture of FP than had it been conducted in the context of the private sector.

2.4 What is False Performance?

As explained in Chapter 1, there has been scant research conducted in the area of FP so this thesis aims to substantially contribute to the current FP knowledge-base. The existing literature (Gbadamosi, 2006; Gbadamosi et al., 2007; Gbadamosi & Osuagwu, 2007; Parnell & Singer, 2001) describes FP as a form of unethical behaviour which involves employees disguising their incompetence through the use of self-promotional techniques. Parnell and Singer first defined the construct of FP when developing the Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS) to measure organisational charlatanism (OC). In their initial research, they refer to false performers as “organisational charlatans” and define them as those “individuals who seek to improve their perceived performance at the expense of their actual performance” (Parnell & Singer, 2001, p. 441). Overall, this thesis seeks to extend Parnell and Singer’s work by investigating FP in varied work settings across differing levels of public sector organisations (i.e. Management and Non-Management). The approach taken to the study of FP in the current study is distinctive in that FP has never before been examined in the UK, nor has it ever previously been explored using qualitative methodology.

2.4.1 Defining Competency

As the false performer is defined in terms of their incompetency, it is useful to first define what is meant by competency. Generally, the term competence refers to an individual’s knowledge, skills, and abilities with respect to the work activities which they are expected to carry out as part of their position (Campion, Mumford, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005; Cunningham, 1996). Armstrong (1999) states that competency is “a useful term for describing the sort of behaviour (the behavioural dimensions) that organisations are seeking in order to attain high levels of performance” (p. 275). If adapting this definition to define the opposite concept of incompetency, it follows that an incompetent employee is one who fails to engage in the sort of (competent) behaviour required by organisations in order to achieve high levels of performance e.g. the false performer. To assess whether an employee is competent to perform in a job role, many organisations now use competency analysis to identify the knowledge, skills, and behaviours necessary for the role (Arnold et al., 2005). Based on this analysis, they then develop a competency model which lists all of the competencies related to the role.

Arnold et al. (2005) explain that “competency models define the key behaviours associated with performance in the target job role” (p. 142). As well as describing the positive behaviours linked with job performance, many competency models also detail the negative behavioural indicators i.e. what employees are expected to avoid doing. Wood and Payne (1998) have asked, “Why have so many organisations introduced competency frameworks?”

(p. 103). In answer to this question, Wood and Payne found that the primary reason for organisations introducing competencies was to improve employee performance. This finding suggests that organisations perceive a strong relationship between competence and the desired level of job performance. Therefore, it is rational for the current study to suggest that the false performer's incompetence is likely to be associated with lower levels of job performance.

It was Boyatzis (1982) who first coined the term "competencies" and proposed the theory that people can be described in terms of 21 competencies. Boyatzis's original competency model placed an emphasis on a wide range of psychological aspects. This took the form of specifying three levels of competency, these being: 1) Motive and trait; 2) Self-image and social role; and 3) Skill. According to Boyatzis, these three levels "affect different aspects of the individual's application of a particular competency in a job" (p. 28). Wood and Payne (1998) contend that Boyatzis's model creates a rich psychological picture to help explain employee behaviour and, moreover, to help predict future work behaviours. However, most organisations have now adapted Boyatzis's 21 competencies, and many have become more concerned with "observable behaviour" (e.g. communication, teamwork, planning and organising, and problem solving) than psychological motives. This has led Wood and Payne to conclude that the richness of Boyatzis's model has been lost in many modern competency frameworks.

In certain regards, the present study restores some of the richness to the psychological picture by describing in-depth why a false performing individual might be motivated to behave in the way that they do in order to promote their self-image. Overall, there is likely to be great variation in competencies within and between organisations. Thus what constitutes incompetence in one organisation may not be deemed incompetence in another organisation. Nevertheless, despite this variation between organisations, it is possible for any employer to establish whether FP has occurred based on whether an employee has engaged in false self-promotion to disguise the fact that they have not satisfied the positive behavioural indicators linked to job performance or, equally, if they have behaved in a manner consistent with the negative behavioural indicators.

2.4.2 Incompetent, Immoral, or Both?

As the false performer is defined in terms of their personal immorality as well as their incompetency, it is important to consider how this relates to their perceived trustworthiness in the workplace. Firstly, it is important to define the concept of trustworthiness, especially as the concept of trust is a key variable under examination in the current study, with further

discussion of the relationship between trust and FP presented in Chapter 4. In Mayer, Davis and Schoorman's (1995) discussion of organisational trust, they provide several definitions of trustworthiness in terms of the characteristics of the trustee, including Lieberman's (1981) proposition that "trust in fiduciary relationships is based on a belief in the professional's competence and integrity" (p. 716). Mayer et al. (1995) explain that it is the characteristics and actions of a trustee that will lead to them being more or less trusted and, based on their review of the literature (e.g. Butler, 1991; Ring & Van de Ven, 1992; Rosen & Jerdee, 1977); they identify the key factors leading to trust as ability, benevolence, and integrity. For the purposes of the current discussion of FP, the factors of ability (or competence) and integrity (or morality) are of particular significance because the false performer is defined as lacking in both competence and morality, thus these two characteristics will be explored in more depth to determine how they may affect perceptions of trustworthiness in the false performer.

Mayer et al. (1995) explain that researchers have commonly spoken of ability or competence as an essential component of trust, with ability defined as "that group of skills, competencies, and characteristics that enable a party to have influence within some specific domain" (p. 717). In terms of integrity (including moral integrity), Mayer et al. explain that "the relationship between integrity and trust involves the trustor's perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable" (p. 719). According to Mayer et al., if a set of principles are not deemed to be satisfactory by the trustor for any reason, then the trustee would not be said to have integrity or, more specifically, moral integrity (as defined by McFall, 1987). From a practical point of view, the trustor may judge the trustee's moral integrity based on that individual's previous actions, confidences about their behaviours from other parties, a sense of the trustee's appreciation of justice, and the congruence or lack of between the person's words and actions. By relating Mayer et al.'s description of the characteristics of competence and integrity (including morality) to the current study of FP, it is possible to more precisely illuminate the way in which the false performer may be perceived as untrustworthy. Essentially, it is argued that the false performer is both incompetent *and* immoral, lacking in the ability to do the job and also possessing a dubious set of moral principles. As a result, it is expected that others perceiving these characteristics would lack a belief in both the false performer's competence and morality, thus leading them to judge the false performer as low in trustworthiness.

Taking into account a recent review of leader trustworthiness by Elsbach and Currall (2012), it becomes clear that it is imperative to define the false performer as untrustworthy in terms of both immorality and incompetency, and not just with reference to either factor in isolation.

This is because, based on recent research (e.g. Kammrath, Ames, & Scholer, 2007); Elsbach and Currall suggest that perceptions of trustworthiness can be divided into two distinct categories of morality based and competency based trustworthiness. They define *morality based trustworthiness* as “the perception that a leader can be counted on to ‘do the right thing’ because he or she adheres to a set of acceptable behavioral principles” (p. 217), and they define *competency based trustworthiness* as “the perception that a leader can be counted on to competently do his or her job because he or she has the appropriate skills and abilities” (p. 217). Elsbach and Currall explain that the labelling of leader acts as either “immoral” or “incompetent” can result in observers following two distinct cognitive routes in their evaluation of leader trustworthiness, the outcome of which may be that they are more critical of performance perceived as immoral than performance perceived as incompetent. According to Elsbach and Currall, if an observer believes that they have witnessed an act of poor task performance (i.e. a sign of incompetence), they may attribute this to inexperience arising from situational factors (e.g. economic climate), and, therefore, more readily forgive the behaviour because there is a good chance it can be corrected in the future (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). However, if the observer believes that the poor performance is instead attributable to stable and “immoral” personality traits, then their judgement of the situation is likely to be very different.

Although Elsbach and Currall’s (2012) work relates specifically to leader trustworthiness, it is nevertheless highly relevant to the current study of FP. Whilst Elsbach and Currall discuss two distinct cognitive paths towards assessing trustworthiness in terms of either immorality or incompetence, the current study highlights that there is a third cognitive pathway towards recognising the false performer. An observer of the false performer needs to cognitively evaluate their co-worker or manager as being both incompetent *and* immoral in order to detect the FP which they are practicing in the workplace. If they mistakenly evaluate the false performer as being incompetent but not immoral, they may excuse the false performer’s actions as “honest incompetence” – “defined as human limitations and fallibility due to bounded rationality (Hendry, as cited in Elsbach & Currall, 2012, p. 235). According to Elsbach and Currall, people are more readily forgiving of mistakes which they believe are the result of honest incompetence. Consequently, in cases where observers believe the false performer is practicing honest incompetence, trustworthiness perceptions are less likely to be damaged and the false performer may even evade proper detection and continue to engage in FP behaviours. If an astute observer recognises that the false performer’s poor performance is the result of “dishonest incompetence”, arising from both immoral personality traits *and* incompetence, then trustworthiness perceptions are likely to be much more unfavourable.

2.4.3 The Organisational Charlatan Scale

Parnell and Singer's (2001) original research has been central to defining FP and establishing it as a distinct construct. At the outset of their study, Parnell and Singer asked the question, "How does an enterprise identify 'organisational charlatans'?" (p. 443). Their response to this question was to develop a questionnaire instrument i.e. the OCS to measure the construct of FP. The OCS consists of nine items such as, "It's more important to look busy than to be busy," "It's better to do what your boss tells you than worry about whether it's correct or not," and "In today's competitive world, maintaining a strong positive image is critical to career success." Parnell and Singer's first studies using the OCS supported the hypothesis that false performers invest more effort in creating the impression of job performance than they do in actual job performance. These individuals deliberately conceal their incompetence by engaging in purposeful deception. They dedicate more work effort to appearing superficially impressive than to actually getting the job done, an approach which could potentially cause harm to the organisation. Parnell and Singer consider the OCS to be a timely addition to the organisational domain, explaining that, "With the recent introduction of a sceptical, less loyal generation X into the work force, opportunities abound like never before for individuals masquerading as high performers in positions where they are poorly managed and appraised" (Wayne & Liden, as cited in Parnell & Singer, 2001, p. 441). Parnell and Singer use their research to warn managers that, now more than ever, they must "learn to identify 'organisational charlatans'...and remove them from the organisation while preventing other charlatans from joining it" (p. 441).

Parnell and Singer (2001) identified two components of the OCS and labelled these "expectations" and "image" (see section 8.2.1.1 for a full description of these two dimensions). Following on from Parnell and Singer's work, Gbadamosi and Osuagwu (2007) re-examined the OCS using a sample of Nigerian managers and, using factor analysis, they found four components underlying the OCS. They labelled these factors: Factor 1) False Appearance (two items); Factor 2) Calculative (three items); Factor 3) Self-Preservation (two items); and Factor 4) Deceptive (two items). These factor analytic results provide further insight into the motivations which may underpin FP behaviours. The factor descriptions presented by Gbadamosi and Osuagwu strongly indicate that there are likely to be different and complex rationales underlying FP behaviour. As such, it was advantageous that the flexible grounded theory data collection methods employed in the current qualitative study allowed the nuances of FP behaviour to emerge for further exploration.

2.5 Impression Management

Although FP is a relatively under-explored concept, the study of FP has been preceded by the concept of impression management (IM), which psychologists have systematically investigated for over four decades. IM is defined as the process of establishing favourable perceptions of oneself or one's ideas in the minds of other individuals (Schlenker, 1980; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Research into FP has drawn upon the IM literature to help further define the construct of FP. For example, Parnell and Singer (2001) have identified two specific types of IM, whilst also distinguishing FP as a specific form of IM. They explain that one type of IM involves subordinates using influence strategies to ingratiate themselves with their managers or other influential figures (e.g. Liden & Mitchell, 1988; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991). The literature suggests that employees who effectively control their image in such a way are more likely to be recruited, promoted, and receive desirable job assignments than those who do not (Judge & Ferris, 1993). The second type of IM, identified by Parnell and Singer, relates to the way in which the process of liking or similarity may affect work outcomes (e.g. Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Liden, 1995). For example, feelings of "like" or "dislike" can have a powerful effect on performance evaluations by fostering "halo effects" (Tsui & Barry, 1986). Such "halo effects" may come into operation when a manager forms initial positive impressions of an employee and then translates these impressions into performance categories, thus giving rise to future biased evaluations based on the initial impressions (Feldman, 1981).

Previous IM literature has examined the relationship between IM and conduct in both the job interview (e.g. Ellis et al., 2002) and the performance appraisal interview (e.g. Wayne & Ferris, 1990). In their study of influence tactics, Wayne and Ferris examined how subordinates' IM tactics and performance affected supervisor-subordinate exchange quality. Based on the work of Graen and Scandura (1987), they used the leader-member exchange model to define this type of workplace exchange as "the process by which organizational members evolve their roles through interactions with their supervisors" (Wayne & Ferris, 1990, p. 487). Wayne and Ferris hypothesised that subordinates' IM and performance would affect exchange quality by influencing supervisors' liking for and performance ratings of their subordinates. Their research consisted of two studies, the second one of which involved the development of a 24-item IM scale to measure subordinate influence tactics (this 24-item IM scale has been utilised in the current quantitative study – see section 8.2.1.1). The scale instructions asked subordinates to report how often they had engaged in a particular behaviour during the past three months on a seven-point scale ranging from never (1) to always (7).

Wayne and Ferris (1990) reduced the data to detect the underlying patterns among the items on the new 24-item IM scale. They identified three different factors which they labelled, "Job-Focused Tactics," "Supervisor-Focused Tactics," and "Self-Focused Tactics." "Job-Focused Tactics" incorporate behaviours and verbal statements which relate to an individual's job performance and the tactics which they use to manipulate job performance information to make a positive impression on the supervisor. "Supervisor-Focused Tactics" include behaviours and verbal statements directed towards the supervisor, such as praise or offering personal favours. "Self-Focused Tactics" are characterised by behaviours intended to create the impression that the subordinate is a nice, polite person. Ultimately, Wayne and Ferris found that, as predicted, supervisor-focused IM tactics were positively related to supervisor liking for the subordinate. They also found that supervisor liking for the subordinate affected job performance ratings. These findings suggest that a subordinate's IM tactics increase their supervisor's liking of them, which may in turn increase the supervisor's rating of the subordinate's job performance. This finding has implications for the study of FP because it suggests that a similar exchange process may be at work when the false performer directs self-promotion tactics towards their supervisor. It may be that subordinate FP similarly induces the supervisor's liking of the false performer and this, in turn, may cause the supervisor to overlook deficiencies in the false performer's work and give them higher job performance ratings than they deserve.

The development of Wayne and Ferris's (1990) IM scale has particular significance for the current study because it was used to help clarify the distinction between IM and FP. The fact that there is a widely validated measure of IM made it possible for the current quantitative study to explore the relationship between IM and FP by administering both the 24-item IM scale and the new FPQ to the same sample. In terms of understanding how FP and IM relate to each other, the approach taken by Parnell and Singer (2001) has been used to inform the way in which FP has been defined in the current study. Based on Parnell and Singer's description of the relationship between FP and IM, the current study treats FP as related to IM, but conceptually distinct. Whilst the impression manager and the false performer may engage in similar IM tactics, the false performer's actions are motivated by their desire to intentionally disguise their incompetence, whereas the impression manager's behaviours are motivated by their desire to showcase the best of their true abilities.

2.5.1 False Performance: Connecting Impression Management and Job Performance

Over the years, although there has been considerable interest in the subject matter of IM (DuBrin, 2011), hardly any attention has been given to the question of how to identify individuals who use such tactics. Parnell and Singer (2001) point out that whilst researchers

have learnt a great deal about the process of IM, very little effort has been made to actually detect and subsequently manage IM in the workplace. They explain that previous research into IM has limited itself to training individuals to recognise the signs of IM, hence why they addressed the gap in the literature by proposing the new construct of FP and developing the nine-item OCS to measure FP. On the surface, there may appear to be little difference between the false performer and the impression manager who wants to draw praise for their work. However, Parnell and Singer explain that the empirical research (e.g. Wayne & Liden, 1995) has overlooked the critical issue of performance by focusing primarily on cataloguing IM techniques and their effects on the target audience e.g. management. By not taking performance into account, it is not possible to conclude whether participants achieving a high IM score have, in fact, substituted IM for strong performance. Taking this possibility into account, Parnell and Singer focused their research on identifying false performers and, in so doing, created a connection between IM techniques and job performance.

2.5.2 The Distinction between False Performance and Impression Management

Goffman's (1959) seminal sociology book, *The Presentation of Self*, presents IM dramaturgically, explaining interaction as a performance constructed to provide others with impressions. Goffman explains, "Sometimes when we ask whether a fostered impression is true or false we really mean to ask whether or not the performer is authorized to give the performance in question..." (p. 66). In relation to the current study, this distinction can be usefully applied to distinguish the impression manager, who is authorised to give the (job) performance, from the false performer who is not.

Parnell and Singer (2001) describe false performers as the "office sycophants," those employees who flatter management and market themselves persuasively as a way to get ahead in the organisation. Parnell and Singer point out that there is a crucial difference between employees who use IM in an attempt to be liked (Godfrey, Jones, & Lord, 1986) and those who engage in such behaviours in order to disguise their productivity deficiencies (Bolino, 1999). DuBrin (2011) explains that there is a distinction between those who create impressions to emphasise legitimate personal qualities and those who use IM in order to create a false impression or hide deficiencies. For those who use IM to promote authentic qualities, the impression which they project may indeed confer a competitive advantage. However, they will still require competence and hard work in order to climb the career ladder. DuBrin contends that IM cannot be used as a replacement for competence. Yet, conversely, those employees who use IM to create a false impression or disguise deficiencies are actually trying to succeed in substituting IM for competence, and this is the construct which Parnell and Singer have labelled FP.

In an effort to assist in detecting and managing FP, Parnell and Singer (2001) developed the nine-item OCS. Their pioneering work built upon earlier IM research by considering employee preference for image over performance. According to Parnell and Singer, the OCS provides support for two dysfunctional components of job performance: a preference for impressions over reality in organisational behaviour, and an over-emphasis on measures of performance. Parnell and Singer explain that whilst an IM score provides little information about an individual's actual ability or performance, a score on the OCS can assist managers in separating employees who are performance-driven from those who are not. The critical point to note is that FP necessarily comes at the expense of job performance, whereas IM does not. False performers are distinctive by virtue of the fact that they are actually incompetent, skilful only in promoting the impression that they perform well. In contrast, impression managers may well be competent performers. The deceptive intention underlying FP is also what differentiates it from IM, as is the eventual behavioural outcome i.e. the job performance. False performers and impression managers may both present the same initial IM behaviours, but it is their underlying intention, competence level, and subsequent job performance which determine whether they are practicing FP or IM. On a psychological level, the intentions of the impression manager and the false performer are motivated along very different ethical lines. Therefore, it follows that, on a behavioural level, these differing intentions are likely to manifest in notably different outcomes, with impression managers fulfilling their job requirements and false performers giving only a hollow performance.

2.6 When Are Employees More Likely to False Perform?

Gbadamosi's (2006) research sought to answer the question, "When exactly are employees likely to manifest more charlatan behavioural tendencies?" (p. 28). The main purpose of Gbadamosi's study was to investigate the major variables that are correlated with and that predict and explain FP in organisations. Gbadamosi explored several variables including employee commitment; trust in management, core self-evaluation, and self-rated job performance. The findings showed that of all the variables examined as possible predictors of FP, it was continuance commitment, affective commitment, and job performance which emerged as significant predictors of FP. Core self-evaluation was not found to have any predictive relationship to FP.

In discussing the significant relationship found between continuance commitment and FP, Gbadamosi (2006) explains that individuals with high continuance commitment are those who remain in the organisation because there is nowhere else to go i.e. they are stuck. Gbadamosi contends that these individuals are more likely to be false performers as they have less loyalty to their employer. However, it is possible that there are alternative

explanations for this finding, although the present study does not seek to re-examine the relationship between the different types of commitment and FP. In Gbadamosi's study, affective commitment was also found to be significantly, albeit inversely, correlated with FP. Gbadamosi explains that as affectively committed employees identify strongly with the goals and objectives of the organisation, they are less likely to false perform. This finding also suggests that employees with FP tendencies will be likely to display low affective commitment. Finally, there was an unexpected outcome of Gbadamosi's study whereby job performance was found to be a predictor of FP. Gbadamosi explains that this finding seems illogical because it is contradictory to propose that someone is a false performer whilst also being a high performer. According to Gbadamosi, this raises the question of why the FP behaviour if there is no incompetence to conceal.

Following on from the study by Gbadamosi (2006), Gbadamosi et al. (2007) continued the research into FP by further exploring the relationships among the construct of FP and other variables, including: Trust in management, organisational commitment, turnover intention, supervisory support, job performance, and specific job characteristics in the countries, Botswana and Swaziland. Like Gbadamosi, Gbadamosi et al. also sought to answer the question, when are employees more likely to exhibit FP tendencies? According to the results of their study, the only two variables which emerged as significant predictors of FP were continuance commitment and trust in management, with the former relationship being positive and the latter being negative. At the outset of their study, Gbadamosi et al. asked whether the absence of trust in management by employees could increase the incidence of FP behaviour among them. As the results of their study revealed an inverse, significant relationship between trust in management and FP, this indeed suggests that the lower an employee's trust in management, the higher their tendency to engage in FP. Gbadamosi et al. have recommended that future research explore trust in management, as well as co-worker trust. As such, the current thesis will examine both trust in management and co-worker trust, each of which will be discussed further in Chapter 4.

2.7 Associated Literature

The construct of FP is related to, but distinct, from prior theories of unethical work behaviour, which is evident from a review of the associated literature. For instance, other researchers have presented immorality in the workplace in terms of counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs) (e.g. Wu & Lebreton, 2011) including social loafing (e.g. Comer, 1995); work ethics and social norms (e.g. Korte, 2009); political behaviours (e.g. Zettler & Lang, 2013); and the "good soldier" versus the "good actor" (e.g. Bolino, 1999; Snell & Wong, 2007).

2.7.1 Counterproductive Work Behaviours

CWBs are defined as “volitional acts that harm or are intended to harm organizations or people in organizations” (Spector & Fox, 2005, p. 151). CWBs may include unpleasant behaviours such as spreading rumours or littering the work environment, as well as more serious behaviours such as physical violence, theft, and sabotaging work equipment or products (Parks & Mount, 2005). Parks and Mount explain that these deviant behaviours are pervasive and costly to the organisation and also detrimental for employee well-being. Wu and Lebreton (2011) explain that most researchers have traditionally linked personality to CWBs, with a special focus on the five factor model (FFM). The FFM consists of five distinct personality traits: Extraversion, Neuroticism, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, and Openness to Experience. However, in their research, Wu and Lebreton suggest that maladaptive personality traits (e.g. narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy) may predict deviant behaviours such as CWBs. From reviewing the literature on CWBs, it is clear that theories of CWBs fail to capture the definition of what it is to be a false performer. Whilst the research into CWBs and FP both describe unethical work behaviour, they appear to describe entirely different phenomena. Those engaging in CWBs are described as intending to harm organisations or people in organisations, but this is not the primary motivation of the false performer. The false performer primarily engages in unethical work behaviour (some of which may happen to coincide with those behaviours classed as CWBs) in order to conceal their underlying incompetence, and it is only as a side-effect of this behaviour that incidental damage may be caused to the organisation or colleagues in the organisation.

The only exception amongst the deliberately harmful CWBs catalogued by researchers is the phenomenon of social loafing, which Klotz and Buckley (2013) explain “differs from other forms of CWB-O (CWBs targeting the organisation)...” (p. 124). Social loafing will be discussed in more depth in the next section as this specific form of CWB can be used to further conceptually define the construct of FP. As part of chronicling deviant employee behaviours throughout history, Klotz and Buckley not only examine social loafing, but also provide a comprehensive review of various CWBs targeting the organisation, otherwise known as CWB-Os. They explain that there are two specific types of CWB, the other CWB being the type that is aimed at individuals, or CWB-1. However, for Klotz and Buckley’s purposes, and also that of the current thesis, it is the study of CWB-Os that are of primary interest. In brief, such behaviours may include employee theft (Greenberg, 1990), organisational retaliatory behaviours (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), and time banditry (Ketchen, Craighead, & Buckley, 2008). Although a discussion of the entire spectrum of CWB-Os is beyond the scope of the present thesis, it is useful to draw on Klotz and Buckley’s descriptions of CWB-Os to provide a context for understanding the concept of social loafing.

For instance, Klotz and Buckley (2013) provide a dyadic view of CWB-Os by describing Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology of deviant workplace behaviour. According to this perspective of CWB-Os, there are two distinct forms of such behaviour i.e. property deviance and production deviance. "Property deviance describes behaviours in which workers illicitly acquire or damage property or assets that belong to their organization" (Hollinger & Clark, as cited in Klotz & Buckley, 2013, p. 116), whereas production deviance is used to describe "violations of the boundaries of workplace norms demarcating the minimum quality and quantity of output and effort expected of employees" (Hollinger & Clark, as cited in Klotz & Buckley, 2013, p. 116). Whilst property deviance refers to active behaviours such as sabotaging work equipment or stealing company assets, production deviance is more clandestine in that it is typically characterised by employee inaction (Klotz & Buckley, 2013). Amongst the CWB-Os catalogued and defined under the umbrella of "production deviance," Klotz and Buckley include social loafing, loafing in virtual teams, and cyberloafing. Whilst previous studies have focused exclusively on one form of social loafing (e.g. Comer, 1995), Klotz and Buckley's more recent work takes account of the fact that modern technology has revolutionised the way in which employees can cause harm to the organisation. The increased use of various technologies as part of job roles, as well as the personal use of mobile devices, now means that there are more ways than ever for CWB-Os to manifest in the workplace. The technology-based forms of social loafing will be discussed further in the next section.

As social loafing has been characterised as a form of employee inaction, there is an obvious link to be made between this form of deviant employee behaviour and that of FP behaviour, namely because both constructs involve a form of employee inaction or lack of job performance. However, whilst social loafing and FP behaviour may appear to be conceptually related based on the principle of inaction, the next section will outline the key conceptual differences between these two constructs, thereby helping to further define FP as a unique form of unethical work behaviour.

2.7.2 Social Loafing

Klotz and Buckley (2013) explain that the construct of social loafing dates back to Ringelmann's (1913) discovery that a team of people pulling on a rope exerted a collective amount of pulling force which added up to less than the sum of their individual pulling-rope force. "The Ringelmann Effect" has since become known as "social loafing" due to Latane, Williams and Harkins (1979) conducting a similar experiment in which they found that those asked to clap and cheer in a group applied less effort than when doing this activity on their own. Moreover, Latane et al. demonstrated that individual performance continued to decline

as more group members were added (up to a maximum of six as per the restrictions of their experiment). Ultimately, Latane et al. concluded that social loafing is “a kind of social disease...it has negative consequences for individuals, social institutions, and societies” (p. 831). For instance, Steiner (1972) has pointed out that one such negative consequence of social loafing is an overall loss in group efficiency and productivity.

In their systematic review of CWB-Os, Klotz and Buckley (2013) describe the various forms of social loafing behaviours which could cause damage to the organisation. Principally, they define the general phenomenon of social loafing as an employee, “Exerting less effort in the context of a group or team than when working alone” (p. 117). They also provide examples of more modern-day occurrences of loafing in the workplace. For instance, they define loafing within virtual work teams as, “The reduction of one’s contribution to a team in settings in which team members are not physically collocated”; and cyberloafing as, “Using the Internet for non-work related purposes during one’s normal working hours” (p. 117).

The literature on social loafing has been selected as appropriate for further distinguishing the construct of FP because there is a possibility that the false performer’s unethical behaviour could mistakenly be interpreted as a form of loafing. For instance, if the false performer’s co-workers or managers recognise that the false performer is underperforming in their job role, they may erroneously attribute the cause to loafing rather than incompetence and deliberate deception. Crucially, Klotz and Buckley (2013) explain,

It is important to note that social loafing differs from other forms of CWB-O in that employees engaged in loafing do not consciously and deliberately withhold effort from a performance situation. It is a naturally occurring phenomenon. Instead, the mere presence of others doing the same task can be enough to facilitate social loafing. (p. 124).

This description of social loafing can be used to underline the key conceptual difference between FP behaviour and social loafing, namely that of intention. Whilst those employees engaged in loafing are not deliberately withholding effort, the false performer is consciously and purposely withholding effort because they lack the competence to carry out the job tasks which they claim to be able to accomplish. Furthermore, social loafing is specific to employees withholding effort only when they are working as part of a group. The loafing employee will only reduce effort when working as part of a group and not when working individually. On the other hand, the false performer will consistently perform below par, whether working individually or carrying out work as part of a team. This is because the false performer does not have the competence to better their performance when working alone,

whereas the loafing employee does. Overall, employees who loaf in groups do so because they unconsciously allow themselves to be carried along by the effort of the group, but the false performer withholds effort in a group because they are consciously aware that the group's effort will help them to disguise their own incompetence.

Critically, the "sucker effect" literature on social loafing (e.g. Kerr, 1983) implies that the social loafer is distinct from the type of employee who actually does not have the ability to carry out a given task. This distinction is conceptually important because it helps to further distinguish between the competent social loafer and the incompetent false performer. According to Kerr's findings, when one partner in a team engaged in social loafing, their partner in turn reduced their own efforts on a task so as not to be "taken for a sucker" (Simms & Nichols, 2014). Moreover, Kerr found that individuals who believed that they were teamed with competent, yet underperforming partners, put in less effort than individuals paired with incompetent partners (Comer, 1995). In other words, if an individual did not have the ability to carry out a task, their partner appeared willing to tolerate their reduced effort, and they did not reduce their own performance in order to match (Simms & Nichols, 2014). Based on these research findings, Kerr concluded that individuals do not mind carrying incompetent partners, but they resent being partnered with someone who will benefit from their efforts when that person could have succeeded on their own merit but instead chose not to contribute. In summary, the "sucker effect" research (e.g. Kerr, 1983) indicates that only those with an ability to actually do the given task should be described as a "social loafer." According to such a definition, it is clear that the incompetent false performer should not be confused with the competent social loafer. To clarify, the concept of social loafing refers to employees who have the ability to do the job but reduce their effort within groups for various reasons. On the other hand, the construct of FP refers to those employees who lack the competence to do the job and, as such, exert less effort within a group because they simply are unable to perform at the required level.

Reference to Comer's (1995) model of loafing can be used to further demonstrate how the concept of social loafing specifically differs from that of FP behaviour within group situations. Comer identifies several factors which may contribute to individual members reducing their effort in a group, including potential for evaluation of contributions. This refers to individuals reducing their input in larger groups where it is clear that their efforts will not be noticeable to others (Olson, 1965). However, whilst this effect may well occur in groups where members' outputs are pooled so individual contributions cannot be gauged, other research (Harkins & Jackson, 1985) has shown that group members are more motivated to exert effort when their individual outputs will be evaluated (Comer, 1995). Whilst such research on social loafing

(e.g. Harkins & Jackson, 1985, Harkins & Petty, 1982) strongly suggests that employees may be deterred from loafing if the group task accords them the opportunity to showcase their unique abilities, the research on FP (e.g. Gbadamosi, 2006) provides no similar indication that the false performer could be motivated to improve their efforts in such a way. As the false performer actually lacks the ability, and not just the motivation to perform well, then it is unlikely that they could improve their performance in the event that they were informed that their individual outputs were going to be monitored. In fact, given the false performer's ongoing need to deceive others in order to survive in the organisation, they would very likely shy away from any kind of initiative designed to potentially reveal their individual lack of competence.

Finally, social loafing can be distinguished from the purely negative concept of FP behaviour by virtue of the fact that recent research has shown that loafing may be a more positive, adaptive trait than when it was initially perceived as "a kind of social disease" (Latane et al., 1979, p. 831). For instance, Simms and Nichols (2014) propose that social loafing may be positive, based on Bluhm's (2009) study which suggests that loafing allows employees to expend fewer resources, and therefore less stress, when working on a group project. In this way it may be possible for an employee to help contribute to a group task whilst still saving energy and resources for their own individual tasks. So, whilst recent research on the phenomenon of social loafing indicates that it may well be positively related to performance on tasks (e.g. Bluhm, 2009), research on the negative construct of FP clearly defines FP as a behaviour which is negatively related to job performance (e.g. Parnell & Singer, 2001). Ultimately, FP is a negative construct and, unlike social loafing, it is not a work behaviour which can ever be conceptualised as positive or adaptive to achieving the goals of the organisation.

2.7.3 Work Ethics and Creating Social Norms

It is important to understand how the ethics within an organisation, specifically in terms of the creation of social norms, may influence employee behaviour. Vitaly, for the purpose of the present thesis, such an understanding may help to contextually frame the false performer's behaviour as either consistent with or contrary to the social norms of their organisation or peers. Firstly, in terms of definitions, Osibanjo, Akinbode, Falola and Oludayo (2015) describe work ethics as "the standards of behaviour that guide individual workers in their work and in relationship with fellow workers, customers and other economic agents (competitors, shareholders, suppliers, dealers, etc." (p. 109). Secondly, in relation to the social norms of the organisation, Korte (2009) describes them as "the unwritten rules governing behaviour" (p. 285).

To study norms, Korte (2009) examined how newly hired engineers learned the norms of the organisation when they began work. Through qualitative, case-study research, and from the perspective of social exchange theory (SET; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), Korte investigated how new job skills are learnt through a form of social exchange whereby newcomers gain information about the workplace from more experienced members of the organisation (see section 4.3.7 for further discussion of SET). In Korte's study, two major themes emerged from the data: (1) Relationship building was the primary driver of the socialisation process, and not the individual's capacity for learning; and (2) The work group was the primary context for socialisation, and not the organisation. Based on these results, Korte concluded that, contrary to the prevalent view that workers primarily learn norms through organisational socialisation, they in fact learn what to do and how to do it well by building relationships with management and co-workers. One of the most significant findings to emerge from Korte's study was that the socialisation process experienced by newcomers is often the first introduction that they have to the social norms of the organisation. As such, what employees learn at the start of a new job becomes their perception of "the way things are done here" (Korte, 2009, p. 302). Moreover, newcomers in Korte's study specifically reported that co-workers were the primary source of learning the social norms of the organisation (65% of learning incidents reported), with managers providing the next source of learning (15%), and the rest being attributed to self-knowledge and experiences (18%).

Given Korte's (2009) finding that the work group appears to be the primary context for socialisation, the importance of co-worker relationships in the spread of FP should not be underestimated (see section 4.4 for discussion of how FP behaviour might be contagious between co-workers). As Korte's research strongly suggests that new employees learn the social norms of the organisation mostly from their co-workers, this raises questions about the potential normative influence of the false performer on other workers. For instance, in the event that a newcomer to an organisation developed a mentoring relationship with a false performer, would they too adopt the false performer's "norm" of unethical work behaviour? Tomlinson and Greenberg's (2005) discussion of managing social norms suggests that unethical work behaviours could indeed develop in such a manner in response to work group norms. In the case of employee theft, they explain that such behaviour is strongly shaped by the norms which are collectively established within the co-worker group (e.g. Horning, 1970) and, moreover, such informal norms seem more influential than formal organisational norms (Hollinger & Clark, 1982). They describe how new workers are socialised in theft techniques by other long-term co-workers, resulting in a norm of theft amongst the workforce (Mars, 1974). Thus, this particular body of research indicates that FP behaviour could, in a similar way, be spread amongst co-workers through the operation of powerful work group norms.

As well as co-workers being potential purveyors of unethical work norms, it is also possible that managers could similarly encourage FP behaviours amongst their subordinates by means of normative influence. For instance, another key finding of Korte's study (2009) was that newcomers also reported learning the norms of the work group from their manager, despite the fact that they had little regular contact with their managers. Other studies focusing on ethical leadership (e.g. Storr, 2004), likewise, underline how important the influence of leadership behaviour is for subordinates striving to adopt the appropriate organisational norms. Storr's qualitative study of ethical leadership is particularly relevant to the current study of FP behaviour because it concentrates on management practices in the public sector. According to Storr, there is a growing interest in leadership ethics within public sector services as a result of frequently reported scandals which all seem to point in the direction of leaders failing to exercise ethical competence (e.g. Department of health, 2000). In order to examine whether leaders with integrity are perceived as better leaders, Storr conducted 18 interviews with leaders and managers employed within a UK public service District general hospital. For the purpose of this study, Storr applied Becker's (1998) definition of integrity, according to which, "Integrity means that a person's behaviour is consistent with espoused values and that a person is honest and trustworthy" (Becker, as cited in Storr, 2004, p. 422). According to Storr's results, effective leadership appears to correlate with integrity and such integrity, in turn, helps improve organisational effectiveness. Another finding of Storr's study identified that the perceived need and importance of integrity and ethical leadership correlated with higher levels of hierarchical status, with it being assumed by virtue of status and success that leaders lead with integrity.

Storr's (2004) study helps to illustrate how the unethical leadership provided by the false performer may be costly for organisations, with there being a likelihood that such FP behaviour in the upper echelons could lead to further scandal in the public sector. Also, the further up the organisational hierarchy that the false performing manager is, the more others will incorrectly assume that the false performer leads with integrity by virtue of their status when, in fact, the opposite is true. Such faulty assumptions could mean that the false performing manager's unethical behaviour goes undetected for some time and this may, unfortunately, give the false performer opportunity to inflict significant damage on the organisation. For instance, the unethical conduct of a false performing leader could be transmitted to others as normatively appropriate, thus creating a contagion effect of FP behaviour amongst the workforce. There is further discussion in section 4.3.4 concerning how subordinates may change their own ethical behaviours to mimic a false performing manager's unethical conduct and, in section 4.4; there is discussion of how the social norms mechanism can operate in such a way that dishonest actions may become contagious.

2.7.4 Can False Performance Ever Be Positive?

It is possible that FP could be regarded by some as comprising “positive” political behaviours which potentially allow the false performer to thrive in the workplace and climb the career ladder. However, it is important to differentiate negative FP behaviours from truly positive political skill. Although politics is often associated with the “dark side” of workplace behaviour, a more positive perspective of politics in the workplace increasingly concentrates on what is called “political skill” (Silvester, 2008). Generally, there are two broad viewpoints of organisational politics, one view being that politics is “an illegitimate aspect of organizational life” (Silvester, 2008, p. 109), and the other being that it is “neither inherently good nor bad but rather a fact of life and a feature woven into the very fabric of organizations” (Ammeter, Douglas, Gardner, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2002, p. 752). From the former perspective, political activity is upheld as harmful to the organisation because the individual practicing it puts themselves before the organisation and their co-workers (Silvester, 2008). In contrast, from the latter viewpoint, politics in the organisation is seen as a neutral affair which can have positive or negative consequences depending on the situation of different individuals and groups (Silvester, 2008).

Silvester (2008) explains that whilst some present political skill as having a more “dark side” (e.g. Ammeter et al., 2002), other researchers discuss it in terms of the more positive repertoire of behaviours required for effective working in political milieus. For instance, as regards political skill, it has been explained that “...politics can be positive as well for organizations and individuals...Individuals who become proficient at playing politics may realize greater job and career related rewards” (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992, p. 113). Mintzberg (1983) first introduced the term “political skill” to describe the social skills which employees may employ in order to survive in an organisational environment. It may be that individuals high in political skill have the competence to strategically adapt their behaviour in order to, for example, gain colleague support, assert themselves in negotiations or sales, or acquire access to coveted resources such as technical equipment or budgets (Zettler & Lang, 2013). As such, political skill has been defined as “a comprehensive pattern of social competencies, with cognitive, affective, and behavioral manifestations” (Ferris, Treadway, Brouer, & Munyon, 2012). To measure such behavioural manifestations, Ferris, Witt and Hochwarter (2001) designed an 18-item Political Skill Inventory (PSI). The PSI measures four constructs: 1) Interpersonal Influence; 2) Network Building; 3) Social Astuteness; and 4) Genuineness and Sincerity. Some example items include: “I understand people well,” “I am good at getting others to respond positively to me,” and “It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people.”

Notably, the four constructs measured by the PSI incorporate positive and honest work behaviours. Thus, Ferris et al.'s (2001) PSI demonstrates that, in certain work situations, employees can use positive political skill to their advantage without engaging in deceptive behaviours. This type of positive political skill can clearly be differentiated from FP behaviour which always involves darker deception and manipulation of others in order to disguise incompetence for the purpose of progressing in the organisation. FP is defined as a negative behaviour and, unlike an employee practicing positive political skill, the false performer's motivation for their unethical conduct will always be to mask their incompetence – a purely negative motivating factor which is not implicated in the political skill literature.

2.7.5 The False Performer as a “Good Actor”

Another body of research which considers the dichotomy of “positive” and “negative” behaviour in the workplace is that which outlines the difference between the positively (i.e. genuinely) acting “good soldier” and the negatively (i.e. disingenuously) acting “good actor.” Although the juxtaposition presented in the “good soldier” versus “good actor” literature (e.g. Bolino, 1999; Snell & Wong, 2007) is conceptually distinct from the “impression manager” versus “false performer” relationship, it can illustrate how FP might operate in the workplace. In the good soldier/good actor literature, Bolino distinguishes between “good soldiers” who selflessly engage in organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) on behalf of their organisation, versus “good actors” whose behaviours may be self-serving. In a qualitative interview study of this phenomenon, Snell and Wong asked participants to describe stories about co-workers who were either “good soldiers” or “good actors.” They found that, when distinguishing “good actors” from “good soldiers,” there were two criteria for attribution: Wilful behavioural inconsistency, i.e. low generality of behaviour across contexts; and alleged false pretence, i.e. discrepancy between claims and actual deeds. Through comparing 89 “good soldier” stories and 53 “good actor” stories, Snell and Wong found that most “good actor” stories featured alleged wilful behavioural inconsistency or alleged false pretence, or both. In contrast, none of the “good soldier” stories referred to wilful behavioural inconsistency or false pretence. To relate Snell and Wong's findings to the present investigation, the false performer can be seen as a “good actor” who serves their own interests by disguising their incompetence in order to progress in the organisation. There is false pretence involved in their actions because a discrepancy exists between the positive image which they project to others and the actual incompetent job performance which they bring to bear in the workplace.

2.8 Definitional Issues

Whilst the associated literature, especially that on IM, helps to inform an understanding of FP, there are some further conceptual boundaries which need to be drawn between IM and FP. IM falls into two categories of either: 1) Conscious (intentional); or 2) Unconscious (unintentional). Levashina and Campion (2006) distinguish between IM as the intentional distortion of responses to create a favourable impression, as opposed to self-deception or unintentional distortion of responses. For the purposes of the present research, the conscious process of IM has been juxtaposed against the conscious process of FP. FP falls into two categories of either: 1) Conscious FP; or 2) Unconscious FP. The model in Table 2.1 shows how self-presentation variously combines with competency levels to produce either IM or FP. There are four possible scenarios which could occur. Individuals high in self-presentation, but low in competence, are defined as false performers.

In summary, the present study seeks to investigate the conscious FP of individuals in the workplace. The practice of FP is defined as a sub-set of IM, with false performers being distinguished as different from impression managers. IM is a conscious attempt by a competent employee to present the best of their true abilities, whereas FP is the deliberate misrepresentation of self-image by an incompetent employee. Whilst false performers and impression managers may both present the same IM behaviours, it is their underlying intention and competence level which determines whether they are practicing FP or IM.

Table 2.1 The IM-FP Model of Self-Presentation Behaviours

High Self-Presentation	FALSE PERFORMERS <i>Undesirable Employee</i>	Impression Managers <i>Undesirable/Desirable Employee (Dependent on the Organisational Context)</i>
Low Self-Presentation	Transparent Self-Presentation <i>Undesirable Employee</i>	Transparent Self-Presentation <i>Desirable Employee</i>
	Low Competence	High Competence

2.9 The Current Study and Research Need

Gbadamosi (2006) has rightfully pointed out that little has been done worldwide since the pioneering efforts of Parnell and Singer (2001) to develop the OCS to measure FP. Therefore, over ten years later, it is time to address this critical oversight.

As discussed in the introduction (see section 1.1), Parnell and Singer (2001) designed the OCS as a “fairly short measure” (p. 445) of FP. However, this may have come at the expense of producing a more complete measure of FP. Evidence for this has been provided by subsequent studies (i.e. Gbadamosi, 2006; Gbadamosi et al., 2007) which have found that the OCS demonstrates relatively low reliability. Whilst Parnell and Singer reported good initial reliability for the OCS, obtaining alphas of 0.85 and 0.81 in the two studies that they conducted, this finding has not been replicated in later research. In the studies that they conducted using the OCS, Gbadamosi reported an alpha of 0.62, and Gbadamosi et al. reported an alpha of 0.65. As alpha values should be 0.70 or higher for a scale to be regarded as reliable (e.g. Kline, 1993), these findings suggest that there is a research need for a more robust measure of FP.

Furthermore, the methodology used to create the item set for the OCS also suggests the need for a new measure of FP. To generate items for the OCS, the initial set of 92 items was proposed by the researchers themselves (Parnell & Singer, 2001), which means that the items on the OCS reflect only the researcher’s subjective perceptions of FP. As it is questionable as to whether this methodology captured the full breadth of FP behaviours, the present study will utilise qualitative focus group methodology for the purpose of constructing a new questionnaire measure of FP i.e. the FPQ. The development of a new measure is consistent with the principles of grounded theory methodology which run throughout the entire current study. As opposed to designing the new scale based on any preconceived ideas inspired by the OCS, the current study instead seeks to create a brand-new scale which is fully grounded in the data provided by the focus group participants in the qualitative study.

2.9.1 The Research Need for the Qualitative Study

While initial questionnaire approaches to the study of FP have been valuable, Gbadamosi (2006) previously suggested that future research would “benefit from a departure from the traditional survey method to obtain information about how, why and when individuals manifest charlatan behaviour tendencies” (p. 30). Furthermore, Gbadamosi proposed that focus groups might be very useful in this respect as “it would be valuable to compare such qualitative studies to the little we know from quantitative efforts” (p. 30). Significantly, no

other research to date has adopted a qualitative approach to FP, so the current study is the first of its kind to directly question work-situated respondents about their perceptions and experiences of FP.

2.9.2 Research Questions

A number of research questions will be examined in the qualitative study:

1) Primarily, the research aims to further validate the construct of FP, as well as explore the relationship between FP behaviour and job performance.

2) Secondly, at the conclusion of their study, Parnell and Singer (2001) concluded, "In sum the present study has demonstrated that charlatan behaviour is measurable and is associated with performance appraisal. Future research should seek to clarify this critical nexus..." (p. 452). A body of associated literature (e.g. Wayne & Liden, 1995) has also provided strong evidence for the popular usage of IM tactics in the job interview and the performance appraisal interview. Therefore, based on the existing literature, the current study will seek to clarify how FP operates in both the job interview and the performance appraisal interview, something which previous FP research has not done.

3) Thirdly, as trust has been shown to have a relationship to FP (e.g. Gbadamosi et al., 2007), the focus group study will explore how FP interacts with trust in management and trust in co-workers.

4) Fourthly, in the focus groups, participants will be asked how they have been personally affected by FP in the workplace, and how such FP has impacted on their work relationships.

5) Finally, inspired by Parnell and Singer (2001) posing the question, "What can be done to reduce OC in organizations?" (p. 452), focus group participants will be asked to provide their solution to the problem of FP in the workplace.

These five research questions will be explored in the focus group study using a semi-structured questioning route. It is then dependent upon the qualitative results as to whether all of these research questions are pursued in the quantitative study.

2.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter introduced the construct of FP by reviewing the previous FP literature (Gbadamosi, 2006; Gbadamosi & Osuagwu, 2007; Gbadamosi et al., 2007; Parnell & Singer, 2001). It described the development of Parnell and Singer's (2001) OCS and highlighted the need to expand on their work by constructing a new measure of FP i.e. the FPQ. This chapter also reviewed the literature relating to competencies, IM, CWBs, social loafing, work ethics and social norms, political behaviours, and the "good soldier" versus the "good actor." A discussion of the associated literature helped to further define the construct of FP and a model of self-presentation behaviours was presented in order to distinguish FP from IM. Finally, this chapter concluded with a summary of the current research need and the proposed research questions.

Chapter 3

False Performance in Selection and Appraisal

“The greatest wisdom is seeing through appearances.”
(Atiśa, 11th century Tibetan Buddhist master, as cited in Taminang, 2008, p. 63)

3.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter primarily focuses upon furthering an understanding of how False Performance (FP) tactics might be used within the context of the job interview and the performance appraisal interview. There will be a discussion of both impression management (IM) and FP techniques, and the IM literature will be used to illustrate how FP might operate within an interview setting. This chapter will also introduce the issue of faking and distortion and it will consider whether or not this problem might be countered by the inclusion of a social desirability scale in personality tests.

3.2 Recruitment and Selection

As the process of recruitment and selection forms a significant backdrop to the current study of FP, it is important to clearly define both terms before proceeding to discuss how FP may operate in both the job interview and the performance appraisal interview. Maund (2001) provides the following definition of recruitment and selection: "Recruitment is the term given to the overall activity of choosing suitable applicants for job vacancies. Included in this process is selection, which is the latter part of the process when the organisation decides who to employ from the candidates available" (p. 199). As part of recruitment and selection, the interview process may consist of different elements e.g. personality tests, oral presentations, etc. Overall, however, the job interview is one of the most common selection methods used by organisations. It generally involves the candidate being asked a series of questions which have been developed by the employer and, depending on the organisation; it will vary in length and may have a structured or unstructured question format.

3.3 Impression Management in the Job Interview

The job interview is a vital setting in which an enhanced knowledge of FP could be used by Human Resources (HR). Although previous research has not investigated the practice of FP in the job interview, IM studies indicate that self-promotion techniques are very likely to feature during a job interview. It has been suggested that interviews offer individuals the perfect opportunity to manage their impressions because both the interviewer and the interviewee are attempting to fit the needs of the other (Godfrey et al., 1986). Barrick, Shaffer and DeGrassi (2009) propose that IM strategies are used "...to purposefully and strategically present positive information about the self (candidate) in order to obtain a favourable evaluation from the interviewer" (p. 1396). Notably, the majority of research on IM has been conducted at the dyadic level, with studies tending to focus on how one person behaves in order to impress another, particularly in settings such as the job interview.

Goffman (1959) cites the job interview as a clear example of when an individual will "...give much preparation and thought to his performance" (p. 219). Goffman explains that "...when an individual appears in the presence of others, there will usually be some reason for him to mobilise his activity so that it will convey an impression to others which it is in his interests to convey" (p. 16). According to Goffman's theory of IM, people operate on a dual level, adopting "front stage" and "back stage" behaviours, with only the "front stage" acts visible to the audience. The "front stage" is described as "that part of the individual's performance which regularly functions in a general and fixed fashion to define the situation for those who observe the performance" (Goffman, 1959, p. 32). Goffman's theatrical theory of a divided self can be used to illustrate how the false performer might mobilise their activity in the workplace in order to convey an impression of competence.

Goffman (1959) indirectly discusses the construct of FP in describing the deceptive behaviours which people may engage in to give a particular impression. Goffman states that such impressions may be false, designed by an individual to project a deliberate version of the self to a target audience they wish to (mis)lead in some way. Goffman considers the observable ways in which the individual, in an ordinary work situation, presents themselves and their activity to others. On the "front stage," the player employs various behaviours to control the impression which others form of them. In terms of FP, the application of Goffman's theory illustrates how the false performer might use the "front stage" to give an appearance of competence (e.g. image, conduct, and speech). Goffman is also concerned with the things people do to sustain their performance, including the "backstage" acts which allow people to prepare and relax from their images. As Goffman explains, "If a factory worker is to succeed in giving the appearance of working hard all day, then he must have a safe place to hide the jig that enables him to turn out a day's work with less than a full day's effort" (p. 116). It is in such a way that the false performer may use the "back stage" space to lapse back into incompetence and prepare the competent work image which they wish to project to others on the "front stage" of the workplace.

3.3.1 The Effects of Impression Management on the Interviewer

The IM literature indicates that "front stage" FP behaviours in the interview are likely to have a powerful effect on the interviewer. Previous studies (e.g. Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Kacmar, Delery, & Ferris, 1992) suggest that some patterns of IM may affect interviewers' evaluations. Stevens and Kristof (1995) conducted a field study of applicant IM during job interviews so as to gauge the process involved in "making the right impression." The purpose of their study was to provide data on the use of applicants' influence tactics during actual interviews, as well as on whether there is a relationship between applicants' IM tactics

and their interview outcomes. Stevens and Kristof found that the applicant may deliberately misrepresent their job qualifications by using various IM tactics such as self-promotion, amongst other less documented techniques like storytelling. Crucially, Stevens and Kristof's study showed that IM tactics significantly predicted interviewers' evaluations. These findings support Anderson's (1991) argument that applicant IM interferes with interviewers' decision processes. Anderson warns that, "Impression management by the interviewee...represents a potent source of error in interviewer judgements which may or may not be recognised as such" (p. 414). Unfortunately, if interviewers base their evaluations purely on a candidate's IM skills, this will probably lead to judgemental errors that undermine the validity of the entire interview process.

Through Stevens and Kristof's (1995) research, it is apparent that interviewers may, at least to some degree, base their evaluations on applicants' IM skills. Previous research has, in fact, demonstrated that one of the strongest predictors of interviewers' evaluations is their subjective impressions of applicants' interview performance (Dipboye, 1992). In studies that have examined paper credentials (e.g. application forms) versus interviewers' subjective impressions, it has emerged that interviewers' subjective impressions explain substantially more variance in the decision to appoint a candidate (Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Graves & Powell, 1988; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990). For example, Rynes and Gerhart found that when applicants promote interpersonal attraction (e.g. by emphasising their similarity) or highlight their motivation and competence, interviewers' subjective impressions and evaluations become more positive. From a slightly different angle, Lievens and Peeters (2008) have explored interviewers' sensitivity to IM. They explain that, as a result of the job interview's short time span and substantial cognitive demands (Dipboye, 1992); it is possible that interviewers simplify the complex judgement process by using cognitive heuristics. Lievens and Peeters warn that the use of such psychological rules-of-thumb may render interviewers more susceptible to IM use by candidates. This warning is especially relevant to the current study of FP because the false performer potentially relies upon the interviewer making such cognitive shortcuts in order for their FP tactics to work.

3.4 Faking

As part of the interview process, certain employers implement special measures in order to detect the true character of their applicants. For example, some organisations require candidates to complete a personality test as part of the recruitment and selection process. However, Griffith, Chmielowski and Yoshita (2007) explain that whilst personality measures have proven to be practical and effective tools for personnel selection, they have been subject to criticism because they may be faked by job applicants (e.g. Douglas, McDaniel, & Snell, 1996). The faking of measures has been variously referred to as response distortion,

IM, social desirability, displaying unlikely virtues, and self-enhancement (e.g. Hough & Paullin, 1994). Levashina and Campion (2006) define faking as an intentional distortion or falsification of responses on measures in order to create a specific impression or provide the best answer (Comrey & Backer, 1975; Furnham, 1986; Stark, Chernyshenko, Chan, Lee, & Drasgow, 2001). They explain that, as part of the selection process, applicants may respond in a calculated manner to enhance their chances of getting the job.

Searle (2003) explains that in real-life selection and recruitment situations, an applicant may contaminate the interview process by falsifying information. Most employers now realise that applicants may deliberately fabricate work experience in order to make a good impression. Searle explains that applicants will usually try to present themselves as impressively as possible, either indirectly when filling in the application form or responding to an item on a personality test, or more directly during the job interview. Searle explains how the use of self-report personality tests allow two distinct types of distortion to emerge, both of which can influence the reliability and validity of the test results. The first type is unintentional distortion by an individual who either has limited self-insight or is eager to please and be seen positively. The second type of distortion refers to those test-takers who consciously engage in IM or faking. Searle explains that this occurs for several reasons, the most harmless being that the test-taker chooses the safe, middle response in a rating scale on a consistent basis. This type of acquiescence can be countered by using different response formats. However, the other type of distortion may occur due to the social desirability response whereby a test-taker tries to respond in the most socially acceptable or socially desirable way. This response can be subconscious and it may reflect a person's desire to fit in or please others. However, this response can also be a more deliberate act of manipulation designed so that the test-taker appears much better or worse than they know their true scores may indicate them to be. There are several methods for safeguarding against faking or distortion in the administration of personality tests, one of which is the inclusion of a social desirability scale (Searle, 2003).

3.5 Social Desirability Scales

Searle (2003) explains that social desirability scales “are designed to identify those who have set out to manage the impression they make in the test, either by appearing more positive, termed ‘faking good’, or by trying to position themselves as worse, termed ‘faking bad’” (p. 216). These measures consist of items which have been selected on the basis that most people respond in a certain way. A popular social desirability scale is the Marlowe-Crowne scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) which includes items such as, “I’m always willing to admit when I make a mistake” or “I like to gossip at times.” Based on the faking and

distortion literature, it is logical to suggest that the inclusion of a social desirability scale in the FPQ may help to identify a false performer's attempt to "fake good." However, according to another body of research (e.g. Snell, Sydell, & Lueke, 1999) the inclusion of a social desirability scale does not necessarily provide a safeguard against faking.

Snell et al. (1999) propose that measures of social desirability are actually not very effective in identifying fakers. A host of other studies have also failed to find support for the value of employing social desirability scales (e.g. Alperin, Archer, & Coates, 1996; Costa & McCrae, 1997; Piedmont, McCrae, Riemann, & Angleitner, 2000). For example, in an examination of the Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire (MPQ; Tellegen, 1978/1982) and the Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R; Costa & McCrae, 1992), Piedmont et al. found no evidence to suggest that social desirability scales function to improve the validity of personality assessments. As such, Piedmont et al. conclude that the use of these scales to combat biased responding "is a matter of scientific controversy" (p. 590). If the inclusion of a social desirability scale in personality tests fails to improve the prediction of performance outcomes, this calls into question whether or not such scales should be used. Piedmont et al. recommend diverting the emphasis away from detecting invalidity towards improving the quality of assessment.

Snell et al. (1999) also explain that empirical studies have failed to provide sufficient evidence of a relationship between the theory of IM and the behaviour of IM scores in relation to personality test scores. Results show that, under honest conditions (i.e. test conditions where respondents are asked to be honest rather than "fake good"), the personality scores of those with high IM scores are not necessarily less accurate than the scores obtained by respondents with low IM scores. Given the overall evidence, Snell et al. conclude that it is difficult to conclude that individuals with high IM scores would be more motivated to fake selection measures than individuals with low IM scores. Consequently, Snell et al. ask the critical question, why then are IM scores treated as a measure of intentional response distortion? Snell et al. state that this should not be the case because the research indicates that IM scores do not directly measure deliberate attempts to fake or correlate with behaviours and attitudes that might predict faking. As FP is a form of IM, this research is also an indicator that FP behaviour should not be treated as a measure of intentional response distortion. There should not be an automatic assumption that FP scores will correlate with the behaviours and attitudes that might predict faking. Based on Snell et al.'s review of the faking literature, there does not appear to be enough evidence to suggest that false performers are any more likely to fake their responses on a personality test than non-false performers.

Finally, Pauls and Crost (2004) have shown that social desirability scales can be faked like any other personality scale. In their study, they found that the IM and self-deceptive enhancement (SDE) scales of the Balanced Inventory of Social Desirable Responding Version 7 (BIDR-7; Paulhus, 1984, 1991, 1998) could actually be faked if participants were instructed to fake their responses. Pauls and Crost, therefore, conclude that “at least in faking conditions social desirability scales do not seem to provide additional diagnostic information beyond that derived from personality scales” (p. 1149). Based on the overall evidence presented in the social desirability literature, the current study opted not to include a measure of social desirability in the FPQ developed in the quantitative phase.

3.6 False Performance in Performance Appraisal Interviews

Another organisational setting in which FP is likely to play an important role is in the performance appraisal interview. Most organisations now feature regular appraisal interviews for all members of staff as this provides a crucial means of monitoring job performance and setting future work targets. Depending on the organisation, performance appraisal interviews are variously referred to as performance reviews, development reviews, job evaluations, or one-to-ones. According to Gold's (2003) definition, “Appraisal is a process that provides an analysis of a person's overall capabilities and potential, allowing informed decisions to be made for particular purposes. An important part of the process is assessment, whereby data on an individual's past and current work behaviour and performance are collected and reviewed” (p. 249). Gold explains that appraisal usually takes place formally at predetermined intervals and it involves a discussion or interview between a manager and an individual employee. The purposes of these discussions are categorised into either: 1) The *judgement* purpose – the making of administrative decisions concerning pay, promotions, and work responsibilities; and 2) The *development* purpose – the improvement of performance through the discussion of development needs, training opportunities, and forward-planning of work actions.

In relation to performance appraisal, Parnell and Singer (2001) have asked, “How substantial is the role of charlatan behavior in overall performance appraisals in most organizations?” (p. 451). In the results of their study, Parnell and Singer report what they coin a “disturbing” finding, that being a positive and significant correlation between management evaluations and Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS) scores. This finding indicates that management are likely to give higher scores to those employees who place an emphasis on managing their image, and act in the way they believe is expected by the organisation. As Parnell and Singer's study suggests that FP is associated with subjective performance assessments, the current study aims to further investigate the role of FP in performance appraisal interviews.

3.6.1 Impression Management in Performance Appraisal Interviews

Poon (2004) explains that rating accuracy is a critical aspect of the appraisal process and the effectiveness of the performance appraisal as a managerial decision tool depends on whether the performance appraisal system is able to provide accurate data on employee performance. The previous discussion concerning the use of IM in the job interview (see section 3.3) explained how IM can be used to attract positive feedback from an interviewer. The same principle also applies within the setting of the performance appraisal interview, a comparable work scenario in which subordinates also seek favourable evaluation. In terms of previous research, several studies have examined the effects of IM behaviour on performance ratings and found support for the relationship between subordinate IM behaviour and supervisor performance ratings (e.g. Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991).

For example, Wayne and Liden (1995) developed a theoretical model of IM for understanding the long-term effects of IM behaviour on supervisor performance ratings. They employed the cognitive information processing approach to explain how supervisors translate their perceptions of subordinate IM into initial impressions, encode them into memory, and later retrieve and decode them when rating the subordinates' performance (Lord, 1985; Schneider, 1991). Subordinates' supervisor-focused IM may favourably influence their supervisors' impressions and categorisations of them, and the latter then become "encoded into memory." Several months later, when a supervisor comes to evaluate the subordinate's performance, the favourable categorisation they have stored is "retrieved," thus resulting in a biased rating.

Supervisors may well become susceptible to employee IM strategies designed to manipulate their judgements (Jones & Wortman, 1973). If this happens, successful subordinate IM behaviours might attract more favourable appraisals from their superiors (Jones & Wortman, 1973; Wood & Mitchell, 1981). For example, it may be that supervisors, on the basis of subordinates' IM behaviour, categorise new employees as friendly, hard-working and similar to themselves. This categorisation may compare favourably with the supervisor's prototype of what constitutes ideal subordinate behaviours. A match between this prototype and processed information, based on the subordinate's IM, may positively influence the task, assignments, feedback, resources, and support the supervisor provides to the subordinates. Of course, it is also possible that the supervisor's initial favourable categorisation could influence the supervisor's behaviour towards the subordinate, and this support may actually result in the subordinate's behaviour being better than others, and rating biases may occur (Feldman, 1986; Ilgen & Feldman, 1983).

As well as developing different types of categorisations, Wayne and Liden (1995) point out that supervisors may develop expectations about subordinates' performance during the job interview process, as opposed to when they go on to work with the subordinate afterwards. Consequently, supervisor performance expectations and impressions formed of an applicant during interview may influence subsequent performance ratings more than IM behaviour that occurs on the job. This suggests that IM behaviours during the initial job interview may have even more far-reaching effects than previously investigated. Although Wayne and Liden were unable to determine whether the participants in their study consciously or unconsciously used IM to influence future performance ratings, the results were consistent with such an interpretation. They found that supervisor-focused IM (communicating feelings of liking and admiration to a supervisor), measured at six weeks, had a significant, indirect effect on performance ratings measured at six months, whereas self-focused IM did not (strategies conveying the impression of being a friendly, hard-working, model employee). Wayne and Liden's study provides evidence of the long-term effects of IM on performance ratings and, thus, provides support for the argument that IM can be used strategically to influence future outcomes with important organisational implications (Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984).

3.6.2 What You See May Not Be What You Get

Barrick et al. (2009) have more recently investigated how "what you may see may not be what you get." They explored the relationships among self-presentation tactics and ratings of interview and job performance. They explain that the image candidates portray in the job interview, by means of appearance, IM, and verbal and non-verbal behaviour, has been hypothesised to influence interviewer ratings. Therefore, they conducted a meta-analysis to determine the extent to which a shrewd applicant, who alters the image they present, can favourably influence the interviewer in order to get the job, and to examine under what conditions such self-presentation tactics influence the interviewer's decision processes. This meta-analysis has significant implications for the study of FP because it highlights how employees control their self-image in order to attract positive appraisal. The results of Barrick et al.'s meta-analysis show that candidates' use of self-presentation tactics do have a meaningful influence on interviewer ratings and this influence is stronger when the interview is unstructured as opposed to structured.

In comparing the job interview with the performance appraisal interview, Barrick et al. (2009) found that self-presentation tactics had stronger relationships with interview ratings than they did with job performance ratings. Barrick et al. also found that, according to previous studies (e.g. Salgado & Moscoso, 2002), self-presentation tactics, even only modestly correlated to

job performance, may impact interviewer ratings just as much or even more than clearly valid predictors of later job performance e.g. general mental ability, conscientiousness, and job experience. This seems to suggest that, despite only modest correlations between self-presentation tactics and job performance, employers appear to accord more importance to the process of IM than to more objective measures of performance.

Barrick et al. (2009) further explain that, according to interdependence theory, the employee is often heavily reliant on the manager for important outcomes, such as pay, promotion, and relocation. Similarly, the applicant is heavily reliant on the interviewer. Additionally, the employer and employee may have conflicting interests, just as in the interview. In the performance appraisal interview, the employee presumably wants to receive the highest rating possible, whilst the employer is concerned with gaining the most accurate information with which to rate the employee under review. As in a job interview, the employee will want to increase rewards and decrease punishments on the job, so they may well utilise self-presentation tactics if asked to subjectively rate their own performance. Barrick et al. explain that shrewd employees (like shrewd interviewees) will try to present their performance to influence the employer by conveying the impression that they are a valuable employee. This may entail emphasising the money they have saved the company or how they have contributed to a team project.

Cook (1995) explains that “someone whose true performance is poor, but who is a good self-publicist, or good at claiming responsibility for others’ work, or successful at defining his/her achievements as useful and important, will achieve better performance reviews” (p. 6). This characterisation matches the definition of the false performer and it helps to explain how they might use self-promotion to excel within the context of the performance appraisal interview. Conversely, those whose true performance is competent may get poorer performance reviews because they are not as good at self-publicising, or they do not claim responsibility for others’ successes, or they fail to get their work recognised as important (Cook, 1995). Cook explains that if the performance appraisal interview is contaminated by such IM behaviours, it is less able to accurately reflect true performance.

3.7 The Job Interview versus the Performance Appraisal Interview

Whilst a candidate may be able to deceive a manager in the job interview, if they try to mislead the supervisor later, whilst on the job, through similar FP tactics to those used in the job interview, their performance may not be so effective. Rosenfeld, Giacalone and Riordan (2002) explain that self-promotion has been found to be more effective during job interviews (Howard & Ferris, 1996) but less so during performance evaluations (Kacmar & Carlson,

1999). Rosenfeld et al. liken the job interview to “a first date” where “the participants don’t know each other – leaving the interviewer vulnerable to the candidate’s self-promotion” (p. 57). Barrick et al. (2009) explain that two major differences between the initial interview and the performance appraisal are time and access to information. In the interview, time is short and the recruitment decision must necessarily be made on the basis of a limited amount of information. In contrast, in performance appraisal interviews, the supervisor (unlike the interviewer) is not dependent on the employee for all of their information because they have had a longer period of time to actually observe the employee while they are doing the job. This suggests that when a supervisor becomes more familiar with an employee over the course of time, they are less likely to be susceptible to FP. Therefore, the more opportunities the employer has to observe the employee’s performance, the more accurate their ultimate appraisal of the employee’s performance is likely to be (McFarland, Ryan, & Kriska, 2003).

An irregular performance appraisal system makes it more likely that an employer will be misled as to the overall quality of an employee’s work outcomes. Rosenfeld et al. (2002) describe a phenomenon called the “performance appraisal blip” whereby there is a surge in performance (be it quality or quantity) right before the yearly performance appraisal interview. They describe how employees strive to create the impression of being a “good worker” in the direct lead-up to their performance review. It may be that the false performer intensifies their FP efforts in such a way just before their performance appraisal interview. Overall, it will be easier for the false performer to fool their manager if they know that their day-to-day work performance is not being observed, and that they need only convince their manager that they are competent within the parameters of the annual appraisal interview.

3.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter has drawn upon the IM and FP literature in order to discuss interview-related IM techniques within the context of the job interview and the performance appraisal interview. Overall, the IM literature (e.g. Barrick et al., 2009) indicates that FP behaviours in the job interview are likely to have a powerful effect on the interviewer. Parnell and Singer’s (2001) findings similarly suggest that FP is likely to have a positive and significant effect on subjective management evaluations in the performance appraisal interview. As Parnell and Singer previously recommended additional research in this direction, the current study aimed to further investigate the role of FP in the performance appraisal interview. In this chapter, there was also a critical discussion of faking in personality tests and a consideration of whether faking or distortion can be minimised by the inclusion of a social desirability scale.

Chapter 4

The Effect of False Performance on Work Relationships

“In order to trust another team member, the trustor must be confident that the other has the ability to perform his/her element of the task.”

(Ashleigh & Prichard, 2011, p. 132)

4.1 Chapter Overview

Organisations consist of complex networks of relationships between workers and managers of different grades and within and between teams (Young & Daniel, 2003). It is logical to suggest that the false performer's disingenuous actions will somehow fracture trusting relationships within the organisation, so trust is a topic which will receive priority in this chapter's discussion of the effect of FP on work relationships.

4.2 The Effect of False Performance on Work Relationships

The phenomenon of False Performance (FP) in the workplace is likely to have a disruptive influence on many aspects of organisational life, including team dynamics and work relationships. Previous chapters introduced the construct of FP and explained how the false performer adopts a range of promotional behaviours to avoid detection and ensure that they are not viewed as perfunctory, especially by management. False performers intentionally use impression management (IM) techniques as a strategy to ingratiate themselves with supervisors or influential others. They capitalise on the management of self-image to promote an appearance of competence, thus influencing the process of selection and appraisal in an effort to be positively favoured. Goffman (1959) provides an insight into how the discovery of FP in the workplace might impact on trust by blurring the boundaries between competent and incompetent performance. According to Goffman, "the more closely the imposter's performance approximates to the real thing, the more intensely we may be threatened, for a competent performance by someone who proves to be an imposter may weaken in our minds the moral connection between legitimate authorization to play a part and the capacity to play it" (p. 66-67). Moreover, if the false performer progresses to higher levels of responsibility and authority in spite of their incompetence, this will most likely create dissension and ill will amongst their co-workers who, in working alongside the false performer, are usually more aware of the pretence than are management.

4.3 Trust in the Workplace

Trust has been increasingly recognised as a critical aspect of organisational life (Worrall, Cooper, & Lindorff, 2011). Within organisations, trust has been identified as a delicate resource (Searle, Weibel, & Den Hartog, 2011), yet one which is vital to maintain for optimum organisational performance. Research has shown that fostering high levels of trust leads to improved cooperation and coordination, lower levels of conflict, and enhanced job performance (e.g. Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Zaheer, McEvily, & Perrone, 1998). Dietz, Martins and Searle (2011) explain that trusting relationships at work have also been positively associated with other workplace phenomena, including higher job satisfaction and

organisational commitment, discretionary effort on behalf of stakeholders, knowledge sharing, and even customer satisfaction, sales, and profit (e.g. Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001). Dietz et al. further explain that there is evidence to suggest that employers should focus upon providing a positive working environment if employees are to perform at their best; for example, by supporting them in their efforts, and treating them fairly in terms of reward, welfare, and voice (Davis, Schoorman, Mayer, & Tan, 2000; Simons, 2002). Dietz et al. emphasise that a level of appropriate two-way trust is needed. However, in circumstances involving the false performer, it will be difficult to establish this type of two-way trusting relationship because the false performer is inherently untrustworthy, committed only to perpetuating the untruths which promote their self-image. As there is plentiful literature to suggest that trust affects performance (e.g. Dietz et al., 2011), it is unsurprising that the FP research has explored the relationship between trust and FP (e.g. Gbadamosi, 2006; Gbadamosi et al., 2007).

Searle, Den Hartog, et al. (2011) point out that, "Trust in the employer is an increasingly important element for organizations to develop and maintain" (p. 1069). They explain that a number of studies have provided evidence that employee trust is a critical variable affecting the effectiveness, efficiency, and performance of organisations (Kramer & Tyler, 1996; Mayer & Davis, 1999; Whitney, 1994). According to the literature, employees who have high trust in the organisation they work for stay there longer, put in more effort, and work more cooperatively (Searle, Den Hartog, et al. 2011), whereas those who do not trust their organisation may reduce the effectiveness of their work (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001), produce counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs) such as obstruction or seeking revenge (Bies & Tripp, 1996), or decide to leave the organisation (Robinson, 1996). These findings are consistent with Gbadamosi et al.'s (2007) study which reported that the lower employees' trust in management, the higher their tendency to manifest FP behaviour, with the proposed explanation being that employees may believe such FP behaviour will help them to keep their job. Overall, the evidence suggests that organisations could be responsible for promoting FP behaviour by not instilling a sense of trust in their employees.

4.3.1 Trust in Management

Previous FP research (e.g. Gbadamosi et al., 2007) suggests that the false performer may be more likely to false perform if they have low trust in their manager. De Cremer, Snyder and DeWitte (2001) have found that when trust is high, people tend to engage in more cooperative behaviour. This finding indicates that an environment characterised by more trust may reduce the overall incidence of FP. Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) have proposed that trust is "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another

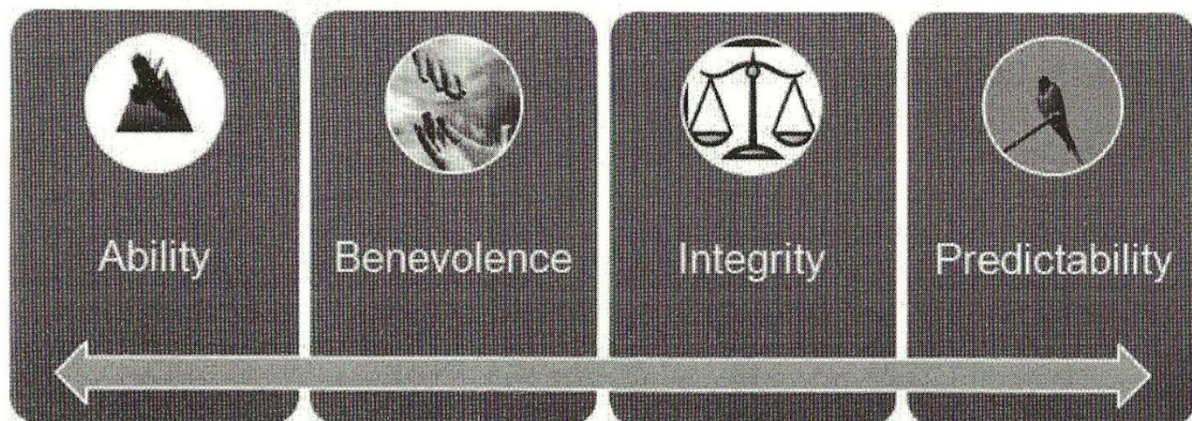
party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party” (p. 712).

At the outset of their study, Gbadamosi et al. (2007) asked, “Could the absence of trust in management among employees increase the incidence of charlatan behaviour among them?” (p. 754). To explore this research question, Gbadamosi et al. (2007) examined the relationship between FP and trust in management. They also examined the relationship between continuance commitment (people staying with the organisation because they need to) and FP. According to Gbadamosi et al.’s results, both trust in management and continuance commitment emerged as significant predictors of FP behaviour. In summary, they found an inverse and significant relationship between FP and trust in management, and a positive and significant relationship between FP and continuance commitment. Based on these results, Gbadamosi et al. conclude that the lower the trust the employee has in the organisation, the lower the likely commitment and the greater the likelihood they will, therefore, engage in FP.

Searle, Hope-Hailey and Dietz (2012) explain that central to trust, at whatever levels, “are individual’s perceptions of the trustworthiness of the other party, whether this is an organisation, leaders, or those in line management” (p. 12). They explain that there are four distinct components to trustworthiness (see Figure 4.1): Ability – the extent to which this party is believed to have the necessary skills or competence; Benevolence – how much they are regarded as genuinely caring about others’ well-being; Integrity – this focuses on their adherence to moral principles and high standards of behaviour; and Predictability – the perceived consistency of their behaviour over time. According to Searle et al., these dimensions inform whether and how far employees will trust in their leaders or not.

In order to investigate organisational trust and the issue of its repair, Hope-Hailey, Searle and Dietz (2012) conducted a study for the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD). This study was carried out in the UK in both the public and private sector, and it consisted of a large scale survey, as well as a number of interviews and focus groups. Of particular relevance to the current study is Hope-Hailey et al.’s finding that there are more likely to be low levels of trust in leaders in public sector organisations. Hope-Hailey et al. conclude that their findings reflect how the behaviours of those at the top have a real significance for trust in the organisation as a whole. If Hope-Hailey et al.’s findings are taken into account alongside Gbadamosi et al.’s (2007) results; this indicates that FP may be more prolific within the public sector where lower levels of trust in management have been found.

