The Pennsylvania State University

The Graduate School

The School of Labor and Employment Relations

APPLICANT REACTIONS TO DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT INTERVIEW

MODALITIES AND WAITING AFTER THE SCHEDULED TIME: EXAMINATION OF

THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF GENERAL SELF-EFFICACY

A Thesis in

Human Resources and Employment Relations

by

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Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Master of Science

December 2015

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ABSTRACT

The employment interview is one of the most popular selection techniques to date. Recent technological developments have enabled organizations to utilize technology-mediated interviews for cost-saving, while expanding the definition of interviews beyond face-to-face interaction. Given this current practice, this study addresses the effects of interview modality (face-to-face and phone) on applicant reactions and suggests that a new variable, time waiting – the time an applicant is kept waiting after the scheduled time – has an impact on applicant reactions during selection procedures. The proposed model was tested by moderated regression analyses with a sample of 171 undergraduate students recruited for the experimental survey. The results demonstrate that interview modality predicts perceived fairness and organizational attraction, time waiting predicts organizational attraction, and general self-efficacy moderates the relationships between them. Implications for theory and practice are discussed.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

The employment interview has been reported as the most common method for making hiring decisions in businesses (Arvey, 1979; Macan, 2009). Due to its widespread use, it has been a focus of many decades of research. Factors that affect the interviewer's ratings as well as its predictive validity for future performance have been investigated by previous studies (e.g., McDaniel, Whetzel, Schmidt, & Maurer, 1994). Research has demonstrated its usefulness as a selection and assessment tool but also have identified other variables that affect interviews. For example, interview faking (Levashina & Campion, 2007), impression management (Van Iddekinge, McFarland, & Raymark, 2007), physical attractiveness (Pingatore, Dugoni, Tindale, & Spring, 1994), and searching for negative evidence (Rowe, 1989) were found to be related to interview outcomes. However, applicant reactions to interviews with different types of interview modalities (e.g., face-to-face, videoconference, and phone interviews) as well has their reactions to time spent waiting for interviews have not been given much attention. Likewise, individual differences that may influence applicant reactions to modalities and time spent waiting have not been investigated.

When applicants are invited to job interviews, they typically go through a series of interactions with the organization. The experience of such interactions may be positive or negative to the applicants. Positive applicant reactions are related to higher job acceptance intentions, but negative reactions induced by organizations often result in negative recruiting outcomes such as withdrawal of applicants from the pool (Ryan, Sacco, McFarland, & Kriska, 2000; Schmit & Ryan, 1997). This highlights organizations' need to maintain positive

perceptions of the organization by applicants during the selection process. Although applicant reactions that arise from selection procedures may be influenced by objective (factual) or subjective (affective or attitudinal) variables by involved parties (applicants or recruiters), this study focuses specifically upon perceived fairness, organizational attraction, and job pursuit intentions resulting from different interviewing methods. More specifically, this study examines what type of employment interview method might positively or negatively influence applicant reactions.

The traditional way of conducting employment interviews is to invite job applicants to a designated place and have a face-to-face conversation between the applicant(s) and the interviewer(s) (Chapman, Uggerslev, & Webster, 2003). However, geographically scattered applicants have necessitated applicants traveling or utilization of technology during interviews (Chapman, 1999). Technology-mediated interview techniques such as videoconferencing and phone interviews are now used by many human resources (HR) practitioners (SHRM, 2013), and it is not surprising anymore for job seekers to be invited to a job interview that is conducted in a place convenient to the applicant using technology. If applicants are invited to technology-mediated interviews (videoconferencing or phone interviews), the nature of interaction between the recruiter(s) and interviewee(s) would not be the same as it would be during face-to-face interviews. There may be possible issues caused by technology based mediation, and this mediation may hinder the timeliness and effectiveness of employment interviews. For example, technical failure or administrative issues may hinder recruiters' efficacy in overseeing interview procedures in a timely manner, causing the applicants to wait for interviews without notice. It is expected that such occasions will impact applicants' reactions toward the organization as well as their reactions to selection procedures. This study addresses the impacts of an organization's

technology-mediated employment behavior – that is, inviting applicants to technology-mediated interviews instead of face-to-face interviews as well as examining the influence of making applicants wait before the interview, whether intentional or unintentional – on applicants' perceived fairness, organizational attraction, and job pursuit intentions.

The main purpose of this study is to understand the relationship among interview modality, time spent waiting, and applicant reactions to employment interviews. As has been suggested by previous researchers (e.g., Ryan & Ployhart, 2000), individual differences may have a moderating effect on such reactions. Accordingly, general self-efficacy was chosen as an important individual difference variable to investigate because of its conceptual relevance, as discussed later. This study contributes to the existing literature about applicant reactions, employment interviews, temporal variables (time waiting), and individual differences by filling the gap between findings associated with each other, especially findings related to perceived fairness (e.g., Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, & Porter, 2001; Steiner & Gilliland, 1996), organizational attraction (e.g., Turban & Greening, 1997), and job pursuit intentions (e.g., Lievens & Highhouse, 2003).

Chapter 2

Literature Review and Hypotheses

Applicant Reactions to Selection Procedures

The primary objective of employment selection is to choose top talent from an organization's applicant pool. However, in addition to identifying the best candidate for job positions, the selection process itself is also an important tool for maintaining the pool of applicants (Ryan & Polyhart, 2000). Negative applicant reactions promote early withdrawal from the applicant pool (Ryan et al, 2000; Schmit & Ryan, 1997). Therefore, keeping applicant reactions positive toward the organization is imperative for sustaining the high quality of human resources that is necessary for businesses to succeed (Priem & Butler, 2001).

Signaling theory (Spence, 1973) plays an important role in the process of applicant reactions. This theory explains the behaviors of two parties (in this case, organizations and applicants) when there is asymmetry in shared information. Signaling theory was first suggested to understand the effect of educational attainments on labor suppliers' (i.e., individuals) attractiveness to organizations in the labor market. However, in recruitment/selection contexts, it explains the mechanism of applicants' information acquisition behaviors regarding external and inferred characteristics of employing organizations. Although there are various sources of information that a job applicant can access to learn about an organization, these public sources usually contain only positive information (Turban, 2001) that is selectively shared by the organization, requiring applicants to search for more information by inference (Connelly, Certo, Ireland, & Reutzel, 2011). To better understand an employing organization, applicants interpret signals of the organization to infer its unknown attributes (Rynes, 1989). For instance, if an

organization sends a signal to a job applicant that is interpreted in a positive way (e.g., an email invitation to an interview in a professional manner rather than in a condescending manner), the applicant will perceive the employer more favorably because they will perceive the employer-sent signal as echoing the climate of the employer-employee relationship within the organization.

Based on signaling theory in selection contexts, this study examines factors that may influence applicants' reactions during interviewing procedures. According to Ryan and Polyhart (2000), there are two major streams of research in the applicant reactions literature. The first stream focuses on how applicant perceptions affect recruiting outcomes such as organizational attraction (e.g., Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman, & Stoffey, 1993). The other stream of research investigates relationships between applicant attitudes and their performance in selection procedures (e.g., Arvey, Strickland, Drauden, & Martin, 1990; Bauer, Maertz, Dolen, & Campion, 1998). Although both streams are important in understanding applicant perceptions, emotions, and their behaviors (Ryan & Polyhart, 2000), the emphasis of this study is on the first main stream of research: investigation of a selection procedure and its influence on recruiting outcomes (i.e., applicant reactions). Specifically, this study focuses on the relationships between organizational attraction, job pursuit intentions, and perceived fairness. Figure 1 illustrates the proposed model of the study. Theoretical background, findings from previous studies, and development of hypotheses will be discussed in this chapter.

Figure 1: The Proposed Model of the Study
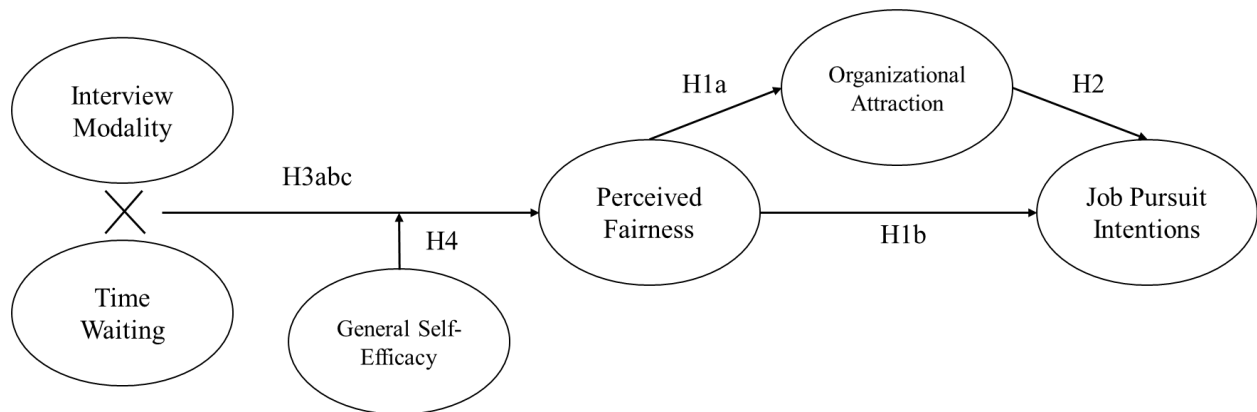
Organizational Attraction

Investigating which characteristics of an organization would attract applicants is arduous if not impossible due to the wide variation in individuals' preferences that influence individuals' attraction to organizations. However, researchers have identified certain factors that positively affect organizational attraction. For example, corporate social performance, which is defined as a firm's effort to accomplish its social responsibility (Carroll, 1991), is associated with organizational attraction (Turban & Greening, 1997). Applicants, especially those who have a wide spectrum of job choices, are more attracted to organizations that have strong corporate social responsibility programs, suggesting that being socially responsible enables organizations to create a pool of desired qualified applicants (Albinger & Freeman, 2000). Turban and Keon (1993) were interested in the effects of organizational characteristics such as size, geographic dispersion, pay structure, and centralization of decision-making on organizational attraction, and they found that organizations with decentralized decision-making systems and merit-based pay structures are perceived to be more attractive to applicants.

Applicants are also attracted to more familiar organizations. According to Turban (2001), there are two reasons why familiar organizations are attractive to applicants. First, people feel more comfortable with what is already known to them. Familiarity is built upon organizations' public relations, recruitment practices, and advertisements that usually contain positive information about the organization, and individuals exposed to such positive information form a positive attitude about organizations in accordance with the information available. Another reason familiarity breeds applicant attraction is based on social identity theory (Tajfel, 1979). People classify themselves as well as others into social categories based on organizational and religious memberships. Such classifications allow individuals to define their identity in society, and they feel pride to work for an organization that is widely known within the social circles to which they belong.

In addition to familiarity, the perceived tone of an organization can affect its desirability as a place to work. Lievens and Highhouse (2003) examine instrumental and symbolic attributes of organizational attraction. The instrumental-symbolic framework, which is commonly discussed in marketing literature, suggests that a consumer's choice about purchasing and using a product is not only based on its instrumental functions (e.g., the utility of a ball-point pen), but is also based on the symbolic image of using the product (e.g., using a luxurious fountain pen) that is related to self-identity and self-image (Aaker, 1997; 1999). Beyond job and organizational factors such as pay, location, and organizational structure, they posit that "applicants' initial attraction to an employing organization is also based on the symbolic meanings (in terms of inferred traits) that they associate with organizations" (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003, p. 77). In other words, some organizations possess traits that may be perceived by individuals as outdated while other organizations may be perceived to be trendy, and this symbolic function affects

applicants' desire toward organizations as a potential employer. This mechanism of organizational attraction explained by the instrumental-symbolic framework is somewhat similar to that of signaling theory. However, they differ because signaling theory focuses on how information (signals) shape perceptions about organizations (or how signals shape perceptions about labor) whereas the instrumental-symbolic framework focuses on the meaning and value of the information (instrumental versus symbolic) that is sent or shared.

Besides organizational characteristics, there are studies that focus on the impact of recruitment and selection procedures on organizational employment success. For example, Turban, Forret, and Hendrickson (1998) find that organizational attraction is associated with recruiter behavior. Another study conducted by Carless (2005) finds that perceived person-job and person-organization fit influences organizational attraction to applicants during the recruitment and selection procedure.

Perceived Fairness

Gilliland (1993) postulates that perceived fairness is associated with recruiting outcomes such as job application and acceptance decisions, in addition to other outcomes such as endorsement of the organization's products, self-esteem, and self-efficacy. Studies about perceived fairness in organizational contexts have their theoretical basis in organizational justice theory (Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1987; Gilliland, 1993). Organizational justice theory and its implications for recruitment/selection context will be discussed in this section.

Organizational justice theory (Greenberg, 1987) has inspired many researchers to examine how fairness operates in workplaces. Organizational justice states that employees' perception of fairness drives their behaviors in workplaces (Polyhart & Ryan, 1997). Organizational justice consists of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice, which is further divided into interpersonal and informational justice (Colquitt et al., 2001). Distributive justice focuses on fairness in the distribution of outcomes according to the social exchange theory framework (Adams, 1965). According to Adams, when people perceive how fair the distribution of outcomes are in organizations, they are concerned about whether the given outcome corresponds to individuals' perceived inputs (e.g., labor offered for a project, education, and intelligence). In other words, people are more interested in the amount of relative outcome distribution given to individuals rather than the absolute amount of the distribution. Therefore, distributive justice concerns how much credit for an outcome is distributed to an individual in comparison to others.

