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**Training Interpersonal Skills for Interviews:
The Value of Behavioral Models and the Role of Personality**

by

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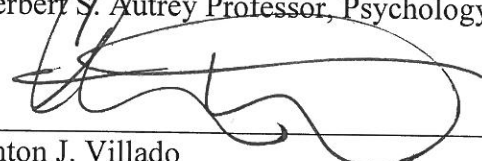
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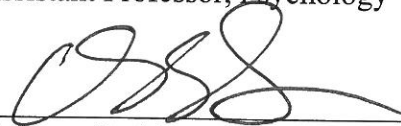
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ABSTRACT

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by

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Training for interpersonal skills is used widely in organizations but few empirical studies have measured its effectiveness in creating behavioral change. Though the impact of individual differences on training for technical skills has been examined extensively, prior studies in interpersonal skills training have not investigated personal characteristics to determine antecedents of interpersonal knowledge and predictors of learning. The current investigation applies social learning theory to the development of interpersonal skills training for job interviewing and examines the role of personality on training outcomes. In Study 1, I analyzed the interpersonal skills relevant to interviewing for a job and developed a measure of interpersonal interview knowledge. In Study 2, I investigated two formats for training interpersonal skills for interviews. One format used general rules for behavior to teach interpersonal skills for interviews while the other format used a combination of rules and examples of real interview behaviors modeled by actors. The primary aim of Study 2 was to examine the relationships between personality, training format, training's fit with self-concept, knowledge, and interview performance. Training successfully increased interpersonal interview knowledge and self-efficacy for interviewing. Training format did not impact interpersonal interview knowledge but did influence satisfaction with the training. Surprisingly, cognitive ability was not related to interview knowledge before or after training. Agreeableness and conscientiousness were

positively related interpersonal interview knowledge. Interpersonal interview knowledge and conscientiousness positively predicted interview performance. These findings begin to answer questions about how individual differences can impact the effectiveness of interpersonal skills training in terms of both knowledge development and transfer of skills to job-related contexts.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Interpersonal skills are broadly defined as “communication and relationship-building competencies, employed in interpersonal interaction episodes” (Klein, DeRouin, & Salas, 2006). These skills are not specific to the technical knowledge of any particular job domain, making them highly transferrable (Cheng & Ho, 2001; Gilpin-Jackson & Bushe, 2006). Interpersonal skills are desired by organizations because they are relevant to performance in virtually any job (Zedeck & Goldstein, 2000). Interpersonal skills may impact performance through interactions among co-workers, communication with supervisors, or representation of the organization to clients. As a result, training interpersonal skills has become increasingly desirable and such training programs represent a substantial portion of the \$58.2 billion spent on training in 2010 (2010 Training Industry Report). Many questions remain, however, regarding the effectiveness of interpersonal skills training. Laker and Powell (2011) recently noted that there is no collective summary of soft skills training research, which would encompass interpersonal skills training; the fundamental issue is that few empirical studies of interpersonal skills training exist. Such training is more often described than evaluated or discussed using anecdotal evidence, according to scholars in the training and leadership development literatures (Fielder, 1996; Laker & Powell, 2011). The empirical studies that do measure interpersonal skills training outcomes have often described the training as a blend of traditional classroom instruction and role-play opportunities (Gist & Stevens, 1998; Hunt & Baruch, 2003; Latham & Saari, 1979). Experimental manipulation of training formats is needed to begin understanding how different interventions can contribute to

interpersonal skills learning and to determine how interpersonal skills training may differ from task training.

An area of interpersonal skills training that deserves further study is the issue of transfer. Transfer of learning occurs when behaviors on a task are influenced by what is learned in training (Blume, Ford, Baldwin, & Huang, 2010). Near transfer is described as the application of learning to a task and task environment that is highly similar to that of the learning task. In contrast, far transfer occurs when the learner applies learning to a task and task environment that differs greatly from training. Near transfer is often measured at the end of training on novel tasks that differ slightly from the originally trained task (i.e., using functions one at a time in a software program during training and using two functions in conjunction on a training post-test). Far transfer frequently refers to implementing trained knowledge or skills on the job (Barnett & Ceci, 2002). The underlying purpose of training is to impact job behavior but often, only reactions and knowledge gains are measured at the end of training (Kraiger, Ford, & Salas, 1993). Several experts have expressed concern regarding a perceived lack of far transfer of interpersonal skills from training to on-the-job performance (Kupritz, 2002; Laker & Powell, 2011; Olsen, 1998). Some studies have measured the transfer of interpersonal skills training to novel situations and found small but significant effects, and more empirical evidence of transfer is needed (Baldwin, 1992; Gist & Stevens, 1998).

Finally, no previous studies have investigated who benefits from interpersonal skills training by examining the impact of individual differences, namely personality, on outcomes of interpersonal skills training. The training literature for technical skills has explored the impact of individual differences such as age, cognitive ability, prior

knowledge, and personality (Beier & Ackerman, 2005; Hambrick & Engle, 2002; Vasilopoulos, Cucina, & Hunter, 2007), and found that trainee's characteristics may predict learning outcomes or interact with training interventions. Examining the effects of personality in interpersonal skills training may provide further insight into transfer of training. The purpose of the current studies is to examine relationships between personality, training formats, learning, and transfer of interpersonal skills training.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

The term “interpersonal skills” encompasses a variety of behaviors that occur during interactions with others. Previous interpersonal skills training studies have focused on areas such as assertive communication (Baldwin, 1992), addressing problems with employees (Russell, Wexley, & Hunter, 1984), negotiation skills (Gist & Stevens, 1998), and general interpersonal skills for managers interacting with subordinates (Latham & Saari, 1979). Because interpersonal skills are social in nature, training such skills is addressed here within the framework of social learning theory. In this manuscript, I first review Bandura’s (1986) social learning theory and its relevance to interpersonal skills training. Next, past studies of interpersonal skills training are described to summarize findings on the influence of training design on training outcomes. Finally, I discuss the relationship between individual differences and interpersonal skills to establish the rationale for including individual difference predictors in interpersonal skills training research.

Social Learning Theory and Case-Based Learning

According to Bandura’s (1977) social learning theory, learning is inherently social as humans can learn vicariously by seeing others’ behaviors and the consequences that follow. Observational learning, however, is not merely automatic and passive imitation of others’ behaviors. During observational learning, a learner must attend to important features of the behavior, retain the information in symbolic form in memory, see the consequences of the behavior, and then adjust his or her behaviors as necessary when trying to reproduce the actions and outcome (Bandura, 1977). Although imitation is

the reproduction of exact actions, modeling behavior based on observation means that the learner acquires general rules, which allow for variant forms of behavior (Bandura, 1986). This implies that seeing someone make an error does not mean that the observer is bound to repeat the same mistakes, as modeling is not pure imitation; on the contrary, observers can learn what errors to avoid by attending to the model's actions and resulting negative outcomes. Provided that the positive or negative consequences of the model's actions are clearly presented, observers should be able to learn from viewing both effective and ineffective behaviors. Social learning theory has been employed in the past to teach a variety of behaviors related to interpersonal skills, including argumentation skills (Baldwin, 1992; Schworm and Renkl, 2007), negotiation skills (Gist, Bavetta, & Stevens, 1990; Gist & Stevens, 1998), and even negative interpersonal skill behaviors such as aggression (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1961).

The case-study learning approach, used in medical (Patel, Groen, & Norman, 1993), law (Culbertson, Jacobson, & Reller, 1959), and business schools (Merseth, 1991), provides one way of implementing the principles of social learning theory in a training environment. Case studies provide extensive contextual information about a problem, describe the actions to treat the problem given the situational cues, and end with an evaluation of the process and outcome. This information helps the learner attend to the relevant cues, encode the behavioral response, and see the consequences of the action to determine whether or not they should employ the same behaviors. Thus, the case-study method supports learning through the mechanisms proposed by social learning theory.

Similar to case studies are critical incidents. The critical incident technique was developed by Flanagan (1954) to capture behaviors performed within a specific situation

that lead to desirable or undesirable outcomes. Rather than trying to generalize causes of failures or successes, Flanagan argued that factual examples of performance provided insight into effective and ineffective behaviors for specified contexts. Critical incidents can be considered very succinct case studies of factual events; the incident describes the situation, actions performed in the situation, and the resultant outcome. A training program that presents video of reenacted critical incidents would meet social learning theory's defined parameters for successful learning by providing a model, the actions performed, and the consequences of the action, and a video presentation of these points would improve upon the fidelity of a written case-study or critical incident.

Interpersonal Skills Training With Behavioral Modeling

Previous research has attempted to address the conditions under which interpersonal skills training is most effective, particularly with respect to transferring interpersonal skills back to the job. A recent review regarding interpersonal skills transfer from training posited that people may have more difficulty transferring interpersonal skills than technical skills back to the workplace (Laker & Powell, 2011). Behavioral modeling training is one training format that has led to successful behavioral change back on the job for supervisory and teamwork skills (Taylor, Russ-Eft, & Chan, 2005). For example, Baldwin (1992) investigated the impact of using behavioral modeling exercises to train assertive communication, which is "direct expression of one's feelings, preferences, needs, and opinions in a way that is neither threatening nor punishing to another person" (p. 149). Participants were trained in one of four conditions. In one condition, participants saw only one scenario in which the model had positive performance; the model spoke in a calm tone of voice, did not get sidetracked by attacks

from the conversational partner, and otherwise spoke in an assertive manner. In the second condition, participants saw two scenarios of positive performance. In the third condition, participants saw one scenario in which the model first demonstrated positive performance and then demonstrated the scenario with negative performance; the negative performance was conveyed through the model varying his tone of voice, getting sidetracked by the conversational partner's responses, and failing to check for understanding. Finally, the fourth condition showed participants two different scenarios, each with a positive and a negative performance demonstration.

In the Baldwin (1992) study, participants who saw only positive performance scenarios were best able to reproduce the assertive communication skills in a role-play simulation using the same scenario viewed by all conditions immediately following training. Minimizing variability in models (presenting only the positive) therefore was concluded to be most effective for reproduction of skills. Participants' ability to generalize the training material to a different situation was also measured one month after training to assess far transfer. After participants believed they had completed the study, they were approached by a confederate graduate student playing the role of a magazine salesperson. The interaction between the confederate and subject was videotaped. The researchers found that participants who had seen both positive and negative performance models performed better, employing more of the assertive communication learning points from the training. These results suggest that providing both positive and negative examples of performance leads to higher generalizability of interpersonal skills to new situations. If the goal of training, then, is to apply the learned interpersonal skills to an

array of situations, both positive and negative examples should be included as training content.

Gist and Stevens (1998) investigated the influence of neutral versus stressful practice conditions for negotiation skills training and found that stressful practice led to worse initial performance but better future performance on a transfer task. Gist and Stevens (1998) also manipulated goal orientation after practice through a brief instructional session regarding the future transfer task; some participants were encouraged to focus on performance-oriented goals and others were encouraged to focus on mastery-oriented goals. People who experienced stressful practice and who were encouraged to focus on mastery of the negotiation skills outperformed all other groups on the transfer task. The mastery-oriented condition, however, presented both effective and ineffective performance models of negotiation behavior, whereas the performance-oriented condition showed participants only positive models. Participants in the mastery-oriented condition, then, may have outperformed others due to increased variability in the training models, as shown by Baldwin (1992). These findings further suggest that viewing both positive and negative models during training is necessary for optimal transfer of interpersonal skills.