Figure 4.1 Four Dimensions of Trustworthiness



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Source: Searle, Hope-Hailey and Dietz (2012, p. 13).

4.3.2 Trust in the Organisation

Whilst previous studies of FP behaviour (e.g. Gbadamosi et al., 2007) have examined the relationship between FP behaviour and trust, such research has failed to differentiate between trust in management and trust in the organisation. However, current research in the area of trust (e.g. Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Weibel et al., 2015) highlights the need to clarify “at what level (and in whom) we trust” (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012, p. 1167). According to Fulmer and Gelfand, “despite the importance of trust across multiple levels in organizations, extant reviews have focused predominantly on trust at the individual level (p. 1167). However, in a recent study of how organisational controls impact on employees’ trust in their organisation, Weibel et al. clearly distinguish between interpersonal trust (e.g. trust in one’s management or co-workers) and trust in the employing organisation. They explain that, “Trusting an organization entails different types of vulnerabilities, dependencies, and risks than trusting a person” (p. 2). Namely, they propose that, in the case of trusting the organisation, it is the control systems within the organisation which protect employees by reducing their risk and vulnerability in relation to that organisation. To describe this particular type of trust, Maguire and Phillips (2008) define it as “an individual’s expectation that some organized system will act with predictability and goodwill” (p. 372). Thus, where trust in the organisation is concerned, the referent is a collective or a system and not a person or persons (Weibel et al., 2015). Weibel et al. also draw on Gillespie and Dietz’s (2009) definition of trust in the organisation to explain that such trust is based on both the employee’s assessment of the organisation’s competency to reliably fulfil its responsibilities (i.e. ability) and the expectation that organisational actions represent genuine concern for stakeholders and adherence to moral values such as honesty and fairness (i.e. intentions).

In terms of organisational control, this has been defined as a process whereby the organisation regulates, or adapts, the behaviour of employees in line with the organisation's objectives (Cardinal & Sitkin, 2009; Challagalla & Shervani, 1997). In their study of employee perceptions of control systems, Weibel et al. (2015) focus on two types of control which are related to day-to-day work: process and output control. Process controls refer to the formalised written Human Resources (HR) procedures which specify exactly how employees should do the job and how this work should be monitored. Output controls, on the other hand, involve formal practices which set clear targets, monitor the output employees produce, and appraise the results. For example, HR practices such as performance appraisal and management are both forms of output control. In addition to studying these controls, Weibel et al. also examined normative control as a third aspect of an organisation's control system. They explain that employee behaviour is heavily influenced by normative control, "that is the enforcement of accepted organisational norms and values, and the sanctioning of deviation from these norms" (Sitkin & George, as cited in Weibel et al., 2015, p. 4). Although such enforcement may depend on formal processes (e.g. official sanctioning of noncompliance with norms), it often results from informal norm enforcement practices, such as peer pressure. Weibel et al. emphasise that the study of normative control is particularly germane given the growing call for ethical compliance within organisations.

Weibel et al. (2015) point out that although previous trust research has examined the control-trust relationship, it has focused mainly on interpersonal trust (e.g. Langfred, 2004) rather than trust in the organisation. Consequently, as a result of this gap in the research, little is known about how organisational controls relate to employees' trust in the organisation. However, in response to this lack of knowledge and calls to clarify in whom the individual is trusting (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012), Weibel et al. conducted what they believe constitutes the first examination of how organisational controls relate to employee trust in the organisation, as well as an exploration of what the mediators of this relationship might be. Weibel et al.'s contemporaneous research is particularly timely given the current study's continued exploration of the relationship between FP behaviour and trust. Thus far, the existing FP research (e.g. Gbadamosi et al., 2007) has examined FP behaviour in relation to one form of interpersonal trust i.e. trust in management, with findings indicating that the false performer may be more likely to false perform if they have low trust in their manager. For instance, Gbadamosi et al. found a strong and significant inverse relationship between FP and trust in management, a result which suggests that FP may be similarly influenced by trust in the organisation. However, no work has yet been done to examine the relationship between FP and organisational trust, nor the role of control systems in influencing FP behaviour. As such, it was considered important to explore these issues in the current study.

Firstly, there is the question of how the control-trust relationship might affect the manifestation of FP in the workplace, given that Weibel et al. (2015) found clear evidence to suggest that having reliable and well-implemented control systems can facilitate trust in the employing organisation. For example, in their exploratory survey study, their findings revealed that three forms of control were perceived by respondents as influencing trust i.e. process, output, and normative controls. Weibel et al. explain that, when well implemented, these types of control were seen as building organisational trust through facilitating fair transparent treatment and supporting the organisation's reputation and competence. On the other hand, poorly implemented control systems which were inconsistent, overly rigid, or somehow incentivised untrustworthy behaviour were found to undermine trust in the organisation. If relating Weibel et al.'s findings to FP, it seems possible that in organisations where controls are perceived to be weak, employees may lose or fail to develop trust in their employer, and this could lead to an increase in FP. This reasoning is also based on the existing FP research (e.g. Gbadamosi et al., 2007) which suggests that the less trust the false performer has in management, the more likely they are to false perform. This raises two key questions: (1) Could the false performer be similarly influenced by trust in the organisation such that they may be more likely to false perform if they have low trust in their organisation?; and (2) In organisations with strong control systems, could employees be less likely to false perform as they have greater trust in their employing organisation?

Alternatively, another possibility is that FP behaviour may in fact increase in organisations where there are strong control systems in place. It has been suggested by a conflicting body of research that there may actually be a negative effect of control on trust. For instance, some researchers argue that control systems can actually signal distrust (e.g. Argyris, 1952; Ghoshal & Moran, 1996; Strickland, 1958), or change attribution processes, thereby diminishing trust in the other party (Malhotra & Lumineau, 2011). Thus, it is important to take both sides of the control-trust debate into account when considering how research in this area can be drawn upon to explain how trust might either encourage or hinder FP. Also, when considering issues of control and trust in relation to FP, it is important to take into account that the construct of FP is largely presented as an individual phenomenon in the current thesis. All of the previous FP research (e.g. Gbadamosi, 2006; Gbadamosi et al., 2007; Parnell & Singer, 2001) strongly suggests that the false performer enters the organisation as an individual employee who has a predetermination to false perform. In other words, they engage in deliberate deception which is not influenced by the organisation's control systems. However, the control-trust relationship research (e.g. Weibel et al., 2015) indirectly suggests that FP may be an organisational phenomenon. It was hoped that the current study would help to illustrate whether an organisation with weak control mechanisms

could to some degree be responsible for encouraging FP behaviour amongst its workforce. As a grounded theory approach was adopted in the current study, this allowed scope for any such theme to emerge for exploration during data analysis, providing it had presented itself in the focus group discussions.

4.3.3 Co-Worker Trust

Ferres, Connell and Travaglione (2004) explain that “co-worker trust concerns confidence that one’s colleagues are competent and will act in a fair, reliable and ethical manner” (p. 610). In their concluding discussion, Parnell and Singer (2001) point out that since false performers do not appear to fool their co-workers easily then increased attention may need to be directed at using the co-worker to identify the false performer in a more objective manner. Gbadamosi (2006) also identified co-worker trust as a concept which may be able to further an understanding of the variables related to FP. Following on from these suggestions, the current study seeks to further examine the relationship between co-worker trust and FP. For example, is the false performer *less* likely to indulge in FP the more that they trust their colleagues? Or, conversely, will the false performer be *more* likely to engage in FP if they believe that their colleagues are trustworthy? The trust literature suggests that the latter scenario may be the most likely outcome. Yakelova, Reilly and Werko (2010) explain that low trusting individuals frequently become exploitative in instances where they experience their opponents behaving cooperatively over a long period. If these findings are applied to FP, it is reasonable to suggest that the false performer, probably low in their propensity to trust their co-workers due to their own untrustworthy nature, will be more likely to exploit their cooperative colleagues in the manner described by Yakelova et al. The current study aims to clarify whether co-worker trust negatively affects FP in this way, or whether it is actually able to have a positive effect on the false performer’s actions.

It is, of course, possible that co-worker trust could ameliorate the effects of FP. False performers may be less likely to engage in unethical FP behaviours if they have high trust in the people that they are working with. Searle, Weibel and Den Hartog (2011) point out that there is wide recognition of the reciprocal nature of trust, the idea being that “trust lubricates cooperation, and cooperation itself breeds trust” (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 255). This concept helps to inform an understanding of how trust might be able to influence the incidence of FP in the workplace. Ferrin, Bligh and Kohles (2008) propose that there are three routes which may allow trust to beget trust. Firstly, they argue that trust perceptions could trigger the partner’s trust perceptions through reciprocal communication. Secondly, via a tit-for-tat mentality, cooperation may instigate mutual cooperation. Finally, it is possible that the trusting employee’s positive expectations of the other party could result in trust-based

behaviours and these behaviours could in turn affect the trustworthiness perceptions that the other party holds. Ferrin et al. tested all of these routes to trust inspiring trust and concluded that trusting relationships develop when “an individual observes another’s cooperative behaviour, next develops a conclusion about the other’s trustworthiness based on that observation, and then performs a reciprocation behaviour based on that conclusion” (p. 171). In the current study, the question which presents itself is, would the false performer observe another’s trustworthy behaviour and subsequently convert their FP behaviour into a reciprocation behaviour?

In their study of co-worker trust, Ferres et al. (2008) suggest that it is within the organisation’s interests to promote co-worker trust. Ferres et al.’s findings suggest that co-worker trust enhances the positive perception of support at an organisational level, which means that trust among co-workers may contribute to employees’ perception of support from the organisation as a whole. Furthermore, Ferres et al. explain that their findings imply that employees are likely to be more emotionally attached to the organisation and less likely to want to leave when greater co-worker trust exists. Forret and Love (2008) suggest that, “Believing that an equitable distribution of rewards exists, employees should be more satisfied with their work environment and their co-workers” (p. 251).

In their development of an instrument to measure trust in management and trust in peers, Cook and Wall (1980) found that job satisfaction, organisational identification, and organisational involvement had a positive relationship with trust at the peer group level. In their research, Ferres et al. (2004) indicate that co-worker trust may also enhance productivity by sustaining social capital (the networks of relationships among people) within organisations. Therefore, based on the implications of the existing co-worker trust research, there appears to be a strong argument for organisations engendering high levels of trust throughout the workforce. This potentially includes more closely monitoring FP as this phenomenon may have the potential to cause a critical decline in co-worker trust.

4.3.4 The False Performing Manager

Another dynamic to consider in relation to trust in the workplace concerns the relationship between the false performing manager and their subordinates. Evidence suggests that trust in leaders has a positive effect within organisations (Searle, Weibel, & Den Hartog, 2011). For instance, in a meta-analytic review conducted by Dirks and Ferrin (2002), trust in leaders was found to be positively related to enhanced job performance, organisational citizenship behaviour, commitment, satisfaction, and reduced turnover intentions. Searle, Weibel and Den Hartog explain that the trust process between leader and subordinate will be affected by

the leader's personal characteristics and actions. For example, they explain that a leader's trustworthiness in the eyes of their subordinates will rely on the intentions that the followers attribute to their leader (e.g. benevolence and integrity versus malevolence and dishonesty), and the leader's perceived competence levels and ability (i.e. the extent to which the leader is seen as capable). If the leader's behaviours signal trustworthy cues then trust in the leader will grow (e.g. Sweeney, 2010).

In a study of ethical leadership, Peterson (2004) examined the relationship between perceived leader integrity, belief in universal moral rules, and employees' ethical intentions. The results revealed that both higher perceived leader integrity and stronger beliefs in universal moral rules were associated with lower intentions to commit unethical acts. According to Peterson's findings, employees with a strong moral sense were unlikely to behave unethically regardless of the perceived integrity of their leader. However, for individuals without a belief in universal moral rules, the perceived integrity of their leader was likely to have a greater influence. The intention for such individuals to commit unethical acts decreased as the perceived integrity of the leader increased. Therefore, Peterson reached the conclusion that individuals who believe ethics are relative are more likely to rely on referent others, such as their manager, to determine what is ethically appropriate.

The literature on trust in leaders is pertinent to the study of managerial FP because it indicates how employee perceptions of managerial competence might affect their own subordinate job performance. If subordinates become aware that their manager is untrustworthy and practicing FP, it is possible that they could change their own behaviour. Employees may develop low levels of trust in their manager and this could then cause their job performance to decline or, worse still, they may even start to mimic their manager's FP behaviours in their own job role. Conversely, if subordinates grow to trust their manager, it is possible that this could reduce the incidence of FP in the workplace. Peterson (2004) explains that many empirical studies of leader influence have asked individuals to identify the factors that have the greatest impact on their judgements concerning ethical dilemmas in the workplace. According to Peterson, the results generally indicate that leaders are perceived to play a very important role in determining the ethical attitudes of subordinates (Brenner & Molander, 1977; Posner & Schmidt, 1984; Soutar, McNeil, & Molster, 1994). Thus, if a false performing subordinate has a high level of trust in their manager and the ethical attitudes which they hold, could this inspire them to genuinely engage with their job, consequently rendering their previous FP behaviour null and void? Or, considering that it is employees who are more trustworthy in nature who tend to trust their employer more

(Searle, Den Hartog, et al. 2011), is it unlikely that the untrustworthy false performer would ever experience high levels of trust in their manager under any circumstance?

4.3.5 Trust across Multiple Levels of the Organisation

Thus far, this chapter has considered trust from the point of view of trust in management, trust in the organisation, co-worker trust, and the false performing manager. As previously touched on, Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) have emphasised the importance of attending to trust across multiple levels of the organisation. Fulmer and Gelfand point out that despite the vast body of evidence highlighting the central role of trust in organisations, the focus is usually on trust at the individual level (e.g. Kramer, 1999; Lewicki, Tomlinson, & Gillespie, 2006; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). However, in reviewing the research on trust, they explain that, “Organizations are inherently multilevel systems, and trust, like many other constructs, operates at the individual, team, and organizational levels of analysis, making attention to different levels a theoretical and empirical imperative (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994)” (p. 1168). In the current study’s consideration of the role of trust in affecting FP behaviour within organisations, an effort has been made to understand how the relationship between trust and FP could play out at the individual, team, and organisational levels. For example, in this chapter, there has been a multi-level discussion of the individual false performer’s trust in management, team trust or lack of in a false performing colleague or manager, and how the false performer’s trust in the organisation might encourage or hinder their FP behaviour.

In their systematic review of the existing trust research across levels and trust referents, Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) have attempted to provide “a blueprint for future research” (p. 1167). This has involved more precisely defining how trust operates at the individual, team, and organisational levels. Instead of drawing on the multiple definitions of trust, which have been based predominately at the individual level, they have chosen to define trust across levels and referents. As such, they explain,

...trust in an organization at the individual level is defined as a psychological state comprising willingness to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of an organization, and trust in an organization at the team level as a shared psychological state among team members comprising willingness to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of an organization, and trust in an organization at the organizational level as a shared psychological state among organizational members comprising willingness to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of an organization. (p. 1174)

Thus, in defining trust and reviewing the extant literature, Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) clearly distinguish between trust at a level and trust in a referent, these being important distinctions which have not been delineated in past trust research. Trust at a level is described as the level of analysis of a study, such as the three organisational levels previously outlined i.e. individual, team, and organisational. When discussing trust at the individual level, this refers to an individual's degree of trust. On the other hand, trust at the higher levels refers to the degree of trust collectively shared amongst individuals within a unit such as a work team. For instance, trust at the team level involves a grouped degree of trust with sufficient consensus amongst team members. Similarly, trust at the organisational level entails a grouped degree of trust with sufficient consensus amongst organisational members. In terms of trust in the referent, this refers to the target of the trust i.e. the trustee. The interpersonal referent may be a specific other such as a manager or a work colleague. In contrast, the team referent is a collective of interdependent people pursuing a unique, shared goal. Finally, the organisation referent refers to trust in the entity of an organisation. By differentiating referents in this way, Fulmer and Gelfand are trying to encourage future researchers to specify the referent in their trust definitions, something which they point out past researchers have often not done. For example, in defining trust at the individual level, some definitions have failed to specify a referent, even when explicitly dealing with trust in a leader (e.g. Simmons, Gooty, Nelson, & Little, 2009) or an organisation (e.g. Edwards & Cable, 2009).

In summary, Fulmer and Gelfand's (2012) multi-level, multi-referent review of the existing trust literature provides a valuable framework for better understanding how trust operates across different levels of the organisation and how referents of trust can be distinguished. The current study has incorporated Fulmer and Gelfand's suggestion "that researchers specify the referent in their research to improve construct and theoretical clarity and to allow comparison across studies" (p. 1172). Accordingly, throughout this thesis, in discussing the relationship between FP and trust, the referent has been specified for purposes of clarity. For example, this chapter of the thesis has considered how the false performer's behaviour might be variously affected by their individual trust in management (interpersonal referent), trust in co-workers (team referent), and trust in the organisation (organisation referent). Likewise, guided by Fulmer and Gelfand's "blueprint," the current study has also sought to demonstrate how trust operates at multiple levels of the organisation, as reflected in this chapter's discussion of trust at the individual, team, and organisational level.

4.3.6 Trusting versus Felt Trust

As pointed out by Salamon and Robinson (2008), most of the trust-performance literature, thus far, has focused on how behaviour and performance are influenced by *trusting* rather

than how they are affected by the experience of being *trusted* (Kramer, Brewer, & Hanna, 1996). However, they explain that *trusting* and *felt trust* are two distinct constructs (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000) in that employees' behaviour may be influenced not only by the degree of trust which they have in management, but also by how much they feel trusted by management. Lau, Lam and Wen (2014) specifically define feeling trusted or felt trust "as the perception that another party is voluntarily willing to assume risk along with an individual" (p. 117). Salamon and Robinson conducted a longitudinal study of felt trust in order to investigate whether, when employees collectively perceive they are trusted by management, they are more likely to develop higher responsibility norms which will, in turn, enhance their organisational performance. They investigated trusting versus felt trust at the team level, contending that "over time, employees working together in the same organization come to agree on the extent to which they are trusted by management. We call this shared group-level cognition *collective felt trust*" (p. 594). Such collective felt trust is likely to be inspired by organisational procedures or managerial behaviours. In their study of the effect of collective felt trust on organisational performance, Salamon and Robinson controlled for employees' trust in management. As reported by Fulmer and Gelfand (2012), their subsequent findings showed that collective felt trust impacts on performance beyond that which can be accounted for by the effect of employee trust in management alone. According to their results, when employees feel they are trusted by management, responsibility norms are strengthened, and this then leads to an increase in sales and customer service performance.

Salamon and Robinson's (2008) research on trusting versus felt trust has implications for the current study of FP because it indicates that FP behaviour could be influenced, not only by the false performer's trust in management, but also by whether they feel trusted by management. Salamon and Robinson explain that when environmental cues signal to employees that they are trusted by management, they are more likely to adopt an "ethical" cognitive frame. In this type of "felt trust" situation, employees are more likely to consider how they should behave (by referring to an ethical framework) rather than behaving in the way which is most advantageous to them (by referring to a business frame). According to Salamon and Robinson, when workers sense a willingness in management to be vulnerable to their employees, employees will then be reluctant to disappoint this expectation by exploiting their manager's vulnerability. If individuals feel that they are trusted and recognise that the trust given to them binds their behaviour, they will act responsibly so as not to violate the expectations of the trusting party (Deutsch, 1958). Salamon and Robinson's findings raise the question, could the trust invested in a false performer by management be enough to somehow reverse their individual propensity towards FP behaviour? For instance, if the false performer senses a willingness in their manager to be vulnerable to employees

i.e. if they feel trusted by their manager, will they be more likely to adopt an “ethical” cognitive framework and behave in a more responsible manner?

In the current study, as the relationship between FP behaviour and trust is described at the individual level, it is important to consider whether the effect of felt trust described by Salomon and Robinson at the team level might similarly affect the false performer at the individual level. Research conducted by Lau et al. (2014) suggests that the effect would be the same as they also found that felt trust at the individual level leads to better performance. In their study of 497 teachers, Lau et al. confirmed that when employees feel they are trusted by their supervisors, their organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) is enhanced, which then leads them to perform better in the workplace. In their study, OBSE is defined as “the degree to which an individual believes him/herself to be capable, significant, and worthy as an organizational member” (Pierce & Gardner, as cited in Lau et al., 2014, p. 114). According to the self-evaluative perspective adopted by Lau et al., when employees perceive that management trust them, the evaluation accompanying this trust perception enhances their OBSE, a form of self-esteem which has been found to be a significant performance driver (Bowling, Eschleman, Wang, Kirkendall, & Alarcon, 2010; Pierce & Gardner, 2004; Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989). In practical terms, this means that the trusted employee will likely strive to meet their supervisor’s expectations by expending additional effort to protect their supervisor’s interests, such as completing assigned tasks or safeguarding sensitive information (Lau et al., 2014).

However, whilst felt trust may positively influence employees, including the false performer, to perform better in the workplace, there is also the possibility that perceived supervisory trust could result in negative performance outcomes such as poor and incompetent job performance as a result of misplaced reliance upon employees. In their study, Lau et al. (2014) examined the effects of two trust measures i.e. reliance and disclosure and, contrary to their expectations; they found that only reliance was related to task performance. Significant self-concept enhancement effects were found only when workers felt that their supervisors relied on them and not when supervisors shared sensitive information with them. Lau et al. explain that supervisors who highly rely on their employees are usually more willing to allow these employees to make autonomous work decisions. However, Lau et al. point out that in such high reliance situations, with little monitoring involved, supervisors could become the most vulnerable party if the trusted subordinates turn out to be incapable and dishonest. In such cases, supervisors could be held accountable for their subordinate’s poor performance and, moreover, they could be humiliated if their trusted employees fail to return their support or impart inaccurate information to others in the workplace (Lau et al.,

2014). The undesirable scenarios depicted by Lau et al. seem to more accurately befit the outcomes which may occur should a supervisor place their trust in an incompetent, false performing employee. As no studies to date have examined the relationship between FP behaviour and felt trust, it was hoped that the current focus group study would allow new data to emerge so as to give more insight into how trusting versus felt trust might influence the false performer's behaviour.

4.3.7 Trust and Performance Management

One of the final discussion points in relation to trust concerns two important underlying mechanisms which have not thus far been considered. Drawing on the work of Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata and Rich (2012), this section will explore how both social exchange theory and anticipated justice can be used to further understand the concept of trust, especially in relation to trust as a mediator of organisational justice and job performance. Colquitt et al. explain that there is a significant relationship between justice and job performance, with past research having examined trust as a potential mediator of this relationship. Trust, within this context, has been defined by Colquitt et al. as “confident, positive expectations about the words, actions, and decisions of another in situations entailing risk (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995; McAllister, 1995)” (p. 1). To explore the justice issues surrounding trust, Colquitt et al. developed and tested a model of trust mediation whereby procedural, interpersonal, and distributive justice predicted affect- and cognition-based trust, with those forms of trust predicting both exchange and uncertainty-based mechanisms. They then carried out a field study with employees of a hospital network and found results confirming that, as hypothesised, the trust variables did indeed mediate the relationship between organisational justice and job performance, with affect-based trust driving exchange-based mediation and cognitive-based trust driving uncertainty-based mediation.

In relation to the current study of FP, certain crucial aspects of Colquitt et al.'s (2012) research can be drawn upon to help illustrate how trust might mediate the relationship between FP behaviour and job performance. For instance, Colquitt et al. extensively discuss social exchange theory in order to explain how the justice-trust connection (Colquitt & Mueller, 2008; Lewicki, Wiethoff, & Tomlinson, 2005) can be used to help understand the justice-job performance relationship. According to Colquitt et al., social exchange theory proposes that trust is an essential component in the development of social exchange relationships or, in other words, relationships where various, unspecified favours are exchanged over an indefinite period of time. Within such relationships of social exchange, trust reduces uncertainty about another party's reciprocation whilst, simultaneously, encouraging a sense of obligation (Blau, 1964). In fact, this idea is core to Colquitt et al.'s

trust mediation model which presents two mechanisms to account for how trust explains the relationships between justice dimensions and job performance. In their study, Colquitt et al. proposed and confirmed that exchange-deepening and uncertainty-reducing mechanisms both have significant mediating roles in the justice-performance relationship. Specific to social exchange theory, they explain that the exchange-deepener mechanism operates through normative commitment, suggesting that justice fosters trust, which is important as trust instils a sense of obligation in exchange relationships (Blau, 1964). In a trusting relationship, both exchange partners are likely to honour all of their commitments, partially because they hold the belief that their efforts will be somehow reciprocated in the future.

In terms of how Colquitt et al.'s (2012) model, specifically the exchange deepening mechanism, relates to the current study, it is possible that social exchange theory may similarly explain how trust could mediate the relationship between FP behaviour and job performance. For instance, if the false performer feels that they are in a trusting relationship with their manager or co-workers, they may feel compelled to discharge their obligations rather than continue with their incompetent job avoidance tactics. On the other hand, if the false performer is avoiding certain work tasks because they are truly incompetent, it could be argued that such an improvement in job performance (i.e. performing better because they perceive themselves to be in a trusting work relationship) would not actually be possible. The current study aimed to achieve a greater understanding of how trust might affect the false performer's behaviour, if indeed trust is a construct which is capable of having any effect at all on FP behaviour.

Furthermore, the current study aimed to understand how anticipated justice may help to provide another level of analysis for discussing the relationship between trust and FP behaviour. For example, Colquitt et al. (2012) explain how previous research has associated justice perceptions with all three aspects of job performance i.e. task performance, citizenship behaviour, and counterproductive behaviour (e.g. Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). The significant relationship which has been established between justice and job performance may provide an insight into whether justice, as with the construct of trust, could mediate the relationship between FP behaviour and job performance. For instance, in their study of the justice-performance relationship, Colquitt et al. found that the mediating role of trust could be explained by the functional mechanism of trust not only as an exchange deepener but also as an uncertainty reducer. Drawing on fairness heuristic theory (Lind, 2001; van den Bos, 2001; van den Bos, Lind, & Wilke, 2001), they explain that employees evaluate the fairness of an authority's actions and, in so doing, they use the heuristic of justice to guide decisions

concerning trust and cooperation when there is uncertainty about potential exploitation by organisational powers.

To help further explain how trust reduces uncertainty, Colquitt et al. also draw on uncertainty management theory (Lind & van den Bos, 2002; van den Bos & Lind, 2002). According to this theory, high levels of justice can help to alleviate the effects of uncertainty, including concerns about both trust and reciprocation (Colquitt et al., 2012). Thus, an employee's belief that an authority figure is fair and trusted is sufficient to not only reduce uncertainty, but also to encourage a reciprocation of obligations. Based on both fairness heuristic theory and uncertainty management theory, Colquitt et al. proposed that there would be a negative relationship between uncertainty and job performance for a number of conceptual reasons. For example, past research suggests that employees experiencing uncertainty will have less cognitive energy to invest in their job performance (e.g. Mayer & Gavin, 2005; McAllister, 1995). Consistent with these previous findings, Colquitt et al. found support for uncertainty as a significant predictor of job performance, a finding which suggests that employees who are uncertain of their manager's fairness and trustworthiness may be less obliged to reciprocate obligations. In summary, Colquitt et al. found that both the exchange-deepening and uncertainty-reducing mechanisms had significant roles in the justice-performance relationship. Moreover, both the exchange- and uncertainty-based mechanisms were needed to fully capture the mediating effects of trust. In relation to the present study, these findings potentially indicate that the false performer will be even more likely to perform poorly when they lack trust in their management or organisation.

In conclusion, Colquitt et al.'s (2012) study indicates that having a combined understanding of social exchange theory, fairness heuristic theory, and uncertainty management theory could inform a deeper understanding of the relationship between FP behaviour and job performance. Taking all of these theories into account, one suggestion which emerges is that the false performer may moderate their FP behaviour if they perceive a sense of justice in the workplace. Guided by such a justice heuristic, they may develop much greater levels of trust in management and, in turn, improve their job performance as a result of feelings related to the obligation to reciprocate (explained by the exchange-based mechanism), as well as a lessening of uncertainty about authority figures' trustworthiness (explained by the uncertainty-based mechanism). Thus, in a workplace where justice fosters trust in this way, the false performer may be more inclined to cooperate with authority figures and this could, ultimately, result in improved job performance. However, given the previous evidence presented on the construct of FP (Gbadamosi, 2006; Gbadamosi & Osuagwu, 2007; Gbadamosi et al., 2007; Parnell & Singer, 2001), it is questionable as to whether the false

performer could ever translate their incompetent behaviour into competent job performance, regardless of whether they perceived themselves to be working for a just and trustworthy authority figure or not. It was anticipated that the current qualitative study might be able to provide further insights to help answer this question.

4.4 The False Performance Contagion Effect

A possible side effect of FP is that the false performer's disingenuous actions may cause morale to plummet among their more sincere colleagues. Trustworthy, hard-working employees may become disillusioned if they see false performers thriving despite their dishonesty. Gbadamosi et al. (2007) even suggest that such negative behaviour, if overlooked, may catch on amongst the workforce, thus creating a high level of mediocrity and decline in performance. When those workers doing their job honestly and competently observe another employee gaining rare opportunities through deception, they may feel somehow cheated by their organisation's promotion policies. If organisations choose to reward FP in this way, then there is a risk that non-false performing employees could eventually begin to practice FP. It could be argued that if false performers are engaging in deception to mask their incompetence then it is unlikely that their behaviour will become contagious amongst their competent co-workers. However, there is evidence to suggest that competent employees could well be corrupted in such a way. Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998) provide evidence of a "monkey see, monkey do" mentality in the workplace, with their study having found that a positive relationship exists between the level of antisocial behaviour displayed by an individual and that shown by their co-workers.

In their study, Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998) use the term "antisocial behaviour" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995) to describe negative behaviours such as lying (DePaulo & DePaulo, 1989), spreading rumours (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), withholding effort (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993), and absenteeism (Johns, 1997). The most prominent finding in Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly's study, in terms of its relevance to FP behaviour, is the group effect which they labelled the contagion effect. They found that group antisocial behaviour predicted individual antisocial behaviour. Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly drew upon Bandura's (1977) social learning perspective to examine the factors which may influence antisocial behaviour. They identified one factor as the presence of role models within a work context. Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly explain how members of a group are likely to analyse their social environment for information about the appropriateness of particular beliefs, attitudes and behaviours using other group members as role models. In such a group environment, this creates the opportunity for antisocial individuals to act as role models. Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly's study demonstrated a positive relationship between the level of antisocial

behaviour within a group and the antisocial behaviour of individual group members. They concluded that this group effect explains how contagious behaviours and emotions can spread in clusters within an organisation.

In relation to FP, this body of contagion research suggests that antisocial behaviour, such as FP, could spread within a group, causing a negative impact on other group members' behaviour. Gino, Ayal and Ariely (2009) similarly found that, in certain circumstances, dishonest actions can become contagious. Gino et al. carried out a study examining whether exposure to other people's unethical behaviour can increase or decrease an individual's dishonesty. They specifically asked what would be "the effect of such exposure on otherwise honest individuals" (p. 393). Would they also start to engage in unethical behaviour? To explore this question in-depth, Gino et al. carried out two separate laboratory experiments, the first of which involved participants witnessing a blatant act of cheating on a maths task by either an in-group or out-group confederate. Consistent with social norms theory, results showed that participants' unethical behaviour increased after witnessing cheating by an in-group member (one appearing to belong to the same university), but decreased when the confederate was an out-group member (one appearing to belong to a different university). As predicted, Gino et al. confirmed that the social norms mechanism operated in such a way that when the observed "cheater" was an in-group member, other members of the group were more likely to engage in dishonest behaviour.

In a second experiment, Gino et al. (2009) tested the effect of saliency by having the confederate ask aloud a question about cheating (thus increasing the saliency of this possibility). Consistent with the saliency mechanism, Gino et al. found that, with the saliency of dishonesty increased, the level of unethical behaviour by other group members actually decreased. Gino et al.'s saliency experiment exemplifies how important it can be to draw attention to unethical acts. In order to combat dishonesty, they suggest that organisations strengthen the saliency of unethical behaviours and implement "techniques that help to stigmatise the bad apples as out-group members" (p. 398). In practical terms, this advice could be usefully applied by Human Resources (HR) departments to help guard against FP by making all employees aware of how this unethical behaviour could affect the workforce.

Gino et al.'s (2009) work is particularly pertinent to the study of FP behaviour because their research demonstrates just how critical a factor peer influence may be in promoting unethical behaviour. Crucially, Gino et al.'s findings emphasise the potentially deleterious effect of just "one bad apple on the barrel" (p. 393). Gino et al. explain that whilst previous research (e.g. Loe, Ferrell, & Mansfield, 2000) has focused on ethical climate and culture as

key predictors of unethical behaviours within organisational groups, their research highlights the impact which just one person's behaviour can have upon the group. Gino et al.'s findings indicate that, as an in-group member of the organisation, even a single false performing employee's unethical behaviours could have a profoundly contagious influence on the spread of dishonest practices within a work group.

4.5 Implications of False Performance Research for the Organisation

Searle and Dietz (2012) emphasise how decisions taken by managers and Human Resource Practitioners (HRPs) can profoundly impact on employees' trust levels. Searle and Dietz recommend that HRPs consider more carefully how their organisational practices and policies undermine trust and the consequences which this may have for the workforce. Searle and Dietz's suggestion coincides with the conclusions of Gbadamosi et al.'s (2007) study. In their discussion of managerial implications, Gbadamosi et al. highlight the need for HRPs to identify and tackle the FP syndrome, and introduce policies that help to build trust and sustain employee commitment. Furthermore, for the sustenance of high levels of employee performance and the enhancement of organisational effectiveness, they recommend that managers carefully consider the likely triggers and predictors of FP behaviour and deliberately factor these into managerial activities. Gbadamosi et al. make it clear that it is a critical managerial responsibility to search for and be able to identify FP in order to be able to deal with the potential problems it poses for the organisation.

4.6 Chapter Summary

Based on previous research (e.g. Gbadamosi et al., 2007), this chapter further explored the relationship between trust and FP, and it considered how trust might impact upon FP in various types of work relationship. There was an overview of trust in the workplace, followed by a more in-depth exploration of trust in management; trust in the organisation; co-worker trust; the false performing manager; trust across multiple levels of the organisation; trusting versus felt trust; and trust in relation to performance management. This chapter also proposed that FP might be contagious, and it discussed how FP could catch on amongst the workforce and create an overall decline in job performance. Finally, this chapter considered the implications of FP research for organisations, and it concluded with some recommendations for HRPs.

Chapter 5

The Qualitative Study

“Focus groups are special creatures in the kingdom of groups.”
(Krueger & Casey, 2009, p. 15)

5.1 Introduction to the Focus Group Study

This chapter describes the qualitative methodology which was employed in the preliminary focus group study.

The phenomenon of False Performance (FP) was explored in two research phases using a sequential, mixed methods approach. In the first phase, qualitative data was gathered using focus groups, and transcripts analysed using grounded theory. The intention was not to identify false performers in the focus groups, but rather to identify themes and patterns of FP behaviour. The focus group study provided a platform from which to further investigate the construct of FP and discover more about how it can be detected in organisations. Furthermore, the qualitative study aimed to provide further insight into how FP operates in both the context of the job interview and the performance appraisal interview. The focus groups also sought to clarify the relationship between FP and trust, with previous research having found FP to be strongly, albeit inversely associated, with trust in management. Finally, the focus group discussions considered how FP might affect working relationships.

The qualitative study was also designed as a gateway to conducting further quantitative research in the second phase. The focus group questions were devised to elicit data for the purpose of identifying FP behaviours which may have been overlooked in the original construction of the Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS), with the objective being to generate new items for inclusion in the False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ).

5.1.1 Selection of Mixed Methods Research

The current study adopted mixed methods research (MMR) following on from the recommendations of previous research. For example, Gbadamosi (2006) suggested going beyond the quantitative paradigm in future investigations of FP. The use of mixed methods was also influenced by the various literature which reports on the advantages to be gained by combining both the qualitative and quantitative traditions (e.g. Gelo, Braakman, & Benetka, 2008). Bryman (1988) explains that “the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research is really a technical matter whereby the choice between them is to do with their suitability in answering particular research questions” (p. 108-109). In the current study, MMR was deemed to be the most suitable method for answering the research questions posed in section 2.9.2.

Data collection has traditionally been divided into quantitative (measurable and, therefore, deductible, and objective) and qualitative approaches (descriptive, subjective, and inductive) (Debus, 1986). The qualitative-quantitative debate (e.g. Rabinowitz & Weseen, 1997) is one

which has been extensively documented within the social sciences literature, and it is this wide body of knowledge which has informed the current research study.

In the quantitative tradition, the researcher uses measurement tools, such as specialist equipment or questionnaires, in order to gather the numerical data which they are seeking to answer their research questions. In contrast, within the qualitative domain, the researcher themselves must act as the data gathering instrument, predominantly collecting words rather than numbers as part of their data collection strategy.

Qualitative research is generally characterised in terms of the richness, depth, and complexity of data which is collected through research methods such as in-depth interviews or focus groups. The researcher usually becomes immersed in the data, often writing copious memos, whilst invariably applying their own personal understanding to the research topic under investigation. Miles and Huberman (1994) explain that qualitative research explicates the ways in which people in particular settings come to understand, account for, take action, and otherwise manage their daily situations.

According to Henwood and Pidgeon (1992), an advantage of qualitative research is that theory is generated which is contextually sensitive, persuasive, and relevant. Henwood and Pidgeon further assert that grounded theory is one useful approach for the systematic generation of theory from qualitative data. The current qualitative study aimed to generate such theory by liberating the “theoretical imagination” to which Henwood and Pidgeon encourage practitioners to aspire. Qualitative focus group methodology was employed, and the data obtained was analysed using grounded theory in order to gain a rich insight into the practice of FP in the workplace.

The classic qualitative-quantitative debate has juxtaposed qualitative and quantitative research, with the outcome often emphasising the differences between both methods. However, Miles and Huberman (1994) explain that “we have to face the fact that numbers and words are both needed if we are to understand the world” (p. 40). While numerical output enhances knowledge about whether certain occurrences are more or less likely to take place, it is only by consulting qualitative data that a full picture emerges of why such phenomena occur. There is a shifting perception of research as consisting of both words and numbers. For example, a questionnaire study is devised using both words and numbers as all questions must be worded in order for respondents to answer on a numerical scale.

There is an increasing recognition that the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods within the same study may serve to strengthen the research (Silverman, 1985). Gelo et al.

(2008) recommend integrating qualitative and quantitative approaches by way of MMR, thus overcoming the limitations faced by each in isolation. There is no prescribed order for which approach comes first within MMR, but qualitative methods are commonly used to inform the subsequent quantitative study. This was the MMR approach which was adopted in the present study, with the focus group discussions being used to generate an item pool for the construction of a questionnaire instrument i.e. the FPQ in the quantitative study.

Henwood and Pidgeon (1992) explain that there are three powerful arguments which have been made for using a principled mixture of qualitative and quantitative research methods. These consist of: 1) Qualitative research followed by quantitative research; 2) Using qualitative and quantitative research in parallel; and 3) A quantitative phase preceding qualitative research. Henwood and Pidgeon point out that the most commonly accepted phasing in psychology is the practice of grounding quantitative research by the prior use of qualitative investigation. This ensures that the subsequent quantitative methods assess issues that are relevant to the research problem in context and salient to participants.

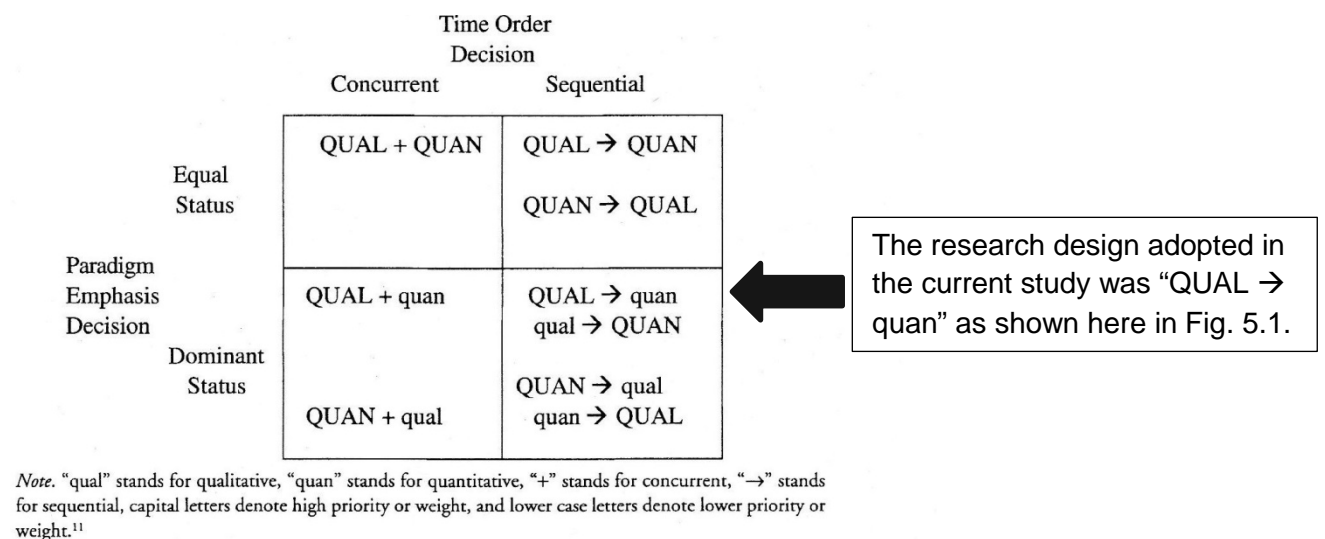
In the current study, qualitative research was followed by quantitative research for the above reasons, as well as for the following reasons: 1) Previous FP research (e.g. Gbadamosi, 2006) recommended that future research use qualitative methods to further investigate FP and compare the results with the findings thus far discovered using quantitative methodology; and 2) Conducting preliminary qualitative research provided data for the construction of the new FPQ in the quantitative study. This meant that the quantitative instrument was developed using rich data provided by a diverse range of public sector employees. By grounding the FPQ in examples of real-life organisational experience, this helped to maximise the reliability and validity of the FPQ.

5.1.2 The Dominant Qualitative Research Paradigm

Henwood and Pidgeon (1992) argue that qualitative research is valuable within itself and not just as a means of preparing the ground for subsequent quantitative research, with this being the useful, if restricted, role that qualitative methods have played in the past. They maintain that qualitative methodology can be seen as playing a central role in the quest for psychological knowledge, and can be reported on in its own right. In the current study, the first qualitative phase of research was not just seen as “a means of preparing the ground” for the quantitative construction of the FPQ. The qualitative study played a central role in the investigation of FP and this is evidenced by the fact that it represents the most dominant paradigm in this thesis.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) explain that to construct a mixed methods design, the researcher must make two primary decisions: 1) Whether one wants to operate within one dominant paradigm or not; and 2) Whether one wants to conduct the phases concurrently or sequentially. In the current study, the decision was taken to: 1) Operate within a dominant paradigm of qualitative research; and 2) To conduct the phases sequentially. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie point out that a tenet of MMR is that researchers mindfully create designs that effectively answer their research questions, an approach which stands in direct contrast to the traditional quantitative design, whereby researchers are given a menu of designs from which to select. The Mixed-Method Design Matrix in Figure 5.1 displays nine mixed-method designs which can be used in MMR.

Figure 5.1 Mixed-Method Design Matrix with Mixed-Method Research Designs



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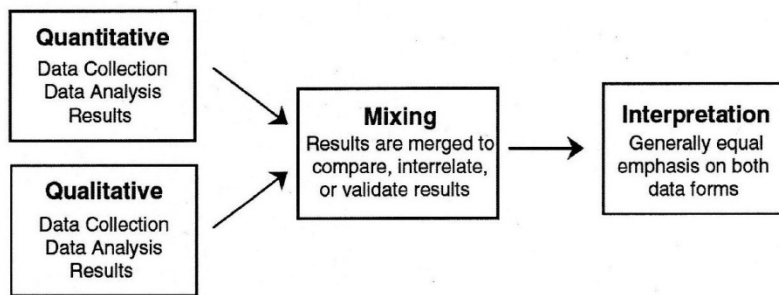
Source: Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p. 22). The notation used at the foot of the table is based on Morse (1991).

Figure 5.1 helps to illustrate the way in which the design in the current research was constructed to answer the research questions in section 2.9.2. The design used in the present study was “QUAL → quan,” as indicated in Figure 5.1. This represents the sequence and dominance of the research i.e. the dominant qualitative study was conducted in the first phase so as to inform the development of the quantitative instrument in the second phase.

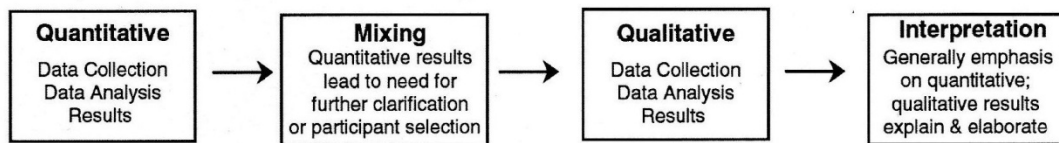
Creswell and Plano Clark’s (2007) four design framework is another useful guide for illustrating how MMR was conducted in the present study. Figure 5.2 is based on Creswell and Plano Clark’s discussion of mixed methods designs.

Figure 5.2 Four Major Mixed Methods Designs

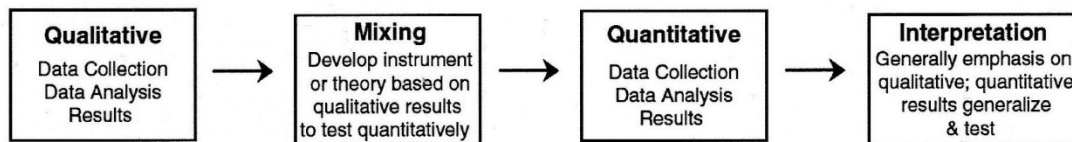
(a) Triangulation Design



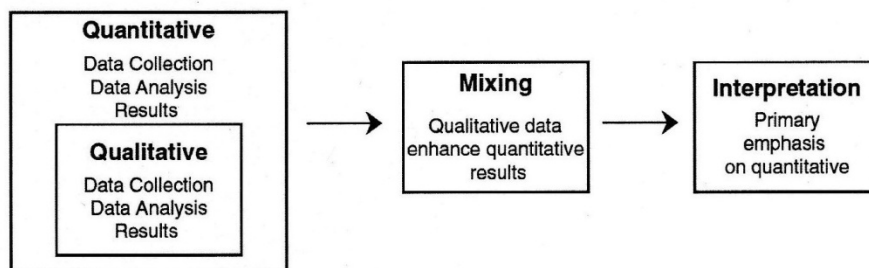
(b) Explanatory Design



(c) Exploratory Design



(d) Embedded Design*



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Source: Plano Clark, Huddleston-Casas, Churchill, Green and Garrett (2008, p. 1551). Adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark (2007).

An exploratory sequential design was used in the current study. The third mixed methods design type (c) in Figure 5.2 shows how the exploratory sequential design begins with a qualitative, in-depth exploration which then leads to a secondary quantitative phase which is connected to the initial qualitative results. This design is best used when there is little empirical knowledge about a particular research area i.e. lack of a theoretical framework, instruments, or variables (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). It is also used by researchers who need to first explore a phenomenon qualitatively before they can measure or test it (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003; Morgan, 1998). As such, this design is

often used when developing an instrument (Creswell, 1999; Creswell, Fetters, & Ivankova, 2004). Therefore, based on these guidelines, the present study opted to use an exploratory sequential design because: 1) There is a lack of empirical knowledge in the FP domain due to the scarcity of literature; and 2) The exploratory sequential design was deemed the most suitable for the development of the FPQ.

5.1.3 Selection of Focus Group Methodology

Focus groups are a commonly used qualitative research method for the purpose of gathering information from a group of individuals. Table 5.1 illustrates the characteristics of focus groups, including those conducted in an academic capacity. The current focus group study aligns closely with the academic characteristics described by Krueger and Casey (2009). In general terms, Krueger and Casey explain that “focus groups collect qualitative data from homogenous people in a group situation through a focused discussion” (p. 15). Krueger and Casey explain that “a focus group study is a carefully planned series of discussions designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, nonthreatening environment” (p. 2). Participants are usually selected because they possess certain characteristics which relate to the topic of the focus group. The intent of the focus group is to encourage self-disclosure amongst participants so that the researcher can learn more about the subject matter under investigation. Wilkinson (1999) explains that focus groups avoid the artificiality of many psychological methods because they tap into “natural” processes of communication such as arguing, joking, boasting, teasing, persuasion, challenge, and disagreement. According to Morgan (1988), “The hallmark of focus groups is the explicit use of group interaction to produce data and insights that would be less accessible without the interaction found in a group” (p. 12). The unique dynamics within focus groups mean that a collective sense-making process occurs during the interactions between participants (Wilkinson, 1999), and this potentially produces results which reflect real-life better than the results yielded by any other research methodology.

Focus group methodology was selected for the current qualitative study because it was considered to be the best methodology for eliciting data grounded in real-life employees’ experiences of FP in the workplace. Krueger and Casey (2009) explain that focus group interviews work well when “you are looking for the range of ideas or feelings that people have about something” (p. 19). More specifically, Kitzinger (1994) states that group work is invaluable in the development of grounded theory because, in line with Glaser and Strauss’s (1967) initial conception, it focuses on the generation rather than the testing of theory in its exploration of participants’ experience. For instance, group research prioritises participants’ hierarchy of importance, their language and concepts, and their frameworks for making

Table 5.1 Characteristics of Focus Groups

Characteristic	Market Research	Academic	Public/Nonprofit	Participatory
Where popular?	Marketing research, particularly consumer products	Universities, government agencies, foundations	Local and state governments, community groups, religious organizations, foundations	Community groups, foundations, local government, schools
Group size?	10–12 people	5–8 people	5–8 people	5–8 people
Should participants know each other?	No. Strangers preferred in order to limit influence of past experiences.	Not an issue. Finding strangers may be impossible. People may know each other but should not be in positions of control over each other.	Not an issue. Sometimes it is an advantage, providing they are not in positions of control over each other.	Sometimes an advantage. People regularly know each other and trust has already developed within the group.
Are participants invited back for another focus group?	Avoided. The goal is to get respondents who are new to the topic.	Rarely	Occasionally. This is a design used to determine perceptions of change over time.	Occasionally. This is a design used to determine perceptions of change over time.
Who moderates?	Professionals	Faculty, graduate students or qualified staff	Qualified staff and occasional volunteers with special skills	Volunteers from the community
Where are focus groups held?	Special rooms with one-way mirrors and quality acoustics usually located in large cities or suburbs	Public locations, classrooms, sometimes homes, sometimes special rooms with one-way mirrors	Locations in the community such as schools, libraries, etc.	Community locations and homes
How are data captured?	Observers behind mirrors, audio and often video recording	Field notes and audio recording. Sometimes video.	Field notes and audio recording	Field notes and audio recording

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Source: Krueger and Casey (2009, p. 151-152).

Table 5.1 (Continued)

Characteristic	Market Research	Academic	Public/Nonprofit	Participatory
How are results analyzed?	Variable, but often rapid first impressions given by moderator/analyst. Sometimes transcripts	Usually transcripts followed by rigorous procedures	Usually abridged transcripts and field notes	Participatory analysis: team members meet to share what they heard through oral and written summaries of groups they moderated. Field notes and audio tapes available.
Who gets copies of reports?	Only the sponsor. Reports are proprietary and confidential.	Academics or public officials. Results appear in academic journals.	Reports used within the organization and sent back to the community. Shared with participants.	Team members share results with the community. Often at open meetings as well as in written format.
Who is the decision maker?	Small number of corporate executives	Not applicable. Study not intended to result in specific decisions.	Many decision makers including boards, task forces, and general public	Many decision makers
Time needed to complete study?	Short time period. Usually completed in a month.	Long time period. Often 6 months or more.	Time needed will vary. Usually several months.	Long time period. Often 4 to 6 months or more.
Who can watch the focus group?	A number of observers are possible but only behind the one-way mirror.	One or two other academics or staff	Very limited. Usually only an assistant moderator who takes notes.	Very limited, usually only assistant moderator to take notes
Style of reports?	Oral reports or brief written reports. The sponsor observes the group and interprets results through a debriefing with moderator. Increasing use of CD reports with video clips.	Written reports following an academic style or journal format	Written and oral reports in conversational style	Oral reports by team members. Longer written report completed by team analyst.

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sense of the world (Kitzinger, 1994). By actively listening to group discussions, the researcher has time to familiarise themselves with the participants' preferred words for speaking about a phenomenon (in the current study, FP). In so doing, the researcher is prevented from hastily shutting down generation of meaning by the group and imposing their own understanding on what has been said (Kitzinger, 1994).

As well as focus groups working well to generate the ideas that people have about a topic, Krueger and Casey (2009) also suggest that focus groups are effective when "the researcher needs information to design a large-scale quantitative study" (p. 20) because focus groups can provide valuable insights, such as the words people use when discussing the issue under investigation. Such words may form part of what Calder (1977) defines as "everyday knowledge." Calder explains that everyday knowledge is rooted in the ordinary language people use to impose meaning on their everyday world. Calder also purports that, although traditionally associated with quantitative methods, scientific knowledge can also be gathered through the medium of focus group research. As such, Calder describes the knowledge sought in exploratory focus groups as "prescientific" because such groups are designed to tap into everyday thought for the purpose of identifying constructs prior to conducting a quantitative study. As the present research incorporated a mixed-methods design, with the qualitative study being used to further define the construct of FP and provide data for the development of a quantitative instrument, consideration of the "prescientific" advantages of focus groups were central to selecting this methodology.

Also key in the selection of focus group methodology was the consideration of its suitability for researching a sensitive organisational issue such as FP. Based on the existing literature (e.g. Kitzinger, 1994) and other practical considerations, it was decided that focus group interviews rather than any other type of interview were most suitable for the qualitative study of FP in the workplace. Morgan and Krueger (1993) explain that, "By creating and sustaining an atmosphere that promotes meaningful interaction, focus groups convey a humane sensitivity, a willingness to listen without being defensive, and a respect for opposing views that is unique and beneficial in these emotionally charged environments" (p. 18). Therefore, in consultation with participating organisations, the researcher determined that participants were more likely to disclose information relating to the sensitive subject of FP in the more informal setting of a focus group than in the context of a one-to-one interview. In an intensive one-to-one interview, employees may have feared being labelled a false performer or having their employer find out what they had said on the subject. Furthermore, one-to-one interviews with closed-ended or limited response choices would have been contradictory to the aims of grounded theory methodology which consists of flexible guidelines for collecting

and analysing data. In contrast, the focus group is designed to promote self-disclosure by creating a relaxed environment in which participants feel free to express their opinions without being judged (Krueger & Casey, 2009). Therefore, the focus group was deemed to be the ideal space for the flexible, but systematic, collection of grounded theory data.

Clearly, the researcher recognised that there was a need to proceed carefully with the moderation of these in-house focus groups, especially given the sensitive nature of the topic under investigation (i.e. unethical work behaviour) and the fact that many focus group participants likely knew each other and each other's working environments and colleagues. However, drawing on the focus group expertise of Kitzinger (1994), the researcher concluded that there were more advantages than disadvantages to be gained from working with pre-existing groups. Kitzinger explains that pre-existing groups – clusters of people who already know each other through living, working or socialising together – consist of precisely the people who may “naturally” discuss topics within the groups in which they actually operate. Kitzinger further explains that an added advantage of using research participants who already know each other is that colleagues can relate each other's comments to events which have actually occurred in their shared daily lives. In the current study, the advantage of being able to capture such natural “fragments of interactions” (Kitzinger, 1994, p. 105) was the potential insight which it could give into how FP operates in the real-life workplace.

In anticipation of instances where participants would be sharing genuine examples of FP, the ground rules issued at the beginning of the focus groups instructed members to “...feel free to think about the people you have encountered during your own working life, but please do not name any individuals within the course of the discussion.” They were also told to “...be aware that all of the information shared within the group is confidential and should not be spoken of again outside of the focus group discussion.” Morgan and Krueger (1993) explain that researchers examining sensitive topics must be prepared to encourage appropriate self-disclosures, whilst also reining in disclosures of oversensitive information. Thus, for ethical reasons, the researcher in the current study planned to skilfully moderate focus group discussions so as to quickly close down any revelations which might have caused harm within the work environment.

Kitzinger (1994) explains that there has been a tendency for some researchers to assume that focus groups are inappropriate for exploring “sensitive” topics or working with “sensitive” populations but, based on extensive experience, Kitzinger states, “in fact the opposite may be true” (p. 112). This is because there is a “safety in numbers” aspect which makes it more likely that people will consent to participate in a research study if others are present rather

than if invited to attend an interview alone i.e. an “I wouldn’t have come on my own” mentality (Kitzinger, 1994). According to Kitzinger, a group consisting of people with similar experiences can actually encourage participants to express, clarify, or even develop particular perspectives. The group setting may even stimulate the discussion of “taboo” topics because less reserved participants may “break the ice” for quieter members to speak. Kitzinger, therefore, cautions against assuming that focus groups are inhibiting relative to the supposed “privacy” of a one-to-one interview situation.

In summary, the current research adopted focus group methodology because of the compelling evidence to suggest that “focus groups ‘reach the parts that other methods cannot reach’ – revealing dimensions of understanding that often remain untapped by the more conventional one-to-one interview or questionnaire” (Kitzinger, 1994, p. 109). Moreover, in terms of practicality, the input from organisations was that group interviews would be the least disruptive means of conducting the current research with their employees. Rather than the researcher being present in the organisation for several days in order to interview employees on a one-to-one basis, focus group methodology permitted group interviews to be efficiently conducted in a 90 minute (maximum) time period, thus causing minimal disturbance to staff in the workplace. In conclusion, focus group methodology allowed the collection of qualitative data from a larger number of participants in a shorter time scale than would have been possible if conducting individual interviews.

5.1.4 Advantages and Disadvantages of Focus Group Methodology

In selecting focus group methodology for the qualitative study, the various advantages and disadvantages associated with focus groups were carefully assessed. The main advantage of focus groups is that they allow a large amount of data to be collected in a relatively short space of time. Focus groups yield a lot more data than might be collected using other research methods such as one-to-one interviews, observations, or analysis of written materials. Another major benefit is the non-directive nature of focus groups which means that the researcher has a less domineering role than in one-to-one interviews, thus increasing the likelihood of participants disclosing personal information. From when the focus group method was first conceived, it was found that people revealed sensitive information when they were in a safe, comfortable place with people like themselves (Merton, Fiske, & Kendall, 1956). Krueger and Casey (2009) explain that the focus group offers a more natural environment than that of an individual interview because it creates a situation in which participants are influencing and influenced by others just as they are in life.

However, as with any research method, certain problems have been associated with focus group interviews, and these issues were taken into account when planning the qualitative study. Krueger and Casey (2009) explain that some of the main criticisms of focus group methodology include participants tending to intellectualise rather than reveal true emotions; participants inventing answers; dominant individuals influencing results; and focus groups producing trivial findings. In terms of the first criticism, there is a concern that people have a tendency to portray themselves as rational individuals, when in fact many of their behaviours and emotions may be unconscious. Focus groups, therefore, may not be able to capture all elements of peoples' thinking and feelings around the topic under investigation, but then this may be true of many other research methods. Secondly, the issue of participants making up answers could arise if they are asked about topics where they have limited or no experience. They might invent a response rather than admit their lack of knowledge to the group. Another problem in focus groups is the potential for a dominant individual to influence other participants' responses. Finally, focus groups may produce trivial findings if, for example, group sizes are too large and the topic too complex. For instance, focus groups of 10-12 participants may be too large when a complicated topic is under discussion.

On balance, the strong case for using focus groups determined the selection of this methodology in the current study. The advantages of using focus group methodology were compelling, especially as this methodology fulfilled the objective of gathering rich qualitative data, as well as generating items for inclusion in the FPQ. Furthermore, it was deemed possible to plan carefully in order to avoid any of the criticisms associated with focus group research. In fact, awareness of these pitfalls ensured that the current focus groups were skillfully coordinated so as to keep these problems to a minimum. For example, the focus groups were facilitated with a mind to fostering authentic interactions and reducing the influence of dominant individuals in the group. The issue of making up answers was, hopefully, removed by the screening criterion which required participants to have at least two years' work experience. This helped to ensure that participants had an adequate amount of knowledge to draw upon during the discussions, thus negating the need to invent answers. The possibility of trivial results arising as a result of large group size was reduced by limiting focus groups to no more than nine participants. This allowed the complexity of FP to be discussed and facilitated under manageable conditions.

5.2 Objectives of the Focus Group Study

In the preliminary qualitative study, several in-house focus groups were conducted in UK public sector organisations. The decision was made to conduct the research across differing levels of the organisation (i.e. Management and Non-Management) in order to capture a

more all-inclusive perspective of FP. This approach was consistent with grounded theory methodology which recommends that multiple perspectives be systematically sought during the research inquiry (Strauss & Corbin, 1994).

As recommended by previous research (Madriz, 2000; Wilkinson, 1999), the focus groups encouraged participants to speak about their lived experiences of FP without imposing a preconceived agenda. This was also in keeping with one of the main principles of grounded theory which states that fixed ideas should not be forced upon the data so that theories are “grounded” in the data themselves. Berglund, Daniels and Pears (2006) explain that the purpose of qualitative research is to discover themes, knowledge, and relationships. In line with this description, the focus groups aimed to identify themes and patterns of FP behaviour.

The present study adopted a MMR approach, with the overall objective of the qualitative study being: To investigate FP as an unethical behaviour in UK public sector organisations and to generate qualitative data for the construction and development of a new measure of FP i.e. the FPQ in the second phase of research.

The specific objectives of the preliminary qualitative study were:

1. To better understand employees’ perceptions and experiences of FP in the workplace and to use this to enhance an understanding of the construct of FP.
2. To identify the full range of behaviours which comprise FP in order to assist future detection of FP in the workplace.
3. To establish what FP behaviours a candidate might engage in during the job interview.
4. To establish what FP behaviours an employee might engage in during the performance appraisal interview.
5. To clarify how FP might affect work relationships.
6. To explore how trust in management might affect FP behaviours.
7. To explore how co-worker trust might affect FP behaviours.
8. To gain an insight into how the false performer’s co-workers might be personally affected by FP.

9. To identify solutions to the problem of FP in the workplace.
10. To generate qualitative data for the purpose of informing item generation in the quantitative phase of research.

5.3 Ethical Approval

Prior to conducting the qualitative study in public sector organisations, ethical approval was first sought and granted by Worcester Business School's Ethics Committee. Access to participants was negotiated separately with each organisation involved in the study. All organisations were assured that the data collected would be anonymous and confidential. Organisations were informed that all data would be reported in aggregate so that no individual or organisation would be identifiable in any publication presenting the results of the focus group study. The participating organisations have not been identified in this thesis so as to ensure complete anonymity.

5.4 Drafting and Piloting of the Focus Group Questions

The preparation of focus group questions required skilful wording and several drafts were produced in order to create the final list of questions. All of these draft versions were sent to two academic experts (one male, one female) with an invitation to evaluate the clarity of the questions. Both individuals were prominent in the field of Human Resource Management (HRM) and each had published numerous articles in peer-reviewed journals. The first individual also had an active research interest in unethical work practices and was the author of two publications in the field of FP. The second expert was an Occupational Psychologist with a comprehensive knowledge of career competencies and questionnaire development. As such, both individuals were ideally placed to comment on the focus group question drafts which were sent to them with several questions to consider. For instance, they were asked whether they understood the questions, if these were the right questions to elicit the relevant type of information about FP, and were any of the questions redundant. Once the questions had been refined in collaboration with the two experts, a pilot study was set up in order to test the questions orally.

The advantage of conducting a pilot study "is that it might give advance warning about where the main research project could fail, where research protocols may not be followed, or whether proposed methods or instruments are inappropriate or too complicated" (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001, p. 1). Krueger and Casey (2009) explain that the pilot test simply involves finding a few people who fit the focus group screen and asking them the pilot questions. They advise paying attention to the following (p. 60):

1. How easy is it to ask the question without reading it? Do the words flow smoothly?
2. Does the question seem confusing to the participants? Do they hesitate too long? Do they look confused? Do they give an answer that shows the question is confusing? Do they ask for clarification?

Krueger and Casey (2009) recommend testing questions with a few people prior to the first focus group. They do not advise testing questions in a group, explaining that it is time and labour intensive, and it is better to use the results from the discussion rather than consider it a pilot. However, as the current study represented the first qualitative investigation of FP, extra care and attention was needed to ensure that the focus group questions were properly piloted prior to conducting the main study in public sector organisations.

5.4.1 Participants and Procedure

An opportunity sample of participants from the University of Worcester was selected for the pilot study. All of the participants were Masters students recruited from a statistics workshop, and they each fitted the focus group screen of having at least two years' total work experience (not all necessarily in the same organisation). Of the participants, four were female and one was male. Age range varied from 22 years old to over 50 years old.

The pilot study was audio-recorded with the participants' permission, and they were briefed on the purpose of the PhD research. During the 90 minute pilot study, a total of 14 questions were pilot tested (see Appendix A1 for the pilot focus group script and list of questions). At the end of the pilot study, participants were debriefed, thanked for their time, and provided with the researcher's contact details for the purpose of providing any potential feedback.

5.4.2 Post-Pilot Test Refinement of Questions

The pilot study provided a valuable opportunity to gain experience of facilitating a focus group. However, the main advantage of the pilot study was that it helped to refine the focus group questions prior to conducting the focus groups in public sector organisations.

The crucial refinement to the focus group questions involved the revision of the opening question. It was found that pilot study participants misinterpreted the opening question i.e. "What is the first thing that comes to mind when you hear the phrase 'unethical work behaviours'?" Rather than this question eliciting discussions about FP, as was expected, it seemed to instead prompt a wide variety of responses around topics such as absenteeism, discrimination, nepotism, staff cuts, and other diverse workplace phenomena (see Appendix A2 for the full list of unethical work behaviours discussed). Although this provided interesting

insights into various work behaviours, the responses were not specific enough to FP. Therefore, the introductory question about FP was revised to read, “What is the first thing that comes to mind when you hear the phrase ‘unethical *self-presentation* behaviours’”? All other questions about FP were also revised to incorporate the phrase, “unethical self-presentation behaviours.” This important change had the desired effect of eliciting more FP-specific responses when facilitating the later focus groups in public sector organisations.

It was also found that pilot study participants tended to speak about unethical *issues* in the workplace rather than unethical *individuals* and the FP behaviours which they might engage in. For example, participants spoke about unethical issues such as bullying, harassment; racism, intimidation, and inequality (again, see Appendix A2). It was foreseen that the tendency to discuss only unethical issues might cause difficulties in the main focus groups if it was to recur. If participants were only to speak about unethical issues, then the main objective of identifying the full range of FP behaviours would not be achieved. Therefore, in the organisational focus groups, the researcher introduced a different strategy alongside some of the oral questions. In order to focus participants’ answers on the discussion of individual FP behaviours, the researcher presented participants with an image of two hypothetical employees, “Hypothetical Harry and Harriet,” when asking questions about FP behaviours in the performance appraisal interview and the job interview.

It is in such ways that the pilot study helped to refine the focus group questions, thus enabling much smoother facilitation of the focus groups in the public sector organisations.

5.5 The Main Focus Group Study

5.5.1 Participants

Following the pilot study and refinement of the focus group questions, the main focus group study commenced. An opportunity sample of participants from the working population was selected from a diverse variety of public sector organisations. A total of 51 employees in four public sector organisations participated in eight focus group discussions in which they were asked about their perceptions and experiences of FP. The only prerequisite for participation was that each employee had at least two years’ total work experience (not all necessarily in their current organisation). This was to ensure that participants had a sufficient work history which they could draw upon to make significantly meaningful contributions to the discussions about FP.

Using professional contacts, participants were recruited from four UK-based, local government organisations in the public sector, and focus groups were then held in these organisations. Of the participants, 41.2% were male and 58.8% were female. Focus groups were divided so that four groups consisted of Management (n=26) and four groups consisted of Non-Management (n=25). Each organisation hosted one Management focus group and one Non-Management focus group. The majority of organisations (three) identified which respondents should be placed in either the Management or Non-Management condition. Table 5.2 provides demographic information for each of the focus group conditions by Management and Non-Management status.

Table 5.2 Demographic Information by Management and Non-Management Status

Focus Group	Total No.	Female	Male	Mean Age (Years)	Mean Years in Org.
Management	26	13	13	48.1	29.7
Non-Management	25	17	8	40	22.7

5.5.2 Procedure

5.5.2.1 Focus Group Invitation to Organisations

In total, seven public sector organisations were contacted via e-mail or professional networks with a request to host the FP focus group research. In four of these cases, face-to-face meetings were successfully set up in order to discuss the FP research with a key member of personnel (i.e. Director; Head of Service; Senior Economic Development Officer; and Programme Manager). Owing to the sensitive nature of the research question, it was important to fully describe the methodology and alleviate any concerns regarding confidentiality. Following these four meetings, two of the organisations agreed to facilitate the FP research, and a different two organisations indicated their willingness to participate without the need for a preliminary meeting. Out of the four organisations, three agreed to release members of staff to attend focus groups in-house and in working hours.

To illustrate why some organisations were reluctant to engage in the focus group study, it is necessary to describe the backdrop against which the current research took place. The focus group study was conducted at a time when public sector budget cuts were affecting thousands of publicly funded services across the UK (Gentleman, 2011). With many services

and jobs being lost, most public sector organisations had to concentrate their resources on managing their own in-house challenges. Therefore, hosting academic research amid this public sector climate proved challenging. For example, one Human Resources (HR) department responded to the focus group invitation by explaining that it was “difficult to imagine a more inopportune moment to think about engaging in such focus groups.” Fortunately, a number of public sector organisations were still open to facilitating research, thus allowing the focus group study to go ahead.

5.5.2.2 Focus Group Overview

Typically, a focused interview will include about 12 questions for a two hour group (Krueger & Casey, 2009). The current focus groups only ran to a maximum of 90 minutes as this was considered a more reasonable time frame for attendance during work hours. Certain focus groups were only 60 minutes in length (focus groups six and eight), in one instance because of time restraints imposed by the organisation, and in another because of small group numbers. The number of questions asked varied between 9-13 questions. Table 5.3 provides information about the duration of the focus groups and the number of questions featured.

Table 5.3 Overview of Focus Group Length and Question Numbers

Focus Group	Length	No. of Questions
1	90 minutes	12
2	90 minutes	13
3	90 minutes	12
4	90 minutes	12
5	90 minutes	9
6	60 minutes	9
7	90 minutes	9
8	60 minutes	9

5.5.2.3 Composition and Size of the Focus Groups

Within each of the four organisations, two focus groups were carried out, one for Management employees and one for Non-Management employees. To increase group comfort, focus groups were divided by status to create an environment in which all participants would feel more comfortable expressing their true opinions. Krueger and Casey (2009) advise against mixing people who may have different levels of expertise or power relating to the research issue. They explain that supervisors and employees should not be assigned to the same focus group because the power differential may then render people reluctant to talk. In studying self-disclosure, Jourard (1964) found that “subjects tended to disclose more about themselves to people who resembled them in various ways than to people who differ from them” (p. 15).

Each focus group was limited to a maximum of nine participants (Management group sample sizes: seven, eight, nine, and two; Non-Management group sample sizes: seven, eight, seven, and three). Focus groups should generally be small enough for everyone to have opportunity to share insights, and yet large enough to provide a diversity of perceptions (Krueger & Casey, 2009). Focus groups are typically composed of five to ten people but the size can range, as demonstrated by the two “mini focus groups” held in the final organisation in the current study. The small group size of focus groups seven and eight (three and two participants respectively) reflects the difficulties which can arise when attempting to release participants from work for the purpose of focus group participation. However, the advantage of these two smaller groups was the opportunity they afforded participants to share ideas in-depth. Ordinarily, the main disadvantage of such restricted group size would be the smaller pool of total ideas but, as these smaller focus groups were conducted at the end of the study, theoretical saturation (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) had almost been reached and the contribution of these small groups was sufficient to conclude the research.

Krueger and Casey (2009) advise researchers to conduct three or four focus groups with each type of category or individual and then to determine whether saturation has been reached. Saturation is a term used to describe the point where the researcher has heard a range of ideas and is not getting any new information (Krueger & Casey, 2009). If after three or four focus groups, new information is still incoming, then more focus groups would be conducted. In the current study, the initial intention was to conduct ten focus group discussions in order to obtain the necessary amount of data. However, data saturation was reached by focus group four for both the Management and Non-Management conditions. Therefore, it was concluded that sufficient data had been gathered within the scope of eight focus groups.

5.5.2.4 Recruitment and Selection of Participants

When recruiting the sample for the current study, the researcher had to rely on their organisational contacts to invite and recruit participants to the focus groups. Following the guidelines of Krueger and Casey (2009), an e-mail invitation was scripted and supplied to organisations for distribution to their staff (see Appendix B1 for the focus group invitation). In the first three organisations, a key member of personnel (Head of Service; Change and Performance Improvement Manager; and HR Officer) sent the focus group invitation to staff on the researcher's behalf. A follow-up invitation (see Appendix B2) was also drafted using the guidelines of Krueger and Casey (2009), and this was e-mailed by the organisation to those participants who had responded affirmatively to the original invite. Participants replied directly to the organisation to confirm focus group attendance.

In the first three organisations, participants were assigned to the Management or Non-Management condition by the member of personnel assisting with administration of the focus groups. This arrangement worked well because the organisation was also best placed to authorise release from work for focus group attendance. However, in the final organisation, the researcher had to allocate participants to the Management or Non-Management focus group condition. This is because, although the Head of Personnel provided a gateway through which to access a pool of participants via e-mail invitation, the participants were asked to respond directly to the researcher. Another key difference in terms of the focus groups held in the final organisation is that, unlike the other three organisations, the fourth organisation did not make any clear provision for focus group attendance within work time. This may account for why lower numbers were in attendance for the final two focus groups.

5.5.2.5 Focus Group Moderation

At the start of each focus group, participants were asked to complete a "Basic Details" form with their age, gender, and number of years' work experience (see Appendix B3 for the Basic Details Form). This enabled the researcher to capture the general characteristics of the sample comprising the focus group study. The researcher was satisfied that all groups achieved a balance between having homogeneity of work experience, but with sufficient variation among participants to allow for contrasting opinions. Krueger and Casey (2009) recommend striving for a balance between having enough variation in the group to get contrast and yet not so much variation that participants are inhibited and defer to those whom they perceive to be more experienced, knowledgeable, or better educated.

The researcher conducting the current study was the one who moderated each of the focus groups in order to ensure continuity and to keep themselves fully immersed in the data-

capturing process from beginning to end. At the start of each focus group, participants were advised that the discussion was being audio-recorded as a way to help capture everyone's comments. Once all participants had given their permission for recording, they were instructed that information shared within the group was to remain confidential. The moderator then introduced the purpose of the study, explained the rights of the participants (the study was voluntary and confidential and they could withdraw at any time), and laid the ground rules for the discussion.

After this, the moderator followed a questioning route which they had devised prior to the focus group. Krueger and Casey (2009) explain that there are two different questioning strategies used by focus group moderators: topic guide and questioning route. The topic route is an outline of issues to be pursued in the focus groups, whereas the questioning route is a sequence of questions in complete, conversational sentences. According to Krueger and Casey, the questioning route is often preferred in an academic environment, which is largely attributable to the fact that it fosters consistency in questioning across groups and as a result improves analysis. It is for these reasons of consistency and analytic rigor that the current study adopted the questioning route strategy.

5.5.2.6 Focus Group Questions

Using the guidelines of Krueger and Casey (2009), the focus group discussions followed a pre-determined, open-ended (these questions beg for explanations, descriptions, or illustrations) question format which asked participants about their experiences of FP. The focus group script and questions for focus groups one to four can be found in Appendix C1, and the revised questions for focus groups five to eight can be found in Appendix C2. For the researcher's own benefit, these questions were divided into opening, introductory, transition, key, and ending questions, as recommended by Krueger and Casey.

Krueger and Casey (2009) explain that the early questions in a focus group tend to be factual and comments often get directed back to the moderator. However, as the focus group progresses, the questions may take on a more conversational tone as participants begin to talk to each other. As discussions develop, the researcher may wish to ask some more questions in response to the new information emerging. In the current study, there was a semi-structured question format with enough flexibility built into the design of the study to allow the researcher to ask additional questions if they wanted to clarify a point, seek more information, or take the conversation to greater depth.

Devising Questions for a Grounded Theory Study

When designing the qualitative study, the researcher determined that “a semi-structured, open-ended focus group interview design would be the most effective in eliciting the information required to answer the research questions outlined in section 2.9.2. Nolas (2011) explains, “Grounded theory uses open-ended questions that will allow someone to describe an experience, an action or a process...Semi-structured interviews will have a range of questions and prompts that you as the interviewer prepare before the interview” (p. 29). After consulting several key works on grounded theory (e.g. Charmaz, 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glaser & Strauss, 1978; Goulding, 2002), it was determined that this particular interview approach would work well in striking a balance between meeting the requirements of grounded theory, as well as those of the researcher’s supporting institute and the organisations participating in the research (see below section on ethical approval).