Procedural justice focuses on how decision-making procedures are administered and whether they are perceived to be administered accurately and consistently without any bias (Leventhal, 1980). According to Leventhal, Karuza, and Fry (1980), procedural justice demands that decision-making procedures be consistent across people and time, remain unbiased, based on accurate information, and should be corrected for any flawed decisions. Also, it should be ethical and open to opinions from various groups. Interactional justice is concerned with the degree of politeness, dignity, and respect presented by authorities (interpersonal justice) to those in a subordinate role, as well as the adequacy of explanation given to people for decisions made by the organization (informational justice) (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1993).

There have been many efforts to identify the effects of fairness in organizations. Procedural justice affects an individual's self-esteem (Siegel, Post, Brokner, Fishman, & and Garden, 2005) and interactional justice is associated with the likelihood of retaliation against the employer after lay-off decisions (Skarlicki, Barclay, & Pugh, 2008). Colquitt and colleagues (2001) found in their meta-analysis study of 183 justice-related studies that all four facets of justice (distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal) are related to several key outcomes in organizations such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and withdrawal. In the same study, procedural justice is highly correlated to outcome satisfaction, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and trust. Procedural justice is also moderately correlated to organizational citizenship behavior of organization (OCBOs).

Gilliland (1993) conceptualizes procedural justice rules using three categories: formal characteristics of procedures, explanation of procedures and decision making, and interpersonal treatment. Steiner and Gilliland (1996) investigated applicants' perceptions of fairness toward selection methods used in the United States and France. In the study, they measured college students' process favorability and perceived fairness of different selection techniques: interviews, résumé, work-sample tests, biodata, ability tests, personal references, personality tests, honesty tests, personal contacts, and graphology. Participants were given brief descriptions of each selection method and were asked to rate their favorability and the perceived fairness of each method. It was found that in the United States sample, interviews, résumé, and work-sample tests are most highly favored. Among seven procedural dimensions that were labeled as (a) scientific evidence, (b) employer's right to obtain information, (c) opportunity to perform, (d) interpersonal warmth, (e) face validity, (f) widespread use, and (g) respect for privacy, the

United States sample rated face validity, widespread use, and employer's right to obtain information as the most relevant components of favorability.

In the recruitment/selection context, Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, and Jones (2005) investigated predictors of recruiting outcomes in a meta-analysis involving 71 prior studies. In their study, dimensions of recruiting outcomes are defined as (a) job pursuit intentions (willingness to enter or stay in the applicant pool), (b) job-organization attractions (applicants' overall evaluation of the job and/or organization), (c) acceptance intentions (likelihood that an applicant would accept a job offer), and (d) job choice (whether to accept the real job offer). They investigated the relationship between recruiting outcomes and their predictors: job and organizational characteristics, recruiter characteristics, perceptions of the recruitment process, perceived fit, perceived alternatives, and hiring expectancies. Among other predictors, they found that justice perception is one of the most important predictors of job-organization attraction and job acceptance intention.

As described above, studies about applicant reactions demonstrate that determinants of favorable recruiting outcomes, which are conceptualized as organizational attraction and job pursuit intention, are closely related to perceived fairness (Chapman et al., 2005). However, it should be noted that the causality of the relationship between fairness perceptions and organizational attraction is not necessarily clear; Ryan and Polyhart (2000) propose that organizational attraction may be the cause that drives how applicants perceive selection procedures. Cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1962) may lead to distorted perceptions of applicants regarding selection procedures. For example, if an organization is attractive to a job applicant, the selection process of the attractive organization is regarded as "thorough" rather than "invasive" (Ryan & Polyhart, 2000). Building on the large body of research connecting

perceived fairness to attraction, it is hypothesized that perceived fairness will be positively related to organizational attraction. Likewise, it is expected that perceived fairness will also increase intentions to engage in job pursuit.

Hypothesis 1a: Applicants' perceived fairness will be positively related to organizational attraction.

Hypothesis 1b: Applicants' perceived fairness will be positively related to job pursuit intentions.

Job Pursuit Intentions

Chapman et al. (2005) suggests that "measuring acceptance intentions is the best available proxy variable for actual job choice" (p. 940) when measuring actual behavior is not feasible. Organizational studies in the context of recruitment have investigated the relationship between attitude and actual behavior (Chapman et al, 2005, Highhouse, Lievens, & Sinar, 2003). Those studies were conducted based upon the assumption that behavioral intentions will result in actual behaviors consistent with the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The theory of reasoned action describes how people's attitudes and behavior are associated; attitudes affect behavioral intentions and behavioral intentions then influence actual behaviors. Highhouse et al. (2003) studied the relationship among attraction to the organization, job pursuit intentions, and actual job pursuit behavior of undergraduate students based on company descriptions in recruitment booklets. In the study, the effects of organization attraction and prestige on actual pursuit behaviors were mediated by job pursuit intentions, supporting the postulations of the theory of reasoned action. Gully and colleagues (Gully, Phillips, Castellano, Han, & Kim, 2013)

also examined the relationship between organizational attraction and job pursuit intentions. Results of the study show that job pursuit intentions of 332 online job seekers are significantly predicted by organizational attraction; moreover, it was also found that organizational attraction fully mediates the relationship between perceived person-organization fit and job pursuit intentions.

Following prior findings of relationships between job pursuit intentions and organizational attraction (Chapman et al., 2005, Gully et al., 2013; Highhouse et al., 2003), this study will re-examine the relationship between organizational attraction and job pursuit intentions.

Hypothesis 2: Organizational attraction will increase job pursuit intentions.

Interview Modality

Traditionally, employment interviews are conducted through face-to-face interactions between interviewer(s) and interviewee(s) (Chapman et al., 2003). However, interviews are no longer constrained to face-to-face interactions. According to a survey conducted in 2013 by the Society for Human Resources Management (SHRM), only 34% of 383 HR practitioners who responded to the survey specified that their employing organizations never utilize online interviews (SHRM, 2014). Following this trend, Levashina and colleagues (2014) redefined an employment interview as "a personally interactive process of one or more people asking questions orally to another person and evaluating the answers for the purpose of determining the qualifications of the person in order to make employment decisions" (p. 243). This expansive definition can be applied to interviews conducted via any medium. One of the objectives of this

paper is to examine applicants' reactions towards different types of interview modality. It is expected that applicants who experience interviews via different modalities would feel differently about their job pursuit intentions as the nature of interaction changes with the change in modality.

Few studies have examined applicants' reactions towards interviews conducted via various modalities (Chapman et al., 2003; Kroeck & Magnusen, 1997; Straus, Milesb, & Levesquec, 2001). Straus et al. (2001) studied reactions of interviewers and interviewees by conducting mock interviews with 59 MBA students posing as applicants and PhD students posing as interviewers. Interviewees in the study reported that they felt more comfortable in face-to-face interviews than in videoconferencing interviews. They rated interviewers to be more likeable in face-to-face than videoconferencing and reported feeling more self-conscious about their behavior during face-to-face interviews than during phone interviews. Chapman et al. (2003) also conducted a field study to examine the effect of interview modality (face-to-face, videoconferencing, and phone) on perceived fairness, perceived interview difficulty, acceptance intentions, and expectancy of a favorable outcome. They found that face-to-face interviews are positively associated with higher perceived fairness than phone interviews.

There are two theories that may explain why the difference in applicant reactions relies on the type of interview modality: media richness theory and signaling theory. According to media richness theory (Daft & Lengel, 1986), richness of information varies by a specific medium of communication. Face-to-face interviews have more richness compared to videoconferencing and phone interviews because they provide the full spectrum of verbal cues (words spoken), paraverbal cues (vocal inflection and tone), and nonverbal cues (gestures). On

the other hand, videoconferencing offers a limited viewable space and shifts interaction from a three-dimensional space to a two-dimensional screen (Fletcher & Major, 2006). Therefore, video communication reduces the richness in information available to participants by restricting the amount of observable nonverbal cues. Phone communication further reduces information richness by completely eliminating nonverbal cues (McGrath & Hollingshead, 1993). In the context of an employment interview, a reduction in information richness limits individuals' cognitive interpretation of complex and subjective information (Levashina et al., 2014).

Signaling theory also plays a role in applicant reactions to interview modality because an invitation to a certain type of interview sends a signal to the applicant about how much the person is valued in the selection process (Chapman et al., 2003). The chosen way of conducting an employment interview may also be interpreted as a signal about future treatment of the applicant by the organization. Compared to face-to-face interviews, scheduling a technology-mediated interview may denote that the employing organization does not give appropriate attention to the applicants (Chapman & Rowe, 2002), or it may simply signal that the applicant is not valuable enough to earn a face-to-face interview. Either perception will affect the overall reactions of the applicant to the organization during the selection procedures. Therefore, one of the objectives of this study is to confirm the earlier findings of applicant reactions toward interview methods based on interview modality. As was found in a prior study (Chapman et al., 2003), in which face-to-face interviews yielded higher perceived fairness, it is also expected in the current study that applicants who experience face-to-face interviews will perceive more fairness to the interview process than those who experience phone interviews.

Hypothesis 3a: Face-to-face interviews will have higher perceived fairness than phone interviews.

Time Waiting

Waiting induces stress in people (Confer & Appley, 1964; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). When experiencing waiting, individuals perceive detrimental outcomes such as harm and loss of their well-being; spending non-useful time generates "psychological cost" that hinders initiation of planned activities and impairs people's performance (Suck & Holling, 1997). Waiting and its effects have been studied in healthcare and fast-food industries where delays in service produce financial damage to organizations, and it was found that perceived waiting time is a valuable predictor of customer satisfaction (Davis & Heineke, 1998; Thompson, Yarnold, Williams, & Adams, 1996; Tom & Lucey, 1997). However, in recruitment/selection contexts, the effects of time spent waiting have been given less attention.

Although there is no empirical study examining the effects of waiting in recruitment or selection contexts, Purser's (2006) recall of his experience as a day laborer may be helpful to understand such effects on people. Day laborers persistently experience job insecurity, and "the insecurity of employment propel many workers into a profound state of anxiety, condemned as they are to wait for an indeterminate length of time, never knowing from one day to the next whether they will get work" (p. 12). Waiting to be employed, especially if job seekers have to provide for their family, is very difficult.

Unfortunately, it is not only day laborers who have to go through waiting processes for employment. When looking for employment, people who are well-educated, capable, or even

well-experienced within a desired industry have to go through a certain type of waiting process to get a job. Most applicants do not only wait for the final results – whether they receive employment offer or not – but also during the selection processes which they must endure to reach the final decisions of the organization. Employment selection processes are vulnerable to delays. For example, a recruiter may suddenly experience a personal emergency that temporarily prevents him/her from engaging in interviews. Delays can occur for less drastic reasons as well, such as previously scheduled interviews that consume more time than allotted.

From an applicant's perspective, the agreed upon interview time is based upon a promise between the applicant and the employing organization. For the applicant, an interview time is regarded as a type of verbal contract, and applicants expect that the organization will commit to the timeliness of interview as much as applicants are committed. This is in accordance with the psychological contract described by Rousseau (1989). When a delay is foreseeable, the employing organization can notify applicants that the interview is getting delayed/cancelled due to unexpected problems and that the organization hopes to reschedule the interview soon. However, if the delay was not foreseeable due to emergencies, administrative reasons, or the recruiter's failure to inform the applicant, it is unlikely that the applicant would anticipate waiting for a reasonable cause. In such occasions, applicants will feel that the interview process is unfair in terms of procedural justice and informational justice, and this occasion can be taken as a signal that the organization does not care enough about its applicants and further, employees (Rynes, 1989; Spence, 1973). In addition, applicants may feel that they are disadvantaged by waiting, which may result in loss of their interview time (e.g., if there is another interview waiting for the interviewer). Concerns stemming from a perceived lack of consistency in administration may occur ("I must be the only one waiting") and their perceived opportunity to

perform will decrease ("I missed the best window when I was prepared for this interview"), causing applicants to perceive the whole interview process as less fair (Leventhal et al., 1980).

Waiting aggravates the stress of the interview process, and negative perceptions toward the interview can spill over to other parts of the selection process (Rynes & Barber, 1990). Therefore, one of the objectives in this study is to investigate the effect of time waiting on applicants' reactions to the employment interview.

Hypothesis 3b: Interviews will be perceived as less fair if the interview is conducted past the scheduled time (time waiting).

Interaction: Interview Modality and Time Waiting

If the interview is conducted through face-to-face interaction, applicants usually talk to a receptionist to check in and be guided to the waiting room. If a delay is expected, the receptionist may explain why there is a delay, or the applicant may observe why the interviewer(s) is/are not available (e.g., there is another interview in process at the time of waiting). Additionally, after a certain waiting time, a good-mannered interpersonal introductory interaction, such as handshaking between the interviewer and the applicant, may mitigate the applicant's negative feeling from the breach of the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989). It is also likely that the applicant will forget the negative feelings from waiting because of the interaction with the recruiter during the interview procedures, in accordance with the recency effect studied by Bjork and Whitten (1974). Taken together, although waiting time may induce stress and a sense of unfairness to applicants during face-to-face interviews, there are protective procedures employing organizations can take that may mitigate the unpleasant feeling involved with delays.

Compared to face-to-face interviews, however, technology-mediated interviews may induce more stress to applicants due to the limited information available in the contexts. Lazarus & Folkman (1984) refer to stress from a lack of event information as event uncertainty. During a phone interview, conversation with the receptionist, in-person observations, and interpersonal interactions are not available. Applicants are expected to wait without any notice or cue, and the uncertainty of the interview initiation aggravates the stress level. This can later result in a perception of unfairness during or after the actual interview, and applicants may develop a concern for the organization's lack of administrative consistency and their hindered opportunity to perform that are closely related to procedural justice dimensions (Gilliland, 1993). Combined with increased stress due to uncertainty (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) as well as reduced informational richness from a medium, which encumbers an individual's ability to process information (Levashina et al., 2014), phone interviews that involve waiting may result in increased perceived unfairness in comparison to a face-to-face interview with waiting.

