

Are validation scales useful for Detecting Deliberately Faked Personality Tests? A study in incarcerated populations.

Journal:	<i>Journal of Forensic Psychiatry and Psychology</i>
Manuscript ID:	RJFP-2011-0106.R1
Manuscript Type:	Regular Article
Keywords:	fake-bad, assessment, prisoners

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

1
2
3 **Are validation scales useful for Detecting Deliberately Faked Personality Tests? A**
4 **study in incarcerated populations.**
5
6
7

8
9 **Abstract**

10
11 Personality self-report questionnaires are frequently used in forensic settings to detect
12 psychopathology, to predict recidivism, and to assess adaptability to life in prison. Although
13 most personality questionnaires include validity or control scales, even with the scales most
14 outcomes can be easily manipulated. The aim of this study is to analyze the utility of the
15 control scales of the *Situational Personality Questionnaire*. A sample of 200 male prisoners
16 was randomized into two groups. Both groups completed the SPQ as a part of the
17 mandatory psychological assessment when they entered prison, and then again 8 months
18 later. In time 2, one group received instructions to falsify the results of the questionnaire.
19 Results indicated that the feigned induction was effective. The control scales were not able
20 to detect feigners. Results are discussed with regard to their implications for further
21 research into assessing fake responses in forensic settings.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Keywords: fake-bad; assessment; prisoners.

Word count= 4812

1
2
3 The use of personality self-report questionnaires is very common in forensic settings.
4
5 These scales are usually employed to detect the presence of psychopathology, especially
6
7 personality disorders or psychopathic traits, to predict recidivism, or to predict adaptability
8
9 to prison life (Listwan, Van Voorhis, & Ritchey, 2007). The findings from these personality
10
11 tests are then used as forensic evidence in correctional and judicial settings to help
12
13 determine the subject's (1) competence, (2) criminal responsibility, and/or (3) level of risk
14
15 (Duellman & Bowers, 2004).

16
17 Although different types of interviews are also frequently used for these purposes,
18
19 questionnaires are generally considered as providing "objective" information that is
20
21 uninfluenced by the beliefs, judgments and experiences of the interviewer. However,
22
23 personality questionnaires, as with all self-reports, are susceptible to their answers' being
24
25 manipulated in distorted, biased, or false ways. There is a variety of possible distortions,
26
27 one of them being respondents' attempts to present favorable or unfavorable pictures of
28
29 themselves, yielding inaccurate and misleading personality profiles. In some cases,
30
31 respondents actually believe in their positive self-reports, but in other cases, respondents
32
33 consciously dissemble, especially under public conditions (Paulhus, 1984). In some
34
35 situations, individuals can be motivated to distort their personality scores or to exaggerate
36
37 psychopathological problems in order to obtain beneficial outcomes, and therefore the
38
39 effect of this distortion on self-reports should be controlled for.

40
41 Despite efforts to design reliable and valid instruments for assessing personality traits
42
43 and dispositions, questionnaires remain vulnerable to lying, faking, feigning, and
44
45 malingering (Sullivan & King, 2010). There are different types of faking, and the more
46
47 common distinction has been done between "fake good" and "fake bad". "Fake good" has
48
49 been defined as a "conscious effort to manipulate responses to personality items to make a
50
51 positive impression" (Zickar & Robie, 1999). This bias is expressed as intentionally looking
52
53 better than one might perform, and it is probably the most extensively studied bias
54
55 (Mersman & Schultz, 1998). "Fake bad" is expressed as intentionally looking worse than
56
57 one might perform, and it has been also studied, mainly focused on the malingering of
58
59
60

1
2
3 psychopathology¹(Sullivan & King, 2010). As Meehl and Hathaway (1946) pointed out, “one
4 of the most important failings of almost all structured personality tests is their susceptibility
5 to ‘faking’ and ‘lying’ in one way or another” (p. 525). However, occurrence of this bias may
6
7 vary in different contexts and different populations.
8
9

10
11 In forensic settings, the question of faking is of primary concern (Pierson, Rosenfeld,
12 Green & Belfi, 2011), particularly where the outcome of the assessment influences the legal
13 status of prisoners, who may exaggerate various psychological problems in an effort to
14 receive special services (e.g., psychopharmacological agents) or who may minimize their
15 involvement in drug or alcohol use to avoid more stringent probationary terms and
16 requirements (Morey & Quigley, 2002). Thus, the reliability of the assessment may be
17 severely compromised when attempts to feign go undetected (Rogers, 1997). As a result,
18 psychologists have been involved in detecting deception during psychological evaluations
19 in legal contexts. To control for faking, validity scales have been usually included to assess
20 the accuracy of self-reports (Mogge, Lepage, Bell & Ragatz, 2009; Morey, 1991;
21 Schoenberg, Dorr & Morgan, 2006). Literature about validity scales has been large
22 (Rogers, Sewell, Martin & Vitacco, 2003; Singh, Avasthi & Grover, 2007), and aimed at
23 constructing robust control strategies for detecting feigners. However, researchers
24 recognize that it is still relatively easy to deliberately exaggerate the results without been
25 detected (Piedmont, McCrae, Riemann, & Angleitner, 2000; Singh et al., 2007). Many
26 researchers have come to recognize the limitations of validity scales, and even several test
27 authors (for instance NEO-PI-R authors) expressly omit the usual validity scales because
28 they believe there is scarce empirical justification for their use (Piedmont et al., 2000).
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46