Seeing a model demonstrate positive and negative behaviors should lead to greater learning than presenting rules for behavior that are devoid of examples. Neal and colleagues (2006) investigated rule learning and exemplar learning using case studies as training material. Rule learning theorizes that after viewing multiple examples, people generalize rules from the examples and use those rules to inform their behavior. In contrast, exemplar learning theorizes that multiple examples are useful because people

can recall specific examples of behavior when confronted with a situation and use a previous example to inform their behavior (Erickson & Kruschke, 1998). Neal et al. (2006) found evidence of both rule and exemplar learning being employed to inform trainees' decision making after participating in case-study training on firefighting. Although both learning mechanisms should lead to learning, social learning theory would predict that learning only general rules for behavior would be less effective than observing behavioral models because modeling encourages learners to encode actions into memory and encourages mental rehearsal of those actions. Reading a rule for behavior would arguably not initiate the same kind of rehearsal of behavior.

In a study on interpersonal skills for managers, Latham and Saari (1979) attempted to determine the added value of behavioral modeling examples to simple rule instructions. Trainees who saw behavioral modeling examples, however, were provided training across 9 weeks whereas those receiving only rules saw them a few minutes prior to the learning assessment. Therefore, performance differences between the modeling group and rule-based group could be attributed to large disparity in time spent with learning materials as opposed to the materials themselves. In order to accurately understand the benefit of behavioral modeling over rules for behavior, training exposure and time between training and testing should be standardized across conditions.

Russell et al. (1984) investigated the importance of the perceived power of the model in training interpersonal skills in managers. Although those who participated in training outscored the control group on measures of learning, there were no differences in on-the-job behavior attributable to differences in the model. The authors explained this finding as a lack of motivation to use new skills on the job. Rather than placing the onus

on the organization for failing to provide opportunities or support for the use of new skills (e.g., Ford, Quinones, Segó, & Sorra, 1992), Russell and colleagues (1984) focused on the fit between the newly learned behaviors and the self-image of the learner. They suggested that behaviors must be rehearsed and accepted by trainees as consistent with their own conceptions of self in order to be implemented voluntarily on the job. Though general comfort with being able to carry out technical skills following training will also impact transfer (as measured by self-efficacy, Blume et al., 2010), the need for personal integrity to the underlying self may be specific to interpersonal skills. As such, the failure of interpersonal skills training to show consistent transfer may be a result of trainees not being comfortable behaving in ways they feel are incongruent with who they are and not a result of a failure to learn in training.

Although one aim of the proposed study is to evaluate the effectiveness of using behavioral models versus rules for training interpersonal skills, the primary goal of the study is to understand how personality can influence interpersonal skills learning and transfer of interpersonal skills training to the work environment. The next section details prior work on the relationships between personality and interpersonal skills, personality and training, and the hypothesized impact of personality specifically on interpersonal skills training and transfer.

Research on Personality and Interpersonal Skills

An individual's personality should be related to their interpersonal skills performance due to the nature of the interpersonal skill behaviors. For example, prior studies have shown that interpersonal skills are related to extraversion and agreeableness (Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, & Cole, 2003), as acting in a social and agreeable manner

facilitates relationships. Similarly, Kantrowitz (2005) found that employee's extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness were positively related to their supervisor ratings of interpersonal skills performance. Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit (1997) theorized that personality characteristics would be particularly predictive of contextual performance in organizations through their effects on the declarative knowledge, procedural skill, and motivation. Contextual performance is defined as behaviors that support the organizational, social, and psychological environment of the organization (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993); contextual performance, thus, would encompass many interpersonal skill behaviors used on the job. Contextual performance is described in contrast to task performance, which includes the work behaviors that contribute to the organization's technical core. Motowidlo and colleague's (1997) predictions have been supported by studies that find personality predicts knowledge and skill in contextual domains (Bergman, Donovan, Drasgow, Overton, & Henning, 2008; Schmit, Motowidlo, DeGroot, Cross, & Kiker, 1996).

Motowidlo (2003) and colleagues (Motowidlo, Hooper, & Jackson, 2006) further developed theory to explain personality's direct influence on job knowledge. The theory of dispositional fit suggests that people will have greater knowledge about how to behave effectively when effective behaviors include expression of their own personality traits (Motowidlo, 2003). In general, people are predisposed to believe that their own traits are effective: For instance, agreeable people are likely to believe that acting agreeably is more effective than acting disagreeably. This is consistent with the self-serving bias in social psychology. To the extent that acting agreeably is more effective in any given situation, agreeable people will have more knowledge about effective behavior.

A distinction is drawn, however, between a person's knowledge and a person's behavioral tendency. Essentially, some scholars may argue that the theory of dispositional fit simply labels a behavioral tendency as "knowledge" if it happens to be effective in a given situation, when it may be more accurate to say that the person coincidentally found an appropriate situation to express an underlying trait. To further address the question of how personality is related to the development of knowledge, Motowidlo et al. (2006) developed the theory of implicit trait policies. They proposed that people form beliefs about how trait expressions are related to effectiveness. These beliefs develop in part through dispositional fit as described above (i.e., when people have a trait they are more likely to think expression of that trait is effective). Motowidlo et al. (2006) further suggested that beliefs about the effective expression of traits may develop through experiences and feedback one receives from those experiences when a person does not possess the trait in question. For instance, people who tend to be disagreeable may discover that expressing agreeableness is more effective than expressing disagreeableness in some situations. These theories suggest, then, that personality will influence interpersonal skills, but that interpersonal skills can also be trained because people can learn about the effectiveness of trait expressions through experience.

Motowidlo and Beier (2010) found evidence that people have general knowledge of the costs and benefits to expressing personality traits in broad situational categories. They developed a theoretical model that explains how general knowledge about the effectiveness of personality trait expressions contributes to specific job knowledge in concert with specific job experiences. A person may have learned, through their general

life experience, that expressing disagreeableness with an authority figure during a formal situation is typically ineffective. The person's implicit trait policy (ITP) in such situations may be to express agreeableness instead. When this person's ITP for agreeableness with authority figures is combined with specific job experience (i.e., observing exceptions to the ITP when disagreeableness is welcomed by superiors in the organization), the employee's job knowledge increases. Trainees are expected to enter an interpersonal skills training program with varying levels of general knowledge for how to effectively interact with others: The training program, though, provides situation specific experiences and knowledge about how to interact effectively in the training content's domain, and should increase interpersonal skills performance.

When past studies have investigated the role of individual differences in training, cognitive ability is typically the primary individual difference that is measured to predict training outcomes. Cognitive ability is consistently found to be the most reliable predictor of training performance (Ree, Carretta, & Teachout, 1995; Ree & Earles, 1991). Because learners acquire and retain new information during training, it is not surprising that cognitive ability would exhibit high validity in predicting training performance ($r = .33$, Olea & Ree, 1994). Personality has also been shown to be related to general training proficiency: Barrick and Mount (1991) reported in their meta-analysis that extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience were all predictive of training proficiency when training was broadly defined in multiple job domains. Though many studies have focused on how personality characteristics can influence training outcomes, I have found no studies that investigate the effects of personality on training for interpersonal skills specifically. For interpersonal skills training, personality may be a particularly relevant

predictor of training performance due to the training content, but the theoretical explanations for why these traits are related to training have not been fully developed.

I believe personality will influence training for interpersonal skills primarily because the content of interpersonal skills training is laden with expressions of particular personality traits. Therefore, I expect personality will influence learning outcomes in interpersonal skills training similar to how prior knowledge influences learning in training technical tasks. Past research has demonstrated the benefits of prior knowledge on acquisition of new knowledge in the same domain (Chiesi, Spilich, & Voss, 1979; Hambrick & Engle, 2002). Prior studies have shown that extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness are related to interpersonal skills performance (Conway, 1999; Kantrowitz, 2005; Riggio et al., 2003). Interpersonal behaviors such as communication and negotiation include trait expressions of agreeableness, extraversion, and conscientiousness. Extending the logic from Motowidlo's (2003) theory of dispositional fit, people who possess these traits are more likely to believe that expressing those traits is effective. Because those traits expressions are indeed valued in interpersonal behaviors, people who are extraverted, agreeable, and conscientious are expected to enter training with more knowledge about interpersonal skills. The question remains whether this prior knowledge will facilitate further learning from the training (i.e., the rich get richer) or if those lower in prior knowledge are able to gain more from training.

CHAPTER 3

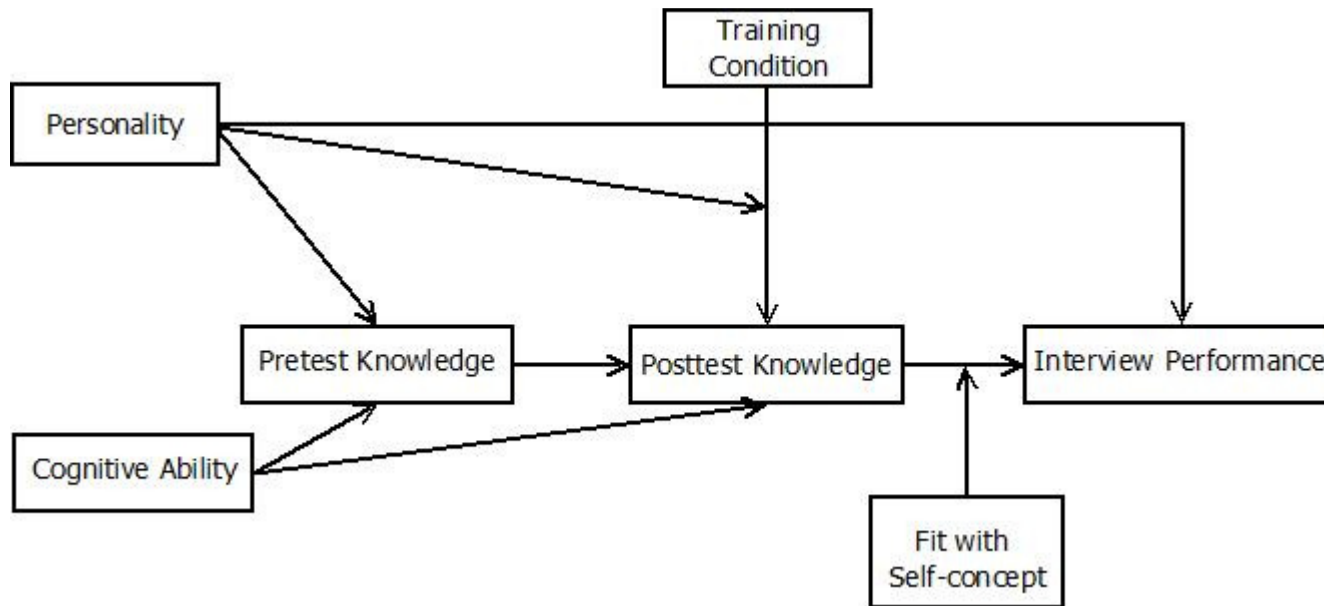
The Current Investigation

The current studies were designed to investigate relationships between personality, interpersonal knowledge, the training's fit with self-concept, and interpersonal skills performance within the context of a job interview. I examined interpersonal interview knowledge development and interview performance in college-age applicants. There were two studies as part of this overall investigation. The purpose of the first study was to understand the interpersonal skills that are relevant to job interviewing in order to develop the interpersonal interview knowledge measures and training content. In Study 1, I analyzed the construct space of job interviewing in order to define interpersonal interview knowledge dimensions and examine the expression of personality traits in interview behaviors reported by professional interviewers. I used these findings to develop the interpersonal interview knowledge test and interpersonal skills training programs that were used in Study 2. Study 1 is described in detail in Chapter 4.