Hypothesis 3c: Phone interviews will be perceived as less fair than a face-to-face interview if the interview is conducted past the scheduled time (time waiting).

Individual Difference: General Self-Efficacy

Nikolaou and Judge (2007) examined the moderating effect of individual personality differences, core self-evaluation in particular, by postulating that core self-evaluation makes a difference in individuals' perceived fairness of different selection procedures. Although the moderation effect was not statistically significant in the study, it called for rigorous examination

of individual differences in applicant reaction literature. In addition to core self-evaluation, there have been endeavors to find the connection between applicant reactions and other individual differences. Self-monitoring (Chapman et al., 2003), job search self-efficacy (Rynes & Connerley, 1993), individual's background (Macan, Avedon, Paese, & Smith, 1994; Rynes & Connerley, 1993), and desire for significant impact (Gully et al., 2013) were examined for their effects on applicant reactions. Costa and McCrae's (1992) Big Five personality dimensions (conscientiousness, Dineen, Noe, & Wang, 2004; openness to experience, Kohn & Dipboye, 1998) were also examined for their influence on applicant reactions. Despite the influential findings of prior studies, the effects of individual differences in selection procedures remain underexplored. This may be because personality variables might be considered less important for applicant reactions because of the many important factors that have been shown to influence applicants' reactions. Another possibility is that because personality variables have been a major focus of literature about job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000), their effects on applicant reaction are often neglected. In order to contribute to the findings on individual difference variables, the current study focuses on a trait-like individual difference variable, general self-efficacy (Eden, 1996), due to its relevance to coping strategies in stressful situations (Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

Defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands" (Wood & Bandura, 1989, p. 408), self-efficacy has been found to be associated with MBA students' entrepreneurial intentions (Hao, Seibert, & Hills, 2005), college students' self-set goal level, academic performance, satisfaction, mathematical problem solving, and psychological health (Coffman & Gilligan, 2003; Karademas & Kalantzi-Azizi, 2004; Pajares & Miller, 1994; Phillips & Gully, 1997;

Zajacova & Espenshade, 2005). The concept of self-efficacy first introduced by Bandura (1986) is task-specific. However, self-efficacy can be also a general estimation of oneself, working as a trait-like individual difference that pertains to the generalized feeling that one can be successful in a wide variety of achievement-oriented situations (Chen, Gully & Eden, 2001).

General self-efficacy is defined as "one's estimate of one's overall ability to perform successfully in a wide variety of challenging achievement situations" (Eden, 1996, p. 9). This definition of general self-efficacy differentiates itself from the task-specific self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986). Task-specific self-efficacy is a state-like construct that can be changed over time or in different contexts, whereas general self-efficacy is relatively stable over time, similar to cognitive ability and personality (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2004).

There are concerns about utilizing general self-efficacy in behavioral studies. For example, Bandura (1997) expresses his concern that general efficacy beliefs have little relationship to a specific task. However, by using a newly developed and validated scale, Chen and his colleagues (2001) have found that general self-efficacy and task-specific self-efficacy have strong, positive relationships. Judge and Bono's (2001) meta-analysis found that general self-efficacy is positively related to work performance, and Chen et al. (2004) found that the concept is associated with task performance through its direct relationships to motivational states that are "achievement/approach motivational processes" (p. 376).

According to Gist and Mitchell (1992), individuals who have a high level of task-specific self-efficacy are more persistent and better able to cope with difficult situations than individuals with a low level of task-specific self-efficacy. Similarly, individuals with high general self-efficacy are less vulnerable to external stressors than individuals with low general

self-efficacy because those with a high level of general self-efficacy are more confident in their abilities in general and less likely to fear failing on specific tasks (Chen, Gully, Whiteman, & Kilcullen, 2000).

In a stressful situation where employment insecurity and waiting are involved, individuals with high general self-efficacy are expected to be less vulnerable to stressors. Therefore, along with technology-mediated interview styles and time waiting, the moderating effect of general self-efficacy in the relationship among interview types, time waiting, and applicants' reactions will be examined within the current study.

> Hypothesis 4: The relationships between interview modality, time waiting, and perceived fairness will be weaker when individuals have a higher level of general self-efficacy. The relationships between interview modality, time waiting, and perceived fairness will be stronger when individuals have lower level of general self-efficacy.

Table 1: List of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1a	Applicants' perceived fairness will be positively related to organizational attraction.
Hypothesis 1b	Applicants' perceived fairness will be positively related to job pursuit intentions.
Hypothesis 2	Organizational attraction will increase job pursuit intentions.
Hypothesis 3a	Face-to-face interviews will have higher perceived fairness than phone interviews.
Hypothesis 3b	Interviews will be perceived as less fair if the interview is conducted past the scheduled time (time waiting).
Hypothesis 3c	Phone interviews will be perceived as less fair than face-to-face interview if the interview is conducted past the scheduled time (time waiting).
Hypothesis 4	The relationships between interview modality, time waiting, and perceived fairness will be weaker when individuals have higher level of general self-efficacy. The relationships between interview modality, waiting, and perceived fairness will be stronger when individuals have lower level of general self-efficacy.

In summary, the current study attempts to address four main objectives. First, the role of applicants' fairness perception on organizational attraction and job pursuit intentions will be examined. Second, the influence of organizational attraction on job pursuit intentions will be also

investigated. Third, based on media richness theory, signaling theory, and postulations of stress mechanisms, the effects of interview modality (face-to-face versus phone interviews) and time waiting, as well as the interaction of both on applicants' perceived fairness will be investigated. Lastly, the moderating effects of general self-efficacy on the relationships between interview modality, time waiting, and perceived fairness will be examined.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Participants

A total of 206 undergraduate students enrolled in a university located in the northeastern region of the United States participated in a paper-and-pencil experiment. Participation was voluntary, and there was no extra credit or monetary compensation provided for participation. Data cleaning procedures resulted in a total of 171 cases to be used for further analysis (for a detailed description of data cleaning procedures, please see Chapter 4). More of the participants were female (63.2%), and identified themselves as white/Caucasian (70.2%) and American (87.2%). Each class level was somewhat equally represented within the sample (Freshmen = 20.5%; Sophomore = 27.5%; Junior = 28.7%; Senior = 22.8%). Average age and GPA of the sample were 20.36 (SD = 1.75) and 3.27 (SD = .4), respectively. More detailed demographic information about participants is provided in Table 2.

Research Design

A 2×2 between-subjects factorial design was used for the study. Although lab experiments involving interviews for real job positions (e.g., research assistant) or a field study would be most appropriate for examining applicants' reactions to selection methods, data was collected through experimental survey for practical reasons. To my best knowledge, the current study is the first investigation that attempts to examine the interactions of interview modality, temporal variable (time waiting), and individual differences in selection contexts. Therefore, it was still deemed meaningful to investigate the effects of these variables on recruitment outcomes using a paper and pencil methodology with random assignment.

Participants were asked to answer questionnaire items designed to measure variables of interest, after reading a scenario and picturing a particular interview situation. There were four scenarios in total: two levels of interview modality (face-to-face and phone interview) and two levels of waiting conditions (time waiting and no-waiting). Each participant was given one scenario. In addition to the variables of interest and general self-efficacy, other individual difference variables such as time urgency (Conte, Ringenbach, Moran, & Landy, 2001), individual power distance orientation (Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009), and core self-evaluation (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003) were also measured as control variables.

Procedure

At the beginning of introductory-level business/industrial-relations classes, verbal introduction about the study was given to students, and then the scenarios/surveys were distributed. The summary explanation of the research was placed on top of the survey and students were asked for voluntary participation after being provided a brief explanation of the study. Upon consenting to participate in the survey, participants first responded to a set of questions that measured general self-efficacy, time urgency, power distance orientation, and core self-evaluation. Next, participants read a hypothetical employment interview scenario and were asked to imagine what it would be like to be in the interview situation. In order to improve participants' engagement with the scenarios, they were given instructions before reading the scenarios. The instruction asked participants to spend from one to two minutes to think about the context of the employment interview and to think about the answers to the interview questions asked by the hypothetical recruiter in the scenario. Those questions were generic to most interview contexts, addressing teamwork issues and communication styles. An example question

is, "You have an idea for a future project, but your manager disagrees with your idea. What would you do next?"

In addition to the behavioral instruction, a brief description of the employing organization was provided to help participants create concrete images of the hypothetical interview. However, due to varying individual preference for organization/job characteristics, the description of the organization was generalized as follows:

"You have applied for an entry-level job position relevant to your major in a large-sized company (approximately 500 or more employees). Expectations, responsibilities, salary level, and other information about the job position are consistent with other jobs that people in your major commonly take upon graduation."

Perceived fairness and organizational attraction were measured following reading and reflecting upon the scenario presented. In each participant's survey, one of the four possible scenarios was randomly presented. Four types of questionnaires (i.e., scenarios 1 to 4) were mixed beforehand for distribution. At the end of the survey, demographic questions were presented. Upon completion of survey, participants were given a debriefing form that briefly explained the main objectives of the current research. The average time taken for survey completion was approximately eight minutes in the pilot study for eight master's-level graduate students. The amount of time for the actual data collection was from 20 to 25 minutes in classrooms, including short verbal introduction, survey distribution, and survey collection with teaching assistants' help.

Manipulation Check

Within the questionnaires, four manipulation check items were included in order to test the effects of manipulations in the scenarios. Two items for interview modality and two for time waiting conditions were presented following each scenario. These items were included to screen out participants who failed to understand the instructions and scenarios. For interview modality, items inquiring what type of interview the participants went through in the hypothetical scenario and whether participants would have been able to observe the interviewer's non-verbal cues (facial expressions and gestures) if the hypothetical interview were real were used. For time-waiting/no-waiting conditions, participants were asked whether the interviewer began the interview on time and how long they had to wait before the interview to begin. Additionally, two items, labeled as Paying Attention, were included in the questionnaire to examine participants' attention paid while reading the scenario. These items asked about the contents of the hypothetical interview: "Which of the following questions was clearly asked during the interview?" and "When do you expect to hear back from the employer?" All six manipulation check and paying attention items were designed to be easily answered correctly if a participant actually read the scenario. For the full description of the manipulation check items, please refer to the appendix.

Independent Variables

Interview modality. Scenarios for interview modality were written based on the testimonies of master's-level graduate students who had recently experienced different types of interview modalities. Other contexts that might affect applicants' perceived fairness such as the structure of interview (a structured versus non-structured interview, Wiesner, & Cronshaw, 1988)

and interview question types (situational versus post-behavioral question, Campion, Campion, & Hudson, 1994) were controlled across scenarios for different modalities and time waiting conditions. Interview modality was manipulated through four sentences in paragraphs of each scenario. For example, the scenario of the face-to-face interview condition was presented as follows (manipulation was done in brackets []):

> You have a job interview today. It is going to be a [face-to-face] interview. In a [face-to-face] interview you will be interviewed [in an office to conduct an in-person interview with the hiring manager].

> "Hi, my name is Chris. Thank you for your time today. After today's interview, we hope you will have a better understanding of our company, the job, and the role you would be filling. I also prepared some questions about your personality and background to see if you are a good fit with our organization and the position." The interviewer then begins asking you questions [while you are seated at the desk in the office.]

Waiting past the scheduled time. Waiting condition was manipulated by changing one sentence in a paragraph of the scenario. The description of the scenario for the time waiting condition was as follows (manipulation was done in brackets []):

> Your interview time was confirmed a couple of days ago and you know it is time for the interview to start. [However, the company makes you wait for 45 minutes.]

For the no-waiting condition, "The company does not make you wait" was presented within brackets. For the waiting time condition, 45 minute-period was decided in order to correctly capture the waiting's impact on applicants. Compared to lab experiments in which participants actually wait under pressure, participants of the pilot study mentioned that 15 to 30

minutes of waiting in a quasi-experimental method may not be able to capture the sense of waiting through reading scenarios. An experienced recruiter, who could provide insights on the issue, also considered that practitioners may consider waiting for interviews less than 30 minutes to be an inconvenience but acceptable, whereas waiting more than half an hour would be extreme.

Harris and Fink's (1987) study indicated that recruiter characteristics may have impacts on applicants' perception of the job and the company, as well as the likelihood of joining the company. It was also postulated that gender and ethnicity of the interviewer, which can be inferred by the interviewer's name, may affect applicants' perceptions of interviews. According to a study about biases involved in forenames (Kasof, 1993), forenames may evoke their own attractiveness, stereotypes, and intellectual-competence connotation. Hence, the hypothetical interviewer in the scenarios was named "Chris," for its neutrality in regards to gender and ethnicity.

Dependent Variables

Unless otherwise noted, all the items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale.

Perceived fairness. Perceived fairness of applicants was measured by four items adapted from Steiner and Gilliland's (1996) research on applicants' fairness perception towards ten different selection methods. This scale was later used by other researchers to investigate intercultural differences in perceived fairness. The original version of the scale measures seven procedural justice dimensions: (a) selection method based on scientific research, (b) face validity of the method, (c) opportunity for the participant to perform, (d) interpersonal warmth of the method, (e) right of employers to obtain information using the method, (f) privacy considerations

that are addressed when using the method, and (g) the extent to how much popular the method is in the society.

Among these seven items, four items for face validity, opportunity to perform, employer's right to obtain information, and the selection method's widespread use were used in the current study ([b], [c], [e], and [g] from the list). Other items were excluded due to the lack of substantial relevance to this particular interview context and infeasibility to capture the construct by a paper-and-pencil experiment. The coefficient α estimate of internal consistency within the sample was .68.