Whilst recognising that grounded theory interviews should resist forcing interview data into preconceived categories (Glaser, 1978), the researcher was also led by Charmaz’s (2006) guidance on devising interview questions to elicit the relevant research information. In the early stages of question writing, the researcher referred to a sample of interview questions provided by Charmaz. To help researchers write their own questions, Charmaz’s guide to *Constructing Grounded Theory* includes a selection of grounded theory interview questions about a life change. Charmaz explains that grounded theory interviewing challenges the researcher to achieve a balance between asking significant questions and forcing responses. According to Charmaz, the competent interviewer will structure questions so as to obtain rich material whilst, at the same time, not imposing preconceived concepts on it. Charmaz explains that, when exploring certain research topics, it is necessary to devise ways of making relevant observations or to construct questions that will encourage responses relevant to the subject matter under investigation. To illustrate, Charmaz provides an example of asking participants in their study of the chronically ill questions like, “As you look back on your illness, which events stand out in your mind?” (p. 34). Charmaz argues that, whilst Glaser (1992) might say such data was forced by asking preconceived questions of it, they would say that they actually *generated* the data through the investigation of taken-for-granted aspects of life.

Thus, guided by Charmaz’s (2006) rationale for constructing grounded theory questions which encourage responses relevant to the research, the current researcher set out to similarly *generate* data through their investigation of taken-for-granted aspects of work life. Following another of Charmaz’s recommendations, the researcher sought to keep the focus group questions as open-ended as possible so as to achieve the necessary balance

between obtaining rich material and avoiding the imposition of preconceived ideas. In terms of developing open-ended questions, Charmaz also explains, “Having an interview guide with well-planned open-ended questions and ready probes can increase your confidence and permit you to concentrate on what the person is saying” (p. 29). Charmaz emphasises that this is especially important for those new to grounded theory interviewing because, as novices, they will need more structure to support their questioning technique. Consequently, as a new PhD researcher, the investigator in the current study incorporated a moderately high level of structure into their interview guide. The semi-structured, open-ended questions devised for use within the focus group interviews are presented in Table 5.4.

In summary, in order to generate rich grounded theory data, the researcher had to develop questions with enough flexibility to allow new themes to emerge for exploration, whilst also extracting enough responses specific to the five research questions under examination. Whilst these series of questions were worded so as to specifically ask participants about the phenomenon of “unethical self-presentation behaviours” or “false performance,” they were open-ended enough to allow participants to describe their own life experiences and opinions of FP. For example, an initial open-ended question asked participants, “What is your understanding and experience of people who practice FP in the workplace?” The early focus group questions were openly phrased in this way to encourage general discussions of FP to flow but, as the questioning route progressed, the questions became more narrow in focus so as to generate pertinent material on a number of set research topics e.g. FP in the performance review, FP in the interview, and the effect of trust on FP. Whilst it was necessary to be precise in the wording of these questions so as to elicit relevant material, the questions were phrased as openly as possible to provide a lot of scope in the responses which participants could give.

Ethical Approval of Interview Questions

Finally, in the current study, one of the most important considerations in terms of the focus group interview questions was obtaining ethical approval for their practical use within the organisations taking part in the research. The process of obtaining ethical approval for the focus group study was twofold. Firstly, as explained in section 5.3, prior ethical approval for the study was sought and granted by Worcester Business School’s Ethics Committee. Secondly, the final draft of interview questions had to be approved by each of the organisations facilitating the focus groups. As Charmaz (2006) points out, whilst this requirement may not be consistent with the emergent nature of grounded theory methods, there is a growing call for researchers to submit detailed plans of their research for review – as was the case in the current study. In terms of submitting interview questions for approval,

Table 5.4 Summary of Focus Group Questions

Question No.	Focus Groups							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Opening Ice-breaker: Tell me your name...and state roughly how many jobs you have had in your working life.	✓	✓	✓	✓	Ice-breaker question about number of jobs removed in focus groups 5-8 – found to be unnecessary and time-consuming.			
2. What is the first thing that comes to mind when you hear the phrase ' <i>unethical self-presentation</i> ' behaviours?	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	x
3. What have been your experiences of people practicing <i>unethical self-presentation behaviours</i> in the workplace?	✓	✓	✓	✓	Instead of original questions 2 & 3: What is your understanding and experience of people who practice <i>FP</i> in the workplace?			
4. Tell me what sort of <i>unethical self-presentation behaviours</i> people might engage in during their performance review.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
5. What <i>unethical self-presentation behaviours</i> do you think people might engage in to get the job they want (interview)?	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓ Questions 4 & 5 slightly adapted in focus groups 5-8: Asked about <i>FP</i> behaviours, not <i>unethical self-presentation behaviours</i> .			
6. Write down the behaviours that tell you that your colleagues are performing unethically in their work.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓ Revised: Write down the behaviours that your colleagues use to present themselves in one way, while actually behaving in a different way.			
7. How do you think that peoples' <i>unethical self-presentation behaviours</i> affect or relate to their actual job performance?	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	x
					Question 7 removed in groups 5-8 – found to be unnecessary.			
8. What effect do you think peoples' <i>unethical self-presentation behaviours</i> have on their work relationships?	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
					Terminology: <i>FP</i> behaviours, not <i>unethical SP behaviours</i> .			
9. How do you think the level of trust people have in management influences their workplace behaviours?	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
10. How do you think trust in their colleagues might influence peoples' workplace behaviours?	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
11. How have you been personally affected by any of the <i>unethical self-presentation behaviours</i> discussed?	x	✓	x	x	This question was removed entirely from the question structure in focus groups 5-8. Found to be surplus to requirements.			
12. If you had a chance to give advice to an organisation, what advice would you give?	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
13. Is there anything else that anyone wants to say that they didn't get chance to say?	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Charmaz counsels, “Proposed interview questions must be sufficiently detailed to convince evaluators that no harm will befall research participants yet open enough to allow unanticipated material to emerge during the interview” (p. 30). In line with this guidance, each organisation in the current study was presented with a set of semi-structured questions for evaluation prior to the focus groups (see Table 5.4). The outcome was the unanimous granting of ethical approval for the question set without any concerns being raised.

Eliminating/Changing Focus Group Questions

Krueger and Caser (2009) explain that it is wise to eliminate a question in a focus group if it does not work. It might be that the question is not understood or that participants talk but are not answering the question. Although a core set of questions remained consistent across groups in the current study, some questions were changed between groups if a question was deemed not to be working for any reason. For example, in the first four focus groups, the following question was asked, “How do you think that peoples’ *unethical self-presentation behaviours* affect or relate to their actual job performance?” This question was eliminated from the questioning route for focus groups five to eight because it was found to be surplus to requirements. By the time this question was reached towards the end of the questioning route in focus groups one to four, the participants had already discussed this subject in relation to the preceding questions. Table 5.4 illustrates the way in which the questioning route evolved as part of the focus group process.

Krueger and Casey (2009) explain that an unworkable question will often be made apparent in one of the first focus groups, as was the case with one of the main questions in the present study. For example, in the first four focus groups, the researcher asked, “What is the first thing that comes to mind when you hear the phrase ‘*unethical self-presentation behaviours*’? Please think about the people you have encountered during your own working life in order to help you answer this question.” Although focus group participants readily responded to this question, they did not usually discuss FP behaviours without more prompting from the researcher. Therefore, this key question was modified for focus groups five to eight, so that the researcher instead asked, “Think back over your entire employment history. What is your understanding and experience of people who practice *false performance* in the workplace?” This revised question also incorporated question three i.e. “What have been your experiences of people practicing *unethical self-presentation behaviours* in the workplace?” Essentially, the new question amalgamated questions two and three because these two questions had been found to elicit the same sort of response from participants. Therefore, one question was deemed sufficient to capture the data required.

The researcher was initially reluctant to directly ask participants about FP due to the fact that FP is not a commonly known organisational term. To work around this difficulty in the latter four focus groups, the researcher accompanied the newly worded question with the following prompt, "Please think about the sort of people in the workplace who present themselves in one way, but behave in a noticeably different way. It is this gap between what people say they can do and what they actually do that we are discussing." This prompt described the phenomenon of FP without suggesting to participants what possible answers they should give. It was obvious from the first four focus groups that participants sometimes struggled to grasp the concept of FP and so the researcher adapted the focus group questions for the purpose of eliciting more FP-specific information. That is not to say that the first four focus groups were not worthwhile because, on the contrary, skilful facilitation of the discussions ensured that participants' attention was brought back to the topic of FP if they strayed too far from the subject matter.

Relating Focus Group Questions to Research Objectives

All of the focus group questions were carefully designed to meet the objectives of the qualitative study (see section 5.2). For example, in order to meet objectives three and four, two questions specifically asked participants about FP in the job interview and FP in the performance appraisal interview. Every focus group featured one question which first asked what possible behaviours a false performer might engage in during the performance appraisal interview e.g. "Tell me what sort of false performance behaviours you think false performers might engage in during their performance review." Each focus group also included a second question which asked participants about FP in the job interview e.g. "To take things back a bit, how do you think [the false performer] could have started to use false performance behaviours from the point of interview?"

Following on from these two interview-related questions, focus group participants were encouraged to share their perceptions and experiences of FP through an activity. Krueger and Casey (2009) explain that the easiest way to engage people in a different way is to ask them to make a list. The researcher in the current study asked participants to, "Take a minute to think about all the false performers you have known who have practiced false performance in the workplace. With these memories in mind, on the paper in front of you, jot down the behaviours that your colleagues use to present themselves in one way, while actually behaving in a different way. We will then feedback as a group, producing a list of these false performance behaviours on the flip chart." This activity required a greater level of involvement with the concept of FP and it generated a long list of potential FP behaviours.

Participants read out their individual lists to the group and the moderator recorded all of the FP behaviours on a flip chart. This listing process helped to identify duplicate items (i.e. behaviours that more than one participant had listed), thus giving a sense of how frequently certain behaviours were mentioned. The eight focus group lists of FP behaviours can be found in Appendices D1-D8. This activity was also incorporated in the focus group study for the important purpose of later assisting with item generation in the quantitative study. The composite lists of FP behaviours formed a basis for writing items for inclusion in the FPQ.

Following on from the flip chart activity, the remaining focus group questions addressed the other main objectives of the study. For example, to achieve objective five, participants were asked how they thought FP might affect work relationships i.e. “What effect do you think peoples’ false performance behaviours have upon their work relationships?” To achieve objectives six and seven, two questions were asked in relation to the issue of trust. The first of these questions asked about how trust in management might affect FP behaviours i.e. “How do you think the level of trust that a false performer has in their manager will influence their workplace behaviours?” The second of these questions asked participants how trust in co-workers might affect FP behaviours i.e. “How do you think the level of trust that a false performer has in their colleagues might influence their workplace behaviours?” There was also an extra question which was kept in reserve to ask if time permitted i.e. “How have you been personally affected by any of the unethical false performance behaviours discussed?” In the one focus group (i.e. focus group two) where there was time to ask this question, it provided some very unique perspectives on how FP might affect co-worker morale. However, due to time constraints, this question was not included in the questioning route for any of the other focus groups. Despite this, it was found that participants often shared the ways in which FP had personally affected them as part of the discussions around other questions.

It was also due to time constraints that the opening ice-breaker question about job numbers was eliminated from focus groups five to eight. The purpose of an opening question is to get everyone to talk early in the discussion, and it should be easy to answer in around 30 seconds (Krueger & Casey, 2009). This question usually does not get included in analysis. In the current study, it was found that participants quickly warmed to the discussion of FP, and so the opening question was dropped from later focus groups. As focus groups progressed, it also became apparent that time spent on the main topic of FP needed to be maximised, especially as the focus groups were only 60-90 minutes in length and not the recommended two hours.

To bring the focus groups to a conclusion, participants were asked to provide a solution to the problem of FP. The moderator posed this question in the following way, “Here is a magic wand. I’ll pass it around the table and when you receive it, give your magical solution to the problem of false performance behaviour in the workplace.” Again, this question was inspired by a recommendation from Krueger and Casey (2009). They explain that asking this type of question can work well because it is different from what participants expect. Finally, participants were asked, “Is there anything else that anyone wants to say that they didn’t get chance to say?” If participants wanted to make any additional comments, then the discussion was extended to allow for this. Focus groups concluded by debriefing participants and thanking them for taking part and turning off the digital recorder.

5.5.2.7 Field Notes

After each focus group had finished, the researcher sought to further capture data through the use of field notes. Krueger and Casey (2009) point out that memory fades quickly and, as such, focus group impressions should be documented in writing or by audio recording before the next focus group. Spradley (1980) suggests four forms of field notes for documentation:

- Condensed accounts in single words, sentences, quotations from conversations, etc.
- An expanded account of the impressions from interviews and field contacts
- A fieldwork journal, which like a diary “will contain...experiences, ideas, fears, mistakes, confusions, breakthroughs, and problems that arise during fieldwork” (1980, p. 71)
- Notes about analyses and interpretations, which start immediately after the field contacts and extend until finishing the study

Henwood and Pigeon (1992) suggest that the keeping of a reflexive journal is an important process in building up documentation in qualitative research. They explain that such an exercise provides an account of what is done and why it is done. For example, a researcher might use their journal to document initial concerns and how these may change, sampling decisions, hunches about the quality of the data, and observations about the context of data generation. Lincoln and Guba (1985) contend that this type of journal keeping helps to lay a “paper-trail” open to external audit by immediate colleagues and more distant peers. In the current study, the researcher opted to keep reflexive field notes after each focus group had been conducted. An example of these reflexive field notes can be viewed in Appendices E1 and E2. Crucially, these notes act as a fieldwork journal in the manner described by Spradley (1980). They have preserved data which otherwise may have been lost, such as

the researcher's immediate impressions following each focus group. Keeping a fieldwork journal allowed the researcher to document their subjective experience following each focus group discussion. For example, had the discussion flowed, were there any silences in the group, could any improvements be made? The field notes captured aspects of the focus groups which audio recording could not.

5.6 Data Analysis

5.6.1 Focus Group Transcription

All focus group recordings were fully transcribed by the researcher, apart from the final focus group recording which was transcribed using the services of a professional transcription company. The entire transcription process yielded 231 pages of single-spaced text (see Appendices F1 and F2 for focus group transcript excerpts). Krueger and Casey (2009) strongly recommend that the task of transcribing be performed by someone who has actually been present in the focus group and, in most cases, it makes sense for this to be the researcher. The main advantage of the researcher personally transcribing data from focus groups soon after they have taken place is the improved analysis that will result. Listening to the recording allows the researcher to have a more intensive experience with the data and key points or themes should begin to emerge as the transcript is typed up. By listening to the recording after each focus group, the researcher can also more easily identify areas for improvement in moderation technique in between facilitating groups.

Charmaz (2006) explains that by listening to interview recordings, the researcher will be able to more closely attend to participants' feelings and views. It is through this process that the researcher will learn the nuances of their respondents' language and meanings and this will, ultimately, allow them to better sense where their journey with the data is taking them. Charmaz supports this advice with a quote from one of her students: "What an impact the words had on me when I sat home alone transcribing the tapes. I was more able to hear and feel what these women were saying to me. I realised how, at times, I was preoccupied with thoughts of what my next question was, how my eye contact was, or hoping we were speaking loud enough for the tape-recorder" (Charmaz, 1991, p. 393).

Charmaz (2006) describes how respondents' words will come to live in the researcher's mind as they listen over and over again to the recordings of what was said during the interviews. The current study involved listening to the focus group recordings repeatedly, a process which helped the researcher to immerse themselves in the data throughout the transcription phase preceding analysis. Listening to the recordings over and over again for

the purpose of transcription enabled the researcher to more carefully attend to the participants' spoken words and to enter into their frame of reference in a way that was not possible during the focus groups themselves.

5.6.2 Selection of Grounded Theory Methodology

Focus group discussions were transcribed from the audio recordings and content analysed using grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Grounded theory was used to guide analyses because it has the flexibility to allow new themes to emerge for exploration. Grounded theory was deemed the most appropriate research method for analysing the fresh concept of FP. Goulding (2002) explains that researchers commonly adopt grounded theory when the topic of interest has been relatively ignored in the literature or has been given superficial attention. In fact, Goulding points out that the difficulty in applying grounded theory usually arises when the area of interest has a long, credible, and empirically based literature. As established in the literature review for the current study, the subject of FP has thus far received very little attention in the literature. Therefore, grounded theory was selected as the research method best fitted to data analysis of the focus group transcripts.

This particular methodology challenges a researcher to build up their own theory from the ground. Goulding (2002) explains that most researchers will invariably be influenced by their own disciplinary background which provides a perspective from which to investigate the problem. The researcher's ability to draw on their implicit knowledge to generate grounded theory is, undoubtedly, a positive asset. However, the researcher should be able to reflect on the influence which their own knowledge and experiences may have on their interpretation of the qualitative data. As human beings are the agents through whom knowledge is perceived or experienced, it is questionable as to whether any form of knowledge can ever be completely independent of their own subjective construction (Morgan & Smircich, 1980). In the current study, the researcher used a reflexive journal and memos to remain aware of their own subjective experience and to ensure that they were not becoming too subjective during the process of analysis. The process of record-keeping also helped to promote transparency in the process of data collection and analysis.

Based upon Glaser and Strauss's (1967) initial conception of grounded theory, there is a prevailing assumption that grounded theory methods require the researcher to enter the field with very limited knowledge of the problem under investigation. Goulding (2002) explains that this is not necessarily the case, and that researchers may engage in reading during the initial stages of research (see discussion of this in section 2.2). Nolas (2011) also points out that it is necessary to do a certain amount of reading prior to conducting grounded theory

research in order to situate the research topic. In the current study, it was relatively easy not to be overly influenced by the existing literature as there were only three published, peer-reviewed journal articles on the subject of FP which the researcher could draw upon as part of their reading. Furthermore, the researcher left a reasonable time gap between reading the literature and conducting the focus groups in order to minimise the problem of bringing preconceived ideas into the field. Moreover, the focus group methodology itself actually helped to minimise the influence and knowledge which the researcher brought to bear on the research study. Focus groups, compared with many other methods of data collection (especially the one-to-one interview), reduce the researcher's influence and "shift the balance of power and control toward the research participants, enabling them to assert their own interpretations and agendas" (Wilkinson, 1999, p. 233).

Charmaz (2006) explains that by adopting grounded theory methods, a researcher can direct, manage and streamline their data collection, all of which will contribute to them constructing an original analysis of their data. In defining grounded theory methods, Charmaz summarises, "Stated simply, grounded theory methods consist of systematic, yet flexible guidelines for collecting and analysing qualitative data to construct theories 'grounded' in the data themselves" (p. 2). Within a grounded theory framework, data forms the foundation of theory and analysis of the data generates the concepts that are constructed. Preconceived ideas and theories are not forced upon the data. The data should be allowed to speak to the researcher, and not manipulated to say things which the researcher wishes were there. Charmaz outlines grounded theory strategy in the following way, "Seek data, describe observed events, answer fundamental questions about what is happening, then develop theoretical categories to understand it" (p. 25). Grounded theorists collect data in order to develop theoretical analyses and, in the process, they try to learn what occurs within the research setting and what their research participants' lives are really like. The researcher then studies respondents' statements and actions in an effort to impose analytic sense upon everything that they have heard in the course of their research.

A grounded theory researcher should always use their data to illustrate their findings. Glaser and Strauss (1967) explain that "...grounded theory is derived from data and then illustrated by characteristic examples of data" (p. 5). Although grounded theory guidelines comprise of general principles and heuristic devices rather than formulaic rules, Charmaz (2006) points out that grounded theory methods have the advantage of containing explicit guidelines that show us *how* we may proceed. As there is not a prescribed method for using grounded theory, the researcher has to familiarise themselves with the variations of grounded theory before they can proceed.

5.6.2.1 Grounded Theory – A Divided Methodology

Since Glaser and Strauss (1967) originally introduced grounded theory methodology, there has been a significant divergence in their respective interpretations of the method, and it is now generally accepted that at least two versions of grounded theory exist (Goulding, 2002). Goulding advises researchers to think carefully about which method suits their personality and preferred modes of working before embarking on the research. For the purpose of data analysis in the present research, the Glaser and Strauss approach was adopted for the development of theory. Charmaz (2006) explains that Glaser and Strauss proposed the theory that systematic qualitative analysis has its own logic and can be used to develop theory. Charmaz further explains that, according to Glaser and Strauss (1967; Glaser, 1978; Strauss, 1987), the defining components of grounded theory practice include:

- Simultaneous involvement in data collection and analysis
- Constructing analytic codes and categories from data, not from preconceived logically deduced hypotheses
- Using the constant comparative method, which involves making comparisons during each stage of the analysis
- Advancing theory development during each stage of the analysis
- Advancing theory development during each step of data collection and analysis
- Memo writing to elaborate categories, specify their properties, define relationships between categories, and identify gaps
- Sampling aimed toward theory construction, not for population representativeness
- Conducting the literature review after developing an independent analysis

To conduct grounded theory which is consistent with Glaser and Strauss's (1967) approach, the present research aimed to satisfy these criteria as far as was possible in collection and analysis of the data. As previously discussed, it was not practical to conduct the entire literature review after data collection and analysis. However, the researcher took other measures to maintain their objectivity so as to develop an independent analysis.

It is worth clarifying why the present research adopted the Glaser and Strauss (1967) approach to the development of theory in preference to Strauss and Corbin's (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998) more recent version of grounded theory. The two original authors (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) have split in terms of how they conceptualise grounded theory, inclusive of aims, principles and procedures associated with the method. Goulding (1999) explains that whilst Glaser (Glaser, 1978, 1992; Glaser & Strauss, 1967) stresses the interpretive, contextual and emergent nature of theory development, the late Strauss (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998) placed an emphasis on

highly complex and systematic coding techniques. In their version of grounded theory, Strauss and Corbin (1990) developed multiple coding procedures such as open, axial and selective coding, and techniques of comparison that can be used to advance analysis by the manipulation of data in a variety of ways (Kools, McCarthy, Durham, & Robrecht, 1996). Glaser (1992) has criticised the way in which Strauss and Corbin's procedures force data and analysis into preconceived categories because this directly contradicts the fundamental tenets of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006). Glaser maintains that the over-emphasis on the mechanics of the research has reduced the degree of theoretical sensitivity and insightful meaning. To Glaser, the Straussarian school represents an erosion of grounded theory (Stern, 1994). Glaser argues that there are "so many rules, strictures, dictums and models to follow one can only get lost in trying to figure it out" (p. 104).

Goulding (2002) captures the difference between the Glaser and Strauss approaches through the following comparison, "Strauss brings to bear every possible contingency that could relate to the data whether it appears or not, while Glaser lets the data tell their own story" (p. 47). Taking into account the two rather distinct versions of grounded theory, the current study opted to adopt the original Glaser and Strauss (1967) approach, mainly as a way of working as flexibly as possible with the data.

5.6.2.2 Ontology and Epistemology

Introduction

As previously outlined in section 2.2, the current study adopted a pragmatic mixed methods research (MMR) approach to the investigation of FP. As will be explained in this section, the decision to conduct MMR in the current study, invariably, took into consideration the wider context of the ongoing debate about quantitative versus qualitative research. According to Henwood (1996), many researchers view quantitative and qualitative methods as representing fundamentally different paradigms which are philosophically irreconcilable. As expanded on by Bryman (2001), there are a number of ways in which qualitative research is proposed to differ from quantitative research. In summarising the distinction between these two approaches, Bryman explains that qualitative research tends to be more about words than numbers; it takes an inductive view of the relationship between theory and research, with the former being generated out of the latter; it is aligned with an interpretivist, epistemological position which means that, in contrast to quantitative research, the focus is on understanding the social world through the interpretation of that world by its participants; and, finally, qualitative research is associated with a constructivist, ontological position, meaning that social properties are seen as the outcomes of interactions between individuals, rather than being "out there" and separate from those involved in its construction. However, despite these differences having been commonly drawn between quantitative and qualitative

research, Bryman argues that these distinctions have been somewhat exaggerated and, as such; researchers should avoid making such deterministic associations between specific epistemological and ontological positions and certain research methods.

In line with this argument, the current study was guided by Bryman's (2001) recommendation "that the connections...between epistemology and ontology, on the one hand, and research method, on the other, are best thought of as tendencies rather than as definite connections" (p. 428). However, before describing how the current study was conducted in such a way that research methods were not so tightly knitted with their associated paradigms, it would first be useful to define exactly what is meant by "epistemology" and "ontology." In terms of defining ontology, it is the study of being, and "it is concerned with 'what is', with the nature of existence, with the structure of reality as such" (Crotty, 1998, p. 10). In terms of epistemology, Bryman defines epistemological issues as "the question of what is (or should be) regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline" (p. 11). Crotty (1998) also explains that as ontological and epistemological issues tend to merge together, the ontological stance often combines with epistemology in informing the theoretical perspective.

Ontology: Adopting a Realist Position

Burrell and Morgan (1979) explain that social scientists must make ontological assumptions about the nature of the social world which, ultimately, concern the phenomena under investigation. For instance, a key ontological question concerns whether the "reality" being studied is external to the individual person i.e. "imposing itself on individual consciousness from without – or the product of individual consciousness; whether 'reality' is of an 'objective' nature, or the product of individual cognition; whether 'reality' is a given 'out there' in the world, or the product of one's mind" (Burrell & Morgan, 1979, p. 1). As will be explained in the section below on grounded theory ontology and epistemology, the current research was guided by a realist perspective. In other words, whilst a nominalist does not concede to there being a "real" structure to the world (rather it is made up of names, concepts and labels created by individual cognition), a realist considers that the real world consists of "hard, tangible and relatively immutable structures" (Burrell & Morgan, 1979, p. 4). Therefore, ontologically, the current thesis approached the study of FP behaviour from a realist position, such that FP was seen to operate within a social world with a hard and concrete existence.

Epistemology: Adopting a Pragmatic Research Position

Epistemological distinctions were negotiated in the current MMR study of FP behaviour by the adoption of a pragmatic philosophical position. As stated by Bryman (1984) in an early

consideration of combining quantitative and qualitative methods, “Why should there not be attempts by researchers to capitalize upon the strengths of different techniques and combine them in overall research projects?” (p. 86). Bryman (2006) explains that pragmatism involves selecting the most appropriate methods to answer the research question as opposed to committing to a paradigm and its associated philosophies and techniques. More recently, Bryman (2006) has reached the conclusion that ‘the paradigm wars’ over the incompatibility of quantitative and qualitative research have largely subsided and, as a result of this, matters of epistemology and ontology have become less prominent. Bryman (2007) explains that, due to the rise of pragmatism in MMR (e.g. Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005); these more philosophical issues have become marginalised in the combining of methods. Crucially, Bryman (2006) explains that, “In this new era, there is a tendency to stress the compatibility between quantitative and qualitative research and a pragmatic viewpoint which prioritizes using any approach that allows research questions to be answered regardless of its supposed philosophical presuppositions” (p. 124). Thus, in this new pragmatic climate, MMR has attempted to reprioritise the research question(s) rather than engaging in “methodolatry” (Curt, 1994) which places an emphasis on method (Shaw & Frost, 2015).

Consequently, as a result of the pragmatic research position adopted in the current study, the research questions were prioritised and epistemological and ontological debates were acknowledged but downplayed. In section 2.9.2, the five research questions proposed at the outset of the study are outlined and, in section 5.1.1, it is explained in-depth why MMR was deemed to be the most suitable method for answering these research questions. Ultimately, in selecting MMR to conduct the present research, it was determined that, “Mixed methods research can answer research questions that the other methodologies cannot” (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003, p. 14). The present thesis considered that focus group methodology leading to the development of a questionnaire instrument was the ideal MMR approach to answering all of the research questions posed in relation to FP behaviour. A solely qualitative approach could have been adopted, but this would not have allowed the FP construct to be further validated through the use of questionnaire methodology, as originally advocated by Parnell and Singer (2001) in their development of the OCS to measure FP behaviour. At the conclusion of their purely quantitative study, they concluded that FP behaviour is measurable and, thus, the current study sought to provide further quantitative evidence to validate their findings. Like Parnell and Singer, the present study could have taken a solely quantitative approach to the investigation of FP behaviour. However, as subsequent studies of FP behaviour (e.g. Gbadamosi, 2006) have recommended that future researchers conduct qualitative research to compare with quantitative efforts, it was considered important to conduct qualitative research so as to gain new theoretical insights

into how FP behaviour manifests in the workplace and how it relates to several other variables identified by previous research.

Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) explain that by adopting such a positive and flexible attitude towards the use of both techniques, pragmatic researchers are much better positioned to draw on qualitative methods to inform the quantitative phase of the research, and vice versa. For example, they explain that the inclusion of quantitative data can help to compensate for the fact that qualitative data usually cannot be generalised, and the inclusion of qualitative data can help to further explain the relationships discovered by the quantitative data. As Bryman (2007) explains, "In genuinely integrated studies, the quantitative and the qualitative findings will be mutually informative. They will talk to each other, much like a conversation or debate, and the idea is then to construct a negotiated account of what they mean together" (p. 21). In the current thesis, the aim was to conduct a genuine integrated study of FP behaviour, with the outcome being the mutually informative findings presented in Chapter 9.

Grounded Theory Ontology and Epistemology

The ontological and epistemological issues underpinning grounded theory were carefully considered when designing the current study. The ontology of grounded theory is rooted in early sociological thought, pragmatism, and symbolic interactionism (Star, 2007). In terms of the pragmatic tradition, Nolas (2011) explains that, within grounded theory, knowledge is created retrospectively. Unlike other philosophical theories, it does not focus on the prospective creation of models which subsequently require verification (Nolas, 2011). Like pragmatism, grounded theory assumes that there is an objective reality, but one which is complex and has complementary and contradictory perspectives, and in which action is created through the relationships between people (Star, 2007). Such action and interaction is interpreted within the symbolic interactionist tradition (e.g. Sandstrom, Martin, & Fine, 2003). This means that social reality is viewed as intersubjective in that "it consists of communal life with shared linguistic or symbolic dimensions that is also reflective of those shared meanings" (Nolas, 2011, p. 17).

Nolas (2011) explains that as activities organise human group life, people spend much time negotiating such activities and building relationships through these activities. According to Nolas, the relationships which people form say something about the roles and identities which they create and about the way in which their communities are organised. The emphasis in social interactionism on action has been adopted by grounded theory and, as such, the process of human lived experience is perceived as "emergent or ongoing social constructions or productions" (Prus, 1996, p. 17). In the current qualitative study, the

researcher was interested in the human lived experience of the employees in the focus groups and sought to understand how the construct of FP was socially constructed within the communal life of the organisation.

Henwood (1996) explains that a commonly held position is that qualitative and quantitative approaches are two fundamentally different paradigms. For instance, quantitative research is seen to be wedded to a “realist” epistemology whereby there is a version of truth which corresponds to how things really are. By contrast, qualitative research is “idealist” in that it rejects any possibility of representing reality. However, Henwood argues that most research does not neatly fall into one or other of these two categories because there are not two kinds of researcher; one who uses only numbers and one who uses only words. Henwood instead suggests that there are three different strands within the emerging tradition of qualitative psychology. Henwood’s framework (see Table 5.5) illustrates how different theoretical choices link particular epistemologies, methodologies and methods, thus going beyond the simple technical and epistemological versions of the quantity-quality debate.

Table 5.5 identifies three strands of qualitative inquiry. It is the second strand of generativity and grounding which is of relevance to the current qualitative study because this strand encompasses grounded theory methodology. In terms of epistemology, generativity and grounding are associated with the contextual specificity of meanings, otherwise known as “contextualism” (Jaegar & Rosnow, 1988). When conducting a qualitative inquiry of a contextual nature, as was the case in the current study, the aim of analysis then becomes to produce “a meaningful account that knits together the multiplicities, variations and complexities of participant’s worlds” (Henwood, 1996, p. 35). In Table 5.5, this is referred to as the construction of intersubjective meaning (or “*Verstehen*”). The qualitative analysis conducted in the current study was produced by constructing intersubjective meaning from the focus group discussions. A meaningful account of the complexities of FP as experienced in employees’ working worlds is presented in Chapter 6.

In the process of knowledge creation, within grounded theory, one analytical practice employed is reflexivity. Nolas (2011) encourages a reflexive approach in grounded theory, reasoning that there is ample scope for developing a reflexive stance given grounded theory’s emphasis on action, including that of the researcher’s. Nolas explains that reflexivity can make the research process more transparent and accountable to one’s colleagues and the public. It is also a good way of developing theoretical sensitivity, which is defined as “the researcher’s ability to understand subtleties and nuances in the data” (Singh, 2003, p. 310). In the current study, the researcher continuously reflected on their interpretations of the

qualitative and quantitative data whilst engaged in the research. There was an ongoing process of reflexivity throughout the entire study whereby the qualitative results were used to inform the subsequent quantitative study, and then the later quantitative findings were used to go back and further understand the initial qualitative findings. This reciprocal research design and process of reflection meant that the new critique and theory produced by the grounded theory analysis was to a large degree tested by the new quantitative instrument. As Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) point out, combining quantitative and qualitative research helps not only to validate quantitative results by reference to findings from the qualitative phase of the study, but also to construct indices from qualitative data that can be used to analyse quantitative data (Madey, 1982).

Table 5.5 Three Strands of Qualitative Inquiry

<i>Broad strand</i>	<i>Epistemology</i>	<i>Methodological principles</i>	<i>Methods and examples</i>
<i>Strand I</i> Reliability and validity	Empiricism	Discovery of valid representations (using induction)	'Data display' model (Miles and Huberman, 1984, 1994) Content analysis (Krippendorff, 1980) Protocol analysis (Ericsson and Simon, 1980)
<i>Strand II</i> Generativity and grounding	Contextualism	Construction of intersubjective meaning (or <i>Verstehen</i>)	Grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss and Corbin, 1990) Ethogenics (Harré and Secord, 1972)
<i>Strand III</i> Discursive and reflexive	Constructivism	Interpretative analysis (highlighting deconstruction of texts)	Discourse analysis (Potter and Wetherell, 1987; Edwards and Potter, 1992; Burman and Parker, 1993) Narrative analysis (Gergen, 1988, 1992; Gergen and Gergen, 1993; Riessman, 1993)

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Source: Henwood (1996, p. 32). Adapted from Henwood and Pidgeon (1994).

5.6.2.3 Grounded Theory Coding

The first stage of analysis in grounded theory involves coding which consists of at least two phases: initial and focused coding (Charmaz, 2006). Charmaz explains that qualitative coding, the process of defining what the data are about, is the first analytic step. At this stage, coding involves categorising segments of data with a short name that simultaneously summarises and accounts for each piece of data. For many grounded theorists, line-by-line coding is the first step in the coding process (Charmaz, 2006). Line-by-line coding requires naming every line of the written data (Glaser, 1978). Glaser (1992) considers verbatim transcription and line-by-line analysis time consuming and not always necessary (Goulding, 1992). Glaser suggests transcribing one interview in full, and then listening to tapes to identify codes and themes. Goulding (2002) has found this does not work in practice and recommends only abandoning full transcription when a sense of recurring themes has been consistently noted in the data.

Within a grounded theory framework, data forms the foundation of theory and analysis of the data generates the concepts that are constructed. The qualitative data analysis software, QSR International's NVivo 9, supported the coding and comparison of textual passages in the current study. The researcher attended a two-day "Introduction to NVivo" training course to ensure that they were proficient in using the software to organise the data. When analysing the data in NVivo, the line-by-line codes were categorised as "free nodes" and the thematic focused codes were categorised as "tree nodes." Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2011) explain that nodes are similar to codes in constant comparison analysis. Thus, a researcher can use the free nodes to place meaning on different parts of the text. Tree nodes are groupings of nodes and, as more free nodes are generated, the researcher is able to organise the free nodes into tree nodes. Leech and Onwuegbuzie's guidelines for using NVivo to conduct constant comparison analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) were consulted for the purpose of supporting data analysis in the current study (see Table 5.6). Urquhart's (2001) practical guidance on the "how-to" of grounded theory explains that "the idea of constant comparison is at the heart of grounded theory as a method" (p. 108) and it is a technique which assists researchers to understand the process of analysis. Urquhart explains that "constant comparison is the process of constantly comparing instances of data that you have labelled as a particular category with other instances of data, to see if these categories fit and are workable. If they do, and the instances mount up, then we have what Strauss (1987) and Glaser (1992) call 'theoretical saturation'" (p. 108).

Goulding (2002) explains that, in the beginning, there are hundreds of codes (i.e. free nodes), far too many to manage, and this necessitates returning to the data in order to re-

sort, prioritise and reduce the number of initial codes and include only those that have explanatory power (i.e. tree nodes). The present study transcribed all eight focus group interviews in full and conducted line-by-line coding with the first two transcripts, thus producing hundreds of free nodes using NVivo 9 (see Appendix G1 for a sample of the line-by-line free nodes created). Initially, line-by-line analysis of the data was conducted in search of salient categories but, after conducting line-by-line analysis with the first two transcripts, a consistent sense of recurring themes suggested that the process of focused coding could be entered into for the remaining six transcripts (see Appendix G2 for a sample of the focused tree nodes created).

Table 5.6 Using NVivo to Conduct Constant Comparison Analysis

<p>If a node exists that you would like to reuse:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">Highlight selected text.Right click to open a list of choices.Select <i>Code Selection</i>.Select <i>At Existing Nodes</i>. The <i>Select Project Items</i> window will appear.Check the box next to the node you would like to reuse.Click on <i>OK</i>. Your selected text is now coded. <p>If there is not an existing node to reuse:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">Highlight selected text.Right click to open a list of choices.Select <i>Code Selection</i>.Select <i>At New Node</i>. The <i>New Node</i> window will appear.Type the name of the new node in the box next to <i>Name</i>. You can also include a description of the node under <i>Description</i>.Click on <i>OK</i>. Your selected text is now coded. <p>Once your text is coded, you can create Tree Nodes. These are groupings of your Free Nodes.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">First, click on <i>Nodes</i> (located in the bottom left hand corner). Your Free Nodes will be displayed.Look through your free nodes and identify nodes that are similar. If you are unsure, you can double click on the node to bring up the data that have been coded with the node.Highlight and drag your free nodes that are similar over to <i>Tree Node</i> (located in the upper left hand corner).Once you have moved all the similar free nodes, click on <i>Tree Nodes</i>. The <i>Tree Nodes</i> will now be displayed.Right click and select <i>New Tree Node</i>. Type in the name of your new Tree Node. Then, click on the nodes that are included in this Tree Node and drag them into the new category. <p>Once your Tree Nodes are organized:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">Each Tree Node can then be written as a theme (perform this step outside of the NVivo program). <p>To see the frequency of used codes in one source:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">Click on <i>View = Coding Stripes</i>.Select with type of strips you would like to view (<i>None, Selected Items, Nodes Most Coding, Nodes Least Coding, Nodes Recently Coding</i>). The coding stripes will appear to the right of the data window.
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Source: Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2011, p. 72).

According to Charmaz (2006), focused coding is the second major phase in coding. These codes are more directed, selective and conceptual than word-by-word, line-by-line, and incident-by-incident coding (Glaser, 1978). Charmaz explains, "Focused coding means using the most significant and/or frequent earlier codes to sift through large amounts of data. One goal is to determine the adequacy of those codes" (p. 57). By comparing data to data, the

focused code is developed. During the focused coding process in the current study, the most useful initial codes were selected and then tested against the extensive data to identify which ones made the most analytic sense for the purpose of categorising the data incisively and completely. Throughout the process, data was compared with data and then data with codes. This resulted in a series of refined codes which were developed with the use of memos.

It should be noted at this stage that the various codes and themes which emerged during the process of initial and focused coding were, invariably, related to the interview questions which were asked during the focus group interviews (see Table 5.4). In section 5.5.2.6, it is explained that the researcher in the current study designed the interview guide so that the early focus group questions were more open so as to encourage general discussions of FP, but that later questions became more narrow in focus so as to generate material relevant to a number of specific research topics e.g. FP in the performance review, FP in the interview, and the effect of trust on FP. As a result of consulting the existing literature (e.g. Charmaz, 2006; Goulding, 2002) and conferring with a grounded theory expert on grounded theory interviewing, the researcher was satisfied that specific questions had to be asked in order to stimulate discussion of the five research questions under investigation (see section 2.9.2). As explained by Charmaz, "Interviewing challenges us to create a balance between asking significant questions and forcing responses – more so than any other forms of qualitative data collection" (p. 32). Also, the grounded theory expert (see section 5.8 for their academic credentials) consulted in relation to grounded theory question writing and interviewing confirmed that it is consistent with grounded theory to ask participants pre-prepared, open-ended questions about specific research topics. Charmaz also states that, "A researcher has topics to pursue" (p. 33). Thus, whilst asking certain interview questions was bound to give rise to the emergence of specific FP themes, this does not negate the grounded theory which emerged based on data analysis.

As part of focused coding, themes emerging from the data analysis were categorised within either a broad category or a subcategory. In the current study, various storylines occurred over and over again in the participants' discussions of FP. Once these stories had been used to identify core categories, the next step involved relating the other categories to them, making them subcategories. Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1998, Strauss, 1987) present a third type of coding, called axial coding, and this relates categories to subcategories. Axial coding specifies the properties and dimensions of a category. It reassembles the data which has been fractured during initial coding in order to give coherence to the emerging analysis (Charmaz, 2006). Initial coding fractures data into distinct codes and axial coding is Strauss

and Corbin's (1998) strategy for bringing the data back together again as a whole. Axial coding links categories to subcategories, and asks how they are related (Charmaz, 2006). Charmaz has adapted Strauss and Corbin's technique so that, rather than follow such formal procedures, the subcategories of a category are developed by showing the links between them as more is learnt about the experiences the categories represent. The subsequent categories, subcategories, and links then reflect how sense has been made of the data. The current study employed Charmaz's (2006) procedure for developing subcategories, and the creation of links between categories and subcategories were refined with the use of memos. The process of coding, memo-writing, and analysis progressed until the point where the researcher concluded that all of the categories and subcategories had been saturated and a systematic substantive theory had been formed.

5.6.2.4 Memo-writing

Charmaz (2006) explains that memos form the core of grounded theory and, as such, the current study employed the use of memos throughout the analytic process (see Appendices H1-H3 for example memos). Memos are written in an informal way because they are primarily a personal tool for the researcher to develop their ideas during the coding process. Glaser and Strauss (1967) advise researchers to write memos in a free-flowing style which will aid imaginative thinking. Grounded theory researchers can write memos manually but, in the current study, the memo facility within NVivo 9 was used to record memos. The benefit of using NVivo in this way was that each memo could be linked to a variety of different codes. For example, Figure 5.3 displays a list of memos which were created using NVivo 9 (memo titles appear in the "list view" – each title represents a different memo). The "Dress to Impress Not (a) Big Theme" memo is highlighted in this list. This memo was specifically linked to the "Dressed to Impress" tree node (code), which had two associated references, both of which are displayed in the "detail view."

Memos support analysis as they provide a record of research and the analytic process. Glaser (1978) suggests that memos are a core stage in analysis and, without using them theoretically to write up ideas; the researcher is actually not doing grounded theory. In memo-writing, Glaser recommends that the researcher write freely about their ideas without censoring themselves or worrying about fit (Goulding, 2002). The memos are an opportunity to produce and test challenging ideas and fit can be established through the sorting of the memos at a later stage (Goulding, 2002). Memos can be anything from a few lines to several pages long. They help to generate relationships, and abstract integrative frameworks and more general problems (Goulding, 2002).

Figure 5.3 Dress to Impress Not (a) Big Theme Memo

The screenshot displays a software interface with two main panes. The left pane, titled 'Memos', shows a list of themes. The right pane shows the detailed content of a selected memo.

List View

Name
Absenteeism as Original Contrib
Backstabbing Not Measurable
Blame as Big Issue of Perceptio
Blaming Others Rates Highly
Blatant Lying Not Huge Theme
Body Language as an Item
Bullying as Popular Topic
Business Speak as FPQ Item
Charlatan Has the Edge
Claiming Credit as a Popular Th
Cognitive Effort Expended to Un
Confusion Characterises Trust Is
Culture of Trust in Org May Dilut
Data Analysis
Deeper Morality Issues
Dress to Impress Not Big Theme
Dressing for Interview Taps Into

Detail View

Dress to Impress Not Big Theme Dressed to Impress

<Internals\Focus Groups\Focus Group 4 - M\Focus Group 4 Transcription> - \$ 2 references coded [1.44% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.27% Coverage

- I don't know whether this one is unethical, but you turn up in your interview and you're dressed to impress, and then you actually start your post in something totally unsuitable for the workplace.

Reference 2 - 1.17% Coverage

- Do you remember her? She turned up in a suit and came to work in a crop top? [F]

- Crop top! [F]

-Did she think she was on...pole dancer? [F]

- That's right, someone said she was on the poles. [F]

- But she did that because she was being interviewed by a woman. You'd of said she was a charlatan

Using memos is an important part of the process of abstraction and they should form a consistent part of the data analysis process (Goulding, 2002). Glaser (1978) recommends that memos and data be kept separate, as memos are generally made up of ideas and descriptions and should not contain data. Corbin and Strauss (2008) recommend writing memos through the whole research process in order to contribute to the process of theory building. They contend that one of the reasons researchers have difficulty formulating theory is that they fail to write long and thoughtful memos throughout the research process. This then makes it problematic for the researcher to understand the analytic story behind the data because they cannot possibly recall the entire process from only a list of concepts and codes. Corbin and Strauss remind researchers that thinking is the heart and soul of qualitative analysis. So memos are not only an end in themselves or additional knowledge, but also serve as a crucial reflection on the research process.

The theory in the current study was fully developed with the aid of comprehensive memos, as recommended by both Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Corbin and Strauss (2008). This reflective memo writing process allowed the researcher to verify their existing interpretations and check for any new insights which may have helped refine the emerging theory. After formulating the theory with the use of memos, it was then written up so as to tell the story of FP as it was related in the focus groups. This did not just involve describing *what* was said, but also *who* said what. Within NVivo 9, it is possible to profile data based on demographic attributes and this is done by creating “cases” after the process of coding is complete. In the current study, the data was given a case attribute called “Work Position” and the values of “Management” and “Non-Management” were assigned to this case. This allowed the data to be explored in more depth as the creation of this case made it possible to compare what Management had said with what Non-Management had said. As this particular characteristic (i.e. work position) was the one most likely to have had an influence on the discussions of FP, the researcher attended carefully to this demographic when writing up the theory.

According to Goulding (2002), there appears to be no strict formula for presenting theory. However, Goulding’s advice is to write the theory in such a way that it demonstrates to the reader how concepts emerged and developed from the data, how the researcher moved from description through the process of abstraction, and how core categories were generated. This demands creativity, which Glaser (1978) describes as follows, “One must write as no one else has ever on the subject. Then explore the literature to see what new property of an idea he has offered, or how it is embedded with others” (p. 22). Glaser and Strauss (1967) suggest that the theory will gain much credibility if the reader becomes so engrossed in the description that they feel as if they have been in the field.

The current study has aimed to provide theory which takes the reader on a vivid journey through FP, whilst heeding Strauss's (1987) warning against presenting data with little analytical comment. Strauss advocates interspersing discursive propositions, using the results of coding and memos, with carefully selected words or phrases combined with theoretical points. The reason for so doing is that it provides the reader with a sense of reality and helps them to understand the context and evolution of the theory. Goulding (2002) explains that the standard approach is to present data as evidence for conclusions, indicating how theory has been obtained from the data. This is the approach which has been taken in the present study.

Goulding's (2002) concluding advice on writing theory is that it must be traceable back through the data to provide evidence, a requirement which can be supported by the use of computer software (e.g. NVivo 9) for the analysis of qualitatively derived data. As the current study used NVivo 9 for data analysis, this requirement was fulfilled. Although the current study has been guided by Glaser and Strauss's (1967) version of grounded theory, it has also been informed by several practical guides authored by other researchers in the field (e.g. Goulding, 2002; Urquhart, 2001). The result of this is a strong theoretical account of FP punctuated with numerous examples of rich focus group data.

5.7 Ensuring Reliability through the Use of NVivo

Hutchison, Johnston and Breckon (2010) explain how "qualitative data analysis software can be used to encourage good quality grounded theory research by facilitating many of the key processes and characteristics associated with this approach" (p. 283). The current study adopted this position, utilising NVivo 9 software to ensure the reliability and transparency of the data coding process. Many researchers have demonstrated that using a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) programme can greatly improve the transparency and rigour of qualitative data analysis (e.g. Bazeley, 2006, 2007; Bringer, Johnston, & Brackenridge, 2004; Crowley, Harre, & Tagg, 2002; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2011) propound that CAQDAS programmes provide a useful tool for recording, storing, indexing, and sorting qualitative data (Morse & Richards, 2002). In the current study, the process of data analysis was supported by following Leech and Onwuegbuzie's step-by-step guidance for conducting constant comparison analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) with NVivo. Notably, Leech and Onwuegbuzie explain that they have produced a clear step-by-step process for conducting qualitative analyses with NVivo to "assist school psychology researchers in increasing the rigor of their qualitative data analysis procedures" (p. 70).

Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2011) explain that NVivo is one of the most widely used CAQDAS programmes, with approximately 400,000 users in more than 150 countries (QSR International Pty Ltd, 2009). Given the established reputation of NVivo, the current study adopted QSR International's NVivo 9 as a powerful tool for maximising the reliability of the data coding process. A further strength of using this data analysis programme lay in its compatibility for working with grounded theory data. Previous researchers (e.g. Bringer et al., 2004) have demonstrated that NVivo can support many aspects of the methodology associated with grounded theory, thus helping to create a transparent account of the data coding process, which should ultimately improve study validity. Hutchison et al. (2010) explain how NVivo can facilitate many aspects of the grounded theory process, including analysis of the data. They outline how previous researchers (e.g. Bringer et al., 2004; di Gregorio, 2003) have described the way in which various functions within NVivo relate to different grounded theory processes, and they build upon these earlier accounts to illustrate how different functions of more recent versions of NVivo can be used in conjunction with the key grounded theory characteristics.

To demonstrate how the various NVivo functions work, Hutchison et al. (2010) describe how they utilised NVivo during their own grounded theory investigation of long-term physical activity behaviour change. They explain how they analysed interview transcripts in line with grounded theory tenets, specifically using the features of NVivo to support the process. For example, they describe how NVivo was employed in creating a memo structure; managing data documents; early concept identification; and creating a node structure. Many of the key functions of NVivo which Hutchison et al. describe were also used in the current study. For example, a memo structure was created to support grounded theory data coding and analysis (see section 5.6.2.4). As described by Hutchison et al., this process helped to create a valuable “workspace for conceptual development” (p. 287), with these memos facilitating initial and focused coding, use of the constant comparison method, and questioning of the data. Hutchison et al. also explain how the data management options in NVivo can help to support a grounded theory approach. Notably, NVivo can accommodate data in a variety of different forms (e.g. audio files, videos, digital photos, Word, PDF, rich text and plain text documents). Hutchison et al. explain that this data storage function is important because those working with grounded theory are encouraged to remain open to new possibilities emerging from the data (Charmaz, 2006), and this involves being flexible with regards to data gathering approaches. In the current study, the expansive data storage features of the software allowed the researcher to work flexibly with the various data gathered, including audio files, Word, and PDF. Thus, NVivo provided an interactive workspace in which to conduct the grounded theory analysis.

In terms of grounded theory coding, Hutchison et al. (2010) explain that it is through this process that the researcher strives to account for what is actually happening in the data. They describe how NVivo supports this process by allowing the creation of nodes, which provide storage areas for references to coded text (Bazeley, 2007). Like Hutchison et al., the current researcher also identified concepts in the data during analysis and then created nodes (grounded theory codes) in NVivo to represent each concept. Crucially, Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2011) point out that nodes are similar to codes in grounded theory analysis. Hutchison et al. explain how, as data coding progresses, the number of nodes increases. It is at this point that the researcher may wish to organise the growing collection of nodes by grouping them within a more general concept. They emphasise that this exercise is useful as part of grounded theory analysis because it encourages the researcher to consider each concept in more detail, thus encouraging conceptual clarity and early micro-analysis (Bazeley, 2007). In the current study, line-by-line codes were initially categorised as “free nodes” but, as more free nodes were generated, the researcher was able to organise these into focused “tree nodes.” Hutchison et al. explain that this NVivo coding function facilitates the transition between open and more focused coding, and it allows the researcher to remain open to new possibilities emerging in the data because, if at any time during analysis a new concept is identified, an additional node can just be created to represent it.

Hutchison et al. (2010) conclude that their grounded theory study supports previous research claims that NVivo can be used to improve the transparency of data analysis (e.g. Bringer et al., 2004; Johnston, 2006), arguing that “an NVivo project ultimately represents a complete record of the evolving grounded theory research process” (p. 299). Johnston, specifically reflecting upon the use of NVivo software in doctoral research, similarly argues that NVivo is able to provide “unprecedented levels of transparency within qualitative research” (p. 385). For instance, if coding has been conducted using NVivo, supervisors and examiners can easily view the data and follow the entire research process (e.g. examining data, reading memos, inspecting codes, exploring models, scanning the research journal, etc.). In the current thesis, the researcher has provided a comprehensive account of how NVivo was used during qualitative analysis (e.g. see section 5.6.2.3), thus allowing external experts to easily track the analytic process. Through this account, the researcher has also been able to more reliably demonstrate how the qualitative study progressed in line with a grounded theory approach.

Finally, Johnston (2006) contends that the growth in popularity of mixed-methods research may be because of the increased ability to link qualitative and quantitative data in a way that was difficult to do without the software. Certainly, within the current study, the use of NVivo

facilitated the conversion of qualitative data to quantitative form by enabling the data to be managed in a very flexible and systematic manner.

5.8 Ensuring Credibility through Member Checking

One of the final steps in the grounded theory analysis process is ensuring the credibility and consistency of the interpretation. Goulding (2002) explains that this can be achieved through inviting others, such as independent reviewers, to examine the data and offer their own interpretations of it in order to confirm plausibility and check consistency (Riley, 1996). In the current study, the grounded theory coding and data analysis was sent to two academic Human Resource Management (HRM) experts (see section 5.4 for a description of their academic credentials) for comment during the early stages of theory development. Furthermore, the recommended process of “member checking” was also implemented in the later stages of grounded theory development. Goulding (2002) explains that member checking is well established in the literature as a key strategy for the validation of findings. According to Riley (1996), member checking “...is an invited assessment of the investigator’s interpreted meaning” (p. 36) whereby “informants can be invited to assess whether the early analyses are accurate reflections of their conversations” (p. 36). Therefore, as recommended by the key texts on grounded theory, the current study sought to return to the original informants in order to obtain their opinions on the evolving theory. However, whilst member checking is traditionally carried out during the early stages of data collection, in the current study, member checking had to be carried out later in the research process for both practical and ethical reasons.

In most of the examples cited in the grounded theory literature, one-to-one interviews have been the methodology of choice for data collection (e.g. Hirschman & Thompson, 1997; Neufeldt, Karno, & Nelson, 1996). As such, the researchers have been able to confidentially check each individual member’s interpretations. Where the current study diverged is that focus group methodology was employed and, therefore, returning transcripts to participants for checking would have involved returning collective data to employees in the workplace. For ethical reasons, organisations were not willing to support this exercise because it entailed sending out highly sensitive and confidential information into the public work domain. At this stage of transcription and analysis, any identifying names or references had been removed to maintain the anonymity of participants and organisations. However, within individual organisations, there was still the possibility that had these raw transcripts been shared by focus group participants with other employees that non-focus group participants could have guessed who had said what based upon the subject discussion. Furthermore, employees with knowledge of the organisation may have been able to identify individuals

implicated in the focus group discussions as “false performers” based on the description of their department and role, or even by specific incidents related within the focus group. Finally, the length of the interview transcripts (the average of which was 29 pages) was of concern to organisations, who expressed objections to staff taking further time away from work to examine and feedback on such a lengthy document.

Consequently, the approach taken in the current study was to carry out member checking towards the end of the interpretative process so as to maintain confidentiality and anonymity. To assist with deciding on how to proceed with member checking at this later stage, the researcher sought the academic counsel of a leading expert in grounded theory. This individual had a particular research interest in qualitative methodologies and was the author of a leading book on grounded theory, as well as numerous academic papers on the subject. This academic expert recommended that the researcher share the preliminary data analysis with the original focus group informants in order to seek feedback on whether “it felt right to them.” This recommendation was consistent with the later research steps described by Hirschman and Thompson (1997), as well as Neufeldt et al. (1996). In both of these grounded theory studies, the authors relate how, at the conclusion of the initial interpretative process, the analysis was sent to participants for comments on the meanings and thematic categories generated. Thus, in accordance with the previous literature and the grounded theory expert’s recommendations for member checking, the current study established e-mail contact with the original focus group participants in order to ask for their feedback on the developing theory.

At this point in the research, the results from the eight focus group interviews had been analysed and a theoretical account of the findings incorporated into an unpublished journal article. This paper featured a review of the initial categories, along with supporting examples of focus group data (i.e. participant quotes). For purposes of anonymity, none of the organisations had been identified in the paper and the results of the focus groups were reported in aggregate. The reporting of the results in aggregate circumvented previous ethical issues which had been raised by organisations in relation to the circulation of raw focus group interview transcripts to employees within the workplace. By providing original informants with the results in a more abstract form, there was much less likelihood that participants could identify who said what, or who may have been implicated as a “false performer.” It was also less likely that instances of FP described in the journal article could be attributed to specific organisations. This paper was sent via e-mail to the four focus group organisations with a request to distribute it to the focus group participants (n=51) for their feedback on its authenticity. The e-mail request included the following key question for focus

group participants, “I would like you to read the paper and check my interpretations. Does what you read accurately reflect some of what we discussed in the focus group?” This e-mail request elicited only a small response, perhaps due to the labour intensive demands of reading and commenting on an academic document during work hours. However, feedback was received from one Management and one Non-Management participant, thus representing a voice from each focus group condition.

The Non-Management participant provided the following response to the question about the accuracy of the paper’s interpretations: “... the information seems to portray an accurate discussion of what took place. I do not have any concerns as to the results or information presented as it is not clear where the information has been obtained from, I could potentially be commenting on something that was not discussed within [organisation’s name].” By checking the accuracy of interpretations with this Non-Management member, it helped to validate the summary of the focus group discussions as an accurate record of what had actually been said. Further validation was provided by a Management participant who also commented that they were satisfied with the theoretical account of the focus group discussions: “I remember the study – it is very interesting. I certainly recognise many of the themes that you have identified and those I don’t recognise must have come up in one of the other focus groups. They are certainly consistent with the discussions we had in the group I was in. A recommendation I had in mind, but which it looks like I did not articulate, is to move the false performing person out of a management position until their behaviour improves.” This particular response reflects the high level of engagement which participants had with the subject of FP. Even after the focus group had closed, this Management participant was still interested in contributing to the discussion.

As is evident from these responses, the participants verified the accuracy and consistency of the theoretical interpretations of the data, thus helping to confirm internal validity. This member checking exercise satisfied the researcher as to the authenticity of the theoretical account of results, and it provided confidence in the write-up of theory which comprises the Qualitative Results chapter (see Chapter 6). Of course, the process of member checking was really instigated in the focus groups themselves as the dynamic setting of the groups accorded the researcher the opportunity to check understandings with participants as discussions were taking place. For instance, the researcher was able to question participants or mirror back responses in order to check understandings. The flip chart activity, which was a central part of the focus groups, also allowed the researcher to visually present key themes and confirm participants’ feelings about a wide variety of FP behaviours. Thus, member checking was actually an on-going process throughout the qualitative study.

Purposive sampling would have been another method of ensuring the credibility of the grounded theory analysis. Purposive sampling is “a method of selecting participants because they have particular features or characteristics that will enable detailed exploration of the phenomena being studied” (Shinebourne, 2011, p. 49). Most often, semi-structured, one-to-one interviews are used to obtain rich, detailed, first-person accounts of experience. However, purposive sampling was not used in the current study for both practical and ethical reasons. Although individual accounts of FP would have been insightful, as would the opportunity to test back analysis of the focus group data with some of the original informants, this simply was not possible in practical terms. The organisations involved in the focus group study were not prepared to give staff further time off work to attend one-to-one interviews for the purpose of member checking. In both sections 5.5.2.1 and 8.2.2.2, the sampling challenges encountered in the current study are described in-depth and, in section 5.5.2.3, it is explained that the smaller composition of the final two focus groups reflects the difficulties inherent in attempting to release participants from work so as to take part in focus group research. In the face of repeatedly encountering such access difficulties, the researcher had to accept the sampling limitations which prevented them from testing back interpretations with the originators of the focus group data through the medium of one-to-one interviews.

Furthermore, even if one-to-one interviews had been a possibility in the current research, it may have been unethical to single out employees for such interviews given the sensitive nature of the research topic i.e. FP. To do so may have wrongly indicated that the interviewees themselves had been identified as false performers. Ultimately, however, the inability to carry out purposive sampling was not a major setback because, in due course, the qualitative analysis was tested using quantitative methodology and this was deemed to provide a sufficiently rich depth of overall analysis.

5.9 Concluding Remarks

It is through the development of grounded theory that Glaser and Strauss (1967) legitimised qualitative research as a credible methodological approach in its own right rather than simply as a precursor to developing a quantitative instrument. So, although the qualitative results in the current study were used to inform the quantitative study, this in no way detracts from the merit of the qualitative investigation. The results of the focus group study which now follow are testament to the inherent value of the qualitative research.

Chapter 6

Qualitative Results

“I want to understand the world from your point of view. I want to know what you know in the way you know it. I want to understand the meaning of your experience, to walk in your shoes, to feel things as you feel them, to explain things as you explain them. Will you become my teacher and help me understand?”

(Spradley, 1979, p. 34)

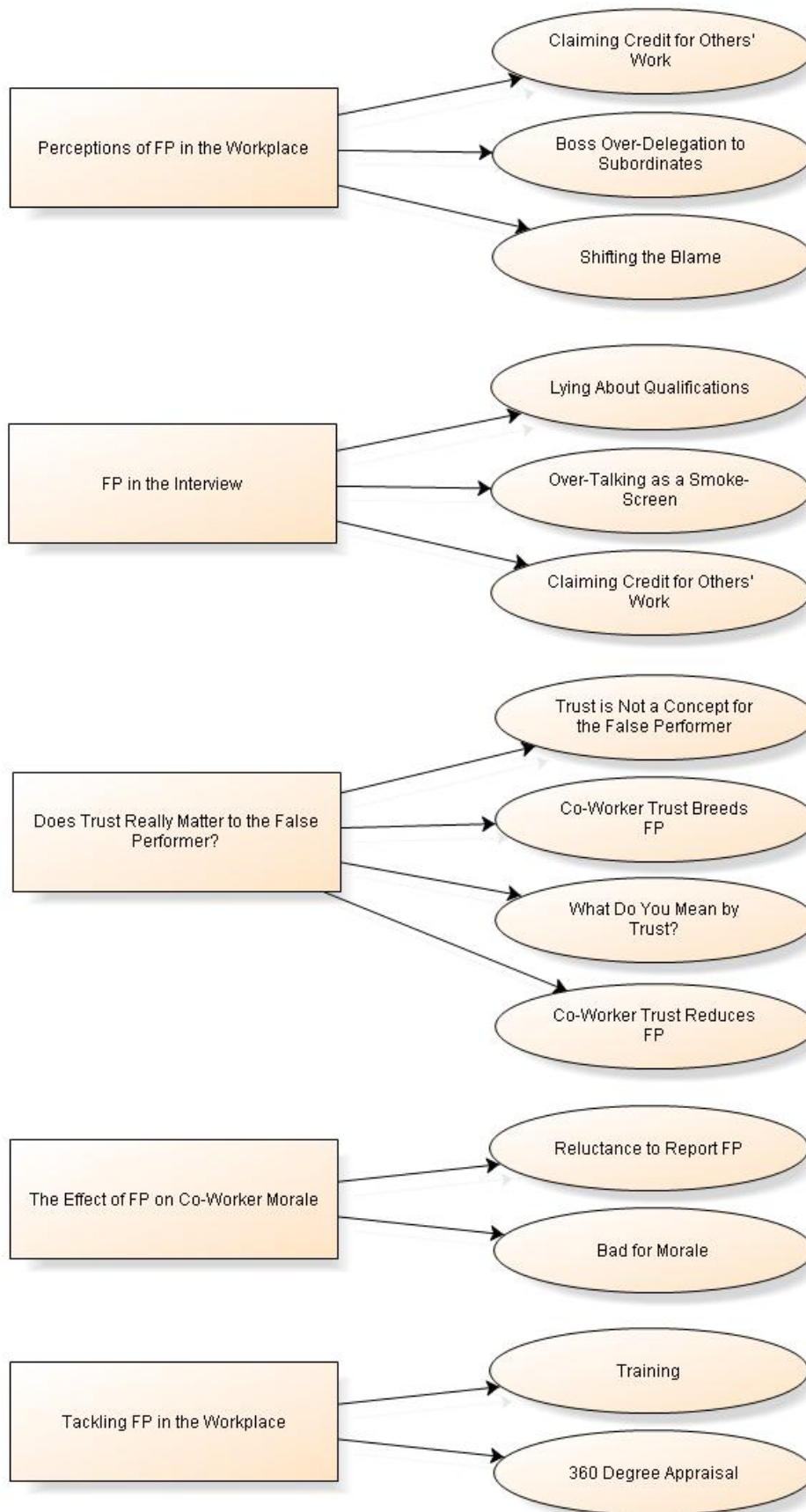
6.1 Overview of the Qualitative Study and Results

The focus groups produced a vast range of rich material in relation to the core issue of False Performance (FP), as well as many of its associated variables such as trust. Management and Non-Management employees were questioned about their perceptions and experiences of FP, especially relating to the job interview and the performance appraisal interview.

Following transcription of the focus group audio-recordings, data was analysed using grounded theory. This involved line-by-line coding, focused coding, and axial coding. Data was also coded according to whether participants were of Management or Non-Management status. This allowed a more subtle level of comparison to be made between managerial and non-managerial responses, indicating where Management and Non-Management held similar or differing perceptions of FP.

Results from eight focus groups identified five categories common to both Management and Non-Management: Perceptions of FP in the Workplace; FP in the Interview; Does Trust Really Matter to the False Performer?; The Effect of FP on Co-Worker Morale; and Tackling FP in the Workplace. Various subcategories were then related to these main categories. Figure 6.1 displays a model of the major categories and subcategories.

Figure 6.1 A Model of the Major Categories and Subcategories



6.2 Categories

6.2.1 PERCEPTIONS OF FALSE PERFORMANCE IN THE WORKPLACE

6.2.1.1 Overview

The majority of focus group participants enthusiastically discussed their perceptions and experiences of FP in the workplace and, through various means, such as recounting past work experiences, they conveyed their thoughts as to which behaviours they believed to constitute FP. *Perceptions of FP in the Workplace* emerged as the leading primary category, across both Management and Non-Management conditions, which is consistent with FP behaviours being the focal point of the focus group discussions. In general terms, participants perceived FP behaviour as being about concealment. One manager explained:

I tend to think of somebody who's got a facade, who's hiding things, and the temptation is always to try and find out what they're hiding. Not really listen to what they're talking about or doing, the action. It's about, for me, it's about what's the hidden bit?

This Management quote demonstrates a particularly nuanced understanding of FP, highlighting FP as a construct which is based upon the disparity between the false performer's self-presentation and their actual behaviours. This description of FP accurately reflects Parnell and Singer's (2001) definition of false performers as those "individuals who seek to improve their perceived performance at the expense of their actual performance" (p. 441). The essential concept which is central to FP is this idea of there being a disparity i.e. "a hidden bit" between the false performer's perceived performance and their actual performance. The current focus group research has aimed to advance knowledge of how the false performer creates such a facade in the workplace in order to mask their incompetence.

In the focus groups, there was the shared perception that false performers deliberately use one set of words or actions for the purpose of creating a positive impression which differs from their actual work behaviours. Participants provided numerous examples of FP behaviours which they considered specific to those presenting themselves falsely i.e. those presenting in one way but acting differently. Participants discussed diverse behaviours, such as: "Backstabbing" (betraying a co-worker), pretending to look busy, exaggerating, buying letters after one's name, lying about previous experience, lying on one's Curriculum Vitae (CV), behaving more impressively in front of one's manager, telling tales to sabotage someone else for personal gain, (the boss) over-delegating work to gain favour with superiors, feigning physical illness, claiming failures as successes, exploiting one's trade union membership to remain in post, using one's sexuality, being absent on key occasions,

and claiming credit for others' ideas and work. The main subcategories of *Perceptions of FP in the Workplace* emerged as: Claiming Credit for Others' Work, Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates, and Shifting the Blame.

6.2.1.2 Claiming Credit for Others' Work

Across all of the focus groups, there emerged a very human need for recognition, and the importance of receiving recognition is evidenced by the subcategory of *Claiming Credit for Others' Work*. This issue was discussed in terms of the false performer taking credit for another individual's work, as well as that of the entire team's. One non-manager explained:

But, predominantly, I've experienced people taking credit for others' work and that makes them seem superior and like the minions just helped out. When actually the main work and all the effort and the ideas have come from, NOT them, they just happened to be in that role. How they got there, I've often wondered.

Another non-manager related the story of a former colleague who always unfairly took credit for their work efforts in the kitchen. When asked about false performers in the workplace, this non-manager responded by saying:

Yeah, I worked with one, she was the cook. And I was there to help and it ended up that I was doing most of it, while she was supposed to concentrate on the paperwork. And she still wasn't getting her paperwork completed. She would be in the office texting this new fella [man] of hers, or she would be in the hall talking to the kids, or she should be serving and she would suddenly disappear. You'd think, oh, where's she gone? And then we'd be rushing around getting things done, and she'd be in the hall watching the kids doing their performance. You know, things like that...then you start getting more and more worked up and that's when it can explode because you're then taking your frustrations out on other people when they've probably done nothing. They're equal to you, that's all you're doing is working there, but the resentment's there, you know. And you snap at the wrong one, so it creates a bad atmosphere, and it's like...a time bomb – it's just waiting to explode. And in this particular case it did, it just hit off. And, that was it, but she's not there now.

This story provides a vivid description of FP and it perfectly illustrates how a false performer might take credit for their colleague's work in order to give the impression that they have done the job. In this case, the cook was letting their helper do most of the work whilst they claimed to be doing the paperwork. However, they did not complete this paperwork, and they also shirked most of their other responsibilities. This particular story also reveals what the false performer might be doing when they are busy avoiding their actual job. According to this non-manager's story, the false performer is prone to engage in activities which relate more to their personal lives than to the job which they have been employed to do. This, inevitably, creates tension in the workplace because the extra burden of the false performer's workload has to be picked up by their co-workers. This non-manager concluded

their story by explaining how they had to be diplomatic in dealing with the false performing cook:

That particular person who wanted to be the cook and all that...it wasn't good. It wasn't good. I had to be very careful because if you say the wrong thing...Well, I was afraid of saying the wrong thing because she could have upset my dinner time service. All I kept thinking was, I've got to work it out, I've got to make sure everything's right for dinner, see the manager, tell them what's going on...I couldn't let this person know because when the manager was coming in, they were...as I say, "honey and sweet" and everything. So, it was difficult to get it across to my manager because she was seeing a different [person]...

This non-manager avoided confrontation with the false performer in order to ensure that their dinner service kept running smoothly. However, they eventually decided to approach their manager and tell them about the cook's FP. Reporting the FP proved to be difficult because the manager only witnessed the cook's behaviour when they were "honey and sweet" (i.e. performing well in their job). This non-manager's story adds a vital element to the story of FP because it underlines the double nature of the false performer when dealing with co-workers versus management. As is evident from this story, the false performer was content to neglect their duties in front of their co-workers but, when management appeared, they would present themselves as hard-working i.e. "honey and sweet." Previous research (e.g. Gbadamosi et al., 2007) suggests that co-workers are likely to have a better insight into the false performer's behaviour than are management. This story demonstrates how co-workers are ideally positioned to observe the false performer's actual job performance, as opposed to management who may only see the false performer on the job from time to time. This occasional observation means that the false performer can easily adapt their behaviour to appear more impressive when they know that their manager is going to be paying a visit.

Crucially, the non-manager relating this story did not denigrate their manager for failing to immediately deal with the false performer in this situation. They in no way indicated that they thought that the false performer's actions had arisen as a result of weak leadership or poor management practice. Rather, they seemed to have an appreciation for the fact that their manager could not possibly be expected to know what was happening when they were not present. In fact, in many work situations, it is common for management to be engaged in duties away from their subordinates and they often have to rely on evidence garnered from only routine visits to assess whether work is being carried out efficiently. Unfortunately, the focus group discussion did not extend to how the manager in this instance dealt with the false performer once the FP had been reported. Such additional qualitative data may have given a valuable insight into the efficacy of their management style in dealing with the problem of FP in the workplace.

This in-depth story was an important contribution to the category of *Perceptions of False Performance in the Workplace*. Firstly, the qualitative data it provided supports the definition of FP as a behaviour which entails an individual seeking to improve their perceived performance at the expense of their actual performance i.e. there was a gap between the reality of the cook's poor performance and the appearance of their projected performance to management. Secondly, within the focus groups, FP was not a term which focus group participants were familiar with, so they tended to tell stories from their own work histories as a way of checking whether the example that they had provided qualified as FP or not. It was this method of storytelling which allowed participants to test whether their understanding of FP was correct and, by degrees, they became more confident in their contributions to the focus group discussions.

Management participants also flagged up the issue of *Claiming Credit for Others' Work* as a FP tactic. One manager disclosed how they had previously done work for a false performer who then claimed full credit for the results. They explained:

Yeah, 'cause obviously the work that I was doing for her, her boss didn't even know that half of the work she was presenting wasn't even done by her.

It is in such ways that the false performer may claim credit for their colleagues' work in order to appear competent in front of management, despite the fact that this is not really the case. Their competency is an illusion based upon the presentation of work done by other people, namely their colleagues who, for their own reasons, remain quiet about their background role. Another manager gave an insight into their personal experience of this FP behaviour by sharing the following story:

It's when you see somebody else's signature on the bottom of something...Certainly, over the years, within the local authority, you're asked to write something, reports mainly, which involved a lot of work, and then someone else's signature goes on the bottom of it. And you think, come on, there's not even a reference to yourself.

There was a distinct sense in the focus groups that the subject of *Claiming Credit for Others' Work* was of more concern to those of Management status. Although supposition, this may be because work is carried out for higher stakes at this level and, thus, feelings ran higher around this topic in the Management focus groups.

Another manager provided a slightly different description of how the false performer is likely to claim credit for others' work in a more insidious way. They spoke in terms of the false performer as a "vague" type of employee who will not blatantly claim responsibility for all

team successes, but will rather give the impression that they have influenced all progress in the team. This definition of FP indicates how subtle FP is as a phenomenon and how difficult it can be to detect:

I think this person will be a vague sort of person who'll be, not claiming credit for everything good on the team, but giving the impression that they're taking the credit, that they're responsible for the good things that happened, the jobs that have been completed, the jobs that are still in progress...So they manage to manipulate the information and the impression that they're actually responsible for the good progress being made and, at the same time, avoiding the criticism for things that are not being [done well]...

Management and Non-Management participants also spoke about *Claiming Credit for Others' Work* in terms of the false performer taking credit for other peoples' ideas. This type of FP was generally perceived as being a particularly unfair practice, with the outcome being that the original ideas-bearer is left feeling demoralised and reluctant to share any future ideas. A non-manager shared their recent experience of this type of FP in quite vivid terms:

I've come across something recently, where, a few...about six months ago now, I came up with an idea and I e-mailed it to my manager, and I had a response back saying, no, we shall not do this – exclamation mark, exclamation mark, exclamation mark. And now, all of a sudden, we've taken on my idea and noone's said...

The intimation is that “no-one’s said” that the new idea was originally this non-manager’s suggestion and the outcome is that they did not receive any acknowledgement for their input. This example illustrates how the false performing manager says one thing but does another. In this instance, the manager rejected their subordinate’s idea by e-mail, but secretly made plans to put it into practice so that they could gain the credit and kudos for themselves.

During this same focus group discussion, the non-manager’s colleague supported the story which had been told about this e-mail incident in the workplace. They expanded further upon what had happened by relating the following information:

It solved a problem that we'd been living with for, like, two years...I think why the person [i.e. boss] was so angry is...because all the e-mails that were communicated clearly proved it was [their co-worker's] idea. They couldn't take credit for it, and that's why it flared up.

This interesting insight into a real-life episode of FP tells the story of a boss who tried to claim the credit for their subordinate’s idea, but then got caught in the process. It appears that they got incredibly angry when the truth emerged and, certainly when the non-manager

was relating the incident, it was obvious that it had caused a great deal of friction in the office. The non-manager in the focus group explained how this episode of FP made them feel:

I've felt a bit rubbish to be honest. I feel like, at the moment, I'm not going to bother giving any more ideas...It's demoralising.

Further focus group conversation between this particular non-manager and their co-worker communicated the bitterness which remained after they experienced having their idea stolen:

Participant 1: *It undermines you.*

Participant 2: *Yeah. If you're just going to get moaned at about it, what's the point? But I think my manager's manager had a bit of a go at her about it because he said...people are not going to want to put forward ideas if this is going to be the outcome.*

If employees feel that their ideas are not going to be acknowledged, or that proposing ideas will lead to conflict with their manager, then there is little incentive for them to contribute ideas in the workplace. Gbadamosi et al.'s (2007) research highlights the need for organisations to deal with false performers lest they risk FP demotivating other sincere and committed employees. The false performer's disingenuous actions may cause morale to plummet among their co-workers or, as in the example cited above, a false performing manager might alienate their subordinates.

In the current focus group study, non-managers also expressed a sense of resentment in relation to one's boss accepting praise for work which has been done by subordinates in a team. For instance, it was depicted as unfair for a manager to claim credit for work which has been completed by the team, specifically in cases where the team is not rightfully credited for their contribution to the work in question. For example, one non-manager conveyed a palpable sense of injustice surrounding managerial FP practice by saying:

I was going to say we get that on our team, the managers are like, oh yeah, we've completed this proposal in so many days. Like, we? No, you didn't do anything. It was the other people on the team that did it.