Study 2 was the experimental comparison and evaluation of training interpersonal skills using either critical incidents reenacted by models or using only generalized rules for behavior, and is the focus of my dissertation. Relationships between training format, knowledge, personality, training's fit with self-concept, and interpersonal interview performance were tested in this study. I created the interpersonal skills training programs drawing upon social learning theory and the prior work in training design related to behavioral modeling. Because prior studies found variation in training materials led to better transfer (Baldwin, 1992; Gist & Stevens, 1998), the training program included both

positive and negative models to enhance transfer performance. Taking into consideration that behavior change may only occur after the newly learned behaviors fit with one's self-concept (Russell et al., 1984), the study measured the degree to which behaving in the way presented in training is consistent with the trainee's self-concept. The overall model of hypothesized relationships among Study 2 variables is displayed in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Hypothesized model of relationships among Study 2 variables.



Hypotheses

There were two dependent variables of interest in Study 2: interview interpersonal knowledge after training and interview performance. Knowledge and performance in a domain are related but distinct constructs. Knowledge here is distinguished as proper identification of what should or should not be done, whereas performance refers to a person's actual behavior (Campbell, Gasser, & Oswald, 1997). A person's performance is predicated on knowledge, but knowledge of what should be done does not guarantee the person has the capability, or motivation, to carry out the effective actions. In this section, I discuss hypotheses in this context and lay out predictions for knowledge and performance in the overall model in Figure 1.

Predicting interpersonal interview knowledge. Interpersonal interview knowledge (hereafter referred to as interview knowledge) was assessed as the learner's proper identification of behaviors performed in an interview as effective or ineffective. The investigation examined two different training formats for teaching interpersonal skills pertinent to interviews: critical incident training and rule-based training. Critical incident training is one variant of behavioral modeling training where models re-enacted real interview situations. In keeping with social learning theory's parameters, trainees received feedback on the effectiveness of the model's behavior in order to understand the value of the behavior. Additionally, a summarized rule from the critical incident was offered to help guide future behaviors. In contrast, rule-based training offered the rules of behavior devoid of a model or specific description of how the rule would be enacted. Because video-based critical incident training supports the mechanisms necessary for learning according to social learning theory, and because behavior modeling has been a

proven format for training interpersonal skills in prior studies, I expected the critical incident training to lead to better post training outcomes than rule-based training. In other words, I expected that seeing an individual model interview behavior would increase the efficacy of training beyond the presentation of behavioral rules.

Hypothesis 1: Participants who receive critical incident training will demonstrate greater interview knowledge than participants who receive rule-based training.

Knowing how to act in an interview, like other interpersonal skills, was expected to be laden with rules regarding expressions of personality. Because the current investigation focuses on interpersonal skills in interviews, it was important to understand what personality traits are particularly relevant to effective interviewing. Roth, Van Iddekinge, Huffcutt, Eidson, and Schmit (2005) investigated relationships between job applicant personality and performance on a behavioral interview and combined their results with previous studies to better estimate the size of the effects. Conscientiousness and extraversion were significantly related to interview ratings, but the correlations were small ($r = .18$ and $.13$ respectively). Still, the interviews in these studies were not designed specifically to measure interpersonal skills and may have included several questions designed to assess technical knowledge relevant to the position.

Other studies have found positive relationships between interpersonal skills performance and agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion. Therefore, I am interested in determining if these personality traits also covary with the interpersonal knowledge about job interviewing prior to and after training. Consistent with Motowidlo and colleagues' theory of dispositional fit (2003) and theory of implicit trait policies (Motowidlo et al., 2006), I expected individuals high in agreeableness, conscientiousness,

and extraversion to enter the training with more interview knowledge than individuals that are low in these traits. Additionally, I expected people who are higher in these traits to exit training with greater interpersonal knowledge. I believe the content of the interview skills training may be easier to learn if one's personality traits are aligned with the traits being expressed in the training. In other words, an extraverted individual may be better able to learn that expressing enthusiasm and passion for a job position is highly effective than an introverted individual.

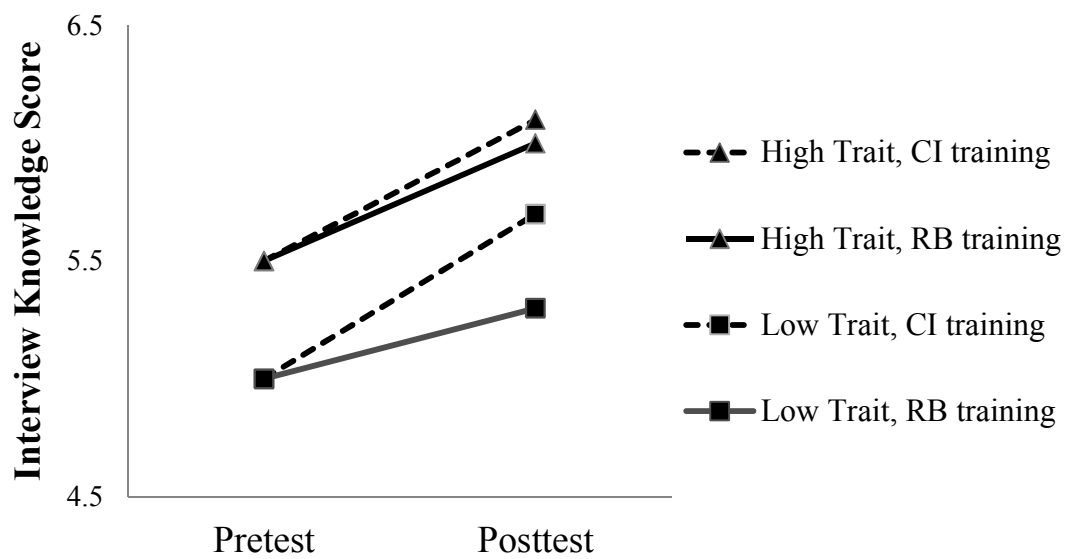
Hypothesis 2: Interview knowledge will be positively related to agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion.

Personality was expected to interact with the type of training received. People who are high on the personality traits that are being expressed in effective interview behaviors will likely be able to learn effectively from both the rule-based training and critical incident training formats because they should have experience identifying and generating the behaviors consistent with their traits. People who are low on these personality traits, on the other hand, were hypothesized to benefit much more from the critical incident training than the rule-based training. These people may need to see the model enact the behaviors in order to better identify and generate these trait expressions. People who are not conscientious, for example, may interpret the rule "Express enthusiasm for the specific job and organization by learning about the position and company prior to the interview" to mean they should browse the organization's website shortly before the interview, whereas people who are not conscientious but have seen proper behavioral expression of this rule will understand that they should know the organization's mission statement, identify the biggest competitor, and search for current

events that involve the organization's interests. In other words, people who are not naturally agreeable, conscientious, or extraverted may need to see the behavioral models to calibrate their judgments of effective and ineffective interview behavior. Figure 2 displays the hypothesized results of this proposed moderation.

Hypothesis 3: Personality will moderate the relationship between training condition and interview knowledge, such that training condition will have a stronger relationship with interview knowledge when people are lower on the relevant personality traits.

Figure 2. Hypothesized means of interview knowledge before and after training based on personality.



Predicting interview performance. Interview performance for a hypothetical entry-level management position was assessed through a structured interview, where all applicants received the same standardized set of questions with specified scoring guidelines (Huffcutt & Roth, 1998). As Campbell and colleagues (1993) asserted that a person must first know what to do in order to do it, greater knowledge at the end of the training should lead to better interview performance.

Hypothesis 4: Interview knowledge will be positively related to interview performance.

Personality was predicted to influence performance directly, beyond its influence on interview knowledge. Personality was expected to impact trainees' ability to appropriately portray desired interview behaviors. For example, an individual may know that one should exude enthusiasm for the job, but the person's extraversion may influence how convincingly he or she expresses passion for the position. Therefore, the aforementioned personality traits (agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion) are expected to influence interview performance directly.

Hypothesis 5: Interview performance will be positively related to agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion.

The fit between the behaviors advocated in training and the trainee's self-concept may influence the degree to which knowledge is transferred to interview performance. Interview performance in this study was designed to be a test of far transfer. A meta-analysis by Blume and colleagues (2010) found that satisfaction with training is a significant factor in determining whether or not an employee transfers knowledge from training back to the job. A more appropriate attitudinal measure for the interpersonal

skills training may be the perceived fit between a trainee's self-concept and the trained behaviors. For example, in leadership development, Ibarra (1999) proposed that when developing a leadership identity, people evaluate other leaders' behaviors and determine how well they match their own skills, preferences, inclinations, and values. Though they may find a leader who is effective, if they feel that the leader's behaviors do not fit with their own skill set or personal preferences in how to act, Ibarra (1999) suggested that they will not likely adopt the same leadership behaviors. Similarly, interpersonal skills training may have difficulty impacting performance because trainees acquire the information in training but are uncomfortable employing the knowledge in real work contexts. Perceived fit with self-concept was measured to address this issue. Trainees who feel as though they are being asked to act in a manner that is inconsistent with their self-concept were expected to be less likely to transfer their knowledge to their future interviews.

Hypothesis 6: Perceived fit with self-concept will moderate the relationship between interview knowledge and interview performance, such that more perceived fit will lead to greater transfer of knowledge to the interview and better performance in the interview.

CHAPTER 4

Study 1: Understanding interpersonal skills for interviewing

In this study, I developed a model of interpersonal skills relevant to job interviews. In order to measure and train interpersonal interview knowledge, I analyzed the task of interviewing as an applicant for a job to better understand the dimensions of effective interview performance. This study explains the process through which I defined the construct space for interpersonal knowledge and performance in job interviews. To understand the interpersonal skills that are pertinent for interviewing, I applied the critical incident job analysis approach (Flanagan, 1954) to job interviewing. Additionally, I analyzed the expression of personality traits in the critical incidents to further inform what personality traits should be related to interview knowledge and performance in Study 2.

Method

Participants

Twelve subject matter experts (3 men, 9 women) who conduct employment interviews as large part of their full-time job provided critical incidents for interpersonal interview performance. These experts were employees in career centers at prestigious American universities and professional interviewers from large private companies (see Table 1 for a complete list of organizations). Nine of the subject matter experts were currently serving in a supervisory role in their department.

