Assessing fit in the interview: How candidates consider content and context cues to Person Organization Fit

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(ABSTRACT)

The interview is the ideal opportunity for the job candidate to assess his/her fit with a potential employer. While much research from the recruiting literature shows that candidates' perceptions of PO Fit lead to important outcomes such as intentions to pursue a position and acceptance of job offers, fewer studies explore how such fit perceptions are formed. The current study utilized a policy capturing approach to model how individuals interpret and combine cues from the interview experience as they formulate their perceptions of PO Fit. The cues tested included interview question content and the contextual variables of interviewer behavior and interview process factors. College students read a series of interview scenarios where these cues were manipulated, and provided their reactions about PO Fit, as well as about fairness and the ultimate decision to pursue an employment relationship. Although values-related question content was predicted to be most influential in the determination of PO Fit, the contextual factors more strongly affected all outcomes. Furthermore, for many participants, the relationships between these contextual effects and the outcome variable (intention to continue in the selection process) were mediated by perceptions of PO Fit and fairness. Considerable intercorrelation among the three dependent variables was found, and could be attributed to limitations of the method employed or job seekers' generalized and non-focused reactions following interviews. Additional research is needed to further investigate PO Fit perceptions from interview stimuli; suggestions and implications are discussed.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

During the employee selection process, both the organization and the candidate are seeking a good fit. The degree to which the characteristics of the person and the characteristics of the organization align is generally known as Person-Environment Fit (PE Fit). Perhaps the most common consideration of fit deals with the match between the person's knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) and the task requirements of the specific job. However, it is also recognized that there are advantages of matching personal factors of the individual with social and cultural aspects of the organization. It has been argued that applicants are "at least as concerned about picking the right organization as about choosing the right job (Ng & Burke, 2005, p. 1197)."

Person Organization Fit (PO Fit) is one facet of PE Fit, and involves how an employee's values, personality, goals, and other personal characteristics are compatible with the organization's values, goals, climate, and other cultural properties. Research shows that once on the job, higher levels of PO Fit lead to increased job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and extra-role pro-social behavior (Cable & Judge, 1996, 1997). Newer studies indicate that PO Fit is also influential during pre-hire phases. During recruitment and selection, employers assess the level of PO Fit between the candidate and the organization, and favor applicants who more closely match the characteristics of the organization (Cable & Judge, 1997; Chuang & Sackett, 2005). Similarly, the extent to which job candidates perceive PO Fit with a potential employer predicts important variables such as organizational attraction, acceptance of extended job offers, and intentions to apply for a job, remain in the selection process, or accept a job offer (e.g., Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnston, 2005).

Little attention has been paid to how or when candidates develop these impressions of PO Fit. The job interview, the primary face-to-face social exchange of information, is likely the principal context in which job candidates form impressions about the culture and values

of the potential employer. That said, direct comments provided by the organization are likely insufficient to provide accurate and realistic perceptions of the organization's culture. As a result, the candidate is left to interpret cultural attributes based on other available cues, including interview content, format, and interpersonal treatment (Judge, Higgins & Cable, 2000; Kohn & Dipboye, 1998; Rynes, Bretz, & Gerhart, 1991).

The current study focuses on how job applicants form their assessments of PO Fit based on salient information in the job interview. While the PO Fit literature has adequately pointed to organizational outcomes, more work needs to explore the antecedents of PO Fit perceptions and how PO Fit is interpreted at specific stages in the recruitment and selection process. Meanwhile, in the interviewing literature, an increased attention has been dedicated to interviewees' perceptions and reactions as meaningful predictors of important recruitment outcomes. Therefore, this study contributes to both bodies of research by examining how particular variables are detected, interpreted, and combined during an interview to inform the individual's determination of PO Fit and ultimate intention to pursue employment with an organization.

Because it is improbable that individuals are consciously aware of the antecedents to their own determinations of fit (e.g., Billsberry, Ambrosini, Moss-Jones, & Marsh, 2005), policy capturing was used to model the integration of this available information. Policy capturing is an approach that simulates an individual's decision making under a series of experimentally manipulated situations or profiles. It is based on the assumption that people cannot accurately report how they consider and combine the effects of multiple cues on their decisions (Reilly & Doherty, 1992). In the current study, participants reported their level of perceived PO Fit and attraction to hypothetical employers, based on available cues from an interview situation.