47 The typical design for the study of feigning has been the “faking paradigm” (Piedmont et al.,
48 2000) in which participants are explicitly asked to simulate some form of distortion (fake
49 good or fake bad) (Mogge et al., 2009; Shores & Carstairs, 1998). The scores of these
50 “fakers” are then compared to those of control groups. These experiments have been useful
51
52
53
54

55
56
57 1
58
59
60

1
2
3 for studying the effectiveness of control scales. Several studies have shown that validity
4
5 scales distinguish between faking and control conditions, and it has been concluded that
6
7 they are able to detect the bias in question (Baity, Siefert, Chambers & Blais, 2007;
8
9 Piedmont et al., 2000). However, most of these studies have been done in the context of
10
11 personnel selection or with volunteer undergraduate students (Omar & Uribe, 2000) rather
12
13 than in clinical or prison settings, and they are often criticized as generalizing the results to
14
15 other contexts. Regarding students, Heinze and Vess (2005) pointed out that the incentive
16
17 to fake in real-world situations (such as when one is evading criminal prosecution) is much
18
19 stronger than an experimental context can ethically assess. Regarding personnel selection,
20
21 several researchers have claimed that faking is used by relatively few applicants and
22
23 should therefore not be an important issue in this context (Griffin, Hesketh, & Grayson,
24
25 2004; Hough, 1998). In this point, it should be emphasized that sensitivity and specificity of
26
27 a test to detect distortion and faking depends on the base rate of invalid responding in the
28
29 sample. Sensitivity reflects the capacity of an instrument to yield true positive results,
30
31 whereas specificity reflects the capacity of an instrument to yield true negative results. Both
32
33 sensitivity and specificity are determined by the established cutting score of the test, but
34
35 cutting scores vary for different populations. For example, Lim and Butcher (1996) showed
36
37 that a cutoff score that discriminated faking bad from honest student respondents with
38
39 100% accuracy identified fully 30% of a sample of presumably honest psychiatric patients
40
41 as faking bad. These results point the importance of base rate information in understanding
42
43 the accuracy of prediction methods to detect feigning, and suggest that different cutoff
44
45 scores should be used for different populations. In addition, limitations also come from the
46
47 problem of false positives. For example, Lim and Butcher (1996) showed that a cutoff score
48
49 that discriminated faking from honest student respondents with 100% accuracy identified
50
51 fully 30% of a sample of presumably honest psychiatric patients as faking bad. These
52
53 results suggest that different cutoff scores should be used for different populations. These
54
55 results point the importance of base rate information in understanding the accuracy of
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 prediction methods to detect feigning, and suggest that different cutoff scores should be
4
5 used for different populations
6

7 Another option for discerning faking is to compare self-report scores with independent
8 assessments such as observer ratings. Piedmont et al.(2000) concluded the questionnaires
9 are not an infallible method, and furthermore the validity scales will not improve them. They
10 propose to use well-validated instruments with improved quality and multiple sources of
11 data, like external criteria, separate instruments or independent sources
12
13
14
15
16

17 Yet another strategy to detect fakers involves using multivariate techniques such as
18 discriminant factorial analysis (Cashel, Rogers, Sewell, & Martin-Cannici, 1995;
19 Schoenberg et al., 2006). In this line, Rogers, Harrell, and Liff (1993) have developed the
20 Rogers Discriminant Function scale (RDF) (Rogers, Sewell, Morey, & Ustad, 1996) for the
21 Personality Assessment Inventory (PAI, Morey, 1991). This function distinguishes between
22 malingering and non-malingering simulators (Rogers et al., 1996) and has demonstrated an
23 impressive effectiveness across several simulation samples (Hopwood, Morey, Rogers &
24 Sewell, 2007; Sullivan & King 2010). However, the use of RDF in criminal forensic settings
25 is being increasingly questioned (Hopwood et al., 2007). Rogers et al. (1998) applied the
26 RDF to a forensic sample and found that the detection accuracy was near chance levels,
27 leading these authors to issue a caution against using the RDF with forensic populations.
28 Kucharski, Toomey, Fila, and Duncan (2007) also found that the RDF scale and the MAL
29 index from PAI do not have acceptable enough sensitivity and specificity to differentiate the
30 malingering from the non-malingering in a sample of criminal defendants. Negative results
31 with the RDF may occur because the base rate of pathology-free individuals may be lower
32 in forensic populations than in standard simulation studies (Hopwood et al., 2007).
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48

49 Overall, the use of control scales and other associated solutions to the problems of
50 malingering has received significant empirical attention in the general population, but there
51 few studies respecting the validity of the control scales when used with incarcerated
52 populations. As mentioned above, malingering is a very relevant topic given the
53 characteristics of incarcerated populations. The aim of this study is to investigate the effect
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 a malingering induction has on each of the scales of a personality questionnaire and to
4 measure the utility of the control scales in detecting faking in an experimental induction with
5 an incarcerated sample. For this study, the *Situational Personality Questionnaire* (CPS;
6 Fernández-Seara et al., 1998) has been used because it is a common tool used to assess
7 personality traits in Spanish forensic settings, and it is a mandatory instrument in the
8 assessment protocol in the prison where the present study was conducted.
9
10
11
12
13
14