Table 1. List of subject matter experts' organizations.

College Career Centers	Private Organizations
<p>Rice University</p> <p>Duke University</p> <p>Vassar College</p> <p>Colby College</p> <p>Georgia Institute of Technology</p> <p>Kennesaw State University</p>	<p>BP</p> <p>Jefferies & Company, Inc.</p> <p>Schlumberger</p>

Procedure

I conducted structured interviews with the 12 subject matter experts on interviewing. I spoke with each expert for 30 to 45 minutes either on the phone or in person. Interviewers were asked to recount a time when they witnessed a student job applicant behave particularly effectively or ineffectively in an interview. Critical incidents were solicited explicitly for student job applicants because undergraduate students are the target population for training and interview performance. The subject matter experts were instructed to focus on the applicant's interpersonal behaviors as opposed to applicant's behaviors related to technical skills. The critical incidents describe the interviewer's prompt and the job applicant's response (with details regarding both verbal and non-verbal behaviors, as applicable). I continued collecting critical incidents until interviews failed to provide original themes and behaviors, consistent with standards for qualitative data collection (Rubin & Rubin, 1995).

In total, 109 critical incidents were collected (see Appendix A for examples). The critical incidents were first edited to remove interviewer reactions or other outcomes from the applicants' behaviors. These edited incidents, conveying only the interview situation and the applicant's behavior, became items for the interpersonal knowledge test or training programs. Similar items were removed for redundancy, leaving a total of 100 items. The items were presented to five additional interview experts from college campus career centers who did not contribute to the original gathering of critical incidents. The experts rated the effectiveness of the applicant's behavior in each item on a 1 (Very ineffective) to 7 (Very effective) scale. The subject matter expert scores were averaged to

create one expert score for each item. The intraclass correlation coefficient for consistency using a two way mixed effects model was .95.

Then, the items were rated for the degree to which they expressed each of the Big Five personality traits. The items were presented, without any effectiveness scoring information, to six research assistants who had successfully completed an upper-level college course on personality. For each item, raters judged the degree to which the applicant's behavior expressed extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, and openness to experience on a Likert-type scale from 1 (Very low) to 7 (Very high). Rater scores for each trait were averaged, and the intraclass correlation coefficient for a two-way mixed effects model was computed for each trait. Consistency across raters was: .91 for extraversion, .91 for conscientiousness, .90 for agreeableness, .85 for neuroticism, and .87 for openness to experience.

Results

Analysis of interpersonal knowledge dimensions

After analyzing all of the items for commonalities with another subject matter expert, I generated six knowledge categories that appeared to capture the range of behaviors performed in the items. The six domains were: Expressing enthusiasm, Listening and engaging, Showing confidence, Demonstrating composure in nonverbal behavior, Respecting the interviewer, and Using business appropriate language and topics. Four independent raters who were advanced doctoral students in psychology sorted the items into the six categories to reflect different domains of knowledge; if three of the four raters agreed on a given incident's knowledge category, the incident was included in the study under the category. Ultimately, raters agreed on the categories of 70

items; the remaining 30 items were discarded. Example items for each knowledge dimension are presented in Table 2.

Of the 70 successfully sorted items, 58 were used as items in the interpersonal interview knowledge test for Study 2, and 12 items (2 for each knowledge domain) were set aside for training purposes in Study 2. The interview knowledge test instructs respondents to judge the effectiveness of student applicant's behavior in job interview situations. This knowledge test, therefore, is a single-response situational judgment test (Motowidlo, Crook, Kell, & Naemi, 2009). Single response SJTs have been shown to effectively measure knowledge and predict performance in a variety of jobs (Crook et al., 2011; Motowidlo, Martin, & Crook, in press). Single-response situational judgment tests (SJTs) measure procedural knowledge by evaluating how well the respondent can discriminate between effective and ineffective behaviors in the relevant domain (Crook et al., 2011; Motowidlo et al., 2009). Further information about the interpersonal interview knowledge test is discussed in Chapter 5.

Table 2. Knowledge dimensions with related example items.

Knowledge Dimension	Example Item
Expressing enthusiasm	The interviewer asked the student why he was interested in the job. The student explained that he had spoken to a fellow Rice alumna who currently worked in the position and he really felt the job's objectives and the corporation's culture was a good fit for him. (+)
Listening and engaging	The interviewer asked the student to reason through a technical question relevant to the job. The student was surprised and said, "The question is more technical than I am used to answering. Could we talk more about my resume and accomplishments?" (-)
Showing confidence	The interviewer asked the student why he would be the best person to hire. The student replied, "I'm not that special, but I would like this job." (-)
Demonstrating composure in nonverbal behavior	The student looked at the ground or at the back wall when answering questions. (-)
Respecting the interviewer	When asked about her greatest strength, this student said "Oh, I can learn anything. I could learn your job, I'm sure." (-)
Using business appropriate language and topics	At the end of the interview, the interviewer asked the student if there was anything else the company should know about her. She responded, "I like zebra print." (-)

Note: Items are coded as effective (+) or ineffective (-) in this table for ease of interpretation. The interpersonal interview knowledge test instructs respondents to rate the effectiveness of the student's behavior in the items from 1 (Very Ineffective) to 7 (Very Effective). Knowledge dimension information is not presented in the measure.

Analysis of personality expression in interpersonal interview behaviors

To better understand the personality traits that are relevant to these interpersonal behaviors in job interviews and inform which traits Study 2 should particularly address, I conducted an additional analysis of personality trait expression in the 70 items. To determine if personality expression was related to effectiveness of interpersonal skills in interviews, the averaged expert effectiveness ratings for the incidents were regressed on the expression of the Big Five personality traits in the incidents. This procedure captures the experts' implicit trait policies for job interviewing and reveals which trait expressions covary with effectiveness in job interviews.

Expressions of conscientiousness were significantly related to expert effectiveness ratings ($\beta = .67, p < .001$). Expressions of the other Big Five traits, however, were not significantly related to expert effectiveness ratings.

Discussion

The results of Study 1 laid the foundation for Study 2 by defining the construct space for interpersonal skills in job interviews and ensuring content validity of the subsequent measures of interpersonal knowledge and performance. In this study, I determined that interpersonal interview knowledge consisted of six knowledge dimensions through content analysis and sorting of critical incidents for interviewing. I developed the interpersonal interview knowledge measure, interpersonal skills training programs, and interview performance measure for Study 2 using the knowledge dimensions described in Table 2 to ensure content validity (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). The edited critical incidents make up the knowledge measure for interpersonal interview

knowledge, and the expert effectiveness ratings for items serve as the scoring key for the knowledge measure.

An analysis of Big Five trait expressions in the items showed that conscientiousness was related to expert ratings of effectiveness. According to the theories of dispositional fit and implicit trait policies (Motowidlo, 2003; Motowidlo et al., 2006), a person's conscientiousness should be related to interview knowledge and performance in Study 2. Because expressions of conscientiousness significantly predicted expert ratings of effectiveness in the analysis of the critical incidents, trainees higher in conscientiousness are expected to score higher on the interpersonal knowledge tests and interview performance. Although I did not find evidence that expressions of agreeableness and extraversion were also related to expert ratings of effectiveness, I still investigated these traits in Study 2 because prior studies of interpersonal skills demonstrated their positive relationship with other interpersonal skills performance.

CHAPTER 5

Study 2: Training for interpersonal interview knowledge and performance

Study 2 empirically tested the hypotheses outlined in Figure 1 using the findings from Study 1 to create the interpersonal interview knowledge measure, interpersonal skill training programs, and interpersonal interview performance measure. The primary aim of Study 2 was to examine the relationships between personality, training format, training's fit with self-concept, knowledge, and interview performance.

Method

Participants

Two hundred and twenty-five undergraduate students were recruited through the Rice University psychology subject pool and broader efforts targeting undergraduates on campus (such as recruitment flyers and emails). Because relationships between personality and interpersonal skills performance have been in the small to medium effect size range ($r = .20$), the goal was to obtain 200 participants in order to have adequate power (greater than .80) to detect the effect (Cohen, 1988). Participants received their choice of research credit for courses or \$20 for their participation in the study. In total, 193 participants provided complete data for analysis. Participants ranged in age from 16 to 28 years old ($M = 19.3$, $SD = 1.51$). Demographic information for the participants is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Participant demographics.

	<i>N</i>	% Total
Gender		
Female	119	61.7
Male	74	38.3
Year in College		
Freshman	67	34.7
Sophomore	61	31.6
Junior	33	17.1
Senior	32	16.6
Ethnicity		
African-American	15	7.8
Asian	63	32.6
Caucasian	82	42.5
Hispanic	21	10.9
Native American	1	0.5
Other	11	5.7

Materials

Critical incident training. The training consisted of a video of 12 different critical incidents re-enacted by two actresses. Six effective behaviors and six ineffective behaviors were used to illustrate the six interpersonal performance domains in interviewing (see Table 2). The video first displayed the performance domain with a brief description of the generalized rule for behavior in an interview. Then, one positive and one negative critical incident were shown. For each critical incident, the job applicant was shown interacting with an interviewer. Trainees were prompted to consider how effective the applicant's behavior was, followed by the experts' rating the behavior. The training lasted 20 minutes. Ninety-eight participants viewed the critical incident training program.

Rule-based training. The training video consisted of the six performance domains for interpersonal behavior in interviews along with the rules that were identical to those presented in the critical incident training. However, no critical incident examples were presented, and thus effectiveness ratings by experts were not provided. Trainees received no feedback on how to implement the rules. The rule-based training was shorter by necessity, and it lasted only 12 minutes. Ninety-five participants viewed the rule-based training program.

Figure 3 provides an example of the differences between critical incident training and rule-based training using the Express Enthusiasm knowledge dimension. To ensure that participants did attend to the re-enacted examples in the critical incidents training, a manipulation check was administered after training which asked participants to rate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with the following statement: "The training

Figure 3. Example of differences in training conditions.

RULE-BASED TRAINING

1. Present rule

ENTHUSIASM

- Express enthusiasm for the job and organization
- Show enthusiasm for your past experiences

Narration: “Concept #1: Enthusiasm. When you’re interviewing for a job, you should express enthusiasm for the specific job and the organization. Additionally, you should show enthusiasm for your past experiences on your resume, whether they are experiences in a job, your academic coursework, or a student organization.”

CRITICAL INCIDENT TRAINING

1. Present rule

ENTHUSIASM

- Express enthusiasm for the job and organization
- Show enthusiasm for your past experiences

2. Ineffective critical incident re-enactment



3. Expert effectiveness rating revealed

INEFFECTIVE

- Expert Rating = 1 out of 7

4. Effective critical incident re-enactment

5. Expert effectiveness rating revealed

provided clear examples of how to implement the rules for behavior.” Participants responded on a Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

Measures

Demographics. Participants reported their gender, ethnicity, age, academic year, and overall ACT or composite SAT scores. SAT scores were gathered as a measure of cognitive ability, as they are representative of general mental ability (Frey & Detterman, 2004). ACT scores were converted to comparable composite SAT scores using the official ACT – SAT Concordance table provided by the ACT (2008).