By many definitions, work values are a fundamental element of PO Fit. Relevant research has indicated that interviewers ask focused values-related questions in order to assess candidates' values and ultimate PO Fit. Because the interview is a reciprocal exchange of information and a two-way decision making situation, it was hypothesized that the interviewer's questions also provide information that the candidate will use when determining his/her own degree of PO Fit. It was further hypothesized that other variables – variables that are leading antecedents to interviewee reactions –impact PO Fit perceptions as well. Interviewer behaviors that demonstrate competence and personableness are likely to cue impressions about the organizational culture. Similarly, certain procedures and format elements during the interview can serve as signals of organizational culture. Thus, it was predicted that values-laden interview questions and, to a lesser extent, contextual factors related to interviewer behavior and interview process, will contribute to a job seeker's assessment of PO Fit during an interview scenario.

To present these hypotheses, the following review will (a) provide a definition and brief theoretical foundation of PO Fit, (b) present an outcomes-based defense of the study of PO Fit, (c) offer a rationale for the interview as a context for PO Fit perception formation, (d) review how PO Fit has been studied in the interview from the employer's perspective, (e) discuss how values matter to, and are inferred by, the interviewee during the interview, (f) propose contextual factors that impact perceptions of fairness and, through signaling, can impact PO Fit, and (g) defend policy capturing as a means to appropriately test the study's predictions.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

Person Organization Fit

The concept of PO Fit has its foundations in Schneider's (1987) Attraction Selection Attrition (ASA) Theory. The ASA Theory posits that an individual will be most comfortable in, and hence, join the company whose members are similar to him/herself. Likewise, organizations recruit and employ individuals who match the organization's culture. Once employed, both parties seek to maintain this compatibility. The organization then socializes and indoctrinates its employees to adopt the values and customs of the organization. The individual remains attracted to the organization so long as the perception of fit is maintained. According to the ASA Theory, employers and employees regularly assess the degree to which the two parties fit. The idea that one party supplements the other on key social variables, and that this enhances the relationship between employee and employer, has led to the current base of research on PO Fit.

PO Fit describes the degree to which an individual's personal characteristics match the organization's cultural characteristics. Unlike Person Job Fit (PJ Fit), which focuses on the alignment of the individual's KSAs to specific task-related demands of a particular job, PO Fit deals with the individual's social fit in the broader organizational context. Although some treatments of PO Fit include variables such as goals and personality, the most common PO Fit definitions focus on a match based on values, or values congruence (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Chatman, 1989; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). In fact, in multiple meta-analyses (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), the majority of primary studies in PO Fit operationalized the construct exclusively as values congruence. Values can be defined as "enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct or end-state is preferable to its opposite" (Judge et al., 2000, p. 396), ideals toward which people work (Judge & Cable, 1997), or subjective assessments that guide general social conduct and

behavior (Bodenman, 1996). Cable and Edwards (2004) added that values "transcend situations…guide the selection and evaluation of behaviors… and vary in terms of relative importance" (p. 823). Examples of personal work values include team orientation, aggressiveness, risk-taking (from the Organizational Culture Profile, O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991), security, and prestige (from the Universal Values Taxonomy, Schwartz, 1992). A main thesis of this research is that higher PO Fit in general, and more values congruence specifically, should lead to important organizational outcomes.

PO Fit Outcomes

The value of PO Fit research is seen in benefits regarding job attitudes, interpersonal dynamics, and behavior. Positively affected job attitudes include job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceived stress, perceptions of group effectiveness, personal identification with the organization and its mission, and decreased turnover intentions (Arthur, Bell, Villado, & Doverskpike, 2006; Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; Edwards, 1991; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Haptonstahl, 1998; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Meglino, Ravlin & Adkins, 1989; Posner, Kouzed & Schmidt, 1985; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Verquer, Beehr & Wagner, 2003). PO Fit also has a positive impact on employee relationships; higher degrees of fit lead to less ambiguity, better trust and communication among members, and more motivation to communicate in order to confirm one's beliefs and attitudes (Arthur et al., 2006; Byrne, 1971; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Giberson, Resick, & Dickson, 2005; Swann, Stein-Serrousi & Geisler, 1992). Finally, PO Fit leads to decreased turnover, increased extra-role performance, and an indirect effect on task performance via job attitudes (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; Haptonstahl, 1998; Meglino et al., 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991).

PO Fit influences important pre-hire variables as well. From the employer's perspective, candidates who have a greater fit with the organization are rated as more

favorable candidates; job offer intentions (i.e., an employer's self report intention to extend a job offer) and actual job offers are more likely when the candidate has a good fit with the organization (Bodenman, 1996; Cable & Judge, 1997; Chuang & Sackett, 2005; Haptonstahl, 1998; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Rynes, Colbert, & Brown, 2002).