15 16 17 *Method*

18 19 20 21 *Participants*

22
23 The respondents were 200 male prisoners from the Tarragona (Spain) prison, with an
24 age of 34 (9.2). The only exclusion criterion was a low level of reading; subjects were
25 excluded when their reading level was insufficient to understanding the sentences of the
26 questionnaire. The sample was randomized into two groups, Control Group (CG) and
27 Feigner Group (FG), with 100 participants in each. The average age was 34.6 (9) years for
28 CG, and 33.4 (9.4) years for FG. The average duration of incarceration (in weeks) was 24.9
29 (SD=34.6) for the CG and 34.5 (SD=40.8) for the FG. In terms of educational attainment
30 among CG participants, 35% subjects completed primary school, 61.2% completed
31 secondary school, and 3.8% completed university studies. Among FG participants, 41.5%
32 subjects completed primary school, 57.1% completed secondary school, and 1.3%
33 completed university studies. For all categories (age, length of incarceration, and education
34 level) there were no significant differences between CG and FG.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48

49 50 *Instruments.*

51
52 *Situational Personality Questionnaire* (CPS; Fernández-Seara et al., 1998). This
53 questionnaire contains 233 items, each with two answer options (true/false), and requires
54 approximately thirty minutes to be completed. This instrument offers scores on 15
55 personality scales, 3 control scales and 5 summary scales (second order factors). The 15
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 main scales are: *Emotional Stability* (irritable, susceptible, and overexcited versus
4 serene, stable, and balanced), *Anxiety* (relaxed, calm, and patient versus worried,
5 anxious, and fearful), *Self-Concept*(having low self-esteem and poor self-image versus
6 having high self-esteem and strong self-image), *Efficacy* (socially insecure, with social
7 concerns versus competent, with social initiatives), *Self-Confidence*(hesitant and
8 insecure versus trusting and confident about him/herself and his/her
9 possibilities),*Independency* (dependent versus autonomous), *Dominancy* (docile,
10 obedient, and trying to please versus energetic, assertive, organizing, and competitive)
11 *Cognitive Control* (external attribution and impulsive versus cautious, analytical, and
12 calculating), *Sociability* (reserved, withdrawn, shy, and distant versus friendly, sociable,
13 enthusiastic, expressive, and participative), *Social Adjustment* (rebellious and in conflict
14 with the rules versus socialized, dutiful, and accepting of the rules), *Aggressiveness*
15 (peaceful and unperturbed versus warlike and critical), *Tolerance* (unyielding, rigid,
16 dogmatic, and "picky" versus understanding, permissive, flexible, and open), *Social*
17 *intelligence* (socially awkward and change-avoidant versus socially comfortable and
18 flexible with change), *Integrity/ Honesty* (informal and undisciplined versus reliable,
19 responsible, formal, and disciplined), and *Leadership* (uninterested in giving orders or
20 leading others versus confident in organizing tasks or leading people).

21
22 The 5 summary scales are: *Adjustment* (undecided, tense, capable, critical, doubtful
23 versus balanced, relaxed, understanding, sure), *Leadership* (tolerant and permissive versus
24 assertive and competitive), *Independency* (Submissive, doubtful, tolerant, and conventional
25 versus autonomous, rebellious, and self-confident), and *Consensus* (rule-conflictive,
26 insecure, and impulsive versus reliable, socially skillful, and organized).

27
28 The CPS incorporates three validity scales that are used to detect purposeful distortion:
29 The *Sincerity Scale* is composed of 21 items referring to behaviors that social norms advise
30 against carrying out. A low score (lower than 5) refers to a person who desires to hide
31 personal defects. A high score (higher than 9) refers to a person who is sincere and truthful.

1
2
3 The *Social Desirability Scale* is composed of 28 items assessing the distortion that can be
4 introduced into the responses by overestimation of oneself and one's own behavior. A low
5 score (lower than 24) on this factor refers to a person whose social self-conception
6 corresponds to natural and spontaneous behavior. A high score (higher than 27) refers to a
7 person who ruminates and worries about his/her social image. The *Response Control Scale*
8 is composed of 26 items, grouped in 13 pairs with similar answer direction, and it is
9 expected that responders answer both items similarly. The objective of this scale is to
10 detect individuals who respond the questionnaire carelessly, without attending to the items.
11 A score of 8 or higher means coherency in the answering. A score of 7 or lower indicates
12 incoherency, meaning that the evaluation results should be considered with caution.

13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
Strengths of this instrument include its broad understandability, due to its simple
language, its validation using a large Spanish sample ($n= 39,631$), and its standing,
established through previous research, as a good instrument to predict conflict-seeking
prisoners (Raya, Eliseo & Medina, 2008).

Procedure

All participants filled out the CPS as part of a mandatory psychological assessment
when entering prison (time 1). After a period of approximately eight months (time 2),
participants were asked to fill out the questionnaire again ($X= 251.6$ days for the CG, and
 $X= 251.2$ days for FG). There were no significant differences between groups in the time
spent between time 1 and time 2 ($t=0.99$).