Prior experience. Two items assessed prior interviewing experience. Participants reported how many times they had a job interview. Because participants were undergraduate students, I anticipated that some participants may not have job interview experience but would still have relevant interviewing experience in the academic domain (e.g., college admissions or leadership positions in academic settings). Participants also reported how many times they had an interview for academic admissions or scholarships. Fifty-seven participants said they had zero job interview experiences, 75 reported one or two job interviews, and 59 reported three or more job interview experiences. Academic interview experience was more common: Only 16 people reported having no academic interview experience. Forty-seven participants reported interviewing for an academic position one or two times, and 137 participants reported interviewing 3 or more times for academic reasons. Overall, this sample had limited job interview experience but some academic interview experience.

Personality. Facet levels of personality were assessed using the 300-item NEO scale available in the International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg et al., 2006). The Big

Five personality traits are each composed of six facets. Facets for openness to experience include: imagination, artistic interests, emotionality, adventurousness, intellect, and liberalism. Facets for conscientiousness include: self-efficacy, orderliness, dutifulness, achievement-striving, self-discipline, and cautiousness. Facets for extraversion include: friendliness, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity level, excitement-seeking, and cheerfulness. Facets for agreeableness include: trust, morality, altruism, cooperation, modesty, and sympathy. Facets for neuroticism include: anxiety, anger, depression, self-consciousness, immoderation, and vulnerability. Sample items for each scale are “I am the life of the party” for extraversion, “I sympathize with others’ feelings” for agreeableness, “I am always prepared” for conscientiousness, “I have a rich vocabulary” for openness to experience, and “I get stressed out easily” for neuroticism. Participants rated how accurately each statement describes them on a five-point scale where 1= very inaccurate to 5 = very accurate. Reliability estimates for individual facets and the Big Five traits are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4. Reliability estimates for personality facets.

	α
Openness to Experience	.90
Imagination	.83
Artistic interests	.79
Emotionality	.78
Adventurousness	.81
Intellect	.80
Liberalism	.78
Conscientiousness	.94
Self-efficacy	.81
Orderliness	.84
Dutifulness	.75
Achievement-striving	.83
Self-discipline	.87
Cautiousness	.79
Extraversion	.94
Friendliness	.90
Gregariousness	.85
Assertiveness	.76
Activity level	.76
Excitement-seeking	.83
Cheerfulness	.83
Agreeableness	.91
Trust	.85
Morality	.79
Altruism	.81
Cooperativeness	.73
Modesty	.76
Sympathy	.74
Neuroticism	.93
Anxiety	.93
Anger	.90
Depression	.75
Self-consciousness	.82
Immoderation	.75
Vulnerability	.81

Self-efficacy for interviewing. Self-efficacy for interviewing was assessed before and after training. A five-item scale asked participants the degree to which they agree or disagree with statements about self-efficacy for interview performance using a 5 point Likert-type scale where 1 = Strongly disagree and 5 = Strongly agree. Items included “I believe I could interact professionally in a job interview,” “I am confident I can convey a professional attitude in a job interview,” and “I am worried I will say or do something unprofessional in a job interview.” Internal consistency reliability estimates (α) for the self-efficacy measure were .88 prior to training and .83 after training.

Interview knowledge. The single-response SJT for Interpersonal Interview Knowledge described earlier was used to assess interview knowledge before and after the training. To determine the scoring key for the test, the single-response SJT was presented to five interview experts from college campus career centers who did not contribute to the original item development. The experts rated the effectiveness of the applicant’s behavior in each item on a 1 (Very ineffective) to 7 (Very effective) scale. The subject matter expert scores were averaged to create one overall expert score for each item.

Participants rated each of the 58 items on a Likert-type scale from 1 (Very ineffective) to 7 (Very effective). Several different methods have been used to score single-response SJTs, and there are very few differences in predictive validity among these methods (Motowidlo et al., in press). Therefore, I used most straightforward scoring technique, which is also the predominant scoring method. The interview knowledge test was scored by summing the effectiveness rating for items designated effective by experts with the effectiveness ratings for items designated ineffective (reverse-scored) by experts. This sum was divided by the total number of items. The higher this average score, the

more knowledge the participant displays as it demonstrates the ability to recognize effective incidents as highly effective and ineffective incidents as highly ineffective. Previous studies have shown that this scoring method is less cumbersome and produces similar results to alternative scoring methods that directly compare the average subject matter expert rating with the respondent's rating (Crook et al., 2011; Motowidlo et al., in press). The reliability of the interview knowledge measure was assessed using Cronbach's alpha, which was .84 for the pretest and .81 for the posttest.

Fit with self-concept. A 6-item measure assessed trainees' perceived fit with self-concept. The measure was developed according to Ibarra's (1999) theory on leadership development that people adopt behaviors that fit with their skills, preferences, inclinations, and values. Items were designed to address fit in each of these four dimensions. Participants used a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree), to indicate how well they felt the strategies taught by the training were consistent with their self-concept. Sample items included "I feel comfortable behaving in the ways advocated by the training," and "I would feel like a phony if I acted the way the training suggested" (reverse-scored). The reliability estimate (α) of the fit with self-concept measure was .76.

Satisfaction. A 5-item measure was used to gauge trainee satisfaction with the training program. Participants used a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree), to indicate how satisfied participants were with the training program. Sample items included "The training provided useful information," and "I think the training was boring" (reverse-scored). The reliability estimate (α) of the satisfaction measure was .79.

Interview performance. Mock interviews were conducted with participants approximately one week after training. One week was selected as the appropriate time delay because trainees rarely have immediate opportunities to implement newly learned skills in the work setting after training. A structured behavioral interview with 5 question prompts was used; three additional prompts were available in the event that the student's responses to the prompts did not fill the entire interview time slot. The primary prompts are presented in Appendix B. The interview questions focused on the job applicant's interpersonal behaviors with peers, supervisors, and organizations, rather than on domain knowledge for the job, in order to best assess trainees' implementation of interpersonal skills discussed in training.

The interview performance rubric consisted of 18 items directly related to the rules presented in training (2 rules per knowledge dimension + an overall evaluation for the knowledge dimension) as well as two additional items. The other two items asked interviewers to report the applicant's likelihood of being hired and overall interpersonal skills. Participants' performance was rated on a 1 to 7 on a descriptively anchored rating scale (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997); performance dimensions had summary statements based on effective and ineffective critical incidents to anchor the low and high ends of the scale. I also wrote a summary statement for the midpoint of the scale which described performance in between the high and low ends. Example items for the Expressing Enthusiasm dimension are displayed in Appendix C. Items from the rubric were averaged together to create an overall composite score representing interview performance.

Eight second-year full-time MBA students served as interviewers. Interviewers completed a frame-of-reference style rater training prior to conducting the mock interviews to enhance rater consistency and ensure all interviewers conducted the interviews similarly (Melchers, Lienhardt, Von Aarburg, & Kleinmann, 2011). Raters completed the interview knowledge test, viewed the critical incident training, and were coached on nonverbal and verbal behaviors to take note of in interviews. They became familiarized with the interview performance rubric and the structured interview they would conduct, participating in practice sessions with undergraduate research assistants. As part of the training, interviewers viewed additional re-enactments of critical incidents that were scored by interview experts to increase rating accuracy and encourage raters to use the common evaluative standards. Additionally, they completed practice interviews with an undergraduate student in front of the other raters in order to improve consistency with one another. Rater training lasted 2 hours in total.

Procedure and Design

The study was conducted over two sessions. A between-subjects design was used: Participants were randomly assigned to either the critical incident training ($N = 98$) or the rule-based training ($N = 95$). Session 1 was conducted in a research lab; participants were assigned to a computer station and completed all measures and training individually. After providing informed consent, participants first completed the cognitive ability, personality assessment, and prior interview experience scales. Next, participants completed the written pretest on interpersonal interview knowledge. Immediately following the pretest, participants viewed their assigned training video. Note taking was allowed during the training. Participants then reported the training's fit with their self-

concept. After a 5 minute break, participants completed the posttest for interview knowledge, which was a reordered version of the pretest. Their mock interview time for the following week was then confirmed. Session 1 lasted approximately 1.5 hours.

Session 2 occurred one week later and consisted of a mock interview for an entry-level management position with a consulting firm. The entry-level consultant position was selected because students of all majors were qualified to apply for the job. The one-on-one interview was conducted in designated interview rooms at the business school with a trained full-time MBA interviewer to enhance realism. Five days prior to the mock interview, students were sent an email reminding them of their interview time along with a brief job description for the position they were interviewing for and a link to the company's website. (One of the rules presented in the training was to learn about the company before an interview, and access to the company's website allowed me to test the transfer of this rule to their interview behavior.) The participants were told they would be meeting with a business professional who had prior interview experience, and the email emphasized that they should treat the interview as though they were really applying for the job with the listed company. The students were also informed that they would receive feedback from the interviewer at the completion of the mock interview. The interviewer delivered the structured interview which consisted of five primary prompts. After completing the mock interview, the interviewer completed the interview performance rubric in private. Then, the interviewer verbally provided the participant with some helpful feedback on their performance. In total, Session 2 took 30 minutes: 20 minutes for the structured interview, 5 minutes for scoring performance, and 5 minutes for verbal feedback to the participant.

CHAPTER 6

Study 2: Results

The results are divided into four major sections. I first discuss the main effects of the training and examine the experimental component of the study by discussing differences observed between training conditions. Next, zero-order correlations between predictors of pretest interview knowledge and posttest interview knowledge are discussed. Then, I evaluate the relationships between personality, knowledge, and interview performance by testing the overall hypothesized model using path analysis. Finally, I describe supplemental analyses that included different scoring techniques for the interview knowledge measure and a follow-up survey to measure participant attitudes toward the mock interview.

Descriptive statistics and correlations among variables are displayed in Table 5. Personality traits were originally measured at the facet level, and only personality facets with significant correlations with the outcome variables (interview knowledge and interview performance) are displayed in Table 6. Incorporating all 30 personality facets into the planned analyses proved to be unwieldy given the sample size and complexity of the hypothesized model. Also, most facets within a Big Five trait showed similar trends with one another. Because examining personality at the facet-level did not contribute much information beyond using the higher order traits, I collapsed across facets and present only the Big Five traits in Table 5 and in further results.

Table 5. Means, standard deviations, and correlations between study variables ($N = 193$).

		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1.	Cognitive Ability	2123.37	195.47									
2.	Openness to experience	3.73	.39	-.10								
3.	Conscientiousness	3.59	.46	-.05	.06							
4.	Extraversion	3.53	.49	-.06	.35**	.18*						
5.	Agreeableness	3.61	.42	.03	.22**	.30**	.04					
6.	Neuroticism	2.74	.50	.09	-.05	-.44**	-.37**	-.17*				
7.	Fit with Self-concept	4.06	.51	.05	.16*	.34**	.33**	.13	-.29**			
8.	Pretest SJT score	5.81	.39	.06	.05	.18*	.09	.15*	-.03	.17*		
9.	Posttest SJT score	5.99	.34	.09	.12	.12	.08	.21**	-.04	.21**	.73**	
10.	Interview Performance	5.27	.79	-.08	.02	.13	.12	-.13	-.01	.13	.22**	.16*

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ two-tailed tests.