Most relevant to the current research, PO Fit leads to meaningful recruitment outcomes from the perspective of the candidate. A recent meta-analysis found that a candidate's perceived PO Fit was related strongly to job pursuit intentions (ρ = .62) and to organization attraction (ρ =.46) (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin & Jones, 2005). Furthermore, PO Fit was the strongest of all predictors of actual job choice (the dichotomous decision to accept or not accept a specific job offer; job choice is considered the ideal outcome in recruitment research), though the correlation was rather low (ρ =.18). The authors explained that the dichotomous nature of the dependent variable and the likely restriction of range at such a late event in the recruiting cycle deflated the strength of the relationship. In fact, perceived PO Fit was among the strongest predictors to all recruiting outcomes studied in the meta-analysis. This illustrates the importance of PO Fit's role in applicant cognitions, given that other variables in the analysis included job and organizational characteristics (including compensation, job location, and the type of work conducted), recruiter behaviors, and perceived alternatives (other potential jobs). As further support, Kristof-Brown et al. (2005), in another meta-analysis, found a relatively strong relationship between PO Fit and both applicants' organizational attraction (ρ =.39) and actual job offer acceptance (ρ =.22). In summary, perceptions of PO Fit are influential determinants in candidates' attitudes and decisions. Less research has investigated how applicants formulate their perceptions of PO Fit, and specifically, how they perceive PO Fit at different stages during the recruitment and selection process.

PO Fit in the Interview

The job interview is likely the event where employers and candidates are most clearly assessing their mutual fit. In fact, in describing a content analysis of recruitment activity, Rynes et al. (1991) wrote "the principal investigators (and two of the placement officials) had long been intrigued by the frequency with which both recruiters and applicants mentioned the importance of 'fit' in their decisions, often without being able to articulate precisely what they meant by the term (p. 494)." Because it is the primary, and often the exclusive, substantive interpersonal exchange of information during the recruitment and selection process, the interview is a logical – indeed an ideal – setting to explore fit perceptions (Chatman, 1991; Parsons, Cable & Wilkerson, 1999; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990).

From the interviewer's perspective. The few existing studies about PO Fit during the interview focus on the employer's perspective. For example, it has been suggested that candidate fit with the organization is one of the most common constructs that employers assess in applicants during the interview (Arvey & Campion, 1982; Campion, Pursell, & Brown, 1998; Huffcut, Conway, Roth & Stone, 2001; Huffcut, Roth, & McDaniel, 1996). In their recent review of the interviewing literature, Judge et al. (2000) endorsed PO Fit as one of the two primary directions for future study (the other was applicant reactions in interviews); they presented a model for how objective and perceived person-organization congruence relates to hiring recommendations. Similarly, several authors have prescribed that the interview is the perfect opportunity to assess candidate fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Huffcut et al., 2001; Posthuma, Morgeson & Campion, 2002); Judge et al. (2000) suggested that interviews should not only assess interviewee's KSAs, but also their fit with the social and cultural aspects of the organization. Other studies, outlined briefly below, empirically tested the role of fit in interviewer decisions.

In one of the earliest studies within this domain, Rynes and Gerhart (1990) studied interviewers' evaluations of interviewees. Data were collected from interviewers about the

candidates' general employability and firm-specific suitability. The results showed that the interviewers were able to rate the candidates' firm-specific suitability above and beyond general employability, which supports the notion that there is a PO Fit apart from general candidate attractiveness. Furthermore, closer investigation showed that firm-specific employability was due to candidates' personal characteristics, and not objective qualifications or idiosyncratic interviewer preferences.

Adkins, Russell & Werbel (1994) asked applicants, interviewers, and additional employer representatives to complete the Comparative Emphasis Scale (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987), which measures the goals and values of each of the three entities. The data showed that interviewers rated the candidates' PO Fit as better if his/her values matched with the personal values of the interviewer. This shows that Person-Recruiter Fit may be more influential in some cases than Person-Organization Fit. In addition, the interviewer's perceptions of applicant PO Fit was related to ideal applicant characteristics, suggesting that fit is less of an interaction between parties than a measure of general employability. To offset these findings, however, the researchers used an objective measure of fit (each party rates him/herself on important dimensions or traits and then the two sets of ratings are statistically compared), which has recently been criticized. In fact, Adkins et al. (1994) found that the objective values congruence was not correlated with perceived values congruence (one party reports on his/her perceptions of overall congruence), which was more highly correlated with positive outcomes (interview invitations).

Similarly, Cable and Judge (1997) utilized the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) (O'Reilly et al., 1991), which is another instrument designed to measure both candidate and organization values. They added to the conclusions drawn from Adkins et al. (1994), as their findings showed that the perceived values congruence of one party was more predictive of perceived fit than was objective values congruence. More importantly, they found that

perceived values congruence was positively associated with important outcomes such as hiring decisions.