In time 2, the FG group received instructions to fake the results of the questionnaire,
thereby presenting a different self-image; it was not specified to fake good or bad. FG
participants were told that they would receive a small reward for the task (cigarettes,
sweets, chocolate, etc.) if their new scores different from their initial test scores at time 1,
and if the test did not detect that they were faking. At the end of the experiment, all
participants received the reward independent of the results. The specific instructions were
made in colloquial language, were always the same, and were meant to induce participants

1
2
3 to fake the questionnaire in such a way that the test did not detect the deception. The CG
4
5 group received the same standard test instructions that they received in time 1.
6
7

8 9 *Results*

10 11 *Differences between groups and times*

12
13 A 2 x 2 ANOVA (FG vs. CG x time 1 vs. time 2) analysis with Sidak's post-hoc tests
14
15 were applied. The aim of this analysis was to analyze the efficacy of the fake induction
16
17 across the analysis of the differences according groups (FG vs. CG) in each of the scales,
18
19 before and after the fake induction. The descriptive data are shown in Table 1.
20
21
22
23

24
25 -----
26 *Insert table 1*
27
28 -----

29 ANOVAs results are shown in Table 2. Regarding group effects and time effects,
30
31 significant differences have been found for almost all the scales. That is, there were
32
33 differences between both groups (FG and CG), and scores changed from Time 1 to Time 2.
34
35 In order to analyze groups differences Sidak's post hoc analysis between groups (FG vs.
36
37 CG) were applied for both times (Time 1 and 2), Although groups were randomized, in time
38
39 1 there were significant differences in Dominance ($p=.03$), Independence ($p=.03$), Social
40
41 Adjustment; ($p=.02$), Aggressiveness ($p<.01$), and Tolerance, ($p<.05$) scales. In time 2,
42
43 after the fake induction, there were significant differences between both groups in almost all
44
45 of the scales (Emotional Stability, $p<.001$; Efficacy, $p<.001$; Self-Confidence, $p<.001$,
46
47 Dominance, $p<.01$; Independence, $p<.01$; Cognitive Control, $p<.01$; Sociability,
48
49 $p<.001$; Social Adjustment, $p<.01$; Aggressiveness, $p<.01$; Tolerance, $p<.01$; Social
50
51 Intelligence, $p<.01$; Integrity/honesty, $p<.01$; Leadership, $p<.01$; Sincerity, $p<.01$, Social
52
53 Desirability, $p<.01$; Response Control, $p<.01$). There were no significant differences
54
55 between groups in time 2 except in Self-concept and Anxiety scales.
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 More important, results showed significant interaction effects (group x time) for almost
4 all the scales (see Table 2; Graphic 1), except for the Anxiety, Independence, and Sincerity
5 scales. In order to analyze these interaction effects Sidak's post hoc analysis between time
6 1 and 2 were applied for both groups. For the CG group, there were no differences between
7 time 1 and 2 for any scale. However, for the FG group, there were significant differences in
8 all the scales (Emotional Stability, $p < .005$; Anxiety, $p < .005$; Self-concept, $p < .05$; Efficacy,
9 $p < .001$; Self Confidence, $p < .001$; Dominance, $p = .040$; Independence, $p = .040$; Cognitive
10 Control, $p < .01$; Sociability, $p < .01$; Social Adjustment, $p < .01$; Aggressiveness, $p < .01$;
11 Tolerance, $p < .01$; Social Intelligence, $p < .01$; Integrity/Honesty, $p < .01$; Leadership, $p < .01$;
12 Sincerity, $p < .01$; Social Desirability, $p < .01$; Response Control, $p < .05$).

13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23 -----
24
25 *Insert Graphic 1*
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33 -----
34
35
36
37

38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Insert table 2

Classification of the participants' as "reliable" respondents

Normative data of CPS in the Spanish sample allow for the categorizing of respondents as "reliable" in function of the three control scale sores (Fernández-Seara et al., 1998). According to the cutoff scores, in time 1, the percentage of the sample that could be categorized as "reliable" was between 60.5% and 97.5% (see Table 3). In time 2, after the experimental induction, the percentages remain similar in both groups, FG and CG. In fact, the percentage of FG participants categorized as "reliable" increased in the *Response Control* scale by more than 10%.

According to normative data (Fernández-Seara et al, 1998), average scores in control scales (see Table 1) indicated that participants were not dishonest and did not hide personal defects, as mean scores on *Sincerity* were higher than 5. These scores increased

1
2
3 in time 2, where FG participants scored higher than 9, meaning that they were assumed to
4 be highly “sincere”. Regarding *Social Desirability*, all average scores were lower than 24,
5 indicating that participants were “natural and spontaneous in their social image”, and FG
6 participants even showed better scores in Time 2. Finally, *Response Control* scores were
7 higher than 8, meaning that participants’ answers were reliable and coherent.
8
9
10
11
12

13
14
15 -----
16
17 *Insert table 3*
18
19 -----
20
21
22

23 Discussion

24
25 The present study was aimed at analyzing the efficacy of control scales at detecting
26 faking in a commonly used personality questionnaire (CPS) administered in a Spanish
27 prison. For that purpose, an experimental “fake” induction was used, and the subsequent
28 data were compared to a control group. In general, results from this study do not support
29 the utility of validity scales for the CPS questionnaire.
30
31
32
33
34

35 First, results indicated that “fake” induction was successful, as FG participants changed
36 their scores in all scales after the induction. Data did not show differences between time 1
37 and 2 for the control (CG) group, indicating that participants’ scores remain relatively stable
38 after 8 months. This result was expected since the questionnaire measures stable
39 dispositions and good test-retest reliability data have been reported (Fernández-Seara et
40 al., 1998). However, FG group did show differences for every subscale, meaning that their
41 scores changed in time 2 when faking was requested. Furthermore, group x time interaction
42 effects were significant for almost all scales, indicating that changes were bigger for FG
43 than for CG group. Only two personality scales did not show significant interaction effects:
44 *Anxiety* and *Independence*. *Anxiety* scores were lower in time 2 for all participants
45 (although post analysis showed only significant differences for FG), and *Independence*
46 scores were higher in time 2 for all participants (although again post analysis showed only
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 significant differences for FG). It is possible that anxiety and independence have positive
4 social values in prison contexts, making high independence and low anxiety highly valued
5 traits among prisoners. In this sense, these dimensions might be more easily affected by
6
7 unconscious, self-deceptive enhancement (Paulhus, 1984).
8
9