Table 6. Personality facet correlations with dependent variables ($N = 193$).

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Knowledge Pretest	Knowledge Posttest	Interview Performance
1. Self-efficacy (C)	3.82	.50	.20**	.19**	.18*
2. Achievement striving(C)	3.98	.58	.24**	.21**	.16*
3. Assertiveness (E)	3.52	.58	.10	.07	.19*
4. Activity level (E)	3.19	.57	.18*	.18*	.15*
5. Self-consciousness (N)	2.74	.72	-.01	-.02	-.17*
6. Morality (A)	3.77	.61	.19**	.26**	-.16*
7. Modesty (A)	3.00	.64	.05	.02	-.18*

Note: The higher order traits are listed next to the facets (C = conscientiousness, E = Extraversion, N = Neuroticism, A = Agreeableness). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ two-tailed tests.

Two training outcomes were measured before and after training: knowledge and self-efficacy for interviewing. Participants did learn from training as interview knowledge increased from pretest to posttest ($M_{\text{pretest}} = 5.81$, $M_{\text{posttest}} = 5.99$, $t(192) = 9.52$, $p < .001$, $d = .67$). Similarly, self-efficacy for interviewing increased after training ($M_{\text{before}} = 3.66$, $M_{\text{after}} = 3.87$, $t(192) = 7.40$, $p < .001$, $d = .54$). These findings provide some support for the validity of the interpersonal skills training, as it effectively increased interpersonal interview knowledge and self-efficacy.

Differences Between Training Conditions

Interview knowledge. I first examined the two training conditions and compared them on training outcomes. Participants in both conditions scored very similarly on the pretest of interview knowledge ($M_{\text{CI}} = 5.81$, $SD = .38$; $M_{\text{RB}} = 5.80$, $SD = .40$). Additionally, participants in both conditions scored nearly identically on the posttest of interview knowledge ($M_{\text{CI}} = 5.99$, $SD = .34$; $M_{\text{RB}} = 5.99$, $SD = .35$). Hypothesis 1 was not supported, as posttest knowledge scores did not differ by training condition ($t(191) = .04$, $p > .05$). The manipulation check demonstrated that participants in the critical incident training condition did feel the training provided clear examples of implementing the behavioral rules more so than participants in the rule-based training condition ($M_{\text{CI}} = 4.10$, $M_{\text{RB}} = 3.49$, $t(191) = 4.85$, $p < .001$), but these examples did not translate to greater interview knowledge for the critical incident training group.

Self-efficacy. I measured self-efficacy for interviewing before and after training but found no difference between training conditions for post training self-efficacy ($F(1, 191) = .70$, $p > .05$). Though self-efficacy did increase after training, this was a main effect and the gains did not differ by training condition ($F(1, 191) = .36$, $p > .05$).

Satisfaction with training. I used a Student's t-test to determine if attitudes toward training differed by condition, predicting that participants would have more positive attitudes toward the critical incident training. Indeed, participants who participated in the critical incident training were more satisfied than those who participated in the rule-based training ($M_{CI} = 3.94$, $M_{RB} = 3.68$, $t(191) = 2.83$, $p < .01$). Although this did not result in greater knowledge on the posttest or greater interview performance, trainees did prefer to train using the video examples of behavioral models. Satisfaction was unrelated to posttest knowledge ($r = .07$) and interview performance ($r = -.07$), however, and was not investigated further as a mediator of training condition's effect on knowledge.

Building the hypothesized model

I tested hypotheses on two main outcome measures: interview knowledge and interview performance. In this section, I build the hypothesized model by discussing zero-order relationships to provide a comprehensive view of the data and then test relations among variables simultaneously using path analysis.

Predicting interview knowledge. Interview knowledge significantly increased from pretest to posttest ($M_{\text{difference}} = .19$, $t(192) = 9.53$, $p < .001$). As previously mentioned, the gains did not differ by training condition, suggesting that the behavioral models did not enhance learning.

I predicted that personality, particularly agreeableness, extraversion, and conscientiousness, would be positively related to interpersonal interview knowledge. Agreeableness and conscientiousness were related to pretest interview knowledge ($r = .15$ and $r = .18$, respectively, $p < .05$), and agreeableness was related to posttest interview

knowledge ($r = .21, p < .01$). Because extraversion showed no significant relationship with knowledge in this sample or in the trait expression analysis of the knowledge measure prior to the study, it was dropped from further analyses. Interestingly, cognitive ability was not significantly related to interview knowledge before or after training ($r = .06, r = .09, p's > .05$). The non-significant relationship with knowledge after training is particularly surprising given that intelligence is routinely found to be the most reliable predictor of learning outcomes following training (Ree & Earles, 1991). Such findings have typically been focused on technical skills training, however; Studies of cognitive ability's relationship with interpersonal skills training have not been previously reported.

Interview performance. Performance in the mock interview was predicted to be related to personality traits, the training's fit with self-concept, and interview knowledge score. As seen in Table 5, zero-order correlations with pretest and posttest interview knowledge scores ($r's = .22$ and $.16$) were significant, but personality traits and fit with self-concept were not significantly related to interview performance at the zero-order level.

Path analysis of the model. A path analysis allows for simultaneous estimation of relationships among variables. Given that several predictors were hypothesized to influence multiple dependent outcomes, a path analysis was an appropriate approach to analyzing the data. Prior to testing the hypothesized model using path analysis, I centered all variables and then created the hypothesized interaction terms (agreeableness by condition and conscientiousness by condition) by multiplying the centered traits and condition (Aiken & West, 1991). Because multiple dependent variables were used in this

study, I built the model gradually and detail the findings with interview knowledge prior to discussing the full model.

Pretest interview knowledge was regressed on agreeableness, conscientiousness, and cognitive ability. Results are displayed in Table 7. Conscientiousness was significantly related to knowledge but agreeableness and cognitive ability were not. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported. While controlling for these effects on pretest knowledge, I examined predictors of posttest interview knowledge. I had hypothesized that personality would interact with training condition to influence posttest knowledge: Trainees low in conscientiousness or agreeableness were expected to benefit more from critical incident training than rule-based training whereas trainees high in these traits would benefit equally from the two training formats. I created interaction terms for agreeableness x condition and conscientiousness x condition to test this hypothesis. Posttest interview knowledge was regressed on pretest interview knowledge, cognitive ability, and training condition, and interactions between agreeableness x condition and conscientiousness x condition were then entered into the model. As seen in Table 7, the interaction terms were not significant and did not account for any additional variance in posttest interview performance. Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Table 7. Predicting interview knowledge ($N = 193$).

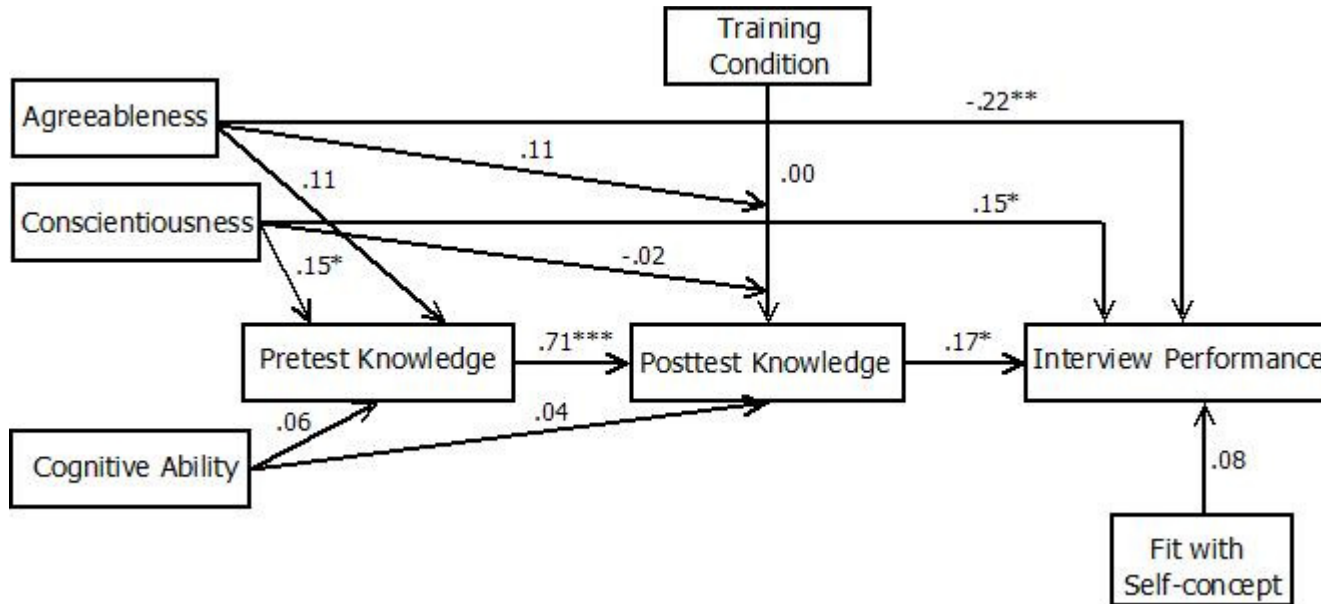
	Pretest β	Posttest – Step 1 β	Posttest – Step 2 β
Agreeableness	.11		
Conscientiousness	.15*		
Cognitive Ability	.06	.05	.04
Pretest Interview Knowledge		.72***	.71***
Training Condition		.00	.00
Agreeableness x Condition			.08
Conscientiousness x Condition			-.02
R^2	.05*	.53***	.53***

Note: * $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$

Finally, I included interview performance in the model. Results of the overall model are displayed in Figure 4. Posttest interview knowledge did significantly predict interview performance, supporting Hypothesis 4. Conscientiousness and agreeableness significantly predicted interview performance, but agreeableness was negatively related to performance. This result is surprising, as previous studies suggested agreeableness was positively related to performance and, in this study, agreeableness was positively related to interview knowledge. Hypothesis 5 was thus partially supported, as conscientiousness positively predicted performance but agreeableness was not positively related to performance.

To help explain why trainees fail to transfer interview knowledge learned from the training to the actual interview, I had originally tested fit with self-concept as a moderating variable for the relationships between interview knowledge and interview performance. Hypothesis 6 was not supported, as fit with self-concept did not significantly moderate the relationship and inclusion of this measure resulted in poor model fit (RMSEA = .17, CFI = .70). I evaluated fit with self-concept as a main effect on interview performance in the model, which resulted in adequate model fit, but its effect on interview performance was not significant.

Figure 4. Path analysis of full hypothesized model.



Note: Coefficients are standardized weights. Model fit statistics: $df = 24$, $RMSEA = .04$, $CFI = .97$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Additional Analyses

Though I did not originally propose hypotheses regarding the following variables, I performed additional analyses using an alternative scoring method for the interpersonal interview knowledge measure. Also, I conducted a brief follow-up survey on participants' attitudes toward the mock interview to determine how realistic the interview felt and address concerns about the mock interview data serving as the performance criterion.