Chuang and Sackett (2005) explored the relative importance of perceived PO Fit and PJ Fit from the interviewer's point of view across different stages of the interviewing process. In their longitudinal study of actual selection situations, the authors found that while PJ Fit was the more important factor in the early stages of recruiting (e.g., a first round of campus interviews), a candidate's PO Fit was considered later. In other words, knowledge, skills and abilities were critical for a candidate to remain attractive, but congruence with more social variables such as values and attitude became important to further differentiate among candidates.

Parsons et al. (1999) suggested that a structured interview that explicitly employs values congruence as a criterion would be a step in the right direction for assessing fit in a more accurate and less haphazard way. They conducted research assessing judgments of PO Fit, and found that when interviewers are held accountable for assessing interviewee values, they are quite accurate (Chatman, 1989). On the other hand, Judge et al. (2000) suspected that interviewers are often inaccurate in their inferences of candidate values and even in their assessment of their own organization's values. They added that future researchers should continue to study how fit decisions are determined during the interview. For example, they suggested that training could be offered to communicate and formalize the organizational values and to instruct on the assessment of candidate values (Adams, 1999; Howard & Ferris, 1996), and that structured interviews could be designed to truly tap into values (Parsons et al., 1999). Bodenman (1996) surveyed recruiters, and found that the major method interviewers use to assess candidate values during interviews are through the content of interview questions. That is, they ask values-laden questions and assess the interviewee's response and commitment to these values.

The studies reviewed here outline some key findings in the PO Fit interviewing literature. Interviewers consider values of the candidates when forming overall impressions. The congruence between the candidate and the interviewer (rather than the whole organization) sometimes influences perceptions. The interviewer deliberately solicits values-laden information through questioning. In that the interview is a reciprocal exchange of information, and because candidates have their own goals of assessing the organization and their fit therewith as well, these same questions should be explored from the interviewee's perspective.

Interviewee Assessment of Organizational Values

It has been well established that job candidates consider values congruence when electing to enter a new organization. In fact, joining an organization has been described as a public statement of one's values (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Popovich & Wanous, 1982). Some studies have shown that perceived values congruence can be even more influential in candidate decisions than other factors such as compensation and task-related knowledge and skills. Judge and Bretz (1992) presented participants with several profiles of potential employment situations. The profiles differed in terms of job characteristics (such as compensation and promotion opportunities) and the four main values identified by Ravlin and Meglino (1987): achievement, concern, honesty, and fairness to others. After reading each profile, participants rated the extent to which they would accept a job offer based on the information provided. Analyses revealed that all four values contributed more to respondents' intention to accept a job offer than did compensation or promotion opportunity. Cable and Judge (1996) studied active job seekers as they progressed through their job search. Job seekers rated potential employers on values using the OCP (O'Reilly et al., 1991) at multiple times during their job search. The authors found that perceived values congruence predicted perceived PO Fit, and that perceived PO Fit (more

than perceived PJ Fit in fact) predicted job choice intentions and actual job choice. Furthermore, data were collected from participants once they were staffed in their jobs. Those individuals who placed a greater emphasis on values congruence in the pre-hire phase were subsequently more satisfied and less likely to intend to turnover.

Research from Lievens and Highouse (2003) and Harold (2005) extended the Instrumental Symbolic Framework (Katz, 1960) from the marketing literature to the job search process. They explained that just like consumers favor products whose brands provide not only functional utility but more tacit properties like luxury, dependability, and sophistication (Aker, 1997), job seekers are looking for organizations that embody not only instrumental factors (compensation, job security), but also symbolic factors, or values. People will select the employer who represents the values and characteristics that they themselves espouse (Lievens & Highouse, 2003). Harold (2005) found support that when job-related information is ambiguous or incomplete, job seekers will attempt to infer these more tacit properties of the organization from whatever cues are available in the environment.

Although the reviewed studies have established that job candidates, generally speaking, do indeed assess their fit with the organization's values, no published studies have specifically investigated interviewees' cognition processes associated with the formation of these perceptions. Judge et al. (2000) averred that "the employment interview represents one important method that organizations can utilize to establish PO Fit because interviews enable organizations and applicants to interact through organizational representatives, allowing each party to determine if the other demonstrates congruent values (p. 392)." It is reasonable to expect that if interviewers are asking questions that relate to organizational values (Bodenman, 1996), then applicants will also be able to infer organizational values from the types of questions asked. This has not been tested in the literature; the current study hypothesized that if the interview questions relate to values of the interviewee, then the

applicant will perceive greater PO Fit with the organization. During the interview, however, the interviewee is faced with incomplete information and a great deal of ambiguous stimuli. As part of the current research, it was recognized that there are strong contextual effects in any interview setting, and that values-laden questioning should be explored along with other typical interview variables.