Organizational attraction. Organizational attraction was measured by three items adapted from Highhouse et al. (2003). An example item is "For me, this company would be a good place to work." The coefficient α of the scale was .76.

Job pursuit intentions. Items for job pursuit intentions were also adapted from Highhouse et al. (2003). An example item is "If I was invited to another interview for this job, I would go." The coefficient α of the scale was .68.

Individual Differences

General self-efficacy. An eight-item scale, developed by Chen and his colleagues (2001), was used for measuring general self-efficacy. Example items include "I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself" and "When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them." The coefficient α of the scale was .87.

Control Variables and Demographic Questions

Due to their conceptual relevance, core self-evaluation (Judge et al., 2003), time urgency (general hurry and task-related hurry; Conte et al., 2001), and individual power distance orientation (power differential; Earley & Erez, 1997) were measured to control for their confounding effects on the variables of interest. As it has been found in previous studies that applicants' perceived fairness may vary by cultural contexts (Steiner & Gilliland, 1996), immigration status of respondents (whether participants hold the international student status) was also asked. Likewise, interview experiences, and other demographic information such as academic major, gender, age, ethnicity, GPA, and current academic standing were asked.

Statistical Methods

In order to investigate the relationships among variables in the study, a series of descriptive statistical analysis, univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA), and moderated regression analysis were employed. Also, a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were performed to establish that the measures of dependent variables are distinct from each other before regression analyses were conducted.

Chapter 4

Results

Data Cleaning Procedures and Descriptive Statistics

Upon completion of data collection, all responses were typed and coded into Microsoft Excel spreadsheets and then transferred to the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS 22). From the total number of 206 respondents, those who failed to respond to at least one item that measured dependent variables (N = 8) and failed to respond to more than two items within the entire survey (N = 5) were removed, resulting in 193 complete responses. Also, those who failed to correctly answer all items of any manipulation category and those who failed to provide the correct answer to three of the six overall manipulation check items (N = 22) were removed, resulting in a total of 171 respondents for further analysis. Missing values were estimated by substituting medians for each scale within each experimental condition. Reverse-coded items were re-calculated within SPSS by subtracting them from six. A series of ANOVAs were conducted to find out whether there are differences of dependent variables between those who were removed due to manipulation check screening and those who remained, and it was found that there were no significant differences except for organizational attraction in the face-to-face/no-waiting condition (F [1, 46] = 11.453, p < .01) and the phone/time-waiting condition (F [1, 46] = 8.226, p < .01). Those respondents were kept removed because such differences in responses would have resulted from misinterpreting scenarios.

Table 2: Demographics of the Sample

		FTF_Wait(N=40)		FTF_NoWait (N=42)		Phone_Wait (N=42)		Phone_NoWait (N=47)		Overall (N=171)	
	Variables	Mean(n)	SD(%)	Mean(n)	SD(%)	Mean(n)	SD(%)	Mean(n)	SD(%)	Mean(n)	SD(%)
1.	Age	20.85	2.637	20.17	1.591	20.12	1.152	20.32	1.304	20.36	1.751
2.	Class Freshmen	(6)	(15%)	(11)	(26.2%)	(8)	(19%)	(10)	(21.3%)	(35)	(20.5%)
	Sophomore	(11)	(27.5%)	(11)	(26.2%)	(12)	(28.6%)	(13)	(27.7%)	(47)	(27.5%)
	Junior	(13)	(32.5%)	(11)	(26.2%)	(12)	(28.6%)	(13)	(27.7%)	(49)	(28.7%)
	Senior	(10)	(25%)	(9)	(21.4%)	(10)	(23.8%)	(10)	(21.3%)	(39)	(22.8%)
	Not Reported	-	-	-	-	-	-	(1)	(2.1%)	(1)	(.6%)
3.	Gender Male	(15)	(37.5%)	(12)	(28.6%)	(15)	(35.7%)	(21)	(44.7%)	(63)	(36.8%)
	Female	(25)	(62.5%)	(30)	(71.4%)	(27)	(64.3%)	(26)	(55.3%)	(108)	(63.2%)
4.	GPA*	3.2713	0.4007	3.3062	.30817	3.2503	.45281	3.3327	.41110	3.2713	.4007
5.	Major LER	(7)	(17.5%)	(2)	(4.8%)	(5)	(11.9%)	(6)	(12.8%)	(2)	(11.7%)
	Business	(10)	(25%)	(6)	(14.3%)	(8)	(19%)	(12)	(25.5%)	(36)	(21.7%)
	Psych	(5)	(12.5%)	(7)	(16.7%)	(2)	(4.8%)	(3)	(6.4%)	(17)	(9.9%)
	HPA	(8)	(20%)	10	(23.8%)	(11)	(26.2%)	(6)	(12.8%)	(35)	(20.5%)
	Communication	(7)	(17.5%)	(8)	(19%)	(5)	(11.9%)	(7)	(14.9%)	(27)	(15.8%)
	Social Science	(3)	(7.5%)	(3)	(7.1%)	(3)	(7.1%)	(6)	(12.8%)	(15)	(8.8%)
	Natural Science	-	-	(2)	(4.8%)	(3)	(7.1%)	(3)	(6.4%)	(8)	(4.7%)
	Engineering	-	-	(1)	(2.4%)	(2)	(4.8%)	-	-	(3)	(1.8%)
	Others	-	-	(3)	(7.1%)	(3)	(7.1%)	(4)	(8.5%)	(10)	(5.8%)
6.	Ethnicity Arabic	(1)	(2.5%)	(1)	(2.4%)	(1)	(2.4%)	-	-	(3)	(1.8%)
	Asian	(6)	(15%)	(4)	(9.5%)	(5)	(11.9%)	(5)	(10.6%)	(20)	(11.7%)
	Black	(3)	(7.5%)	(3)	(7.1%)	(1)	(2.4%)	(5)	(10.6%)	(12)	(7%)
	Hispanic	(3)	(7.5%)	-	-	(3)	(7.1%)	(2)	(4.3%)	(8)	(4.7%)
	Native American	-	-	(1)	(2.4%)	(1)	(2.4%)	-	-	(2)	(1.2%)
	White	(26)	(65%)	(32)	(76.2%)	(30)	(71.4%)	(32)	(68.1%)	(120)	(70.2%)
	Other	(1)	(2.5%)	(1)	(2.4%)	(1)	(2.4%)	(3)	(6.3%)	(6)	(3.6%)
7.	Citizenship American	(33)	(82.5%)	(41)	(97.6%)	(38)	(90.5%)	(41)	(87.2%)	(153)	(89.5%)
	International	(4)	(10%)	(1)	(2.4%)	(1)	(2.4%)	(3)	(6.4%)	(9)	(5.3%)
	Not Reported	(3)	(7.5%)	-	-	(3)	(7.1%)	(3)	(6.4%)	(9)	(5.3%)

Note. *N* = 171. *N = 158; 13 respondents did not report. FTF = Face-to-face interview condition; Phone interview condition; Wait = Waiting condition; NoWait = Not waiting condition; LER = Labor and Employment Relations; HPA = Health Policy and Administration.
Business includes Golf Management, Hospitality Managemet, Tourism Management; Communication includes Public Relations; Social Science includes Criminology, Economics; Natural Science includes Animal Science; Others includes Liberal Arts, Theatre Design, English Literature.

Means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and correlations between variables are presented in Table 3. General self-efficacy demonstrated a weak but significant correlation with perceived fairness (r = .17, p < .05), and it correlated with power distance orientation (r = .23, p < .01) and general hurry (r = .36, p < .01). There was a moderate correlation between perceived fairness and organizational attraction (r = .38, p < .01) which necessitated mediational and moderating analyses to discover a more detailed relationship. General self-efficacy and core self-evaluations also highly correlated with each other (r = .76, p < .01); however, it was deemed that such correlation was because core self-evaluation contains general self-efficacy as one of its sub-dimensions. As the distinction between general self-efficacy and core self-evaluation was addressed in a prior study (Judge, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002), and as core self-evaluation will be

used as a control for later analyses, concerns for multicollinearity were tolerated. Analyses were

conducted with and without controls with similar conclusions. Additionally, as was expected

from findings of prior studies, two dependent variables, organizational attraction and job pursuit

intentions, had a high correlation (r = .77, p < .01), suggesting these two constructs may be part

of the same latent factor in the sample of the current study.

Table 3: Correlations and Descriptive Statistics

	Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.	Age	20.36	1.75	-										
2.	Class	2.54	1.06	.578**	-									
3.	Gender	0.63	0.48	-.247**	-.098	-								
4.	CSE	3.66	0.60	.070	.106	-.010	(0.872)							
5.	PD	2.27	0.55	-.005	.030	-.096	-.145	(0.654)						
6.	GH	3.46	0.72	-.004	.017	.095	.353**	-.227**	(0.764)					
7.	TH	3.42	0.83	.009	-.007	.063	-.238**	-.108	-.024	(0.769)				
8.	GSE	3.96	0.53	.093	.126	.005	.761**	-.231**	.361**	-.115	(0.87)			
9.	PF	3.71	0.62	-.036	-.090	.069	.105	-.135	.087	-.007	.165*	(0.683)		
10.	OA	3.31	0.71	-.192*	-.217**	.009	.065	-.024	-.067	-.111	.046	.386**	(0.764)	
11.	JPI	3.69	0.63	-.258**	-.262**	.045	.006	-.145	-.025	-.104	.042	.352**	.766**	(0.681)

Note. N = 171 except Class (N =170). Where applicable, coefficient alpha reliabilities in parenthesis on diagonal. Controls had no effect on substantive conclusions but are included in the correlation table. TH = Task-Related Hurry; GH = General Hurry; CSE = Core Self-Evaluation; PD = Power Distance Orientation; GSE = General Self-Efficacy; PF = Perceived Fairness; OA = Organizational Attraction; JPI = Job Pursuit Intentions.
*p ≤ .05, two-tailed. **p ≤ .01, two-tailed.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Due to high correlations among dependent variables, especially between organizational

attraction and job pursuit intentions, a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using AMOS

22 were conducted to establish that the measures of perceived fairness (PF), organizational

attraction (OA), and job pursuit intentions (JPI) are distinct from each other.

First, all three dependent variables in the measurement model were allowed to freely

covary as latent constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The χ2 coefficient as well as other fit

indices such as RMSEA and NNFI were investigated to assess the model fit; although not great,

the model yielded a decent fit ($\chi2$= 84.495, df = 32, p < .01, RMSEA = .098, NFI = .858, NNFI = .866, CFI = .904).

Constraining all three dependent variables into a single factor significantly reduced fit ($\Delta\chi2$= 73.285, Δdf = 3, p < .01, RMSEA = .144, NFI = .735, NNFI = .713, CFI = .776), indicating at least some of the dependent variables were distinct from the others. Constraining PF and OA to be the same latent factor also resulted in a significant decrement in model fit ($\Delta\chi2$= 72.841, Δdf = 2, p < .01, RMSEA = .146, NFI = .735, NNFI = .703, CFI = .775). Forcing PF and JPI into the same factor also resulted in a significant decrement in model fit ($\Delta\chi2$= 73.223, Δdf = 2, p < .01, RMSEA = .146, NFI = .735, NNFI = .702, CFI = .775). However, combining OA and JPI failed to produce a reduced fit ($\Delta\chi2$= .852, Δdf = 2, p = .6531, RMSEA = .094, NFI = .856, NNFI = .876, CFI = .907), suggesting the current sample could not differentiate JPI from OA.

This finding contradicts previous studies that investigated the relationships between OA and JPI (Chapman et al, 2005, Gully et al., 2013; Highhouse et al., 2003). It is postulated that such a result is due to the sample characteristics of the current study. The current study uses a sample different from workplace samples that distinguish how much they are attracted to the organization (OA) from how much effort they will put in to pursue work within an organization (JPI). Undergraduate students who lack professional experiences do not seem to distinguish these factors as much. Additionally, these students were not actively looking for jobs, which could have influenced such distinctions. Considering the demographics of the sample in which mean age is 20.35 and many of respondents are either freshmen or sophomores, it is likely that respondents are less conscious of the difference between being attracted to an organization and actually pursuing work within an organization, thereby responding identically to the questionnaire items of OA and JPI. Significant correlations between age and OA (r = .19, p

< .01) as well as age and JPI (r = .25, p < .01) support such reasoning. As OA was deemed to be more closely related to individuals' job choice decisions than JPI, JPI was excluded from the further analysis while keeping OA.

Hypotheses Testing

In order to investigate interactions between interview modality, waiting, and moderating variables, the procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1991) were used. General self-efficacy (GSE), PF, and control variables were mean-centered before regression analyses were conducted. Interaction terms between interview modality (IM), time waiting (TW), and GSE were created by multiplying centered variables: IM×TW, IM×GSE, TW×GSE, and IM×TW×GSE variables were created.

Hierarchical regression analyses predicting PF and OA from the list of variables were performed. In Step 1, control variables – gender (dummy coded as 1 for female), age, task-related hurry, general hurry, individual power distance orientation, and core self-evaluation – were entered. By entering control variables in the first step, investigations of relationships between predictors and dependent variables of interest are allowed in later steps. In Step 2, GSE was entered as a predictor in order to examine its main effects. In Step 3, IM and TW were entered for their main effects. IM was coded as 0 if the hypothetical interview in the scenario was face-to-face interview and coded as 1 if it was phone interview. Likewise, TW was coded as 0 if waiting was not involved in the scenario and 1 if participants had to wait within the hypothetical interview. In Step 4, a two-way interaction term, IM×TW, was entered for its interaction effects. In Step 5, other two-way interaction terms, IM×GSE and TW×GSE, were entered in order to investigate the two-way interactions between predictors of primary interest

and the moderator, GSE. Lastly, the three-way interaction term, IM×TW×GSE, was entered in Step 6. When predicting OA as the dependent variable, all the steps were identical except that there was an additional step, Step 7, in which PF was entered.