In terms of the Management focus group discussions of *Claiming Credit for Others' Work*, the issue of claiming credit for others' ideas was not discussed so vividly as in the Non-Management groups, but there was still the same theme of the false performer stealing ideas from a silently suffering colleague. The following was shared in a Management group,

echoing similar sentiments to those expressed in the Non-Management group:

Yeah, I know what you're saying...you've been carrying this person, doing all this work and then you don't get any credit for it, but they keep getting continually praise after praise after praise and taps on the back...Well really, you're sitting back thinking, well hang on, I did that, I did that piece of work and here's me, and you've never had any credit for it.

Whilst Management and Non-Management expressed similar perceptions and experiences as regards *Claiming Credit for Others' Work*, the Management group did not refer to claiming credit for ideas with the same frequency as did the Non-Management group. It may be that stealing ideas is less likely to happen at management level, hence Management putting less emphasis on this particular FP behaviour.

One manager made the unique point that there is a modern-day acceptance of claiming credit for others' work as long as a small-print acknowledgement is made to the original source:

I think plagiarism, where you give credit for the original source, is more acceptable today than it has been in the past with everyone trying to get things done very, very quickly. But I guess everyone puts the accreditations in small print at the back and almost tries to pass it off as original thought.

There is the implication that the generally busy pace of modern work life has made it more justifiable for employees to do whatever it takes to get the job done. In this type of environment, the false performer may pass more easily undetected by the organisation. If plagiarism is being accepted as more commonplace, the false performer may not stand out amongst their colleagues. The issue of small-print accreditation was only raised in this one focus group, but it identified a valid concern whilst also raising the question of to what extent is the culture of an organisation to blame for encouraging disproportionate credit-taking.

6.2.1.3 Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates

Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates strongly emerged across both Management and Non-Management focus groups as a subcategory of *Perceptions of False Performance in the Workplace*. The following dialogue, which took place between two non-managers, illustrates the way in which boss over-delegation can play a major role in FP:

Participant 1: *I think it depends how performance is perceived as well. Because the managers might look like they're performing well because they've been taking the praise*

and saying that they've been doing the work. So they might look like they're successful when actually it's not them that have done the work. It's...

Participant 2: *It's the people that they've delegated it to.*

Participant 1: *Yeah, so their performance could look good but it's not them that have created the performance.*

This example neatly captures the essence of FP which is all about the gap that exists between perceived performance ability and actual performance output. Managerial FP involves false performing managers over-delegating work to their subordinates with the specific intention of claiming full credit for the eventual results. In the current focus group study, Management suggested that one of the primary reasons underlying *Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates* is a manager's desire to impress their own boss. Managers will claim their subordinate's work as their own in order to impress their own superiors by appearing highly efficient. If they over-delegate work to others and claim it as their own, then this will boost their output and make them appear capable of achieving great feats in surprisingly small time frames. One manager explained it in the following terms:

But I suppose, leading from that, you've got it the other way round, haven't you? The boss who looks super-efficient in front of their boss but really isn't doing anything because they've got the person under them doing it all because that person's trying to improve themselves.

The Management group discussed how *Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates* might take the form of a false performing manager passing paperwork to their secretary to do in its entirety:

The boss is taking all the credit and maybe hasn't done the paperwork or anything to go with it. Or hasn't put all the file work together, and their secretary has, and then they're saying, well it was all me.

Regrettably, the fall-out effect of this type of FP is the serious damage which it can have on the subordinate's progression opportunities in the organisation. The Management focus group participants discussed the way in which boss over-delegation could hinder a subordinate's career prospects. As well as an employee not being recognised for efforts their boss is claiming credit for, there was the suggestion that a manager might block their subordinate's possible promotion by sabotaging their likelihood to succeed at interview. It may be the case that the false performing manager hinders their subordinate's career progress in order to keep them in the subordinate role so they can continue delegating their work to them. One manager explained why the false performing boss would be reluctant to

lose the member of staff who they have been over-delegating their work to. To incur such a loss, would mean:

They've either got to do it themselves or they've got to find...they've got the hassle of finding somebody else to do it. And the next person might not be as forthcoming in doing all their work for them. They might have a bit more guts (trans. courage) to say, well no, it's not my job. You didn't ever tell me in the interview I've got to do all that so, no, I'm not doing it.

During the focus group discussions on the theme of *Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates*, the crucial issue of the “fine line” between reasonable and unreasonable delegation emerged. A Non-Management participant considered whether a manager would perceive themselves as doing their job through the process of delegation:

But, in the eyes of the manager, isn't that them doing their work? If a manager says to me...I want you to do this project and get it done, they've succeeded in their job. If me and [name of a colleague] succeed, they've succeeded too. They might not have got hands on but they may perceive themselves as having a part of it because they've told me and [name of a colleague] what to do. They perhaps gave a few ideas.

Another Non-Management participant reflected on the issue as follows. Their words underline the difficulties inherent in identifying what constitutes an acceptable level of delegation:

There's a fine line between delegation, isn't there? There's a fine line between good delegation and bad delegation. It's almost like [name of another focus group participant] said, you're passing it off, you don't want to do anything yourself, you leave it to other people to do and then you take the praise. But then good delegation is you give them ideas, you tell them to get on with it, and you check in every so often just to make sure they're on the right track.

This participant perceived there being a “fine line” between good and bad delegation. They explained that a manager with good delegation skills will provide their staff with ideas to implement, after which point they will just check in every so often to monitor their progress. In contrast, a manager with bad delegation skills will want no involvement at all, preferring to let everyone else do the work until such time that it is completed and they can claim full credit for the results. Clearly, this is just one participant's perception of boss over-delegation, but it helps to illustrate one way in which this type of FP might occur in practice.

It is critical to note that the category of *Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates* does not incorporate “good delegation.” It is of course the case that managers have to delegate and assign responsibilities to their staff as part of their job description. However, reasonable

delegation spills over into FP when the manager over-delegates a significant portion of their work to others in order to mask their own incompetence and inability to perform their managerial duties. A Management participant explained their experience of this happening:

I've worked for many a manager where they've done some work that is clearly attributable to somebody else. Quite major stuff I might add...It's a major produce where they've suddenly took ownership of the project when they've actually never been involved with it. And, again, it's going back in the past, but that was quite widespread at one time because that's what got you the next job.

This example exemplifies how some false performing managers may use over-delegation as a means of climbing the career ladder. The manager in this focus group shared their experience of having working for many managers who claimed credit for major projects which they were not even involved in. The advantage of conducting focus group research is that participants can share stories such as these which confirm that FP is really happening in the everyday workplace. This participant's work experience also suggests that the practice of FP is quite widespread amongst management and that its roots can probably be traced back many years into organisational history.

6.2.1.4 Shifting the Blame

Shifting the Blame surfaced as a prominent subcategory under *Perceptions of FP in the Workplace*, as well as being mentioned in relation to several other categories. Focus group participants suggested that false performers blame other individuals or factors for their mistakes and, in doing so, they prevent their incompetence from being detected. One non-manager proposed that the false performer will even plan shifting the blame as a strategy to ensure that they remain blameless for any unsuccessful outcomes. Before the work has even commenced, they will identify factors other than themselves which might account for its failure:

I think it's a way of passing the blame...or almost coming up with an escape plan straight away as if to say, well if this doesn't succeed, it's not because of me, it's because of this other reason.

As the false performer never takes responsibility for any unsuccessful work outputs, this allows them to maintain a positive appearance of competent conduct, whereas others may be suffering as a result of having to carry the blame which has been shifted onto them. One manager gave the following example of how a false performer might shift the blame:

I think this person, again, is somebody who tends to blame others and doesn't accept ownership of his responsibilities in decision-making and workloads. Will actually say things like, nobody told me.

Another focus group discussion considered the manipulative ways in which the false performer might set up a particular situation in the workplace and then step back from the resulting fallout. The following discourse highlights the way in which the false performer uses other employees to create dissension within the workplace whilst ensuring that they are not caught up in the cross-fire of misinformation which they have instigated. According to one manager, the false performer:

Participant 1: *...will always give someone else the bullets...will always give someone else the bullets to fire. So that you know full well they're at the back of it all, collecting all the information in, but they'll always make sure somebody else...opens their mouth...*

Participant 2: *That's so it falls back on them and not the one who's instigating it.*

This Management participant describes a scenario of shifting the blame in which the false performer uses another individual in the workplace as a mouthpiece for achieving nefarious gains. They essentially use other employees to disseminate information for their own ends, knowing that they can shift the blame onto someone else if anyone traces the problem back to its original source.

The bulk of the discussions around blame focused on how the false performer shifts blame onto other people, but there was also some suggestion that the false performer might use other excuses in order to escape detection. One participant suggested that the false performer is likely to blame things like technology or car problems rather than accept responsibility for any failure on their part. However, it would seem that the main casualties in the process of blame-transference are those colleagues standing closest to the false performer when there are mistakes to be accounted for. One non-manager astutely summed up the ethos of *Shifting the Blame* in a mantra-like description of the false performer as being all about "passing the blame, but taking the praise."

6.2.2 FALSE PERFORMANCE IN THE INTERVIEW

6.2.2.1 Overview

The false performer will, by their very definition, take steps to conceal their inability to do the job. Their FP may start from the very beginning of their career in an organisation, right from when they apply for the position and are accepted for a job interview. Within the pressurised,

formal context of the job interview, the false performer may be more likely to obfuscate their behaviour to obtain the positive advantage of being selected for the job over other candidates.

In the current study, focus group participants discussed the various FP behaviours which false performers might engage in during the job interview. These included but were not limited to: Lying about qualifications, exaggerating, question-based lying, agreeing with the interviewer, dressing to impress, and presenting creative CVs. The other behaviours in this category which were discussed extensively are those which take place during the performance appraisal interview. Examples of this type of FP were given as: Blaming others, ingratiating oneself with the interviewer, talking about historical work, exaggerating, name-dropping, etc. The three main subcategories of *FP in the Interview* emerged as: Lying about Qualifications, Over-Talking as a Smoke Screen, and Claiming Credit for Others' Work.

6.2.2.2 Lying about Qualifications

The way in which FP comes into play during the interview was discussed extensively within all groups, perhaps because this is a very tangible and traceable aspect of FP behaviour. Understanding how FP operates from the point of interview is crucial because, if it is detected at the inception stages, there is less chance that it will infiltrate through into the heart of the organisation. Detecting a false performing candidate at interview prevents them entering the organisation, which is preferable to having to cope with the consequences of their actions if they do get appointed to the role. Both managers and non-managers honed in on this aspect of FP behaviour. One non-manager explained why this type of interview-related FP would be particularly detrimental for the organisation:

Well, if they've got a job based on qualifications they've lied about; their performance in the job is going to be limited 'cause they're not going to have the skills to do the job, the skills required.

This participant's observation highlights the primary concern regarding FP in the job interview. If the impressive behaviours witnessed during the interview are not borne out by the job performance which later emerges, then the organisation will be faced with the difficulty of dealing with an employee who cannot do the job they said they could do. If the organisation does not take the time to check the validity of the participant's qualifications, the possible outcome will be the appointment of a false performer. When the impressive FP behaviours witnessed in the interview do not translate into the job performance which is later displayed, the organisation will then have to decide how to deal with the false performer who has been erroneously appointed to the position.

Management similarly commented on how false performers can impress interviewers by lying about their qualifications in order to get the job. As one manager observed, the false performer's exaggerated CV can help them to secure a position, but this does not necessarily reflect the truth of their qualifications or experience:

They exaggerate, they exaggerate, you know. They probably say they've got more GCSEs, more A-levels and all that. Probably not. But cause it's there and it looks good, and they're giving this overall confident interview, they're going to go, oh great, we'll have him...or her.

An interview panel may be convinced by the false performer's assured presentation of their false credentials, and they may then offer them a job without properly checking the details which they have provided. However, false qualifications will not reflect the truth of the candidate's qualifications, skills, or experience.

Lying about Qualifications is a FP behaviour which has on occasion appeared in the media in relation to celebrities who are well known to the public. In the focus groups, one non-manager cited the famous example of a celebrity "doctor" who was held up to scrutiny for misrepresentation of their qualifications:

Well, there's a lot of people buying degrees off the Internet these days, isn't there? I mean actual deceit in that respect. I think [celebrity's name] lied and wasn't really a doctor.

This particular celebrity hosted a popular, health-related television (TV) programme and, in the early stages of their media career, they promoted themselves as a "doctor." However, it was found that in some literature they did not add the usual disclaimer stating that they were *not* a medical doctor. This was especially significant because they used the title of "doctor" to promote their best-selling book on food and nutrition. After complaints were raised with the Advertising Standards Authority, the celebrity agreed not to use the title "doctor," and this title was removed from all future advertising and editions of their best-selling book. Although this celebrity was found not to have technically lied about their qualifications, criticisms were levelled at the PhD (Doctor of Philosophy) which they had obtained via a distance-learning course from a non-accredited college. The qualification was not generally accepted by the public as rigorous enough to confer upon the celebrity the level of expertise which they were claiming to have. There was a sense that the public felt deliberately deceived by the celebrity's implication that they were a medical doctor. As this celebrity was presenting a show related to physical health i.e. diet and nutrition, the public had invested a lot of faith in the celebrity's advice based on their professional title and implied qualifications.

Drawing upon some literature, reviewed after the process of grounded theory analysis had been undertaken, helps to elucidate this particular aspect of FP behaviour. According to Stout (2005), we are unlikely to question someone called “Doctor,” even if they are behaving suspiciously. Stout (2005) explains, “We relate to the title of *doctor*, which holds a clear and positive meaning for us, and we do not think too hard about the human being who calls herself that...We believe promises from such people because we assign to the individual the integrity of the role itself” (p. 92). The false performer may be eager to acquire such powerful titles as a way of quickly establishing an impression of competence in the mind of others, just as the celebrity “doctor” in the above example sought to do. The focus group reference to this widely reported story highlights the essential role which titles and qualifications can play in helping the false performer to create a positive public image.

A Management focus group also had a lengthy discussion about the issue of *Lying about Qualifications*, again in relation to the purchasing of special credentials online for the purpose of presenting a false impression. One manager explained how this type of FP could work in practice:

Charlatans are people who use letters after their name which can be bought without having to have any professional examinations...I can become a fellow of the British Computing Society, if I'm willing to spend fifteen hundred pounds or something like that...All I have to have done is hold a senior IT job, but you then add that to all the other things you can have after your name and you try to impress...Fellow of BCS, British Computing Society, you can buy that. You don't have to earn but it's recognised as a professional qualification.

This manager suggests that false performers systematically collect easy to obtain credentials in order to appear superficially impressive. There is an emphasis on the power of letters after one's name, an asset which the false performer will be keen to obtain without the trouble of completing genuine professional examinations. This manager's contribution supports the image of the false performer as an employee who wishes to create the optimum impressive appearance with the minimum of effort.

One non-manager suggested that the format of the job interview actually facilitates lying about qualifications because the candidate can pre-empt the questions which they are going to be asked about their education and work experience. According to this non-manager, the false performer will enter the interview room with the pre-prepared “right” answers in mind, thus they will tell the interviewers what they think they want to hear and not what is actually true. The non-manager explained it in the following way:

It's because sometimes I think job interviews...follow a set format and you know the sort of questions they might ask you, so you can pre-prepare with answers, and they might be part true or they might be part fabrications because no one's going to check if you go for an external one [job]. Even an internal one [job], like [name of another member of the focus group] says, they don't know...about what you did in a previous job. They're not going to go and check, 'Oh, by the way, have you got a record of [name omitted] doing this because she said she did it.'

This comment reveals how the false performer might infiltrate the organisation by telling lies or part fabrications. This non-manager explains that the candidate's lies will probably not be detected because the organisation will fail to check whether all of what they said was true. This remark distinguishes between internal and external interviews, with it being even easier for the candidate to tell lies about previous job roles in an external interview where the interviewers have no prior knowledge of their work conduct. As this non-manager points out, the organisation is probably not going to contact the employee's previous company to ask whether the candidate definitely did what they claimed to have done. Even in an internal interview, there is still potential for the false performer to tell lies about previous job roles as the interviewers may not follow-up on what has been said.

A Management focus group participant also summarised how the responses given by the false performer in the job interview are likely to be tailored to provide the "right," as opposed to the truthful, answer:

And you probably know deep down they've told you a whole pack of lies in the interview because they've exaggerated everything but...they've give you all the right answers.

The false performer is likely to lie about the qualifications which they possess in order to give the impression that they are more skilled than they really are. One non-manager explained the way in which the false performer might exaggerate to achieve this effect:

They could embellish on their skill sets, say that they've got more skills than they've actually got, but they might have the base skills, like sales for the projects that you mentioned. Or they might be able to do the basic project, but then it comes to something like an organisational restructure or something like that, and they might not be able to do it, but they say they can.

The subcategory of *Lying about Qualifications* emphasises how important it is for an organisation to verify a candidate's qualifications and work experience. If the employer fails to meticulously check the details which the candidate has provided, they risk employing a false performer, resulting in the appointment of a candidate who is a dishonest fit for the job.

Double-checking qualifications at the interview stage may be one of the easiest ways in which an organisation can detect FP in the early stages.

6.2.2.3 Over-Talking as a Smoke Screen

Management and Non-Management participants made almost equal reference to *Over-Talking as a Smoke Screen*. Focus group participants suggested that the false performer is likely to be adept at diverting the discussion away from their actual job performance in the context of the performance appraisal interview. One non-manager explained this FP diversionary tactic as follows:

I guess in some ways another characteristic they might have is that, at the beginning, they just talk and talk and talk, and say all the good things that they've done or give loads of evidence, and not allow for any questions just because they want to get as much in there as possible. And then...they think, oh well, there's the half an hour up. Or...just say loads and loads of things even if they don't really even mean anything. Just spurt loads of information.

A Management participant echoed a similar sentiment in a different focus group by saying:

Yes, that's certainly common in my experience...people who come as close to this as I'm aware of. They're very good at communication and can impress people by talking skilfully.

This second example of *Over-Talking as a Smoke-Screen* again relates to how the false performer may use over-talking in the context of the performance appraisal interview. During this routine assessment of their job performance, they may try to steer the performance review away from questioning about their current work behaviour lest their FP be discovered by management. By over-talking in a manner which is past rather than present-focused, the false performer may succeed in directing all of their manager's time and attention towards successes of old. By ensuring that the entire performance appraisal time is occupied with past positives, the false performer thus avoids a proper appraisal of their contemporary performance in the workplace. The false performer is aware that the performance appraisal interview is a prime instance when their incompetent conduct could be uncovered. Therefore, by over-talking and magnifying past work victories, they can perhaps minimise the chances of their present-day FP being detected.

However, one Management participant proposed that managers could overcome the FP tactic of over-talking as a smoke screen by penetrating through the false performer's talk with their own points. However, they acknowledged that this could be difficult if the false

performer is more skilled than the manager in the art of talking. In such cases, the manager could easily become lost in the false performer's clever rhetoric:

Yeah, it is hard to get through that, but you can do, I mean if you've got your points as a manager that you want to get over to that person. But I think sometimes, because they are so skilled and if you don't feel equally skilled, it's hard...you can get lost in that.

The issue of the over-talkative false performer is perhaps one which management need to become better aware of so that they can develop improved communication techniques to address the problem in the setting of the one-to-one performance appraisal interview. As Human Resources (HR) departments progressively discover more about the phenomenon of FP, they can hopefully develop professional guidelines to help management deal with this type of FP behaviour.

6.2.2.4 Claiming Credit for Others' Work

Claiming Credit for Others' Work is another subcategory of *FP in the Interview*, and it was an issue raised by both Management and Non-Management. One non-manager explained how they thought the false performer might claim credit for others' work:

I think they would take the credit for pieces of work or things that have happened [that] they have not been involved in, that somebody else has been. I think that's quite common that somebody takes the credit for projects or things that have happened and I've seen that happen a lot where people have done a piece of work and then somebody else has taken all the glory for it.

Another non-manager suggested that the nature of one-to-one performance appraisals makes it much easier for the false performer to claim credit for others' work. They described the type of FP behaviours which they thought might take place in the one-to-one interview:

One-to-one, you can much more easily manipulate that, put the messages across that I did this and I drove this, I instigated this, and this was all my idea and I drove my team to do it. When it may be you didn't even know anything about it until the results came in at the end and then you say, 'Oh look, look what I've done.'

According to this non-manager's view of FP, a situation may occur whereby the false performer is oblivious to how a work project is progressing yet, at the conclusion of the task, they may well step forward to attach their name to the outcome. For example, if a work project has a successful outcome, the false performer may claim credit for the work even if they had little or no input. Conversely, if the false performer observes that a work project has failed, then they are likely to distance themselves from the fallout, especially if they have

been responsible for any of the decision-making underlying the failure. It may be that the “closed” format of the one-to-one performance appraisal interview makes it easier for the false performer to manipulate the information which they give to management. Without any possibility of contradiction from their co-workers, the false performer can claim credit for projects and initiatives which they have not actually been responsible for.

In the context of the current focus group study, Non-Management appeared to have had more experience of this aspect of FP than had Management. This may be because non-managers have to work alongside their colleagues and, as such, they are usually much better placed to observe actual levels of job performance. This means that they can more easily detect instances when co-workers are claiming credit for others’ work. Managers are generally less aware of employees’ everyday work practices and, as such, the false performer is more likely to bamboozle management during the performance appraisal interview than they are to dupe their peers on a daily basis. Parnell and Singer (2001) have pointed out that false performers do not appear to fool their co-workers easily, and they even suggest that co-workers be used to identify the false performer in a more objective manner. In the focus groups, Non-Management dialogue indicated that co-workers do indeed have an acute awareness of FP behaviours. For example, in the category of *Claiming Credit for Others’ Work*, Non-Management made more references to this FP behaviour than did Management, which is supportive of Parnell and Singer’s (2001) observation that co-workers possess greater powers of discernment than do management in the detection of FP.

6.2.3 DOES TRUST REALLY MATTER TO THE FALSE PERFORMER?

6.2.3.1 Overview

Trust in the workplace was mentioned across the breadth of topics covered in the focus group discussions. There was a strong sense that high levels of trust formed the foundation of peoples’ working lives and friendships, with focus group participants expressing a strong need for colleagues that could be trusted and relied upon to do the job properly. The question of *Does Trust Really Matter to the False Performer* was mainly referred to in relation to either co-worker trust or trust in management. The topic of trust in co-workers gave rise to many sub-themes, such as team trust being essential, the non-false performer being destroyed by a false performing organisation, trust taking time, and the false performer pretending to trust others. Trust in management was discussed in relation to issues such as the false performer manipulating a trusting manager, employees having a lack of respect for a manager who has fallen for the FP, a willingness to share problems with a manager you have high levels of trust in, and an uncertainty as to how trust would affect any type of

performance – FP or otherwise. The four main subcategories of *Does Trust Really Matter to the False Performer* emerged as: Trust is Not a Concept for the False Performer, Co-Worker Trust Breeds FP, What Do You Mean by Trust?, and Co-Worker Trust Reduces FP.

6.2.3.2 Trust is Not a Concept for the False Performer

The category of *Trust is Not a Concept for the False Performer* is based on the idea that the false performer will not be affected by the trust they have in others, nor by the trust that others place in them. Both Management and Non-Management expressed the opinion that trust is irrelevant to the false performer. For example, one non-manager explained:

It is irrelevant whether they trust anybody else or not because...what they're looking for are opportunities to exploit and manipulate. So I don't think trust comes [into it]. I think they'll be looking for the next opportunity and the next person that they can actually draw into this charade.

Management and Non-Management both reasoned that as the false performer is not familiar with trusting others or being trusted, they will not be sensitive to any fluctuations of trust in the climate in which they work. One manager explained why they think the false performer will not have high trust in others:

If it is the false performer and they know they're being deceptive then, if that's their persona, which is built upon a lie if you like, then you'll have a level of distrust in everybody around you because you'd think they might be acting in the same way. So I would think, if an individual acts in those manners, I would think they'd have a very limited amount of trust for anybody.

According to this perspective, the false performer is unlikely to be in any way swayed by the trust levels exhibited by those around them. Due to their own disposition of untrustworthiness, the false performer is liable to think that the world is comprised of other false performers like themselves. The false performer will not have high levels of trust in their manager or co-workers because they do not trust anybody. Therefore, trust in others will not affect their propensity to false perform either more or less. It may be that the issue of trust is completely irrelevant to the false performer because they are intent on manipulating those around them come what may.

6.2.3.3 Co-Worker Trust Breeds False Performance

When participants were asked for their view on the relationship between FP and co-worker trust, there was a mixed response to this question. Non-Management participants mostly expressed the opinion that trustworthy co-workers would encourage FP, whilst only one

Management participant expressed this viewpoint. One non-manager suggested that false performers will perform more FP behaviours if they believe their co-workers are trustworthy:

Looking back at the list of the behaviours of false performers, I think they're more likely to implement those behaviours if they think that their contemporaries are telling the truth, so are trustworthy.

The following Non-Management dialogue also implies that false performers will engage in more FP if they think that their co-workers can be trusted. Initially, one non-manager considered whether a trusting environment would reduce FP, but then they posed the following question, to which they received two responses in the affirmative:

Participant 1: *Or would they just walk all over you?*

Participant 2: *Well, yeah.*

Participant 3: *I think they'd walk all over you, yeah.*

It may be that the false performer interprets their colleagues' trust as an easy way to manipulate or "walk all over" those who believe in them. Therefore, a supportive and trusting organisational network could actually breed FP. The focus groups were an exploratory forum in which focus group participants were introduced to the concept of FP for the first time so, even as they answered questions on this topic, they were still working out the answer for themselves – especially in relation to the issue of trust.

6.2.3.4 What Do You Mean by Trust?

The issue of trust and FP seemed to be one which confused both Management and Non-Management. Participants seemed to struggle to grasp the relationship which might exist between trust and FP, as well as the direction in which such trust might flow. For instance, one non-manager posed the following question:

Is it trust in their colleagues' ability, or is it trust in...they're not going to find me out, that I need to keep this deceit up? Or can I be more honest with them that I'm not capable?

By voicing these questions, this non-manager was trying to work out whether co-worker trust is about the false performer having a high level of trust in their colleagues, or whether it is about them trusting that their colleagues will not detect that they are false performing. The answer is not straight-forward because it could incorporate both, as well as a range of other trust components.

When discussing trust in management, there was a similar degree of confusion, and some participants speculated on how the false performer might react in relation to a manager they had a high level of trust in. For example, would they take advantage of a “high trust” manager to practice more FP? One non-manager asked the moderator of the group to clarify the focus group question about the false performer’s high trust in their manager. They asked:

By trust, you mean...they believe that their manager believes they can do their job? What do you mean by trust?

This Non-Management participant seemed to be asking whether trust can be defined as the mutual trust which exists between a manager and a false performing subordinate. They were querying whether trust in management occurs when the manager has high trust in the false performer and the false performer trusts that their manager trusts them. This question prompts a deeper consideration of how the false performer will be affected by the trust relationship which they perceive to exist between themselves and their manager.

In the general discussion about trust in management, participants discussed how the false performer would react in relation to a manager they had high levels of trust in. For example, would the false performer be more likely to exploit a manager who they deemed trustworthy? Some suggested that the false performer would take advantage of what they perceived to be their manager’s trustworthy nature and practice even more FP behaviours. Another interesting suggestion was that those managers who had appointed the false performer would be more likely to have high levels of trust in the false performer they were responsible for employing.

During the focus group discussions, some participants were simply unable to reach a conclusion as regards how trust might interact with FP. The trust questions seemed to elicit an uncertain response, with participants answering the moderator’s questions with questions of their own in order to reach a personal understanding of trust and FP. The category of *What Do You Mean by Trust?* signals the need for future FP research to clarify the relationship between FP and trust.

6.2.3.5 Co-Worker Trust Reduces False Performance

The subcategory of *Co-Worker Trust Reduces FP* is perhaps somewhat surprising when it is compared against the parallel subcategory of *Co-Worker Trust Breeds FP*. These two subcategories, which emerged for both Management and Non-Management conditions, appear to directly contradict each other. However, this in itself opens up a very fruitful

discussion about the direction of the FP-trust hypothesis. If hypothesising that *Co-Worker Trust Reduces FP*, the argument would be that the false performer is somehow positively affected by the high levels of trust placed in them by their colleagues. If they feel high levels of trust from other people in the workplace, there is a possibility that this high trust might somehow encourage them to reduce their FP behaviours. The false performer may feel guilty about behaving deceptively when those around them are acting in trustworthy ways and, moreover, acting as if they trust the false performer is equally authentic in their conduct. A non-manager spoke of the effect in this way:

What she's saying is that if, with this person [false performer]...they had full trust in someone, they might not want to stamp on that person because they might like them, do you know what I mean? Like you two trust each other so, say for example, I'm not saying you have got any of these traits, but if you did have these traits before you came here, you'd built up a good relationship with [name omitted], you wouldn't want to stamp on her would you?

The non-manager quoted above is clearly hopeful that the false performer will act more honourably towards colleagues who they have high trust in. They reason that co-worker trust will help the false performer to build up relationships with those around them and this, in turn, will prevent the false performer from “stamping on” or manipulating their colleagues for personal gain. There is the suggestion that co-worker trust will encourage the false performer to like their colleagues and this will make it harder for them to engage in unethical acts. Clearly, this non-manager believes that the false performer will be affected by feelings of guilt if they continue to false perform amongst co-workers whom they have high levels of trust in and even like.

As part of the discussion on co-worker trust, one Management participant introduced the compelling idea of FP as being dependent upon whether the organisation is characterised by a high or low trust culture:

If you've got a strong, trusting organisation to start [with], then it takes perhaps longer, it depends on the position of the charlatan, but takes longer for them to do the damage. But...if the organisation's weak to start with and you're all fragmented, then you get somebody in [i.e. the false performer], they can do a lot more damage because you're not as strong a base to start with.

This offers a unique perspective on how the climate of organisational trust might affect the false performer's capacity to cause damage. In a strong climate of high trust, the false performer may have less chance of harming the company or, if they do, it will probably take longer for them to do the damage. However, if the culture of trust is low, then this could

weaken the organisation's defences against the false performer. If the false performer senses that trust in the organisation is "all fragmented" then they could use this organisational weakness to their advantage. In such a low trust environment, they may intensify their FP behaviours because they recognise that conditions are rife for supporting such exploitative work actions.

6.2.4 THE EFFECT OF FALSE PERFORMANCE ON CO-WORKER MORALE

6.2.4.1 Overview

Participants spoke about the demoralising effect which the false performer's behaviour has upon the team, with people questioning why they should do the job when the false performer does not have to. Other issues covered in this category include the disruptive influence of the false performer; the strain, resentment, and hostility created by the false performer; and the low trust engendered in the workplace because of the false performer's actions. The two subcategories emerged as: Reluctance to Report FP and Bad for Morale.

6.2.4.2 Reluctance to Report False Performance

The principal subcategory to emerge under the main category of *The Effect of FP on Co-Worker Morale* is that of *Reluctance to Report FP*. This particular type of FP behaviour seemed to be of most concern to those of Non-Management status. As non-managers are usually the ones who have to report FP to management, this may account for why Non-Management were more vocal about this issue. One non-manager explained their personal experience of being negatively affected as a result of reporting FP:

Yeah. Well, even when I did, I got branded as the black sheep of the group because I challenged this particular person. And it's sometimes just best to keep quiet, keep your head down and just get on with it.

To clarify, "black sheep" is an idiom often used to describe somebody who behaves differently to the rest of the group. In this context, the non-manager referred to themselves as "the black sheep" to express how they felt ostracised from the group as a result of confronting the false performer. This Non-Management participant provides a possible explanation as to why employees may be reluctant to report FP. If employees believe that by challenging a false performer they themselves will be injured in the process then it is unlikely that they will report FP to HR. By taking this approach, the likely outcome is that employees will have to "suffer in silence" whilst the false performer continues their wrongdoing. A brief

exchange between two non-managers seemed to indicate that it is this reluctance to report FP that allows the false performer to avoid detection by management:

Participant 1: *I think false performing is something that hardly anyone actually ever...*

Participant 2: *Snitches [tells] on.*

Participant 1: *Yeah, yeah.*

Although Management did not place as much emphasis on *Reluctance to Report FP* as Non-Management did, there was still a noteworthy acknowledgement of this issue in the Management focus groups. For instance, one manager explained, at length, their particular interpretation of the difficulties inherent in reporting FP within a process-driven organisation:

I think it takes a lot of strength and courage in an individual to try and do something about someone that they perceive to be the unethical charlatan. It takes a lot...especially when you've got a procedure crazy HR organisation like we have. You go along for a chat and, before you know it, there's a formal complaint raised and you're in a process where Joe Bloggs [generic name] is being independently investigated. It takes a lot to take that first step against someone like this because very quickly, in an organisation like [name of organisation], it just snowballs and you're just caught up in it and all of a sudden you're blaming this charlatan.

This Management perspective on *Reluctance to Report FP* indicates that company bureaucracy may also play a significant role in preventing employees from reporting FP. If the hassles caused by reporting the false performer are likely to outweigh the benefits, then employees may well opt not to raise a complaint about the false performer. In this manager's experience, it is only the most courageous of employees who will take action against the false performer by reporting them to HR. Most employees will be deterred from doing so by the potential snowball effect which will be set in motion if they lodge a complaint against the false performer.

6.2.4.3 Bad for Morale

It is evident from the focus group discussions that FP is not just a behaviour which affects the individual who is practicing it. FP appears to set in motion a sequence of events which ripple out to undermine the morale of many other people in the workplace. In the subcategory of *Bad for Morale*, participants discussed how they were left feeling demoralised by the false performer's undetected actions. For instance, focus group participants described a catalogue of emotional fall-out effects which they had personally experienced as a result of FP. They discussed a litany of emotions and experiences including stress; reduced confidence; feelings of isolation and/or wanting to leave the organisation; viewing work as a constant battle; physical deterioration such as weight loss;

and the serious impact of FP on their personal life. For example, one non-manager explained how FP in the workplace had carried over into their home life:

Participant 1: *My husband used to say, 'It's not worth it, you don't get enough money, pack it in'...I'd say, 'No, she's not driving me out. I've wanted to do this job and this job I will do.' That's the only thing you can do.*

Participant 2: *And I suppose you can go home and shout and rant and rave. But they don't understand it and then they think you're being really stupid. And then you go in in the morning and you think, 'Well, am I being really stupid or is there really a problem?'*

This example illustrates just how badly employee morale can be damaged by FP. In this instance, the employee brought home the anger which they felt towards the false performer in the workplace and this, ultimately, affected their personal life. At home, they shared their concerns about the false performer's behaviour with their partner and, eventually, this led their partner to suggest that they leave the job in order to escape the problem. This same non-manager also explained that the problems at work got so bad that their job started to take precedence over their children. This story highlights how bad for morale FP can be, not only inside the workplace, but also outside of the work domain where its influence can permeate into the fabric of an employees' personal life.

Non-management spoke most extensively about the demoralising effects of FP. They talked about how the false performer's actions can negatively impact on other competent employees. They discussed the feelings of resentment which can arise when a false performing colleague is perceived as benefitting from their unethical behaviour. A non-manager explained how this may lead to low team morale:

I think it's demoralising to others that know that they're false performing, especially if they see them doing well, and if they're getting promoted...that can be really demoralising for the others, especially contemporaries at a similar level. If a false performer seems to be doing well, it can make you want to false perform. Well they're false performing and getting no reprimanding. In fact, they're doing well and better than me because I'm being honest. You're more likely to false perform.

The false performer's progress can send out the message that FP is actually rewarded by the organisation, and this can be really demoralising for the false performer's competent co-workers. There is the additional concern that FP of the minority will lead to a FP contagion effect within the team. If co-workers see the false performer escaping detection and even earning promotion, they may re-evaluate their own honest, competent conduct and instead adopt FP as a means of climbing the career ladder. As a subcategory, *Bad for Morale*, provokes one of the most interesting debates around FP i.e. is FP contagious?

It emerged that one of the reasons why co-workers get so upset about FP is because they know that it is incredibly difficult to oust the false performer from the organisation. This leads to feelings of anxiety and worry about how long they will have to cope with the false performer's behaviour. One manager also voiced this concern as follows:

Participant 1: *What happens if that person doesn't move on...especially when there are not many jobs out there? You're going to be stuck with a problem person probably forever.*

Participant 2: *Until they finally trip up and do something that potentially makes them lose their job.*

This dialogue highlights one of the most serious problems surrounding the practice of FP, that being that once the false performer has entered the organisation, it can then be very difficult to remove them. It can be practically impossible to dismiss an employee without extensive evidence of wrongdoing, especially if they are a skilled false performer who has taken every measure to conceal their incompetence. As participant two commented, it may only be possible to fire the false performer if they "trip up" and commit a sackable offence i.e. an infraction of rules that is sufficiently serious to warrant dismissal from employment.

6.2.5 TACKLING FALSE PERFORMANCE IN THE WORKPLACE

6.2.5.1 Overview

At the conclusion of each focus group, participants were each given a "magic wand" for the purpose of providing their solution to the problem of FP. Participants delved really deeply into this question and conjured up a host of recommendations, including appraisal software, more stringent discipline procedures, personality tests, and a requirement to "probe for situations, actions, and results." The two main subcategories of *Tackling FP in the Workplace* emerged as: Training and 360 Degree Appraisal.

6.2.5.2 Training

Training was the most popular recommendation suggested for managing FP. Management and Non-Management appeared equally concerned with how training could be used to tackle FP. One non-manager suggested that training might help to communicate to workers what is acceptable and unacceptable in the workplace in terms of self-presentation:

Perhaps there should be more training on...how to present yourself in the workplace.

According to this participant's perspective, organisations should delivering training in order to teach employees more appropriate ways of presenting themselves in the workplace. It is possible that this type of training would help to prevent FP because employees would, hopefully, learn how to align their work behaviour as closely as possible with their professional image. In other words, training could educate employees about the importance of self-presentation based on genuine work conduct.

Another non-manager suggested that existing managers should receive training in order to improve their own self-awareness of how they behave in the workplace:

I would start with the managers because certain managers behave in a certain way which is detrimental to the staff that work under them. I think the senior managers should start with their managers, sort them out, and it should filter down. That's what I think.

Again, there is this idea that FP is somehow contagious, and this Non-Management perspective suggests that FP is liable to spread from the top-down. Thus, there is a strong incentive for organisations to employ competent managers who are likely to filter down their strong sense of ethical conduct to the staff working below them.

A Management participant also suggested training for managers, but from a slightly different angle. They suggested that management training focus upon teaching managers how to better monitor FP from the early stages:

I think the focus really should be on training managers to manage the scenario. The only reason these people exist in organisations is because managers don't manage them, and usually...it becomes a problem. And, when you look into the individual's past history, then everyone knows they've never performed but no one's ever done anything about it. And that tends to be the problem. So, I'd want early interventions and appropriate management interaction as well.

This point relates back to previous categories and subcategories which have introduced the idea of mismanagement of FP and the way in which managers fail to properly handle the situation. According to several participants, FP is such a thorny issue that managers prefer to pretend that the false performer does not exist so that they do not have to deal with them. However, this does not mean that the problem goes away and, eventually, the manager may well have to confront the false performer, by which point there may be a long track record to investigate. The suggestion that managers are trained to detect and manage FP from an early stage is a "prevention rather than cure" approach which means that FP is not allowed to escalate until it reaches such epic proportions that management are forced to act.

6.2.5.3 360 Degree Appraisal

Both Management and Non-Management participants spoke very enthusiastically about *360 Degree Appraisal* as a means of *Tackling FP in the Workplace*. One non-manager explained the advantage of 360 degree appraisal as follows:

Three hundred and sixty degree appraisal and staff surveys because then you're getting views from different perspectives in the organisation and, if the staff surveys are anonymous, people are more likely to get some real views as to what's going on from a different perspective, rather than just what you're being told by the person beneath you.

Gbadamosi et al.'s (2007) study drew attention to the possible benefit of 360 degree appraisal – a form of employee evaluation – as a way of identifying FP. The 360 degree appraisal process involves the combination of information from self-appraisal, subordinate appraisal, peer appraisal, and feedback from other internal customers (Bach, 2005). By obtaining feedback from a number of sources, the appraisal process becomes so much more than just the manager appraising the employee. Instead, 360 degree appraisal incorporates performance feedback from a range of stakeholders in the organisation and this helps to ensure that a more rounded view of overall performance is established (Bach, 2005).

By implementing 360 degree appraisal, FP in the workplace is more likely to be detected because there is a greater chance of FP behaviours being identified by one of the many appraisers contributing feedback. As Gbadamosi et al. (2007) have suggested that FP is probably more recognisable by co-workers; obtaining co-worker feedback by means of 360 degree appraisal could be an important way of detecting instances of FP in the workplace.

6.2.6 ADDITIONAL SALIENT DATA

Although the final grounded theory analysis yielded only five main categories based on all eight focus groups, there was additional salient data which captured the researcher's attention during preliminary analysis of the first four focus groups. A special mention should be given to the preliminary focus groups' discussion of *Conscious versus Unconscious FP*, especially because this topic relates back to the definitional issues discussed in section 2.8. The knowledge gained from contemplation of this topic in the first four focus groups, ultimately, helped to underpin the theoretical development of FP as a construct, and it also contributed to the generation of items in the quantitative study.

6.2.6.1 Conceptualising False Performance

Conscious versus Unconscious False Performance

The preliminary category of *Conscious versus Unconscious FP* raises the question of whether FP is conscious or unconscious. This category arose as a result of some early focus group discussions in which participants proposed that some employees are unconscious as regards their own incompetence and FP. As the focus group questions were based on the premise that FP is a conscious form of deception, the suggestion that FP might be unconscious was an unexpected development within the focus group discussions.

Participants were generally divided on the matter of whether FP is conscious or unconscious, and the issue generated a lot of discussion around the question of whether FP is intentional or not. Some participants argued that the false performer is indeed conscious of their incompetent conduct and the unethical behaviours which they engage in to escape detection. However, some focus group participants suggested that the false performer may not actually be aware that they are a false performer; in other words, they may well believe in the brilliance of their own actions. Another suggestion was that the false performer is able to justify their FP to themselves by reasoning that they are capable of doing the job, getting the qualifications, etc. if they choose, but they just have not had the opportunity as yet. One participant summed up the debate by asking, “Does the charlatan know they are a charlatan?”

A Management participant underlined the issue of *Conscious versus Unconscious FP* by pointing out the following:

I think you're also making assumptions about people's own awareness or self-insight into their own abilities and so on.

This participant challenged the assumption that the false performer is aware of their own incompetence and FP. For the purpose of the focus group discussions, the false performer was defined as an employee practicing deliberate deception. Therefore, participants were reminded to keep this definition in mind when they were answering the focus group questions about FP behaviours. The discussions surrounding *Conscious versus Unconscious FP* made it clear that any future definition of FP needs to state that the false performer is consciously concealing their incompetence by presenting themselves as more capable than they really are.

6.3 Concluding Remarks

The focus group study provided a wealth of valuable data relating to the phenomenon of FP, and the grounded theory analysis presented in this chapter has highlighted the most significant findings. The qualitative results provide a rich insight into FP in the workplace, and the words of the focus group employees help to illuminate FP in a way which previous quantitative efforts have been unable to do. However, past quantitative research has played a vital role in the investigation of FP, and the following two chapters will use the qualitative results as the basis for constructing a new quantitative measure of FP i.e. the False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ).

Chapter 7

The Quantitative Study: Construction of the False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ)

“Now more than ever, managers must learn to identify ‘organisational charlatans’ – individuals who seek to improve their perceived performance at the expense of their actual performance – and remove them from the organisation while preventing other charlatans from joining it.” (Parnell & Singer, 2001, p. 441)

7.1 Introduction to the Construction of the False Performance Questionnaire

This chapter describes the systematic procedure which was employed in the design of the False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ). This second phase of research further examined the concept of False Performance (FP) through the construction and development of a new FP instrument i.e. the FPQ. The rationale for constructing the FPQ was to produce a questionnaire which could more reliably measure FP than the previous measure of FP i.e. the Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS). The development of the FPQ involved conducting quantitative analyses, based on classical test theory, which allowed inferences to be made about the construct of FP and associated variables.

The previous two chapters presented the preliminary focus group study and qualitative results. During the first phase of research, the qualitative study elicited valuable data for the purpose of constructing the FPQ. In the second phase of research, the qualitative data was used to generate items for the new quantitative measure. The FPQ was developed in six stages, and these six stages have been presented in two chapters to distinguish the construction phase (Stages 1-4) from the distribution and results phase (Stages 5 and 6).

The construction phase described in this chapter consists of: Stage 1) Generating the initial item pool; Stage 2) Refining the initial items through consultation with experts; Stage 3) Refining the items through a small pilot study; and Stage 4) Refining the items through post-pilot consultation with experts.

Although Chapters 7 and 8 predominantly describe quantitative methodology, the dominant qualitative aspect of the research is still evident because the qualitative findings, ultimately, informed the quantitative research phase.

7.1.1 Positioning within the Mixed Methods Research

As previously explained in Chapter 5, the current study adopted a sequential, mixed methods approach in its investigation of FP. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) explain that in sequential data collection (Explanatory, Exploratory, Embedded), the two forms of data (qualitative and quantitative or vice versa) are introduced in phases. With an exploratory design, the results of the first method (qualitative) can be used to inform the second method (quantitative) (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). Creswell (1999; Creswell et al., 2004) explains that this method is especially useful when a researcher needs to develop and test an instrument.

The present study had an exploratory sequential design which facilitated an in-depth exploration of FP prior to quantitative measurement of the phenomenon. In accordance with

Creswell and Plano Clark's (2007) mixed methods designs framework (see Chapter 5, Figure 5.2c), the qualitative phase in the current study consisted of data collection, data analysis and results. Following on from the qualitative phase, the research progressed onto what Creswell and Plano Clark label "mixing." During this interim period, the researcher develops an instrument or theory based on the qualitative results in readiness for quantitative testing. Creswell and Plano Clark explain that in between the two phases of research there resides a new phase of research in which the researcher decides how to use the results from the first phase and build on it in the second phase. In the current study, the "mixing" period involved using the qualitative data to generate items for the construction of the FPQ. The qualitative phase provided the rationale for which items to include in the new FPQ. The quantitative phase, like the qualitative phase, also entailed data collection, data analysis and results.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) explain that one issue raised by sequential data collection is that of how to design an instrument that will yield valid and reliable scores from initial qualitative data. The current study has given careful consideration to questionnaire design and issues of reliability and validity.

7.1.2 Introduction to Classical Test Theory

Classical test theory (Spearman, 1907) is one of the most influential theories in psychometric measurement (Breakwell, Hammond, Fife-Schaw, & Smith, 2006). A questionnaire which is designed using classical test theory typically consists of scales containing a number of items which purport to measure a psychological construct. Classical test theory informed the construction of the new FPQ which purports to measure FP. When designing a questionnaire in accordance with classical test theory, the aim is to reduce measurement error by optimising the reliability and validity of the instrument.

Classical test theory assumes that every observed score from a test comprises both a true score and a random error score (random error can be caused by factors such as a fault in the test itself, variability in testing conditions, the test-taker's state of mind, etc.). The true score can be defined as the score that would be obtained by each test-taker if there were no measurement error. The extent to which an instrument accurately and consistently measures the true score has been defined as reliability (Bartram, 1990). The more reliable the instrument, the smaller the random error variance, and the closer the observed scores are to the true score (Bartram, 1990).

In order to improve reliability, several methods of item analysis can be used. In brief, the more that items tend to discriminate (the higher their discriminatory power), the better the reliability of the scale. Methods for checking discriminatory power compare each person's response on each item with their score overall. Measures of a test's internal reliability are Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) and split-half reliability. Item analysis was employed in the current study and reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha (see section 8.2).

Validity is another important consideration in questionnaire design. The validity of a measure is the extent to which it actually measures what it is intended to measure (Kline, 1993). There are various methods for checking the validity of an instrument, including face validity, content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity. These are not alternatives but rather complementary forms of validity, and they represent different types of evidence of validity, not different types of validity. In the current study, various methods were employed in order to assess the different types of evidence of validity in relation to the FPQ.

7.1.2.1 Face Validity

Face validity describes a measure which looks, on the face of it, as if it should be a valid one (Sapsford, 1999). When a test has face validity, it should be obvious to the test-taker what is being measured. Face validity can be determined by seeking feedback from experts and test-takers. However, Kline (1993) cautions that face validity is not necessarily related to true validity and it can bring with it the disadvantage of encouraging deliberate distortion, especially in selection. Kline recommends avoiding face validity for certain tests, providing valid items can be written. In the current study, feedback from various experts was sought during the construction process in order to ensure the face validity of the FPQ.

7.1.2.2 Content Validity

Content validity involves an evaluation of whether the content of the test is relevant to the characteristic being measured (Breakwell et al., 2006). It can be determined by obtaining professional judgments of the items with regards to the aim of the instrument (Bartram, 1990). For instance, to demonstrate the content validity of a musical test, musical experts could indicate whether they thought the test was appropriately measuring musical skills. Kline (1993) explains that tests of musical ability are good candidates for content validity because there is a good measure of agreement comprising the basic skills and knowledge. The current study sought to establish content validity of the new FPQ by: 1) Conducting initial qualitative research to determine which behaviours constitute FP; and 2) Consulting experts at two key stages during the construction of the FPQ in order to determine whether the content of the FPQ was relevant to the measurement of FP.

7.1.2.3 Criterion Validity

Criterion validity refers to the ability of a measure to predict a criterion variable and it involves testing the hypothesised relationship of the test with external criteria (Breakwell et al., 2006). There are two types of criterion validity (concurrent validity and predictive validity) and they differ in terms of the timing of the criterion test (Coolican, 1996). A test is said to have concurrent validity if it correlates highly with another test of the same variable which was administered at the same time (Kline, 1993). Correlations must be high (i.e. 0.75 is minimum) and the new test should display some other advantage compared with the criterion test (Kline, 1993). As an example, criterion validation could be used to validate a new IQ or personality test by comparing it with an existing but similar test already known to have good validity (Coolican, 2009). The second type of criterion validity is predictive validity. Kline explains that “a test may be said to have predictive validity if it will predict some criterion or other” (p. 19). Kline provides the example of demonstrating predictive validity by correlating the intelligence test scores of children, at age five, with their subsequent academic success. The main difficulty in establishing predictive validity usually lies in finding a clear criterion for prediction (Kline, 1993).

In the current study, criterion validity (concurrent) was tested by comparing the new FPQ with the existing nine-item Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS) and the 24-item Impression Management (IM) Scale. Correlations between the scales helped to demonstrate whether the FPQ had criterion validity. This, however, did not determine the predictive validity of the new scale. As testing predictive validity would have required administering the FPQ at two different points in time, it was not practically possible to test whether the FPQ might be a good predictor of, for example, future job performance.

7.1.2.4 Construct Validity

Construct validity is concerned with whether the test really measures what it claims to measure. Construct validity involves carrying out a number of studies with a test (e.g. comparisons with other scales) in order to demonstrate that the results are consistent with the psychological definition of the construct (Kline, 1993). Sapsford (1999) explains that key concepts in construct validation are convergent validity and discriminant validity. Discriminant validity indicates the power of the test to discriminate between persons or situations which theory states should be different, and convergent validity is the test's property of not making discriminations where theory says there should not be any. For example, a test of general intelligence should tend to score people as highly intelligent who are good at academic subjects but, as a test of general intelligence, it should not make a major discrimination between academic subjects.

Kline (1993) explains that construct validity is established by generating a number of hypotheses, derived from the nature of the variable, and then testing them with a variety of measures. The expectation is that an instrument will correlate highly with other measures of the same construct or those which are similar (convergent validity). Conversely, it is expected that it will correlate poorly with measures of different, unrelated constructs (discriminant validity). Relating to the current thesis, the FPQ's relationship with other variables was tested in order to gather evidence for construct validity. It was expected that the FPQ would correlate significantly with the OCS and the 24-item IM scale (Wayne & Ferris, 1990), as they tested similar constructs (convergent validity), and that it would correlate poorly with the three-item job performance scale (Yousef, 2000) which measured a different, unrelated construct (discriminant validity). It should be noted that as convergent validity occurs where measures of similar constructs correlate, it is similar to concurrent validity (see section 7.1.2.3) which also seeks to establish validity by making comparisons between scales which measure related constructs.

Construct validity can be demonstrated from a number of perspectives and another way to demonstrate the existence of a construct is through internal consistency reliability analysis. The current thesis aimed to provide further evidence of construct validity for the new FPQ by conducting reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951). Alpha provides a measure of the internal consistency of a scale and it is expressed as a number between 0 and 1 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Internal consistency refers to the extent to which all items in a test measure the same construct, thus it is connected to the inter-relatedness of the items in a scale (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

7.1.2.5 Item Analytic and Factor Analytic Methods

When using methods for test construction in accordance with classical test theory, the aim is to produce a test which is both reliable and valid. There are two commonly used methods for constructing a test based on the classical model of test error, and these are the factor analytic and the item analytic method.

The factor analytic method of constructing tests aims to produce tests which are unifactorial; that is, tests which load on only one factor. Kline (1993) explains that a unifactorial test is "inevitably reliable and valid in that it measures a factor" (p. 134). According to Kline, the main advantage of a unifactorial test is that the scores always mean the same thing. For example, two scores of 10 reflect the same status on the factor being measured by the unifactorial test. In factor analytic test construction, a researcher generates a pool of items in order to measure various factors, and these items are administered to a trial sample. Factor

analysis can then be used to examine the underlying structure of the items e.g. how the items have loaded onto the factors. Kline summarises as follows: “If all these procedures are carried through on adequate samples, if all the statistical criteria are met and if the validating process indicates that the factor is not a specific or some unwanted variable, such factor analytic tests are close to the psychometric ideal” (p. 145).

Like factor analysis, item analysis entails a pool of items being administered to a trial sample, but the difference is that each item is correlated with the total score. As the aim is to produce a homogenous and unifactorial test, the expectation is that each item should measure what the test measures. However, an area of concern with item analysis is that the homogeneity of the tests do not ensure their factor purity i.e. that they measure one factor. For example, two factors correlating highly with each other, such as verbal ability and intelligence, would be picked up by item analysis because both would be correlated with the total score (Kline, 1993). Considering that item analysis is not necessarily unifactorial and that factor analysis has been described as “the psychometric ideal,” then it would appear that factor analysis is the logical choice as a method of test construction. However, there are some major advantages of using item analysis as part of test construction. For instance, Kline explains that item analysis is useful in writing homogenous and unifactorial items, but adds that it should always be followed by factor analysis to confirm that homogeneity does not disguise a multifactorial or bifactorial structure. Accordingly, the current study adopted a two test administration, with the initial phase using an item analytic approach on a small sample, and the second phase using a factor analytic approach on a larger sample.

Having now introduced the main features of reliability and validity, one other important issue will be summarised before proceeding to introduce the research objectives and hypotheses. The next section will describe how social desirability was taken into consideration during the construction of the FPQ.

7.1.3 Social Desirability

Social desirability is described as “a tendency for an individual to present him or herself, in test-taking situations, in a way that makes the person look positive with regard to culturally derived norms and standards” (Ganster, Hennessey, & Luthans, 1983, p. 322). The pressure of social desirability is said to affect the validity of self-reports because it can result in respondents either under-reporting socially undesirable behaviours or over-reporting socially desirable behaviours (Nunnally, 1978). Coolican (2009) contends that research participants may guess at the most favourable answers so as to appear “good” or they may give the answers which they think will be most pleasing to the researcher.

According to Kline (1993), the influence of social desirability should not be over-emphasised because it is possible for the effects to be rendered necessarily small if the original test construction and validation are properly carried out. In the discussion of social desirability scales in section 3.5, Piedmont et al.'s (2000) examination of validity scales was reviewed and the conclusions of this study also support the position that there should be an emphasis on improving the quality of assessment. Moreover, Piedmont et al. explain that this approach is more likely to improve the validity of personality testing than is the inclusion of a social desirability scale. Based on the evidence presented in section 3.5, the current study opted not to include a measure of social desirability in the FPQ. The current study was instead carefully designed to minimise the effects of social desirability.

Kline (1993) explains that it is sometimes necessary to measure traits which are socially undesirable. In such cases, it is not possible to eliminate socially undesirable items from a scale as this would render measurement impossible. As there was a possibility that respondents could fake or deliberately distort their answers on the FPQ, it was important to design a questionnaire with items which did not encourage socially desirable responding. When writing the items, care was taken not to include extreme attitude statements as these type of items tend to show little variance in a normal sample and are affected by the response set of social desirability (Edwards, 1957).

7.1.4 Research Objectives and Hypotheses

Following on from the literature review (see Chapters 2-4) and the qualitative study (see Chapters 5 and 6), a number of specific research hypotheses were proposed for testing:

Hypothesis 1

Earlier studies (e.g. Gbadamosi, 2006; Gbadamosi et al., 2007; Parnell & Singer, 2001) suggest that employees rating highly in FP are likely to be substituting FP for job performance. Hence, it was proposed that false performers would employ FP techniques to disguise poor job performance.

H1: *The FPQ will be negatively and significantly correlated with the job performance scale.*

Hypothesis 2

The construction and development of the FPQ was based on the original development of the OCS (Parnell & Singer, 2001). As both instruments are designed to measure FP, it was expected that there would be a positive and significant relationship between the FPQ and the OCS.

H2: *The FPQ will be positively and significantly correlated with the OCS.*

Hypothesis 3

Parnell and Singer (2001) have distinguished between IM and FP in terms of their relationship to job performance. Whilst FP is defined in relation to job performance, previous empirical research (e.g. Wayne & Liden, 1995) on IM has considered the employment of IM techniques without regard to job performance. Therefore, it was predicted that IM scores would be unrelated to job performance.

H3: *There will be no significant relationship between the IM scale and the job performance scale.*

Hypothesis 4

Based on Parnell and Singer's (2001) description of the relationship between FP and IM, the current study has defined FP as related to IM, but conceptually distinct. The literature review describes how the impression manager and the false performer are likely to engage in similar IM tactics, but differ in terms of motivation and competence. As the FPQ and the IM scale measure similar self-presentation behaviours (albeit with different job performance outcomes), it was proposed that a positive and significant relationship would emerge between the two scales.

H4: *The FPQ will be positively and significantly correlated with the IM scale.*

Hypothesis 5

Whilst the IM scale and the OCS measure conceptually distinct variables, it was expected that there would be a positive and significant relationship between the two as they measure similar self-presentation behaviours.

H5: *The OCS will be positively and significantly correlated with the IM scale.*

In order to test the above hypotheses, a unifactorial approach to the development of the FPQ was adopted. As indicated previously, item analysis was used in the first phase of refining the instrument to ensure homogeneity, and factor analysis was used in the second phase so as to explore the latent factor structure. A range of correlations were also reviewed in order to determine convergent and discriminant validity of the scales.

To achieve the objective of producing a reliable measure of FP, the FPQ was developed in six stages:

Stage 1: Initial item generation

Stage 2: Refinement of initial items through consultation with experts

Stage 3: Refinement of items through a small pilot study

Stage 4: Refinement of items through post-pilot consultation with experts

Stage 5: Further refinement of items using an item analytic approach on a small sample

Stage 6: Construction of final FPQ items using a factor analytic approach on a larger sample

7.1.5 Ethical Approval

Prior to conducting the current study in public sector organisations, ethical approval was first sought and granted by Worcester Business School's Ethics Committee. Access to participants was negotiated separately with each organisation involved in the study. All organisations were assured that the data collected would be anonymous and confidential. Organisations were informed that all data would be reported in aggregate so that no individual or organisation would be identifiable in any publication presenting the results of the questionnaire study. The participating organisations have not been identified in this thesis so as to ensure complete anonymity.

7.1.6 Overview: Scale Development

In order to proceed successfully through the above six stages of scale development, the recommendations of DeVellis (1991) were used to guide the construction and development of the FPQ. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) explain that the finest instruments are rigorously developed using good procedures of scale development. They cite the scale development procedures (adapted) provided by DeVellis:

1. Determine what you want to measure and ground yourself in theory and in the constructs to be addressed (as well as in the qualitative findings).
2. Generate an item pool, using short items, an appropriate reading level, and questions that ask a single question.

3. Determine the scale of measurement for the items and the physical construction of the instrument.
4. Have the item pool reviewed by experts.
5. Consider the inclusion of validated items from other scales or instruments.
6. Administer the instrument to a sample for validation.
7. Evaluate the items (e.g. item-scale correlations, item variance, and reliability).
8. Optimise scale length based on item performance and reliability checks.

7.2 Stage 1: Initial Item Generation

The first stage in the construction of the FPQ involved producing a new pool of items using the results of the qualitative data analysis (see Chapter 6). When working within an exploratory sequential design to develop an instrument, a researcher may use significant statements or quotes to help write specific items for the instrument (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Creswell and Plano Clark explain that qualitative data yields specific quotes from individuals which can then be turned into questionnaire items. In the current study, the researcher grounded themselves in theory and immersed themselves in the qualitative findings to generate a list of FPQ items. In order to extract items from the qualitative data, the following procedure was followed:

1. The qualitative categories and subcategories of FP behaviour were reviewed in order to base item writing on the most prominent themes to emerge from the focus group discussions.
2. The focus group lists of FP behaviours (see Appendices D1-D8) were also consulted for the purpose of writing items. This ensured that the new pool of items accurately reflected the feedback received from focus group participants. As part of this consultation exercise, the original eight lists were condensed into a shortlist to assist with item writing (see Appendix I1). The aim of this activity was to reduce the eight original long lists to a shortlist containing only FP behaviours. The original long lists contained reference to hundreds of behaviours, not all of which could be classified as FP. For instance, examples such as “shouting” or “whispering” were deemed too vague to be sufficient descriptors of FP and, as such, they were not included in the shortlist. Items were generally excluded from the shortlist if they:

- Were too vague and/or ambiguous e.g. one or two word descriptions of the false performer or brief statements such as, “They use charm.”
- Described diverse work phenomena which were conceptually distinct from FP e.g. bullying, victimisation, and harassment.
- Simply referred to negative or unpopular work behaviours and practices e.g. favouritism, bossiness, and insults/hurtful jokes.
- Defined unpleasant personality traits rather than FP behaviours. For instance, descriptors in this category included: “rude/obnoxious,” “arrogant,” and “two-faced.”
- Explained general workplace relationships or dynamics. One example of this was gossiping e.g. “winding up: spreading true and untrue gossip” and “undermining management and spreading lots of gossip.”

In order to be selected for inclusion in the shortlist, FP concepts had to:

- Describe behaviours which could reasonably be said to constitute FP i.e. behaviours deliberately employed to “mask” incompetence. The behaviours on the list were constantly scrutinised in relation to Parnell and Singer’s (2001) definition of FP in order to ensure that they met this minimum criterion.
- Be formulated as behavioural attributes and not personality traits or general workplace issues.
- Be defined in easy-to-comprehend terms.
- Translate easily into an item which could measure the behaviour described.
- Be potentially observable. For instance, the following examples were not appropriate: attitudes (e.g. “Do as I say and not as I do”), feelings (e.g. “Don’t feel appreciated”), and emotions (e.g. “jealousy”).

As a result of sifting through the focus group lists in this way, a total of 75 FP behaviours were identified as providing the potential basis for newly written items for inclusion in the FPQ. This exercise also enabled identification of the most recurring themes on the shortlist, and these were (in no particular order of importance): 1) Blaming others; 2) Elaborating/exaggerating; 3) Over-delegation; 4) Belittling; 5) Stealing the credit; and 6) Lying about qualifications. These six categories of FP behaviours formed the basis for writing at least one item per theme and, overall, the focus group shortlist informed the majority of initial item generation.

3. The original focus group long lists of FP behaviours (see Appendices D1-D8) were also scrutinised in relation to Parnell and Singer's (2001) nine-item OCS. This enabled the researcher to assess whether there was any overlap between the items on the OCS and the FP behaviours identified in the focus groups. On the whole, there was not a great deal of overlap between the two. However, some parallels were detected. For example, focus group participants spoke about candidates attending the job interview "dressed to impress." This is consistent with items five and six on Parnell and Singer's OCS i.e. "I try to dress better when I'm going to be seen by key organizational decision makers" and "You should make a special effort to enhance your appearance when you're going to be seen by those with the most power in your organization." Overall, however, the issue of appearance in the focus groups did not feature sufficiently to warrant writing a FPQ item based on this behaviour. As the OCS was administered separately in Stage 6, this provided an opportunity to measure the "dress to impress" aspect of FP.

4. Several drafts of the initial items were produced in consultation with the two academic experts (one male, one female) who had assisted with the preparation of the focus group questions (see section 5.4). This ensured a consistency of knowledge and response across the qualitative and quantitative phases of research. The feedback from these two experts helped to improve the face validity, content validity, and clarity of the items. In addition, one expert had extensive knowledge of scale development, and the other had previously conducted research with the OCS, so their input to the quantitative study was particularly valuable.

5. In generating the initial FPQ items, there was an on-going process of refinement. Whilst all of the qualitative categories and subcategories of FP behaviour were considered in the early stages of item generation, this approach was reconsidered in the latter stages of item writing. It became clear that only the main categories of *Perceptions of FP in the Workplace* and *FP in the Interview* yielded data appropriate for inclusion in the FPQ. These two categories were exclusively concerned with the description of FP behaviours, whereas the other three categories (i.e. *Does Trust Really Matter to the False Performer?*; *The Effect of FP on Co-Worker Morale*; and *Tackling FP in the Workplace*) dealt more with the secondary issues surrounding FP.

Additional salient data, which emerged during preliminary grounded theory analysis, also informed the process of item writing. The theme of *Conceptualising FP* (see section 6.2.6.1) was identified as yielding data appropriate for further understanding the nature of FP. Within this theme, the subtheme of *Conscious versus Unconscious FP* formed the basis for item

generation. Also, two further themes emerged from a re-evaluation of the codes generated during the process of grounded theory analysis i.e. *Work Friendships* and *Words/Language*.

Finally, as a result of producing a shortlist of FP behaviours based on the focus group flip chart exercise (Appendix I1), a theme labelled “Varied FP Behaviours” was created to describe the wide variety of FP behaviours identified by focus group participants. This provided a rich source of data for item generation.

Table 7.1 presents a summary of the concepts underlying the initial items generated for inclusion in the FPQ. It also indicates the main source which informed the generation of the items in each subcategory.

Table 7.1 Item Generation: Summary of Concepts

Perceptions of FP in the Workplace		
Subcategory No.	Concept	Main Source*
1	Claiming Credit for Others' Work	FG lists
2	Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates	FG lists
3	Shifting the Blame	FG lists
4	Work Friendships	Qual. Coding
5	Words/Language	Qual. Coding
6	Varied FP Behaviours	FG Lists
FP in the Interview		
Subcategory No.	Concept	Main Source
1	Lying about Qualifications	FG lists
2	Over-Talking as a Smoke-Screen	Qual. Results
3	Claiming Credit for Others' Work	Qual. Results
Conceptualising FP		
Subcategory No.	Concept	Main Source
1	Conscious versus Unconscious FP	Qual. Coding

*Main Source Key: *Qualitative Results (Qual. Results)* – this refers to the main categories and subcategories reported in Chapter 6; *Focus Group Lists (FG Lists)* – this refers to the shortlists of FP behaviours described in section 7.2; *Qualitative Coding (Qual. Coding)* – this refers to the coding process through which the qualitative results were extrapolated (see section 5.6.2.3). As the coding process generated hundreds of codes, it was not possible to include the entire range of codes in Chapter 6.

Note. A distinction has been made between *Qual. Results* and *Qual. Coding* in this table because the themes of "Work Friendships," "Words/Language" and "Conscious versus Unconscious FP" did not form main categories/subcategories in the Qualitative Results chapter (Chapter 6). Rather, they emerged as salient themes through the process of qualitative coding.

7.2.1 Item Refinement

A number of sources were consulted in order to word the FPQ items as precisely as possible. For example, Oppenheim's (1992) guidelines for wording an original instrument (see Appendix I2) and De Vaus's (2002) checklist of 17 questions (see Appendix I3) were referred to. De Vaus stresses that the wording of questions is fundamental.

Kline (1993) explains that severe difficulties can emerge if care is not taken to reduce the effects of response sets such as acquiescence and social desirability. The response set of acquiescence refers to the tendency to agree with items regardless of content (Kline, 1993). Messick (1962) argues that the use of balanced scales can help to minimise the influence of acquiescence on test scores, although they cannot totally eliminate the problem. In a balanced scale, there are a roughly equal number of items to which participants can answer "Yes" and "No." Messick explains that for a balanced scale to be successful, it is necessary to write equally meaningful, unambiguous, and compelling items in both directions. However, Kline adds that it can often be more difficult to write negative items. If negative items are inferior in quality, this can adversely affect the entire scale.

In the current study, to reduce the effects of acquiescence as a response set, a roughly equal number of positive and negative items were included in the initial version of the FPQ. Firstly, the positive item set was written to represent the full repertoire of FP behaviours. A negative counterpart was then written to form the reverse of each positive item. The aim was to produce clear and unambiguous negative statements.

Social desirability was also taken into consideration when refining the item set. To minimise the effects of social desirability, items were written carefully to avoid obviously socially desirable or undesirable statements. To reduce the risk of socially desirable responding, questionnaire instructions also advised participants to answer openly and honestly and not to spend too long on one question.

Table 7.2 presents an overview of the final items resulting from the process of initial item generation and refinement.

Gillham (2008) explains that the process of item writing can be carried further by scrutiny from colleagues and pilot testing. Following on from initial item generation in Stage 1, the FPQ was developed further by consulting with experts (Stage 2) and running a pilot study (Stage 3).

Table 7.2 Overview of FP Concepts and Item Numbers after Initial Item Refinement

Perceptions of FP in the Workplace			
Subcategory No.	Concept	Example Item	No. of Items
1	Claiming Credit for Others' Work	It's okay to claim credit for work done by co-workers or the team.	2
2	Shifting the Blame	It's not fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.	2
3	Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates	It's a good idea to over-delegate work which you are not competent enough to do yourself.	4
4	Words/Language	You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.	4
5	Work Friendships	Building strategic friendships in the workplace is more important than concentrating on improving actual job performance.	14
6	Varied FP Behaviours	Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.	18
Total			44
FP in the Interview			
Subcategory No.	Concept	Example Item	No. of Items
1	Lying about Qualifications	In a job interview, it is necessary to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.	4
2	Over-Talking as a Smoke-Screen	In the performance appraisal, you should not talk excessively as a way of avoiding questions about your current job performance.	4
3	Claiming Credit for Others' Work	In the job interview, you should not claim credit for anybody else's work.	4
Total			12

Table 7.2 Overview of FP Concepts...Contd.

Conceptualising FP			
Subcategory No.	Concept	Example Item	No. of Items
1	Conscious versus Unconscious FP	Those performing incompetently at work may well believe that they are doing a brilliant job.	8
Total			8
Final Total No of Items			64

The full 64-item list which was developed during Stage 1 (Initial Item Generation and Refinement) can be found in Appendix J1 (J1-a displays the items in list order and J1-b presents the items as sorted by category).

7.3 Stage 2: Refinement of Initial Items through Consultation with Experts

In developing a scale, DeVellis (1991) explains that it is important to clearly articulate the phenomenon of interest, generate a pool of suitable items, and select a response format for those items. DeVellis describes how the next step in this process is to invite people knowledgeable in the subject area to review the item pool. According to DeVellis, this review serves multiple purposes relating to maximising the content validity of the scale. As such, at the point in the current study where an initial item pool had been generated and a response format selected, the item set was then sent to two experts for their feedback.

The two experts selected for this task were chosen because of their ability to offer constructive comment from two different, but equally valuable, perspectives i.e. from their respective positions as academic and practitioner. It was considered important that in the development of the FPQ there was input from both the academic and organisational field. This provided a balanced set of opinions for the purpose of creating a theory-based tool (i.e. the FPQ) which could be used in a practical setting i.e. the workplace.

The first expert consulted was a prominent academic in the FP field and they held a senior role in the Business faculty of a University in the United States of America (USA). They were specifically selected for their FP expertise, having actually instigated the original research into FP and published in this area (i.e. Parnell & Singer, 2001). Their research interests included business strategy and performance, entrepreneurial strategy, crisis management, and sustainable management. They were author of over two hundred basic and applied research articles, published presentations, and cases.

The second expert invited to review the initial item set held a Management position in the public sector and was also completing a PhD in the Business School of a UK University. From this unique standpoint, it was expected that they could contribute to both the academic and professional development of the FPQ. As the current study was being conducted in the public sector, the input of the second expert was particularly relevant to the research context. In sum, the combined input of these two experts represented an inclusive appraisal of the initial FPQ item set.

In order to acquire feedback, both experts were e-mailed with an invite to respond on the initial 64-item set. They were informed that their feedback would help to further establish the clarity and value of each item in developing the concept of FP. The experts' opinions were also being sought to support the process of face and content validation of the questionnaire. Their professional judgements would help to ascertain whether the items were representative of the construct being measured i.e. FP.

Firstly, experts were asked to provide general feedback on the clarity and content of the item set. Based on Bell's (1999) recommendations for designing and refining a questionnaire, both experts were presented with the following questions for their specific response:

- Were any of the questions unclear or ambiguous? If so, which and why?
- Do you think respondents may object to answering any of the questions?
- Were there any leading questions or loaded words? If so, which and why?
- Do you have any other general comments on the questionnaire as a whole?

Finally, experts were asked whether, in their opinion, any major topic/theme had been omitted. According to the expert feedback, no major topic/theme had been omitted from the item set, but several suggestions were offered on how to improve the clarity and content of the existing questionnaire items. Based on this feedback, the FPQ items were refined in the following way:

- Some items were identified as double-barrelled by the experts i.e. items one and 21 (see item wordings in Table 7.3). Therefore, these items were removed and divided into two different items to provide a better measure of the separate concepts. For example, one item initially read: "Those performing unethically in their job will be conscious of their behaviour and will try to conceal their inadequate performance." Following revision, it was presented as two distinct items: 1) Those performing unethically in their job will be conscious of their behaviour and; 2) Those performing unethically in their job will try to conceal their inadequate performance.

- Both of the double-barrelled items related to the concept of *Conscious versus Unconscious FP*. The two double-barrelled items were removed from the initial item set and replaced with six newly worded items to measure the same *Conscious versus Unconscious FP* behaviours (see Table 7.4). This exercise, carried out in response to expert feedback, indicated that measurement of *Conscious versus Unconscious FP* might be more problematic than measurement of actual FP behaviours.
- Some items were re-worded for clarity based on expert suggestions. For instance, “It is not a good idea to *feign* illness or injury to avoid a work task you do not have the ability to complete” was replaced with, “It is not a good idea to *fake* illness or injury to avoid a work task you do not have the ability to complete.” It was suggested that not everyone completing the questionnaire would understand the word “feign.”
- One item was deleted because an expert suggested it was not necessary to reverse code the item i.e. “You should *not* concentrate on building strategic friendships in the workplace at the expense of improving actual job performance” (item number four in Table 7.3).
- Some items were modified where it was suggested that the meaning might be ambiguous. For example, “It is not a good career move to focus on becoming friends with *“the right people”* over improving actual job performance” was revised to read, “It is not a good career move to focus on becoming friends with *influential or politically connected co-workers* over improving actual job performance.” According to expert feedback, the phrase, “the right people” was subject to interpretation.
- Some items were identified as double negatives and they were revised so that they were not so difficult to understand. For example, “If you do not have the ability to do a work task, you should not blame equipment failure as a way to avoid your incompetency being detected” was modified to simply read, “You should not blame equipment failure as a cover up for your own incompetency.”
- One expert suggested underlining or emboldening the negatively worded questions e.g. not/not. Capitalisation was adopted as the most effective way of distinguishing the negative items e.g. “It is NOT a good idea to concentrate more effort on being friendly towards your boss than it is to working hard in your job.”

- One item proved particularly challenging to phrase during the process of item writing i.e. “It is a good idea to use impressive letters in connection with your name to give the impression that you are more competent than you are.” In relation to this item, one expert remarked that “if designatory letters are genuine then they can be used and they do reflect the individual's professional/academic competency (but not necessarily competency to do the job).” To more accurately capture the FP behaviour being described, this item was revised to read, “It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.”

Following consultation with experts, the item set increased from 64 items to 67 items. Three items were deleted (see Table 7.3) and six additional questions were added (see Table 7.4).

Table 7.3 List of Items Removed after Consultation with Experts

Item No.*	Concept	Items Removed
4	Work Friendships	You should not concentrate on building strategic friendships in the workplace at the expense of improving actual job performance.
1	Conscious versus Unconscious FP	Those performing unethically in their job will be conscious of their behaviour and will try to conceal their inadequate performance.
21		Those performing incompetently in their job will be conscious of their behaviour and will try to conceal their inadequate performance.

*Item numbers refer to the 64-item list in Appendix J1-a.

Table 7.4 List of Items Added after Consultation with Experts

Item No.*	Concept	Items Added
14	Conscious versus Unconscious FP	Those performing incompetently in their job will try to conceal their inadequate performance.
22		Those performing inadequately in the workplace may consciously behave unethically to disguise their incompetence.
34		Those performing inadequately in the workplace will NOT realise they are behaving unethically to disguise their incompetence.
46		Those performing unethically in their job will try to conceal their inadequate performance.
48		Those performing unethically in their job will be conscious of their behaviour.
56		Those performing incompetently in their job will be conscious of their behaviour.

*Item numbers refer to the 67-item list in Appendix J2-a.

The 67-item list which was developed during Stage 2 (Initial Consultation with Experts) is presented in Appendix J2 (J2-a displays the items in list order and J2-b presents the items as sorted by category).