Knowledge of effective and ineffective behavior. Traditionally, situational judgment tests use one composite score to represent knowledge (Motowidlo, Dunnette, & Carter, 1990). Crook and colleagues (2011) found evidence that knowing what to do and what not to do may be separate constructs. Because each single-response SJT item describes either effective behavior or ineffective behavior, one can calculate a knowledge score for effective behavior (knowing what TO do) independently from a knowledge score for ineffective behavior (knowing what NOT to do). A respondent's scores for effective SJT items are averaged, and higher effectiveness ratings indicate greater understanding of what to do. Similarly, a respondent's scores for ineffective SJT items are averaged, and lower effectiveness ratings indicate better recognition of what NOT to do. On two different single-response SJTs for two different jobs, Crook and colleagues (2001) found that knowledge scores for effective behavior and knowledge scores for ineffective behavior had different personality antecedents and were not highly correlated with one another. In one job, knowledge of ineffective behavior was significantly more predictive of job performance than knowledge of effective behavior, suggesting that for this job, it was more important to understand what NOT to do to perform well.

I originally used a composite score for knowledge of effective and ineffective behavior because incorporating both knowledge components would cover more of the construct space. However, I wanted to analyze knowledge of effective and ineffective behavior in job interviewing separately to determine if a) the knowledge types were highly correlated with one another, b) the antecedents of both knowledge types were distinct, and c) knowledge types differentially predicted interview performance. For ease of interpretation, knowledge of ineffective behavior was reverse-scored so that higher scores reflect greater knowledge. Knowledge of effective and ineffective behavior was not highly correlated with one another ($r = .05$ on the pretest, $r = .06$ on the posttest). Zero-order correlations with antecedents and interview performance are displayed in Table 8. The different knowledge types show potentially different patterns of correlations with antecedents and interview performance, again suggesting that knowing what TO do and knowing what NOT to do may be distinct constructs. For job interviewing, it would appear that performance is particularly predicated on understanding what NOT to do.

Table 8. Examining knowledge of effective and ineffective behavior separately ($N = 193$).

	Pretest Effective	Pretest Ineffective	Posttest Effective	Posttest Ineffective
Antecedents				
Openness to experience	.27**	-.05	.25**	.01
Conscientiousness	.12	.15*	.12	.07
Extraversion	.16*	.04	.13	.02
Agreeableness	.22**	.09	.19**	.14
Neuroticism	-.10	.01	-.11	.02
Interview Performance	.04	.23**	.04	.16*

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ two-tailed tests.

There is one important caveat on drawing conclusions about the relative value of knowledge of effective and ineffective behavior, though. Interviewers provided substantially more examples of ineffective interview behaviors ($N = 73$) than effective interview behaviors ($N = 36$) when I gathered critical incidents. As a result, there were fewer effective items on the knowledge test than ineffective items. Fewer items may restrict the variance of behaviors; this narrower subset of behaviors may reflect trait expressions in only one or two dimensions of personality. An alternative interpretation, however, is that fewer effective behaviors were recalled by the professional interviewers as critical incidents precisely because interview performance is predicated more on ineffective behavior, which is in turn more memorable. Further study is necessary to understand the importance of effective knowledge and ineffective knowledge in job interviewing.

Post-study survey on the mock interview. Near the conclusion of the study, I realized that it was important to determine how seriously participants treated the mock interview. While efforts were made to enhance the realism of the mock interview through using business professionals and conducting the interview in the business school's formal interview rooms, the participants' view of the mock interview would help me evaluate the credibility of the interview performance criterion.

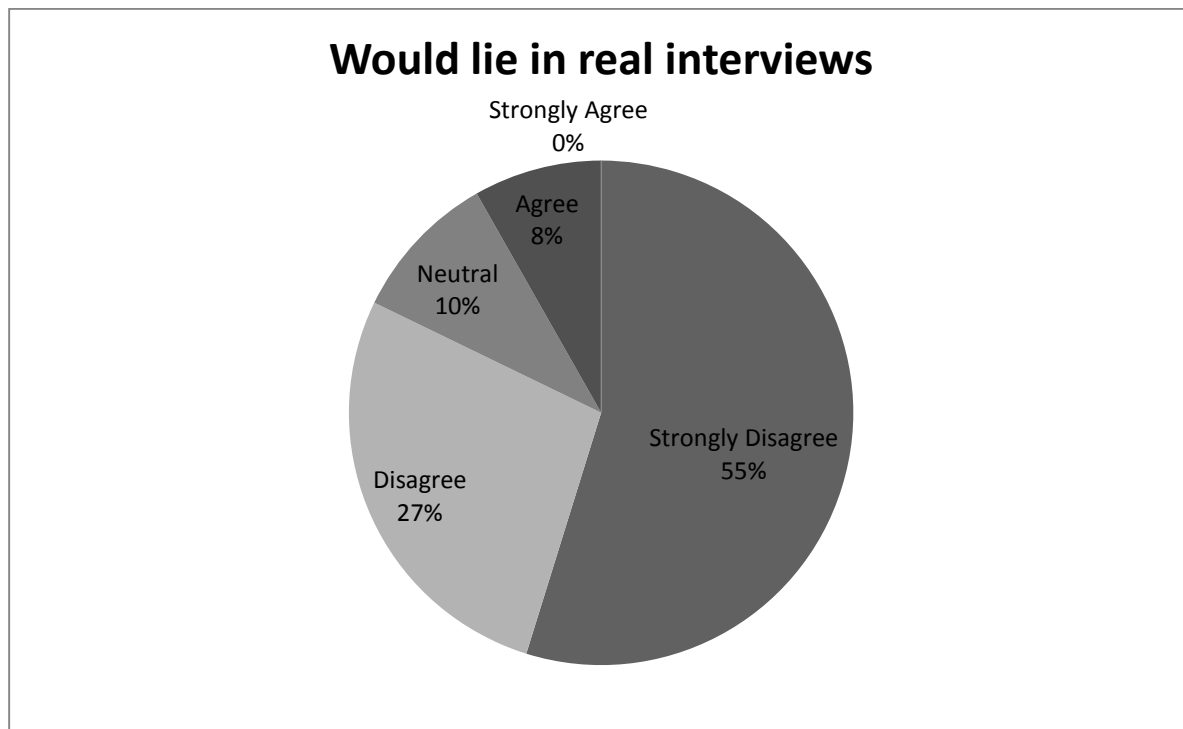
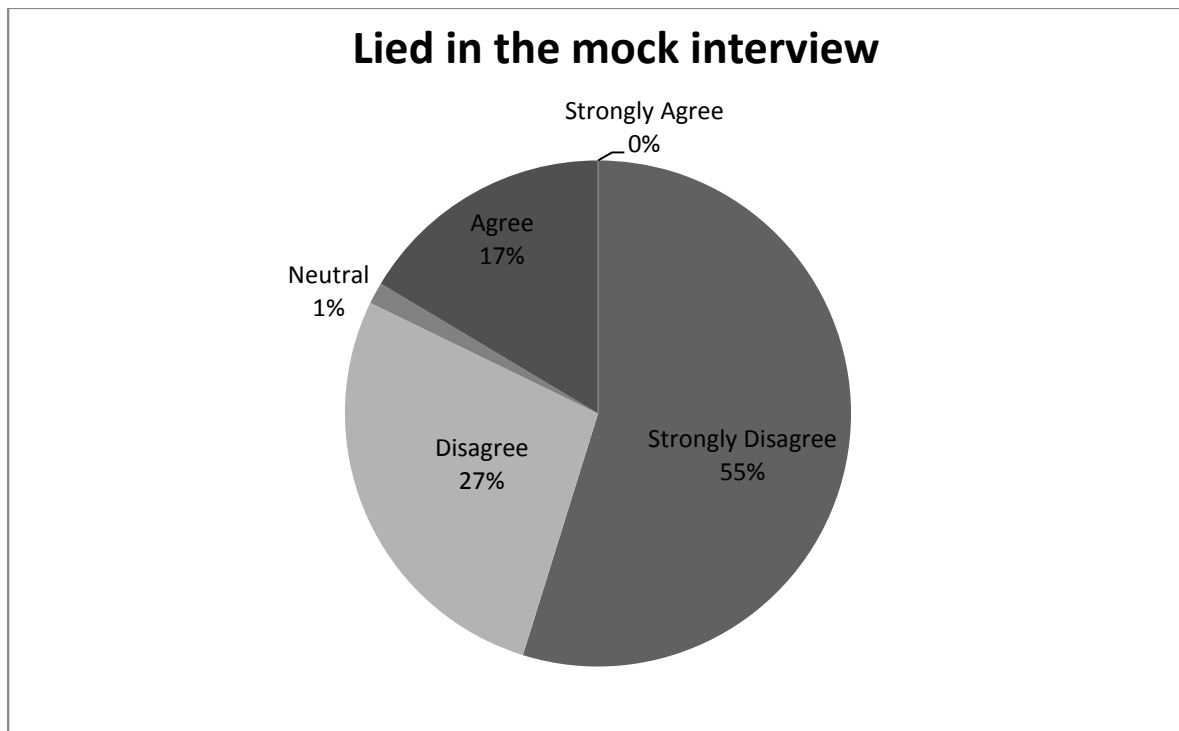
To ascertain participant attitudes toward the mock interview, I conducted a post-study questionnaire online two weeks after the conclusion of the study. Seventy-three participants completed the survey in exchange for \$5 or research credit. Because data was collected over a two month period, the amount of time since participating in the study varied by participant from 2 to 8 weeks. A five-item Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly

Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) assessed the realism of the mock interview. Sample items include: “The interview felt realistic, as though it was for the actual job” and “Before the interview, I felt the same nerves I might feel for a real job interview.” Participants generally agreed that the mock interview was realistic ($M = 3.79$, $SD = .52$). I also asked participants if they lied or made up stories for the mock interview that did not really happen. Because the number of participants agreeing or disagreeing with the following items is more important than average responses, pie charts of the responses are displayed in Figure 5.

Only 12 of the 73 respondents agreed that they had made up stories, and 6 of those said they would also make up stories during a real job interview. A Chi-square test demonstrated that participants were not significantly more likely to lie in the mock interview than in a real interview ($\chi^2(1, N = 73) = 2.28, p > .05$). This base rate of lying was particularly low compared to past studies of undergraduate faking in mock and employment interviews, where faking akin to lying in the interview was reported by 28% to 75% of interviewees (Levashina & Campion, 2007). Because the structured interview questions centered on past behaviors, this study achieved a lower base rate of lying, consistent with Levashina and Campion’s finding (2007) that past behavioral interviews are the least susceptible to faking.

In sum, the post-study survey demonstrated that participants felt the mock interview was realistic and generally did not lie in the interview to any greater extent than they would in a real job interview.

Figure 5. Participant reports of lying in interviews.



CHAPTER 7

Discussion

This study aimed to contribute to the body of literature on interpersonal skills training through three primary objectives. First, I wanted to investigate the benefits of behavioral models in training over rules in training. I also wanted to understand the antecedents of interpersonal knowledge, exploring the impact of personality, cognitive ability, and emotional intelligence on interpersonal interview knowledge. Finally, I attempted to explain the issue of training transfer for interpersonal skills training through trainee's perceived fit between their self-concept and the training content.