Hypothesis 1a predicted that applicants' perceived fairness would be positively related to organizational attraction. As it can be seen in Step 7 of the right hand column in Table 4, perceived fairness significantly predicted organizational attraction (β = .346, ΔR^2 = .092, $\Delta F[1, 156]$ = 21.191, p < .01), providing support for Hypothesis 1a. Hypothesis 1b and Hypothesis 2 specified that job pursuit intentions would be predicted by perceived fairness and organizational attraction. However, due to the high correlation as well as the CFA results examining the distinction between OA and JPI, Hypothesis 1b and 2 could not be tested in the current study. Hypothesis 3a predicted that face-to-face interviews would result in higher perceived fairness than phone interviews. Interview modality significantly predicted perceived fairness (Step 3; β = -.238, ΔR^2 = .055, $\Delta F[2, 161]$ = 4.870, p < .01). As the phone interview condition was dummy coded as 1, the increase in interview modality (i.e., changing from face-to-face interview to phone interview) significantly predicted lower perceived fairness, providing support for Hypothesis 3a.

Hypothesis 3b predicted that waiting conditions will result in lower perceived fairness. Time waiting conditions failed to significantly predict perceived fairness (Step 3; β = -.006, ΔR^2 = .055, $\Delta F[2, 161]$ = 4.870, p = .931), however, it significantly predicted organizational attraction (Step 3; β = -.305, ΔR^2 = .112, $\Delta F[2, 161]$ = 11.000, p < .01). Hypothesis 3c predicted interactions between interview modality and time waiting on perceived fairness. However, the interaction term, IM×TW, failed to significantly predict perceived fairness (Step 4; β = -.149, ΔR^2 = .007, $\Delta F[1, 160]$ = 1.287, p = .258).

Table 4: Regression Results with Continuous Predictors Mean Centered

Steps	Variables	Perceived Fairness		Organizational Attraction	
		B	β	B	β
1	**Control Variables: Gender, Age, TH, GH, CSE, PD**				
	R²	.031		.064	
	ΔR²	.031		.064†	
	ΔF(6, 164)	.863		1.865†	
2	**GSE**	.206	.175	.053	.040
	R²	.043		.064	
	ΔR²	.012		.001	
	ΔF(1, 163)	2.066		.108	
3	**IM**	-.295**	-.238**	-.209*	-.148*
	TW	-.008	-.006	-.432**	-.305**
	R²	.097		.177	
	ΔR²	.055**		.112**	
	ΔF(2, 161)	4.870**		11.000**	
4	**IM×TW**	-.215	-.149	.012	.007
	R²	.105		.177	
	ΔR²	.007		.000	
	ΔF(1, 160)	1.287		.003	
5	**IM×GSE**	.693**	.436**	.273	.150
	TW×GSE	-.322†	-.191†	-.395*	-.205*
	R²	.217		.212	
	ΔR²	.113**		.035*	
	ΔF(2, 158)	11.403**		3.471*	
6	**IM×TW×GSE**	.468	.188	.700†	.245†
	R²	.227		.227	
	ΔR²	.009		.016†	
	ΔF(1, 157)	1.886		3.228†	
7	**PF**	-	-	.396**	.346**
	R²			.320	
	ΔR²			.092**	
	ΔF(1, 156)			21.191**	
	Total R²	.227**		.320**	

Note. N = 171. All coefficients are B (unstandardized) and β (standardized) weights of centered variables. TH = Task-Related Hurry, GH = General Hurry, CSE = Core Self-Evaluation, PD = Power Distance Orientation, GSE = General Self-Efficacy, TW = Time Waiting before the Interview, IM = Interview Modality, PF = Perceived Fairness. For the full list of variables and coefficients, please refer to appendix.
†p <.1, *p ≤ .05, **p ≤ .01, two-tailed.

Lastly, Hypothesis 4 predicted that relationships between interview modality, waiting, and perceived fairness would be moderated by general self-efficacy. As it can be seen in Step 5 and Step 6, the interaction term between interview modality and general self-efficacy (IM×GSE) significantly predicted perceived fairness (Step 5; β = .436, ΔR² = .113, ΔF[2, 158] = 11.403, p

< .01). The interaction between time waiting and general self-efficacy (TW×GSE) also significantly predicted perceived fairness (Step 5; β = -.191, ΔR² = .113, ΔF[2, 158] = 11.403, p = .065). Despite the statistical significance of two-way interactions, the three-way interaction term of the variables (IM×TW×GSE) failed to significantly predict perceived fairness (Step 6; β = .188, ΔR² = .009, ΔF[1, 157] = 1.886, p = .172), although it predicted organizational attraction (Step 6; β = -.245, ΔR² = .016, ΔF[2, 157] = 3.228, p = .074). Simple slopes analysis between IM/GSE and TW/GSE on perceived fairness, as well as IM/TW/GSE on organizational attraction are plotted in Figures 2, 3, and 4.

Figure 2: Moderating Effect of General Self-Efficacy on the Relationship between Interview Modality and Perceived Fairness
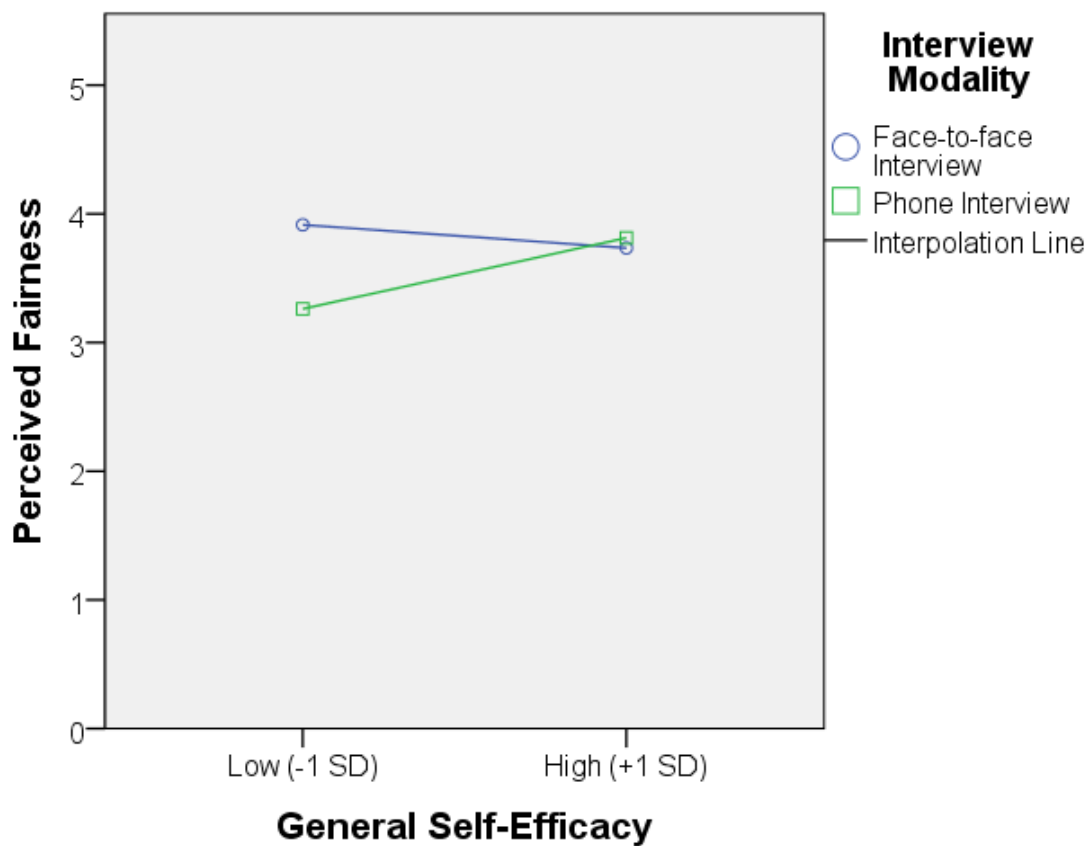
**Figure 3: Moderating Effect of General Self-Efficacy on the Relationship between Time Waiting and Perceived Fairness**
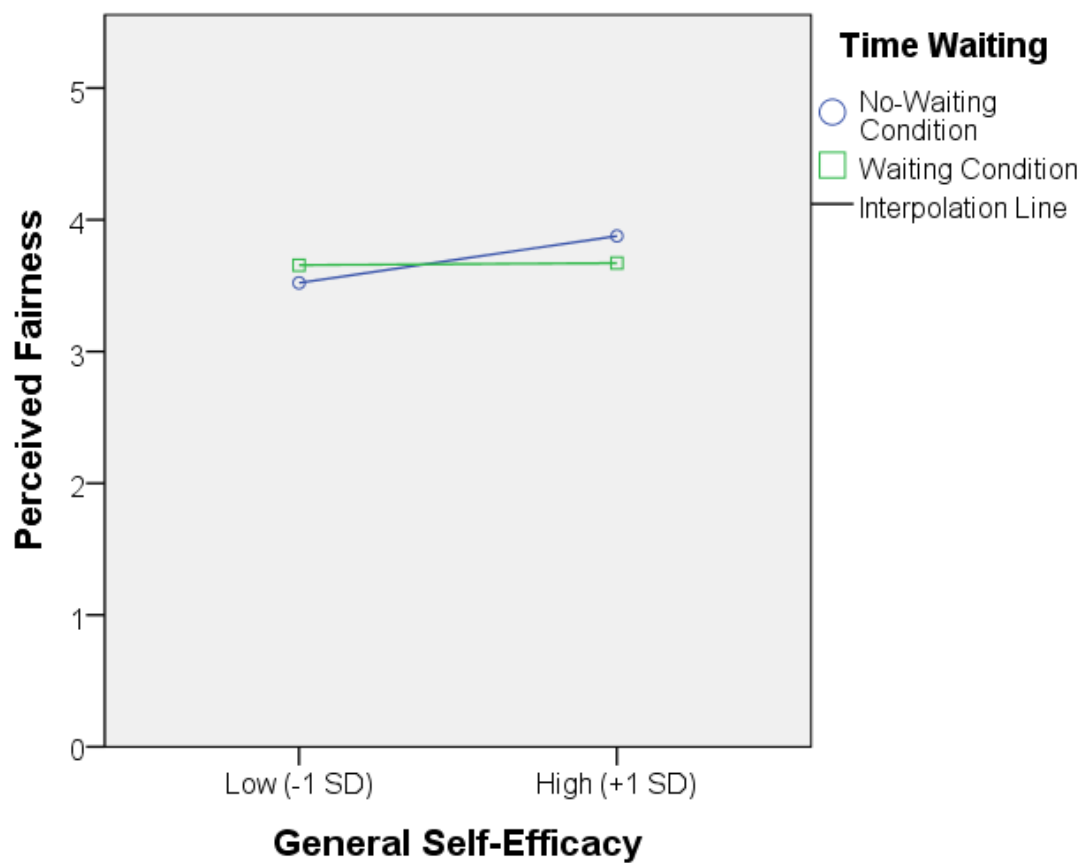
Figure 4: Moderating Effects of General Self-Efficacy on the Relationships among Interview Modality, Time Waiting, and Organizational Attraction
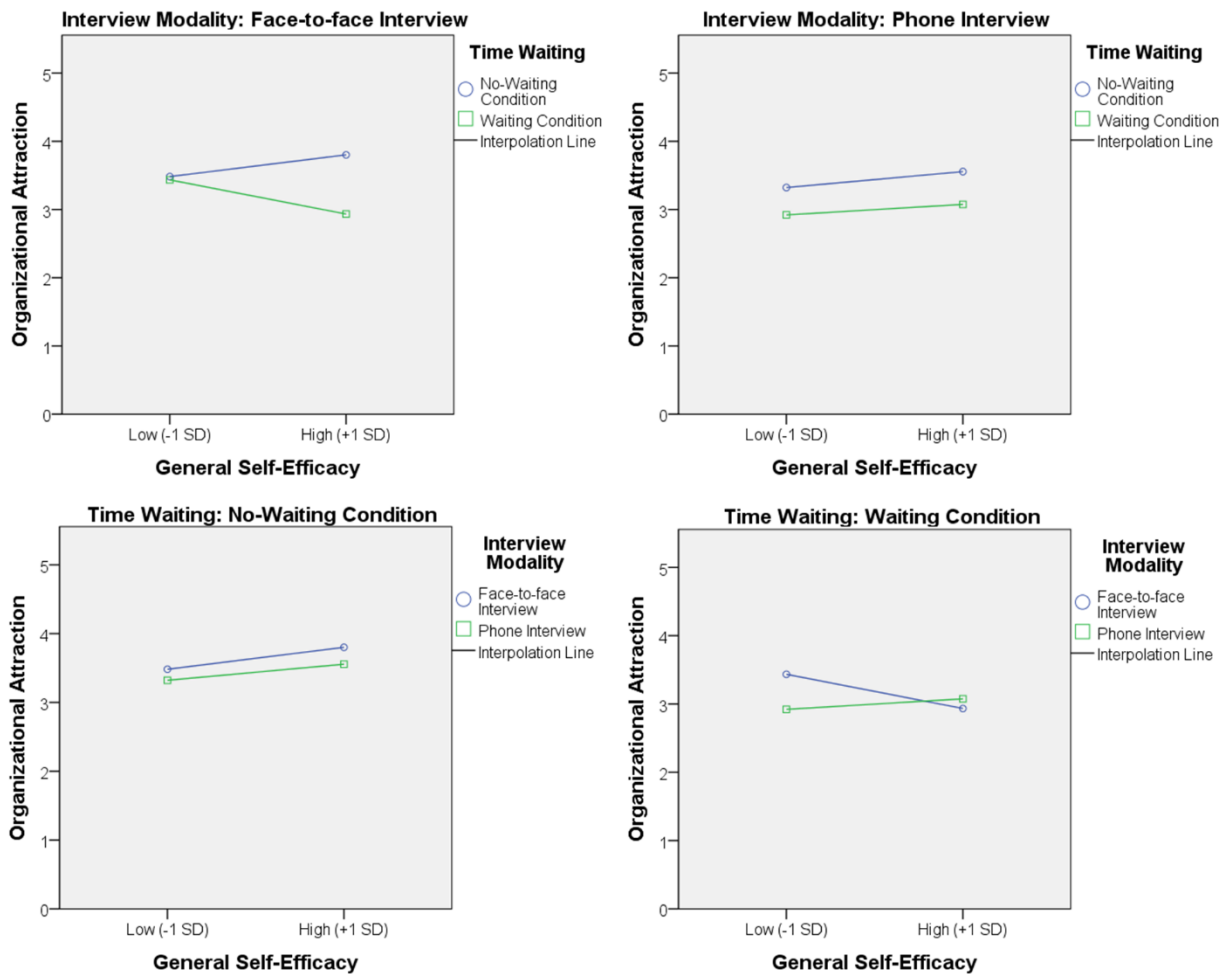
Chapter 5