10
11 Regarding the efficacy of validity scales in detecting respondents' attempts to
12 manipulate the answers, the results did not support their utility. According to normative data
13 (Fernández-Seara, et al., 1998), after fake induction, 90.1% of FG participants were
14 sincere, 96.3% showed a natural and spontaneous self-image and 71.6% answered the
15 questionnaire with interest and attention, avoiding answering at random. Taking average
16 scores into consideration, FG participants were even more "sincere" and "natural and
17 spontaneous in their social image" in Time 2 than in Time 1. These data clearly point out
18 that the control scales were not able to detect the feign manipulation.
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26

27 Several limitations of the present study should be noted. First, the current population
28 was exclusively male. Future studies might question whether these results are applicable to
29 females. Second, faking instructions did not direct the faking into "good" or "bad"
30 orientation. Further research should be address to distinguish between fake good and fake
31 bad inductions, in order to explore different characteristics related to the direction of the
32 faking. Another limitation is the specific personality questionnaire used. **As mentioned, it is
33 the most common personality instrument used in Spanish forensic settings, but it is only
34 available in the Spanish language, so it is not possible to compare the present results with
35 those from other countries, and to determine the degree to which the findings of the study
36 are generalizable to other particular measures.**
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

48 Finally and surprisingly, there were significant differences between groups in time 1 in
49 some factors, Compared to CG participants, FG participants showed higher scores in
50 *Dominance*, *Independence*, and *Aggressiveness* and lower scores in *Social Adjustment*,
51 and *Tolerance*. This was not expected since the sample was randomized and there were no
52 differences with respect to age, length of incarceration, and educational level.
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Despite these limitations, the design of this study is unique in that a fake induction was
4 issued among an incarcerated population; traditionally faking and malingering has been
5 studied in a context of personnel selection or with volunteer undergraduate students. The
6 present study has notable implications for future research and for the usage of validity
7 scales in forensic contexts, because in those situations individuals are motivated to distort
8 their personality scores or to exaggerate psychopathological problems in order to obtain
9 beneficial outcomes. The setting studied in this work is one of these possible situations, as
10 prisoners may have multiple motivations for feigning.

11
12 In conclusion, results indicate that validity scales are not effective tools to detect feigning
13 in a jailed sample, although, as previously mentioned, findings of the present study are not
14 generalizable to other particular measures. It should be highlighted that psychological
15 testing is one of several strategies used in forensic decision-making, but it is not the only
16 source used to answer forensic questions. Evaluation also includes other strategies
17 (observation, interviews, etc.) and collateral information. Personality questionnaires remain
18 very useful assessment procedures in forensic questions, but it is important to know the
19 relative vulnerability of these personality measures to being feigned. More study is needed
20 to establish systems that are truly effective at detecting insincerity, and to design new ways
21 of controlling feigning. One alternative entails using a combination of relevant scales
22 grouped in one factor, rather than using additional scales that can be easy to detect and to
23 circumvent by participants (Schoenberg et al., 2006). These topics are fundamental when
24 the assessment is done in a context associated with higher feigning prevalence.

1
2
3 *References*
4

5 American Psychiatric Association (APA). Diagnostic and Statistical manual of mental
6 disorders, text revision. 4th ed. Washington, DC: APA; 2000.

7
8
9 Baity, M.R., Siefert, C.J., Chambers, A., & Blais, M.A. (2007). Deceptiveness on the PAI: A
10 Study of Naïve Faking With Psychiatric Inpatients. *Journal of Personality*
11 *Assessment*, 88, 16-24.
12

13
14
15 Cashel, M.I., Rogers, R., Sewell, K.S., & Martin-Cannici, C. (1995). The personality
16 Assessment Inventory (PAI) and the detection of defensiveness. *Assessment*, 2, 333-
17 342.
18

19
20
21 Duellman, R.M., & Bowers, T.G. (2004). Use of personality assessment inventory (PAI) in
22 forensic correctional settings: evidence for concurrent validity. *International Journal of*
23 *Forensic Psychology*, 1, 42-57.
24

25
26
27 Fernández-Seara, J.L., Seisdedos, N., & Mielgo, M. (1998). *CPS, Cuestionario de*
28 *Personalidad Situacional*. TEA Ediciones. Madrid.
29

30
31 Griffin, B., Hesketh, B., & Grayson, D. (2004). Applicants faking good: evidence of item bias
32 in the NEO PI-R. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36, 1545-1558.
33

34
35
36 Heinze, M.C. & Vess, J. (2005). The Relationship Among Malingering, Psychopathy, and
37 the MMPI-2 Validity Scales in Maximum Security Forensic Psychiatric Inpatients.
38 *Journal of Forensic Psychology Practice*, 5, 35- 53
39

40
41 Hopwood, C. J., Morey, L. C., Rogers, R., & Sewell, K. (2007). Malingering on the
42 Personality Assessment Inventory: Identification of Specific Feigned Disorders.
43 *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 88, 43 – 48.
44

45
46
47 Hough, I.M. (1998). Effects of intentional distortion in personality measurement and
48 evaluation of suggested palliatives. *Human Performance*, 11, 209-244.
49