Contextual Effects in Interview

Within the interviewing literature, a recent focus has been placed on applicant perceptions. In fact, recent reviews by Posthuma et al. (2002) and Judge et al. (2000) listed applicant reactions as a critical direction for future research. From the organization's perspective, the interview, like any other selection method, has the dual role of predicting performance and capturing and maintaining the interest of the most qualified candidates (e.g., Kohn & Dipboye, 1998). To compete in the war on talent, organizations must consider that every interaction that takes place with prospective job candidates – including selection testing – can be influential to the job seeker's ultimate decision-making.

Research into applicant reactions to interviews has offered some key findings. In general, job candidates have positive reactions to participating in interviews as compared to other selection methods (Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Harland, Rauzi, & Biasotto, 1995; Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman, & Stoffey, 1993). There are several variables that differ across job interviews and affect candidate reactions; these reactions, in turn, affect applicants' intentions to remain in the applicant pool and accept a job offer (e.g., Hausknecht et al., 2004). Within the applicant reactions research, some of the most common considerations have been related to perceived fairness.

Fairness perceptions. Generally speaking, if applicants perceive that a selection system has been fair, they will be more likely to exhibit relevant positive outcomes (satisfaction, attraction). Some of the foundational work in applicant reactions research was

provided by Gilliland (1993) and the justice model of applicant reactions. In this model, applicants perceive justice in three categories: formal characteristics, explanation, and interpersonal treatment. Formal characteristics relate to job-relatedness, the chance to perform during the selection process, reconsideration opportunity, and consistency. Explanation involves feedback given to the applicant, openness, and information known. Finally, interpersonal treatment relates to how the employer representatives treat the applicant on site, how much two-way communication takes place, and how proper the questions appear to be. Related subcomponents of justice are distributive justice, which reflect the outcomes of organizational decisions, procedural justice, which relates to the criteria and rules governing organizational decisions (Greenberg, 1987), and interactional justice, or the interpersonal treatment surrounding the organizational decisions (Bies & Moag, 1986). All three of these fairness components have been shown to influence meaningful organizational outcomes. Some of the most cited consequences of fairness perceptions include organizational attractiveness (Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman & Stoffey, 1993), withdrawal from the selection process (Schmit & Ryan, 1997), satisfaction with the selection process (Truxillo, Bauer, & Sanchez, 2001), reapplication (Gilliland, Groth, Baker, Dew, Polly, & Langdon, 2001), and intention to accept a job offer (Macan, Avedon, Paese & Smith, 1994; Ployhart & Ryan, 1997).

As an illustrative study, Conway and Peneno (1999) tested different fairness-related aspects of the interview as correlates to one outcome variable, recommendation intentions. These aspects included perceived characteristics of the interview such as face validity and predictive validity, and perceived characteristics of the interview process, such as procedural justice and interviewer behavior (warmth and eye contact). In all, the perceived characteristics of the interview process were associated the most strongly with the outcome. It seems clear that not only what gets communicated, but how the communication takes place,

is influential in predicting key outcomes in applicant reactions. Studies in this realm make it clear that interviewer behaviors and interview process elements are two powerful factors that affect cognitive processes of the applicant.

Interviewee perceptions of the interviewer. Research has supported that candidates' impressions of their recruiters can be quite influential in their job search decisions (Connerley & Rynes, 1997; Harris & Fink, 1987; Rynes et al., 1991; Rynes, Heneman & Schwab, 1980; Schmitt & Coyle, 1976). During the recruitment process, and the interview specifically, candidates are exposed to a limited amount of information. As a result, they will look to supplement this incomplete data with whatever stimuli are available. Hence, readily available characteristics and behaviors of the interviewer/recruiter are likely to be perceived and interpreted as meaningful and predictive information.