Discussion

According to the results, perceived fairness is positively related to organizational attraction, and face-to-face interviews have higher perceived fairness than phone interviews. Time waiting before an interview significantly reduced organizational attraction but did not affect applicants' perceived fairness to the hypothetical interviews. There were no interaction effects between interview modality and time waiting. However, relationships between each independent variable and perceived fairness were moderated by general self-efficacy (IMxGSE and TWxGSE). There was a significant three-way interaction of interview modality, time waiting, and general self-efficacy (IMxTWxGSE) when predicting organizational attraction, although the interaction term did not predict perceived fairness. Such effects of variables were consistent even when control variables were partially or entirely excluded from the regression analyses, suggesting the findings may be robust to the inclusion of different control variables and independent from the influences of other potential factors. Tables 5 and 6 show the changes of coefficients and statistical significance depending on control variables entered for regression analyses. The implications of findings are discussed in this chapter.

Table 5: Coefficient Change Depending on Control Variables (Perceived Fairness)

Steps	Variables	All Included* β	p-value	No CSE but All Others β	p-value	Steps	No Control at all β	p-value
1	Controls	-	-	-		-	-	-
2	GSE	.175	.153	.142	.094	1	.165	.031
3	IM	-.238	.002	-.239	.002	2	-.242	.001
	TW	-.006	.931	-.006	.931		-.010	.895
4	IM×TW	-.149	.258	-.149	.256	3	-.121	.348
5	IM×GSE	.436	.000	.436	.000	4	.438	.000
	TW×GSE	-.191	.065	-.190	.064		-.177	.075
6	IM×TW×GSE	.188	.172	.186	.173	5	.190	.159

Note. Dependent Variable: Perceived Fairness; β = Standardized coefficients; Coefficients are from different steps. *All Included = Age, Power Distance Orientation, Task-Related Hurry, General Hurry, Gender, Core Self-Evaluation.

Table 6: Coefficient Change Depending on Control Variables (Organizational Attraction)

Steps	Variables	All Included* β	p-value	No CSE but All Others β	p-value	Steps	No Control at all β	p-value
1	Controls	-	-	-		-	-	-
2	GSE	.040	.743	.082	.329	1	.046	.549
3	IM	-.148	.045	-.142	.052	2	-.120	.100
	TW	-.305	.000	-.305	.000		-.324	.000
4	IM×TW	.007	.953	.012	.926	3	.052	.681
5	IM×GSE	.150	.169	.153	.160	4	.128	.240
	TW×GSE	-.205	.049	-.197	.057		-.194	.060
6	IM×TW×GSE	.245	.074	.238	.083	5	.262	.060
7	PerceivedFairness	.346	.000	.347	.000		.362	.000

Note. Dependent Variable: Organizational Attraction; β = Standardized coefficients; Coefficients are from different steps. *All Included = Age, Power Distance Orientation, Task-Related Hurry, General Hurry, Gender, Core Self-Evaluation.

Theoretical Implications

To the best of my knowledge, the current study is one of the first attempts to investigate the influence of a temporal variable (time waiting) in selection contexts. In industries where temporal variables are closely related to its organizational success (e.g., healthcare and fast-food industries), the effects of waiting has been a focus of research (Davis & Heineke, 1998; Thompson et al., 1996; Tom & Lucey, 1997). However, time waiting has not been a major concern in selection contexts so far. In order to find out whether time waiting before an employment interview would possibly bring negative impacts to recruiting outcomes, the current study investigated its effects by imposing waiting conditions to hypothetical interviews in which two different types of modality (face-to-face and phone interviews) were used; organizational attraction was significantly predicted by time waiting. Colquitt and colleagues (2001) found that perceived fairness influences several key organizational outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction and organizational commitment). Although time waiting did not significantly predict perceived

fairness in the current study, the detriments brought by failing to being timely on selection

procedures may carry negative spillover effects on other organizational outcomes. Whereas

findings of the current study may suggests a new predictor for interviewing and recruiting

outcomes, there are still many questions that need to be answered. It is hoped that future research

would identify the detailed mechanisms of how waiting affects applicants' reactions to selection

methods and whether there are other organizational outcomes that are vulnerable to the influence

of time waiting.

     Signaling theory. Signaling theory suggests that applicants interpret an organization's

signals as a tool to infer information about the organization (e.g., Spence, 1973). The attributes

of organizations and applicants' experiences during recruiting procedures act as indicators of

applicants' potential future life as an employee within the organization (Gully et al., 2013). The

interview method is one of the most popular selection methods in businesses (Arvey, 1979;

Macan, 2009), and hence, negative interview experiences may impact applicants' desire to work

for the organization (Ryan et al., 2000; Schmit & Ryan, 1997). In the current study, perceived

fairness and organizational attraction were investigated to see whether the two variables are

affected by the types of interview methods. While controlling other organizational characteristics

by providing written instructions, conducting a phone interview instead of a face-to-face

interview decreased both the applicants' perceived fairness and organizational attraction. It is

postulated that applicants are affected by interview modality because it signals how much they

are valued within the organization.

     The current study also suggests that, whether it is due to technical or administrative

reasons, merely having candidates wait without notice before a selection procedure may

influence applicants' overall perceptions of organizations. Applicants may consider that if an

organization is not timely or considerate enough during selection procedures, it signals that the organization does not commit as much as applicants do during the selection procedures. There is evidence that time waiting affects applicant reactions but we don't know enough about why or when such effects may happen.

Instrumental-symbolic framework of organizational attraction. According to the instrumental-symbolic framework of organizational attraction, applicants, who are consumers of job positions, perceive organizations not only based on conspicuous organizational characteristics (e.g., size or geographic locations), but also the symbolic traits that can be inferred by direct or indirect interaction (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003). Assuming that individuals apply for organizations that they want to work for (i.e., inferred symbolic traits of the organizations are positive rather than negative), unexpected time waiting during selection procedures hinders organizational attraction as it substitutes the applicants' positive perception of the organization with more negative perceptions.

Effects of the type of interview on applicant reactions. The signaling theory and instrumental-symbolic framework of organizational attraction explain the dynamics of how job applicants' perception towards an organization is influenced by the organization's selection procedures. According to the signaling theory, signals sent from an organization allow applicants to gain additional information about the organization when they interpret the signals. The instrumental-symbolic framework further explains that an organization, which demonstrates fair selection procedures, are perceived as having a "fair" trait, providing positive information of what it would be like to work in the organization. In the current study, perceived fairness significantly predicted organizational attraction, reaffirming the findings of Chapman et al. (2005) in which a medium size effect of justice perceptions was reported when predicting job-

organization attraction.

It was suggested by prior studies (Chapman & Rowe, 2002; Chapman et al., 2003) that interview modality significantly predicts perceived fairness and organizational attraction. In the current study, phone interviews were associated with lower perceived fairness and lower organizational attraction than face-to-face interviews. It suggests that the type of job interview applicants are invited to participate in is indeed meaningful for them. Time waiting condition before an interview also significantly predicted organizational attraction. However, contrary to the initial postulation that time waiting would affect applicants' perceived fairness, it did not significantly predict perceived fairness, bringing questions of why there is such a discrepancy.

In the current study, perceived fairness was measured by four items of face validity, opportunity to perform, employer's right to obtain information through the selection method, and the selection method's wide use. Although applicants who waited before the interview may feel unpleasant that they perceive the potential employer negatively (i.e., decreased organizational attraction), applicants did not consider the time waiting as necessarily unfair. It is postulated that time waiting may be an already widely accepted practice in people's awareness of selection methods. Job information sources that are easily available on the internet (e.g., Monsters.com or Glassdoor.com) often discuss that applicants should expect a certain amount of waiting time before an interview actually begins, implying the time waiting is inherent in administration of selection procedures. Applicants (i.e., in this study, undergraduate students) who access such information from the internet or from their friends may become less conscious about the degree of fairness in time waiting, suggesting the time waiting to be a less meaningful predictor of perceived fairness. Additionally, applicants may think that it is the employer's right to use whatever methods organizations consider is appropriate for selection methods. Whether it is

unintentional (e.g., administrative reasons) or intentional (e.g., intentionally putting them into a stressful situation) applicants just accept the time waiting, making the time waiting as a negligible predictor of perceived fairness.

Future research should examine whether the amount of time waiting or the cause of the waiting influences applicant reactions, including fairness and attraction. It is possible, even likely, that waiting caused by negligence (e.g., forgot to call) versus waiting caused intentionally (e.g., intentionally causing stress) versus waiting caused by context (e.g., an emergency occurred) will have different influences on applicant reactions. Controllable causes of waiting (e.g., scheduled it wrong) are likely to bring more intense negative reactions than uncontrollable causes of waiting (e.g., unexpected event). It is possible that the cause of waiting could have more influence on perceived fairness than whether or not waiting occurred. Also providing reasonable explanation of waiting may make a difference in perception of the organization when waiting is unavoidable.

Contrary to initial postulations, the interaction of interview modality and time waiting could not significantly predict perceived fairness and organizational attraction. However, it may be due to the study design in which experiments were conducted through paper-and-pencil survey. It is likely that individuals who actually go through a real interview may experience the anxiety and confusion that the interaction of both variables brings. More research is needed to better understand the interaction effects on applicant reactions – whether such interaction would exist in lab experiments or real selection contexts.

General self-efficacy. Ryan and Ployhart (2000) called for rigorous research to better understand the role of individual differences in applicant reactions to selection methods. Due to

its relevance to stress coping strategies, general self-efficacy was investigated for its moderating effects on the relationships between independent variables (interview modality and time waiting) and applicant reactions (perceived fairness and organizational attraction). As can be seen in Figure 2, those who have higher level of general self-efficacy were less sensitive to interview modality when predicting perceived fairness. Also, individuals with higher general self-efficacy perceived the interviews generally fairer than those with lower general self-efficacy (Figure 3). However, once the waiting condition was induced, the moderating effects of general self-efficacy dissipated. When predicting organizational attraction within face-to-face interviews, those with a higher level of general self-efficacy were especially sensitive to time waiting condition than those with lower level. Time waiting generally yielded lower organizational attraction regardless of the general self-efficacy level during phone interviews.

Self-efficacy is related to coping strategies of individuals in stressful situations (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 postulated that applicants with high level of general self-efficacy – who, in other words, have the belief that they would be successful in any challenging tasks – would be less affected by stressors such as reduced richness in information and time waiting. Whereas higher general self-efficacy indicated lower sensitivity to interview modality when predicting perceived fairness (Figure 2), they were more vulnerable to waiting in regards to organizational attraction during face-to-face interviews (Figure 4). When it was no-waiting condition, individuals with higher general self-efficacy demonstrated higher perceived fairness than those with lower general self-efficacy in any interview modality, but once waiting is induced, those with higher general self-efficacy reacted more negatively to face-to-face interviews with waiting condition than phone interviews with waiting condition. Although general self-efficacy's vulnerability to time waiting on organizational attraction was not

hypothesized, it contradicts initial expectations that high general self-efficacy would predict lower sensitivity to time waiting.

It is postulated that those with higher general self-efficacy may be less concerned with internal factors that can be controlled by themselves, such as regulating their own feelings or behaviors during interviews, whereas they may be more concerned with factors that are not controllable by them. Therefore, rather than internal stressors, they put more weights on external stressors which may hinder their performance during selection procedures. For example, an applicant with a higher level of general self-efficacy might think that he/she could have performed much better during the interview because he/she believes in himself, but consider that the external factors (i.e., waiting) prohibited the applicant from performing to his/her optimal level ("I know I could have done better if they didn't have me wait"). It is also likely that they may believe in their efficacy in a wide variety of achievement oriented challenges (Chen et al., 2001), but this belief does not necessarily prevent individuals' negative affects towards organizations. As it can be seen in Figure 3, no considerable difference was found in perceived fairness between those who have higher level of general self-efficacy and those with lower level once the time waiting condition was induced. It is likely that once applicants were forced to wait under pressure before an important event, their beliefs in themselves may not be as relevant as it should be during no-waiting conditions. More research is needed to find out how the mechanism of general self-efficacy operates in applicant reactions to selection procedures.