50
51 Kucharski, L.T., Toomey, J.P., Fila, K. & Duncan, S. (2007). Detection of Malingering of
52 Psychiatric Disorder with the Personality Assessment Inventory: An Investigation of
53 Criminal Defendants. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 88, 25-32.
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Lewis, J. L., Simcox, A. M., & Berry, D. T. (2002). Screening for feigned psychiatric
4 symptoms in a forensic sample using the MMPI-2 and the Structured Inventory of
5 Malingered Symptomatology. *Psychological Assessment, 14*, 170–176.
6
7

8
9 Lim, J., & Butcher, J.N. (1996). Detection of faking bad on the MMPI-2: Differentiation
10 among faking-bad, denial, and claiming extreme virtue. *Journal of Personality*
11 *Assessment, 67*, 1-25.
12

13
14 Listwan, S.J., Van Voorhis, P., & Ritchey, P.N. (2007). Personality, Criminal
15 Behavior, and Risk Assessment. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 34*, 60 -75.
16
17

18
19 Meehl, P.E., & Hathaway, S.R. (1946). The K factor as a suppressor variable in the
20 Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 30*, 525–
21 564.
22
23

24
25 Mersman, J.L., & Shultz, K.S. (1998). Individual differences in the ability to fake on
26 personality measures. *Personality and Individual Differences, 24*(2), 217-227.
27
28

29
30 Mogge, N.L., Lepage, J.S., Bell, T., & Ragatz, L. (2009). The negative distortion scale: a
31 new PAI validity scale. *Journal of Forensic Psychiatry & Psychology, 21*, 77-90.
32
33

34
35 Morey, L. (1991). *Professional manual for the Personality Assessment Inventory*. Odessa,
36 FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
37

38
39 Morey, L.C., & Quigley, B.D. (2002). The use of the Personality Assessment Inventory in
40 assessing offenders. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative*
41 *Criminology, 46*, 333-349.
42
43

44 Norris, M. P., & May, M. C. (1998). Screening for malingering in a correctional setting. *Law*
45 *and Human Behavior, 22*, 315–323.
46
47

48 Omar, A., & Uribe, H. (2000) Tendencia al falseamiento y temor a ser descubierto
49 [Tendency to distortion and fear of discovery]. *Acta Psiquiátrica y Psicológica de*
50 *América Latina, 46*, 67-73.
51
52

53
54 Paulhus, D.L. (1984). Two-component models of socially desirable responding. *Journal of*
55 *Personality and Social Psychology, 46*, 598–609.
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Piedmont, R.L., McCrae, R.R., Riemann, R., & Angleitner, A. (2000). On Invalidity of
4
5 Validity Scales: Evidence from Self-reports and Observer Rating in volunteer
6
7 Samples. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78, 582-593.
8
- 9 Pierson, A. M., Rosenfeld, B., Green, D., & Belfi, B. (2011). Investigating the Relationship
10
11 between Antisocial Personality Disorder and Malingering. *Criminal Justice and*
12
13 *Behavior*, 38, 146 -156.
14
- 15 Raya, D., Eliseo, A., & Medina, P. (2008). Validació creuada en població penitenciària de
16
17 criteris psicomètrics i tècnics per la predicció de conductes adaptatives i factors de
18
19 risc [Cross validation of psychometric and technical criteria to predict adaptive
20
21 behaviour and risk factors in jailed population]. *Centre d'estudis jurídics i formació*
22
23 *especialitzada*. Retrieved from:
24
25 <http://www20.gencat.cat/docs/Justicia/Documents/ARXIUS/SC-3-152-08.pdf>
26
27 Barcelona.
28
- 29 Rogers, R. (1997). Current status of clinical methods. In R. Rogers (Ed.), *Clinical*
30
31 *assessment of malingering and deception*. New York: Guilford.
32
- 33 Rogers, R., & Correa, A.A. (2008) Determinations of Malingering: Evolution from Case-
34
35 Based methods to detection strategies. *Psychiatry, Psychology and Law*, 15, 213-
36
37 223.
38
- 39 Rogers, R., Harrell, E.H., & Liff, C.D. (1993). Feigning neuropsychological impairment: A
40
41 critical review of methodological and clinical considerations. *Clinical Psychology*
42
43 *Review*, 13, 255–274.
44
- 45 Rogers, R., Sewell, K.W., Martin, M. A., & Vitacco, M.J. (2003). Detection of feigned mental
46
47 disorders: a meta-analysis of the MMPI-2 and malingering. *Assessment*, 10, 60- 77.
48
- 49 Rogers, R., Sewell, K., Morey, L., & Ustad, K. (1996). Detection of feigned mental disorders
50
51 on the Personality Assess Inventory: a discriminant analysis. *Journal of Personality*
52
53 *Assessment*, 67, 629 - 640.
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Rogers, R., Sewell, K.W., Cruise, K.R., Wang, E.W., & Ustad, K.L. (1998). The PAI and
4 feigning: A cautionary note on its use in forensic-correctional settings. *Assessment*, 5,
5 399 – 405.
6
7
8
9 Schoenberg, M.R., Dorr, D., & Morgan, C.D. (2006). Development of discriminant function
10 to detect dissimulation for the Millon clinical Multiaxial Inventory (3rd edition). *The*
11 *journal of Forensic Psychiatry & Psychology*, 17, 405-416.
12
13
14
15 Shores, A., & Carstairs, J. R. (1998). Accuracy of the MMPI–2 computerized Minnesota
16 Report in identifying fake-good and fake-bad response sets. *The Clinical*
17 *Neuropsychologist*, 12, 101–106.
18
19
20
21 Singh, J., Avasthi, A., & Grover, S. (2007). Malingering of Psychiatric disorders: a review.
22 *German Journal of Psychiatry*, 10, 126-132.
23
24
25 Sullivan, K., & King, J. (2010). Detecting faked psychopathology: A comparison of two tests
26 to detect malingered psychopathology using a simulation design. *Psychiatry research*,
27 176, 75-81.
28
29
30
31 Zickar, M.J., & Robie, C. (1999). Modeling faking good on personality items: An item-level
32 analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84, 551-563.
33
34
35
36