There are several theoretical bases that can help explain the importance of interviewer behavior. The critical contact theory (Behling, Labovitz & Gainer, 1968) suggests that, especially when given little relevant information about the job or the organization, candidates will base their opinions on characteristics and behaviors of the interviewer. Similarly, signaling theory, as it relates to recruitment, posits that in the absence of more information, candidates will look to whatever information is available when forming their opinions about a potential employer (Spence, 1973). If interviewees have positive impressions about the interviewer based on likeability or perceived competence, they will then generalize this likeability to all organizational members and to the organization itself. When they have less information, such as in the most early interviews, they are more likely to interpret available information as cues or signals of the company as a whole. Turban, Forret and Hendrickson (1998) even found that interviewer behaviors influence organizational attraction partially through their perceptions of job and organizational factors. The authors explained this mediation effect by citing signaling theory and the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty &

Cacciopo, 1986), stating that in contexts of ambiguity and cognitive busyness, individuals (i.e., candidates) are more likely to attend to the most visible cues and generalize those to all relevant domains. Harris and Fink (1987) continued that when candidates are comparing aspects of different available jobs, if there are not significant qualitative differences among the jobs, applicants may revert to information about the recruiter. Hence, in an interview situation, which often illustrates ambiguity, high cognitive load and incomplete job information, it is not surprising that people use interviewer treatment as a signal for the organization's culture. As an example, Rynes et al. (1991) interviewed job seekers as they interviewed with different organizations through a college's career services office, and found that several candidates inferred organizational traits from interviewer behaviors.

In their meta-analysis of recruiting outcomes, Chapman et al. (2005) found that recruiter characteristics predicted job pursuit intentions (ρ=.37), organizational attraction (ρ=.29) and offer acceptance intentions (ρ =. 32). The specific interviewer behavior variables included perceived personableness, competence, informativeness, and trustworthiness. They also found the estimated effect of interviewer demographics, such as gender and function, but found no meaningful relationships. They concluded that more research should explore how interviewer style, behaviors, and approaches may impact outcomes. The research that exists in this domain has yielded rather intuitive findings; applicants respond favorably to interviewers when they display warm and friendly behaviors, show concern for the applicant, ask effective questions, and provide valuable information about the job and organization (Arvey & Campion, 1982; Chapman & Zweig, 2005; Connerley & Rynes, 1997; Graves, 1993; Knee, Kutcher, & Ullom, 2006; Liden, Martin & Parsons, 1993; Powell, 1991; Rynes, 1991). The current study explored a list of specific behaviors that relate to interviewer personableness, competence, informativeness, and trustworthiness. Once it was established which of these behaviors are preferred and not preferred by the typical interviewee, the main

study tested the relative importance of interviewer effects on job applicant perceptions of fit and organizational attraction.

Interviewee perceptions of interview format. Just as the candidate attends to the person who conducts the interview, he/she will also be affected by the manner in which the interview is conducted. The interview has historically been the primary method used by organizations in employee selection. Accordingly, there is a long history of interview format research. Perhaps the biggest development in recent history is the structured interview.

The structured interview was conceived to respond to criticisms of the traditional interview in employee selection. For some time, the general status of the interview was a conflict: employers wanted to retain the interview because it was the only time to meet the candidate and assess those qualities that cannot be measured via testing, but the psychometric qualities of the interview were consistently poor. The addition of formalized interviewer practices increased the validity and the reliability of interviewer evaluations (e.g., Campion, et al., 1988; McDaniel, Whetzel, & Schmidt, 1994; Weisner & Cronshaw, 1988; Wright, Lichtensfels & Pursell, 1989). The research guidance has endorsed the practice of structured interviews, which involves systematic preparation of interview questions and predetermining an evaluation scheme. Ultimately, structure in an interview process reduces the discretion allowed to the interviewer during his/her asking of questions and scoring of responses (e.g., Motowidlo, Carter, Dunnette, Tippins, Werner, Burnett, & Vaughn, 1992).

There are several ways that an interviewer can apply structure to an interview setting. Campion, Palmer, and Campion (1997) listed 15 ways that an interview can be structured. Each of the fifteen structuring elements is designed to either improve the reliability or validity of interviewer ratings, improve interviewer or applicant reactions, and/or reduce the likelihood of litigation. The authors listed the structure elements in two categories: enhancing how information is collected and enhancing how candidate responses are scored and

computed. The authors also noted that interviews can be structured on one or many of the structuring methods, and to different degrees per method. Therefore, any interview falls on a continuum between no and complete interview structure.

To summarize, there are multiple ways to standardize the way that information is collected. First, organizations should focus all questions on KSAs identified in a job analysis. Secondly, the questions should be based on actual job experiences from the candidate's past or hypothetical courses of action to proposed job scenarios. Third, the same questions would be asked of all candidates in the same order. Fourth, the interviewer should refrain from providing any feedback about the interviewee's responses. Fifth, the interviewer should ask no probing or follow-up questions. Sixth, the interviewer should not allow the candidate to ask any questions. Finally, the interview should be as lengthy as possible to maximize relevance and minimize deficiency.