Practical Implications

The instrumental-symbolic framework of organizational attraction denotes that organizational attraction does not shape only from instrumental functions (e.g., job or

organizational characteristics) but it is also affected by the symbolic images of organizations (e.g., responsible) (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003). Socially responsible organizations are more likely to attract applicants who have more job acceptance choices (Albinger & Freeman, 2000; Turban & Greening, 1997), indicating that best candidates in the job market would be more conscious of symbolic images of companies and would be more willing to accept offers from "socially responsible" companies than just "big and influential" companies. Fair practices done by an organization would act as a signal that the organization cares about not only its shareholders but also other stakeholders involved and the organization would strive to bring fairness throughout the applicants' future employment within the organization.

The treatment of applicants is likely to have spillover effects to other aspects of an organization's operating functions and business. Gilliland (1993) postulated that perceived fairness during selection procedures would be associated with consumers' endorsement of the organization's products. Crever (1997) found that customers carefully consider the ethicality of an organization's behavior during product purchase decisions, by being willing to spend premiums for buying products from ethical firms. Experiences from the interaction with the employing organization may spread to the applicants' family and friends. Practitioners should be aware that positive experiences of applicants during selection procedures may bring positive outcomes to organizations through spillover effects with other people within that person's relationship network, and negative treatment can result in negative spillover effects.

It should be noted that conducting technology-mediated interviews instead of face-to-face interviews may have its advantages. For example, it may be an effective selection tool for certain purposes. Organizations might be interested in verifying communication skills while the applicant is talking through phone calls if the core skill necessary for the job position is

telephone communication. Telemarketers, fundraisers or service-representatives may primarily operate making or receiving phone calls, and the phone interview may be an effective tool to screen out those who may be physically attractive (thus favorable) but less capable when they are "off-screen." Additionally, it may also reduce recruiter's bias, such as similar-to-me bias (Rand & Wexley, 1975) or biases from the physical attractiveness of interviewees (Pingatore et al., 1994) resulting from factors that may fall outside of interviewees' knowledge, skills, and ability (KSAs).

Organizations should work to minimize time waiting because of its possible negative impacts on applicant reactions. There may be some rare instances in which time waiting conditions may be intentionally created in order to devise a stress interview, but generally this would not be advised because of the negative perceptions it may engender.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

The current study has its limitations. The survey design enabled participants to experience imaginary selection interviews. It also constrained the realism of anxiety which interviewees would generally experience during real job interviews. Despite the methodological bias, the stability of regression coefficients yielded from variations to entering control variables suggests that the findings may be consistent and robust. More research is needed to better understand the contexts in which time waiting and general self-efficacy affects perceived fairness and organizational attraction.

This study is not free from selection bias as well. Due to practical reasons, undergraduate students were recruited for participation. Although there were certain variations in the demographics of participants, most of the participants majored in business or business-related

fields, and identified themselves as Caucasian and American. Considering there may be discrepancies in applicants' perceived fairness or organizational attraction across different countries or cultural values, more research is required to understand whether the findings of the current study is vulnerable to cultural indices. For example, in countries that are characterized as exhibiting relatively high power distance orientation (e.g., China, Singapore, or United Arab Emirates) the negative effects of time waiting on applicant reactions may be mitigated, as individuals may think that employers have the right to obtain information through any techniques employers find useful. Uncertainty avoidance may play a part in cultural differences too. In countries where ambiguity in event occurrence is not tolerable (i.e., uncertainty avoidance is high), the effects of time waiting, which brings more uncertainty to selection procedures, may be more destructive to applicant reactions than in the countries where individuals possess high tolerance to ambiguity (Hofstede, 2011).

Compared to previous studies in which participants were able to differentiate job pursuit intentions from organizational attraction (Chapman et al, 2005, Gully et al., 2013; Highhouse et al., 2003), the current study in which participants were undergraduate students considered the two constructs as the same, bringing questions about the incongruity in findings. It is deemed that such incongruity is due to the characteristics of the sample; undergraduates who lack professional experiences in organizations may not consider the difference between how attractive an organization is for them to work for (organizational attraction) and how much they want to pursue the job to get employed in the organization (job pursuit intentions). However, the response rate for respondents' previous organizational experience was not at the appropriate level, possibly due to the placement of questionnaire items at the end of the survey or just simply due to lack of full time employment. Therefore, the effects of the respondents' previous

organizational experience could not be taken into account in the current study. Other factors could have operated in the failure to differentiate the constructs. Maybe the distinction between organizational attraction and job pursuit intentions are not substantial to entry-level job seekers or people not actively searching for jobs. Applicants may need a certain period of deliberation or experience to find out what kind of organization (e.g., person-organization fit) or job (e.g., person-job fit) would be the best choice for them before they could differentiate job pursuit intentions from organizational attraction. Before applicants understand what they truly want for their career choices, such a distinction may be less meaningful for them.

Finally, continuous research is required to better understand the dynamics of what elements of a selection procedure would affect applicant reactions and how it affects organizational effectiveness. Although the current study addressed how modality, time waiting, and general self-efficacy would explain certain recruiting outcomes, there are still vast research opportunities to better understand the contexts. Would the findings of the study be replicated in a lab experiments or field study? Would the detrimental impacts of time waiting be aggravated in the contexts of videoconferencing or online video-recording interviews? Would there be any difference in applicant reactions when applicants are invited to online video-recording interviews in which they record responses to certain questions by themselves without recruiters, compared to other technology-mediated interviews that involve human interaction? In an online video-recording interview in which the applicants could log-in to a designated website, would there be any difference if recruiters give them a discretion when to record the interview responses compared to the cases applicants should log-in at an exact time (e.g., Monday 7:00 PM)? What if discretion is given to choose the modality in which employment interview will be conducted – would it increase applicants' perceived fairness to the selection tool or attraction of the

organization?

In the same manner, there are many questions waiting to be answered in regards to the effects of individual differences in selection contexts. Is anger related to applicants' perception of selection procedures and organizations? Is it more likely that those who easily get angry to seemingly unjust treatment or the sense of being less-valued than other candidates, would be more sensitive to technology-mediated interviews or time waiting? Would job-seekers' perceived competitiveness within the candidate pool moderate applicant reactions to the employing organizations? It is also likely that self-esteem or psychological capital would operate in the mechanism of applicant reactions. It is hoped that future research would identify the details of mechanisms on applicant reactions.

Chapter 6

Conclusions

Despite previous endeavors to understand how organizations can achieve its success in recruitment and selection, we still do not understand the mechanism of what organizational or job characteristics would attract more and better candidates. This study addressed interview modality's effects on applicant reactions, and newly suggested that a new variable, time waiting, would impact applicant reactions during selection procedures. Interview modality significantly predicted both perceived fairness and organizational attraction. Also, time waiting significantly predicted organizational attraction, but it did not predict perceived fairness, affirming the distinction of two constructs. General self-efficacy was investigated for its moderating effects in the relationships between predictors (interview modality and time waiting) and dependent variables (perceived fairness and organizational attraction). Further research should examine additional factors that predict applicant reactions to selection methods, models that better explain the mechanism of applicant reactions, and specific contexts in which certain variables (e.g., time waiting) would bring more positive or negative consequences to organizational outcomes.

APPENDIX

Appendix A: Scenarios

*Scenarios***:** waiting and interview modality are manipulated in brackets [].

You have a job interview today. It is going to be a [face-to-face / phone] interview. In a [face-to-face / phone] interview you will be interviewed [in an office to conduct an in-person interview with the hiring manager / using the telephone to conduct a phone-based interview with the hiring manager].

Your interview time was confirmed a couple of days ago and you know it is time for the interview to start. [However, the company makes you wait for 45 minutes. / The company does not make you wait.] Someone contacts you and you are now being interviewed.

"Hi, my name is Chris. Thank you for your time today. After today's interview, we hope you will have a better understanding of our company, the job, and the role you would be filling. I also prepared some questions about your personality and background to see if you are a good fit with our organization and the position." The interviewer then begins asking you questions [while you are seated at the desk in the office / while you are seated at a desk talking over the telephone]

Questions include:

- Tell me why you want to work for this company.

- You have an idea for future project, but your manager disagrees with your idea. What would you do next?

- Think about a time when you were working in a team and the team was struggling to perform well. How did you help your team to achieve its goal?

After answering all questions, Chris, the manager, says:

"Thank you so much for interviewing with me today. We will get back to you as soon as possible."

You thank Chris and the conversation ends.

Appendix B: Measures Grouped by Constructs

Scenario Specific Questions
1. What type of interview did you do? (**Manipulation Check - Modality #1**)
  a) Face-to-face
  b) Video conference
  c) Phone
  d) Group or panel
  e) Outdoors

2. Which of the following questions was clearly asked during the interview? (**Paying Attention #1**)
  a) Preferred office location
  b) Reasons you want to work for this company
  c) How many years of education you have
  d) Expected salary

3. When do you expect to hear back from the employer? (**Paying Attention #2**)
  a) Today
  b) In a week
  c) In two weeks
  d) In a month
  e) Not specified

4. Did the interviewer begin the interview on time? (**Manipulation Check - Waiting #1**)
  a) Yes   b) No

5. How long did you wait before the interview to begin? (**Manipulation Check - Waiting #2**)
  a) 0 minutes
  b) 15 minutes
  c) 30 minutes
  d) 45 minutes
  e) 60 minutes

6. If the interview described was real, would you be able to see the interviewer's facial expressions and gestures during the interview? (**Manipulation Check - Modality #2**)
  a) Yes   b) No

7. How many times have you personally experienced the type of interview (e.g., face-to-face or phone interview) described in the scenario before? For no experience, please put zero (0).

Dependent Variables (shaded items were not used for the current study)
Procedural Justice: Adapted from Steiner, D. D., & Gilliland, S. W. (1996). Fairness reactions to personnel selection techniques in France and the United States. Journal of Applied Psychology, 81(2), 134-141.

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. The interview method used is based on solid scientific research.					
2. The interviewing approach is a logical one for identifying qualified candidates for the job in questions.					
3. The interview method will detect important qualities of the individual that differentiate them from others.					

	SD	D	N	A	SA
4. The selection interview is impersonal and cold. (r)					
5. Employers have the right to obtain information using the interview method.					
6. The interview method invades personal privacy. (r)					
7. The interview method is widely used.					

Attraction to the Organization: General Attractiveness of the Organization (GA) & Job Pursuit Intentions (JP)
Adapted from Highhouse, S., Lievens, F., & Sinar, E. F. (2003). Measuring attraction to organizations. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 63, 986-1001.

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. For me, this company would be a good place to work.(GA)					
2. This company is attractive to me as an employer.(GA)					
3. I am interested in learning more about this company.(GA)					
4. I would accept an offer from this job.(JP)					
5. If I was invited to another interview for this job, I would go.(JP)					
6. I would exert a great deal of effort to work in this particular job.(JP)					

Individual Differences

General Self-Efficacy (NGSE): From Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a new general self-efficacy scale. Organizational Research Methods, 4(1), 62-83.

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.					
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.					
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.					
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.					
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.					
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.					
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.					
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.					

Core Self-Evaluation (CSES): From Judge, T. A., Erez, A., Bono, J. E., & Thoresen, C. J. (2003). The core self-evaluations scale: Development of a measure. Personnel Psychology, 56, 303-331.

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.					
2. Sometimes I feel depressed. (r)					
3. When I try, I generally succeed.					
4. Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless. (r)					
5. I complete tasks successfully.					
6. Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work. (r)					
7. Overall, I am satisfied with myself.					
8. I am filled with doubts about my competence. (r)					
9. I determine what will happen in my life.					
10. I do not feel in control of my success in my career. (r)					
11. I am capable of coping with most of my problems.					
12. There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me. (r)					

Time Urgency: General Hurry (GH) and Task-Related Hurry (TH)

From Conte, J. M., Ringenbach, K. L., Moran, S. K., & Landy, F. J. (2001). Criterion-validity evidence for time urgency: Associations with burnout, organizational commitment, and job involvement in travel agents. Applied HRM Research, 6(2), 129-134.

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. I am slow doing things. (GH, r)					
2. I like work that is slow and deliberate. (GH, r)					
3. I often work slowly and leisurely. (GH, r)					
4. My spouse or a close friend would rate me as definitely relaxed and easy going. (GH, r)					
5. I usually work fast. (GH)					
6. I often feel very pressed for time. (TH)					
7. I am usually pressed for time. (TH)					
8. I am often in a hurry. (TH)					

Individual-Level Power Distance Orientation: Power Differential
From Earley, P. C., & Erez, M. (1997). The transplanted executive: Why you need to understand how workers in other countries see the world differently. New York: Oxford University Press. **Used in** Kirkman, B. L., Chen, G., Farh, J. L., Chen, Z. X., & Lowe, K. B. (2009). Individual power distance orientation and follower reactions to transformational leaders: A cross-level, cross-cultural examination. Academy of Management Journal, 52(4), 744-764.

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. In most situations managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates.					
2. In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.					
3. Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective.					
4. Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it.					
5. Employees should not express disagreement with their managers.					
6. Managers should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others.					
7. Managers who let their employees participate in decisions lose power.					
8. A company's rules should not be broken, not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest.					