37 **Acknowledgements**

38
39 CIBERObn is an initiative of ISCIII. This study has been supported in part by the Ministerio de
40 Ciencia e Innovación (Plan Nacional de Investigación Científica, Desarrollo e Innovación
41 Tecnológica 2008-2011) in the project (PSI2008-04392/PSIC).
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Footnote.

¹Although both “malingering” and feigning” are use in this paper, there are differences between the terms. Malingering is defined as the intentional production of false or grossly exaggerated physical or psychological symptoms, motivated by external incentives such as avoiding military duty, avoiding work, obtaining principal compensation, evading criminal prosecution or obtaining drugs (APA, 2000). Feigning means to deliberately fabricate or to grossly exaggerate a clinical condition. Psychological tests can be used to assess whether an individual may be feigning but tests cannot establish the motivations required to categorize such deception as malingering (Rogers& Correa, 2008).

Peer Review Only

Table 1. Descriptives before and after the fake induction

	Time 1				Time 2			
	FG		CG		FG		CG	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
E stab	13.6	5.7	13.6	5.4	12.1	5.6	14.8	5.7
Anx	14.3	5.3	15	5.2	12.7	4.9	13.9	5.6
S-con	15.9	4.3	15.1	4	13.1	5.2	16.3	4.1
Effi	18.9	4.1	19.1	3.5	11.4	6.1	19.6	3.7
S-conf	16.7	4.7	16.3	4.2	11.7	5.3	17.4	4.2
Indep	9.6	3.5	8.6	3.3	10.5	3.3	9.1	3.5
Dom	9.7	4.8	8.2	4.2	14.7	5.5	8.2	4.4
Cog	16.6	3.9	17.5	3.2	9.9	5.4	18.6	3.4
Sociab	15.2	5.5	15.5	5.1	12	4.9	15.8	5
S adj	12	3.5	13.1	3.3	8.5	4	12.8	3.1
Aggre	9.2	5.8	6.9	5.4	12.8	6.1	7.7	5.7
Tol	12.3	4.3	13.7	3.6	9.9	5.4	18.6	3.4
S Intel	15.4	2.9	20.1	3.7	8.7	4.7	16.1	3
Int/Hon	20.8	2.8	8.9	3.6	10.8	6.4	21.1	2.8
Lead	8.9	3.6	8.2	3	11.3	4.3	7.9	3.4
Sinc	8.6	4	7.9	3.1	12.2	3.6	7.82	3.1
S Des	20.3	6.1	21.7	5	11.5	6.9	22	5.5
R cont	8.6	1.8	8.9	1.5	8.1	2	9.2	1.6

Note= E stab= Emotional Stability; Anx= Anxiety; S-con= Self-concept; Effi= Efficacy; S-conf= Self-Confidence; Indep= Independence; Dom= Domination; Cog= Cognitive Control; Sociab= Sociability; S adj: Social Adjustment; Aggre= Aggressiveness; Tol= Tolerance; S Intel= Social Intelligence; Int/Hon= Integrity/Honesty; Lead= Leadership; Sinc= Sincerity; S Des= Social Desirability; R cont= Response Control.

Table 2. ANOVA 2(groups CG vs. FG) x 2(time 1vs. time 2).

	Group		Time x Group		Time	
	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2
E stab	5.13*	.02	6.19**	.03	.09	.00
Anx	2.38	.01	.34	.00	7.62**	.03
S-con	138.06**	.02	25.01**	.11	3.66	.01
Effi	79.67**	.28	88.37**	.30	68.82**	.25
S-conf	27.51**	.12	49.17**	.19	20.61**	.09
Indep	10.66**	.05	.37	.00	5.35*	.02
Dom	59.06**	.23	35.18**	.15	34.08**	.14
Cog	119.38**	.37	101.77**	.34	55.05**	.21
Sociab	13.28**	.06	13.03**	.06	9.39**	.04
S adj	54.87**	.21	23.17**	.10	30.14**	.13
Aggre	38.49**	.16	6.17*	.03	14.87**	.07
Tol	75.48**	.27	36.28**	.15	46.53**	.19
S Intel	120.05**	.37	88.9**	.31	56.41**	.22
Int/Hon	172.31**	.46	128.13**	.39	112.66**	.36
Lead	29.33**	.12	16.09**	.07	9.41**	.04
Sinc	49.33**	.20	30.88	.13	27.94**	.12
S Des	88.38**	.30	66.10**	.25	59.51**	.23
R cont	88.38**	.30	66.01**	.25	59.51**	.23

Note= E stab= Emotional Stability; Anx= Anxiety; S-con= Self-concept; Effi= Efficacy; S-conf= Self-Confidence; Indep= Independence; Dom= Domination; Cog= Cognitive Control; Sociab= Sociability; S adj: Social Adjustment; Aggre= Aggressiveness; Tol=Tolerance; S Intel= Social Intelligence; Int/Hon=Integrity/Honesty; Lead= Leadership; Sinc= Sincerity; S Des= Social Desirability; R cont= Response Control.