There are also multiple ways to standardize the way that information is evaluated. First, the interviewer can evaluate each candidate response after the response is given. Second, the interview responses can be rated on a validated behaviorally anchored scale. Third, the interviewer can take accurate notes about the candidate's responses. Fourth, multiple interviewers can interview the candidate either individually or together at once. Fifth, the same interviewer(s) can be used for all candidates. Sixth, all interviewers would be trained about common errors and proper use of any scoring instruments. Seventh, there would be no discussions or comparison of notes among interviewers between interviews. Finally, all ratings should be calculated in a statistical and standardized, and not subjective, fashion.

Campion, Palmer and Campion (1997, 1998) identified which of these structuring elements potentially affect applicant reactions. Not surprisingly, they proposed that applicants respond favorably to job relatedness (basing all questions on a job analysis) and interviewer training (to the extent that it is apparent to the candidate). They also suggested that

interviewees respond negatively to the lack of prompting and follow-up questions, the lack of feedback and ancillary conversation, the disallowance of candidate-initiated questions, interviewer note-taking, longer interview, and multiple interviewers.

For these and other reasons, the practice of structured interviewing has led to mixed findings in terms of applicant reactions. The most structured interviews, as described above, include a list of questions, with little or no elaboration or any kind of feedback from the interviewer. Similarly, the most structured interviews limit the amount of free rapport-building that takes place and does not allow questions to be asked by the interviewee. Chapman and Zweig (2005) note that the rapport-building is commonly favored by job applicants to diffuse a certain amount of stress or pressure. Furthermore, the opportunity to ask questions and seek feedback would lead to greater perceptions of voice (the power to speak one's mind and control his/her presentation of information), which is a key element of perceived justice (Gilliland, 1993). Chapman and Zweig also found that question consistency and question sophistication (i.e., behavioral and situational questions that were clearly linked to relevant KSAs) – both elements of structured interviews – led to negative interviewee reactions. Similarly, Conway and Peneno (1999) found that applicants preferred more general questions to questions that are behavioral or situational in nature. In a qualitative study of recruiting efforts on graduating college students, one of the most common complaints was that interviews and interviewers were too structured and rigid in their question-and-answer, and not interpersonally friendly enough (Boswell, Roehling, LePine, and Moynihan, 2003).

Consideration of signaling theory suggests why the practice of structured interviewing yields adverse reactions. Kohn and Dipboye (1998) presented participants with text descriptions of either structured or unstructured interview scenarios. In the structured scenarios, the interviewer asked a list of behavioral questions, and could not rephrase the questions, ask any follow-up questions or probes, provide feedback to the applicant, or

engage in peripheral discussions about hobbies, vacations, etc.; these were all incorporated into the unstructured interview scenarios. The study's findings indicated that participants who were presented with unstructured interviews viewed not only the interviewer as more warm and likeable, but also saw the organization as less authoritarian and more social and team-oriented; these effects were stronger when there was less information known about the job and organization. The unstructured interview conditions were also associated with higher ratings in organizational attraction. The authors reasoned that the format of the interview was serving as a signal of the organization itself. This information could affect his/her overall assessment of the organization's culture or climate, thus affecting PO Fit assessments.

A major criticism of the structured interview research is that many studies have dichotomized the interview as either structured or unstructured (Lievens & DePaape, 2004). Practically speaking, organizations are probably utilizing some structuring elements and not others. Future research should reflect this reality. In terms of applicant reactions to different types of interview structure, it should be acknowledged that each structuring element affects perceptions. In this study, elements of interview format that are commonly subsumed within the domain of structured interviewing were categorized as either preferred or non-preferred to the typical interviewee. Then, the relative effect of interview format variables were tested as predictors of PO Fit perceptions, fairness, and intentions to pursue an employment relationship.

The Current Study

To date, no studies have examined interviewee cognitive processes related to the assessment of PO Fit. While much information has been added to our knowledge about the dimensions and relationships of PO Fit, a most pressing need within the literature is an investigation into the factors that affect individuals' senses of fit. Billsberry et al., (2005) argued that the factors and conceptualizations that individual decision makers consider in

relation to their PO Fit perceptions are likely held at sub-threshold levels of consciousness and, hence, would be impossible to simply collect in a self-report fashion. This study acknowledges this challenge, and employed a policy capturing design to model the kinds of information processing that takes place in such cognitions.

Policy Capturing. The PO Fit literature is at a stage where it would be beneficial to investigate how individual decision-makers form their perceptions. One of the best ways to explore individual decision-making is to model the actual decision through experimental manipulation of various cues (predictors), and then use policy-capturing techniques (an outgrowth of the Brunswick lens paradigm, 1955) to determine how individuals are using the cues to form end-state decisions. It is believed that simply asking decision makers to describe the inputs that factor into their decisions will not provide a true picture; people are generally not sophisticated or accurate in estimating how they consider multiple inputs (Cable & Judge, 1994; Reilly & Dougherty, 1992).