7.4 Stage 3: Refinement of Items through a Small Pilot Study

Prior to conducting the pilot study, ethical approval was granted by Worcester Business School's Ethics Committee with the stipulation that it was made clear to students/participants that they were under no obligation to participate. The voluntary aspect of participation was emphasised in the e-mail invite which was sent to pilot study participants (see Appendix J3).

A pilot study was conducted (n=21) for the purpose of further refining the questionnaire items and also for running a series of other checks. Bell (1999) recommends using a pilot study to check how long it takes recipients to complete the questionnaire, to check all questions and instructions are clear, and to enable the removal of any items which do not yield usable data. Essentially, the pilot study is an important part of identifying and rectifying any problems with the instrument so that respondents in the main study will not experience any problems in completing it (Bell, 1999). In addition, piloting the questionnaire allows the readability and likely reliability and content validity of the items to be assessed at an early stage.

7.4.1 Method

7.4.1.1 Procedure and Sample

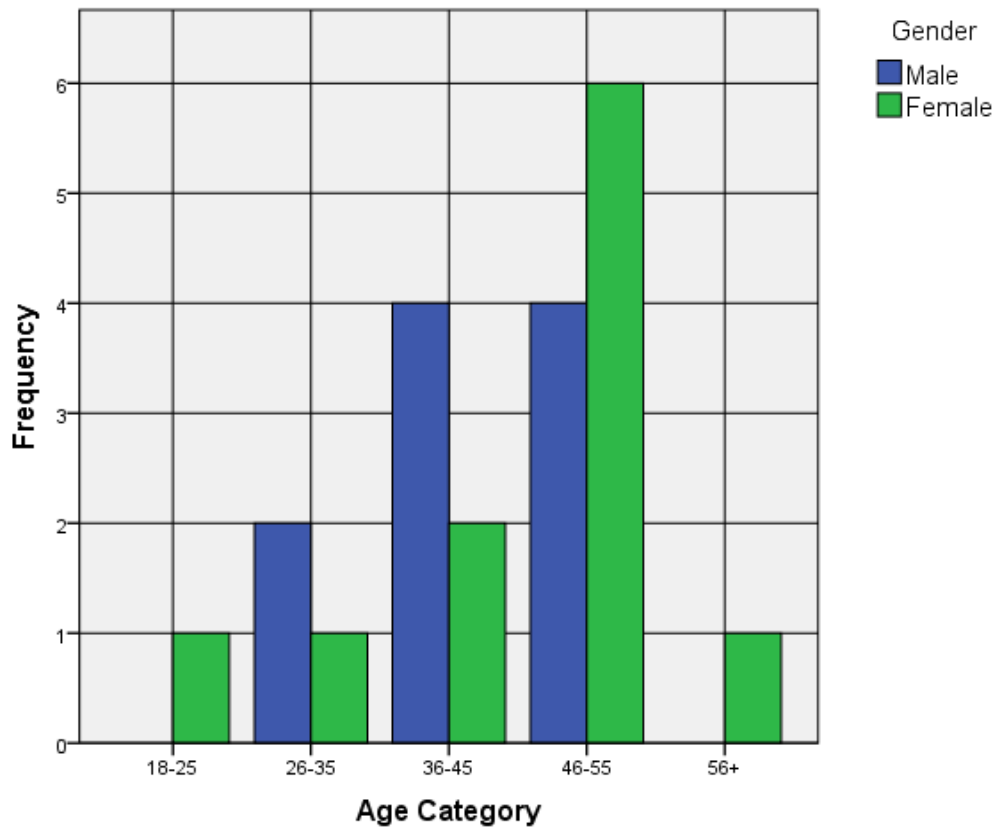
An opportunity sample of University of Worcester, Master of Business Administration (MBA) students participated in the pilot study. All of these MBA students were also identified as managerial working professionals. At this developmental stage, the pilot study was not confined to recruiting only public sector employees.

Using a University of Worcester gatekeeper, participants were recruited via an e-mail invitation which included a weblink to the pilot 67-item FPQ. This invite was sent to approximately 70 MBA students directly from SurveyMonkey®, the website hosting the questionnaire. Consistent with the focus group study, the only prerequisite for pilot study participation was that respondents had at least two years' total work experience. Of the participants, 52.4% were female and 47.6% were male. Table 7.5 provides demographic information for the pilot study sample. Figure 7.1 presents a comparison of the age and gender of pilot study participants.

Table 7.5 Demographics of Pilot Sample (n=21)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	10	47.6
Female	11	52.4
Age		
18-25 years	1	4.8
26-35 years	3	14.3
36-45 years	6	28.6
46-55 years	10	47.6
56+ years	1	4.8
Organisation		
Private Sector	11	52.4
Public Sector	9	42.9
Voluntary Sector	1	4.8

Figure 7.1 Comparison of Age and Gender of Pilot Study Participants



7.4.1.2 Measure

Following consultation with experts in Stage 2, 67 FPQ items were retained and distributed as part of the pilot study (see the 67-item set in Appendix J2-a).

SurveyMonkey®

The questionnaire was created and distributed using SurveyMonkey®, an online resource which allows researchers to design, distribute, and analyse the results of questionnaires. This type of online survey mode confers a number of advantages. For example, web questionnaires permit access to a more generous pool of participants than traditional paper and pen methods; they can be conducted at a vastly reduced cost; and the data can be collected in a much smaller time frame (Breakwell et al., 2006). Additionally, data entry is made much easier because the respondent's responses are logged and the entire dataset can be retrieved when the questionnaire closes. Therefore, data does not need to be coded nor manually entered into the software, saving both time and the likelihood of errors in data-processing (Bryman, 2012). However, there are drawbacks associated with online administration, such as lower response rates and lower quality of data (Breakwell et al., 2006). There is also the potential for technology errors and measurement errors.

In the current study, such measurement errors were minimised by carefully formatting the questionnaire and response scale prior to electronic distribution. For example, item and response scale wording was double-checked and response scale labels were correctly assigned to the corresponding numerical values. Furthermore, certain SurveyMonkey® features were utilised in order to prevent against measurement errors. For instance, in SurveyMonkey®, it is possible to select an option which prevents respondents moving to the next page unless they have completed all of the items on the current page. This helps to reduce the number of questionnaires submitted with missing data. Another option limits answers to one tick-box per question, thus preventing multiple responses. Both SurveyMonkey® options were selected in the current study. Technological issues were pre-empted by testing the questionnaire to ensure each page loaded properly, and instructions included the researcher's contact details should respondents have needed to report any technical difficulties. The online questionnaire was, therefore, administered with confidence in the advantages to be gained from this mode of delivery.

Pilot False Performance Questionnaire

The pilot questionnaire was designed so that when respondents clicked on the e-mail invite they were taken to a welcome page (see Appendix J4). This introduced the aims of the study, assured participants of confidentiality and anonymity, and contained instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. A disqualification page then followed in order to ensure that only respondents who answered "Yes" to having two years' work experience could proceed. There was one page inserted in order to collect a few biographical details i.e. organisation (private, public, or voluntary), gender, and age. The main body of the questionnaire (i.e. the 67-item FPQ) consisted of four pages. The final page of the eight page questionnaire was used to identify any faults in the instrument so that these problems could be rectified before distribution in the main study. Based on Bell's (1999) recommendations, the following questions were asked at the end of the questionnaire:

- How long did the questionnaire take you to complete?
- Were the instructions clear and easy to understand?
- Were any of the questions unclear or confusing? If so, will you say which and why?
- Did you object to answering any of the questions? If so, will you say which and why?
- In your opinion, has any major topic not been included?
- Was the layout of the questionnaire clear/attractive?
- Do you have any further comments on how the questionnaire can be improved?
- Do you have any further comments on the content of the questionnaire?

Finally, respondents were asked to provide their contact details in the event of the researcher requiring further clarification in respect of their feedback:

- This questionnaire is anonymous, but if you are happy to be contacted in relation to your feedback in section 7, please provide your e-mail address below.

7.4.2 Analysis and Results

Although the pilot study sample was small ($n=21$), a preliminary analysis of the pilot study data was conducted in order to evaluate the reliability of the 67-item FPQ. The results indicated that reliability was above the commonly recommended figure of 0.70 (e.g. Kline, 1993; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The alpha value obtained for the 67-item FPQ ($\alpha=0.88$) gave a positive indication that this new measure of FP would be found to demonstrate good reliability in the main study. In addition, the pilot study results showed that the deletion of any items would only negligibly increase Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951). Therefore, in making the decision to delete items from the FPQ following the pilot study, respondents' comments and further examination of the items by the researcher were given priority.

7.4.2.1 Questionnaire Completion Time

According to Punch (2003), a questionnaire taking longer than 20-30 minutes to complete is likely to be a problem. In the current study, pilot study respondents had been advised that the questionnaire would take no longer than 15 minutes to complete. To ensure that this guideline was correct, respondents were asked at the end of the questionnaire how long it had taken them to complete. This provided questionnaire completion time data which was analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) descriptives. The results showed that 19 respondents took between 10 and 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire (mean time of 14 minutes, standard deviation (SD) of four minutes). Therefore, the recommended completion time of 15 minutes was confirmed to be an accurate guide.

7.4.2.2 Instructions and Questions

Bell (1999) recommends using pilot respondents' comments to adjust the questionnaire accordingly prior to distribution in the main study. In the current study, the feedback received from respondents in response to the questions asked on the final page of the questionnaire was carefully analysed. The majority of respondents found the instructions clear and easy to understand. However, most of the respondents provided some feedback on the topic of whether they had found any of the questions unclear or confusing. The following comments are representative of the general feedback received in relation to the questions posed (refer to Appendix J5 for the full list of pilot study feedback):

- A lot of duplication.
- They were repetitive.
- Some where there was a NOT. I had to read the question a few times to make sure I understood it.
- The double negative questions - had to understand what I was answering.
- Questions relating to colleagues' unethical behaviour and concealment were the most confusing.
- The questions about unethical workers - it is possible to be incompetent without being unethical - unethical implies a deliberate choice of behaviour yet the questions were about whether unethical workers were doing it deliberately.

The respondents' comments and further examination of the questionnaire by the researcher led to the following changes in questionnaire content:

- 1) The latter two comments (see above) most likely referred to the sub-set of questions which were included in the questionnaire to capture the phenomenon of *Conscious versus Unconscious FP*. As a result of the feedback received, and based on the researcher's own knowledge of the qualitative and quantitative data, the 12 questions measuring the concept of *Conscious versus Unconscious FP* were removed from the FPQ (see Table 7.6). These questions did not directly measure the concept of FP, but rather examined the false performer's conscious awareness of their behaviour. The wording of these questions seemed to cause confusion for several respondents and, therefore, they were removed from the scale. This helped to improve the FPQ in three ways: a) It enhanced the wording and presentation of the questionnaire; b) It reduced the length of the questionnaire which helped to minimise issues of repetitiveness (see point 2 below) and fatigue; and c) By removing the 12 *Conscious versus Unconscious FP* items, this created an exclusive measure of FP behaviour, thus more accurately achieving the primary objective of producing a reliable measure of FP.
- 2) Several respondents commented on the repetitive nature of the questionnaire. Although the issue of repetition had been pre-empted and measures had been taken in anticipation (see discussion of this in section 7.4.2.6), it still presented a minor issue in the pilot study. It was anticipated that the removal of a large number of items following the pilot study (i.e. the 12 *Conscious versus Unconscious FP* items) would help to lessen future respondents' feelings of repetitiveness.

- 3) Based upon the pilot study feedback, it emerged that a number of double negative questions had been erroneously included in the FPQ. However, it was calculated that the removal of the 12 *Conscious versus Unconscious FP* items would eliminate this problem as several double negatives had featured amongst this subset of items.

Table 7.6 List of Items Removed after Pilot Study

Item No.	Concept	Items Removed
5*	Conscious versus Unconscious FP	Those performing incompetently at work may well believe that they are doing a brilliant job.
13*		Those performing unethically in their job will NOT trust in their own work efforts.
14*		Those performing incompetently in their job will try to conceal their inadequate performance.
22*		Those performing inadequately in the workplace may consciously behave unethically to disguise their incompetence.
28		Those performing incompetently in their job will NOT be aware of their own weaknesses.
32*		Those performing unethically in the workplace may well believe they are doing a brilliant job.
34*		Those performing inadequately in the workplace will NOT realise they are behaving unethically to disguise their incompetence.
46		Those performing unethically in their job will try to conceal their inadequate performance.
48		Those performing unethically in their job will be conscious of their behaviour.
51*		Employees who are incompetent in their job role will NOT be aware of the deceptions in which they engage to conceal their poor performance.
56		Those performing incompetently in their job will be conscious of their behaviour.
57		Unethical employees will NOT be aware of the deceptions in which they engage to conceal their poor performance.

Item numbers refer to the 67-item list in Appendix J2-a. *Note:* *The deletion of these particular items also functioned to increase Cronbach's alpha.

Finally, following further examination of the questionnaire by the researcher, a few additional noteworthy amendments were made to three questionnaire items (see Table 7.7).

Table 7.7 List of Amended Items after Pilot Study

Item No.	Original Wording	Item No.	Amended Wording	Reason for Change
47	It is a good idea to arrange leave to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.	39	It is a good idea to arrange Annual/Sick/Carer's, etc. Leave to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.	Item re-worded to avoid misinterpretation. It is possible that if the original item was read too quickly, it may have been interpreted as referring to handing in one's notice at work i.e. leaving the organisation permanently. The re-worded item is specific about the type of leave being referred to i.e. Annual/Sick/Carer's.
54	In a job interview, lying about qualifications is critical to career success.	44	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.	This question was re-worded for two reasons: 1) To moderate the wording. Extremes in question wording should be avoided and the word, "critical," was deemed to be extreme; 2) To eliminate ambiguity. One expert previously commented: "This item could have two meanings. Does lying help or hurt?" The re-worded item makes it clear that the meaning is that lying could "help" with career success.
63	You should NOT arrange leave as a way to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.	51	You should NOT arrange Annual/Sick/Carer's, etc. Leave as a way to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.	See item 47/39 above – the same rationale for change applies to the positive and negative version of this question.

Item numbers in the left-hand column refer to the 67-item list in Appendix J2-a. Item numbers in the right-hand column refer to the 55-item list in Appendix J6-a.

7.4.2.3 Objectionable Questions

There was only one response to the question which asked respondents if they objected to answering any of the questions. One respondent commented as follows in relation to being asked to state their age on the biographical details page:

- Age would feel more comfortable with a band, but relieved that's as personal as it got.

In the pilot study, an open comment box had been provided for respondents to input their actual age. However, taking the above feedback into account, the way in which age was recorded was changed for the main administration of the questionnaire. Age is a potentially sensitive issue (Bell, 1999), and so it was important to properly address this feedback. As suggested by the respondent, an age band was implemented. The following age range, suggested by Gillham (2008), was adopted:

- 18-25 years
- 26-35 years
- 36-45 years
- 46-55 years
- 56+ years

7.4.2.4 Major Topics

Respondents were also asked if they thought any major topic had been omitted from the questionnaire. Two respondents offered their thoughts as follows:

- There are bosses out there who want to be pleased rather than backing colleagues who disagree with the way things are done.
- Not sure of the scope of your PhD, but perhaps physical image; role of gender mix in the workplace.

Whilst these two comments were not used to modify any of the questionnaire items, they represented additional qualitative data, and the comment about the "role of gender mix" taps into the discussion of FP and gender in the final Discussion and Conclusion (see Chapter 9).

7.4.2.5 Questionnaire Layout

Respondents also offered some useful feedback in relation to the layout of the questionnaire. One comment about headings was received in response to the question of whether the layout was clear/attractive, and an additional two remarks about scrolling were offered in response to the question which asked how the questionnaire could be improved:

- No, could not see headings.
- Freeze the headers so when you scroll down you can still see them.
- Yes the scale needs to be repeated. I kept scrolling up to look at the scale and check that I was answering it as I thought.

Although the issue of item numbers per page was taken into consideration when designing the online questionnaire, the pilot study strongly indicated that approximately 17 items per page was too many for respondents to comfortably scroll down through and answer with the seven-point anchor still in mind. At least one respondent's feedback indicated that they had to keep scrolling back up to remind themselves of the scale labels. This may have led to response errors and the questionnaire taking longer than necessary to complete. Therefore, the format of the questionnaire was revised in SurveyMonkey® to ensure that fewer items were displayed on each screen page.

7.4.2.6 Additional Comments

The final question asked respondents if they had any further comments on the content of the questionnaire. Again, several responses highlighted the repetitive nature of the questions:

- A lot of repetition in the questions.
- Some questions seemed to repeat.
- Too many repeat questions.

When writing the FPQ items, it was recognised that there was an element of repetition due to the counterbalancing of positive and negative items. In addition, some of the items may have seemed similar to respondents because they were measuring similar concepts in two different contexts e.g. "It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others" (general context of the workplace) and "In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work" (specific context of the job interview). In anticipation of the repetitive element contained in the questionnaire, the instructions page deliberately stated, "It is very important that you answer ALL the questions, even if some appear similar." Whilst this mandate was repeated in subsequent administrations of the FPQ, there was the expectation that the problem of repetitive questions would diminish as the FPQ items were further refined in Stages 4-6. The 67-item FPQ administered in the pilot study was an early version of the questionnaire which necessarily contained a lot more items than would be eventually retained.

Table 7.8 presents an overview of the item set following item refinement, expert feedback, and pilot testing. The full list of items at this stage, 55 in total, can be found in Appendix J6 (J6-a displays the items in list order and J6-b presents the items as sorted by category).

Table 7.8 Overview of FP Concepts and Item Numbers after Pilot Study

Perceptions of FP in the Workplace			
Subcategory No.	Concept	Example Item	No. of Items
1	Claiming Credit for Others' Work	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.	2
2	Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.	4
3	Shifting the Blame	It is better to blame colleagues for work mistakes than to take personal responsibility.	2
4	Work Friendships	It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.	13
5	Words/Language	Impressive words will NOT fool a supervisor into thinking you are more competent in your job role than you really are.	4
6	Varied FP Behaviours	It is possible to use your sexuality to compensate for a lack of competency in the workplace.	18
Total			43
FP in the Interview			
Subcategory No.	Concept	Example Item	No. of Items
1	Lying about Qualifications	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.	4
2	Over-Talking as a Smoke-Screen	In a performance appraisal interview, over-talking past achievements is a good way to avoid discussing current job performance.	4

Table 7.8 Overview of FP Concepts...Contd.

3	Claiming Credit for Others' Work	Claiming credit for work done by others is an acceptable interview strategy.	4
Total			12
Conceptualising FP			
Subcategory No.	Concept	Example Item	No. of Items
1	Conscious versus Unconscious FP	Those performing incompetently at work may well believe that they are doing a brilliant job.	0
Total			0
Final Total No. of Items			55

7.5 Stage 4: Refinement of Items through Post-Pilot Consultation with Experts

The process of consulting experts was staggered in two phases so that two experts were consulted prior to the pilot study and two different experts were consulted prior to the main distribution of the FPQ. The rationale for designing the study in this way was so that expert opinion could be acquired at the two most crucial stages in the development of the FPQ.

Again, the experts consulted post-pilot study were deemed to be knowledgeable in relation to the subject area of FP and, moreover, they were each able to offer a new perspective from their different research backgrounds. One expert was a practitioner psychologist and held a senior role in a UK University department. They had an extensive publication background, having authored many books, book chapters, and peer reviewed publications. The second expert was female, the other three experts having been male. This final expert was based in a UK University Business School, and their teaching and research interests included business ethics and qualitative research methods.

As in Stage 2 of the study, the experts were presented with a list of questions (see section 7.3 for the question list) and asked to offer their feedback on the item set; this time the item pool consisted of 55 items. According to the expert comments offered on the content, items were refined as follows:

- As before, some items were re-worded for clarity based on expert suggestions. For instance, one item read: "In a performance appraisal interview, *over-talking* past

achievements is a good way to avoid discussing current job performance.” However, both experts commented that the phrasing was not clear, so the item was re-worded as follows: “In a performance appraisal interview, *emphasising* past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.”

- Two items were removed from the item set; these two items were positively and negatively worded versions of the same concept. One expert commented that the negatively worded item was unclear, so the opportunity was taken to remove both items from the item pool (see Table 7.9).
- Finally, the following question was again modified in order to improve clarity and cross-cultural validity: "It is a good idea to arrange Annual/Sick/Carer's, etc. leave to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out." The word “leave” appeared to be causing problems in terms of interpretation and one expert commented that referring to “Annual/Sick/Carer's, etc. leave” may not be cross-culturally valid. Therefore, the item was revised to read: “It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do not have the ability to carry out.”

Following consultation with experts, the item set decreased from 55 items to 53 items. Two items were deleted (see Table 7.9).

Table 7.9 List of Items Removed after Post-Pilot Consultation with Experts

Item No.*	Concept	Items Removed
2	Varied FP Behaviours	You should NOT try to give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.
48	Varied FP Behaviours	It is important to always give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.

*Item numbers refer to the 55-item list in Appendix J6-a.

The full 53-item list which was developed during Stage 4 (Post-Pilot Consultation with Experts) can be found in Appendix J7 (J7-a displays the items in list order and J7-b presents the items as sorted by category).

7.6 Chapter Summary

The 53-item set produced in Stages 1-4 (i.e. initial item generation and refinement, initial consultation with experts, a small pilot study, and post-pilot consultation with experts) was used to develop a questionnaire for distribution in Stages 5-6. The next chapter describes the process of further refining the item set using an item analytic approach on a small sample (Stage 5) and using a factor analytic approach on a larger sample (Stage 6). It presents the statistical analyses of the data which was conducted to further refine the item set and produce the final version of the FPQ.

Chapter 8

Quantitative Results: Development of the False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ)

“It is harder to produce a really good questionnaire than might be imagined. They are fiendishly difficult to design and should never be considered by anyone who believes that ‘anyone who can write plain English and has a modicum of common sense can produce a good questionnaire’ (Oppenheim 1992, p. 1)...It requires discipline in the selection of questions, in question writing, in the design, piloting, distribution and return of the questionnaires. What is more, thought has to be given to how responses will be analysed *at the design stage*, not after questionnaires have been returned. If you send out questionnaires and just hope for the best, you may find the returns are impossible to deal with.”

(Bell, 2005, pp. 136-7)

8.1 Introduction to the Development of the False Performance Questionnaire

This chapter is a continuation of the quantitative methodology which was employed in the construction of the False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ) (see Chapter 7). Chapter 8 will describe the development of the FPQ, which involved further refinement of the item set using quantitative analyses. The development phase consists of: Stage 5) Further refinement of items using an item analytic approach on a small sample; and Stage 6) Construction of final FPQ items using a factor analytic approach on a larger sample. In order to refine the FPQ, it was distributed in two phases within several public sector organisations (Stages 5 and 6). Chapter 8 will present the item analytic and factor analytic results.

8.2 Stage 5: Further Refinement of Items Using an Item Analytic Approach on a Small Sample

In the latter two stages of questionnaire development (Stages 5 and 6), the FPQ was distributed in a total of seven public sector organisations. Stage 5 of the quantitative study involved further refinement of the FPQ using an item analytic approach on a small sample drawn from three public sector organisations. Item analysis, which consisted of reliability analyses, was used to develop the scale for a second phase of distribution with a larger sample. Although a relatively small sample size was used in Stage 5, the economy of the use of participants is considered to be an important advantage of item analysis (Nunnally, 1978). Furthermore, the analytic procedure employed in Stage 5 was consistent with the rationale that item analysis can be used in the first trial stages, especially where time and resources are limited (Kline, 1993). Although there is the possibility that item analysis may include items that have to be removed later from the test on factoring, Kline points out that it is unlikely to exclude any items that would have turned out to be useful.

8.2.1 Format of Measurement

In designing the FPQ and distributing it with other variables, various issues were carefully considered in relation to the format of measurement. The development phase described in this chapter involved the application of psychometric theory and quantitative analyses. In the first phase of distribution (Stage 5), the FPQ was administered with the nine-item Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS) (two scales in total) and, in the second phase of distribution (Stage 6), the FPQ was administered with three other scales (the nine-item OCS, the 24-item Impression Management (IM) scale, and the three-item Job Performance scale). The 24-item IM scale (Wayne & Ferris, 1990) and three-item Job Performance scale (Yousef, 2000) were administered using pre-existing anchors, and the FPQ and nine-item OCS were combined and presented using a systematically adapted scale response format (see section 8.2.1.5).

8.2.1.1 Measures

The measures for the variables administered alongside the FPQ, their sources, and the reported coefficient alpha of each scale from their original sources are shown in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1 Measures and Sources of Study Variables

Study Variables	No. of Items	Source of Scale	Reported Alpha
Organisational Charlatanism	9	Parnell and Singer (2001)	.846 and .811
Impression Management	24	Wayne and Ferris (1990)	.87 (Factor 1), .71 (Factor 2) and .78 (Factor 3)
Job Performance	3	Yousef (2000)	.80

Organisational Charlatanism

The nine-item OCS (see Appendix K1) was originally administered using a five-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 (i.e. “strongly agree”) to 5 (i.e. “strongly disagree”). Parnell and Singer (2001) identified two dimensions of the OCS. The first dimension, “expectations”, encompasses four items that consider one’s beliefs concerning meeting organisational expectations. It examines the degree to which an individual is concerned with providing the outward appearance of high performance. The first item addresses the importance of “looking busy.” The second item considers one’s propensity to perform with the specific intention of scoring well on evaluations. The third item considers one’s lack of concern for doing what the organisation needs. The final item evaluates the importance of simply doing “what your boss tells you.” The second dimension, “image”, consists of five items and is associated with the degree to which an individual seeks to bolster their image. The first two items consider the importance of appearance when being seen by key organisational players. The third item emphasises the importance of a positive image in career success. The fourth item considers one’s beliefs about the relationship between what one does in an organisation and the image they possess. The final item considers one’s propensity to believe that problems arise as a result of conflicts with important people in the organisation.

Impression Management

Wayne and Ferris (1990) conducted a study to investigate subordinate influence tactics and, as part of this research, they developed a new 24-item IM scale (see Appendix K2). Subordinates reported how often they had engaged in a particular behaviour during the past three months on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (“never”) to 7 (“always”). Factor analysis of the 24-item IM scale revealed three types of tactics: job-focused, self-focused, and supervisor-focused (see section 2.5 for a description of each factor).

Job Performance

In Yousef's (2000) original study, two dimensions of performance i.e. quality of performance and productivity were measured using a four-item, self-report scale. The first two items assessed quality of performance and productivity of individuals in their jobs, and the second two items assessed individuals' quality of performance and productivity compared with others doing similar jobs. The four items were: "Quality of your performance", "Your productivity on the job", "How do you evaluate the performance of your peers at their jobs compared with yourself doing the same kind of work?", and "How do you evaluate the performance of yourself at your job compared with your peers doing the same kind of work?" A seven-point scale was employed ranging from 1 ("very low") to 7 ("very high"). However, factor analysis of the four items showed that item three had the lowest extraction value and, therefore, it was omitted. The three-item scale used in the current study is presented in Appendix K3.

8.2.1.2 Binary Options versus Likert Scale

DeVellis (1991) explains that there are numerous formats which can be used for questionnaire responses, and it is important that the researcher select a format simultaneously with the generation of items so as to ensure a good fit between the two. Generally, a scale of items will comprise two parts consisting of a stem and a series of response options. The item stem may appear as a declarative statement expressing an opinion, and the accompanying response options could be a series of descriptors indicating the strength of agreement with the statement (DeVellis, 1991).

An example response format which may be used is one with binary options, such as "Yes" or "No" for each item, or "simply "Agree" and "Disagree." The advantage of this type of response is that binary scales are incredibly easy to answer and so the cognitive workload is low for the respondent. Due to the complexity of the phenomenon under investigation in the current study i.e. FP; the scale items were not compatible with simplistic binary response options. A Likert scale was instead selected for use. The Likert scale is one of the most popular item formats used (DeVellis, 1991), and its more sophisticated presentation allows for a greater variability of response. With a Likert scale, the items are displayed as declarative sentences and paired with response options which indicate different levels of agreement or disagreement with each of the statements. DeVellis explains that "a good Likert item should state the opinion, attitude, belief, or other construct under study in clear terms" (p. 70). By presenting the FPQ items alongside a Likert scale, this gradual response option format allowed respondents a moderation of opinion which would not have been possible with binary response options.

8.2.1.3 Number of Response Options

According to DeVellis (1991), the response options on a Likert scale should provide the opportunity for graduations and be worded so as to have roughly equal intervals between them. For example, the original OCS utilised a five-point Likert scale, with 1 denoting strong agreement (“strongly agree”) and 5 denoting strong disagreement (“strongly disagree”); responses of 2, 3, and 4 allowed participants to express moderate levels of agreement or disagreement with each item. Another common practice is to include six possible responses e.g. strongly disagree, moderately disagree, mildly disagree, mildly agree, moderately agree, and strongly agree (DeVellis, 1991). DeVellis explains that a neutral midpoint can also be added. This might include, “neither agree nor disagree”, or “agree and disagree equally.” In the current study, the six anchors suggested by DeVellis were adopted for use with the FPQ and the OCS. The neutral midpoint of “neither agree nor disagree” was also added, thus creating a seven-point Likert scale (see Figure 8.1). DeVellis has suggested that the wording of the “neither agree nor disagree” anchor may indicate strong but equal attraction to both agreement and disagreement. However, it is possible that respondents may perceive any category in the middle as an impartial mid-point regardless of its wording.

In the current study, a neutral mid-point was added to the Likert scale in order to capture “middle-of-the-road” responses. Kline (1993) explains that it is frustrating for respondents not to have such a category in an instrument measuring their attitudes. Potentially, respondents might choose the neutral option as a response set, but the likelihood of this can be reduced if the items are made as salient as possible to the respondents’ lives. As all respondents in the current study had at least two years’ work experience, it was envisioned that the work-related items in the FPQ would be salient to their working lives. Kline also argues that the tendency to select the middle category may actually not be a response set, but rather a true reflection of respondents’ tentative and uncertain attitude towards the items on a scale.

Guilford (1956) has demonstrated that the reliability of a scale increases in line with the number of steps included in the rating scale. However, reliability only noticeably increases up to seven steps and then gradually levels off again. Kline (1993) suggests that Likert scales should have either seven or nine steps. In the current study, a seven-point option was selected for its reliability and its relative ease of cognitive usability. A nine-point scale was not implemented for two reasons: 1) Vernon (1961) has found that nine categories are about the maximum number that the mind can accommodate; and 2) As many respondents were completing this questionnaire during work hours, a nine-point scale may have caused an unwelcome increase in response time and, consequently, there may have been a reduction in response rate.

8.2.1.4 Counterbalancing

A seven-point “strongly disagree-strongly agree” scale was also selected because this response format allowed the items of the FPQ and the OCS to be counterbalanced. Although the OCS had a pre-existing five-point anchor, there were more benefits to be gained from counterbalancing than there were from retaining the original five-point anchor for the OCS. By mixing the items from the FPQ and the OCS, it was possible to avoid items from the same scale being listed next to each other. The objective of separating the items in this way was to improve the reliability of the questionnaire. It was less likely that respondents would guess what each individual scale was measuring if the items were dispersed. Therefore, this further reduced the risk of social desirability as a response set.

8.2.1.5 Anchors

Anchors are the definitions of the scale steps and they enable the effective use of rating scales (Kline, 1993). In the first phase of distribution (Stage 5), the 53-item FPQ was mixed and administered with the nine-item OCS. The entire 62-item questionnaire was accompanied by a seven-point anchor set (see Figure 8.1).

Figure 8.1 Anchor Set 1: FPQ and OCS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Item Declarative Statement	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

In the second phase of distribution (Stage 6), the reduced 21-item FPQ was administered with three other scales. The 21-item FPQ was mixed with the nine-item OCS and these combined items were accompanied by the seven-point anchor set shown in Figure 8.1. A separate 24-item IM scale was administered with its own pre-existing seven-point anchor which described the frequency of certain behaviours (see Figure 8.2). Finally, a three-item Job Performance scale was administered with a 10-point response scale (see Figure 8.3). This scale was adapted from a numerical scale into a graphic scale whereby the 10 points were set out with the ends marked as shown in Figure 8.3. The descriptors of 1=“very poor” and 10=“excellent” were added to the 10-point response scale for clarity purposes. Graphic scales are generally recognised as preferable to numerical scales (e.g. Nunnally, 1978) because they are easier for participants to use and they are less liable to error.

Figure 8.2 Anchor Set 2: IM Scale

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Item Declarative Statement	Never	Very Infrequently	Infrequently	Sometimes	Frequently	Very Frequently	Always

Figure 8.3 Anchor Set 3: Job Performance Scale

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Very Poor									Excellent

8.2.1.6 Response Sets

A number of response sets have been identified as potentially problematic in the administration of personality items (Guilford, 1956). Social desirability, selecting the middle category, and acquiescence have already been discussed in reference to response sets in the current study (see section 7.2.1 for a discussion of social desirability and acquiescence).

8.2.2 Method

8.2.2.1 Construction of the FPQ on SurveyMonkey®

In Stage 5, the FPQ was administered online to all of the organisations involved but, in Stage 6, one organisation required the questionnaire in paper format for postal distribution. By using SurveyMonkey® to create the questionnaire, it was possible to translate the online content into a paper-based questionnaire for postal purposes. The advantage this conferred was that it gave a uniform appearance to the online and postal versions of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire distributed in Stage 5 consisted of 62 items. The 53-item FPQ (see Appendix J7) was mixed with the nine-item OCS (see Appendix K1). The anchor set in Figure 8.1 was used for both scales. The questions were carefully formatted so that they were spread across seven pages on SurveyMonkey®. This ensured that only a maximum of 10 questions appeared on each online page, thus preventing excessive scrolling down the screen and addressing the feedback received in the pilot study.

Secure Storage of Data

The use of SurveyMonkey® to distribute the FPQ ensured the secure and anonymous storage of data. SurveyMonkey® offers the option to activate Secure Socket Layer (SSL) encryption and this option was turned on for the FPQ data collector. SSL is the standard security technology for managing the secure transmission of private documents via the Internet. This meant that SSL encrypted the survey and the results as they were sent between participants and SurveyMonkey®. Also, respondents' IP addresses were not stored (an IP address is a unique identifier of a computer or other network device).

8.2.2.2 Procedure and Sample

Sampling Challenges

The current study aimed to recruit participants from a range of public sector organisations. However, sampling proved problematic for a number of reasons. The four original focus group organisations had each initially agreed to participate in the quantitative study. The intention had been to distribute the FPQ to two organisations in Stage 5, and to distribute the reduced item FPQ to a further two organisations in Stage 6. However, one of the original organisations was unable to participate in the quantitative study due to conflicting priorities i.e. they had their own in-house survey in distribution and, therefore, they could not accommodate the FPQ. As a result, additional efforts had to be made to recruit an alternative organisation. Several organisations approached were reluctant to participate because of the sensitivity of the data being collected, and/or because of the challenges being faced in the public sector at the time (see section 5.5.2.1). Eventually, however, another two organisations were recruited and data collection was able to commence. Notably, the challenges encountered in the recruitment of these additional organisations led to a protracted data collection phase.

Procedure

In Stage 5, the FPQ was distributed to approximately 1060 employees in three public sector organisations. In each organisation, the researcher contacted a senior member of personnel (i.e. Head of Personnel; Senior [anonymised]; and Head of [anonymised]) with a request to forward an e-mail invite which included a weblink to the SurveyMonkey® questionnaire (see Appendix L1). It was important that the questionnaire was endorsed by a senior member of staff for the purpose of encouraging a healthy response rate. The e-mail invite provided an overview of the PhD study and explained that the researcher had received permission to circulate the questionnaire to employees. The e-mail invite explained that participation was voluntary and that participants could withdraw at any time. Confidentiality and anonymity

were assured, and it was explained that all responses would only be used for research purposes. The e-mail also included a deadline for completing the questionnaire.

There was generally a two week deadline provided for the completion of questionnaires. Bell (1999) explains that two weeks is a reasonable time for completion. As evidence suggests that the issuing of a reminder e-mail promotes a higher response rate (Granello & Wheaton, 2004), reminder e-mails were issued half-way through data collection. At the conclusion of data collection, a total of 129 complete responses had been received. Table 8.2 presents the demographics of the sample in Stage 5. Figure 8.4 displays a comparison of the age and gender of participants, and Figure 8.5 displays a comparison of work position and gender.

It should be noted that data for a total of 206 respondents was collected. However, one participant withdrew from the study and 76 respondents only partially completed the questionnaire. These semi-completed datasets were omitted from analyses.

Table 8.2 Stage 5: Demographics of Small Sample (n=129)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	52	40.3
Female	77	59.7
Age		
18-25 years	8	6.2
26-35 years	16	12.4
36-45 years	28	21.7
46-55 years	49	38.0
56+ years	28	21.7
Work Position		
Managerial Level	44	34.1
Non-Managerial Level	85	65.9

Figure 8.4 Stage 5: Comparison of Age and Gender of Participants

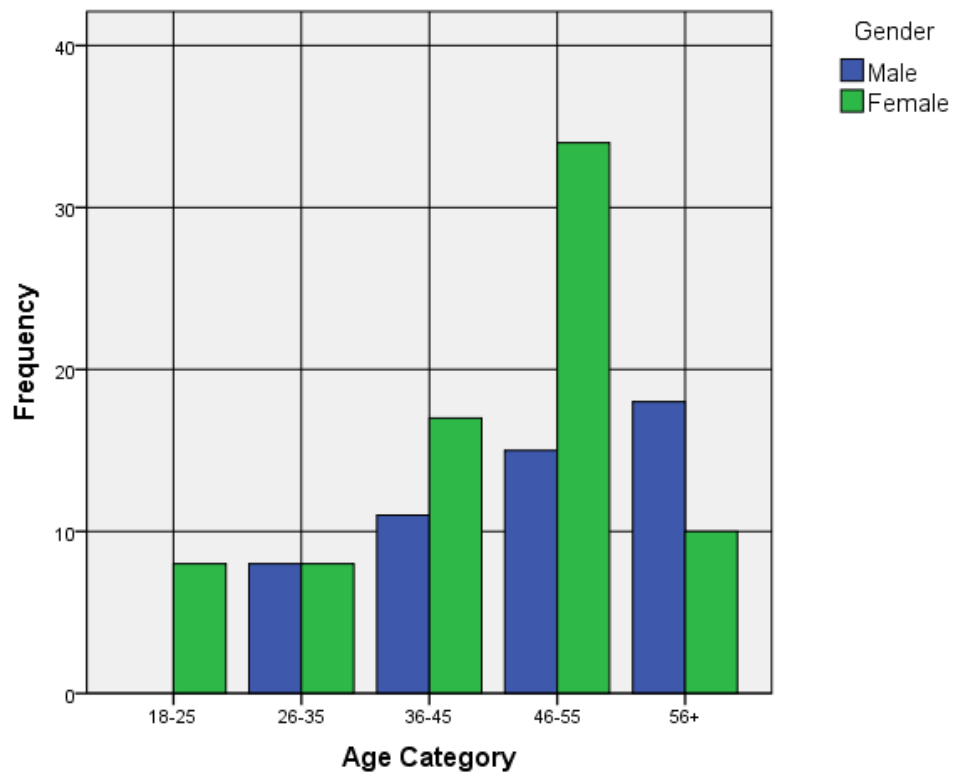
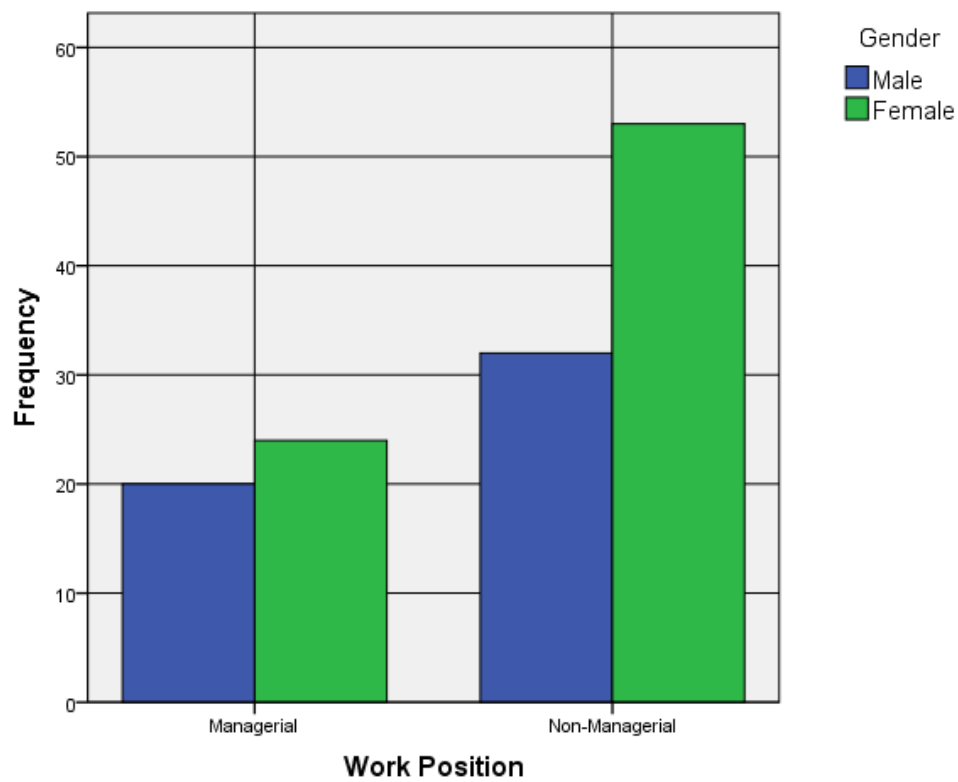


Figure 8.5 Stage 5: Comparison of Work Position and Gender of Participants



8.2.2.3 Measure

In the first phase of distribution, an 11-page questionnaire, consisting of 62 items, was launched in order to further refine the FPQ items. The first page of the questionnaire welcomed participants to this “Questionnaire about Workplace Behaviour” (see Appendix L2 for the welcome page, including introduction and instructions).

The first page introduced the PhD research in the following way: “This questionnaire forms part of my PhD research study at the University of Worcester, and it is concerned with your behaviours in the workplace, and how you conduct your work relationships.” The welcome page stressed that participation was voluntary and that it was possible to withdraw from the research at any time. Participants were assured that their responses were strictly confidential and anonymous and that they would be used for research purposes only. They were advised that the questionnaire should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete, and that it was important that they answer ALL the questions, even if some appeared similar. They were encouraged to answer openly and honestly, and not to spend too long on one question. Finally, participants were provided with the researcher’s e-mail address in case they had any questions about the PhD research project. The PhD supervisor’s e-mail address was also included in the event that participants should wish to escalate their query to someone other than the PhD research student conducting the research.

As was stipulated in the pilot study, the only prerequisite for participation was that respondents’ had at least two years’ total work experience. This specific requirement was included in the questionnaire welcome page and as a separate screening question at the beginning of the questionnaire. On page two, if participants answered “No” to the question, “Do you have at least two years’ total work experience?” they were re-directed to a disqualification page which explained that they were not eligible to take part in the study. On the third page, qualifying participants were asked demographic details about their work position, gender, and age. The subsequent seven pages of the questionnaire presented the intermixed 53-item FPQ and the nine-item OCS.

The final “PhD Research Project Summary” page informed participants: “This research aims to develop an understanding of false performers i.e. those individuals within the workplace who seek to improve their perceived performance at the expense of their actual performance.” As participants were again offered the option to withdraw at this point, they were able to make a fully informed decision about whether they still wished to participate in the study. When participants had completed the questionnaire, they were redirected to the researcher’s University webpage (<http://www.worc.ac.uk/departments/15337.html>).

8.2.3 Analysis and Results

8.2.3.1 Introduction to Item Analysis

Item analysis was used to refine items in Stage 5 of the development of the FPQ, and factor analysis was used to analyse the final FPQ items in Stage 6. Nunnally (1978) recommends this two-phase approach to test construction as sensible because of the practical advantages which it confers. By conducting item analysis in the first item trial, this produces a refined and briefer set of items which can then undergo factor analysis. Kline (1993) points out that further support for this approach lies in the fact that where the tests are unifactorial, there is a very high correlation between item analysis and factor loadings. Thus, the overall advantages of using item analysis rather than factor analysis are mainly practical. Also, in terms of resources, one of the main advantages of item analysis is that it can be used with a much smaller sample size than that required for factor analysis. Kline states that 100 subjects are generally enough for item analysis. This sample need only be representative of the population for whom the test is designed, and large enough to reduce the standard errors of the correlations to negligible proportions.

In item analysis, a pool of items is administered to a trial sample and each item is correlated with the total score (Kline, 1993). Kline explains that each item should be measuring what the test measures, hence the correlation of item and total. In a reliable scale, all items should correlate with the total (Field, 2013). Ideally, however, items should correlate poorly with each other, thus indicating that each item is adding entirely new variance. Computer software, such as SPSS, can be used to compute the correlations between each item and the total score from the questionnaire. If any of the item-total correlation values are less than 0.30, then this indicates that this particular item does not correlate very well with the scale overall, and items with such low correlations may have to be dropped from the scale (Field, 2013). Item-total correlations above 0.30 are encouraging and, on the whole, should be retained in the scale. The item-total correlations can assist in the item reduction process and, as such, they were taken into account in the item analysis phase of the current study.

Ordinarily in item selection, the dual criterion is satisfactory p value and a correlation of the total score beyond 0.30. The p value is the proportion of the sample getting the item correct, and items are rejected if they fall outside the 0.20 to 0.80 values because they are poor discriminators (Kline, 1993). However, in the current study, the p value criterion was inapplicable because it refers to tests in which there is a correct response e.g. ability tests. There were no right or wrong answers to items on the FPQ so the p value was not appropriate to use for the process of item selection.

The most important concept which was assessed during Stage 5 of item analysis was the overall reliability of the FPQ scale. Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951), a measure of internal consistency, is the most common measure of scale reliability (Field, 2013). Alpha is known as a measure of first-factor saturation (i.e. the extent to which a certain factor is present in all items), and whilst a set of items with a high alpha usually has a strong common factor, there are exceptions to this rule. Values range from 0 to 1, and higher values are generally interpreted as indicating greater reliability. There is a general consensus that Cronbach's alpha should be above 0.70 in order for a psychometric test to be considered reliable (e.g. Kline, 1993; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The importance of alphas never dropping below 0.70 is also emphasised by Guilford (1956) and Nunnally (1978). Field (2013) also recommends that the alpha value should be in the region of about 0.70 to 0.80 in order to indicate good reliability. However, in terms of obtaining high values above 0.70, Cattell (1973), has warned that high internal consistency can actually be antithetical to validity. If all items are highly consistent they must be highly correlated and this could render the test narrow in its specificity and, consequently, invalid (what Cattell, 1973, refers to as "bloated specifics"). These guidelines were all taken into consideration when conducting item analysis in the current study.

Oppenheim (1992) explains that item analysis is the procedure of "weeding out" any items that do not "belong" or that have too much error variance. It is in this way that item analysis, helps to "purify" the scale and to establish its reliability through internal consistency. After developing the initial pool of items and administering these items to a representative sample of a suitable size, the performance of the individual items then need to be assessed so that the most appropriate items can be selected for inclusion in the final scale (DeVellis, 1991).

8.2.3.2 Suitability of Data for Item Analysis

By Stage 5, the item set had been refined to include 53 items. Based on Kline's (1993) test construction guidelines and item analytic methods, this was an appropriate number of items to proceed with at this stage of the process. This was based on the following:

- 1) The number of items must not be so many that participants become bored or fatigued when giving their responses. The pilot study indicated that boredom and/or fatigue effects were not a major issue for participants.
- 2) An hour is the maximum that should be expected from an adult participant completing a questionnaire. The average time taken to complete the FPQ during the pilot study was only 15 minutes.

- 3) Ten items is the absolute minimum for a reliable scale and the general rule of thumb is the more items the higher the reliability (Kline, 1993). In Stage 5, the FPQ contained 53 items which was well above the minimum of ten.
- 4) In test construction, it is generally sensible to write twice as many items as will appear in the final test (Kline, 1993). The reason for this is that some items may fail to load or they may be unsatisfactory for some other reason. Kline actually suggests aiming for 20 items per scale except where time is highly important. The administration of a 53-item scale in Stage 5, if regarded as containing twice the number of items in the final test, indicated that the final test would consist of approximately 27 items. This generous pool of 53 items also ensured that a large number of behaviours discussed in the focus group study were tested thoroughly during the quantitative phase of analyses.

Prior to conducting item analysis, it was necessary to establish whether the data was suited to this method of test construction. The two constraints associated with item analysis relate to the representativeness of the sample and sample size. Firstly, the sample was deemed to be representative because the questionnaire was distributed to employees in the working population, and this was the population for whom the test was designed. Furthermore, the stipulation that participants have at least two years' work experience helped to maximise representativeness by ensuring an adequacy of work experience whilst not imposing any additional sanctions regarding participation. Consequently, a wide range of ages, jobs, work positions (e.g. managerial versus non-managerial), and organisation types were sampled in Stage 5. As the intention was to produce a final FPQ instrument suitable for dissemination in a diverse range of organisations, representativeness was a very important concept.

Secondly, Kline (1993) states that the absolute minimum sample size for item analysis is 100. The experts generally agree that there should be more participants than variables, although no exact participant to item ratio has been established (Osborne & Costello, 2004). Kline recommends that the participant to item ratio should be at least 3 to 1 (Kline, 1993), although a ratio of 5 to 1 is the ideal recommended by others (e.g. Gorsuch, 1974). As 1060 participants were recruited for Stage 5 of the study, a low 10% response rate was enough to provide sufficient numbers for item analytic purposes ($n=129$).

Prior to commencing data analysis using SPSS Version 19, negatively oriented items on the FPQ and the OCS were reversed. Field (2013) explains that if you have reverse-phrased items then you have to also reverse the way in which they are scored before you conduct reliability analysis.

8.2.3.3 Item Analysis and Results

In the current study, the overall reliability of the 53-item FPQ was found to be 0.95. As this alpha was well above 0.80 and firmly in the region recommended by Kline (1999), this indicated good reliability. However, this value was interpreted with some caution as a high alpha coefficient does not always mean a high degree of internal consistency because the alpha is also affected by the length of a test (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Also, as previously discussed in relation to obtaining high values above 0.70, Cattell (1973) has warned of “bloated specifics” (see section 8.2.3.1). If items are too highly correlated, this could actually be antithetical to validity. However, as the alpha of 0.95 obtained for the 53-item FPQ was within the remit of acceptable alpha values reported in the range of 0.70 to 0.95 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011), item analysis proceeded with the expectation that a reduced scale (with some similar items removed) would result in a lower alpha value in Stage 6 of analysis.

If a questionnaire is reliable, then no one item should greatly affect the overall reliability (Field, 2013). By consulting the alpha values in the table in Appendix L3, it was determined that none of the items would substantially improve reliability if deleted. This, again, indicated good scale reliability, but it meant that a more qualitative approach was required to complete item analysis. Thus, several items were removed from the 53-item FPQ following the procedure described below:

- 1) SPSS Version 19 was used to calculate the alpha coefficient of each item.
- 2) The item-total correlations were assessed for each of the 53 FPQ items.
- 3) The alpha values for each of the 53 items were carefully scrutinised. It was determined that none of the individual items would cause a substantial decrease in alpha, thus indicating good reliability of the entire scale.
- 4) The weakest items were identified for removal by:
 - a. Examining whether any of the item-total correlation values were less than 0.30. All of the items were above 0.30 so this aspect of evaluation did not assist with the item reduction process. However, it did provide an initial positive indication that the items correlated well with the overall scale.
 - b. Assessing the items whose omission had the most positive effect on the coefficient alpha. None of the alpha values were below the criterion level of 0.70 stipulated by many researchers for preliminary research (e.g. Murphy & Davidshofer, 1988; Nunnally, 1978) which was encouraging. The results also showed that any deletion of items would only negligibly increase Cronbach’s alpha by 0.001. Therefore, this assessment did not assist with the item reduction process either. The table in Appendix L3 contains the full list of alpha values (see

the “Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted” column). As the assessment of these values did not indicate which items should be removed, the steps outlined in c) were taken to complete the process of item analysis.

- c. Re-pairing positive and negative items designed to measure the same FP behaviour (i.e. items very similar in content) and eliminating the weaker item in each pair based upon qualitative assessment. By carrying out this exercise, 26 items were removed from the FPQ (see Appendix L4). This resulted in a 27-item scale consisting of 19 positive statements and eight negative statements (see Appendix L5).

5. After retaining one item from each positive and negative pairing, the researcher examined the remaining 27 items. Aided by knowledge of conceptual data from the qualitative study, further items were deleted based on the following criteria:

- a. Items that were repeated.
- b. Items that were relatively unclear.
- c. Items that were too long.

As a result of this analyses, a further seven items were removed from the FPQ (see Appendix L6).

6. A final assessment of the items resulted in a few further changes to the item set. An additional item was added by combining two items which had been removed in step 5 of item analysis (see Table 8.3). Finally, one item was re-worded to lessen social desirability effects (see Table 8.4).

Table 8.3 List of Items Added after Item Analysis

Item No.	Concept	Items Added	Item No.	Reason for Addition
19	Work Friendships	It is more important for one's career to build a friendly image than it is to focus on actual job performance.	This new item was added as a merged version of the two below deleted items.	
			13	It is more important for one's career to become friends with everyone in the workplace than it is to focus on actual job performance.
			35	It is easier to progress in the workplace by building a friendly image rather than improving actual job performance.

Item numbers in the left-hand column refer to the 21-item list in Appendix L7-a. Item numbers in the right-hand column refer to the 53-item list in Appendix J7-a.

Table 8.4 List of Amended Items after Item Analysis

Item No.	Original Wording	Item No.	Amended Wording	Reason for Change
36	You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.	10	It is possible to use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.	Altered slightly to improve the wording. "It is possible..." was deemed to be less extreme in wording than "You can..."

Item numbers in the left-hand column refer to the 53-item list in Appendix J7-a, and item numbers in the right-hand column refer to the 21-item list in Appendix L7-a.

After the removal of 33 items and the addition of one item, reliability analysis was run once more in order to ensure that the reduced version of the FPQ still demonstrated good reliability. As two items from the original 53-item FPQ had been merged (see Table 8.3) and included in the 21-item FPQ, both items (i.e. items 13 and 35) had to be included in the reliability analysis, hence reliability is reported for a 22-item FPQ. The overall reliability of the 22-item FPQ was found to be 0.90. Again, this alpha was well above 0.80 and firmly in the region recommended by Kline (1999), thus indicating very good reliability. In addition, this alpha value was not as high as the 0.95 alpha obtained for the 53-item FPQ, suggesting that some redundant items had been removed. The alpha value for each individual item was also calculated, and the deletion of any one item would not have substantially improved the overall alpha value (see Appendix L8 for the 22-item FPQ alpha values). Only the removal of one item would have improved the overall alpha by 0.001. This confirmed that no further removal of items from the 21-item FPQ was necessary. These results were encouraging as they suggested that the 21-item FPQ had good scale reliability. Table 8.5 presents an overview of the final items resulting from Stage 5 of item refinement.

Table 8.5 Overview of FP Concepts and Item Numbers after Item Analysis

Perceptions of FP in the Workplace			
Subcategory No.	Concept	Example Item	No. of Items
1	Claiming Credit for Others' Work	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.	1
2	Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.	2
3	Shifting the Blame	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.	1
4	Work Friendships	It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.	3
5	Words/Language	It is possible to use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.	1
6	Varied FP Behaviours	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.	7
Total			15
FP in the Interview			
Subcategory No.	Concept	Example Item	No. of Items
1	Lying about Qualifications	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.	2
2	Over-Talking as a Smoke-Screen	In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.	2
3	Claiming Credit for Others' Work	In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.	2
Total			6
Final Total No. of Items			21

Correlations

Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) was computed for both the 53-item FPQ and the nine-item OCS. Both scales demonstrated good reliability >0.70 . The 53-item FPQ indicated high reliability at this stage of scale development ($\alpha=0.95$). The nine-item OCS was also found to demonstrate good overall reliability ($\alpha=0.76$).

The means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations between the FPQ and OCS are displayed in Table 8.6. The correlation between the 53-item FPQ and the nine-item OCS was 0.62 ($r=0.62$, $p<0.01$). This significant correlation lends credence to Hypothesis 2 which proposed a positive and significant relationship between the FPQ and the OCS. This finding also provides evidence for the construct validity of the new FPQ scale.

Subsequently, by using this process of item analytic refinement, the 21-item FPQ was developed for distribution in Stage 6. The 21-item FPQ can be found in Appendix L7 (L7-a displays the items in list order and L7-b presents the items as sorted by category).

Table 8.6 Means, Standard Deviations (SD), and Intercorrelations between the FPQ and the OCS (n=129)

	Mean	SD	Total - OCS Items (9 items)	Total - FPQ Items (53 items)
Total - OCS Items (9 items)	3.5926	1.01106	1	.620**
Total - FPQ Items (53 items)	1.9722	.79979	.620**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

8.3 Stage 6: Construction of Final FPQ Items Using a Factor Analytic Approach on a Larger Sample

The final stage of developing the FPQ involved using a factor analytic approach to further refine the 21-item FPQ. This stage of analysis involved assessing the validity of the instrument, as well as the correlations between the FPQ and related constructs.

8.3.1 Method

8.3.1.1 Procedure and Sample

The second phase of FPQ distribution was conducted in a further four public sector organisations and it entailed mixed-mode administration of the questionnaire. This is because one of the organisations explained that their employees were not contactable via e-

mail and, therefore, it was not possible to administer the questionnaire electronically. However, they instead offered to facilitate access to approximately 1000 employees by post. As the Data Protection Act (DPA) prevented the organisation from supplying their employees' addresses to the researcher, the researcher supplied the organisation with 1000 questionnaires sealed in stamped C5 envelopes, and these were privately addressed and posted by the organisation. In order to maximise the response rate, the questionnaires included a stamped, self-addressed envelope for the return of the survey to the researcher at Worcester Business School.

As the three other organisations involved in Stage 6 of the study were able to accommodate the electronic distribution of the FPQ (as in Stage 5), the FPQ was again constructed using SurveyMonkey®. This also meant that the online questionnaire could be easily converted into a PDF file for postal purposes. By using SurveyMonkey® to create both the online and postal version of the questionnaire, this made both forms of the questionnaire easily comparable, which was especially important in terms of data entry. For instance, when completed postal questionnaires were returned to Worcester Business School, they were manually entered into SurveyMonkey® by the researcher. For each questionnaire received, the researcher accessed the online version of the questionnaire and entered the entire set of responses as if they themselves were the participant keying in their individual answers.

As the second administration of the questionnaire required a larger sample, it was particularly important to maximise the response rate. The additional costs of postal distribution (printing, stamps, stationary supplies, and labour) made it even more imperative that a good return rate was achieved. In order to increase the response rate, participants were advised that if they completed the questionnaire, they were eligible for entry into a free prize draw for 3 x Marks and Spencer gift vouchers. The prizes offered were as follows: 1st prize=£20.00, 2nd prize=£15.00 and 3rd prize=£10.00. Participants were instructed to supply their details on the final page if they wished to be entered into the draw. Clearly, these participants waived their anonymity by entering the draw, but they were advised that their questionnaire responses would remain confidential and that their personal information would not be used to identify the responses which they had provided.

Bell (1999) explains that the two major disadvantages of postal surveys are that they are expensive to administer and response rates are generally low. Both of these drawbacks were taken into account when planning the second phase of distribution, hence incentives being offered to participants. However, despite efforts to maximise the response rate, there were still difficulties in obtaining a sufficient number of questionnaire returns. The postal

distribution of questionnaires only yielded an approximate 10% response rate by the closing date, and it was not possible to issue postal reminders in order to increase this number. Punch (2003) explains that response rates in the 30-40% range or less are not uncommon when using postal distribution as the data collection strategy.

In the end, the FPQ was distributed to approximately 1350 employees in four public sector organisations. As in Stage 5, the researcher again developed links with a key member of personnel in each organisation (i.e. Head of Service; Business Officer; Programme/Business Manager; and Head of Resources Directorate). In the three organisations where the FPQ was distributed electronically, an e-mail invite was circulated to employees with a weblink to the SurveyMonkey® questionnaire (see Appendix M1). The only prerequisite for participation was that respondents had at least two years' total work experience. Again, e-mail reminders were issued in each organisation, but this time a one month deadline was provided for the completion of questionnaires in order to help maximise the response rate.

At the conclusion of Stage 6, a total of 219 responses had been received. Table 8.7 presents the demographics of the participants. There are some missing values contained in Table 8.7 and, therefore, values in these categories may not add up to the total of 219. Figure 8.6 presents a comparison of age and gender of participants, and Figure 8.7 presents a comparison of the work position and gender of participants. Figure 8.8 shows a comparison of total years' work experience and gender.

Table 8.7 Stage 6: Demographics of Larger Sample (n=219)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	34	15.5
Female	180	82.2
Missing	5	2.3
Age		
18-25 years	17	7.8
26-35 years	35	16
36-45 years	45	20.5
46-55 years	67	30.6
56+ years	50	22.8
Missing	5	2.3
Work Position		
Managerial Level	48	21.9
Non-Managerial Level	166	75.8
Missing	5	2.3

Figure 8.6 Stage 6: Comparison of Age and Gender of Participants

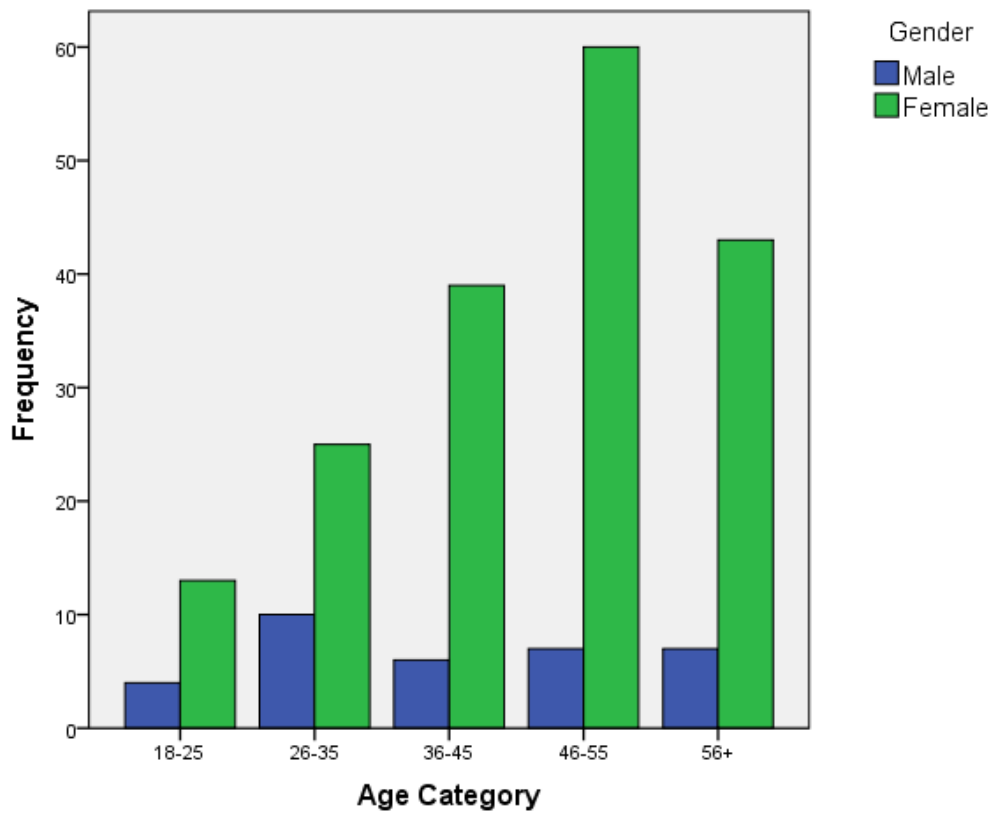


Figure 8.7 Stage 6: Comparison of Work Position and Gender of Participants

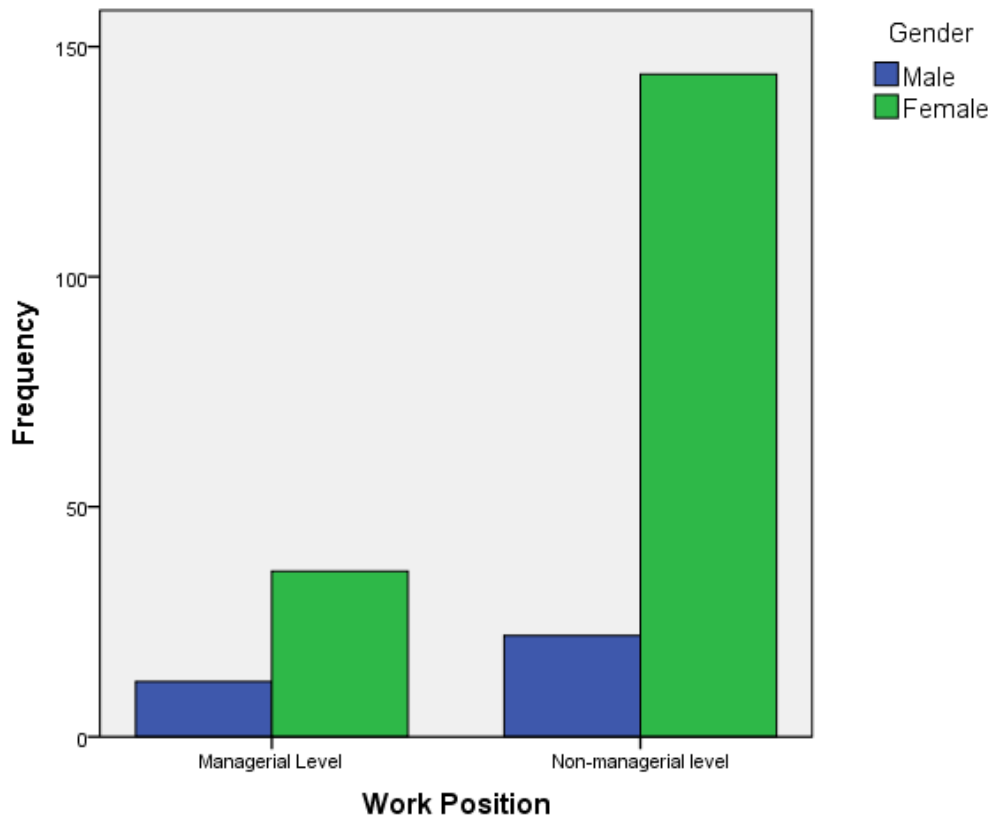
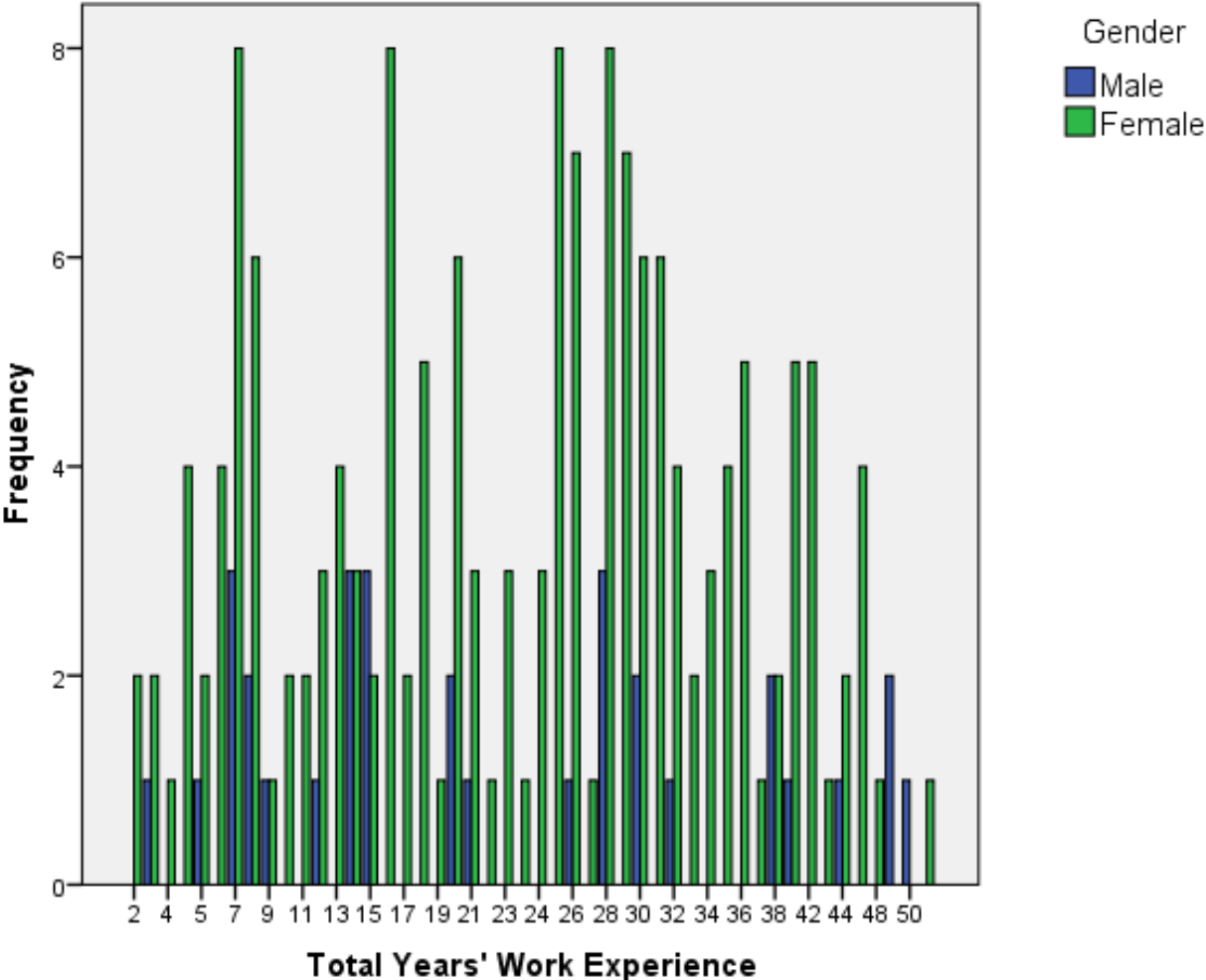


Figure 8.8 Stage 6: Comparison of Work Experience and Gender of Participants (n=195)*



*n=195 as data was missing for 24 participants who did not provide details of their total years' work experience.

8.3.1.2 Measure

Construction of the Questionnaire

In constructing the questionnaire in Stage 6, the total number of items (i.e. 57 items) was judged to be an appropriate number following consultation with the organisation hosting the postal questionnaire. This organisation expressed concern that any more items than this could result in fatigue effects which would lower the response rate. They predicted that a 57-item questionnaire would yield a satisfactory 15-20% response rate. As this organisation offered access to the largest sample in the study, their feedback was taken on board, and the questionnaire was designed with this guidance in mind.

As a result of having to restrict the number of items in order to reduce fatigue effects, not all phenomena studied in the qualitative phase were included in the quantitative study. For instance, the variable of trust, which was previously investigated in the focus group study, was not included in the FPQ because: 1) Trust is not a measure of FP per se; 2) The qualitative results indicated that there may not be a significant relationship between trust and FP; and 3) The qualitative study provided a sufficient insight into the relationship between FP and trust to justify omitting further study of trust from the quantitative phase of research.

Electronic Version

In Stage 6, the electronic version of the questionnaire was circulated in three public sector organisations. The first page of the 12-page questionnaire welcomed participants to this “Questionnaire about Workplace Behaviour” (see Appendix M2 for the welcome page, including introduction and instructions).

As in Stage 5, the second page of the questionnaire was used to disqualify participants without the required two years’ total work experience. Participants with the necessary work experience progressed to page three where they were asked, “How many TOTAL years’ work experience do you have (counting from your first paid employment)?” This question was included as a way of gauging the collective bank of work experience which informed the overall results obtained in Stage 6. The minimum total years’ work experience reported by participants was two years and the maximum was 51 years (mean total years’ work experience of 23 years, standard deviation (SD) of 12.5 years). The total years’ work experience is visually displayed in Figure 8.8.

On page four, participants were asked demographic details about their work position, gender, and age. The next six pages of the questionnaire, pages 5-10, presented the main questionnaire items. The questionnaire contained a total of 57 items. The 21-item FPQ developed in Stage 5 (see Appendix L7) was mixed with the nine-item OCS (see Appendix K1). These combined items were presented with the anchor set shown in Figure 8.1 and they appeared on pages five to seven. The 24-item IM scale (see Appendix K2) was administered on pages eight and nine with the seven-point anchor set displayed in Figure 8.2. Finally, the three-item job performance scale (see Appendix K3) appeared on page 10 with a 10-item response scale (see Figure 8.3).

In the electronic version of the questionnaire, the questions were carefully formatted so that only a maximum of 12 questions appeared on each online page, thus preventing excessive scrolling down the screen (see Appendix M3 for a screenshot of the SurveyMonkey® questionnaire).

On page 11, participants were given the opportunity to enter the free prize draw for the Marks and Spencer gift vouchers. The final “PhD Research Project Summary” page (page 12) informed participants that the research aim was to develop an understanding of false performers, and they were offered the opportunity to withdraw from the study (see section 8.2.2.3 for a more detailed summary of the final page).

Postal Version

As explained previously, SurveyMonkey® was used to generate the paper-based questionnaire for postal distribution. The questionnaire items included were the same as those presented in the electronic version of the questionnaire. The introduction of the postal version requested that participants: “Please FULLY complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the enclosed pre-paid envelope.”

The final page thanked participants for their co-operation and asked for any additional comments. Participants were also invited to enter into the draw by providing their name, address, telephone number, and e-mail address. Overall, in response to both versions of the questionnaire, a total of 115 respondents provided their details in order to enter the prize draw, so the incentive clearly worked as a way of increasing the response rate.

8.3.2 Analysis & Results

8.3.2.1 Introduction to Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is used extensively in the development and evaluation of tests and scales (Pallant, 2005). This technique was adopted in the current study in the final stage of refining the FPQ items. Factor analysis is an analytic statistical technique used to uncover the primary underlying dimensions (i.e. factors) of a set of variables, attributes, responses, or observations (Oppenheim, 1992). At the beginning of scale development, there is a large pool of items and, by using factor analysis; these items can be refined to a smaller, more manageable number of related subscales.

There are two approaches to factor analysis: exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis is commonly used in the early stages of research, and it basically gathers information about (i.e. explores) the interrelationships among variables in order to simplify a large set of data (Pallant, 2005). In confirmatory factor analysis, a more complex and sophisticated set of techniques are generally used later in the research process to test (i.e. confirm) specific hypotheses or theories relating to the structure underlying a set of variables (Pallant, 2005). In the current study, both exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were used to analyse the data resulting from the second phase of questionnaire distribution.

For exploratory factor analysis, there are two distinct techniques which can be used to identify the underlying dimensions of a data set. These are principal components analysis (PCA) and factor analysis (FA). These approaches are very similar in the results they produce and they are often used interchangeably. In the case of PCA, the original variables are transformed into a smaller set of linear combinations, with all of the variance in the variables being used (Pallant, 2005). With FA, factors are estimated using a mathematical model, where only the shared variance is analysed (Pallant, 2005). Stevens (1996) explains that the advantage of PCA is that it is a psychometrically sound procedure, simpler mathematically, relatively speaking than FA, and it avoids certain issues of “factor indeterminacy” associated with common FA. Taking these advantages into consideration, PCA was the technique applied in the current study.

8.3.2.2 Suitability of Data for Factor Analysis

Prior to conducting PCA, it was necessary to establish whether the data was suitable for factor analysis. The two main issues taken into account when assessing this were sample size and the strength of the relationship between the items (Pallant, 2005). There are different guidelines as to what size the sample should be for factor analysis, but the general rule is to aim for a larger sample. For instance, an issue in small samples is that the correlation coefficients among the variables are less reliable, varying from sample to sample (Pallant, 2005). It appears that factors obtained from smaller samples do not tend to generalise as well as those derived from larger samples. In terms of the ideal sample size, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggest "it is comforting to have at least 300 cases for factor analysis" (p. 588). However, they add that a smaller sample size (e.g. 150 cases) should be sufficient if solutions have several high loading marker variables (above 0.80). Kline (1993) explains that the sample must be large enough to reduce the standard error of the correlations to negligible proportions. To do this, the sample should be about 200, but the absolute minimum would be 100. Stevens (1996) has commented that the sample size requirements have been reducing as more research has been conducted on this topic.

Another argument states that it is the ratio of participants to items which is of more importance than actual sample size. For example, Nunnally (1978) recommends a 10 to 1 ratio for exploratory factor analysis i.e. 10 cases for each item to be factor analysed. Whereas Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggest that a 5 to 1 ratio is adequate. However, Kline (1993) has demonstrated that a ratio of 2 to 1 can be tolerated when factors are clear, yet suggests aiming for a ratio of at least 3 to 1. The FPQ consisted of 21 items at this stage of analysis and, based on Tabachnick and Fidell's 5 to 1 ratio recommendation, the sample size aimed for should have been at least 105. As the eventual sample size was 219, this satisfied the ratio requirements stipulated by Tabachnick and Fidell. It also met Kline's criterion that the sample size be about 200 in order to reduce the standard error of the correlations to negligible proportions.