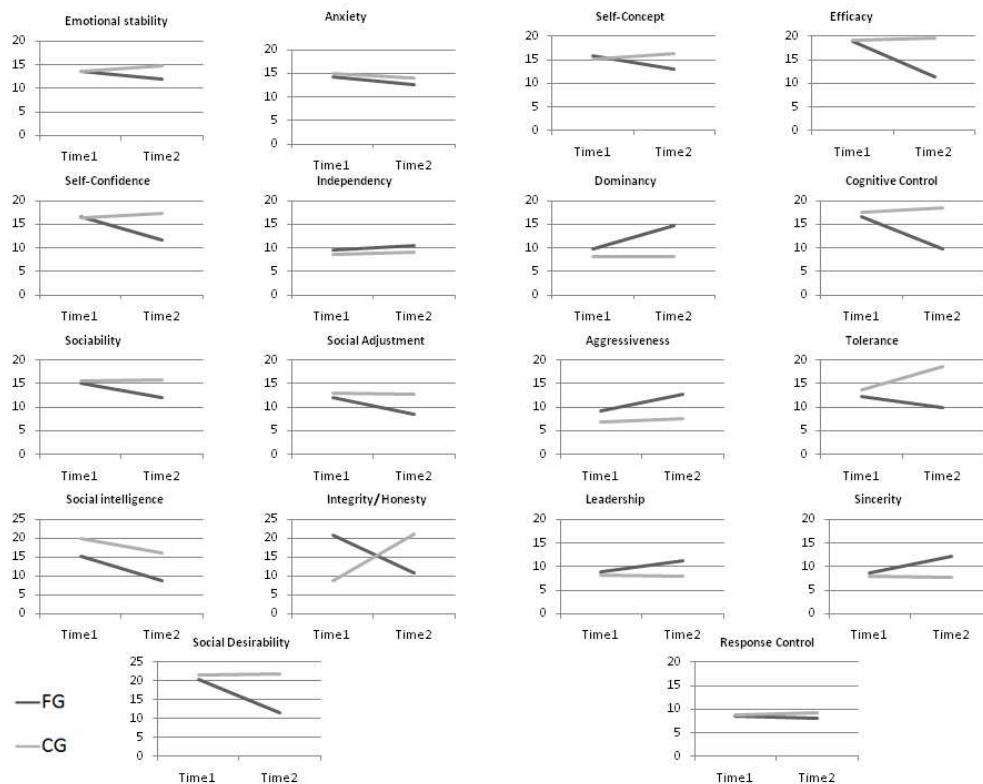
*p<.05; **p<.01

Table 3. Respondents categorized as "reliable" in time 1 and 2.

Control scale	Time 1		Time 2	
	FG	CG	FG	CG
Sincerity	78 (96.3%)	68 (84%)	73 (90.1%)	69 (85.2%)
Social desirability	79 (97.5%)	73 (90.1)	78 (96.3%)	63 (77.8)
Response control	49 (60.5%)	65 (80.2%)	58 (71.6%)	70 (86.4%)

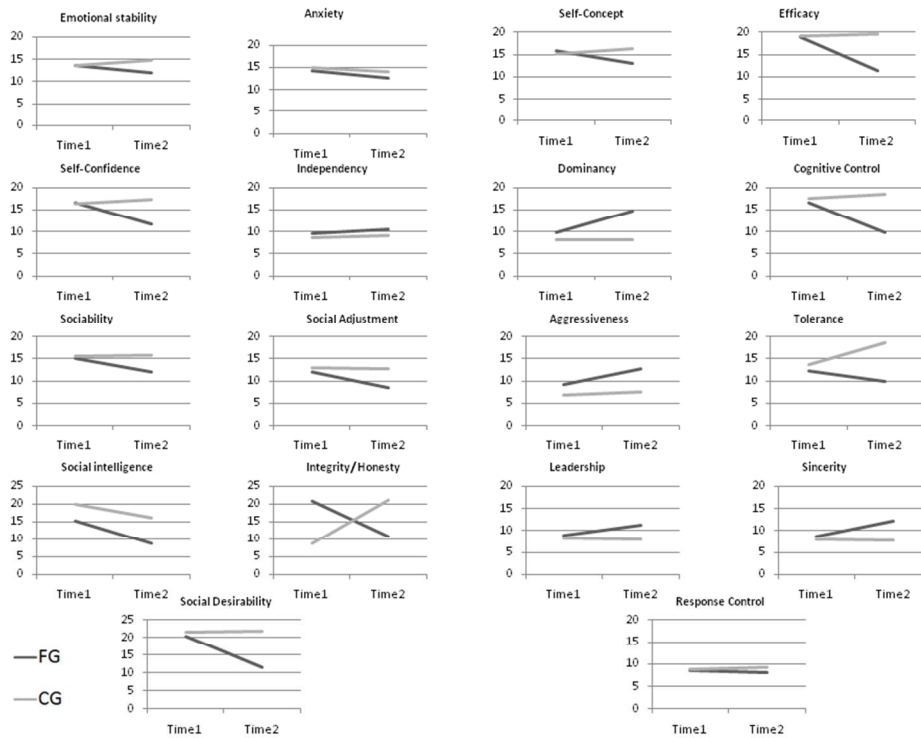
For Peer Review Only

Graphic 1. Efficacy of the fake induction in CPS scales.



Review Only

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



254x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)

View Only