Demographic Questions

1. What is your gender?
   a) Male
   b) Female

2. What is your age? (e.g., 19)

   [   ]

3. What is your current class year in the university?
   a) Freshman
   b) Sophomore
   c) Junior
   d) Senior
   e) Graduate
   f) Not applicable (e.g., certificate/non-degree program)

4. What is your major? Please indicate the first major if you have more than one.
   a) Labor and Employment Relations or related (School of Labor and Employment Relations)

        b) Business or related (Smeal Business School)
        c) Psychology
        d) Social science (in general)
        e) Engineering (in general)
        f) Natural science (in general)
        g) Others (please specify your major below)

        [   ]

5. What is your ethnicity?
        a) Arabic
        b) Asian
        c) Black/African American
        d) Hispanic/Latino
        e) Native American
        f) White/Caucasian
        g) Others (please type your answer below)

        [   ]

6. Are you an international student (hold F-1/J-1 visa or others)?
        a) Yes
        b) No

7. International Students Only: How long have you stayed in the United States? (in years)

        [   ]

8. Please indicate your total length of working experience in organizations in months (e.g., summer internship, full-time/part-time employment).

        [   ]

9. What is your GPA? If not applicable (e.g., first semester), please put zero(0).

        [   ]

10. If you have any suggestions or thoughts, please share with the researcher.

        [   ]

Appendix C: Summary Explanation of Research

SUMMARY EXPLANATION OF RESEARCH
The Pennsylvania State University

Title of Project: Applicant Reactions to Different Employment Interview Modalities and Waiting after the Scheduled Time: Examination of the Moderating Effects of General Self-Efficacy

Principal Investigator: Juseob Lee
Telephone Number: (469) 601-9145

Advisor: Dr. Stanley Gully

Advisor Telephone Number: (814) 867-5698

We are asking you to participate in a research study. This summary explanation of research form provides you with information about the research prior to your decision about whether you should participate.

I would appreciate and value your participation in the study but whether or not you participate is up to you. You can choose not to take part in the study, you can agree to take part and later change your mind, or you can complete the study.

Please feel free to ask questions about anything that is unclear to you and take your time in making your choice.

This research is interested in understanding the relationships among employment interview methods, individual characteristics (e.g., personality), and job applicants' responds to different types of interviews.

In this study, you will be given a survey that contains questions about your general feelings and perceptions of yourself and then your feelings about a hypothetical employment interview scenario.

You will be asked to fill out the questionnaires on the following pages. First, you will find a set of questions asking about your general feelings and perceptions of yourself. Second, you will be asked to read carefully a given scenario about an interview situation and to imagine yourself in that situation. Third, you will be asked to answer a set of questions about your feelings in response to the scenario. Finally, some questions asking about your demographic information will be presented at the end. The entire survey from beginning to end should take 10 to 15 minutes.

Your participation is **voluntary** and **anonymous**, and you may decide to stop at any time. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer. If you choose not to participate, you can just leave all the questions blank and give it back to the researcher later.

If you have questions or concerns, you should contact Juseob Lee at (469) 601-9145 or **jzl227@psu.edu (preferred)**. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject or concerns regarding your privacy, you may contact the Office for Research Protections at 814-865-1775.

**Your participation implies
your voluntary consent to participate in the research.**

<END OF THE SUMMARY EXPLANATION OF RESEARCH>

Appendix D: Questionnaire

Instruction: Think about your own feelings concerning each of the following statements below. As you are filling out these items, it is essential your responses reflect your general feelings and attitudes, not based on the perceptions of others.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree (SD)	Disagree (D)	Neutral (N)	Agree (A)	Strongly Agree (SA)

Please mark (v) within each box	1 SD	2 D	3 N	4 A	5 SA
I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.					
A company's rules should not be broken, not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest.					
I often feel very pressed for time.					
I like work that is slow and deliberate.					
Managers who let their employees participate in decisions lose power.					
When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.					
Managers should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others.					
I am usually pressed for time.					
In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.					
I often work slowly and leisurely.					
In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.					
I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.					
Employees should not express disagreement with their managers.					
I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.					
I am slow doing things.					
Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective.					
I am often in a hurry.					

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree (SD)	Disagree (D)	Neutral (N)	Agree (A)	Strongly Agree (SA)

Please mark (v) within each box	1 SD	2 D	3 N	4 A	5 SA
Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.					
Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it.					
Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.					
My spouse or a close friend would rate me as definitely relaxed and easy going.					
I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.					
I usually work fast.					
In most situations managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates.					
I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.					
Sometimes I feel depressed.					
When I try, I generally succeed.					
Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless.					
I complete tasks successfully.					
Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work.					
Overall, I am satisfied with myself.					
I am filled with doubts about my competence.					
I determine what will happen in my life.					
I do not feel in control of my success in my career.					
I am capable of coping with most of my problems.					
There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me.					

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Instructions:

You are about to answer questions in which you are to imagine yourself in an interview scenario.

You have applied for an entry-level job position relevant to your major in a large-sized company (approximately 500 or more employees).

Expectations, responsibilities, salary level, and other information about the job position are consistent with other jobs that people in your major commonly take upon graduation. If it helps, you are encouraged to use your own and other's personal interview experiences to create an image of what it would like to be in the following hypothetical interview situation.

For example, you can use stories you have heard from your friends or family to better imagine the interview scenario.

Please spend enough time (1 to 2 minutes) to create an image in your mind of what it would be like in the interview situation.

Also, please think carefully about how you would answer to the interviewer's questions.

Scenario is omitted in this document.

For questionnaires, same questions are used for all four scenarios.

Please answer following items according to **your feelings and the images you pictured in your mind when you read the scenario**. Please circle (O) one response for each question.

1. What type of interview did you do?
- a) Face-to-face
- b) Video conference
- c) Phone
- d) Group or panel
- e) Outdoors

2. Which of the following questions was clearly asked during the interview?
- a) Preferred office location
- b) Reasons you want to work for this company
- c) How many years of education you have
- d) Expected salary

3. When do you expect to hear back from the employer?
- a) Today
- b) In a week
- c) In two weeks
- d) In a month
- e) Not specified

4. Did the interviewer begin the interview on time?
- a) Yes
- b) No

5. How long did you wait before the interview to begin?
- a) 0 minutes
- b) 15 minutes
- c) 30 minutes
- d) 45 minutes
- e) 60 minutes

6. If the interview described was real, would you be able to see the interviewer's facial expressions and gestures during the interview?
- a) Yes
- b) No

7. How many times have you personally experienced the type of interview (e.g., face-to-face or phone interview) described in the scenario before? For no experience, please put zero (0).

Please rate the following statements according to your feelings and the images you pictured in your mind when you read the scenario, from "Strongly Disagree (1)" to "Strongly Agree (5)."

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree (SD)	Disagree (D)	Neutral (N)	Agree (A)	Strongly Agree (SA)

Please mark (v) within each box	1 SD	2 D	3 N	4 A	5 SA
I would exert a great deal of effort to work in this particular job.					
The interview method used is based on solid scientific research.					
For me, this company would be a good place to work.					
I would accept an offer from this job.					
The interviewing approach is a logical one for identifying qualified candidates for the job in questions.					
The selection interview described in the scenario is impersonal and cold.					
I am interested in learning more about this company.					
The interview method invades personal privacy.					
If I was invited to another interview for this job, I would go.					
This company is attractive to me as a potential employer.					
Employers have the right to obtain information using the interview method.					
The interview method will detect important qualities of the individual that differentiate them from others.					
The interview method is widely used.					

The following questions are asking your information. Your information will be kept anonymous, confidential, and only used for research purposes. Please circle (O) one for each question.

1. What is your gender?
    a) Male
    b) Female

2. What is your age? (e.g., 19)

3. What is your current class year in the university?
    a) Freshman
    b) Sophomore
    c) Junior
    d) Senior
    e) Graduate
    f) Not applicable (e.g., certificate/non-degree program)

4. What is your major? Indicate the major that best identifies you if you have more than one.
    a) Labor and Employment Relations or related
        (School of Labor and Employment Relations)
    b) Business or related (Smeal Business School)
    c) Psychology
    d) Social science (in general)
    e) Engineering (in general)
    f) Natural science (in general)
    g) Others (please specify your major below)

5. What is your ethnicity?
    a) Arabic
    b) Asian
    c) Black/African American
    d) Hispanic/Latino
    e) Native American

f) White/Caucasian

g) Others (please type your answer below)

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6. Are you an international student (hold F-1/J-1 visa or others)?

    a) Yes

    b) No

7. **International Students Only**:

    How long have you stayed in the United States? (in years)

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8. Please indicate your total length of working experience in organizations in months
(e.g., summer internship, full-time/part-time employment).

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Thank you for your participation.

9. What is your GPA? If not applicable (e.g., first semester), please put zero (0).

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10. If you have any suggestions or thoughts, please share it with the researcher.

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<END OF THE SURVEY>

Appendix E: Regression Results with Continuous Predictors Mean Centered (Original)

Regression Results With Continuous Predictors Mean Centered

Steps	Variables	Perceived Fairness		Organizational Attraction	
		B	β	B	β
1	Intercept	-.040	-	.027	-
	Gender	.063	.049	-.043	-.029
	Age	-.011	-.030	-.083**	-.205**
	TH	-.002	-.002	-.081	-.095
	GH	.025	.028	-.109	-.110
	CSE	.083	.081	.104	.088
	PD	-.126	-.112	-.065	-.051
	R²	.031	-	.064	-
	ΔR²	.031	-	.064†	-
	ΔF(6, 164)	.863	-	1.865†	-
2	Intercept	-.040	-	.027	-
	Gender	.063	.049	-.043	-.029
	Age	-.013	-.037	-.084**	-.207**
	TH	-.008	-.011	-.083	-.097
	GH	.012	.014	-.112	-.113
	CSE	-.048	-.046	.070	.059
	PD	-.107	-.095	-.060	-.047
	NGSE	.206	.175	.053	.040
	R²	.043	-	.064	-
	ΔR²	.012	-	.001	-
	ΔF(1, 163)	2.066	-	.108	-
3	Intercept	.135	-	.351**	-
	Gender	.035	.027	-.056	-.038
	Age	-.022	-.063	-.082**	-.202**
	TH	.002	.003	-.069	-.080
	GH	-.003	-.004	-.110	-.111
	CSE	-.005	-.005	.096	.081
	PD	-.089	-.079	-.046	-.036
	NGSE	.190	.162	.047	.035
	IM	-.295**	-.238**	-.209*	-.148*
	TW	-.008	-.006	-.432**	-.305**
	R²	.097	-	.177	-
	ΔR²	.055**	-	.112**	-
	ΔF(2, 161)	4.870**	-	11.000**	-
4	Intercept	.077	-	.354**	-

	Gender	.041	.032	-.056	-.038
	Age	-.026	-.073	-.082**	-.201**
	TH	.001	.001	-.069	-.080
	GH	-.001	-.001	-.110	-.111
	CSE	.002	.002	.096	.081
	PD	-.092	-.082	-.046	-.036
	NGSE	.193	.164	.047	.035
	IM	-.193	-.156	-.215	-.152
	TW	.104	.084	-.439**	-.309**
	IM×TW	-.215	-.149	.012	.007
	R²	.105	-	.177	-
	ΔR²	.007	-	.000	-
	ΔF(1, 160)	1.287	-	.003	-
5	Intercept	.077	-	.336**	-
	Gender	.060	.047	-.026	-.018
	Age	-.020	-.056	-.077*	-.189*
	TH	-.006	-.008	-.068	-.079
	GH	-.057	-.066	-.148†	-.149†
	CSE	.013	.013	.116	.098
	PD	-.071	-.063	-.033	-.026
	NGSE	-.010	-.008	.092	.068
	IM	-.186	-.150	-.203	-.143
	TW	.066	.053	-.457**	-.322**
	IM×TW	-.203	-.141	.023	.014
	IM×NGSE	.693**	.436**	.273	.150
	TW×NGSE	-.322†	-.191†	-.395*	-.205*
	R²	.217	-	.212	-
	ΔR²	.113**	-	.035*	-
	ΔF(2, 158)	11.403**	-	3.471*	-
6	Intercept	.074	-	.332**	-
	Gender	.058	.045	-.029	-.020
	Age	-.020	-.056	-.077*	-.189*
	TH	.002	.003	-.056	-.066
	GH	-.055	-.063	-.144†	-.145†
	CSE	.022	.021	.130	.110
	PD	-.071	-.063	-.033	-.025
	NGSE	.131	.111	.302	.225
	IM	-.187	-.151	-.203	-.143
	TW	.065	.052	-.458**	-.323**
	IM×TW	-.207	-.144	.017	.010
	IM×NGSE	.457†	.287†	-.081	-.044
	TW×NGSE	-.576**	-.342**	-.776**	-.402**
	IM×TW×NGSE	.468	.188	.700†	.245†
	R²	.227	-	.227	-

ΔR²	.009	-	.016†	-
ΔF(1, 157)	1.886	-	3.228†	-
7 Intercept	-	-	.303*	-
Gender	-	-	-.052	-.035
Age	-	-	-.069*	-.169*
TH	-	-	-.057	-.067
GH	-	-	-.123†	-.124†
CSE	-	-	.121	.102
PD	-	-	-.005	-.004
NGSE	-	-	.251	.186
IM	-	-	-.129	-.091
TW	-	-	-.484**	-.341**
IM×TW	-	-	.099	.060
IM×NGSE	-	-	-.262	-.144
TW×NGSE	-	-	-.548*	-.284*
IM×TW×NGSE	-	-	.515	.180
PF	-	-	.396**	.346**
R²		-	.320	-
ΔR²		-	.092**	-
ΔF(1, 156)		-	21.191**	-
Total R²	.227**	-	.320**	

Note. N=171. All coefficients are B weights of centered variables except Gender. Newly entered variables at each step are in italic. TH=Task-Related Hurry, GH=General Hurry, CSE=Core Self-Evaluation, PD=Power Distance Orientation, NGSE = General Self-Efficacy, IM=Interview Modality, TW=Waiting before the Interview, PF=Perceived Fairness.

†p <.1, two-tailed. *p ≤ .05, two-tailed. **p ≤ .01, two-tailed.

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