The second criterion which is used to assess the suitability of data for factor analysis concerns the strength of the inter-correlations among the items (Pallant, 2005). Tabachnick and Fidell, (2001) recommend checking the correlation matrix for coefficients greater than 0.30. In the current study, inspection of the correlation matrix

revealed many coefficients of 0.30 (61) and above. SPSS also generates two statistical measures which help with assessing the factorability of the data: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1970, 1974), and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954). The KMO index ranges between 0 and 1, with 0.60 suggested as the minimum value for a good factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The closer the value is to 1, the stronger the indication that patterns of correlations are relatively compact and that factor analysis should yield distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2013). As the value in the current study emerged as 0.82, this verified the sampling adequacy for factor analysis. The second measure, Bartlett's test of sphericity, should be significant ($p < 0.05$) for the factor analysis to be considered appropriate (Pallant, 2005). The data set analysed in Stage 6 of the current study was found to be significant when subjected to Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p = 0.00$), thus supporting the suitability of data for factor analysis.

Factor Rotation

Factor rotation presents the pattern of loadings in a way which helps the researcher to interpret the structure of the factors (Pallant, 2005). There are two main approaches to rotation, these being either orthogonal (uncorrelated) or oblique (correlated) factor solutions. The main advantage of the orthogonal approach is that it results in solutions that are easier to interpret, describe and report, although it does require the assumption that the underlying constructs are independent, not correlated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In contrast, oblique rotation is more complex as it allows correlation between factors (Field, 2013). In the current study, given the advantages of the orthogonal approach, factors were rotated orthogonally using the varimax rotational technique. Varimax attempts to maximise the dispersion of loadings within factors by trying to load a smaller number of variables highly on each factor, which results in more interpretable clusters of factors (Field, 2013).

Missing Values

Missing data can have a dramatic effect on results so it is important to consider how to deal with missing values (Pallant, 2005). There are various ways in which missing data can be dealt with i.e. list-wise deletion, pair-wise deletion, and replacement by mean. In the present study, listwise deletion was selected using SPSS, which meant that any participant with missing data for any variable was excluded. This option was selected in preference to the other methods because pair-wise deletion can cause disorderly

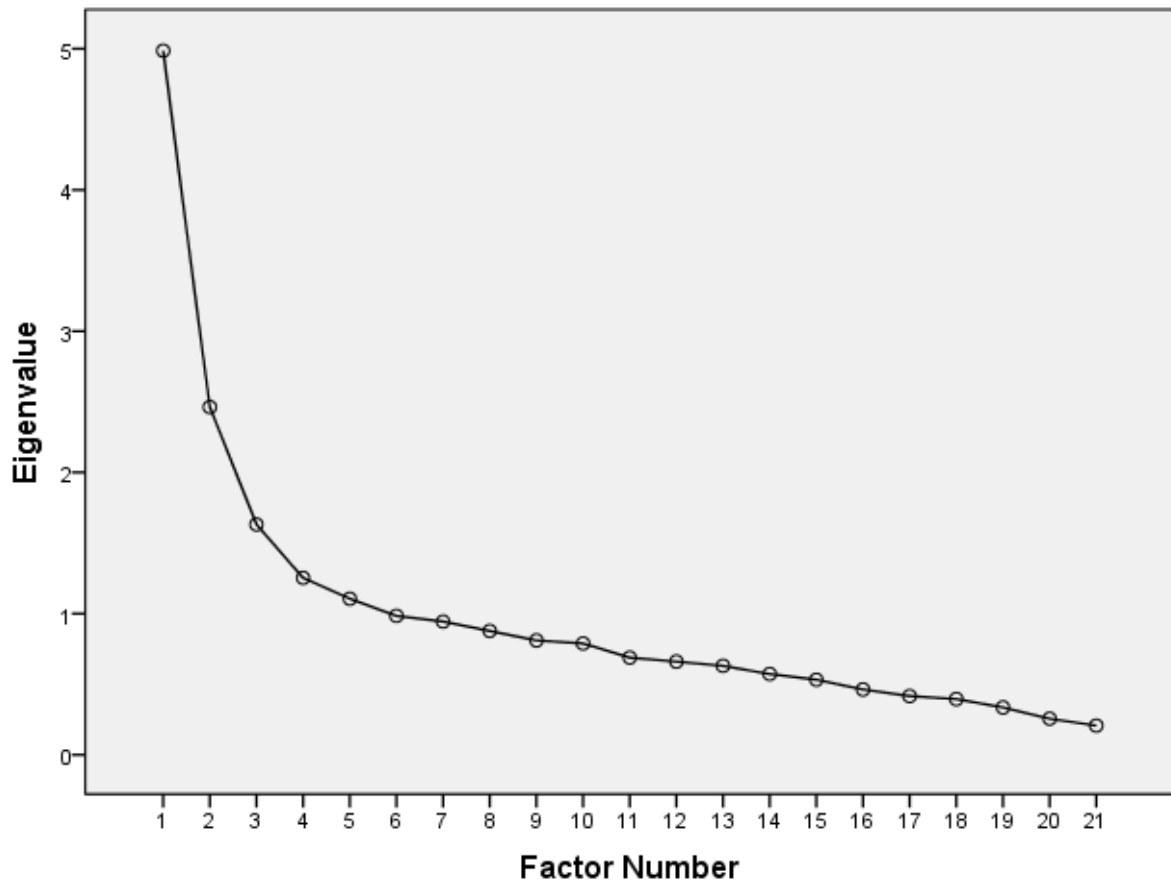
estimates (Field, 2013), and replacing every missing case with the variable mean can severely distort the results of analysis (Pallant, 2005).

8.3.2.3 Factor Analysis and Results

Factor analysis was employed as a data reduction tool, as well as a means to understand the underlying structure of the variables and establish a further level of construct validity. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) explain that “selection of the number of factors is probably more critical than selection of extraction and rotational techniques or communality values” (p. 620). Factor analysis is the process of retaining large eigenvalues which represent a meaningful factor (Field, 2013). One of the most commonly used techniques is rotating factors with eigenvalues greater than one (Pallant, 2005). In the current study, the use of this method showed that there were five components with eigenvalues greater than one. Tabachnick and Fidell explain that the number of components with eigenvalues greater than one is usually somewhere between the number of variables divided by three and the number of variables divided by five. For example, they explain that 20 variables should produce between seven and four components with eigenvalues greater than one. As the 21 items in the present study produced five components with eigenvalues greater than one, this was within the range suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell.

An alternative method of assessing the number of factors to extract is the scree test, which involves graphing the eigenvalues on a scree plot and inspecting the points of inflexion (where the slope of the line changes dramatically) to help identify the number of factors for rotation (Field, 2013). However, the scree test is not exact because the researcher must subjectively judge where the discontinuity in eigenvalues occurs (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). This may account for why Zwick and Velicer (1986) found the scree test to be correct only 57% of the time. In the current study, the distribution of eigenvalues on the scree plot appeared to suggest that three factors should be extracted (see Figure 8.9). However, the loading of items on the three-factor solution did not produce a clearly identifiable factor structure. Therefore, in line with the recommendations of Tabachnick and Fidell, several factor analyses were performed, each time specifying a different number of factors, repeating the scree test, and examining the residual correlation matrix. The three-factor, four-factor, and five-factor solutions were then compared.

Figure 8.9 Scree Plot: Stage 6 Factor Analysis



The five-factor solution was selected because: 1) The initial principal components extraction produced five factors with eigenvalues greater than one; 2) This solution offered the most clear factor structure; and 3) It accounted for more common variance (i.e. 54.5% instead of 49.2% or 43.2%). Table 8.8 displays the total variance explained by each factor. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) explain that “the more factors extracted, the better the fit and the greater the percent of ‘variance’ in the data explained by the factor solution” (p. 620). The five-factor solution chosen in the current study provided the most diversified information on the underlying structure of the FPQ. Ultimately, the researcher was satisfied that enough factors had been retained for an adequate fit, but not so many that parsimony had been lost. Furthermore, the five-factor solution was within two factors of the three factors suggested by the scree test and this is consistent with Tabachnick and Fidell’s guidance that the scree test is usually accurate within one or two factors.

Table 8.8 Total Variance Explained by Factors

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.986	23.745	23.745	4.986	23.745	23.745
2	2.463	11.727	35.472	2.463	11.727	35.472
3	1.632	7.769	43.241	1.632	7.769	43.241
4	1.253	5.967	49.209	1.253	5.967	49.209
5	1.106	5.266	54.474	1.106	5.266	54.474

Extraction Method: Principal Components Analysis.

Principal Components Analysis

An exploratory PCA with varimax rotation was performed on the 21-item FPQ using SPSS Version 21. The PCA yielded five factors, thus demonstrating that FP is a multidimensional construct and that the FPQ is a multidimensional scale rather than a unifactorial test. The five factors extracted underpin the 21-item FPQ. Table 8.9 presents the loadings of the items on the respective factors. Factors 1 and 2 had four loadings of above 0.60 which was a good indication of their reliability (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). According to Guadagnoli and Velicer, factors with four or more loadings over 0.60 are reliable, regardless of sample size. The next stage of analysis required qualitative interpretation of the items and factors in order to provide each factor with an appropriate label to describe what it was measuring. The results from the qualitative study assisted with the labelling and description of the five factors. Factor descriptions are presented in Table 8.10.

Table 8.9 Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for the FPQ (n=219)

	Item	Factor				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.	.871				
2	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.	.861				
3	Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.	.782				
4	A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.	.769				
5	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.	.576				
6	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.	.479				
7	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.		.761			
8	It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.		.748			
9	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.		.686			
10	It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.		.611			

Table 8.9 Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results...Contd.

11	It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.		.560			
12	It is more important for one's career to build a friendly image than it is to focus on actual job performance.		.517			
13	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.			.751		
14	It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.			.735		
15	Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.			.568		
16	It is possible to use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.				.674	
17	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.				.563	
18	In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.				.493	
19	You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.					.659
20	In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.					.492
21	In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.					-.469

Extraction Method: Principal Components Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 14 iterations.

Table 8.10 FPQ Factor Descriptions

Factor	Description
1. Authentic Work Relationships	This factor describes some of the actions the false performer would need to avoid in order to improve authenticity in their work relationships. For example, if behaving authentically, they would NOT belittle their colleagues to make themselves look better, claim credit for others' work (generally and in performance appraisals), use their sexuality to compensate for ability, pass the blame, and/or over-delegate work to colleagues. Example items are, "It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others" and "Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace."
2. Job Avoidance	This factor describes what the false performer does instead of actually doing their job. Each of these avoidant actions also helps the false performer to maintain an appearance of competence. For instance, they might befriend their supervisor, "work" long hours, claim illness or injury, acquire superficial qualifications, befriend influential co-workers, and/or build a friendly image. Example items include, "It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done" and "It is more important for one's career to build a friendly image than it is to focus on actual job performance."
3. Masking Incompetency	A description of what the false performer does in order to compensate for their lack of competency. They are aware of their shortcomings so they take preventative actions to avoid being detected. This includes over-delegating work to colleagues or subordinates, taking time off work, and flirting with colleagues. An example item is, "Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role."
4. Linguistic Skills	This factor describes the way in which the false performer skilfully uses language to give the impression that they are more competent than they really are. They may use impressive language when their supervisor is present, lie about qualifications in the context of the job interview, and/or embellish/exaggerate qualifications in the job interview. An example item is, "In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications."
5. Front Stage FP	This factor describes a combination of behaviours which the false performer might or might not engage in within the context of the job interview or the performance appraisal interview i.e. on the front stage. In these formal contexts, the false performer may use FP to create a positive impression in order to obtain a job, maintain their current position, or secure a promotion. For example, they may emphasise past achievements or claim credit for others' work. A positive example item is, "In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance." A negative example item is, "In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work."

Reliability Analysis

When using factor analysis to examine the factor structure of a questionnaire, a reliability analysis should be conducted at the end in order to explore the reliability of the sub-scales (factors) individually (Field, 2013). In the current study, reliability analysis was run for the five sub-scales extracted from the 21-item FPQ, and the results are displayed in Appendices N1-N5. A summary of item numbers and Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) for each sub-scale is presented in Table 8.11.

Table 8.11 Reliability Analysis of the Five Factors Extracted from Factor Analysis

Factor Number	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha (n=219)
1	6	.814
2	6	.746
3	3	.532
4	3	.411
5	3	.250

The alpha values for factors 1 and 2 were in the recommended region of 0.70 to 0.80 (e.g. Kline, 1993), and thus indicated good reliability (see Table 8.11). The item-total correlations for factors 1 and 2 were all above 0.30 which was also encouraging (see Appendices N1 and N2). However, reliability analysis revealed that three of the sub-scales (factors 3, 4, and 5) had alphas below the recommended value of 0.70. The alpha for subscale 3 was 0.53; for sub-scale 4 was 0.41; and for sub-scale 5 was 0.25.

Therefore, although the overall reliability of the 21-item FPQ was good ($\alpha=0.78$), the lower alphas of sub-scales 3, 4, and 5 indicated questionable internal consistency. Consequently, another factor analysis was conducted, this time specifying a two-factor solution for examination. In order to more thoroughly examine the psychometric properties of the FPQ, the sample of 219 was randomly split in two to enable separate exploratory and confirmatory analyses. SPSS's software divided the sample into groups of relatively similar size (EFA=115 and CFA=114). Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p=0.00$) and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.80, indicating that the data was suitable for factor analysis. For this second factor analysis, an exploratory PCA with oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was performed on the 21-item FPQ. As there were theoretical grounds for supposing that the factors might correlate, oblique rotation was selected in preference to orthogonal rotation as it imposes fewer constraints at the early stage of scale development and it is particularly appropriate when the a priori theory indicates that factors are likely correlated (Ferris et al., 2005).

Table 8.12 presents the loadings of the items on the respective factors (loadings of more than 0.4 were considered significant). These two factors explained a total of 43.2% of the variance (with factor 1 and factor 2 explaining 28.7% and 14.5% respectively).

Table 8.12 Summary of Two-Factor Analysis Results for the FPQ (n=115)

	Item	Factor	
		1	2
1	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.	.898	
2	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.	.881	
3	Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.	.905	
4	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.	.793	
5	A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.	.548	
6	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.	.535	
7	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.		.537
8	It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.		.474
9	It is possible to use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.		.467
10	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.		.539
11	In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.		.627
12	It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.		.477
13	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.		.489
14	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.		.623
15	It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.		.510
16	In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.		.525

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Reliability Analysis of the Two-Factor Solution

The factor correlation matrix indicated that the factors (i.e. the subscales) were interrelated, thus suggesting that the oblique rotation was justified and that the obliquely rotated solution was likely a better representation of reality than would have been an orthogonally rotated solution. Based on qualitative analysis of the items and factors, factor 1 was labelled “Authentic Work Relationships” and factor 2 was labelled “Masking Incompetency” to describe what each factor was measuring. Following two-factor analysis, table 8.12 shows that 16 items loaded on factors 1 and 2 (six on factor 1 i.e. “Authentic Work Relationships” and ten on factor 2 i.e. “Masking Incompetency”). As factor 1 was found to contain six items originally labelled “Authentic Work Relationships” following the first factor analysis, this factor label was retained (see Table 8.10 for a factor label description). Factor 2 was found to contain a combination of items originally labelled “Masking Incompetency” (two items), “Linguistic Skills” (three items), “Job Avoidance” (four items), and “Front Stage FP” (one item). The label of “Masking Incompetency” was selected as the most appropriate for describing the combined items comprising factor 2 as all items in this factor relate to behaviours employed to disguise (i.e. mask) incompetence in the workplace so as to avoid detection by others. Table 8.12 shows that these are two well-defined factors, with each of the items loading on just one factor. Table 8.13 lists the five FPQ items which were eliminated following two-factor analysis.

Table 8.13 List of Items Eliminated after Two-Factor Analysis

Item	Items Removed
1	Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.
2	It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.
3	You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.
4	It is more important for one’s career to build a friendly image than it is to focus on actual job performance.
5	In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else’s work.

The overall reliability of the 16-item FPQ was found to be 0.76, thus indicating good reliability in the recommended region of 0.70 to 0.80 (Kline, 1999). In Stage 5, the alpha for the 53-item FPQ was found to be 0.95, a value which suggested that some of the items may have been redundant. The process of further refining the FPQ and

removing 37 items appeared to eliminate these redundant items and resulted in a lower alpha value ($\alpha=0.76$). This value was not so high as to signal the problem of “bloated specifics” associated with high alphas (see section 8.2.3.3). Reliability analysis was also run for the two sub-scales comprising the 16-item FPQ, and a summary of item numbers and Cronbach’s alpha (Cronbach, 1951) for each sub-scale is presented in Table 8.14.

Table 8.14 Reliability Analysis of the Two-Factor Solution

Factor Number	Factor Label	No. of Items	Cronbach’s Alpha (n=219)	Cronbach’s Alpha (n=115)
1	Authentic Work Relationships	10	.814	.837
2	Masking Incompetency	6	.693	.691

As the two-factor analysis produced a 16-item solution with two subscales which were found to have good reliability, the 16-item FPQ was retained. In future studies, the 16-item FPQ should be administered in precisely the order that it is presented in Table 8.15. This is because the items have been arranged so that the more sensitive questions appear later in the scale as recommended by Bell (1999). This may encourage a higher response rate as participants are more likely to answer a questionnaire which begins with less sensitive questions. Also, in the item order displayed in Table 8.15, positive and negative items have been intermixed to avoid the positive and negative items being separately chunked together, which can give rise to the response set of acquiescence.

Table 8.15 Final 16-Item FPQ

Item No.	Item Wording
1	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.
2	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.
3	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.
4	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.
5	A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
6	Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.
7	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.
8	It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.
9	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.
10	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.
11	It is possible to use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.
12	It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.
13	In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.
14	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
15	In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.
16	It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is “a statistical technique used to verify the factor structure of a set of observed variables. CFA allows the researcher to test the hypothesis that a relationship between observed variables and their underlying latent constructs exists. The researcher uses knowledge of the theory, empirical research, or both, postulates the relationship pattern a priori and then tests the hypothesis statistically” (Suhr, 2006). Whilst exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is most appropriate in the early stages of developing a model, CFA serves as a more powerful tool in the later stages of research once a model has been established (Floyd & Widaman, 1995). Fabrigar and Wegener (2014) explain that it often makes sense to use both EFA and CFA within the same research study as an initial EFA can be used as a basis for later specification of CFA models. They further explain that, when taking this approach, the sample can be split and an EFA conducted on half of the sample and a CFA conducted on the other half. In the current study, this was the procedure adopted, with the total sample of 219 participants being split into two. Forcing a two-factor solution, EFA was performed on the first split-half sample ($n=115$) to identify the factor structure of the FPQ, and CFA was conducted on the remaining half to assess the model fit for the two-factor model ($n=114$). IBM® SPSS® AMOS 22 (IBM SPSS Amos 22, 2013) was used to conduct a robust maximum likelihood CFA on the 16 FPQ items resulting from the initial EFA. See Figure 8.10 for the resulting factor model of FP behaviours.

The two-factor model established by the initial EFA was tested and in order to assess the fit of the two-factor model to the observed data, several measures were used (see Appendix O for the model fit summary which reports all measures). Although the goodness-of-fit chi-square (χ^2) is commonly reported in the evaluation of model fit, the χ^2 statistic was not used in the current study because it is highly sensitive to sample size and, thus, it is considered an over-stringent criterion (Bentler, 1995). Instead, several alternative goodness-of-fit indices have been developed to help adjust for the effect of sample size. As generally recommended (e.g. Kline, 2010; Lei & Wu, 2007), several indices were considered when assessing the overall model fit in the current study. Following Marsh, Balla, and Hau (1996; see also Marsh, 2007; Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988; Marsh, Hau, & Wen, 2004), the sample size independent fit indices of the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI; Tucker & Lewis, 1973), the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1989, 1990), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger & Lind, 1980) were consulted.

The TLI is an incremental fit index which measures the relative improvement in fit by comparing a target model with a baseline model, taking degrees of freedom into account. The TLI has a range between 0 and 1, with values greater than 0.90 indicating a good fit. The CFI is another incremental fit index which analyses the model fit by examining the discrepancy between the data and the hypothesised model while adjusting for issues of sample size. The CFI has a range between 0 and 1, with values greater than 0.95 indicating a good fit and values greater than 0.90 indicating an acceptable fit (Medsker, Williams, & Holahan, 1994). The RMSEA is an absolute fit index which measures the discrepancy between the model and the data per degree of freedom. For the RMSEA, values which are below 0.05 constitute a good fit, values in the 0.05 to 0.08 range an acceptable fit, values in the 0.08 to 0.10 a marginal fit, and values greater than 0.10 a poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1992). The CFA results showed that the two-factor model produced a good fit to the data, TLI=0.95, CFI=0.96, and RMSEA=0.05. The result was not surprising as two exploratory factor analyses had been conducted to screen out problem items and create a satisfactory factor solution.

Figure 8.10 Factor Model of False Performance Behaviours

Correlations and Regression Analyses: The Relationship among the FPQ, FPQ Subscales, OCS, IM Scale and Job Performance Scale

In order to examine the internal consistency of the scales in the current study, Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) was computed for the four scales included in the *Questionnaire about Work Behaviour* (distributed in Stage 6) i.e. the FPQ, OCS, IM scale, and job performance scale.

The FPQ and OCS

The alpha for the 16-item FPQ was found to be 0.76. This confirmed that the item analysis and item reduction, conducted in section 8.2.3.3, produced a scale which demonstrated good reliability >0.70 . In contrast, the nine-item OCS was found to demonstrate a much lower and less reliable alpha value ($\alpha=0.55$). This finding indicates that the current study has generated a more robust measure of FP with higher reliability, thus, achieving the overall objective of developing a new comprehensive measure of FP.

Other Scales

The alpha value for the 24-item IM scale emerged as 0.86, thus indicating very good reliability. The three-item job performance scale also demonstrated very good reliability ($\alpha=0.87$). These alphas are consistent with the reported reliability of each scale from their original source (see section 8.2.1.1).

Correlations and Regression Analyses

Construct validity of the FPQ was examined by addressing the proposed relationships between the FPQ, FPQ subscales, OCS, IM scale, and job performance scale. Means, standard deviations and intercorrelations among the scales are presented in Table 8.16. The correlations between the scales will be discussed in the following section in relation to the five hypotheses presented earlier (see section 7.1.4). Regression analyses were also performed to test hypotheses 1, 2, and 4. The predictive powers of the OCS, IM scale, and job performance scale were tested by means of simple linear regression analyses in which the 16-item FPQ served as the dependent variable (DV). To further examine the relationship between the subscales and other study variables, additional regression analyses were also performed with the Authentic Work Relationships subscale and the Masking Incompetency subscale respectively acting as the DV. Table 8.17 presents all of the regression analyses, with the OCS, IM scale, and job performance scale each serving as separate independent variables (IVs).

Table 8.16 Means, Standard Deviations (SD) and Intercorrelations among the FPQ, FPQ Subscales and other Study Variables

Study Variables		Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ)	1.83	0.69	1	.703**	.872**	.218**	.225**	-.159*
2	Authentic Work Relationships (Subscale 1)	1.46	0.92		1	.266**	.114	-.104	-.094
3	Masking Incompetency (Subscale 2)	2.05	0.82			1	.215**	.376**	-.149*
4	Impression Management (IM) Scale	2.97	0.80				1	.197**	.080
5	Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS)	3.89	0.88					1	.011
6	Job Performance Scale	8.46	1.22						1

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 8.17 Regression Results for the 16-item FPQ and FPQ Subscales

IV	DV: 16-item FPQ			DV: Authentic Work Relationships Subscale			DV: Masking Incompetency Subscale		
	Impression Management (IM) Scale	Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS)	Job Performance	Impression Management (IM) Scale	Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS)	Job Performance	Impression Management (IM) Scale	Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS)	Job Performance
R	.218	.225	.159	.114	.104	.094	.215	.376	.149
R ²	.048	.050	.025	.013	.011	.009	.046	.142	.022
Adj R ²	.043	.046	.020	.008	.006	.004	.041	.137	.017
Beta	.218	.225	-.159	.114	-.104	-.094	.215	.376	-.149
Sig.	.002**	.002**	.027*	.116	.147	.192	.003**	.000***	.039*

Level of significance: ***p<0.001; **p<0.01; *p<0.05. DV: Dependent Variable; IV: Independent Variable

Hypothesis 1 (H1): *The FPQ will be negatively and significantly correlated with the job performance scale.*

H1 was supported. Intercorrelations showed that the 16-item FPQ was negatively and significantly correlated with the job performance scale ($r=-0.16$; $p<0.05$). The FPQ Masking Incompetency subscale was also found to be negatively and significantly correlated with the job performance scale ($r=-0.15$; $p<0.05$). Furthermore, regression analyses revealed a significant but negative beta for job performance as a predictor of the 16-item FPQ ($\beta=-0.159$, $p<0.05$) and also as a predictor of the FPQ Masking Incompetency subscale ($\beta=-0.149$, $p<0.05$). These results confirmed H1 by indicating that the lower the job performance, the higher the score on both the 16-item FPQ and the FPQ Masking Incompetency subscale.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): *The FPQ will be positively and significantly correlated with the OCS.*

H2 was supported by the results. Intercorrelations revealed a positive and significant correlation between the 16-item FPQ and the OCS ($r=0.23$; $p<0.01$). The correlation was not so high as to suggest that the FPQ and the OCS were overlapping. Intercorrelations also showed that the FPQ Masking Incompetency subscale was positively and significantly correlated with the OCS ($r=0.38$; $p<0.01$). Regression analyses provided additional support for H2 as regression results showed that the OCS was a significant predictor of the 16-item FPQ ($\beta=0.225$, $p<0.01$) and the FPQ Masking Incompetency subscale ($\beta=0.376$, $p<0.001$).

Hypothesis 3 (H3): *There will be no significant relationship between the IM scale and the job performance scale.*

H3 was supported by the results as no significant correlation was found between the IM scale and the job performance scale.

Hypothesis 4 (H4): *The FPQ will be positively and significantly correlated with the IM scale.*

H4 was supported. Intercorrelations revealed a positive and significant correlation between the 16-item FPQ and the IM scale ($r=0.22$; $p<0.01$). Although this correlation indicated a significant relationship, it was not so high as to suggest that FP and IM were overlapping. Intercorrelations also showed that the FPQ Masking Incompetency subscale was positively and significantly correlated with the IM scale ($r=0.22$; $p<0.01$). Using regression analyses, it was found that IM was a significant predictor of both the 16-item FPQ ($\beta=0.218$, $p<0.01$) and the FPQ Masking Incompetency subscale ($\beta=0.215$, $p<0.01$). This result also offered support for H4.

Hypothesis 5 (H5): *The OCS will be positively and significantly correlated with the IM scale.*

H5 was supported. A positive and significant correlation was found between the OCS and the IM scale ($r=0.20$; $p<0.01$). The correlation was not so high as to suggest that the OCS and the IM scale were overlapping.

Additional Intercorrelational Relationships

In addition to the hypothesised relationships, intercorrelations also revealed that the Authentic Work Relationships subscale was positively and significantly correlated with the 16-item FPQ ($r=0.70$; $p<0.01$), as was the Masking Incompetency subscale ($r=0.87$; $p<0.01$). The two subscales were also positively and significantly correlated with each other ($r=0.27$; $p<0.01$). The Authentic Work Relationships subscale was not found to be significantly correlated with any of the other subscales i.e. the OCS, IM scale, and job performance scale. However, as both FPQ subscales were positively and significantly correlated with the 16-item FPQ, as well as with each other, this offers evidence that they both measure the same construct of FP. As both subscales are measures of FP behaviour, it was curious that the Authentic Work Relationships subscale did not significantly correlate with the other scales in the same way that the Masking Incompetency subscale did. Therefore, it is recommended that future studies re-examine the intercorrelations among the FPQ, FPQ subscales, OCS, IM scale and job performance scale.

Gender Differences in Response to the Study Variables

In the second phase of the questionnaire study (Stage 6), the sample ($n=219$) was predominantly female (82%), with notably fewer male respondents (16%). Table 8.7 displays the demographics of the participants. Based on the response bias of the sample, it was considered possible that the gender composition of the public sector respondents could reflect a gender difference in FP behaviour. To examine whether gender differences affected the pattern of responses to the FPQ, an independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the scores for males and females in response to the 16-item FPQ, as well as to the other scales (i.e. the OCS, IM scale, and job performance scale) and both of the FPQ subscales (see Table 8.18 for means and standard deviations and Table 8.19 for the independent t-test). No significant difference was found between males and females for the study variables of the FPQ, OCS, and IM scale, nor for either of the FPQ subscales (i.e. the Authentic Work Relationships and Masking Incompetency subscales). Significant gender differences were found only

for the study variable of job performance [$t(191)=-2.60$; $p<0.010$], with the result of the t-test indicating that job performance among females ($n=164$, mean score of 8.55) is significantly higher than among males ($n=29$, mean score of 7.93). If relating this result back to the previous finding that the job performance scale was negatively and significantly correlated with the 16-item FPQ and the Masking Incompetency subscale, this suggests that males may be likely to score more highly on the 16-item FPQ. Therefore, another recommendation is that future studies further investigate whether gender differences are likely to affect FP behaviour.

For rigour, another item-by-item independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the scores for males and females in response to each of the 16 FPQ items (see Appendix P for the full results). In summary, the results revealed significant gender differences for only one item i.e. “It is possible to use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are” (item 11 in Table 8.15). The t-test indicated that males ($n=32$, mean score of 4.59) were significantly more likely to agree with this item than females ($n=170$, mean score of 3.46) [$t(46.2)=-2.98$; $p<0.005$]. Future researchers should investigate whether males are likely to significantly differ from females on this linguistic aspect of FP behaviour.

Table 8.18 Means, Standard Deviations (SD) and Standard Errors (SE) of Mean for all t-Test Study Variables (Group Statistics)

Study Variables		Gender	N	Mean	SD	SE
1	False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ)	Male	30	2.01	0.67	0.12
		Female	166	1.80	0.69	0.05
2	Authentic Work Relationships (Subscale 1)	Male	32	1.52	0.80	0.14
		Female	173	1.45	0.94	0.07
3	Masking Incompetency (Subscale 2)	Male	30	2.31	0.76	0.14
		Female	166	2.00	0.82	0.06
4	Impression Management (IM) Scale	Male	29	2.97	0.73	0.14
		Female	164	2.97	0.81	0.06
5	Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS)	Male	30	4.05	0.90	0.17
		Female	166	3.86	0.88	0.07
6	Job Performance Scale	Male	29	7.93	1.57	0.29
		Female	164	8.56	1.12	0.09

Table 8.19 Independent t-Test of Study Variables (Gender Differences)

Study Variables		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ)	.17	.678	1.538	194	.126
2	Authentic Work Relationships (Subscale 1)	.03	.857	.348	203	.728
3	Masking Incompetency (Subscale 2)	.74	.392	1.885	194	.061
4	Impression Management (IM) Scale	2.06	.153	-.035	191	.972
5	Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS)	.02	.884	1.054	194	.293
6	Job Performance Scale	3.06	.082	-2.595	191	.010

Note: Bold values represent $p < 0.05$

FPQ Validity and Reliability

The 16-item FPQ has been systematically developed using item analysis and factor analysis on items with face, content, criterion, and construct validity. The reliability of the new FPQ instrument has been established using Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) to test the internal consistency or repeatability and stability of the instrument.

Face and Content Validity

The process of ensuring the content validity of questionnaire items began in the qualitative phase with the questioning of 51 public sector employees in eight focus groups. Their contribution of knowledge from the real-life workplace helped to identify which behaviours constitute FP, and the subsequent data was used as the basis for writing questionnaire items. Face and content validity were further established by consulting experts at two key stages during the development of the FPQ in order to ensure that the content was relevant to the measurement of FP. Finally, pilot testing the FPQ amongst a small sample of employees allowed the reliability and content validity of the items to be assessed at an early stage.

Criterion Validity

Criterion validity of the FPQ was established by testing the hypothesised relationship of the FPQ with two other measures i.e. the OCS and the IM scale. In the current study,

criterion validity (concurrent) was demonstrated by: 1) Examining the correlations between the FPQ and the OCS; and 2) Examining the correlations between the FPQ and the IM scale. Results showed that the FPQ was positively and significantly correlated with both the OCS and the IM scale. Regression analyses also showed that both the OCS and the IM scale were significant predictors of the FPQ. Therefore, criterion validity was fully demonstrated by these results.

Construct Validity

A number of studies were used to test the construct validity of the FPQ. As with testing for criterion validity, the FPQ's relationship with other variables was tested in order to gather evidence of construct validity. It was expected that the FPQ would correlate significantly with other measures of similar constructs i.e. the OCS and the IM scale (convergent validity). Conversely, it was expected that the FPQ would not correlate positively and significantly with any other measure of a dissimilar construct i.e. the job performance scale (discriminant validity).

Thus, a number of hypotheses were generated and the FPQ was tested with three other measures (i.e. the OCS, IM scale, and job performance scale) in order to establish convergent and discriminant validity. In terms of convergent validity, the FPQ was found to be positively and significantly correlated with the theoretically related OCS and IM scale, and regression analyses revealed that both the OCS and the IM scale were significant predictors of the FPQ (see results related to H2 and H4). Therefore, convergent validity for the FPQ was demonstrated by the tests administered.

In terms of discriminant validity, it was expected that the FPQ would not correlate positively and significantly with the job performance scale as this scale measured a different, unrelated construct. Discriminant validity was demonstrated by the results which showed that FP was negatively and significantly correlated with job performance (see results related to H1).

Factor and Reliability Analysis

Factor analysis was also used to test the construct validity of the FPQ. Initially, factor analysis (PCA with varimax rotation) with 21 items showed that the scale items were loaded on five distinct factors with eigenvalues greater than one. However, due to

obtaining low alphas for three factors (i.e. subscales), another two-factor analysis (PCA with oblique rotation) was conducted, resulting in a 16-item solution with two subscales. Furthermore, the results of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) provided evidence to support the validity of the internal structure of the 16-item FPQ by verifying the number of underlying dimensions and showing that the two-factor model was a good fit to the data.

Construct validity was also demonstrated through reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951). Alpha should be 0.70 or higher for a scale to be regarded as reliable (e.g. Kline, 1993). The results obtained in the current study strongly suggest that the 16-item FPQ is a reliable measure of FP ($\alpha=0.76$). Both FPQ subscales also demonstrate good reliability: Subscale 1, Authentic Work Relationships ($\alpha=0.84$); and Subscale 2, Masking Incompetency ($\alpha=0.69$).

Results Overview

The alpha for the 16-item FPQ emerged as 0.76, thus indicating very good reliability. In contrast, the OCS was found to demonstrate relatively low reliability ($\alpha=0.55$). This result replicates the low reliability results found for the OCS in later FP studies (Gbadamosi, 2006; Gbadamosi et al., 2007) and supports the argument put forward in the literature review that the brevity of the OCS may have come at the expense of producing an instrument which captured the entire range of FP behaviours. Crucially, the alpha obtained for the 16-item FPQ in the current study strongly indicates that the FPQ is a more reliable and robust measure of FP. Moreover, as a positive and significant correlation was found between the FPQ and the OCS (supporting H2), this suggests that the FPQ and OCS both measure similar FP behaviours. These results provide strong evidence that the current study met the research objective of producing a new, more reliable measure of FP behaviour.

As predicted, a positive and significant correlation was found between the OCS and the IM scale (supporting H5), thus indicating that both scales measure similar constructs. A positive and significant correlation also emerged between the FPQ and the IM scale (as predicted by H4). However, the FPQ was found to differ from the IM scale in one crucial respect. Whilst the FPQ was found to be negatively and significantly correlated with the job performance scale (H1), no significant relationship was found between the IM scale and the job performance scale (H3). This finding supports one of the main

arguments of this thesis, which is that whilst an IM score provides little information about an individual's actual job performance, a score on the FPQ will actually help to predict future job performance.

Crucially, the results obtained in the current study indicate that the lower the job performance, the higher the score on the FPQ (H1). This suggests that those higher in FP tendencies invest more effort in maintaining an impression of competence than actually performing in their job. However, this finding should be interpreted with caution as job performance in the current study was measured using a self-report scale.

The implications of these results will be fully discussed in Chapter 9. However, the limitations of the quantitative study will first be considered.

8.4 Limitations

Despite the established use of questionnaire methodology in empirical studies, there are certain limitations associated with this approach, and these will be discussed in relation to the present study.

8.4.1 The Self-Administered Questionnaire

In the current study, the questionnaire method was selected because it was relatively cheap to administer to a geographically dispersed sample (compared to the structured interview for example), quicker to distribute, and more convenient for respondents to complete in their own time. As Bryman (2012) explains, another advantage of self-administered questionnaires is that they do not suffer from the problem of interviewer variability which may arise as a result of interviewers asking questions in a different order and a different way. However, in terms of limitations of the self-administered questionnaire, there is no interviewer present to probe for more information, nor to offer prompts to respondents who may have difficulty answering certain questions. As a result of this lack of supervision, there is a greater likelihood of partially answered questionnaires as it is easier for respondents to skip questions that they may, for example, find boring or irrelevant. This leads to the problem of missing data when questionnaires are returned. In the current study, in order to minimise this problem, the online questionnaire was designed so that respondents were unable to skip questions, but this measure of control could not be put in place for postal questionnaires.

Another reason that respondents may skip questions or rush through them is because they experience boredom or fatigue. This is especially likely to happen with long questionnaires (Bryman, 2012). It could also mean that respondents are less likely to complete the questionnaire from start to finish. In the current study, the length of the questionnaire was carefully considered prior to distribution, and the total number of items was restricted in order to minimise potential fatigue effects. According to Bryman, the most damaging limitation associated with postal questionnaires is that they typically result in lower response rates. If a response rate is low, the risk of bias in the findings is likely to be greater. In the current study, although the response rate for the postal questionnaire was low, the mixed-mode of administration (postal and electronic) increased the overall response rate and reduced the risk of bias.

8.4.2 Self-Report Measures of Job Performance

As the self-administered questionnaire was the methodology used to test all of the measures in the quantitative study, this meant that only self-report data was obtained for all of the variables under investigation. In terms of the FPQ, the OCS, and the IM scale, self-report measures were deemed the most appropriate for assessing these constructs because of the self-experiential nature of each of the phenomena. The individuals' self-referential perceptions were likely to be more accurate than objective measures, namely because individuals themselves have the best insight into their own behaviour. However, in terms of self-reported job performance, it has been more widely debated in the literature as to whether objective measures of job performance are more accurate than self-reported job performance (e.g. Pransky et al., 2006).

According to Pransky et al. (2006), there is a commonly held belief "that the best indicators of individual worker performance would be objective measurements" (p. 391). However, objective measurements of job performance can be difficult to implement as few jobs are designed in a way that facilitates easy collection and analysis of such data (Tangen, 2003). Thus, researchers more commonly rely on self-reports because they are relatively easy to obtain and they are often the only feasible way to measure certain constructs (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002). Certainly, within the present study, it was more feasible to collect self-report measures of job performance from multiple public sector organisations than to co-ordinate differing systems of objective measurement in each organisation. It is also unlikely that objective

measures of job performance would have been comparable across public sector organisations in the same way as self-report measures of job performance were.

Whilst the current study adopted self-report measures, it also acknowledged the limitations associated with this method of data collection. For instance, Donaldson and Grant-Vallone (2002) identify the following disadvantages of studies that rely on self-reports: 1) Self-reports are prone to many kinds of response bias (see discussion in section 8.4.4); and 2) Inferences about correlational and causal relationships may be inflated by the problem of common method variance (see discussion in section 8.4.3).

However, it is not reasonable to conclude that objective non-self-report measures will always be superior to self-report measures. Firstly, few studies have offered the opportunity to clarify the relationship between self-reported and objective measures of job performance due to the difficulties involved in data collection and analysis (Pransky et al., 2006). Secondly, the relationship of self-report measures to actual at-work performance is unclear as extensive comparison studies have not been conducted (Lerner, Amick, & Rogers, 2001).

Thus, given the insufficient evidence and disadvantages associated with objective measures of job performance versus the feasibility and advantages of self-report data collection and analysis, the current study opted to collect self-report measures of job performance.

8.4.3 Common Method Variance

Common method variance describes “variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent” (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003, p. 879). One source of common method variance is self-report bias. In answering self-report measures, respondents may have a tendency to search for similarities across questions and provide consistent responses, an effect known as the consistency motif (Johns, 1994; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Schmitt, 1994). Another rater effect connected with consistency motif is that of “illusory correlations” which result from raters making assumptions about the co-occurrence of items (Berman & Kenny, 1976). Item characteristics can also give rise to common method biases. Cronbach (1946, 1950) suggests that an item’s form may influence the scores obtained on a measure, an effect which researchers (e.g. Podsakoff et al., 2003) have discussed in reference to social desirability, item ambiguity, scale anchors, and negatively worded items. In the current study, each of these item characteristics were carefully considered

when designing the research so as to reduce the common method biases associated with the property of items in a questionnaire.

The context in which the items appear can also have an influence on common method bias. For example, item context effects “refer to any influence or interpretation that a subject might ascribe to an item solely because of its relation to the other items making up an instrument” (Wainer & Kiely, 1987). A respondent’s mood could also affect the way in which they respond to questionnaire items regardless of the actual item content. Podsakoff et al. (2003) suggest that the wording of the first items on a questionnaire could induce a mood in respondents which affects how they complete the remainder of the questionnaire. Another contextual issue concerns the length of the scale, which could enhance bias if it is too short because it increases the possibility that respondents will remember their answers to previous items, thus influencing their response to current items. The broader research context e.g. time and location could also create bias as a result of delivering both the predictor and criterion variables in the same measurement context.

The present study took many of the potential sources of common method variance into account during the questionnaire design phase so as to minimise the effects which this bias had on research findings. For instance, in the item generation and refinement stages, an emphasis was placed on writing clear, unambiguous items for inclusion in the FPQ. Equal care was taken to write meaningful, unambiguous, and compelling negative items. Items were also written carefully in order to minimise social desirability effects. Furthermore, items were worded as professionally as possible so as not to induce a negative mood state in respondents. In addition, the format of measurement was carefully considered. For example, it has been found that scale anchors systematically influence responses (Tourangeau, Rips, & Rasinski, 2000). The use of similar anchors throughout a questionnaire can create a more standardised format which requires less cognitive processing. Consequently, some of the covariation amongst constructs may result from a consistency in scale rather than item properties. The likelihood of this occurring in the current study was minimised by the inclusion of three different scale anchors. Overall, the final questionnaire managed to include the most relevant scales without being so short as to encourage memory-related responding or so long as to risk excessive fatigue or boredom.

As well as taking all of these preventative steps to minimise bias when designing the study, the issue of common method variance as a factor potentially affecting the results was also taken into account during the process of quantitative data analysis. At this stage of research, “Common method bias may still be a concern in spite of efforts to reduce it in the design phase, and several statistical solutions have been proposed to test and control for common method bias in such cases” (Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015, p. 18). One such statistical remedy is Harman’s one-factor (or single-factor) test which is commonly used to test for the presence of common method bias, although not to control for it (Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015). Podsakoff et al. (2003) explain that this technique involves loading all of the items potentially affected by common method bias into an exploratory factor analysis (cf. Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Aulakh & Gencturk, 2000; Greene & Organ, 1973; Organ & Greene, 1981; Schriesheim, 1979) and then examining the unrotated factor solution to determine the number of factors that best explain the variance in the data. The assumption underlying Harman’s one-factor test is that if a substantial amount of common method variance is present, either (a) a single factor will emerge, or (b) one general factor will explain most of the covariance among the measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003). If neither occurs, this provides supporting evidence that common method bias is not a major issue (Chang, Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010).

In the current quantitative study, Harman’s one-factor test was conducted to test for the presence of common method effect. This involved entering all 57 study variables into an exploratory factor analysis using unrotated principal components analysis in order to examine the fit of the analysis model. The unrotated principal components analysis revealed that the highest single factor accounted for only 12.78% of the total variance, with a total of 17 distinct factors with eigenvalues greater than one and accounting for 68.07% of the total variance. Thus, no single factor emerged and no general factor was apparent. Consequently, following Harman’s one-factor test, it was determined that the variables used in the current study were distinct and, therefore, appropriate to be included in the statistical analyses. Whilst it was acknowledged that a limitation of this test is that the emergence of multiple factors does not conclusively prove that the measure is completely free of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003), the results do suggest that common method bias was not of great concern and, therefore, was unlikely to confound the interpretation of results.

8.4.4 Response Bias

As the FPQ was constructed using rigorous methodology, the response sets of selecting the middle category, acquiescence, and socially desirable responses to extreme attitude statements were all minimised as potential sources of bias (see Chapters 7 and 8). Various issues relating to the response bias of social desirability were taken into account in the development of the FPQ (see sections 3.5 and 7.1.3).

In the literature, there has been a general tendency to assume that just because respondents can fake “good,” they will fake “good” (e.g. Golembiewski & Munzenrider, 1975; Thomas & Kilmann, 1975). However, a different body of research has challenged the assumption that the response bias of social desirability will inevitably contaminate data (e.g. Moorman & Podsakoff, 1992). For example, Ganster et al. (1983) report that there are few significant relationships between Marlowe and Crowne’s (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960, 1964) scale of social desirability and common measures used in organisational behaviour (OB) research. Ones, Viswesvaran and Reiss’s (1996) meta-analysis of the social desirability literature also suggests that social desirability is not as pervasive a problem in OB research as originally thought. Notably, they found that social desirability scales did not predict task performance, counterproductive behaviours, or job performance. On balance, it is possible that faking is not as widespread in selection as previously assumed, and that reservation in using personality inventories for personnel selection because of the potential of social desirability is unfounded (Ones, et al., 1996).

In future studies involving the application of the FPQ, it may be advisable for the FPQ to be administered with a scale which distinguishes between socially desirable and job desirable patterns of responding. Ones et al. (1996) point out that most studies in the literature have not differentiated between socially desirable responding and job desirable responding. This differentiation is important because individuals trying to fake for a job may bias their response more toward the perceived job desirable answer than the socially desirable answer (Kluger & Colella, 1993; Kluger, Reilly, & Russell, 1991). As the FPQ is designed to measure FP in the workplace, it would make sense for it to be administered with a scale which could detect job desirable responses.

8.4.5 Nonresponse Bias

Armstrong and Overton (1977) explain that the mail questionnaire has been criticised for nonresponse bias on the basis that “if persons who respond differ substantially from those who do not, the results do not directly allow one to say how the entire sample would have responded” (p. 396). They explain that the literature on nonresponse bias (e.g. Kish, 1965; Stephan & McCarthy, 1958) describes three methods of estimation: comparisons with known values for the population, subjective estimates, and extrapolation. In terms of comparison with known values for the population, results obtained from a questionnaire study can be compared with “known” values for the population (e.g. age, income, education level). However, Armstrong and Overton explain that this form of estimation is problematic because “the known values come from a different source instrument” (p. 397), thus meaning that differences could arise due to response bias rather than nonresponse bias. An additional difficulty concerns the possibility that, even if the tested items are free from nonresponse bias, the other items may not be. As a result, some studies may instead opt to estimate nonresponse bias using one or both of the other methods i.e. subjective estimates and extrapolation (e.g. Poppo, Zhou, & Ryu, 2008).

According to Armstrong and Overton (1977), subjective estimates of nonresponse bias can provide useful information on the differences between respondents and nonrespondents. They explain that there are several methods for comparing respondents and nonrespondents, including the determining of socioeconomic differences. For example, in a recent study of interorganisational trust, Poppo et al. (2008) compared responding and nonresponding firms on demographics such as firm size, firm age, and industry in order to check for nonresponse bias. In this same study, they also used extrapolation methods, comparing early (the first quarter) and late (the last quarter) respondents on a number of keys variables e.g. prior exchange history, asset specificity, uncertainty, expectation of continuity, and trust. Armstrong and Overton explain that: “Extrapolation methods are based on the assumption that subjects who respond less readily are more like nonrespondents” (p. 397), such that those responding “less readily” may answer later or need more encouragement to complete the questionnaire.

Whilst it was recognised when designing the current study, that it would have been useful to utilise all or some of the described methods of estimating nonresponse bias, it

was not deemed possible to collect the data necessary to calculate nonresponse bias. In the current study, ethical issues of anonymity and confidentiality had to be given precedence over issues of nonresponse bias. Given that a sensitive organisational phenomenon i.e. FP was under investigation, ethical considerations were accorded priority at every stage of the research. As explained in section 7.1.5, access to participants was negotiated separately with each organisation involved in the study and all of these organisations were assured that the data collected would be anonymous and confidential. To have requested demographic information for all possible respondents would have breached anonymity and restricted organisational access. For example, the largest number of participants were recruited by means of postal survey distributed within one organisation. This organisation only agreed to participate in the research study on the basis that they directly mailed the questionnaire to their employees, thus ensuring that the researcher at no point had access to participants' names and addresses. In the case of this organisation and the other non-postal organisations, it would not have been possible to collect the data necessary to calculate nonresponse bias without compromising the anonymity of participants.

It also proved impractical to check for nonresponse bias through extrapolation methods because the postal questionnaires were not directly returned to the researcher, but were rather posted to the University Business School address and then forwarded en masse to the researcher. This made it impossible to record exactly when each questionnaire was received. Consequently, without access to the relevant data on which participants responded sooner rather than later, nor data pertaining to respondent and non-respondent characteristics, it was not possible to compare those who responded versus those who did not respond to the questionnaire.

8.4.6 Internal Consistency

Kline (1993) explains that most researchers aim to make their psychological tests as internally consistent as possible. Pallant (2005) defines internal consistency as “the degree to which the items that make up the scale are all measuring the same underlying attribute (i.e. the extent to which the items ‘hang together’)” (p. 6). Cronbach’s alpha (Cronbach, 1951) is the most commonly used statistic for measuring internal consistency, and it works by indicating the average correlation among all of the items which make up the scale (Pallant, 2005). As previously discussed in relation to

item analysis (see section 8.2.3.1), Cronbach's alpha should ideally be 0.70 or above (e.g. Kline, 1993) in order for a psychometric test to be considered reliable.

However, Cronbach alpha values are quite sensitive to the number of items in the scale (Pallant, 2005). Cortina (1993) has pointed out that alpha (Cronbach or standardised) is a function of the number of items in a scale, and this should be taken into account when interpreting alpha. For instance, Cortina explains that a scale with a large number of items could have a relatively large alpha simply because of the number of items. However, number of items is an inadequate measure of scale quality.

In the current study, there were a large number of FPQ items in Stage 5 (i.e. 53 items), so the high alpha value of 0.95 obtained for the 53-item FPQ was interpreted with caution. However, following the process of item refinement, there were far fewer FPQ items in Stage 6 which appeared to reduce the problems associated with large item sets. A more modest alpha of 0.76 was found for the final, reduced 16-item FPQ, thus supporting Cortina's (1993) argument that a large scale may result in a large alpha. Overall, Cortina concludes that, despite the criticisms of alpha, it remains a sound measure of proportion of error variance regardless of test length.

8.5 Chapter Summary

The initial qualitative study and subsequent six-stage quantitative development of the FPQ resulted in a new 16-item measure of FP. This chapter has presented the quantitative results and considered the limitations of the quantitative study. The next chapter will integrate the quantitative and qualitative results and consider the various implications of the research findings.

Chapter 9

Discussion and Conclusion

“But one must know how to colour one’s actions and to be a great liar and deceiver. Men are so simple, and so much creatures of circumstance, that the deceiver will always find someone ready to be deceived.”

(Machiavelli, 2003, p. 57)

9.1 Chapter Overview

This final chapter discusses the overall qualitative and quantitative findings. To begin, a summary of the research aims will be discussed in relation to the results. The qualitative and quantitative findings will then be integrated for the purpose of achieving an even deeper level of analysis. This chapter will also consider the limitations of the study, as well as propose recommendations for future research. An emphasis will be placed on the contribution of the current thesis to the False Performance (FP) literature, including theoretical, methodological, and practical contributions. The chapter will conclude with a reflective statement on the research process.

9.2 Summary of Research Findings

This thesis began with an introduction to FP (Chapter 1), followed by an extensive review of the literature on FP, impression management (IM), and associated concepts (Chapters 2-4). A focus group study was then carried out in order to further investigate the construct of FP and contribute additional knowledge to this under-explored area of research (Chapter 5). Following this, the qualitative results were reported in-depth; with the support of numerous examples of rich data i.e. focus group dialogue (Chapter 6). The following five categories emerged during the grounded theory data analysis: Perceptions of FP in the Workplace; FP in the Interview; Does Trust Really Matter to the False Performer?; The Effect of FP on Co-Worker Morale; and Tackling FP in the Workplace. The qualitative findings were used to inform the process of item generation for the construction of the FPQ in the subsequent quantitative study. The item set was refined through a six-stage systematic procedure. The process of item analysis using a small sample was described in Stages 1-4 (Chapter 7). In the distribution and results phase (Stages 5 and 6); a factor analytic approach using a larger sample was used to refine the FPQ (Chapter 8). The construction and development of the FPQ described in Stages 1-6 resulted in a new 16-item measure of FP i.e. the FPQ.

The construction of a valid and reliable measure of FP satisfied the main research objective of the current study (see section 1.2). To recap, the overall aim of the research was:

To investigate FP as an unethical behaviour in UK public sector organisations and to develop a measure to identify false performers i.e. those individuals who seek to improve their perceived performance at the expense of their actual performance (Parnell & Singer, 2001).

In order to achieve this overall aim, a number of specific subsidiary objectives were also proposed at the outset of research (again see section 1.2). This chapter's discussion of the qualitative and quantitative findings will signpost how Objectives 1-7, outlined in section 1.2, have been achieved throughout the research study.

Firstly, the discussion of results will address Objective 1 which stated:

Objective 1: Review the existing literature relating to FP and associated concepts, such as impression management (IM) and counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs). Clarify conceptual issues regarding the construct and definition of FP.

A literature review of FP, IM, and associated concepts preceded the research study, thus satisfying Objective 1. This review clarified the conceptual differences between FP and other related constructs (see section 2.7). It also outlined the definitional issues surrounding FP (see section 2.8), and presented an IM-FP model of self-presentation behaviours to help distinguish between IM and FP (Table 2.1). In the literature review, a conceptual boundary was drawn between conscious FP and unconscious FP. This distinction was supported by the qualitative results which present data relating to *Conscious versus Unconscious FP* (section 6.2.6.1). To clarify, "unconscious FP" is not defined as FP within this thesis. To be defined as FP, the behaviour of the incompetent employee must be conscious and deliberate. Therefore, based on the literature review and the qualitative study, the new definition of FP proposed by the current thesis is:

False performers are defined as those incompetent individuals who seek to deliberately present themselves as being better able to perform in a job role than they know themselves to be capable of.

For comparative purposes, this new definition is juxtaposed against Parnell and Singer's (2001) original definition of FP which defines false performers as those:

"...individuals who seek to improve their perceived performance at the expense of their actual performance" (p. 441).

Parnell and Singer's (2001) definition of FP is slightly ambiguous. In contrast, the definition proposed by the current thesis is more explicit. It clearly describes what FP entails and it emphasises the *deliberate* intention of the false performer to present themselves falsely to others. This definition allows no room for debate as to whether the false performer is consciously or unconsciously misrepresenting themselves.

The second objective which the current study sought to achieve was to:

Objective 2: Enhance understanding of how FP operates and affects people in the workplace by employing focus group methodology to explore FP in a variety of public sector organisations. Specifically research: a) The role of FP in job interviews; b) The role of FP in performance appraisal interviews; c) Job performance; d) Work relationships; e) Trust in management; and f) Trust in co-workers.

To attain this objective, eight focus groups were conducted with 51 employees in four public sector organisations. To obtain data relating to the specific research variables listed in a-f, a semi-structured questioning route was followed in each focus group (see section 5.5.2.6). The qualitative results reported in Chapter 6 comprehensively describe the role of FP in job interviews and performance appraisal interviews; the effect of FP on work relationships; and how FP is affected by trust in management and co-worker trust. Through discussion of these various aspects of FP in the focus groups, and direct questioning about FP behaviour and job performance, the relationship between FP and job performance (c) was further clarified.

The quantitative study also yielded important results in respect of job performance (c). Whilst a qualitative study was conducted in order to achieve Objective 2, a quantitative study was conducted to achieve Objectives 3 and 5:

Objective 3: Develop a new instrument to measure FP i.e. the False Performance Questionnaire (FPQ). Qualitative data will be used to write items for inclusion in the FPQ. In this way, the current study will expand on the existing research (e.g. Parnell & Singer, 2001) by generating the items necessary to produce a more comprehensive scale than the existing nine-item Organisational Charlatan Scale (OCS).

Objective 5: Distribute the self-report FPQ in two phases within the public sector. In the first phase, construct FPQ items using an item analytic approach on a small sample. In the second phase, construct the final FPQ using an item analytic and factor analytic approach on a larger sample.

Results of the quantitative study showed that whilst FP was negatively and significantly correlated with job performance (supporting Hypothesis 1; H1); no significant relationship was found between IM and job performance (supporting Hypothesis 3; H3). These findings support the contention that there is a conceptual difference between FP and IM in terms of job performance outcome. This argument was presented

consistently throughout the Literature Review (Chapters 2-4). For example, the distinction between FP and IM was outlined in section 2.5.2 as follows:

Parnell and Singer (2001) explain that whilst an IM score provides little information about an individual's actual ability or performance, a score on the OCS can assist managers in separating employees who are performance-driven from those who are not. The critical point to note is that FP necessarily comes at the expense of job performance, whereas IM does not (p. 17).

As scores on the OCS are purported to help predict job performance (Parnell & Singer, 2001) and the FPQ was designed to measure FP in the same way as the OCS, the current study hypothesised that a score on the FPQ would also help to predict job performance (see H1). The results supported H1 as regression analyses revealed a significant but negative beta for job performance as a predictor of both the 16-item FPQ ($\beta=-0.159$, $p<0.05$) and the FPQ Masking Incompetency subscale ($\beta=-0.149$, $p<0.05$). This critical finding indicates that the lower the job performance, the higher the score on the FPQ. In other words, employees rating highly in FP are likely to be substituting FP for job performance, a finding which supports the previous FP literature (e.g. Gbadamosi, 2006; Gbadamosi et al., 2007; Parnell & Singer, 2001). In contrast, no significant relationship was found between IM and job performance. The juxtaposition of these two findings is instrumental in providing evidence for the argument that "FP necessarily comes at the expense of job performance, whereas IM does not" (Parnell & Singer, 2001).

Whilst the current study hypothesised about how both the FPQ and IM scale would be related to job performance, the hypotheses and results failed to explore the relationship between the OCS and job performance. Notably, Parnell and Singer (2001) also failed to test the relationship between the OCS and job performance in their original study, despite purporting that scores on the OCS were predictive of poorer job performance. However, when examining the results obtained in the current study, this gap in the literature became more obvious and, thus, to address this critical oversight, one additional hypothesis was proposed and tested:

Hypothesis 6 (H6): The OCS will be negatively and significantly correlated with the job performance scale.

Another simple linear regression analysis was run to test H6. The OCS served as the independent variable (IV) and the job performance scale as the dependent variable (DV). Surprisingly, H6 was not supported by the results as no significant relationship was found between the OCS and job performance. As the results indicate that the OCS is a poor predictor of job performance, this provides further evidence that the 16-item FPQ is a more reliable measure of FP than the original 9-item OCS. In summary, the results of the current study found that the FPQ was the only measure which had a significant relationship with job performance. This provides compelling evidence, not only that the FPQ measures what it purports to measure, but also that, unlike other similar measures, it can actually help to predict future job performance.

9.3 Integration of Qualitative and Quantitative Findings

This section of the Discussion aims to assimilate the research findings. The integration of qualitative and quantitative results is the final crucial step within an exploratory design framework (see Figure 5.2). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) explain that to be considered a mixed methods design, the findings must be mixed or integrated at some point. If a qualitative phase is conducted to inform a quantitative phase, sequentially, the findings should be integrated during the interpretation of the findings (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The exploratory design used in the present study was “QUAL → quan”, representing the sequence of the research and the dominance of the qualitative paradigm. Therefore, the results of the qualitative and quantitative research have been integrated during the interpretation of findings presented in this section. In this interpretative stage, Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) explain that generally the emphasis is on the qualitative findings, whilst the quantitative results are used to generalise and test the results of the qualitative study.

The integration of the qualitative and quantitative findings in this section of the Discussion also aims to satisfy the following objective:

Objective 7: Collate the qualitative and quantitative data in order to assess the potential challenges which FP poses for organisations. For example, how it impacts on the job interview process, affects performance appraisal interviews, and potentially creates low trust and dissension amongst co-workers.

The qualitative results were independently presented in Chapter 6 and the quantitative results were independently presented in Chapter 8. However, it is important to bring the

two sets of findings together to explore how they support each other. As explained in Chapter 5 (see section 5.6.2.2), although the qualitative findings were initially used to inform the subsequent quantitative study, it was also possible to use the later quantitative findings to go back and further understand the initial qualitative findings. This reciprocal research design and process of reflection meant that the new critique and theory produced by the grounded theory analysis was to a large degree tested by the new quantitative instrument.

To recap, the main aim of the quantitative study was to generate the items necessary to produce a more comprehensive scale than the existing nine-item OCS (objective 3). To achieve this aim, qualitative data was used to write items for inclusion in the FPQ. Consequently, the data used to construct the FPQ was grounded in real-life employees' experiences of FP in the workplace. Within the focus groups, participants produced a wealth of data to validate the construct of FP, and this data was used to create a rich grounded theory account of FP. Notably, focus group participants developed and demonstrated their understanding of FP through storytelling. The tendency seemed to be for participants to relate stories of FP from their own work history. Through storytelling, they were able to check their own understanding of FP and contribute real-life stories in order to exemplify FP in action. For instance, section 6.2.1.2 (*Claiming Credit for Others' Work*) features the vivid story of a false performing cook who claimed credit for their co-worker's efforts in order to appear "honey and sweet" in front of management. The storytelling element encountered in the focus groups is consistent with previous researchers (e.g. Boje, 1991) reporting that stories serve a sense-making function in organisations as they help organisational members understand the context and the consequences of their own and others' behaviour.

To test the grounded theory and produce further validation for the construct of FP, the quantitative study developed the FPQ using an item analytic and factor analytic approach, including both exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The final 16-item FPQ was found to have an alpha of 0.76, thus indicating very good reliability (e.g. Kline, 1993). Various types of evidence were also gathered to establish that the new instrument also had good face, content, criterion, and construct validity. For instance, in terms of the latter, the correlational findings indicated that the FPQ, OCS, and IM scale all measure similar constructs, thus providing evidence of convergent validity. As predicted, a positive and significant

correlation was found between the FPQ and the OCS (supporting Hypothesis 2; H2), between the FPQ and the IM scale (supporting Hypothesis 4; H4) and, finally, between the OCS and the IM scale (supporting Hypothesis 5; H5). Furthermore, regression analyses showed that both the OCS ($\beta=0.225$, $p<0.01$) and the IM scale ($\beta=0.218$, $p<0.01$) were significant predictors of the FPQ, suggesting that one's score on the OCS or IM scale may help to predict their score on the FPQ.

As the quantitative study resulted in a reliable and valid 16-item measure of FP, this helped to confirm the authenticity of the original grounded theory data which was used as the foundation for test construction. In this way, the qualitative and quantitative paradigms worked in tandem to produce a systematic and comprehensive account of how FP operates in the modern-day workplace. The results of the current study show how the qualitative and quantitative methodologies were able to complement each other so as to overcome the advantages and disadvantages of each approach (as outlined respectively in sections 5.1.4 and 8.4). The main advantage of the qualitative focus group study was that it offered the opportunity to quickly collect a lot of data on a wide ranging number of phenomena associated with FP. This included the role of FP in job interviews and performance appraisal interviews, both of which were subjects which evoked a powerful response in the focus group discussions.

The grounded theory category of *FP in the Interview* (see section 6.2.2) features insights of monumental importance in terms of assessing the potential challenges which FP poses for organisations (objective 7). The three main subcategories of *FP in the Interview* emerged as: Lying about Qualifications, Over-Talking as a Smoke Screen, and Claiming Credit for Others' Work. Focus group participants discussed various job interview-related FP behaviours, including lying about qualifications, exaggerating, question-based lying, agreeing with the interviewer, dressing to impress, and presenting creative CVs. Overall, the category of *FP in the Interview* presents an organisational picture whereby the false performer gains access to the organisation by misrepresenting themselves in the job interview and continuing to do so whilst on the job and during performance appraisal interviews.

Thus, it would appear that the main potential challenge which FP poses for organisations is the detection of FP from the point of entry into the organisation i.e. the job interview. The focus group data indicates that interviewers may make inaccurate

perceptual judgements based upon the false performer's self-presentation behaviours during the job interview. For instance, participants discussed how an interview panel may be so impressed by the false performer's confident presentation of their false credentials that they will offer them the job without properly checking their CV. Within the context of the job interview, the false performer may employ FP behaviours in order to obtain the positive advantage of being selected for the job over other candidates. The subcategory of *Lying about Qualifications* emphasises how important it is for an organisation to verify a candidate's qualifications and work experience. If the employer fails to do so, they risk employing a false performer. Requesting documentary evidence of qualifications and confirming employment history during the interview process may be one of the easiest ways to detect FP in the early stages, and prevent the false performer from gaining entry to the organisation. To prevent dysfunctional employees from entering the organisation, Rogers (2009) suggests, "Take your time when recruiting and check out every qualification, date and job on a CV. Phone referees: do not rely on written references alone" (p. 21).

It is important to note that the qualitative data presented in the subcategory of *Lying about Qualifications* does not suggest that the organisation itself is unethical for allowing the false performer to enter into the workplace. Rather, based on the data, the picture which emerges is one of *unethical individuals* who seek to exploit shortcomings in certain organisation's recruitment policies. For example, one non-manager suggested that the false performer will enter the interview room with a set of pre-prepared "right" answers in mind (p. 134). This non-manager then went on to explain that, although these answers may be fabricated, the candidate's falsehoods could well go undetected because the organisation is unlikely to check whether what they said was true or not. Another way in which the false performer may enter the organisation is through lying on their CV, either about their qualifications or other work experiences. When the false performer chooses to lie in this way in an attempt to get the job, this is an example of FP by an unethical individual, and not evidence of unethical wrongdoing by the organisation. The main learning point for organisations is that they should have sufficient checking mechanisms in place to detect this type of FP behaviour.

The qualitative data which emerged in relation to interview-related FP formed the basis for several items which were included in the final 16-item FPQ e.g. "In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success" and "A performance appraisal

interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas." Likewise, all of the other items included in the final 16-item FPQ were generated using material from the qualitative focus group study, meaning that all items were grounded in the qualitative data. Through the systematic development of the quantitative measure, the initial pool of FPQ items were refined using item analysis and factor analysis. Ultimately, the final two-factor solution produced a 16-item FPQ with two subscales which were found to have good reliability i.e. the Authentic Work Relationships subscale ($\alpha=0.84$) and the Masking Incompetency subscale ($\alpha=0.69$).

The factor model of FP behaviours produced by conducting CFA (see Figure 8.10) presents a visual summary of the items belonging to each subscale by label description. Interestingly, the two-factor solution retained at least one item from each of the five factors previously extracted from the 21-item FPQ. In terms of the two-factor solution, factor 1 consisted of six items originally labelled "Authentic Work Relationships," thus accounting for why this factor label was retained for subscale 1. Factor 2 contained a combination of items originally labelled "Masking Incompetency" (two items), "Linguistic Skills" (three items), "Job Avoidance" (four items), and "Front Stage FP" (one item). To achieve a description which would encompass all of these behaviours, factor 2 (i.e. subscale 2) was relabelled "Masking Incompetency." This factor analytic result suggests that the final 16-item FPQ consists of a wide spectrum of FP behaviours which were initially discussed across the focus groups. Furthermore, the results of the CFA showed that the two-factor model produced a good fit to the data, $TLI=0.95$, $CFI=0.96$, and $RMSEA=0.05$ (see section 8.3.2.3 for the CFA results). The researcher concluded that this outcome was unsurprising as two exploratory factor analyses (EFAs) had been carried out to screen out problem items and create a satisfactory factor solution. Indeed, the entire mixed methods research (MMR) study was designed from the outset with the objective of producing a reliable item set, with a key advantage of the initial qualitative focus group study being that it offered a rich bank of data for the purpose of writing reliable FPQ items.

Another advantage afforded by conducting the qualitative study in the first phase was the opportunity it offered to identify the most appropriate variables for investigation in the subsequent quantitative study. As potential fatigue effects must be considered when designing a questionnaire, it is necessary to limit the number of items included in any measure of human behaviour. In the current study, certain variables examined in

the focus groups were, thus, not re-examined in the quantitative study. For instance, as the qualitative study yielded an abundance of data in respect of trust in management and co-worker trust, the decision was taken not to further examine trust in the quantitative study. Within the focus groups, participants explored in-depth whether the false performer is actually capable of developing high levels of trust in those that they work with, as exemplified by the category of *Does Trust Really Matter to the False Performer?* (see section 6.2.3). Searle, Weibel and Den Hartog (2011) explain that shallow relationships have been linked to calculative trust, a trust which is characterised by pure cost-benefit calculation. It may be that false performers are only ever able to engage in calculative trust relationships with their colleagues, but future research would be necessary to explore this in more depth. In retrospect, it would have been useful for the current study to have further explored the relationship between FP and trust in the quantitative study. Reflecting back, this could have been achieved by administering the FPQ with a short measure of trust, such as the single item measure developed by Searle, Den Hartog, et al. (2011) i.e. “Overall, to what extent do you trust in your organization?”

Moreover, future research on the relationship between FP and trust could also extend to consider the other possibilities suggested by the current focus group study findings. For instance, whilst one possibility is that the false performer is only ever able to forge shallow relationships based on calculative trust; another possibility is that the false performer is actually able to engage in work relationships based on genuine trust. If the latter is indeed possible, it may then be that this more meaningful type of trusting relationship could help to ameliorate the false performer’s deceptive behaviours. This particular dynamic was discussed in relation to the construct of felt trust in section 4.3.6 of the literature review. Specifically, recent research on felt trust (e.g. Lau et al., 2014; Salamon & Robinson, 2008) was drawn upon to put forward the question, “could the trust invested in a false performer by management be enough to somehow reverse their individual propensity towards FP behaviour?” (p. 58).

The results from the current study suggest that this may be the case, with certain focus group participants implying that the false performer may somehow be positively affected by the levels of trust placed in them by their manager or co-workers. For instance, in section 6.2.3.5 of the qualitative results, the subcategory of *Co-Worker Trust Reduces False Performance* discusses how the false performer may reduce their

FP behaviours if they feel trusted by others in the workplace. One reason for this may be that the false performer feels guilty about behaving unethically if they feel trusted by their co-workers. Furthermore, in section 6.2.3.4 of the qualitative results, the subcategory of *What Do You Mean by Trust?* considers whether the false performer would either reduce or increase their FP behaviours if they felt trusted by management. Some participants expressed the view that the false performer may be more likely to exploit a manager who they felt trusted by as they would take advantage of their manager's trust to practice even more FP behaviours. These findings can be related back to the felt trust research reviewed in Chapter 4. Lau et al. (2014) similarly point out that perceived supervisory trust could lead to negative performance outcomes such as supervisors becoming the most vulnerable party if they trust and rely upon subordinates who turn out to be incompetent and dishonest. However, according to the results of the research on felt trust (e.g. Lau et al., 2014; Salamon & Robinson, 2008), felt trust by management actually leads to better performance in the workplace, a finding which suggests that felt trust could in fact encourage the false performer to decrease their FP behaviours and improve their job performance.

Yet, conversely the current study provides an indication that felt trust by colleagues is more likely to result in poor job performance by the false performer, with co-workers "becoming the most vulnerable party." Section 6.2.3.3 (the subcategory of *Co-Worker Trust Breeds False Performance*) reports results which suggest that the false performer may engage in even more FP behaviours if they feel trusted by their co-workers. In this situation, the false performer could interpret felt trust as an easy way to manipulate or "walk all over" those who trust in them. However, another body of opinion expressed in the focus groups was that trust is not a concept for the false performer because they will not be affected by the trust they have in others, or by the trust that others place in them. Certain focus group participants argued that, due to the false performer's own disposition of untrustworthiness, it is unlikely that they will be sensitive to the trust invested in them by co-workers or management. To date, no other studies have explored the felt-trust construct in relation to FP so the current study provides new data in respect of this relationship. However, these findings should be interpreted tentatively because focus group participants did not explicitly speak in terms of "felt trust" or consistently make a clear distinction between trusting versus felt trust. As such, it is recommended that future studies directly examine how felt trust by management and co-workers mediate the relationship between FP behaviour and job performance.

A final point in relation to the trust findings which emerged from the current focus group study concerns the underlying mechanisms of social exchange and anticipated justice which were both introduced in section 4.3.7 of the literature review. Colquitt et al.'s (2012) research on trust as a mediator of organisational justice and job performance was described in depth in Chapter 4 because it was foreseen that it had the potential to inform a deeper understanding of the relationship between FP behaviour and job performance. For example, it was expected that just as social exchange theory was used to explain how trust mediates the justice-performance relationship, it might be similarly drawn on to clarify whether trust mediates the FP behaviour-job performance relationship. Whilst the focus group study was not designed to directly ask participants about the underlying mechanisms of social exchange and justice, the grounded theory data which subsequently emerged was indicative of how social exchange might be used to account for how trust mediates the relationship between FP behaviour and job performance.

For instance, the subcategory of *Co-Worker Trust Reduces False Performance* (see section 6.2.3.5) provides data which suggests that if the false performer "...had full trust in someone, they might not want to stamp on that person..." (p. 142). Consistent with social exchange theory, this piece of data suggests that if the false performer feels that they are in a trusting relationship with their co-workers, they may feel obligated to reciprocate this trust by engaging in improved job performance (explained by the exchange-based mechanism associated with social exchange theory). However, opposing data from the current focus group study argues that the false performer's job performance will not be improved by their trust in others because, "It is irrelevant whether they trust anybody else or not because...what they're looking for are opportunities to exploit and manipulate" (p. 139). Therefore, the data relating to trust as a mediator of the FP behaviour-job performance relationship is inconclusive. However, sufficient data has been yielded by the current qualitative study to help guide future researchers in designing a quantitative study to further examine this relationship.

In terms of the underlying mechanism of anticipated justice, it was not made clear by the grounded theory data whether the false performer would be likely to moderate their FP behaviour if they perceived a sense of justice in the workplace. In the focus group study, "justice" was not a term used by participants, nor was it a theme identified during subsequent grounded theory data analysis. Therefore, whilst Colquitt et al.'s (2012)

study suggests that a heuristic of justice may guide employees to develop greater levels of trust in management which may, in turn, lead to improved job performance; this complex relationship did not emerge in the current study to account for how justice might affect the false performer's behaviour. However, given Chapter 4's comprehensive discussion of anticipated justice, it is recommended that future studies investigate how the justice-trust connection might affect the FP behaviour-job performance relationship.

Generally, within the focus groups, the exploration of the relationship between FP and trust formed part of the overall discussion about the effect of FP on work relationships. Whilst the variable of trust was not re-examined in the quantitative study, the effect of FP on work relationships was further explored in an unanticipated way. Whilst reflecting on the qualitative data for the purpose of generating items for the quantitative study, the researcher discovered an additional "work relationship" category which had not emerged as part of the initial grounded theory analysis. Upon reviewing the data with the construction of the FPQ in mind, the researcher experienced fresh analytic insights. Whilst carefully inspecting the hundreds of qualitative codes generated during grounded theory analysis, the category of *Work Friendships* became prominent upon re-evaluation of the data. This concept suggests that the false performer approaches work relationships strategically; for example, creating a friendly image in the workplace to compensate for their lack of competency, or befriending influential others whom they believe can help them to advance within the organisation. In stage one of initial item generation (see section 7.2), 14 items, based on the concept of *Work Friendships*, were generated. These included, "It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance" and "Building strategic friendships in the workplace is more important than concentrating on improving actual job performance."

In the process of item generation, this new assessment of the data also led to the creation of the new concept, *Words/Language*. Four *Words/Language* items were written in the initial item generation stage, including, "You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are." The discovery of these two new categories, *Work Friendships* and *Words/Language*, demonstrates the potential for the researcher to adopt two different perspectives dependent upon whether they are working within the qualitative or the

quantitative paradigm. It also indicates that data may take on a new form depending upon the lens through which it is viewed and also the purpose for which it is intended. In the current study, reassessing the original grounded theory data within a quantitative paradigm conferred new practical meaning on the data. Viewing the data functionally, in terms of how it could be used to measure FP behaviours, caused new patterns of FP behaviour to become visible. By conducting MMR, the original qualitative analysis acquired additional levels of meaning beyond that which would have emerged if there was only a qualitative research element. The “mixing” of the qualitative with the quantitative proved how the combining of the two research methods can deepen the overall level of analysis achieved within a research study.

MMR has been criticised for combining qualitative and quantitative paradigms because some argue that the differing philosophies of these designs cannot be combined (Frost, 2011). However, the current thesis is testament to how qualitative and quantitative methods can be used to complement each other in the pursuit of research answers.

9.4 Limitations

This thesis has substantially contributed to the literature on FP in terms of its study of the phenomenon in UK public sector organisations. However, as with any research, there are a number of limitations which should be addressed in the final discussion of the research design and methodology.

Although the integration of qualitative and quantitative research methods was intended to overcome the limitations faced by each in isolation (Gelo et al., 2008), certain limitations were nevertheless encountered within the scope of this study. The limitations of the quantitative study have already been reviewed in section 8.4. Whilst there is no need to reiterate these previously discussed limitations, the limitations surrounding the construction of the FPQ should be discussed in relation to Objective 6:

Objective 6: Demonstrate the reliability and validity of the new FPQ instrument.