Training formats

Understanding the added value of the models is theoretically as well as practically important. Many of the career centers I interviewed explained that they educate their students on interview behavior by telling them "tips and tricks." In other words, general rules for behavior are commonly used for training interview behavior. If adding behavioral models to training resulted in a substantial gain in learning, interpersonal skills trainers may consider using more modeled examples to increase the effectiveness of their training.

However, I found no evidence supporting the notion that behavioral models led to greater interpersonal knowledge acquisition or better interview performance. This result is surprising, as it contradicts predictions made by social learning theory. Training programs can be evaluated by both their effectiveness and their efficiency. Training effectiveness refers to the degree to which a program achieves training outcomes; it is focused on quantifying training outcomes of knowledge, skills, and the transfer of

training (Kraiger et al., 1993). Training efficiency, in contrast, weighs the training's effectiveness against its monetary and time costs (Shebilske, Regian, Arthur, & Jordan, 1992). In the study's data analysis, the training programs were only compared in terms of their training effectiveness. Though they were equally effective, the critical incident training was far less efficient than rule-based training. The videos incurred a monetary cost to hire the actresses and use video-recording equipment. Preparing the script, filming, and editing the videos took approximately 50 hours of time. These one-time costs do not include the recurring time-cost for each time the training program was used: The critical incident training took 8 minutes longer per trainee. In total, this training would have cost approximately \$350 and 63 hours more of the organization's time but returned no incremental learning or performance.

Why did viewing positive and negative examples of interview behavior not increase knowledge and performance? One possibility is that the manipulation was not strong enough. However, participants in the critical incident training, more so than participants in the rule-based training, did report that the training provided clear examples of how to implement the behavioral rules. Perhaps trainees' exposure to the training program was too limited to significantly benefit from the behavioral models. Exposure to the models can be discussed in terms of length of time (examples lasted approximately 8 minutes) or required retrieval during training, both of which were minimal in this study. Participants viewed the behavioral models but were not required to recall these examples at any point during training. Ideally, in full-scale behavioral modeling training, trainees have the opportunity to observe models and then draw upon those modeled behaviors during practice themselves. Mental rehearsal of behaviors can also be considered practice

(Bandura, 1986), but higher fidelity practice would be more beneficial. Because participants in this study did not experience high fidelity practice (e.g., role-playing responding to interview questions), the behavioral models may have been less useful for improving performance and more easily forgotten. Undoubtedly, practice would have enhanced interview knowledge and performance, but it is unclear if such practice would amplify the effectiveness of the critical incident training more so than the rule-based training program. If practice was provided in both training conditions, it could further render the behavioral models unnecessary or alternatively increase their efficacy by inducing participants to retrieve the modeled behaviors when trying to implement the rules. Future research should investigate the inclusion of practice to compare rule-based training with critical incident training and determine if critical incidents add value.

Antecedents of interpersonal knowledge

Understanding the role of individual differences in interpersonal skills learning may answer questions regarding who learns and transfers interpersonal skills training. This work has been conducted extensively in technical task training but has not been fully explored in interpersonal skills training (Laker & Powell, 2011). I predicted that people who were high in traits that are frequently expressed in interpersonal skill behaviors would enter the training with more knowledge. Analysis of the interpersonal behaviors in interviews prior to the start of the experiment revealed that expert ratings of effectiveness were associated with expressions of conscientiousness, and individuals scoring higher on conscientiousness did enter training with more interview knowledge than those who scored lower on conscientiousness. This finding is consistent with theory of dispositional fit (Motowidlo, 2003). Implicit trait policy theory suggests that people can also learn

from experiences about effective trait expression, and the interview training program aimed to increase trainees' interpersonal knowledge.

While cognitive ability is traditionally the most reliable predictor of training performance (Ree & Earles, 1991), cognitive ability was not associated with interpersonal interview knowledge before or after training. Perhaps this finding is due to the restricted range of cognitive ability in the study's sample, but alternatively, the interpersonal content of the training program may be less related to cognitive ability than training content for other job tasks. Other ability measures, such as emotional intelligence, may be better predictors of interpersonal skill acquisition and should be investigated in future studies.

Past studies on interpersonal skills training have not taken into account individual differences, and this study contributes to the literature through the findings of personality and emotional intelligence's impact on interpersonal knowledge and performance. I also hypothesized that personality would interact with training format such that individuals lower on relevant traits would benefit more from the critical incident training. There was no evidence to support a personality by training format interaction. From a practical standpoint, the findings suggest that people high and low on conscientiousness learned equally well in both training conditions. Though this was not anticipated, it is encouraging that people lower in conscientiousness were able to acquire knowledge through the training program at a similar rate as those high in conscientiousness. Often times in training, "the rich get richer" as those with greater ability or prior knowledge increase their advantage over others (Day et al., 2005). Organizations may be more likely refer employees to interpersonal skills training if they are perceived as deficient in this

area, rather than assigning skilled employees to training to further enhance their interpersonal skills, so it is encouraging that participant knowledge acquisition did not vary according to personality.

Predicting interview performance

Conscientiousness was positively related to interview performance, and agreeableness was negatively related to interview performance. These relationships were evident after controlling for personality's effect on knowledge. This finding contradicts prior work which demonstrated that personality did not add incremental variance to performance prediction above and beyond its influence on knowledge (Crook et al., 2011; Motowidlo et al., in press). Interpersonal interview knowledge at the end of training was related to interview performance one week later. Interview knowledge was relatively high at the end of training, with a mean score of 5.99 out of 7. Interview performance, which was assessed by evaluating the applicant on the same behavioral rules learned in training, was lower at 5.27 out of 7. Transfer of knowledge from training to the job environment, hence, was not perfect. This study evaluated the training's fit with self-concept as an influence on decisions to transfer training to performance.

Attitudes toward training are known to impact transfer in technical skills training (Sitzmann, Brown, Casper, Ely, & Zimmerman, 2008), but have only been hypothesized to influence transfer of interpersonal skills training. Russell and colleagues (1984) suggested self-concept would prevent some trainees from using new interpersonal knowledge, but it was unrelated to knowledge transfer or interview performance. It is possible that the delay between training and the opportunity to use the newly acquired interpersonal knowledge in an interview was too extended to detect an effect with self-

concept. Perhaps completing an interview immediately following training would result in a stronger effect of self-concept on decisions to use the interpersonal interview knowledge in the interview. One week was selected as the time lag between training and performance evaluation because in technical task training, it is reasonable for employees experience such a delay between training and opportunity to use the newly trained skills on the job. Interpersonal skills may or may not have such a time delay prior to use after training, as social interactions in the workplace are generally a daily occurrence. Additional study is necessary to examine the effects of time on the importance of training's fit with self-concept and their transfer performance.

Study limitations

One limitation of the current study is its use of a mock interview as a criterion for interview performance. Ideally, interview performance data would be collected from interviews for real jobs that the participant was motivated to acquire. Interviews for real jobs, however, would not have met standards required for scientific research.

Interviewers would not receive training or conduct a standardized structured interview, the performance measure would have been limited to a small number of items on interpersonal skills, and not all participants would have been active job seekers. For these and other reasons, the mock interview was used in lieu of real job interviews.

Ultimately, participants in this study knew they were no tangible rewards from performing well in the mock interview and this may have decreased motivation to transfer knowledge from training (such as researching about the job) differentially across participants. Several people reported that they were not interested in an entry-level consultant position because they had already decided to pursue other careers and as a

result did not bother to read more about the interviewing company or the position. Future replication of study results in real employment interviews is necessary.

Another limitation is the sample's high overall cognitive ability scores. The median composite SAT score was 2180. In 2011, the composite SAT mean was 1501 with a standard deviation of 315 (The College Board, 2011); the current study's sample mean is greater than two standard deviations above the population mean. The range restriction in cognitive ability attenuates its relationship with other variables. In a more cognitively diverse sample, cognitive ability likely plays some role in interpersonal knowledge acquisition after training, which was not the case in my study.

Conclusion

This study contributes to the literature on interpersonal skills training by investigating the impact of individual differences and the value of behavioral models. Conscientiousness and, to a limited extent, agreeableness were associated with interpersonal interview knowledge. Cognitive ability was not related to interpersonal interview knowledge before or after training, suggesting that knowledge in this domain is predicated more on personality than general mental ability. Although this component of the study may not generalize to the general population, the study shows that in high ability environments, personality still varies and predicts interpersonal knowledge. The inclusion of behavioral models in training did not increase knowledge acquisition, and further studies are necessary to determine if such a costly instructional device is worthwhile for organizations when training interpersonal skills. Studies should evaluate the benefits of role-play practice and extended time in training to clarify the utility of

behavioral models above and beyond general rules for behavior when training for interpersonal skills.

The technical skills training literature is abundant, and this study contributes to the groundwork for interpersonal skills training. With organizations contributing a significant amount of resources toward interpersonal skills training, training researchers must not ignore this area of training with the assumption that findings on technical skills training uniformly apply. We should explore potential differences in these different arenas of training, focusing on antecedents, training formats, and training outcomes.

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Appendix A

Critical Incidents of Interpersonal Skill Behaviors in Interviews

Effective Critical Incidents:

1. When asked where he saw himself five years from now, this student leaned forward and said, “This job is the reason I majored in engineering.” He explained how the job duties were exactly the kinds of things he felt challenged by and enjoyed doing. The interviewer was impressed with his enthusiasm for the position.
2. The student responded to an interviewer’s question. When she had completed her story, the interviewer did not say anything immediately afterward. The student asked “Did that answer your question?” The interviewer appreciated her thoroughness and confirmed her question was answered.

Ineffective Critical Incidents:

1. To end the interview on a friendly note, the student said, “Thank you for your time. I hope you can hook me up with a job here.” The interviewer was unimpressed with the student’s casual demeanor toward him.
2. The interviewer asked the student a question, and the student said, “Pass.” The interviewer was annoyed that the student did not even attempt to answer the question.

Appendix B

Mock Interview Protocol: Interviewer Prompts

- Tell me a bit about yourself. Why would you be a good consultant?
- Tell me about the most difficult professional decision you've made and the process you used to reach it.
- Tell me about your most recent team project. What was the project? What was your role? (Follow-up) What was the most challenging part? What did you like most and least?
- Describe the last time you were unsuccessful in getting someone to follow your lead. What have you learned from that experience?
- Why are you interested in working at <Company Name>?

Appendix C

Example Items from the Interview Performance Rubric

EXPRESSING ENTHUSIASM

- ❖ Expresses enthusiasm for the job & organization (Attitude & Specifics)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Ambivalence & unaware of job tasks/organization's focus</i>		<i>General enthusiasm but nothing specific to the job/organization (or vice versa)</i>			<i>Enthusied & discusses mission, interest in job tasks, fit with organization</i>	

- ❖ Shows enthusiasm for past experiences (Attitude & Specifics)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Ambivalence & lack of specifics about past tasks</i>		<i>General enthusiasm but nothing specific about past tasks (or vice versa)</i>			<i>Enthusied & discusses past tasks in appropriate detail</i>	

- ❖ **OVERALL ENTHUSIASM RATING:** 1 2 3 4 5 6 7