Chapter 7 discusses the various ways in which the current study sought to establish reliability and validity of the FPQ. For example, the attainment of Objective 4 during the process of item refinement helped to gather evidence of face and content validity.

Objective 4: Pilot-test the FPQ in order to ensure clarity and content validity. Refine the initial items through pre- and post-pilot consultation with experts.

Whilst rigorous methods, such as pilot testing the questionnaire and consulting experts helped to achieve Objective 6, the construction of a new measure usually requires several administrations in order to fully establish reliability and validity. Due to time limitations, the current study was unable to test the new FP measure repeatedly in a number of different settings. Therefore, it is the remit of future studies to gather further evidence of reliability and validity for the new 16-item FPQ.

A major limitation encountered in the quantitative study involved the sampling challenges presented by conducting research in the public sector (see sections 5.5.2.1 and 8.2.2.2). Sampling mainly proved problematic as organisations were reluctant to participate in the study either because of the sensitivity of the data being collected, and/or because of the challenges being faced in the public sector at the time. With many services and jobs being lost, most public sector organisations had to concentrate their resources on managing in-house challenges rather than hosting external research. Ultimately, the difficulties in recruiting public sector organisations had an effect on final participant numbers. This was compounded by a low response rate in one of the largest organisations recruited for Stage 6 of questionnaire distribution. Although the organisation involved had predicted that there would be a 15-20% rate of response to the 1000 postal questionnaires distributed to their employees, only 10% of the questionnaires were actually returned by the closing date. Unfortunately, it was not possible to issue postal reminders due to the budget for postage costs having been exhausted by this point. After expending a lot of effort in recruiting additional public sector organisations to boost participant numbers, the sample size obtained in Stage 6 was deemed sufficient for factor analytic purposes. However, a larger sample would have been preferable for increasing the statistical power for hypotheses testing.

A further limitation associated with sampling concerned the sample demographic in Stage 6 (see Table 8.7). The larger sample ($n=219$) in the second phase of the questionnaire study (Stage 6) was predominantly female (82%). In inadvertently obtaining a female dominated sample in Stage 6, this will have resulted in predominantly female attitudes and behaviours informing the factor analysis reported in Chapter 8. However, an independent sample t-test was conducted and no significant difference was found between males and females for the study variables of the FPQ, OCS, and IM scale, nor for either of the FPQ subscales (i.e. Authentic Work relationships and Masking Incompetency). Significant gender differences were found

only for the study variable of job performance, with the result of the t-test indicating that job performance among females is significantly higher than among their male counterparts. This result was related back to the previous finding that the job performance scale was negatively and significantly correlated with the 16-item FPQ and the Masking Incompetency subscale. Together, these findings suggest that males may be likely to score more highly on the 16-item FPQ. Therefore, another recommendation is that future studies further investigate whether gender differences are likely to affect FP behaviour in this way. Also, as another independent t-test found that males were significantly more likely to agree with the following item than were females, it is recommended that future researchers further investigate whether males are likely to significantly differ from females on this linguistic aspect of FP behaviour i.e. "It is possible to use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are." Finally, future research should seek to re-examine and substantiate the validity of the two-factor structure of the FPQ using a more proportionate sample.

Also, in both Stages 5 and 6, the sample was predominantly non-managerial. In Stage 5, 66% of the sample was of Non-Management status (see Table 8.2) and, in Stage 6, 76% of the sample was of Non-Management status (see Table 8.7). Whilst it could be argued that this non-managerial status bias skews the results obtained in the current study, it could also be counter-argued that the sample is actually representative of the Management/Non-Management percentage divide in most organisations. As there are invariably more non-managers than managers in any organisation, it cannot reasonably be expected to obtain an equal 50/50 sample of Management and Non-Management employees, unless this is specifically built into the design of the study. It should also be acknowledged that no study is completely generalisable (Mook, 1983).

Another limitation to be considered in terms of generalisability concerns the sector in which the research was conducted. As the current study focused on the investigation of FP solely within the public sector, the results reported in this thesis cannot be generalised to the private or the voluntary sector. There is also the possibility that the use of only public sector organisations may have restricted the variance of the new FPQ. It may be that the public sector attracts employees with similar personalities; in which case, the distribution of responses on the FPQ may have varied less than if the measure had been administered across a variety of sectors. Furthermore, it may be

that some jobs and sectors attract more false performers than others. If this is so, certain organisations could justify the use of increased resources to detect FP during recruitment and selection. Future work should concentrate on studying FP in a range of different sectors in order to compare and contrast how FP manifests in different organisational contexts.

It is possible that the demographic of age may change as a result of conducting future research in a different sector. The current study indicates that the public sector consists largely of more mature employees. Although the demographic for both Stages 5 and 6 was spread across all age ranges, 81% of participants in Stage 5 were 36 years old or over (see Table 8.2) and 74% of participants in Stage 6 were 36 years old or over (see Table 8.7). Thus, a low percentage of participants were under 36 years old. Although only speculation, future research may yield different insights into the occurrence of FP amongst a younger working population.

In addition to these quantitative limitations, there were also a number of limitations associated with the qualitative study. For instance, certain sampling challenges were faced in the latter stages of the qualitative study (see section 5.5.2.3). Focus groups seven and eight consisted of only three and two participants respectively. A major benefit of focus group research is that participants engage in dialogue which draws out each other's experiences, thus generating rich, contextualised data (Clarke, 2006; Kitzinger, 1994, 1995). However, in the final two focus groups, the exchange of dialogue was restricted by the low number of participants. However, the researcher was satisfied with the continuous and animated exchange of dialogue which transpired despite the poor attendance in these focus groups. Also, as these smaller focus groups were conducted at the end of the study, the contribution of these groups was sufficient to complete theoretical saturation (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and conclude the research.

One of the biggest advantages, and also limitations, of focus group research is the huge volume of data which is generated by the hours of dialogue captured within the focus groups. In the current study, the entire transcription process yielded 231 pages of single-spaced text i.e. data. Grounded theory was used to reduce the rich qualitative data into meaningful categories and subcategories. However, there were limitations as to how much data could be included in the final theory. For instance, there were a few striking references to the relationship between gender and FP. Also, in the pilot study,

one participant commented that the “role of gender mix in the workplace” could be significant (see section 7.4.2.4). Yet, the data obtained in relation to gender was not included in the grounded theory write-up. There was other more substantial data which could be used to better support the developing theory in different directions. However, future studies should seek to further investigate the relationship between gender and FP and account for why any gender differences may exist, especially given the findings which indicate that males may be likely to score more highly on the 16-item FPQ.

Finally, as a result of using an exploratory sequential design, there was a risk that any error within the first phase i.e. the qualitative study could be carried over into the second phase i.e. the quantitative study. By asking participants within the focus groups to share their opinions and experiences of FP, there was an assumption that participants could grasp the meaning of the term, “False Performance.” However, participants may not have understood the concept of FP, and this type of error could have contaminated the new instrument i.e. the FPQ. Yet, as the results of the quantitative phase produced a reliable and valid measure of FP, this is strong evidence that the qualitative data accurately captured the construct of FP.

In view of the aforementioned limitations, the following recommendations for future research are presented in the next section.

9.5 Recommendations for Future Research

A number of recommendations for future research have already been indicated in the previous discussion of research limitations (see section 9.4). Further recommendations will be developed in the following discussion of how the results from the current study can be used to inform future work in the area of FP.

Firstly, there were suggestions within the focus groups that organisational culture may affect whether or not a culture of FP exists amongst employees. Boyatzis (1982) explains that “organizational climate or culture has been used as a concept to describe the impact of the organization’s structure, policies, and procedures on its members (Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Tagiuri & Litwin, 1968; Klemp, 1975; Spencer, Klemp & Cullen, 1978)” (p. 18). There is certainly the possibility that organisational culture may somehow encourage the emergence of FP amongst employees. It may be that FP is not just a function of the individual, but also of the environment in which they work.

Certain focus group discussions prompted the researcher to question whether, although the false performer is individually prone to deceit, could an element of their FP behaviour also be provoked by the organisational culture? For instance, in the qualitative study, the topic of trust in co-workers prompted talk of “the non-false performer being destroyed by a false performing organisation” (p. 138). There were also suggestions that organisational culture may play a role in preventing employees from reporting instances of FP (see section 6.2.4.2). Overall, however, the qualitative results did not offer overwhelming evidence to indicate that organisational culture lies at the root of FP. Apart from a few references to organisational culture, the focus group findings generally support the central argument of this thesis which is that FP behaviour is a stable, underlying personality facet rather than a form of behaviour which arises as a result of an individual being placed in an unethical work context.

On balance, however, it is the current study’s recommendation that future studies should seek to investigate the effect of organisational culture on FP, given both the preceding discussion in relation to the current research and the fact that previous research (e.g. Cherrington & Cherrington, 1985; Jones & Boye, 1995; Parilla, Hollinger, & Clark, 1988) suggests that reinventing organisational culture is effective in reducing deviant behaviour (Boye & Jones, 1997). For instance, Andrews and Francis-Smythe (2010) explain that “Cultures that promote openness and honesty can reduce the ability of those with personality dysfunction to manipulate others or create conflicts” (p. 32).

Another recommendation for future research relates back to the decision to position the current study in the public sector. In the literature review (see section 2.3), it was acknowledged that the specific organisational context of the public sector would have an influence on the research findings and “there was an expectation that there would be a greater incidence of FP behaviours in the public sector because of the specific values (e.g. less competitive) and PMSs associated with the public sector” (p. 11). Furthermore, in terms of systems, there was also a discussion in Chapter 4 relating to how organisational control systems might impact upon employees’ trust in the organisation (see section 4.3.2).

Although it was suggested in the literature review that there may be a greater incidence of FP in organisations where there are weaker control and monitoring systems i.e. the public sector, the qualitative results do not suggest that weak control systems are

predictive of FP behaviour. In other words, the data does not suggest that employees develop into false performers as a result of working in organisations with lesser actions and sanctions in place. In section 4.2.3, based on the control-trust research (e.g. Weibel et al., 2015), it was suggested that in organisations where controls are weak, employees may lack trust in their employer, and this could lead to an increase in FP behaviour. Weibel et al.'s recent research indicates that having reliable and well-implemented control systems can facilitate trust in the employing organisation, whereas poorly implemented control systems which are inconsistent, rigid, or incentivise untrustworthy behaviour can undermine trust in the organisation. In the current study, whilst focus group participants alluded to process controls i.e. written Human Resources (HR) procedures, they did not express the opinion that these control systems were designed in such a way so as to encourage FP. They more often discussed the individual actions of the false performer in manipulating situations within the workplace to their advantage. Output controls, including HR practices such as performance appraisal and management, were discussed in much more depth within the focus groups but, again, the emphasis was on the individual rather than on the organisation. Participants did not indicate that they believed weak output controls caused FP behaviour, but rather that they thought the individual false performer acted deliberately to deceive the manager monitoring or appraising their performance.

In summary, the qualitative results presented in Chapter 6 support the previous FP research (Gbadamosi, 2006; Gbadamosi et al., 2007; Gbadamosi & Osuagwu, 2007; Parnell & Singer, 2001) which defines the FP construct as an individual behaviour rather than an organisational phenomenon. However, it is recommended that future research further investigate the influence of organisational context on FP behaviour by specifically comparing FP in the public and the private sector. Also, in terms of the culture of the organisation, the qualitative results also suggest that a high or low culture of trust in organisations might affect the false performer's capacity to cause damage (see section 6.2.3.5). The category of *What Do You Mean by Trust?* (see section 6.2.3.4) indicates that there is a very complex interaction between FP and co-worker trust, and also between FP and trust in management. It would be beneficial for future research to re-examine the relationship between trust and FP, given that a lot of data in the qualitative study dealt with how trust might either increase or decrease incidences of FP in the workplace. Future research is needed to establish which scenario is most likely.

Ultimately, one of the most striking trust themes to emerge from the focus groups was that of *Trust is Not a Concept for the False Performer* (see section 6.2.3.2). This subcategory raised the question of whether the false performer is ever really capable of developing trust in their managers or co-workers. Recent research by Searle, Den Hartog, et al. (2011) found that employees high on propensity to trust are more likely to trust their employer than employees low on propensity to trust. However, as the entire phenomenon of FP is defined in terms of the false performer's dishonest intentions, is speaking of the false performer's ability to trust others something of an oxymoron? For example, if the false performer has no trust in others or a low propensity to trust others, will they have a more negative and suspicious view of their employer and co-workers and will they, therefore, engage in more FP behaviours? It is the recommendation of the current study that future research investigate the relationship between the false performer's propensity to trust others and their FP behaviour in the workplace.

Whilst the current research limited the study of trust to the qualitative research phase to guard against fatigue effects in the quantitative phase, one critical way in which future studies could further investigate the relationship between propensity to trust and FP is through the quantitative administration of both the FPQ and a reliable measure of trust. For example, in future research, the FPQ could be administered with both a trust in management scale (e.g. LaRocco et al., as cited in Weber & Weber, 2001) and a trust in co-workers scale (e.g. Cook and Wall, 1980). The resulting quantitative findings on trust and FP could then be compared to the current qualitative findings in order to further enhance an understanding of how trust is associated with FP.

Another recommendation for future research concerns the work status of the sample. In designing the current focus groups, participants were divided by status (i.e. Management and Non-Management) in order to create an environment in which all participants would feel more comfortable expressing their true opinions. As a result of using NVivo to analyse the qualitative data in the current study, it was possible to assign case values of "Management" and "Non-Management" to the data in order to compare what Management had said with what Non-Management had said. A somewhat unexpected outcome of designing the study and analysing the data in this way is that a unique perspective was gained on how FP might operate in both a managerial and non-managerial context.

For example, in one non-managerial focus group, an employee related the story of how they had approached their manager with a good idea, but later found out that their manager had claimed credit for the idea without acknowledging their input in any way. In this instance, the manager's position gave them the opportunity to claim credit for their subordinate's idea in a manner which would not have been available to the subordinate's co-workers. There were also other suggestions in the data to indicate that certain manifestations of FP may be shaped by an individual's position in the organisational hierarchy. For instance, the subcategory of *Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates* (see section 6.2.1.3) provides evidence that there may be a specific subset of "managerial FP." This subcategory includes several examples which illustrate how and why management might over-delegate work to their subordinates with the intention of claiming full credit for the results. However, whilst the data indicates differences in opportunities for FP behaviour depending on status, that is not to say that the false performing manager differs intrinsically from the false performing non-manager, but rather that the different power structures within which they operate may give rise to different presentations of FP. It would be useful for future research to address this issue by further investigating how FP presents within a managerial versus a non-managerial context.

Finally, the most significant recommendation to emerge from the current study is that future studies re-test the new 16-item FPQ i.e. the end product of the MMR described in this thesis. Moreover, it is recommended that special attention be placed on gaining additional evidence of reliability and validity for the two subscales i.e. Authentic Work Relationships (subscale 1) and Masking Incompetency (subscale 2). Although the 16-item FPQ and both subscales were found to have good reliability and both scales were positively and significantly correlated with the 16-item FPQ, as well as with each other, the Authentic Work Relationships subscale was not found to be significantly correlated with any of the other subscales i.e. the OCS, IM scale, and job performance scale. As both subscales are measures of FP behaviour, this was a curious finding as it was expected that the Authentic Work Relationships subscale would correlate with the other study variables in the same way as the Masking Incompetency subscale did. Therefore, a recommendation which emerged is that future studies re-examine the intercorrelations among the FPQ, FPQ subscales, OCS, IM scale and job performance scale. Finally, it is recommended that future studies perform a stronger CFA, this time using a larger sample in order to verify the factor model of FP behaviours.

9.6 Contribution to the Literature

The findings presented in this thesis contribute to the literature in three essential ways. The following sections describe the theoretical, methodological, and practical contributions which the current study has made to the research area of FP.

9.6.1 Theoretical Contributions

This thesis has made a number of important theoretical contributions to the literature. As stated in the introduction (see section 1.1), the current study was undertaken to investigate the relatively new construct of FP in the UK public sector. As scant literature on the phenomenon has been published, the current study sought to address the gap in the literature by extending previous quantitative efforts (e.g. Parnell & Singer, 2001), and conducting the first qualitative study in this area, as recommended by previous research (i.e. Gbadamosi, 2006). These aims were achieved through the realisation of the seven objectives outlined above. Thus, the current study represents a significant qualitative and quantitative contribution to the FP literature base.

One of the main theoretical contributions of this thesis is the clarification which it has provided in terms of what is meant by the concept “False Performance.” As earlier research did not provide a clear working definition of FP, a major contribution of the present thesis is a new more explicit definition of FP which emphasises the *deliberate* intention of the false performer to present themselves falsely to others (see section 9.2). This definition differentiates FP from IM, recalling the distinction made by DuBrin (2011) between those who emphasise legitimate personal qualities (i.e. the impression manager) and those who use IM in order to create a false impression or hide deficiencies (i.e. the false performer). The focus group questioning route was specifically designed to elicit FP-specific responses which would help to better define FP. For instance, participants were asked, “What is the first thing that comes to mind when you hear the phrase ‘unethical *self-presentation* behaviours’”? This helped to generate responses about the false side of IM i.e. FP, rather than the legitimate practice of IM to create a positive impression.

In the literature review, the IM literature was extensively reviewed and this necessitated a conceptual distinction being drawn between IM and FP (see section 2.8). Another body of associated literature (e.g. CWBs, the “good soldier” versus the “good actor”) was also reviewed in relation to the construct of FP in order to demonstrate its

distinction from previous theories of unethical work behaviour (see section 2.7). In Chapter 6, the qualitative theory and data presented contribute to an understanding of which behaviours comprise FP. Although some of these behaviours might previously have been discussed in the literature in relation to other constructs (e.g. IM, CWBs), the contribution of the current thesis is that it has for the first time drawn together these behaviours in a unique way so as to precisely define what constitutes FP.

The current study has also contributed a new measure of FP which is based on the grounded theory presented in Chapter 6. Moreover, the new FPQ is grounded in the extensive work experience of real employees, with the focus group employees reporting a mean total years' work experience of 23 years. The grounded theory analysis informed the 16-item FPQ and provided an item set which could then be compared with Parnell and Singer's (2001) original nine-item OCS. During the process of item refinement, the two scales were compared and, on the whole, there was not a great deal of overlap between the two (see section 7.2). For example, in the OCS, there are two items which consider the importance of physical appearance when being seen by key organisational players. These items are most probably based on theory which suggests that physical appearance attracts positive attributions. For instance, previous research (e.g. Barrick et al., 2009) suggests that physical appearance may have a powerful impact on interviewers because it is one of the first pieces of "information" received about an interview candidate and, consequently, information gained later in the interview is unable to counter the biases generated by the primacy effects. However, in the current study, there was very little theory generated on the issue of appearance, and no FPQ items were based on this aspect of behaviour. This may be because dressing impressively or maximising one's appearance is not, in fact, behaviour which is exclusive to the false performer – most employees will seek to, and indeed are encouraged to, present a professional appearance in the workplace.

9.6.2 Methodological Contributions

The primary methodological contribution of the current study is the development of the new 16-item FPQ. Although the nine-item OCS had already been designed to measure FP, it was suggested in the introduction (see Chapter 1) that the brevity of the OCS may have come at the expense of producing an instrument which captured the entire range of FP behaviours (see also section 2.9). Furthermore, since the development of the OCS, the instrument has not been widely adopted and, in the two studies that have

re-tested the OCS, the original results have not been replicated. For instance, in conducting further research with the OCS, Gbadamosi (2006) reported an alpha of 0.62, and Gbadamosi et al. (2007) reported an alpha of 0.65. As alpha values should be 0.70 or higher for a scale to be regarded as reliable (e.g. Kline, 1993), these findings suggested that there was a research need for a more robust measure of FP.

In the current quantitative study, the nine-item OCS was again found to demonstrate relatively low reliability ($\alpha=0.55$). In contrast, the alpha for the 16-item FPQ emerged as 0.76, thus indicating very good reliability. Furthermore, the reliability for the combined nine-item OCS and 16-item FPQ (25 items in total) was found to be 0.73. Therefore, adding the OCS to the FPQ actually reduced the reliability of the FPQ rather than increased it. Thus, the overall evidence suggests that the 16-item FPQ is a more robust and reliable measure of FP than the OCS. The availability of a new validated measure of FP has important implications for future research. The recommendation is that future studies utilise the FPQ for the measurement of FP and, in the process, gather further evidence for the reliability and validity of the instrument. Furthermore, the 16-item FPQ can be administered with other organisational scales which will allow future researchers to further explore the relationship between FP and other variables.

The factor analysis and results presented in section 8.3.2.3 represent another significant methodological contribution. This section of the thesis comprehensively describes the process of factor analysis which was used to refine the FPQ items and produce a reliable and valid questionnaire instrument. In summary, two EFAs, followed by CFA, resulted in the final multidimensional 16-item FPQ. Initially, the first EFA produced a five-factor solution for a 21-item FPQ, with the factor labels in Table 8.10 describing the following factors: Factor 1) Authentic Work Relationships; Factor 2) Job Avoidance; Factor 3) Masking Incompetency; Factor 4) Linguistic Skills; and Factor 5) Front Stage FP. After performing the second EFA, with a forced two factor solution, the final factor labels assigned were: Factor 1) Authentic Work Relationships; and Factor 2) Masking Incompetency. These factors are distinct from those previously reported for the OCS. For instance, Parnell and Singer (2001) identified two components of the OCS and labelled them “expectations” and “image” (see section 8.2.1.1). When Gbadamosi and Osuagwu (2007) re-examined the OCS, they found four components underlying the OCS. They labelled these factors: Factor 1) False Appearance; Factor 2) Calculative; Factor 3) Self-Preservation; and Factor 4) Deceptive. Gbadamosi and

Osuagwu's factor loadings for the nine-item OCS are displayed in Appendix Q. Taking these findings into account, the factor structures reported for the OCS and FPQ are dissimilar enough to suggest that the new 16-item FPQ measures FP differently to the OCS, perhaps accounting for why it is a more reliable measure of FP.

The MMR approach to the design of the FPQ also made certain other valuable methodological contributions. For instance, the pilot studies conducted in both phases were comprehensively reported (see sections 5.4 and 7.4). Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) describe how pilot studies are often likely to be "underdiscussed, underused and underreported" (Prescott & Soeken, 1989, p. 60). They explain that full reports of pilot studies are rare in the research literature (Lindquist, 1991; Muoio, Wolcott, & Seigel, 1995; van Teijlingen, Rennie, Hundley, & Graham, 2001). Van Teijlingen and Hundley argue that the outcomes from pilot studies might be useful to future researchers working in the same field. Therefore, they encourage researchers to report their pilot studies and, specifically, to report in more detail the actual improvements made to the study design and research process. The present study has done exactly this and dedicated much effort to detailing exactly what was learnt from the pilot studies and how this information was used to improve the research design.

Another methodological gap reported in the literature concerns the way in which focus group data can be used to construct a new instrument. McLafferty (2004) explains that the literature generally does not explain how focus group data can be transformed systematically into a new questionnaire. The current study offers a comprehensive description of the systematic procedure which was followed in order to transform the qualitative focus group data into the final 16-item FPQ. The availability of this procedural account represents a major contribution to the literature, one which can help to inform other researchers who are using similar methodology in the future.

The grounded theory analysis reported in the qualitative study (see Chapter 6) has also made an important methodological contribution. Wilkinson (1999) explains that although group interaction is meant to be a central feature of focus group research, one review of over 40 focus group studies "could not find a single one concentrating on the conversation between participants and very few that even included any quotations from more than one participant at a time" (Kitzinger, 1994, p. 104). The current qualitative study made an effort to reflect the interactive nature of the focus groups by including

quotations of dialogue between participants (see Chapter 6, pp. 125, 126, 127-8, 131, 140, 144, and 145). As opposed to other research methods, focus group methodology can capture unique dynamics which reflect real-life in a more authentic way. Unlike most previous focus group studies, the current study attended to the impact of the group setting and, by reporting the dialogue among the group participants, it aimed to convey the dynamics of the interaction found within the groups. Madriz (2000) explains that the group interaction is a very important aspect of the research, contributing to “the development of shared stocks of knowledge” (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995).

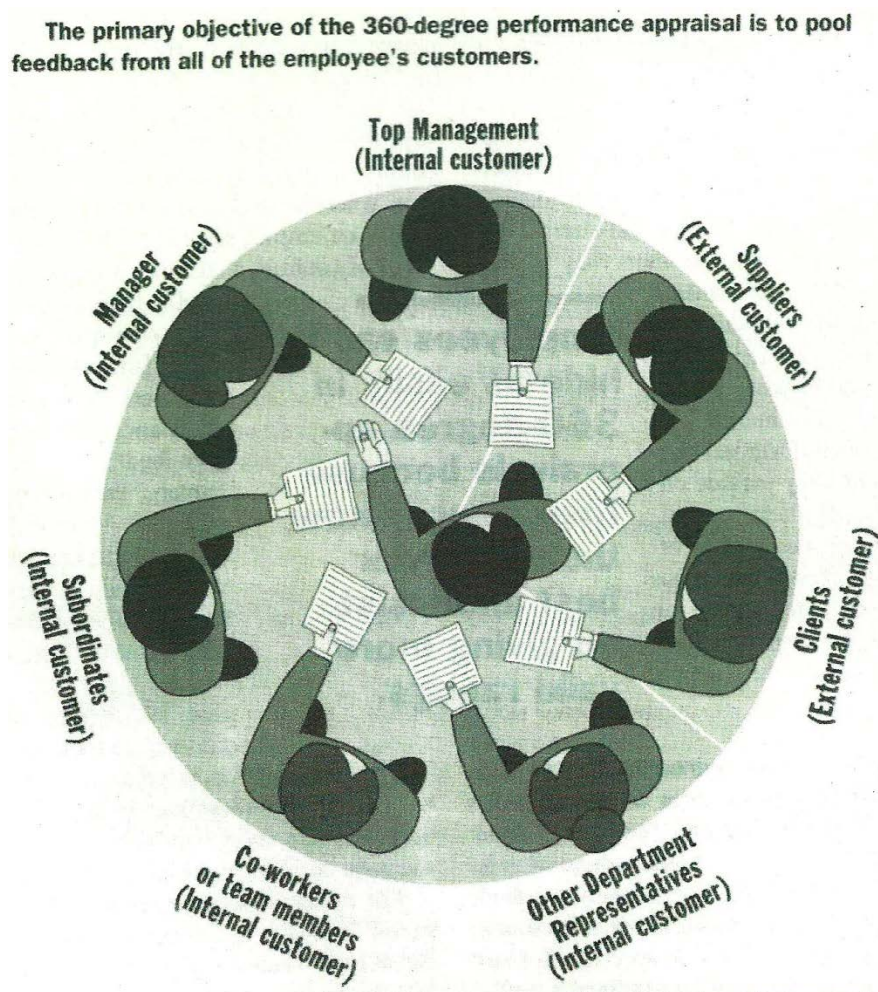
9.6.3 Practical Contributions

The current study of FP has various implications for informing organisational practice. For instance, the category of *Tackling FP in the Workplace* (see section 6.2.5) outlined two practical recommendations for dealing with FP: Training (see section 6.2.5.2) and 360 Degree Appraisal (see section 6.2.5.3). Within the subcategory of Training, it was suggested that organisations should: a) Provide training to employees on what constitutes appropriate self-presentation behaviour in the workplace; b) Train management to improve their own self-awareness of how they behave; and c) Train management to better monitor FP from the early stages. The latter recommendation echoes previous suggestions which have been put forward in the IM literature. For example, Rosenfeld et al. (2002) recommend that “some knowledge of the nature of the positive and negative aspects of IM could be added to training to help interviewers recognize and defend against various IM techniques” (p. 153). Previous research has actually found that trained interviewers are better at detecting IM in a job interview and are less affected by it than untrained interviewers (Howard & Ferris, 1996).

The category of *Tackling FP in the Workplace* also flagged up the merits of 360 degree appraisals for the detection and management of FP. The 360 degree appraisal system involves collecting multi-source feedback (see Figure 9.1). Day (2001) explains that, according to previous studies, ratings across sources correlate only moderately (e.g. Atwater, Ostroff, Yammarino, & Fleenor, 1998). This finding suggests that performance may well vary across contexts and, thus, may be perceived differently by different stakeholders. As such, Day (2001) suggests that 360 degree ratings are necessary in order to capture the full spectrum of employee behaviour. Andrews and Francis-Smythe (2010) also explain that, “Once hired, it is difficult to identify and manage an individual with personality dysfunction. 360 degree appraisal systems may reveal if

there are inconsistencies in how an individual is seen by peers, subordinates and managers. Inconsistent evaluations are commonly found when an individual is high on dysfunctional traits” (p. 32). Consequently, if an organisation was to administer the self-report FPQ, it would ideally be supplemented by the data provided by 360 degree appraisal, such as customer feedback, observation, and performance records.

Figure 9.1 360 Degree Performance Appraisals



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Source: Milliman, Zawacki, Norman, Powell and Kirksey (1994, p. 100).

The current study has many implications for managerial practice, specifically in terms of how to manage FP in the workplace and, moreover, how to conduct job interviews in order to prevent the false performer from gaining access to the organisation.

Gbadamosi (2006) previously identified a number of managerial implications, emphasising the urgent need for Human Resource Practitioners (HRPs) to put in place measures for the detection of FP. Based on the current research findings, this thesis reiterates the counsel of Gbadamosi, especially as there is no evidence to suggest that HR departments have responded urgently or otherwise to previous calls to introduce measures to monitor and deal with FP.

Crucially, the current research has alerted organisations to the need to examine their own bureaucratic processes in order to assess how they may better manage FP in the workplace. In section 6.2.4.2, the subcategory of Reluctance to Report FP explains how company bureaucracy may play a significant role in preventing employees from reporting FP. This qualitative finding indicates that HR departments should prioritise putting procedures in place to streamline how they deal with the receipt of FP complaints from non-false performing employees. Of course, as previously discussed, it would be easier for the organisation to prevent the false performer from gaining entry to the organisation through effective recruitment and selection procedures (see section 9.3). However, in instances, where a false performer is later discovered to have entered into the ranks, it is important that HR departments have efficient strategies in place to practically deal with the problem.

Finally, this thesis indicates how important it is for organisations to deal with each and every instance of FP. The results of the qualitative study indicate that just one false performer's actions could cause severe ripple effects amongst the workforce. Thus, the FP contagion effect, introduced in the literature review (see section 4.4), found support in the qualitative data. In discussing the effects of FP on co-worker morale (section 6.2.4.3), one focus group participant explained that, "If a false performer seems to be doing well, it can make you want to false perform" (p. 113). This exemplifies the "monkey see, monkey do" mentality described by Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998), whereby anti-social behaviour by individuals can become contagious within a group. Felps, Mitchell and Byington (2006) similarly posit that "bad apples spoil the barrel," explaining that one individual's dysfunctional behaviour can impair the functioning of the entire group. For example, initially functional group members may start to withhold effort in order to restore equity with the "bad apple" (Felps et al., 2006). Consequently, the current thesis urges employers to actively address the problem of FP in order to ensure that FP behaviour remains the exception in the workplace rather than the rule.

9.7 Concluding Remarks

In summary, this thesis has made a significant qualitative and quantitative contribution to the FP literature. Once future studies have followed the recommendation to re-test the new 16-item FPQ to establish the generalisability of the reliability and validity of the measure to contexts other than the public sector, the instrument may be put to practical use by organisations to support the detection and management of FP in the workplace.

9.8 Reflections on the Research Process

In reflecting upon my experience of the research process as a whole, the words of Charles Dickens (1859) come to mind, “It was the best of times, it was the worst of times, it was the age of wisdom, it was the age of foolishness, it was the epoch of belief, it was the epoch of incredulity, it was the season of Light, it was the season of Darkness, it was the spring of hope, it was the winter of despair...” (Dickens, 1859, p. 5).

As a doctoral student, I have encountered many challenges during the course of my research, but I have also enjoyed many successes and, ultimately, both of these experiences have informed the final thesis. The biggest challenge (or “season of Darkness”) which emerged during the research process involved data collection. In Chapter 5, I discuss the backdrop of public sector budget cuts against which this research study was carried out. Amid this climate of loss – both of services and jobs – it was difficult to recruit public sector organisations and collect sufficient quantitative data within the time frame initially specified. At the outset of my PhD research, I optimistically designed a time scale to chart every phase of the study. However, in reality, I discovered that, despite my best efforts, not everything always went to plan. I, thus, learnt the value of a contingency plan and a resilient attitude.

Although, to a lesser extent, I also experienced problems in recruiting participants for the focus group study, the qualitative study was, on the whole, an incredibly edifying experience (or “Season of Light”). In terms of my own personal development, I gained the most from this aspect of the research. I grew in confidence as a researcher as a result of having to identify and network with organisations in order to set up in-house focus groups. Coordinating this activity in several organisations required a professional approach and efficient planning. The actual facilitation of focus groups also required strong interpersonal skills. Overall, I really enjoyed my role as a qualitative researcher and I valued the opportunity which it gave me to develop my skills in the moderation and transcription of focus groups. However, in analysing the qualitative focus group data, I perhaps confronted my greatest research nemesis in the form of grounded theory. In my thesis, I describe grounded theory as a divided methodology. As a result of this division, I had to invest a *lot* of time in reading around grounded theory to ensure that I understood the nuances of this analytic technique. Thus, I steadily became more knowledgeable and assured in using this enormously valuable methodology.

Finally, I appreciate the opportunity which this research has afforded me to share my work. Presenting papers and posters at conference has been hugely rewarding, especially in the international arena, such as at the International Society of Business, Economics, and Ethics (ISBEE) World Congress 2012 in Poland. All in all, I feel very humbled by the research process.

9.9 Publications

A list of publications arising from the current research is presented in Appendix R.

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Appendices

Appendix A1: Pilot Focus Group Script and Questions

Pilot Focus Group Welcome

Good afternoon and welcome along to this pilot focus group session. Thank you for taking the time to join in with this discussion about unethical workplace behaviours. As a reminder, my name is Marie Dunnion and I am a PhD student at the University of Worcester.

Overview of the Topic

As part of my PhD research, I am currently gathering information about peoples' experiences and opinions of unethical behaviours in the workplace. I want to find out more about how this behaviour affects job performance and work relationships.

You were invited here today because you all have at least two years' work experience, although this may not all necessarily be in the same job role. I want to tap into your work experience and your opinions about unethical workplace behaviours spanning the entire length of your working career, so our discussion is not limited to one specific position you have held.

Ground Rules

There are no right or wrong answers. I expect that you will have differing points of view. Please feel free to share your point of view even if it differs from what others have said. I will be recording the session because I don't want to miss any of your comments. Please be assured that no names will be included in any reports. Your comments are entirely confidential.

Everybody in the group has been identified by a name tag. They help me to remember names, but they can also help you. Don't feel like you have to respond to me all the time. If you want to follow up on something that someone has said, you want to agree, or disagree, or give an example, feel free to do that. Feel free to have a conversation with one another about these questions. I am here to ask questions, listen and make sure everyone has a chance to share. We're interested in hearing from each of you. So if you're talking a lot, I may ask you to give others a chance. And if you aren't saying much, I may call on you. I just want to make sure all of you have a chance to share your ideas.

If you have a mobile phone, please switch it off now. I would ask you not to just put it on silent as it may still vibrate and interfere with the recording equipment.

Opening Question

If everyone is ready, then let's start with the first question.

1. "Let's find out more about each other by going around the group. Tell me your name, or what you like to be called, and state roughly how many jobs you have had in your working life so far."

Introductory Question

2. "What is the first thing that comes to mind when you hear the phrase 'unethical work behaviours'?"

Appendix A1 Contd.

Transition Questions

3. "Think back over your entire employment history. What have been your experiences of people practicing unethical behaviours in the workplace?"
4. "What were the consequences of these unethical behaviours for the organisation and how were you personally affected by such peoples' behaviour?"

Key Questions

5. "Take a minute to think about all the people you have known who have practiced unethical work behaviours. With these memories in mind, on the paper in front of you, jot down the behaviours that tell you that your colleagues are performing unethically in their work. We will then feedback as a group, producing a list of these unethical behaviours on the flip chart"

Group feedback: Lists read aloud by participants and recorded on a flip chart.

6. "Now, thinking specifically of interviews, what unethical behaviours do you think people might engage in to get the job they want?"
7. "Most organisations now have periodic performance appraisals for every member of staff. Bearing in mind what we have discussed, what sort of unethical behaviours do you think employees might engage in during performance evaluations?"
8. "Think about the trust that you have in management. How do you think the level of trust people have in management influence their workplace behaviours?"
9. "Now, think about the level of trust people have in their colleagues. How do you think trust in their colleagues might influence peoples' workplace behaviours?"
10. "With what we have discussed so far in mind, how do you think that peoples' unethical work behaviours affect or relate to their actual job performance?"
11. What effect do you think peoples' unethical work behaviours and corresponding job performance has upon their work relationships?

Ending Questions

12. "Think about what we have talked about today. Our purpose in this discussion was to find out more about how to detect unethical behaviours in the workplace. If you had a chance to give advice to an organisation, what advice would you give? Here is a magic wand. I'll pass it around the table and when you receive it, give your magical solution to the problem of unethical behaviour in the workplace. By waving the wand your solution will come true. Take the wand and tell us your solution."
13. "Is there anything else that anyone wants to say that they didn't get chance to say?"

Appendix A2: Pilot Focus Group List of Unethical Work Behaviours

- Absenteeism – especially senior staff
- General laziness
- Undue orders from equals
- Being made to do degrading tasks/repetition
- No support – including from management
- No supervisors
- Withholding information
- Being accused of being unprofessional
- Being stereotyped
- Being left to work alone
- People making jokes about you
- People gossiping about you
- People shouting at you
- Not directly talking to you
- Not returning calls
- Not turning up for set meetings
- Inviting you to meetings without an agenda
- No clarification on procedures
- Bringing personal issues into meetings
- Being personally attacked
- Belittling you in front of others
- Racist comments (direct/indirect)
- Bullying/intimidation
- Inequality towards member of staff
- Nepotism e.g. family members employed
- Not honouring contractual agreements – pay and conditions
- Being dishonest towards you
- Shifting the goalposts (keep changing what they want from you)
- Newly arrived communities – different attitudes towards them. If you are not from the UK, you are not listened to – body language towards you is very intimidating
- Lack of equality
- Harassment
- Lack of respect

Appendix B1: Focus Group E-mail Invitation

Dear [Name of Participant],

My name is Marie Dunnion and I am a PhD student at the University of Worcester. I am currently carrying out research into a variety of workplace behaviours. [Name of organisation] has kindly agreed to assist with this research and they believe that you might be able to help me with my project. I want to talk to people about their lifetime experiences in the workplace and I am hoping that you can make a valuable contribution to my research.

Are you someone with at least two years' work experience (this can be across jobs and is not just applicable to your role at [name of organisation])? If so, you will have encountered many different situations in the workplace over time, and observed a wide range of behaviours demonstrated by your colleagues.

I am getting together a small group of employees to give me some input on their workplace experiences, specifically their observations of ethical and unethical work behaviours during their employment history. It does not matter what job you are currently doing or what positions you have held in the past. I am *not* trying to find out about *your* personal work history or behaviour, but rather attempting to identify general patterns of ethical and unethical workplace behaviours.

All of your comments will be recorded anonymously during the focus group discussion. The group's responses will be entirely confidential between myself and the others present in the room. I plan to gather together about eight people to have this discussion. We will have a few refreshments and a chat lasting 90 minutes. The focus group will take place:

- Date:.....
- Time:.....
- Organisation, Location:.....
- Room Number:.....

Will you be able to join me? Please send expressions of interest to [name of organisational contact] at [their e-mail contact details]. I hope that you will be able to attend and that I will see you at the forthcoming discussion.

Kind regards,

Marie Dunnion
PhD Research Student
The University of Worcester
Worcester Business School
Castle Street
Worcester
WR1 3AS

Appendix B2: Focus Group Follow-Up Invitation

Dear [Name of Participant],

Thank you for accepting our invitation to talk about workplace behaviours. The University of Worcester is funding this research, and we want to find out from people like you what your experiences of ethical and unethical work behaviours have been during your employment history. It does not matter what job you are currently doing or what you have done in the past. We are interested in the opinions of all people with more than two years' work experience. The group will be held:

- Date:.....
- Time:.....
- Organisation, Location:.....
- Room Number:.....

It will be a small group of eight people. If for any reason you will not be able to join us, please let [name of organisational contact] know as soon as possible, so we can invite someone else. If you have any questions, please give me a call on [researcher's phone number].

I am looking forward to meeting you soon. See you then.

Kind regards,

Marie Dunnion
PhD Research Student
The University of Worcester
Worcester Business School
Castle Street
Worcester
WR1 3AS

Appendix B3: Basic Details Form



Welcome to the Discussion!

Please provide the following basic details & return the form to me. Please detach and keep my contact details for your own records.

Basic Details

Please provide the following details. This information is anonymous so please do not record your name. The information is being collected in order to obtain an overall profile of focus group participants:

Age:

Gender:

Number of Years' Work Experience:

Contact Details

If you have any queries following on from this discussion, or any additional feedback you would like to offer, then please do not hesitate to contact me:

Marie Dunnion
PhD Research Student
The University of Worcester
Worcester Business School
Castle Street
Worcester
WR1 3AS

Telephone: [removed]

Mobile: [removed]

E-mail: [removed]

Thank you very much for your participation.

Appendix C1: Focus Groups 1-4 Script and Questions

Focus Group Welcome

Good afternoon and welcome along. Thanks for taking the time to join in with this discussion about unethical self-presentation behaviours in the workplace. Before we go any further, if you have a mobile phone, can you please switch it off? I would ask you not to just put it on silent as it may still vibrate and interfere with the recording equipment.

Overview of the Topic

My name is Marie Dunnion and I am with the University of Worcester. As part of my PhD research, I am currently gathering information about peoples' experiences and opinions of unethical self-presentation behaviours in the workplace. I want to find out more about how this behaviour affects job performance and work relationships.

You were invited here today because you all have at least two years' work experience, although this may not all necessarily be here at [name of organisation]. I want to tap into your work experience and your opinions about unethical self-presentation behaviours in the workplace, spanning the entire length of your working career. So, please bear in mind, our discussion is not limited to [name of organisation].

Ground Rules

There are no right or wrong answers. I expect that you will have differing points of view. Please feel free to share your point of view even if it differs from what others have said. I will be recording the session because I don't want to miss any of your comments. Please be assured that no names will be included in any reports. Your comments are entirely confidential.

Everybody in the group has been identified by a name tag. They help me to remember names, but they can also help you. Don't feel like you have to respond to me all the time. If you want to follow up on something that someone has said, you want to agree, or disagree, or give an example, feel free to do that. Feel free to have a conversation with one another about these questions. I am here to ask questions, listen and make sure everyone has a chance to share. I am interested in hearing from each of you. So if you're talking a lot, I may ask you to give others a chance. And if you aren't saying much, I may call on you. However, please don't feel that you have to respond to every single question. I just want to make sure all of you have a chance to share your ideas at some point in the discussion. To help you answer all of the focus group questions, please feel free to think about the people you have encountered during your own working life, but please do not name any individuals within the course of the discussion. Also, be aware that all of the information shared within the group is confidential and should not be spoken of again outside of the focus group discussion.

Feel free to help yourself to more refreshments if you would like and then we will begin. If everyone is ready, then let's start with the first question.

Appendix C1 Contd.

Opening Question

1. "Let's find out more about each other by going around the group. Tell me your name, or what you like to be called, and state roughly how many jobs you have had in your working life so far. For example, my name is [researcher's name] and I have had roughly ten jobs in my entire working life."

Introductory Question

2. "What is the first thing that comes to mind when you hear the phrase 'unethical self-presentation behaviours'? Please think about the people you have encountered during your own working life in order to help you answer this question."

Prompt: "Please think about the way in which people present themselves at work and the way they actually behave" (prompt given if necessary to facilitate discussion).

Transition Questions

3. "Think back over your entire employment history. What have been your experiences of people practicing unethical self-presentation behaviours in the workplace?" Again, please think about the people you have encountered during your own working life in order to help you answer this question."

Key Questions

Now, please meet a couple of unethical employees, *Hypothetical Harry and Harriet* (picture of two stick-figures displayed on a white board), who are both having their [organisation's name for performance appraisal interview] today.

4. "Most organisations now have periodic performance reviews for every member of staff. Imagine you are a fly on the wall in Harry or Harriet's [organisation's name for performance appraisal interview], or use your own general knowledge of peoples' behaviours in similar performance review schemes to tell me what sort of unethical self-presentation behaviours people might engage in during their employee performance reviews."
5. "To take things back a bit, how do you think Harry or Harriet could have started to use unethical self-presentation behaviours from the point of interview? Imagine that you were a fly on the wall in the interview room when they were both being interviewed. What unethical self-presentation behaviours do you think that people, like Harry or Harriet, might engage in to get the job that they want? Again, please think about the people you have encountered during your own working life in order to help you answer."
6. "Take a minute to think about all the people you have known who have practiced unethical self-presentation behaviours in the workplace. With these memories in mind, on the paper in front of you, jot down the behaviours that tell you that your colleagues are performing unethically in their work. We will then feedback as a group, producing a list of these unethical self-presentation behaviours on the flip chart."

Appendix C1 Contd.

Group feedback: Lists read aloud by participants and recorded on a flip chart.

7. "With what we have discussed so far in mind, how do you think that peoples' unethical self-presentation behaviours affect or relate to their actual job performance? Again, please think about the people you have encountered during your own working life in order to help you answer this question."
8. "What effect do you think peoples' unethical self-presentation behaviours and corresponding job performance has upon their work relationships? Again, please think about the people you have encountered during your own working life in order to help you answer this question."
9. "Think about the trust that you have in management. How do you think the level of trust people have in management influences their workplace behaviours? Again, please think about the people you have encountered during your own working life in order to help you answer this question."
10. "Now, think about the level of trust people have in their colleagues. How do you think trust in their colleagues might influence peoples' workplace behaviours? Again, please think about the people you have encountered during your own working life in order to help you answer this question."
11. "How have you been personally affected by any of the unethical self-presentation behaviours discussed?" (*question only asked if time permitted).

Ending Questions

12. "Think about what we have talked about today. Our purpose in this discussion was to find out more about how to detect unethical self-presentation behaviours in the workplace. If you had a chance to give advice to an organisation, what advice would you give?"

Here is a magic wand. I'll pass it around the table and when you receive it, give your magical solution to the problem of unethical self-presentation behaviour in the workplace. By waving the wand your solution will come true. Take the wand and tell us your solution."

13. "Is there anything else that anyone wants to say that they didn't get chance to say?"

Okay, that brings us to the end of our discussion. Thank you very much for taking part.

Appendix C2: Focus Groups 5-8 Script and Questions

Focus Group Welcome

Good morning and welcome along. Thanks for taking the time to join in with this discussion about workplace behaviours. Before we go any further, if you have a mobile phone, please switch it off. I would ask you not to just put it on silent as it may still vibrate and interfere with the recording equipment.

Overview of the Topic

My name is Marie Dunnion and I am with the University of Worcester. As part of my PhD research, I am currently researching a specific type of workplace behaviour called false performance. During our discussion, we will be talking about individuals in the workplace who present themselves in one way, but actually behave in a significantly different way. I am gathering information about peoples' experiences and opinions of what I am calling false performance in the workplace. False performance is practiced by those individuals in the workplace who actually cannot perform in their role to the level required but, through their actions and words, they deliberately portray themselves as more competent than they actually are. It is this gap between what people say they can do and what they actually do that we will be focusing on. I want to find out more about how this behaviour can be detected and what its effects are on work relationships.

You were invited here today because you all have at least two years' work experience, although this may not all necessarily be here at [name of organisation]. I want to tap into your work experience and your opinions about false performance in the workplace, spanning the entire length of your working career. So, please bear in mind, our discussion is not limited to [name of organisation].

Ground Rules

There are no right or wrong answers. I expect that you will have differing points of view. Please feel free to share your point of view even if it differs from what others have said. I will be recording the session because I don't want to miss any of your comments. Please be assured that no names will be included in any reports. Your comments are entirely confidential.

Everybody in the group has been identified by a name tent. They help me to remember names, but they can also help you. Don't feel like you have to respond to me all the time. If you want to follow up on something that someone has said, you want to agree, or disagree, or give an example, feel free to do that. Feel free to have a conversation with one another about these questions. I am here to ask questions, listen and make sure everyone has a chance to share. I am interested in hearing from each of you. So if you're talking a lot, I may ask you to give others a chance. And if you aren't saying much, I may call on you. However, please don't feel that you have to respond to every single question. I just want to make sure all of you have a chance to share your ideas at some point in the discussion.

Appendix C2 Contd.

To help you answer all of the focus group questions, please feel free to think about the people you have encountered during your own working life, but please do not name any individuals within the course of the discussion. Also, be aware that all of the information shared within the group is confidential and should not be spoken of again outside of the focus group discussion. Feel free to help yourself to more refreshments if you would like and then we will begin. If everyone is ready, then let's start with the first question.

Introductory Question

1. "Think back over your entire employment history. What is your understanding and experience of people who practice false performance in the workplace? If it helps, please think about the people you have encountered during your own working life in order to help you answer the question."

Prompt: "Please think about the sort of people in the workplace who present themselves in one way, but behave in a noticeably different way. It is this gap between what people say they can do and what they actually do that we are discussing" (prompt given if necessary to facilitate discussion).

Key Questions

Now, please meet a couple of unethical employees, *Hypothetical Harry and Harriet* (picture of two stick-figures displayed on a white board), who are both having their [organisation's name for performance appraisal interview] today. Harry and Harriet are what we would call false performers, those individuals who skilfully promote the impression that they perform well, but actually behave in a way which does not match up to their projected self-image. So, through the following questions, we will be building up a character profile of how these false performers act in different situations in the workplace.

2. "Imagine you are a fly on the wall in Harry or Harriet's [organisation's name for performance appraisal interview], or use your own general knowledge of peoples' behaviours in one-to-ones to tell me what sort of false performance behaviours you think false performers might engage in during their [organisation's name for performance appraisal interview]."
3. "To take things back a bit, how do you think Harry or Harriet could have started to use false performance behaviours from the point of interview? Imagine that you were a fly on the wall in the interview room when they were both being interviewed. What false performance behaviours do you think that false performers, like Harry or Harriet, might engage in to get the job that they want?"
4. "Take a minute to think about all the false performers you have known who have practiced false performance in the workplace. With these memories in mind, on the paper in front of you, jot down the behaviours that your colleagues use to present themselves in one way, while actually behaving in a different way. We will then feedback as a group, producing a list of these false performance behaviours on the flip chart."

Group feedback: Lists read aloud by participants and recorded on a flip chart.

Appendix C2 Contd.

5. "What effect do you think peoples' false performance behaviours have upon their work relationships?"
6. "Please think about trust in management. How do you think the level of trust that a false performer has in their manager will influence their workplace behaviours?"
7. "Now, think about trust in colleagues. How do you think the level of trust that a false performer has in their colleagues might influence their workplace behaviours?"

Ending Questions

8. "Think about what we have talked about today. Our purpose in this discussion was to find out more about how to detect false performance in the workplace. If you had a chance to give advice to an organisation, what advice would you give?"

Here is a magic wand. I'll pass it around the table and when you receive it, give your magical solution to the problem of false performance behaviour in the workplace. By waving the wand your solution will come true. Take the wand and tell us your solution in one simple sentence."

9. "Is there anything else that anyone wants to say that they didn't get chance to say?"

Okay, that brings us to the end of our discussion. Thank you very much for taking part.

Appendix D1: Focus Group 1 – List of False Performance Behaviours

- Victimisation
- Autocratic style of manager – bossy – “I want.” Would not work well, frightened to speak up
- Favouritism – unfair job delegation
- Bosses undermining you/belittling
- Shouting
- Wants title and power of the job but not the responsibility
- “On your back” to do it her way
- Point scoring by coming up with “better” ideas
- Contradicting everything you say
- “Honey and sweet” in front of management
- Bosses who look super-efficient in front of their boss
- Over-delegated to those below them because they want to improve themselves – but you get no credit – boss gets praise
- Bosses who don’t want you to leave because [it] creates a problem - they have to do it themselves or find someone else to do it for them
- Some people only will do a certain amount – “won’t give an inch” – although others will “go the extra mile” – are conscientious
- Whispering – are they talking about me?
- People who share information with some but not others
- Undermining – instructions on how to do the job better
- Making people look small in front of others
- Mention work not correctly done in front of others
- Mention personal appearance in front of others e.g. hair
- Insults/hurtful jokes
- Delegating too much
- Not listening to problems – so problems remain
- Empowerment issues – “goes to head”
- Jealousy
- One team member constantly stirring. It makes you think everything you do is being watched – “watch your back” – always one not talking like a team
- People not giving equal job delegation. Chunk of day spent at work – this makes it unpleasant for those getting more work

Appendix D2: Focus Group 2 – List of False Performance Behaviours

- Gain your trust and use it against you e.g. be friendly and know all about your family and use it against you. Expect you to do more, change your times
- Take advantage of your good nature. If you go the extra mile, people can use it to their advantage
- Telling tales – people think in a different way and they moan to others about how you are doing the job. Everyone thinks you have made mistake
- Pointing fingers – blaming you – don't like you, sometimes they don't want to be blamed
- Bullying – bully into doing it their way. Don't want to be picked on, makes you stressed, don't want to come to work
- Trying to intimidate (in front of others). It is wrong – do it one-to-one
- Belittle you – they know everything, show you up so they can look better (sometimes they know nothing)
- Tell you off in front of others for minor mistakes
- Winding up – spreading true and untrue gossip – a lot of unpleasantness – men especially. Affects the whole team
- Men brown-nosing with the gaffers – hoping to get up the ladder

Appendix D3: Focus Group 3 – List of False Performance Behaviours

- Lying about qualifications. If they can't do the job, colleagues have to do it
- Elaborating on past work experience
- Building a momentum pre-interview and then doing a U-turn – acting better than people who have supported them (strategic networks of support). People get resentful – lack of trust
- Telling people what they want to hear
- Do as I say and not as I do attitude. Bad for team morale – carrying people
- Present as fair to everyone in the team but they have favourites. Damaging to those who are not the favourites
- Stealing the credit – take individual responsibility for team effort. Demoralising for the team
- Not seeing they are doing anything wrong – see themselves as wonderful and committed
- Give negative feedback if challenged. Don't feel appreciated
- People putting stuff off because they don't like it – cherry-picking (pretend to prioritise)
- Giving the impression to management they are doing a good job – acting up
- Passing the blame but taking the praise. Damages morale, no one wants to work hard
- Generally being two-faced – saying one thing to the manager and another to colleagues. Lack trust in colleagues
- Not backing staff up when originally offered help/support
- Playing staff off each other - "so and so is doing this...can you do this?" (getting out of doing work themselves)
- Over-exaggerating qualities e.g. say fantastic at something (not), say compassionate (not)
- Stepping on people to move up the corporate ladder – putting other colleagues down
- Thinking as an individual – not as a team (present as a unit but not really)

Appendix D4: Focus Group 4 – List of False Performance Behaviours

- Continually talking over others
- Excluding people from a team – saying “I”
- Turning up at interview dressed to impress – then turning up in something unsuitable for work
- Agreeing to something on the surface but doing the opposite
- Not telling you about acting in the above way until it is too late
- Lack of consistency in behaviour, approach, and attitude
- Different masks for different people in different situations
- Condescending – brushing away concerns
- Uses harassment to change your mind or decides for you
- Pretends to trust you in order to get information from you and then uses it in a very manipulative way
- Charlatan could set you up to fail by feeding false information/unrealistic targets. You can then take a whole course of action which is not right, or simply don't act
- Being ignored – very powerful
- Accepts unjustified praise
- Blames others and does not accept responsibilities and workloads - “nobody told me.” Most destructive, everyone is a loser
- Not supportive to work colleagues and unable to be a team player
- Colluding with colleagues against the individual. Quite damning – takes a lot of time to put right. If you don't have a team, you have nothing
- Pettiness – demeaning attitude. Your confidence is so dented you cannot focus
- Point-scoring in discussions, taking over the point
- Using buzz words to appear knowledgeable about the topic
- Rarely challenge your views – don't want to express their own counterview
- Body language – don't meet your eyes
- Positional power – senior person uses power to demean junior colleagues. Affects the whole culture – you think what is the point? Live in fear as a junior. Can destroy team ethic – your opinion is not important
- Charlatans buy letters after their name without taking qualifications e.g. Fellow of BCS buy British Computing Society – did not earn it
- People who tell tales and go above your head to get something done – play the hierarchy
- Talk about achievements to distract from what they are not doing well
- Directive – directing conversation to a decision or what is “most important”

Appendix D5: Focus Group 5 – List of False Performance Behaviours

- Self-aggrandisement
- Non-reflective whilst giving the impression of being reflective
- Lack of awareness of what others really think
- Tendency towards aggression (more towards subordinates). 1) “Limits subordinates’ effectiveness, people won’t tell them when they are wrong, like echo chamber; and 2) “Single most negative factor on peoples’ ability to perform – dysfunctional work environment
- Tendency towards defensive behaviours
- Avoid scrutiny
- Offload blame. Encourages a culture of others not making decisions
- Window or mirror mentality
- Sychophancy: 1) Precludes anything being achieved; and 2) If in a managerial role; this is a primary part of it – linked to loyalty
- Doesn’t take risks or make decisions. Can stifle a team, people managing need that relationship – effects wider circle
- Tends to see day job as menial and doesn’t give it any focus
- Following themes – what is most popular – trying to please
- Resilient in terms of criticism – rhino-skinned – OR the other type appear that way but are brittle
- Machiavellianism – covering things up: 1) There are normally casualties – well on the way to being a dysfunctional workplace; and 2) The higher up it would be, the more of a disease it would be. Away from care business
- Over-complexity of terminology
- Can abuse power – believes in their own invincibility: Sets the tone for the rest of the organisation
- Unsettled – they flit between roles to escape their history
- Promoted above your own competence
- Headline grabbers – play to the crowd
- Dealing with what is popular, not what is right
- Use of diversionary tactics
- Being absent on key occasions
- Claim credit for other peoples’ work
- Re-writing their own history
- All about presentation e.g. over confident
- Bragging
- Demand loyalty from others but don’t give it themselves

Appendix D6: Focus Group 6 – List of False Performance Behaviours

- Avoiding blame
- Copying others' work
- Embellishment
- Manipulative or exploiting behaviours: 1) Undermine organisation; and 2) Umbrella for many other behaviours
- Dishonesty. Undermines organisation – long-term impact
- Defensive if challenged about work
- Two-faced
- Shouting – putting fear into others – command rather than ask
- Avoid confrontation – others' knowledge base is greater
- Tend to hide and delegate the things they can't do
- Rude/obnoxious
- Arrogant
- They use charm
- They use their sexuality e.g. flirting
- Obliging/smarmy
- Controlling/manipulative
- Embroider truth
- Do as I say – not as I do. Manager not doing what they should be doing according to regulations
- Friendly to everyone
- Always give the impression that everything is going really well
- Sales person in the way that they have of putting themselves across
- Different behaviours upwards as opposed to downwards. Gives false impression

Appendix D7: Focus Group 7 – List of False Performance Behaviours

- Using “I” and not “We” – I can do this, that, etc.
- Building personal relationships – “making pals”
- Acting superior – too busy for menial tasks – so they delegate e.g. “I will give you the opportunity...”
- Undermining others e.g. blaming the team for being bad – pick fault or highlight faults in others
- Excuses e.g. claiming injury
- Remind team of connections to the boss (I’m on that level)
- Picking up on minor errors of the team – very threatening/attacking. Not only covering up their own ability but very damaging to those that they are attacking
- Doing things that are above their position e.g. parking, rotas – should not have been doing these things
- Disobey rules – beneath her – incorrect uniform
- Selecting oneself to do easier tasks
- Claiming to be doing others’ work and fixing their mistakes, hence why not doing their own
- Giving other people really high workloads so they don’t have time to look at their (i.e. the false performing manager’s) work
- Sabotage – deliberately giving a task and not giving all of the information. Making you fail while they succeed. Not only about their own ability but preventing others doing the job as well
- Never praising peoples’ work
- If a co-worker does well, give them really menial tasks or no work, so they don’t outshine the false performer
- Blaming equipment (e.g. IT, car) or family
- Talking about successes in the past, even if five years ago
- Talking about plans of the company in the future, with them included

Appendix D8: Focus Group 8 – List of False Performance Behaviours

- Knowingly telling lies about performance (selection committees)
- Exaggerating contributions
- Presenting themselves as supportive in one setting but dropping that with other colleagues
- Re-defining – claiming failures as successes
- Sucking up to senior people – building up favour
- Sabotaging things
- Hiding behind illness and having lots of sick leave
- Getting other people to do their work
- Likes to give the appearance of effectiveness through long hours
- Blaming others. Harms other people; hurting other people while promoting themselves
- Always saying that the manager has it wrong – their fault
- Undermining management and spreading lots of gossip
- Not being where they should be
- Always having an answer when challenged
- Always going to the union
- Managers delegate work they find difficult
- Goes on lots of training as time-wasting

Appendix E1: Focus Group 3 (Non-Management) Reflexive Field Notes

The [name of organisation], as an organisation, has been incredibly supportive of my research, making the process of setting up focus groups an incredibly smooth and enjoyable experience. The first focus group was run in the morning with Non-Management from 10.30am until 12.00pm and the second focus group was run in the afternoon with Management from 1.30pm until 3.00pm. Both groups generated a lively discussion and both seemed to stay more closely focused on the concept of FP than did the pilot group or the previous two focus groups.

In terms of how the first group progressed, everything was set up in time for the planned 10.30am start and the discussion proceeded in a fairly smooth fashion, without too many awkward silences or participant difficulty in understanding the main concept under investigation i.e. False Performance (FP). In contrast to the first two focus groups held in October, participants seemed to grasp the concept of FP a lot more easily. This created much more flow in the conversation because I did not have to keep explaining the concept to the group, as was the case in focus groups one and two. This group seemed to get hold of the FP concept and run with it, so I had more confidence that they knew what I was asking of them and was, therefore, generating data more closely focused around FP. There were only a few occasions when I felt the participants were really going off on a tangent, whereas this happened a lot more frequently in the first two groups. I had to work a lot harder to keep bringing focus group one and two participants back into the FP fold from when they were getting bound up in issues of gender, etc. In addition, I definitely felt that I had to use a lot less prompts in this group than in the first two groups. Once I asked the main question, participants seemed to chat ably around the topic, with me only needing to add a question or two for clarification.

In terms of the breakdown of the group, there were eight participants, two male and six female. One male participant was incredibly vocal but his contributions were really insightful and helped to keep the other members of the group on track, so I did not perceive his outspokenness to be a problem. Several members of the group were naturally quieter – one female at the back said hardly anything but I accepted that this is par for the course in any focus group. I did call on her a few times but, generally, I let the dynamics of the group continue along natural lines.

Interestingly, it emerged that there had recently been an organisational change in [name of organisation], which meant that participants had had very recent experience of FP behaviours. Employees found themselves having to compete with each other in-house for their own jobs, which then led them to see very different sides of each other's characters. This experience led to a discussion which was based around very recent occurrences of FP in the workplace.

Appendix E1 Contd.

After the tape recorder was switched off, the participants continued to chat with me about two interesting areas. There was a discussion about the public and private sector, which was borne out of someone asking me where I was conducting my research. A few group members stated their opinion that there would more unethical self-presentation behaviours in the private sector as there is more at stake in this environment. As had been discussed in the main body of the discussion, the subject of economic conditions was brought up again. Participants all seemed to agree that the struggling economy will give rise to more unethical self-presentation behaviours in the workplace as the competition for jobs increases.

Appendix E2: Focus Group 4 (Management) Reflexive Field Notes

I really enjoyed this focus group, both because the participants were really animated and due to the discussion itself, which I felt generated a significant amount of FP-relevant data. The other outcome which I felt was of real value was the Management's ability to give their account of a false performer from the interviewer's perspective. For example, they were able to explain how they felt "played" by interviewees who came into the interview and directed their comments at the person they considered to be the decision-maker. I really gained a lot of insight into how the false performer is perceived psychologically by the interviewer, and it is critical to gain such an understanding because FP can only be reduced if interviewers become aware of its occurrence.

In this group, there were four males and four females, so there was an even gender balance. The Management seemed to have accumulated a wealth of work experience between them, both nationally and internationally, so there were some very valuable experiences to be tapped into. One of the managers, in particular, seemed to have worked in many different countries and had a lot to offer in terms of what he had experienced. He also seemed to really resonate with the concept of the false performer and the ways in which they use a mask to manipulate those around them. In fact, one group member pointed out that the false performer can use several masks, changing them depending on who they are with. The points raised seem to be different to the items included in the OCS and this suggests to me, at this early stage, that there is a much more sophisticated subset of behaviours which the false performer employs in order to survive in the organisation. For example, the OCS discusses dressing to impress, but this has rarely been cited as an example of FP in the focus groups. Participants have focused more on the psychological techniques which the false performer uses to deceive their colleagues. For example, this group discussed how the internal, false performing interview candidate may start their FP before they even enter the interview room by priming themselves as the ideal candidate when they speak to the "right" people beforehand.

The flip chart activity, in particular, was very successful with a long list of FP behaviours generated, most of which instinctively seemed to "fit the bill." One or two items immediately appeared off-key e.g. people speaking loudly over their colleagues. However, the process of data analysis will easily eliminate a lot of these invalid FP behaviours and will enable me to compile a list of items for possible inclusion in the FPQ. For example, I can speculate at this early point that items like over-delegating work to colleagues, accepting undeserved praise and passing the blame may all emerge as items for inclusion in the FPQ. It is difficult not to form this opinion when you hear comments being repeated, but I will obviously try to remain as unbiased as possible when doing the data analysis. I will be careful not to get too attached to any of the behaviours which I think, intuitively, are FPQ items, as I want to let the data lead me and not the other way around!

Appendix F1: Management Focus Group Transcript – Excerpt

M Respondent: But they have that mask on that...that, you know, I trust you, I agree with what you're saying, I'm completely with you, I won't disagree with you to your face, but behind your back I'll collude with others and, you know, those negative behaviours. So, you know...

M Respondent: The charlatan seems to operate in cycles. You know, there'll be lots of trust and they'll be saying the right things and noises and then actually they didn't...and suddenly you find you're being stabbed in the back and then you...[incomprehensible]...got over their paddy and they've got over their problems, and they're back on side, and actually it goes down again. And you soon identify that person, you soon know who that person is, and whether you can trust them or not and for a while you may think you can trust them but, it's like what, what terms?

M Respondent: One of the things I've had described too is a colleague...and I worked in the bank. He previously was a very senior manager inside Intel, the computer chip company, and they have a strange way of measuring your contribution. It's basically everyone starts with an empty diary and, if you need someone to come to a meeting or to contribute to a project, then you invite them and they book their time out. And what happens is, as time goes on, the people who are the charlatans don't actually get invited. They don't get involved because they're being discovered because they're adding no value, and they're wasting time. 'Cause if you have a project, you have to pay for people to come into your project, so you don't invite the people who are...have this facade and then they remove them and that is a positive discriminatory performance objective...is to get your diary full, and you sometimes have to go around and tout yourself to your colleagues, saying I can help with this, but by the same token the person running that initiative has the right to choose because he's paying for them. So if the charlatan does get found out they don't get invited to contribute to things and, if you don't contribute, you're not adding any value and, therefore, they let you go.

F Respondent: Although the flip side of that is the person who's in charge of a project who might not purposely invite one particular person to be on their project.

M Respondent: So, there's bad things about another person that does the...[incomprehensible].

M Respondent: If you have the charlatan running the project.

M Respondent: So you could...

Appendix F1 Contd.

F Respondent: Because then you have an empty diary, you'll be worrying even more. My God, I've got an empty diary.

Moderator: Okay, then.

F Respondent: I think there is another thing to this about the trust bit. I think...I believe there are professions where [incomprehensible] trust is a bit questionable. Like, um, being a barrister because you're playing at something when you're in court, not necessarily playing yourself. And I think trade unions also have to wear a facade and, you know, when you're sitting across the table trying to negotiate something which is quite near to your heart, then you're never quite sure, so the trust element there is, you know...

M Respondent: I think the barrister one's very good. That you actually believe in yourself that someone is guilty but your job is to get them off.

Appendix F2: Non-Management Focus Group Transcript – Excerpt

Moderator: To take things back a bit, how do you think Harry or Harriet could have started to use false performance behaviours from the point of interview? So, again, imagine that you were a fly on the wall in the interview room when they were both being interviewed. What false performance behaviours do you think that false performers, like Harry or Harriet, might engage in to get the job that they want?

M Respondent: I can give a good example of that, where I've worked in a previous organisation, where, um, they took on a graduate when I was sort of doing recruitment things and I advised against it because it was clear, in the interview, that the individual concerned could...you know, sometimes it's referred to as business speak, so they knew all the big phrases and the terminology and things like that, but didn't have the actual experience, but they interviewed extremely well. But then when that person was put in that actual positional role, they weren't actually able to do the role. Sort of long term, I know there were issues with the performance and things in relation to it. But, again, that was where somebody had acquired the knowledge for that, which was great, but didn't really have the experience then to actually work with it. So, they encountered situations which they had the theoretical experience of, but didn't actually have the practical knowledge to apply it. So, therefore, then, you know, they kind of struggled when they found themselves in certain situations. Again, this comes back to sort of, you know, your work-based experience as well really. So, you know, although they had the qualifications on paper, they were actually lacking in the experience which, you know, was a concern that I had at the time. And, eventually I think, 'cause obviously I'd moved on from that point, but it was my understanding that the individual ended up, you know, kind of leaving the organisation. But if you'd sat them in that interview and spoke to them you'd [have] thought you know, you would have been, wow, this person is really right for this job. But then once they're actually into the role, it was a completely different story.

F Respondent: But you do get people who perfect their interviewing techniques, so they know what to say. They've done their research, and they know the right things to say, they know what people want to hear and they've perfected that. And they're very, very clever at giving that...They can present themselves as being all singing, all dancing. But actually...

M Respondent: But is that false? Or is that, in an interview, you're just trying to give the best of yourself.

Appendix F2 Contd.

F Respondent: I think some people deliberately do that. I think there are some people who can present themselves quite naturally, and would be a natural person to go into that role, would be a good appointee. But I think there are people who can force that and present themselves as being all singing, all dancing and wonderful people. That they know that because they already feel superior and probably more superior than the person who's interviewing, they think that their behaviour and how they're presenting themselves is more clever than you are, and you're not going to suss that person out so, therefore, they're just going to walk into the job.

Moderator: Can I just interject there? Going back to [focus group participant name]'s example, because I just want to build up these concrete examples. You referenced business speak, are there any more tactics or techniques like that that people can think of that people use in the interview to dazzle and to wow and to make themselves seem all singing, all dancing. What are the actual things that people do or say?

M Respondent: I think creative CVs are a good example of that 'cause I've worked for a...quite a big recruitment company and, um, obviously where one of the things I had to do was check CVs, references, things like that and, um, and one of the things I used to come across quite frequently actually was people claiming in their CVs maybe stuff they hadn't got and quite often I sort of like was checking up on work histories, things like that or looking at skills they've got, etcetera. And I thought have you got evidence of that, where did you do it? And then when I actually got them in, you know, it was kind of like, well maybe, you know, you haven't actually quite got that. And I think that, if things like that are in check, some people can actually come across very well as saying, oh yeah, I've done this, I've done that, and give really clear and good examples of it. Um...And I think that's where that...that could be somewhere where sometimes people could get a position, you know, whereby they can talk about something but if you don't actually check their qualification certificates and everything as well, might not have those things but it can just easily be there on the CV as easy as you can do it.

Moderator: Okay, great. Anyone else quickly want to add anything?

Appendix F2 Contd.

M Respondent: I can think of a particular individual actually with a particular case that's got the theoretical knowledge, knows it inside out, never actually practically done any of it. So...and through that got the job, did the job. He lasted in the job for seven months, was found out that, yes he does know how to do the job, but can't physically do it. Couldn't manage his way out of a paper bag really, didn't know how to deal with people, didn't know how to get the best out of them and, within a very short period of time, was only getting the worst out of them. And that is an individual that may well have the required skills on paper but couldn't put them into practice.

Appendix G1: Qualitative Data Codes – Example Free Nodes

Look for: Search In Free

Nodes

- Nodes
 - Cases
 - Free Nodes**
 - Tree Nodes
 - Relationships
 - Node Matrices

Free Nodes

Name
No Ideas but Pull Apart Everyone Else's
Poor Time Keeping & Sickness Record
Never in Queue to Help
Charlatans Have a Lot of Identifying Traits
Overbearing So Force Others Off Sick
NOT always black and white
Horns if Had All Traits
Subtlety of FP Makes It Not Straightforward
Negativity Trips into Laziness
Look for Someone Else to Fix Negatives
Being Slowly Discovered
Feeling Threatened & Frightened by the FP
Strength & Courage to Deal with a Charlatan
Snowballing of Blaming a Charlatan
Self-Fulfilling Phrophecy of Constant Criticism
Worrying About the Little Things Done Wrong
Minor Things Made Big Issues
Never Trust DC
Charlatans are INHUMAN
Wonder Why Someone Persistently Behaves Like That
OCs Are Inconsistent
Got To Try to Engage With that Person
Affects Working Relationships as Don't Take Others at Face Value
Adverse for the Team
Respect Lost in Team
No Respect Among Team
Trust Destroyed Very Quickly
Checking & Re-Checking Time Consuming
Repairing Bridges to Restore Perceptions Destroyed by Others
Disproportionate Effect
Effect Lingers After FP Gone
Good People Leave As a Result of FP

- Sources
- Nodes**
- Classifications
- Collections
- Queries
- Reports
- Models
- Folders

Appendix G1: Contd.

Nodes

Look for: Search In Free N

Free Nodes

Name
Go To Person Who Will Get Job Done
Trusted With Things Way Beyond Experience
Leading Trade Union Investigations at a Young Age
Faith in Your Ability Without Experience
Trust of Taking Someone Under Your Wing
Lack of Talent Spotting in Public Sector
Public Sector Too Equality Driven
Must Wait in Line in Public Sector
Should Not Have Been Given Opportunities by Modern Standards
OCs Could Manipulate Trust
OC Has Less Influence in High Trust Culture
Longer for OC to do Damage in High Trust Organisation
OC Can Do More Damage in Fragmented Organisation
Distrustful Environment Can Work Against Non-Charlatan
The Only Honest Person in Room of Charlatans
Trust Own Judgement
Need Open & Honest Discussions
Be Vigilant to Behaviours
Listen to Most Experienced People
Managers Should Be Open & Honest
People Trust You if You Trust Them
Spot People Trying to Circumvent Team Culture
Most People Prefer to Work in Team
Start as Mean to Continue When Recruiting Someone
Psychometrically Profile in Recruitment
Probe for Situations, Actions & Results
Continue Thorough Process into 121s
Find Out What Makes Individual Tick at Interview
Don't be Fooled by the Charlatan's Mask in Interview
Allow Enough Time at Interview
121s Keep Finger on the Pulse
Make Team Tight so Charlatan Stands Out if Do Appear

Sources

Nodes

Classifications

Collections

Queries

Reports

Models

Folders

Appendix G2: Qualitative Data Codes – Example Tree Nodes

Look for:

Search In

Nodes

- [-] Nodes
 - Cases
 - Free Nodes
 - Tree Nodes
- Relationships
- Node Matrices

- Sources
- Nodes**
- Classifications
- Collections
- Queries
- Reports
- Models
- Folders

Tree Nodes

	Name
+	Gender Issues
+	Work Relationships
+	Interview-related Unethical Behaviour
+	Performance Appraisal Unethical Behaviour
+	Reasons for Unethical Behaviour
+	Trust in Management
+	Co-Worker Trust
+	Developing Personal Understanding of FP
+	Dysfunctional Work Behaviours
+	Personality Differences
	Manager-Directed FP
+	Perceived FP Behaviours
+	Rose-Tinted Management Glasses
+	Maintaining Professional Working Relationships
	Equality Oriented Management Style
+	Recommendations for Tackling FP
+	Solutions for Dealing with Staff Issues
	Differing Moralities
+	Management Awareness of FP
	N - FP Dependent on Organisational Context
	N - Learning How to Get Promoted
	N - Reward-Focused FP
	N - Private Versus Voluntary Sector Hiding Places
	N - Accumulative Roles
	N - Not Doing the Day Job
	N - Flavour of the Month Managers
	N - NICENESS Masking Incompetence
	N - Team Compensation for Manager
	N - Love for Non-Enforcing Manager
	N - Scapegoating when it goes Wrong
	N - Scapegoating & Size of Organisation
+	N - CONSCIOUSNESS OF FP

Appendix G2: Contd.

The screenshot displays a software interface with a left-hand navigation pane and a main content area. The navigation pane is titled 'Nodes' and contains a tree structure with the following items: 'Nodes' (expanded), 'Cases', 'Free Nodes', 'Tree Nodes' (highlighted), 'Relationships', and 'Node Matrices'. Below this, there is a vertical menu with icons and labels: 'Sources', 'Nodes' (highlighted), 'Classifications', 'Collections', 'Queries', 'Reports', 'Models', and 'Folders'. The main content area is titled 'Tree Nodes' and features a search bar at the top with the text 'Look for:' and 'Search In'. Below the search bar is a list of 28 tree nodes, each represented by a blue circle icon and a text label. The labels are: 'N - FP Motivated by Money', 'N - Assumption FP is the Norm', 'N - Cultural Differences', 'N - May be Employed Because FP Cannot Do Work', 'N - FP at Low & High Levels', 'N - Discovering FP', 'N - Difficult to Oust FP', 'N - Promoted to Job That Does Not Suit', 'N - FP Eventually Loses Job', 'N - Organisational Reluctance to Accept Responsibility', 'N - Where is Line Between Incompetence & Learning', 'N - Has Enough Supervision Been Offered', 'N - Imposter Syndrome', 'N - Longer Probation Periods', 'N - Union Involvement to Resolve Situation', 'N - FP as Most Challenging Point of Career', 'N - FP Deeprooted in Personal Issues', 'N - Interviewers Looking Out for FP More', 'N - Experience of Having to Provide Lots of Evidence', 'N - Have to Show Flaws in Interview', 'N - Interview Coaching Changing', 'N - Interviews Now More Rigorous', 'FP in the Current Climate', and 'Strategic Friendships'. Some items have a plus sign icon to their left, indicating they are expandable.

Note: The “N-” affix (abbrev. for “New”) enabled the researcher to distinguish between tree nodes created in the first phase of data analysis (focus groups 1-4) and new tree nodes created in the second phase of data analysis (focus groups 5-8).

Appendix H1: Example Memo – Developing Personal Understanding of FP

What became clear from the discussions in the focus groups is that FP is not an immediately understandable phenomenon and people have to apply a certain amount of cognitive effort in order to get clear in their mind what FP actually is. The way in which they arrive at an answer in their own head is to ask questions of the moderator in order to find out more about what FP is defined as, the way in which it works, and the behaviours which constitute FP. They seem to ask questions as a way of testing out the definition and, the more questions that are asked; the more confident they appear to grow in their personal understanding of FP. Once participants were more confident in their personal understanding of FP, they were able to engage more in the discussion and offer more examples of FP. However, there were exceptions to this rule and some groups were more able to grasp the FP concept than others. In groups which were less able to tap into the concept of FP, the FP examples discussed were of less relevance to the research conducted. However, the very fact that there were such differences between focus groups is valuable in itself because it indicates that there is a pressing need to properly define FP. Only by defining FP will the collective workforce be able to properly recognise it and engage with Human Resources in an attempt to eradicate it from the organisation. I definitely think that the category of Developing Personal Understanding of FP is a significant one and, at this stage, it will remain under consideration as a main category.

Appendix H2: Example Memo – Dysfunctional Work Behaviours

Although the topics covered under this category are interesting, they are not directly relevant to FP. As flagged up in the pilot focus group, these sorts of behaviour e.g. bullying, racism, and so forth are more overt expressions of general unethical behaviour. They tend to be the ones which come to mind most readily for people because they are more observable and the discourse for discussing each of these behaviours within organisations is well established. The pilot focus group was incredibly useful in alerting me to the tendency for participants to bring these behaviours to the table and so I was alert when the same inclination arose in the other eight focus groups, and I was more readily able to steer the conversation back to the FP topic at hand. It also helped that the experience in the pilot focus group allowed me the opportunity to revise the wording of my focus group questions so as to reduce the occurrence of references to dysfunctional work behaviours outside the realm of FP. Of course it did not eliminate these references entirely, but these mentions of bullying, etc. added to the richness of the discussions and also indicated the various types of behaviour which people generally perceive as unethical within the workplace.

Appendix H3: Example Memo – Differing Moralities

I really liked this category which emerged in the first round of analysis for non-managers only. However, in the second half of analysis [i.e. the remaining four focus groups], this theme completely disappeared and there were no further references to the false performer's sense of "right" and "wrong." It is very interesting to think about the false performer's internal frame of reference, but it perhaps goes beyond the scope of my research, and it may even distract from the main focus on more external behaviours which can be included as items in the FPQ. As a result, I think that "Differing Moralities" will probably be dropped as a main category from the final analysis.

Appendix I1: Focus Group Shortlist of False Performance Behaviours

Focus Group 1

- Bosses undermining you/belittling
 - Wants title and power of the job but not the responsibility
 - “Honey and sweet” in front of management
 - Bosses who look super-efficient in front of their boss
 - Over-delegated to those below them because they want to improve themselves – but you get no credit – boss gets praise
 - Delegating too much
-

Focus Group 2

- Pointing fingers – blaming you – don’t like you, sometimes they don’t want to be blamed
 - Belittle you – they know everything, show you up so they can look better (sometimes they know nothing)
-

Focus Group 3

- Lying about qualifications. If they can’t do the job, colleagues have to do it
- Elaborating on past work experience
- Building a momentum pre-interview and then doing a U-turn – acting better than people who have supported them (strategic networks of support). People get resentful – lack of trust
- Stealing the credit – take individual responsibility for team effort. Demoralising for team
- Giving the impression to management they are doing a good job – acting up
- Passing the blame but taking the praise. Damages morale, no one wants to work hard
- Generally being two-faced – saying one thing to the manager and another to colleagues. Lack trust in colleagues
- Playing staff off each other - “so and so is doing this...can you do this?” (getting out of doing work themselves)
- Over-exaggerating qualities e.g. say fantastic at something (not), say compassionate (not)

Appendix I1 Contd.

Focus Group 4

- Turning up at interview dressed to impress – then turning up in something unsuitable for work
 - Agreeing to something on the surface but doing the opposite
 - Different masks for different people in different situations
 - Charlatan could set you up to fail by feeding false information/unrealistic targets. You can then take a whole course of action which is not right, or simply don't act
 - Accepts unjustified praise
 - Blames others and does not accept responsibilities and workloads - "nobody told me." Most destructive, everyone is a loser
 - Point-scoring in discussions, taking over the point
 - Using buzz words to appear knowledgeable about the topic
 - Rarely challenge your views – don't want to express their own counterview
 - Charlatans buy letters after their name without taking qualifications e.g. Fellow of BCS buy British Computing Society – did not earn it
 - Talk about achievements to distract from what they are not doing well
 - Directive – directing conversation to a decision or what is "most important"
-

Focus Group 5

- Avoid scrutiny
 - Offload blame. Encourages a culture of others not to make decisions
 - Promoted above your own competence
 - Headline grabbers – play to the crowd
 - Use of diversionary tactics
 - Being absent on key occasions
 - Claim credit for other peoples' work
 - Re-writing their own history
 - All about presentation e.g. over confident
 - Bragging
-

Focus Group 6

- Avoiding blame
- Copying others' work
- Embellishment
- Avoid confrontation – others' knowledge base greater
- Tend to hide and delegate the things they can't do
- They use their sexuality e.g. flirting
- Embroider truth
- Always give the impression that everything is going really well
- Sales person in the way that they have of putting themselves across
- Different behaviours upwards as opposed to downwards. Gives false impression

Appendix I1 Contd.

Focus Group 7

- Building personal relationships – “making pals”
 - Acting superior – too busy for menial tasks – so they delegate e.g. “I will give you the opportunity...”
 - Undermining others e.g. blaming the team for being bad – pick fault or highlight faults in others
 - Excuses e.g. claiming injury
 - Remind team of connections to the boss (I’m on that level)
 - Selecting oneself to do easier tasks
 - Claiming to be doing others’ work and fixing their mistakes, hence why not doing their own
 - Giving other people really high workloads so they don’t have time to look at their (i.e. the false performing manager’s) work
 - Sabotage – deliberately giving a task and not giving all of the information. Making you fail while they succeed. Not only about their own ability but preventing others doing the job as well
 - If a co-worker does well, give them really menial tasks or no work, so they don’t outshine the false performer
 - Blaming equipment (e.g. IT, car) or family
 - Talking about successes in the past, even if five years ago
 - Talking about plans of the company in the future, with them included
-

Focus Group 8

- Knowingly telling lies about performance (selection committees)
- Exaggerating contributions
- Presenting themselves as supportive in one setting but dropping that with other colleagues
- Re-defining – claiming failures as successes
- Sucking up to senior people – building up favour
- Hiding behind illness and having lots of sick leave
- Getting other people to do their work
- Likes to give the appearance of effectiveness through long hours
- Blaming others. Harms other people; hurting other people while promoting themselves
- Always saying that the manager has it wrong – their fault
- Undermining management and spreading lots of gossip
- Managers delegate work they find difficult
- Goes on lots of training as time-wasting

Appendix I1 Contd.

Recurring Themes: Perceived FP Behaviours

- Blaming Others: 6 Lists
- Elaborating/Exaggerating: 5 References
- Over-delegation: 3 Lists
- Belittling: 2 Lists
- Stealing the Credit: 2 Lists
- Lying about Qualifications: 2 Lists

Appendix I2: Oppenheim's (1992) Questionnaire Wording Guidelines

Oppenheim (1992) recommends the following:

- Keep questions short – preferably no longer than twenty words. Use familiar words.
- Avoid double-barrelled and double-negative questions. These questions can be confusing.
- Avoid proverbs and other popular sayings, especially when measuring attitudes as sayings tend to provoke unthinking agreement.
- “Don't Know” and “Not Applicable” categories are often not included in instruments. In the case of asking for opinions, sometimes “don't know” responses can be very important.
- Use simple words; avoid acronyms, abbreviations, jargon, and technical terms. Respondents who do not know what the terms mean may guess or pretend to know the answers.
- Items should be unambiguous and unclear items are best avoided or else defined.
- Beware leading questions (ones worded so that they suggest what the answer should be) and loaded questions/phrases (ones which are emotionally coloured and suggest an automatic feeling of approval or disapproval).

Appendix I3: De Vaus's (2002) Question Wording Checklist

De Vaus (2002) recommends using this checklist to develop clear, unambiguous and useful questions and avoid the most obvious problems with question wording.

Question Wording Checklist	
1.	Is the language simple?
2.	Can the question be shortened?
3.	Is the question double-barrelled?
4.	Is the question leading?
5.	Is the question negative?
6.	Is the respondent likely to have the necessary knowledge?
7.	Will the words have the same meaning for everyone?
8.	Is there a prestige bias?
9.	Is the question ambiguous?
10.	Is the question too precise?
11.	Is the frame of reference for the question sufficiently clear?
12.	Does the question artificially create opinions?
13.	Is personal or impersonal wording preferable?
14.	Is the question wording unnecessarily detailed or objectionable?
15.	Does the question have dangling alternatives?
16.	Does the question contain gratuitous qualifiers?
17.	Is the question a 'dead giveaway'?

Appendix J1-a: 64-Item Set after Item Refinement – List Order

Item No	Item Wording
1	Those performing unethically in their job will be conscious of their behaviour and will try to conceal their inadequate performance.
2	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to working hard in your job.
3	Those performing incompetently in their job will not be aware of their own weaknesses.
4	You should not concentrate on building strategic friendships in the workplace at the expense of improving actual job performance.
5	It is more important for one's career to become friends with everyone in the workplace than it is to focus on actual job performance.
6	Those performing unethically in their job may well believe they are doing a brilliant job.
7	Belittling your colleagues is a good way of making yourself look better in the workplace.
8	Making friends with everyone in the workplace should not be a bigger priority than maintaining a good performance in your job.
9	You should not over-talk your achievements as a way of disguising a lack of progress in other work areas.
10	In a job interview, lying about qualifications is critical to career success.
11	The performance appraisal should not be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
12	It is not possible to speak so impressively to a supervisor that they will think you are more competent in your job role than you really are.
13	Those performing unethically in their job will not have faith in their own work efforts.
14	You should not say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, especially if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.

Appendix J1-a: Contd.

15	It is important to always give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.
16	It is not a good career move to focus on becoming friends with “the right people” over improving actual job performance.
17	It is more important to one’s career to become friends with “the right people” than it is to focus on actual job performance.
18	It’s okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.
19	In a job interview, it is necessary to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.
20	It is a good idea to arrange being absent on key occasions to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.
21	Those performing incompetently in their job will be conscious of their behaviour and will try to conceal their inadequate performance.
22	It is possible to use your sexuality to compensate for a lack of competency in the workplace.
23	Talking about your achievements excessively is a good way of concealing lack of progress in other work areas.
24	In the performance appraisal, you should not talk excessively as a way of avoiding questions about your current job performance.
25	In the workplace, you should not focus more on impressing your supervisor than working hard to please your colleagues.
26	In the workplace, you should concern yourself more with impressing your supervisor than working hard to please co-workers.
27	Unethical employees will not be aware of the deceptions which they automatically engage in to conceal their poor performance.
28	It is not a good idea to concentrate more effort on being friendly towards your boss than it is to working hard in your job.
29	Those performing incompetently at work may well believe that they are doing a brilliant job.

Appendix J1-a: Contd.

30	It is easier to progress in the workplace by building a friendly image than it is to concentrate on improving actual job performance.
31	It is not acceptable to embellish or exaggerate qualifications in a job interview.
32	Building strategic friendships in the workplace is more important than concentrating on improving actual job performance.
33	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is not good practice.
34	You should not over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
35	In today's competitive world, claiming credit for work done by others is an acceptable interview strategy.
36	In the performance appraisal, over-talking past achievements is a good way to avoid discussing current job performance.
37	You should not over-delegate work to colleagues just because you do not feel like doing it yourself.
38	You should not try to give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.
39	You should not use impressive letters in connection with your name to give the impression that you are more competent than you are.
40	Employees who are incompetent in their job role will not be aware of the deceptions which they automatically engage in to conceal their poor performance.
41	It is necessary to say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, even if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
42	It is not fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.
43	Being absent on key occasions to avoid work you cannot carry out is not a good idea.
44	It is not a good idea to feign illness or injury to avoid a work task you do not have the ability to complete.

Appendix J1-a: Contd.

45	It's a good idea to over-delegate work which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
46	The performance appraisal is the perfect setting in which to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
47	Building a friendly image is not a substitute for improving actual job performance.
48	If you do not have the ability to do a work task, blaming equipment (e.g. computer failure) is a good way to avoid your incompetency being detected.
49	You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.
50	It's not fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.
51	It is more important to appear busy by working long hours than it is to actually get the job done.
52	Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.
53	Flirting with colleagues is not a good way to make up for a lack of competency in your job role.
54	There is a way of choosing the words you use around your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than is truly the case.
55	In the job interview, you should not claim credit for anybody else's work.
56	It's okay to claim credit for work done by co-workers or the team.
57	Using your sexuality is not a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.
58	It is better to blame colleagues for work mistakes than to take personal responsibility.
59	If you do not have the ability to do a work task, you should not blame equipment failure as a way to avoid your incompetency being detected.
60	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.

Appendix J1-a: Contd.

61	It is not possible to select the words you use in front of your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.
62	Working long hours for the sake of appearing busy is not more important than getting the work done.
63	Lying about qualifications in a job interview is not a good career move.
64	It is a good idea to use impressive letters in connection with your name to give the impression that you are more competent than you are.

Appendix J1-b: 64-Item Set after Item Refinement – Sorted by Category

Perceptions of FP in the Workplace	
Item No	Claiming Credit for Others' Work
1	It is not fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.
2	It's okay to claim credit for work done by co-workers or the team.
Item No	Shifting the Blame
1	It's not fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.
2	It is better to blame colleagues for work mistakes than to take personal responsibility.
Item No	Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates
1	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.
2	You should not over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
3	You should not over-delegate work to colleagues just because you do not feel like doing it yourself.
4	It's a good idea to over-delegate work which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
Item No	Words/Language
1	It is not possible to speak so impressively to a supervisor that they will think you are more competent in your job role than you really are.
2	You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.
3	There is a way of choosing the words you use around your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than is truly the case.
4	It is not possible to select the words you use in front of your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.

Appendix J1-b: Contd.

Item No	Work Friendships
1	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to working hard in your job.
2	You should not concentrate on building strategic friendships in the workplace at the expense of improving actual job performance.
3	It is more important for one's career to become friends with everyone in the workplace than it is to focus on actual job performance.
4	Making friends with everyone in the workplace should not be a bigger priority than maintaining a good performance in your job.
5	You should not say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, especially if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
6	It is not a good career move to focus on becoming friends with "the right people" over improving actual job performance.
7	It is more important to one's career to become friends with "the right people" than it is to focus on actual job performance.
8	In the workplace, you should not focus more on impressing your supervisor than working hard to please your colleagues.
9	In the workplace, you should concern yourself more with impressing your supervisor than working hard to please co-workers.
10	It is not a good idea to concentrate more effort on being friendly towards your boss than it is to working hard in your job.
11	It is easier to progress in the workplace by building a friendly image than it is to concentrate on improving actual job performance.
12	Building strategic friendships in the workplace is more important than concentrating on improving actual job performance.
13	It is necessary to say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, even if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
14	Building a friendly image is not a substitute for improving actual job performance.

Appendix J1-b: Contd.

Item No	Varied FP Behaviours
1	Belittling your colleagues is a good way of making yourself look better in the workplace.
2	It is important to always give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.
3	It is a good idea to arrange being absent on key occasions to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.
4	It is possible to use your sexuality to compensate for a lack of competency in the workplace.
5	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is not good practice.
6	You should not try to give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.
7	You should not use impressive letters in connection with your name to give the impression that you are more competent than you are.
8	Being absent on key occasions to avoid work you cannot carry out is not a good idea.
9	It is not a good idea to feign illness or injury to avoid a work task you do not have the ability to complete.
10	If you do not have the ability to do a work task, blaming equipment (e.g. computer failure) is a good way to avoid your incompetency being detected.
11	It is more important to appear busy by working long hours than it is to actually get the job done.
12	Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.
13	Flirting with colleagues is not a good way to make up for a lack of competency in your job role.
14	Using your sexuality is not a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.

Appendix J1-b: Contd.

15	If you do not have the ability to do a work task, you should not blame equipment failure as a way to avoid your incompetency being detected.
16	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.
17	Working long hours for the sake of appearing busy is not more important than getting the work done.
18	It is a good idea to use impressive letters in connection with your name to give the impression that you are more competent than you are.
Total: 44	
FP in the Interview	
Item No	Lying about Qualifications
1	In a job interview, lying about qualifications is critical to career success.
2	In a job interview, it is necessary to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.
3	It is not acceptable to embellish or exaggerate qualifications in a job interview.
4	Lying about qualifications in a job interview is not a good career move.
Item No	Over-Talking as a Smoke Screen
1	In the performance appraisal, you should not talk excessively as a way of avoiding questions about your current job performance.
2	In the performance appraisal, over-talking past achievements is a good way to avoid discussing current job performance.
3	You should not over-talk your achievements as a way of disguising a lack of progress in other work areas.
4	Talking about your achievements excessively is a good way of concealing lack of progress in other work areas.

Appendix J1-b: Contd.

Item No	Interview Claiming Credit for Others' Work
1	The performance appraisal should not be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
2	In today's competitive world, claiming credit for work done by others is an acceptable interview strategy.
3	The performance appraisal is the perfect setting in which to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
4	In the job interview, you should not claim credit for anybody else's work.
Total: 12	
Conceptualising FP	
Item No	Conscious versus Unconscious FP
1	Those performing unethically in their job will be conscious of their behaviour and will try to conceal their inadequate performance.
2	Those performing incompetently in their job will not be aware of their own weaknesses.
3	Those performing unethically in their job may well believe they are doing a brilliant job.
4	Those performing unethically in their job will not have faith in their own work efforts.
5	Those performing incompetently in their job will be conscious of their behaviour and will try to conceal their inadequate performance.
6	Unethical employees will not be aware of the deceptions which they automatically engage in to conceal their poor performance.
7	Those performing incompetently at work may well believe that they are doing a brilliant job.
8	Employees who are incompetent in their job role will not be aware of the deceptions which they automatically engage in to conceal their poor performance.
Total: 8	
Overall Total: 64	

Appendix J2-a: 67-Item Set after Initial Consultation with Experts – List Order

Item No	Item Wording
1	In a performance appraisal interview, over-talking past achievements is a good way to avoid discussing current job performance.
2	You should NOT try to give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.
3	It is necessary to say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, even if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
4	It's okay to claim credit for work done by co-workers or the team.
5	Those performing incompetently at work may well believe that they are doing a brilliant job.
6	Impressive words will NOT fool a supervisor into thinking you are more competent in your job role than you really are.
7	You should NOT focus more on impressing your supervisor than working hard to please your colleagues.
8	It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.
9	It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.
10	A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
11	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.
12	It is NOT acceptable to embellish or exaggerate qualifications in a job interview.
13	Those performing unethically in their job will NOT trust in their own work efforts.
14	Those performing incompetently in their job will try to conceal their inadequate performance.

Appendix J2-a: Contd.

15	You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.
16	Making friends with everyone in the workplace should NOT take priority over performing well in your job.
17	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.
18	Claiming credit for work done by others is an acceptable interview strategy.
19	It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.
20	Building a friendly image at work is NOT a substitute for improving actual job performance.
21	In a performance appraisal interview, you should NOT talk excessively as a way of avoiding questions about your current job performance.
22	Those performing inadequately in the workplace may consciously behave unethically to disguise their incompetence.
23	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.
24	It is better to blame colleagues for work mistakes than to take personal responsibility.
25	You should concern yourself more with impressing your supervisor than working hard to please co-workers.
26	The performance appraisal interview is a setting in which you can claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
27	You should NOT blame equipment failure as a cover up for your own incompetency.
28	Those performing incompetently in their job will NOT be aware of their own weaknesses.
29	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.

Appendix J2-a: Contd.

30	It is possible to use your sexuality to compensate for a lack of competency in the workplace.
31	It is NOT a good idea to fake illness or injury to avoid a work task you do not have the ability to complete.
32	Those performing unethically in the workplace may well believe they are doing a brilliant job.
33	Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.
34	Those performing inadequately in the workplace will NOT realise they are behaving unethically to disguise their incompetence.
35	If you are unable do a work task, blaming equipment (e.g. computer failure) is a good way to avoid your incompetency being detected.
36	Doing long hours at the office for the sake of appearing busy is NOT more important than getting the work done.
37	Lying about qualifications in a job interview is NOT a good career move.
38	It is more important for one's career to become friends with everyone in the workplace than it is to focus on actual job performance.
39	Flirting with colleagues is NOT a good way to make up for a lack of competency in your job role.
40	You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.
41	Belittling your colleagues is a good way of making yourself look better in the workplace.
42	It is NOT possible to select the words you use in front of your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.
43	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.
44	It's a good idea to over-delegate work which you are not competent enough to do yourself.

Appendix J2-a: Contd.

45	Building strategic friendships in the workplace is more important than improving actual job performance.
46	Those performing unethically in their job will try to conceal their inadequate performance.
47	It is a good idea to arrange leave to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.
48	Those performing unethically in their job will be conscious of their behaviour.
49	It is easier to progress in the workplace by building a friendly image rather than improving actual job performance.
50	There is a way of choosing the words you use around your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.
51	Employees who are incompetent in their job role will NOT be aware of the deceptions in which they engage to conceal their poor performance.
52	In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.
53	You should NOT acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, from unprofessional organisations, so as to appear more competent than you are.
54	In a job interview, lying about qualifications is critical to career success.
55	You should NOT say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, especially if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
56	Those performing incompetently in their job will be conscious of their behaviour.
57	Unethical employees will NOT be aware of the deceptions in which they engage to conceal their poor performance.
58	It is NOT a good idea to focus on becoming friends with influential co-workers over improving actual job performance.
59	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.
60	It is important to always give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.
61	In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.

Appendix J2-a: Contd.

62	It is NOT a good idea to put more effort into being friendly towards your boss than it is to work hard in your job.
63	You should NOT arrange leave as a way to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.
64	Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.
65	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.
66	You should NOT over-delegate work to colleagues just because you do not feel like doing it yourself.
67	Talking about your achievements excessively is a good way of concealing a lack of progress in other work areas.

Appendix J2-b: 67-Item Set after Initial Consultation with Experts – Sorted by Category

Perceptions of FP in the Workplace	
Item No	Claiming Credit for Others' Work
1	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.
2	It's okay to claim credit for work done by co-workers or the team.
Item No	Shifting the Blame
1	It is better to blame colleagues for work mistakes than to take personal responsibility.
2	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.
Item No	Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates
1	It's a good idea to over-delegate work which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
2	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.
3	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
4	You should NOT over-delegate work to colleagues just because you do not feel like doing it yourself.
Item No	Words/Language
1	Impressive words will NOT fool a supervisor into thinking you are more competent in your job role than you really are.
2	It is NOT possible to select the words you use in front of your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.
3	There is a way of choosing the words you use around your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.

Appendix J2-b: Contd.

4	You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.
Item No	Work Friendships
1	Building a friendly image at work is NOT a substitute for improving actual job performance.
2	Building strategic friendships in the workplace is more important than improving actual job performance.
3	It is easier to progress in the workplace by building a friendly image rather than improving actual job performance.
4	It is more important for one's career to become friends with everyone in the workplace than it is to focus on actual job performance.
5	It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.
6	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.
7	It is necessary to say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, even if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
8	It is NOT a good idea to focus on becoming friends with influential co-workers over improving actual job performance.
9	It is NOT a good idea to put more effort into being friendly towards your boss than it is to work hard in your job.
10	Making friends with everyone in the workplace should NOT take priority over performing well in your job.
11	You should concern yourself more with impressing your supervisor than working hard to please co-workers.
12	You should NOT focus more on impressing your supervisor than working hard to please your colleagues.
13	You should NOT say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, especially if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.

Appendix J2-b: Contd.

Item No	Varied FP Behaviours
1	Belittling your colleagues is a good way of making yourself look better in the workplace.
2	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.
3	Doing long hours at the office for the sake of appearing busy is NOT more important than getting the work done.
4	Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.
5	Flirting with colleagues is NOT a good way to make up for a lack of competency in your job role.
6	If you are unable do a work task, blaming equipment (e.g. computer failure) is a good way to avoid your incompetency being detected.
7	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.
8	It is a good idea to arrange leave to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.
9	It is important to always give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.
10	It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.
11	It is NOT a good idea to fake illness or injury to avoid a work task you do not have the ability to complete.
12	It is possible to use your sexuality to compensate for a lack of competency in the workplace.
13	It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.
14	Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.

Appendix J2-b: Contd.

15	You should NOT acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, from unprofessional organisations, so as to appear more competent than you are.
16	You should NOT arrange leave as a way to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.
17	You should NOT blame equipment failure as a cover up for your own incompetency.
18	You should NOT try to give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.
Total: 43	
FP in the Interview	
Item No	Lying about Qualifications
1	In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.
2	In a job interview, lying about qualifications is critical to career success.
3	It is NOT acceptable to embellish or exaggerate qualifications in a job interview.
4	Lying about qualifications in a job interview is NOT a good career move.
Item No	Over-Talking as a Smoke Screen
1	In a performance appraisal interview, over-talking past achievements is a good way to avoid discussing current job performance.
2	In a performance appraisal interview, you should NOT talk excessively as a way of avoiding questions about your current job performance.
3	Talking about your achievements excessively is a good way of concealing a lack of progress in other work areas.
4	You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.
Item No	Interview Claiming Credit for Others' Work
1	A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
2	Claiming credit for work done by others is an acceptable interview strategy.

Appendix J2-b: Contd.

3	In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.
4	The performance appraisal interview is a setting in which you can claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
Total: 12	
Conceptualising FP	
Item No	Conscious versus Unconscious FP
1	Employees who are incompetent in their job role will NOT be aware of the deceptions in which they engage to conceal their poor performance.
2	Those performing inadequately in the workplace may consciously behave unethically to disguise their incompetence.
3	Those performing inadequately in the workplace will NOT realise they are behaving unethically to disguise their incompetence.
4	Those performing incompetently at work may well believe that they are doing a brilliant job.
5	Those performing incompetently in their job will be conscious of their behaviour.
6	Those performing incompetently in their job will NOT be aware of their own weaknesses.
7	Those performing incompetently in their job will try to conceal their inadequate performance.
8	Those performing unethically in the workplace may well believe they are doing a brilliant job.
9	Those performing unethically in their job will be conscious of their behaviour.
10	Those performing unethically in their job will NOT trust in their own work efforts.
11	Those performing unethically in their job will try to conceal their inadequate performance.
12	Unethical employees will NOT be aware of the deceptions in which they engage to conceal their poor performance.
Total: 12	
Overall Total: 67	

Appendix J3: Pilot Study E-mail Invite Sent Via SurveyMonkey®

Subject: PILOT Workplace Behaviour Questionnaire

Dear Participant,

I am a PhD research student at the University of Worcester, and I have received permission to send you this pilot survey which forms part of my PhD study. It is concerned with how you manage your image and behaviours in the workplace, and how you conduct your work relationships. Your voluntary participation in this research would be much appreciated.

The questionnaire should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete.

You must have at least two years' work experience to complete this questionnaire, although this may not all necessarily be within your current organisation.

Please respond to this questionnaire *within 7 days* if possible. This survey closes on **[closing date of questionnaire]**.

Here is a link to the survey:

[https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/\[anonymous survey ID\]](https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/[anonymous survey ID])

This link is uniquely tied to this survey and your email address. Please do not forward this message.

Thank you very much for your time and valuable contribution to my PhD research!

Please note: If you do not wish to receive further emails from us, please click the link below, and you will be automatically removed from our mailing list.

[https://www.surveymonkey.com/optout\[anonymous link\]](https://www.surveymonkey.com/optout[anonymous link])

Appendix J4: Pilot Questionnaire Introduction and Instructions

Welcome

Welcome to the pilot version of the Workplace Behaviour Questionnaire. This questionnaire forms part of my PhD research study at the University of Worcester, and it is concerned with how you manage your image and behaviours in the workplace, and how you conduct your work relationships.

Your voluntary participation in this research would be much appreciated. You are free to withdraw from this research at any time, without giving a reason and without any implications for you. Please be assured that all responses are strictly confidential and anonymous and will be used for research purposes only.

The questionnaire should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete. It is very important that you answer ALL the questions, even if some appear similar. Please answer openly and honestly, and do not spend too long on one question. There are no right or wrong answers.

You must have at least two years' work experience to complete this questionnaire, although this may not all necessarily be within your current organisation.

Please respond to this questionnaire within the next 7 days if possible. This survey closes on [closing date of questionnaire].

If you have any questions about this PhD research project, please contact Marie Dunnion at m.dunnion@worc.ac.uk.

Appendix J5: Pilot Study Participant Feedback

Were any of the questions unclear or confusing? If so, will you say which and why?

- No but had to read twice and think about answer.
- Yes - there were a few repeated/asked in a different way.
- A lot of duplication.
- Some - the ones where there was a negative for a positive question.
- They were repetitive.
- No.
- Some where there was a NOT. I had to read the question a few times to make sure I understood it.
- Somewhere but I am unable to remember which ones.
- Too many to remember which ones specifically but a few needed reading several times to follow the 'nots'. Also questions ask if things can be done, not if the respondent does them or has experienced them...This may be your intention.
- At times I was unclear as to whether I was being asked to state how a situation affected me (how would I personally react in the situation), or expressing my opinion of a situation affecting others (how would I expect others to behave). Some questions appeared to have double negatives, making them more difficult to answer quickly.
- A few were very repetitive and some were a bit random.
- A lot of questions quite similar and took some figuring out as to what the actual question being asked was.
- Lots of questions require me to assess what other people will 'know' or 'feel' or 'do' in a certain situation. When to be honest I have no idea how other people think, feel, behave or compensate for their abilities.
- No.
- Questions relating to colleagues' unethical behaviour and concealment were the most confusing.
- No.
- The questions about unethical workers - it is possible to be incompetent without being unethical - unethical implies a deliberate choice of behaviour yet the questions were about whether unethical workers were doing it deliberately.
- Had to read several of the questions a few times to ensure I was answering it correctly due to the use of negatives and double negatives.
- The double negative questions - had to understand what I was answering.
- Yes, use of double negatives.

Appendix J6-a: 55-Item Set after Pilot Study – List Order

Item No	Item Wording
1	In a performance appraisal interview, over-talking past achievements is a good way to avoid discussing current job performance.
2	You should NOT try to give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.
3	It is necessary to say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, even if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
4	It's okay to claim credit for work done by co-workers or the team.
5	Impressive words will NOT fool a supervisor into thinking you are more competent in your job role than you really are.
6	You should NOT focus more on impressing your supervisor than working hard to please your colleagues.
7	It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.
8	It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.
9	A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
10	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.
11	It is NOT acceptable to embellish or exaggerate qualifications in a job interview.
12	You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.
13	Making friends with everyone in the workplace should NOT take priority over performing well in your job.
14	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.
15	Claiming credit for work done by others is an acceptable interview strategy.

Appendix J6-a: Contd.

16	It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.
17	Building a friendly image at work is NOT a substitute for improving actual job performance.
18	In a performance appraisal interview, you should NOT talk excessively as a way of avoiding questions about your current job performance.
19	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.
20	It is better to blame colleagues for work mistakes than to take personal responsibility.
21	You should concern yourself more with impressing your supervisor than working hard to please co-workers.
22	The performance appraisal interview is a setting in which you can claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
23	You should NOT blame equipment failure as a cover up for your own incompetency.
24	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
25	It is possible to use your sexuality to compensate for a lack of competency in the workplace.
26	It is NOT a good idea to fake illness or injury to avoid a work task you do not have the ability to complete.
27	Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.
28	If you are unable do a work task, blaming equipment (e.g. computer failure) is a good way to avoid your incompetency being detected.
29	Doing long hours at the office for the sake of appearing busy is NOT more important than getting the work done.
30	Lying about qualifications in a job interview is NOT a good career move.

Appendix J6-a: Contd.

31	It is more important for one's career to become friends with everyone in the workplace than it is to focus on actual job performance.
32	Flirting with colleagues is NOT a good way to make up for a lack of competency in your job role.
33	You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.
34	Belittling your colleagues is a good way of making yourself look better in the workplace.
35	It is NOT possible to select the words you use in front of your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.
36	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.
37	It's a good idea to over-delegate work which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
38	Building strategic friendships in the workplace is more important than improving actual job performance.
39	It is a good idea to arrange Annual/Sick/Carer's, etc. Leave to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.
40	It is easier to progress in the workplace by building a friendly image rather than improving actual job performance.
41	There is a way of choosing the words you use around your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.
42	In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.
43	You should NOT acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, from unprofessional organisations, so as to appear more competent than you are.
44	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.
45	You should NOT say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, especially if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.

Appendix J6-a: Contd.

46	It is NOT a good idea to focus on becoming friends with influential co-workers over improving actual job performance.
47	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.
48	It is important to always give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.
49	In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.
50	It is NOT a good idea to put more effort into being friendly towards your boss than it is to work hard in your job.
51	You should NOT arrange Annual/Sick/Carer's, etc. Leave as a way to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.
52	Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.
53	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.
54	You should NOT over-delegate work to colleagues just because you do not feel like doing it yourself.
55	Talking about your achievements excessively is a good way of concealing a lack of progress in other work areas.

Appendix J6-b: 55-Item Set after Pilot Study – Sorted by Category

Perceptions of FP in the Workplace	
Item No	Claiming Credit for Others' Work
1	It's okay to claim credit for work done by co-workers or the team.
2	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.
Item No	Shifting the Blame
1	It is better to blame colleagues for work mistakes than to take personal responsibility.
2	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.
Item No	Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates
1	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
2	You should NOT over-delegate work to colleagues just because you do not feel like doing it yourself.
3	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.
4	It's a good idea to over-delegate work which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
Item No	Words/Language
1	You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.
2	There is a way of choosing the words you use around your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.
3	It is NOT possible to select the words you use in front of your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.
4	Impressive words will NOT fool a supervisor into thinking you are more competent in your job role than you really are.

Appendix J6-b: Contd.

Item No	Work Friendships
1	It is necessary to say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, even if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
2	You should NOT say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, especially if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
3	It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.
4	You should concern yourself more with impressing your supervisor than working hard to please co-workers.
5	It is more important for one's career to become friends with everyone in the workplace than it is to focus on actual job performance.
6	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.
7	Making friends with everyone in the workplace should NOT take priority over performing well in your job.
8	It is NOT a good idea to focus on becoming friends with influential co-workers over improving actual job performance.
9	It is NOT a good idea to put more effort into being friendly towards your boss than it is to work hard in your job.
10	It is easier to progress in the workplace by building a friendly image rather than improving actual job performance.
11	Building a friendly image at work is NOT a substitute for improving actual job performance.
12	Building strategic friendships in the workplace is more important than improving actual job performance.
13	You should NOT focus more on impressing your supervisor than working hard to please your colleagues.

Appendix J6-b: Contd.

Item No	Varied FP Behaviours
1	It is a good idea to arrange Annual/Sick/Carer's, etc. Leave to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.
2	It is NOT a good idea to fake illness or injury to avoid a work task you do not have the ability to complete.
3	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.
4	It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.
5	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.
6	It is possible to use your sexuality to compensate for a lack of competency in the workplace.
7	Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.
8	Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.
9	You should NOT blame equipment failure as a cover up for your own incompetency.
10	It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.
11	Belittling your colleagues is a good way of making yourself look better in the workplace.
12	Flirting with colleagues is NOT a good way to make up for a lack of competency in your job role.
13	You should NOT arrange Annual/Sick/Carer's, etc. Leave as a way to avoid work you do not have the ability to carry out.

Appendix J6-b: Contd.

14	Doing long hours at the office for the sake of appearing busy is NOT more important than getting the work done.
15	You should NOT acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, from unprofessional organisations, so as to appear more competent than you are.
16	If you are unable do a work task, blaming equipment (e.g. computer failure) is a good way to avoid your incompetency being detected.
17	You should NOT try to give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.
18	It is important to always give the impression that everything is going well in your work even when it is not.
Total: 43	
FP in the Interview	
Item No	Lying about Qualifications
1	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.
2	It is NOT acceptable to embellish or exaggerate qualifications in a job interview.
3	In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.
4	Lying about qualifications in a job interview is NOT a good career move.
Item No	Over-Talking as a Smoke Screen
1	In a performance appraisal interview, you should NOT talk excessively as a way of avoiding questions about your current job performance.
2	In a performance appraisal interview, over-talking past achievements is a good way to avoid discussing current job performance.
3	Talking about your achievements excessively is a good way of concealing a lack of progress in other work areas.
4	You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.

Appendix J6-b: Contd.

Item No	Interview Claiming Credit for Others' Work
1	A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
2	Claiming credit for work done by others is an acceptable interview strategy.
3	The performance appraisal interview is a setting in which you can claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
4	In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.
Total: 12	
Overall Total: 55	

Appendix J7-a: 53-Item Set after Post-Pilot Consultation with Experts – List Order

Item No	Item Wording
1	It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.
2	It is NOT a good idea to fake illness or injury to avoid a work task you do not have the ability to complete.
3	It is necessary to say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, even if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
4	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.
5	You should NOT say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, especially if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
6	It is better to blame colleagues for work mistakes than to take personal responsibility.
7	It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.
8	You should concern yourself more with impressing your supervisor than working hard to please co-workers.
9	It's okay to claim credit for work done by co-workers or the team.
10	It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.
11	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.
12	It is acceptable to use your sexuality to compensate for a lack of competency in the workplace.
13	It is more important for one's career to become friends with everyone in the workplace than it is to focus on actual job performance.
14	A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.

Appendix J7-a: Contd.

15	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.
16	Claiming credit for work done by others is an acceptable interview strategy.
17	In a performance appraisal interview, you should NOT emphasise past successes to avoid discussing current, inadequate job performance.
18	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
19	Talking about your achievements excessively is a good way of concealing a lack of progress in other work areas.
20	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.
21	Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.
22	Making friends with everyone in the workplace should NOT take priority over performing well in your job.
23	Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.
24	You should NOT blame equipment failure as a cover up for your own incompetency.
25	It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.
26	The performance appraisal interview is a setting in which you can claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
27	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.
28	You should NOT over-delegate work to colleagues just because you do not feel like doing it yourself.
29	Belittling your colleagues is a good way of making yourself look better in the workplace.
30	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.
31	Flirting with colleagues is NOT a good way to make up for a lack of competency in your job role.

Appendix J7-a: Contd.

32	It is NOT a good idea to focus on becoming friends with influential co-workers over improving actual job performance.
33	It is NOT acceptable to embellish or exaggerate qualifications in a job interview.
34	It is NOT a good idea to put more effort into being friendly towards your boss than it is to work hard in your job.
35	It is easier to progress in the workplace by building a friendly image rather than improving actual job performance.
36	You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.
37	You should NOT arrange time off work as a way to avoid tasks you do not have the ability to carry out.
38	Building a friendly image at work is NOT a substitute for improving actual job performance.
39	There is a way of choosing the words you use around your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.
40	Building strategic friendships in the workplace is more important than improving actual job performance.
41	It is NOT possible to select the words you use in front of your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.
42	In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.
43	Lying about qualifications in a job interview is NOT a good career move.
44	Doing long hours at the office for the sake of appearing busy is NOT more important than getting the work done.
45	You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.
46	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.
47	Using impressive words will NOT fool a supervisor into thinking you are more competent in your job than you really are.

Appendix J7-a: Contd.

48	In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.
49	It's a good idea to over-delegate work which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
50	In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.
51	You should NOT acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, from unprofessional organisations, so as to appear more competent than you are.
52	You should NOT focus more on impressing your supervisor than working hard to please your colleagues.
53	If you are unable do a work task, blaming equipment (e.g. computer failure) is a good way to avoid your incompetency being detected.

Appendix J7-b: 53-Item Set after Post-Pilot Consultation with Experts – Sorted by Category

Perceptions of FP in the Workplace	
Item No	Claiming Credit for Others' Work
1	It's okay to claim credit for work done by co-workers or the team.
2	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.
Item No	Shifting the Blame
1	It is better to blame colleagues for work mistakes than to take personal responsibility.
2	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.
Item No	Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates
1	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
2	You should NOT over-delegate work to colleagues just because you do not feel like doing it yourself.
3	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.
4	It's a good idea to over-delegate work which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
Item No	Words/Language
1	You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.
2	There is a way of choosing the words you use around your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.
3	It is NOT possible to select the words you use in front of your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.
4	Using impressive words will NOT fool a supervisor into thinking you are more competent in your job than you really are.

Appendix J7-b: Contd.

Item No	Work Friendships
1	It is necessary to say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, even if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
2	You should NOT say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, especially if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
3	It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.
4	You should concern yourself more with impressing your supervisor than working hard to please co-workers.
5	It is more important for one's career to become friends with everyone in the workplace than it is to focus on actual job performance.
6	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.
7	Making friends with everyone in the workplace should NOT take priority over performing well in your job.
8	It is NOT a good idea to focus on becoming friends with influential co-workers over improving actual job performance.
9	It is NOT a good idea to put more effort into being friendly towards your boss than it is to work hard in your job.
10	It is easier to progress in the workplace by building a friendly image rather than improving actual job performance.
11	Building a friendly image at work is NOT a substitute for improving actual job performance.
12	Building strategic friendships in the workplace is more important than improving actual job performance.
13	You should NOT focus more on impressing your supervisor than working hard to please your colleagues.

Appendix J7-b: Contd.

Item No	Varied FP Behaviours
1	It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.
2	It is NOT a good idea to fake illness or injury to avoid a work task you do not have the ability to complete.
3	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.
4	It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.
5	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.
6	It is acceptable to use your sexuality to compensate for a lack of competency in the workplace.
7	Talking about your achievements excessively is a good way of concealing a lack of progress in other work areas.
8	Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.
9	Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.
10	You should NOT blame equipment failure as a cover up for your own incompetency.
11	It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.
12	Belittling your colleagues is a good way of making yourself look better in the workplace.
13	Flirting with colleagues is NOT a good way to make up for a lack of competency in your job role.
14	You should NOT arrange time off work as a way to avoid tasks you do not have the ability to carry out.
15	Doing long hours at the office for the sake of appearing busy is NOT more important than getting the work done.

Appendix J7-b: Contd.

16	You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.
17	You should NOT acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, from unprofessional organisations, so as to appear more competent than you are.
18	If you are unable do a work task, blaming equipment (e.g. computer failure) is a good way to avoid your incompetency being detected.
Total: 43	
FP in the Interview	
Item No	Lying about Qualifications
1	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.
2	It is NOT acceptable to embellish or exaggerate qualifications in a job interview.
3	In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.
4	Lying about qualifications in a job interview is NOT a good career move.
Item No	Over-Talking as a Smoke Screen
1	In a performance appraisal interview, you should NOT emphasise past successes to avoid discussing current, inadequate job performance.
2	In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.
Item No	Interview Claiming Credit for Others' Work
1	A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
2	Claiming credit for work done by others is an acceptable interview strategy.
3	The performance appraisal interview is a setting in which you can claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
4	In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.
Total: 10	
Overall Total: 53	

Appendix K1: The Nine-Item Organisational Charlatan Scale

The original nine-item OCS utilised a five-point Likert scale:

“A response of 1 denotes strong agreement (i.e. “strongly agree”) with a given statement, while a response of 5 denotes strong disagreement (i.e. “strongly disagree”); responses of 2, 3, and 4 were included to allow the participant to express moderate levels of agreement or disagreement with each item” (Parnell and Singer, 2001, p. 445).

1. It's more important to look busy than to be busy.
2. It's better to figure out how the organisation will evaluate you and work accordingly than to figure out what the organisation needs and do it.
3. I am only concerned about what the organisation expects from me, not what the organisation should be doing.
4. It's better to do what your boss tells you than worry about whether it's correct or not.
5. I try to dress better when I'm going to be seen by key organisational decision makers.
6. You should make a special effort to enhance your appearance when you're going to be seen by those with the most power in your organisation.
7. In today's competitive world, maintaining a strong positive image is critical to career success.
8. It's a good idea to do what will result in strong evaluations even if it's not exactly what the organisation needs to be done.
9. Problems often arise when you have a confrontation with someone important in your organisation.

Source: Parnell and Singer (2001, p. 446).

Appendix K2: 24-Item Impression Management Scale

Please place the number in the blank indicating the extent to which you have engaged in the following behaviours during the past three months. Use the scale below.

- 1=never
- 2=very infrequently
- 3=infrequently
- 4=sometimes
- 5=frequently
- 6=very frequently
- 7=always

1. Play up the value of a positive event that you have taken credit for.
2. Try to make a positive event that you are responsible for appear better than it actually is.
3. Try to take responsibility for positive events, even when you are not solely responsible.
4. Try to make a negative event that you are responsible for not appear as severe as it actually is to your supervisor.
5. Try to let your supervisor think that you are responsible for the positive events that occur in your work group.
6. Arrive at work early in order to look good in front of your supervisor.
7. Work late at the office so that your supervisor will see you working late and think that you are a hard worker.
8. Make your supervisor aware of your accomplishments.
9. Agree with your immediate supervisor's major opinions outwardly even when you disagree inwardly.
10. Create the impression that you are a "good" person to your supervisor.
11. Disagree with your supervisor on major issues.
12. Take responsibility for negative events, even when you are not solely responsible.
13. Take an interest in your immediate supervisor's personal life.
14. Praise your immediate supervisor on his or her accomplishments.
15. Do personal favours for your supervisor.
16. Offer to do something for your supervisor which you were not required to do; that is, you did it as a personal favour for him or her.
17. Volunteer to help your immediate supervisor on a task.
18. Compliment your immediate supervisor on his or her dress or appearance.
19. Agree with your supervisor's major ideas.
20. Present yourself to your supervisor as being a friendly person.
21. Present yourself to your supervisor as being a polite person.
22. Try to act as a "model" employee in front of your supervisor by, for example, never taking longer than the established time for lunch.
23. Work hard when you know the results will be seen by your supervisor.
24. Let your supervisor know that you try to do a good job in your work.

Source: Wayne and Ferris (1990, p. 494).

Appendix K3: Three-Item Job Performance Scale

In the original test instrument, a seven-point scale was used for measurement ranging from 1 - very low to 7 - very high.

In the current study, a 10-point scale was used for measurement:

On a scale of 1 to 10 (1=Very Poor and 10=Excellent) please indicate how you would rate the following in relation to your current job:

1. Quality of your performance.
2. Your productivity on the job.
3. How do you evaluate the performance of yourself at your job compared with your peers doing the same kind of work?

Source: Yousef (2000, p. 13).

Appendix L1: E-mail Invite to Participants – Stage 5

Questionnaire about Workplace Behaviour

Dear Participant,

I am a PhD research student at the University of Worcester, and I have received permission to send you this Questionnaire about Workplace Behaviour which forms part of my PhD study. It is concerned with your behaviours in the workplace, and how you conduct your work relationships.

Your voluntary participation in this research would be much appreciated. You are free to withdraw from this research at any time, although it would be most appreciated if you could complete the questionnaire once started.

The questionnaire should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete.

Please be assured that all responses are strictly confidential and anonymous and will be used for research purposes only.

Here is a link to the questionnaire:

[https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/\[anonymous survey ID\]](https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/[anonymous survey ID])

This questionnaire closes on **[closing date of questionnaire]**.

Thank you very much for your time and valuable contribution to my PhD research.

Appendix L2: FPQ Introduction and Instructions – Stage 5

Questionnaire about Workplace Behaviour

Welcome to this Questionnaire about Workplace Behaviour. This questionnaire forms part of my PhD research study at the University of Worcester, and it is concerned with your behaviours in the workplace, and how you conduct your work relationships. When responding to the questions, you may draw upon your experiences in the workplace throughout your entire working career. Your answers need not be limited to your current job role.

Your voluntary participation in this research would be much appreciated. It would be helpful if you could complete the questionnaire once started, although you are entirely free to withdraw from this research at any time by exiting out of the questionnaire. This can be done by selecting the "Exit Questionnaire" option at the top right-hand corner of any questionnaire page. Please be assured your partially completed questionnaire responses will be deleted by the researcher.

Please also be assured that all responses are strictly confidential and anonymous and will be used for research purposes only. Answers will only be reported in aggregate so that no individual or organisation will be identifiable from any publication presenting the results of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete. It is very important that you answer ALL the questions, even if some appear similar. Please answer openly and honestly, and do not spend too long on one question. There are no right or wrong answers.

This survey closes on [closing date of questionnaire].

If you have any questions or would like any further information about this PhD research, please contact me at m.dunnion@worc.ac.uk. Alternatively, if you are concerned about any aspect of this study, you can direct your queries to my PhD supervisor, Dr Gbola Gbadamosi, at ggbadamosi@bournemouth.ac.uk.

Kind regards,

Marie Dunnion
Final Year PhD Research Student at University of Worcester

Appendix L3: 53-Item FPQ Alpha Values

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.	135.43	2304.043	.551	.777	.954
It is NOT a good idea to fake illness or injury to avoid a work task you do not have the ability to complete.	135.58	2314.886	.448	.854	.954
It is necessary to say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, even if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.	134.93	2271.097	.581	.749	.953
Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.	135.56	2312.795	.418	.793	.954
You should NOT say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, especially if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.	135.09	2284.750	.508	.658	.954
It is better to blame colleagues for work mistakes than to take personal responsibility.	135.21	2282.307	.469	.708	.954
It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.	134.43	2282.763	.402	.526	.954

Appendix L3: Contd.

You should concern yourself more with impressing your supervisor than working hard to please co-workers.	134.53	2258.266	.584	.783	.953
It's okay to claim credit for work done by co-workers or the team.	135.24	2293.450	.505	.714	.954
It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.	135.08	2264.275	.698	.863	.953
If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.	135.66	2318.523	.493	.820	.954
It is acceptable to use your sexuality to compensate for a lack of competency in the workplace.	135.46	2295.484	.495	.693	.954
It is more important for one's career to become friends with everyone in the workplace than it is to focus on actual job performance.	134.98	2291.265	.547	.594	.953
A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.	135.40	2300.288	.466	.765	.954
It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.	135.46	2303.906	.432	.850	.954
Claiming credit for work done by others is an acceptable interview strategy.	135.20	2269.584	.611	.838	.953
In a performance appraisal interview, you should NOT emphasise past successes to avoid discussing current, inadequate job performance.	133.50	2276.627	.402	.563	.954
You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.	134.26	2277.039	.424	.698	.954
Talking about your achievements excessively is a good way of concealing a lack of progress in other work areas.	134.12	2277.047	.434	.621	.954

Appendix L3: Contd.

It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.	135.10	2264.576	.753	.861	.953
Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.	135.49	2294.205	.620	.854	.953
Making friends with everyone in the workplace should NOT take priority over performing well in your job.	134.87	2308.490	.328	.594	.954
Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.	135.49	2303.642	.508	.726	.954
You should NOT blame equipment failure as a cover up for your own incompetency.	135.06	2293.449	.488	.742	.954
It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.	135.21	2291.276	.534	.705	.953
The performance appraisal interview is a setting in which you can claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.	135.37	2307.626	.379	.775	.954
In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.	135.11	2276.738	.548	.752	.953
You should NOT over-delegate work to colleagues just because you do not feel like doing it yourself.	135.09	2292.538	.466	.726	.954
Belittling your colleagues is a good way of making yourself look better in the workplace.	135.53	2303.876	.546	.727	.954
It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.	135.23	2291.414	.558	.772	.953
Flirting with colleagues is NOT a good way to make up for a lack of competency in your job role.	135.37	2283.470	.575	.743	.953
It is NOT a good idea to focus on becoming friends with influential co-workers over improving actual job performance.	134.37	2260.642	.508	.747	.954
It is NOT acceptable to embellish or exaggerate qualifications in a job interview.	135.24	2296.340	.491	.765	.954

Appendix L3: Contd.

It is NOT a good idea to put more effort into being friendly towards your boss than it is to work hard in your job.	134.99	2260.508	.679	.852	.953
It is easier to progress in the workplace by building a friendly image rather than improving actual job performance.	133.53	2271.469	.478	.620	.954
You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.	133.83	2267.471	.479	.661	.954
You should NOT arrange time off work as a way to avoid tasks you do not have the ability to carry out.	135.21	2283.120	.525	.656	.953
Building a friendly image at work is NOT a substitute for improving actual job performance.	135.15	2273.080	.712	.877	.953
There is a way of choosing the words you use around your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.	132.79	2274.229	.426	.725	.954
Building strategic friendships in the workplace is more important than improving actual job performance.	134.51	2255.642	.677	.829	.953
It is NOT possible to select the words you use in front of your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.	132.32	2287.406	.358	.695	.954
In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.	134.92	2274.275	.552	.808	.953
Lying about qualifications in a job interview is NOT a good career move.	135.31	2281.294	.599	.859	.953
Doing long hours at the office for the sake of appearing busy is NOT more important than getting the work done.	135.26	2291.848	.496	.760	.954
You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.	135.05	2262.998	.724	.876	.953

Appendix L3: Contd.

It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.	135.63	2308.470	.593	.838	.954
Using impressive words will NOT fool a supervisor into thinking you are more competent in your job than you really are.	134.25	2261.969	.513	.673	.954
In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.	135.31	2281.294	.656	.857	.953
It's a good idea to over-delegate work which you are not competent enough to do yourself.	134.71	2283.347	.417	.636	.954
In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.	134.32	2254.953	.605	.798	.953
You should NOT acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, from unprofessional organisations, so as to appear more competent than you are.	135.02	2274.703	.535	.670	.953
You should NOT focus more on impressing your supervisor than working hard to please your colleagues.	134.53	2262.970	.595	.781	.953
If you are unable do a work task, blaming equipment (e.g. computer failure) is a good way to avoid your incompetency being detected.	134.80	2277.818	.504	.705	.954

Appendix L4: List of Items Removed after Initial Item Analysis

Perceptions of FP in the Workplace			
Item No	Concept	Items Removed	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
9*	Claiming Credit for Others' Work	It's okay to claim credit for work done by co-workers or the team (<i>positive</i>).	.954
28*	Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates	You should NOT over-delegate work to colleagues just because you do not feel like doing it yourself (<i>negative</i>).	.954
49*		It's a good idea to over-delegate work which you are not competent enough to do yourself (<i>positive</i>).	.954
6*	Shifting the Blame	It is better to blame colleagues for work mistakes than to take personal responsibility (<i>positive</i>).	.954
5*	Work Friendships	You should NOT say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, especially if this differs from what you say to your co-workers (<i>negative</i>).	.954
22*		Making friends with everyone in the workplace should NOT take priority over performing well in your job (<i>negative</i>).	.954
32*		It is NOT a good idea to focus on becoming friends with influential co-workers over improving actual job performance (<i>negative</i>).	.954
34		It is NOT a good idea to put more effort into being friendly towards your boss than it is to work hard in your job (<i>negative</i>).	.953
38		Building a friendly image at work is NOT a substitute for improving actual job performance (<i>negative</i>).	.953
52		You should NOT focus more on impressing your supervisor than working hard to please your colleagues (<i>negative</i>).	.953

Appendix L4: Contd.

41*	Words/Language	It is NOT possible to select the words you use in front of your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are (<i>negative</i>).	.954
47*		Using impressive words will NOT fool a supervisor into thinking you are more competent in your job than you really are (<i>negative</i>).	.954
2*	Varied FP Behaviours	It is NOT a good idea to fake illness or injury to avoid a work task you do not have the ability to complete (<i>negative</i>).	.954
12*		It is acceptable to use your sexuality to compensate for a lack of competency in the workplace (<i>positive</i>).	.954
24*		You should NOT blame equipment failure as a cover up for your own incompetency (<i>negative</i>).	.954
29*		Belittling your colleagues is a good way of making yourself look better in the workplace (<i>positive</i>).	.954
31		Flirting with colleagues is NOT a good way to make up for a lack of competency in your job role (<i>negative</i>).	.953
37		You should NOT arrange time off work as a way to avoid tasks you do not have the ability to carry out (<i>negative</i>).	.953
44*		Doing long hours at the office for the sake of appearing busy is NOT more important than getting the work done (<i>negative</i>).	.954
51		You should NOT acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, from unprofessional organisations, so as to appear more competent than you are (<i>negative</i>).	.953
Total			20

Appendix L4: Contd.

FP in the Interview			
33*	Lying about Qualifications	It is NOT acceptable to embellish or exaggerate qualifications in a job interview (<i>negative</i>).	.954
43		Lying about qualifications in a job interview is NOT a good career (<i>negative</i>).	.953
17*	Over-Talking as a Smoke-Screen	In a performance appraisal interview, you should NOT emphasise past successes to avoid discussing current, inadequate job performance (<i>negative</i>).	.954
19*		Talking about your achievements excessively is a good way of concealing a lack of progress in other work areas (<i>positive</i>).	.954
16	Claiming Credit for Others' Work	Claiming credit for work done by others is an acceptable interview strategy (<i>positive</i>).	.953
26*		The performance appraisal interview is a setting in which you can claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas (<i>positive</i>).	.954
Total		6	
Overall Total		26	

Item numbers refer to the 53-item list in Appendix J7-a. See section 8.2.3.3 for a discussion of the high alpha values reported at this stage of item analysis.

*The deletion of these particular items also functioned to increase Cronbach's alpha.

Appendix L5: 27-Item Set after Initial Item Analysis

1. It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.
2. It is necessary to say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, even if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.
3. Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.
4. It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.
5. You should concern yourself more with impressing your supervisor than working hard to please co-workers.
6. It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.
7. If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.
8. It is more important for one's career to become friends with everyone in the workplace than it is to focus on actual job performance.
9. A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
10. It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.
11. You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
12. It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.
13. Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.
14. Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.
15. It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.
16. In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.
17. It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.
18. It is easier to progress in the workplace by building a friendly image rather than improving actual job performance.
19. You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.
20. There is a way of choosing the words you use around your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.
21. Building strategic friendships in the workplace is more important than improving actual job performance.
22. In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.

Appendix L5 Contd.

23. You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.
24. It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.
25. In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.
26. In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.
27. If you are unable do a work task, blaming equipment (e.g. computer failure) is a good way to avoid your incompetency being detected.

Appendix L6: List of Items Removed based on Conceptual Knowledge

Perceptions of FP in the Workplace				
Item No	Concept	Items Removed	Reason for Removal	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
3	Work Friendships	It is necessary to say whatever it takes to impress your supervisor, even if this differs from what you say to your co-workers.	This item was unclear. It was not necessarily measuring FP. For example, it could have been comparing two different impressive statements said to Management and Non-Management.	.953
8		You should concern yourself more with impressing your supervisor than working hard to please co-workers.	An unclear and possibly confusing item. It could be argued that it is possible to impress one's supervisor AND work hard to please co-workers. It is not necessarily an either/or.	.953
13		It is more important for one's career to become friends with everyone in the workplace than it is to focus on actual job performance.	Repetitive. The following item was instead retained as it more precisely captured the same FP concept i.e. "It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance" (item number 7).	.953
35*		It is easier to progress in the workplace by building a friendly image rather than improving actual job performance.	Repetitive and, again, similar to item 7 which was retained as it better captured the strategic way in which the false performer may approach the process of building friendships.	.954

Appendix L6: Contd.

40		Building strategic friendships in the workplace is more important than improving actual job performance.	Repetitive. Again, this FP concept was better measured by item 7.	.953
Total		5		
39*	Words/Language	There is a way of choosing the words you use around your co-workers to appear more knowledgeable about your work than you really are.	This issue was not a major part of focus group discussions. Also, the false performer is unlikely to fool their co-workers in this way as no matter what they say, their co-workers will be able to judge their performance based on their actual work behaviours.	.954
Total		1		
53*	Varied FP Behaviours	If you are unable do a work task, blaming equipment (e.g. computer failure) is a good way to avoid your incompetency being detected.	This question was removed because this FP concept was not a major theme in the focus groups. Also, it is probably not a behaviour which the false performer could employ regularly.	.954
Total		1		
Overall Total		7		

Item numbers refer to the 53-item list in Appendix J7-a.

*The deletion of these particular items also functioned to increase Cronbach's alpha.

Appendix L7-a: 21-Item Set after Item Analysis – List Order

Item No	Item Wording
1.	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.
2.	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.
3.	Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.
4.	Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.
5.	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
6.	A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
7.	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.
8.	It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.
9.	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.
10.	It is possible to use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.
11.	It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.
12.	It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.
13.	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.
14.	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.
15.	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.

Appendix L7-a: Contd.

16.	It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.
17.	You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.
18.	In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.
19.	It is more important for one's career to build a friendly image than it is to focus on actual job performance.
20.	In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.
21.	In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.

Appendix L7-b: 21-Item Set after Item Analysis – Sorted by Category

Perceptions of FP in the Workplace	
Item No	Claiming Credit for Others' Work
1	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.
Item No	Shifting the Blame
1	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.
Item No	Boss Over-Delegation to Subordinates
1	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.
2	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.
Item No	Words/Language
1	It is possible to use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.
Item No	Work Friendships
1	It is more important for one's career to build a friendly image than it is to focus on actual job performance.
2	It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.
3	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.
Item No	Varied FP Behaviours
1	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.
2	Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.

Appendix L7-b: Contd.

3	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.
4	It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.
5	It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.
6	It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.
7	Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.
8	You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.
Total: 16	
FP in the Interview	
Item No	Lying about Qualifications
1	In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.
2	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.
Item No	Over-Talking as a Smoke Screen
1	In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.
Item No	Interview Claiming Credit for Others' Work
1	A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.
2	In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.
Total: 5	
Overall Total: 21	

Appendix L8: 22-Item FPQ Alpha Values

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.	39.05	281.427	.419	.631	.897
Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.	39.16	283.085	.448	.561	.896
Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.	39.09	280.360	.526	.545	.895
Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.	39.09	277.579	.628	.657	.893
You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.	37.86	273.496	.374	.375	.900
A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.	38.99	278.805	.486	.623	.895
It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.	38.83	278.502	.511	.491	.895
It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.	39.02	279.914	.593	.656	.894

Appendix L8: Contd.

It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.	39.22	281.723	.638	.723	.894
You can use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.	37.43	270.996	.417	.366	.899
It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.	38.03	273.093	.392	.306	.899
It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.	38.67	266.721	.713	.712	.889
If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.	39.26	285.082	.545	.487	.895
In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.	38.71	274.225	.486	.494	.895
It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.	38.70	268.900	.720	.669	.890

Appendix L8: Contd.

It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.	38.81	277.907	.501	.358	.895
You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.	38.64	267.106	.721	.696	.889
In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.	37.91	266.766	.545	.432	.894
In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.	38.52	271.189	.535	.431	.894
In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.	38.91	274.538	.624	.728	.892
It is easier to progress in the workplace by building a friendly image rather than improving actual job performance.	37.13	272.225	.418	.299	.898
It is more important for one's career to become friends with everyone in the workplace than it is to focus on actual job performance.	38.58	277.198	.532	.436	.894

Appendix M1: E-mail Invite to Participants – Stage 6

Questionnaire about Workplace Behaviour

Dear Participant,

I am a PhD research student at the University of Worcester, and I have received permission to send you this Questionnaire about Workplace Behaviour which forms part of my PhD study. It is concerned with your behaviours in the workplace, and how you conduct your work relationships.

Your voluntary participation in this research would be much appreciated. You are free to withdraw from this research at any time, although it would be most appreciated if you could complete the questionnaire once started.

If you complete this questionnaire, you are eligible for entry into a **FREE PRIZE DRAW for 3 x MARKS & SPENCERS GIFT VOUCHERS**. 1st Prize = £20, 2nd Prize = £15 & 3rd Prize = £10.

The questionnaire should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete.

Please be assured that all responses are strictly confidential and will be used for research purposes only.

Here is a link to the questionnaire:

[https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/\[anonymous survey ID\]](https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/[anonymous survey ID])

This questionnaire closes on **[closing date of questionnaire]**.

Thank you very much for your time and valuable contribution to my PhD research.

Kind regards,

Marie Dunnion

Final Year PhD Research Student at University of Worcester

Appendix M2: FPQ Introduction and Instructions – Stage 6

FREE PRIZE DRAW for 3 x MARKS & SPENCERS GIFT VOUCHERS

Welcome to this Questionnaire about Workplace Behaviour. This research is being carried out with the support of [name of organisation]. This questionnaire forms part of my PhD research study at the University of Worcester, and it is concerned with your behaviours in the workplace, and how you conduct your work relationships. You must have at least TWO years' work experience to complete this questionnaire, although this may not all necessarily be within your current organisation. When responding to the questions, you may draw upon your experiences in the workplace throughout your ENTIRE WORKING CAREER. Your answers need not be limited to your current job role.

Your voluntary participation in this research would be much appreciated. It would be helpful if you could complete the questionnaire once started, although you are entirely free to withdraw from this research at any time by exiting out of the questionnaire. This can be done by selecting the "Exit Questionnaire" option at the top right-hand corner of any questionnaire page. Please be assured your partially completed questionnaire responses will be deleted by the researcher.

If you complete this questionnaire, you are eligible for entry into a FREE PRIZE DRAW for 3 x MARKS & SPENCERS GIFT VOUCHERS. 1st Prize = £20, 2nd Prize = £15 & 3rd Prize = £10. Please supply your details at the end of this questionnaire if you wish to be entered into this draw.

Please be assured that all responses are strictly confidential and will be used for research purposes only. Your employer will NOT see your responses. Answers will only be reported in aggregate so that no individual or organisation will be identifiable from any publication presenting the results of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete. It is very important that you answer ALL the questions. Please answer openly and honestly, and do not spend too long on one question. There are no right or wrong answers.

If you have any questions or would like any further information about this PhD research, please contact me at m.dunnion@worc.ac.uk. Alternatively, you can direct your queries to my PhD supervisor, Dr Gbola Gbadamosi, at ggbadamosi@bournemouth.ac.uk.


This survey closes on [closing date of questionnaire].

Marie Dunnion (PhD Research Student - University of Worcester)

Appendix M3: SurveyMonkey® Questionnaire Screenshot – Stage 6

Questionnaire about Workplace Behaviour

5.

 42%

On a scale of 1 to 7 (1= Strongly Disagree and 7= Strongly Agree) please indicate how much you agree with the statements below:

	1. Strongly Disagree	2. Moderately Disagree	3. Mildly Disagree	4. Neither Agree nor Disagree	5. Mildly Agree	6. Moderately Agree	7. Strongly Agree
It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In today's competitive world, maintaining a strong positive image is critical to career success.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

SurveyMonkey® is not associated with, nor does it endorse or sponsor this academic research.

Appendix N1: Sub-Scale 1: Authentic Work Relationships

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.	7.37	20.674	.746	.633	.747
Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.	7.48	21.859	.704	.640	.760
Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.	7.49	22.908	.690	.560	.768
You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.	6.83	21.329	.404	.224	.842
A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.	7.46	22.730	.701	.554	.766
It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.	7.28	22.388	.429	.239	.822

Appendix N2: Sub-Scale 2: Job Avoidance

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
It is more important to befriend influential or politically connected co-workers than it is to focus on actual job performance.	9.48	20.302	.471	.252	.716
It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.	9.83	21.590	.460	.226	.716
If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.	10.32	23.715	.511	.350	.712
It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.	9.78	20.777	.588	.379	.682
It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.	10.15	22.434	.613	.463	.688
It is more important for one's career to build a friendly image than it is to focus on actual job performance.	8.66	19.908	.403	.175	.748

Appendix N3: Sub-Scale 3: Masking Incompetency

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Flirting with colleagues is a good way of compensating for a lack of competency in your job role.	3.62	8.598	.236	.056	.701
It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.	4.23	10.553	.431	.300	.324
It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.	4.45	10.661	.437	.301	.321

Appendix N4: Sub-Scale 4: Linguistic Skills

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
It is possible to use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.	3.98	7.338	.198	.042	.436
In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.	5.71	8.423	.302	.101	.224
In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.	5.51	8.764	.252	.084	.309

Appendix N5: Sub-Scale 5: Front Stage False Performance

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
You should NOT over-talk your achievements to disguise a lack of progress in other work areas.	4.84	7.857	.177	.081	.088
In a job interview, you should NOT claim credit for anybody else's work.	5.16	6.657	.235	.082	-.074 ^a
In a performance appraisal interview, emphasizing past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.	4.56	9.550	.009	.005	.437

Appendix O: Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default Model	34	131.501	102	.026	1.289
Saturated Model	136	.000	0		
Independence Model	16	769.833	120	.000	6.415

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default Model	.187	.874	.832	.656
Saturated Model	.000	1.000		
Independence Model	.455	.465	.394	.411

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default Model	.829	.799	.956	.947	.955
Saturated Model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence Model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default Model	.850	.705	.811
Saturated Model	.000	.000	.000
Independence Model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default Model	29.501	3.986	63.136
Saturated Model	.000	.000	.000
Independence Model	649.833	565.893	741.261

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default Model	1.154	.259	.035	.554
Saturated Model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence Model	6.753	5.700	4.964	6.502

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default Model	.050	.019	.074	.473
Independence Model	.218	.203	.233	.000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default Model	199.501	211.418	292.828	326.828
Saturated Model	272.000	319.670	645.311	781.311
Independence Model	801.833	807.441	845.752	861.752

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default Model	1.750	1.526	2.045	1.855
Saturated Model	2.386	2.386	2.386	2.804
Independence Model	7.034	6.297	7.836	7.083

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default Model	110	120
Independence Model	22	24

Appendix P: Independent t-Test for all 16 FPQ Items (Gender Differences)

Means and Standard Deviations (SD) or all t-Test FPQ Items (Group Statistics)

FPQ Items		Gender	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean
1	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.	Male	32	1.56	1.39	0.25
		Female	173	1.39	1.20	0.09
2	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.	Male	32	1.28	0.77	0.14
		Female	173	1.31	1.18	0.09
3	Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.	Male	32	1.19	0.74	0.13
		Female	173	1.31	1.04	0.08
4	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.	Male	32	2.44	1.97	0.35
		Female	173	1.86	1.63	0.12
5	A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.	Male	32	1.31	0.90	0.16
		Female	173	1.32	1.03	0.08
6	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.	Male	32	1.31	0.78	0.14
		Female	173	1.54	1.57	0.12
7	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.	Male	32	2.38	1.79	0.32
		Female	173	1.84	1.66	0.13
8	It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.	Male	32	1.88	1.64	0.29
		Female	173	1.67	1.66	0.13
9	It is possible to use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.	Male	32	4.59	1.95	0.34
		Female	170	3.46	2.14	0.16
10	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.	Male	32	1.66	1.49	0.26
		Female	170	1.91	1.70	0.13
11	In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.	Male	30	3.23	1.72	0.31
		Female	166	2.63	1.88	0.15
12	In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.	Male	30	2.33	1.86	0.34
		Female	166	2.05	1.68	0.13
13	It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.	Male	32	1.72	1.09	0.19
		Female	170	1.83	1.41	0.11
14	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.	Male	32	1.47	1.05	0.19
		Female	170	1.29	0.93	0.07
15	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.	Male	32	2.00	1.14	0.20
		Female	170	1.82	1.31	0.10
16	It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.	Male	32	1.72	0.96	0.17
		Female	170	1.45	1.02	0.08

Independent t-Test of all 16 FPQ Items (Gender Differences)

FPQ Items		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	It is NOT fair to claim credit for work which has been done by others.	.94	.333	.741	203	.460
2	Belittling your colleagues to make yourself look better in the workplace is NOT good practice.	.19	.668	-.116	203	.908
3	Using your sexuality is NOT a good way of compensating for a lack of ability in the workplace.	1.28	.260	-.617	203	.538
4	You should NOT over-delegate tasks to colleagues which you are not competent enough to do yourself.	6.01	.015	1.777	203	.077
5	A performance appraisal interview should NOT be used as an opportunity to claim credit for other peoples' work or ideas.	.02	.890	-.057	203	.954
6	It's NOT fair to pass the blame to colleagues for mistakes which you have made.	3.26	.072	-.795	203	.428
7	It's okay to over-delegate work which you do not feel like doing yourself.	1.10	.295	1.661	203	.098
8	It is a good idea to arrange time off work to avoid tasks you do NOT have the ability to carry out.	.13	.721	.641	203	.522
9	It is possible to use impressive language in front of your supervisor to appear more competent in your job role than you actually are.	4.10	.044	2.792	200	.006
10	In a job interview, lying about qualifications may help with career success.	1.39	.240	-.796	200	.427
11	In a performance appraisal interview, emphasising past achievements is a good way to disguise current, inadequate job performance.	.45	.502	1.648	194	.101
12	In a job interview, it is okay to embellish or exaggerate qualifications.	1.57	.211	.843	194	.400
13	It's a good idea to acquire impressive sounding qualifications/letters after your name, regardless of the quality of the credentials, so as to appear more competent than you are.	1.18	.279	-.420	200	.675
14	If you do not have the competency to do a specific work task, claiming illness or injury is a good way of avoiding the job.	2.35	.127	.991	200	.323
15	It is more important to put your efforts into being friendly towards your supervisor than it is to work hard in your job.	.49	.484	.712	200	.477
16	It is more important to appear busy by doing long hours than it is to actually get the job done.	.16	.694	1.394	200	.165

Note: Bold values represent $p < 0.05$

Appendix Q: Factor Loadings for the Nine-Item OCS for Sample (n=565)

S/N	Items	Component			
		1	2	3	4
	Factor 1: False Appearance				
5	I try to dress better when I'm going to be seen by key organisational decision makers.	.841			
6	You should make a special effort to enhance your appearance when you're going to be seen by those with the most power in your organisation.	.849			
	Factor 2: Calculative				
2	It is better to figure out how the organisation will evaluate you and work accordingly than to figure out what the organisation needs to do.		.578		
3	I am only concerned about what the organisation expects from me not what the organisation should be doing.		.802		
4	It's better to do what your boss tells you than to worry about whether it's correct or not.		.705		
	Factor 3: Self-preservation				
7	In today's competitive world, maintaining a strong positive image is critical to career success.			.750	
9	Problems often arise when you have a confrontation with someone important in your organisation.			.647	
	Factor 4: Deceptive				
1	It is more important to look busy than to be busy.				.711
8	It's a good idea to do what will result in strong evaluations even if it's not exactly what the organisation needs to be done.				.753

Extraction Method: Principal Components Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Source: Gbadamosi and Osuagwu (2007, pp. 4-5).

Appendix R: List of Publications

Dunnion, M., Gbadamosi, G., & Francis-Smythe, J. (2012, September). *The Masked Employee: A qualitative investigation of the false performer's unethical behaviour in the workplace*. Proceedings of the British Academy of Management (BAM) 2012 Conference, University of Cardiff, Wales.

Dunnion, M., Gbadamosi, G., & Francis-Smythe, J. (2012, July). *A Tale of Two Faces: How to Detect the False Performing Employee in the Workplace*. Poster session presented at the Psychology Postgraduate Affairs Group (PsyPAG) Annual Conference, Northumbria University, Newcastle upon Tyne.

Dunnion, M., Gbadamosi, G., & Francis-Smythe, J. (2012, July). *On the Trail of the False Performer: A qualitative investigation into how to detect unethical workplace behaviour*. Paper presented at the Fifth International Society of Business Economics, and Ethics (ISBEE) World Congress 2012, Kozminski University, Warsaw, Poland.

Dunnion, M. (2012, May). *Counting the Costs of False Performance: When Employee Deception Compromises the Ethics of the Organisation*. Oral presentation at the University of Gloucester Postgraduate Conference, Gloucester.

Dunnion, M., Gbadamosi, G., & Francis-Smythe, J. (2012, April). *Detecting the 'Jekyll and Hyde' Employee: Management and non-management perceptions of the false performer in the workplace*. Paper presented at the British Psychological Society (BPS) Annual Conference, London.

Dunnion, M., Gbadamosi, G., & Francis-Smythe, J. (2011, September). *Detecting the 'Jekyll and Hyde' Employee: Management and non-management perceptions of the false performer in the workplace*. Paper presented at the 24th European Business Ethics Network Conference (EBEN), University of Antwerp, Belgium.

Dunnion, M. (2011, May). *Detecting the 'Jekyll and Hyde' Employee: Investigating false performance in the job interview and the workplace beyond*. Oral presentation at the University of Worcester Research Student Conference, Worcester.

Dunnion, M. (2011, May). *Detecting the 'Jekyll and Hyde' Employee: Investigating false performance in the job interview and the workplace beyond*. Oral presentation at the University of Gloucester Postgraduate Conference, Gloucester.

Dunnion, M. (2010, December). *Welcome to the Workplace Masquerade: detecting unethical behaviour and unmasking the false performing colleagues in our midst*. Oral presentation at CREST/GuildHE Research Symposium, London.