In a policy-capturing design, there are multiple cues or variables that are hypothesized to impact the participant's decision on some outcome variable. In the design and development of a study, stimulus profiles are created to represent each condition in the factorial design resulting from the crossing of all cues. In addition, to test for reliability of the decision-maker, some of the profiles are repeated. Then, all participants (policy capturing is a within-subject design) read all profiles and render a decision on the same dependent variable(s) following each profile.

Analysis of the resulting data reveals how participants are integrating the different cues to arrive at a final decision on the outcome variable, and how reliable the person is as a decision-maker. Results offer insight into the weighting of available cues. The process is idiographic in nature, such that analyses are conducted to uncover each decision-maker's policy for making a decision. Then, patterns or trends are detected across participants.

Specifically, for each participant, decision policies are represented as regression weights based on the individual's evaluation of each profile. The R^2 value indicates the overall variance accounted for by the resulting policy, but more importantly, indicates the consistency of the decision-maker's utilization of the cues. That is, a small R^2 indicates that the decision-maker is inconsistent in his/her use of the cues. Responses to duplicated profiles can be analyzed for consistency by correlating each participant's response with its duplicate's response. A low correlation can indicate several problems in regards to the decision maker including carelessness, intentional sabotage of the research, or erratic use of the cues.

In terms of dependent variables, there is often a single item measure, or a very few items, designed to represent the major outcome(s). In most policy-capturing studies, there are many profiles to be read. The identified drawbacks of policy capturing designs include the contrived nature of written profiles (i.e., a brief narrative profile takes the place of a more realistic scenario), the inability to model all possible factors (including interactions among cues) affecting a decision maker, and the potential for fatigue and boredom of participants. To offset these drawbacks, policy capturing offers several benefits: a systematic method for modeling the cognitive processes in human decision making, the freedom to implement a completely crossed design with respect to the cues, decreased error that is inherent in within-subjects designs, and the generation of conclusions that would be relatively impossible through self report. In summary, policy capturing is a recommended approach when uncovering how individual decision makers detect, interpret, and combine information. The current study utilized a policy capturing approach to model how individuals use information found in the job interview environment as they assess their own fit with an organization and their general interest in pursuing an offer.

Dependent variables. The outcomes in the study were perceived PO Fit, perceived fairness, and intentions to remain in the selection process. Though there are multiple methods

for measuring PO Fit, a direct assessment of perceived fit is the most appropriate in the current study. Generally speaking, PO Fit is typically conceptualized as either objective fit (also called "actual fit") or subjective fit. Furthermore, within subjective fit, fit can be either directly or indirectly assessed.

In objective fit, self-report data are collected from both parties and then compared. Specifically, the individual rates him/herself along a series of dimensions or traits; someone from the organization rates the organization along the same dimensions. The two profiles are then compared for convergence via analytical techniques including correlations, profile similarity indices or polynomial regression (for a review, see Carlson & Herdman, 2005, or Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Conversely, in all subjective fit conceptualizations, data are collected from only one party. Indirect subjective fit, like objective fit, measures both parties along identified dimensions or traits; unlike objective fit, only one party rates both parties before congruence is calculated (e.g., Bretz & Judge, 1994). Direct subjective fit (sometimes called "perceived fit") entails explicitly asking one party for his/her impression of the degree of fit between the two parties (e.g., Adams, 1999). This approach allows for the comparisons and valuations to take place internally within the individual. That is, an index of direct subjective fit (perceived fit) is the person's final evaluation of fit; it assumes that he/she has made all of the person/organization comparisons on all important factors. It is therefore the most cognitively proximal variable when considering fit relationships with outcomes and consequences (Cable & DeRue, 2002).

It is clear, then, that each research question will suggest which conceptualization is most appropriate. Objective fit measurement is appropriate when the research question aims to study the effect of actual congruence – regardless of whether or not the parties detect that congruence – on some outcome or variable. Although concerns have been voiced against the use of direct assessments of subjective fit (namely, the increased likelihood of common

method bias and the inability for diagnostic analysis of component variables), these concerns do not negate the validity of using direct perceptions for conceptually appropriate questions (Carlson & Herdman, 2005; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Often, it is the individual's perception of fit – regardless of the actual fit between parties – that is proposed to affect outcomes. In the current study, a direct assessment of subjective fit was used.

The second dependent variable is fairness. Again, much of the fairness research focuses on procedural and interactional justice. The contextual factors of interviewer behavior and interview process are among the common antecedents to these perceptions. Though the current research is more focused on applicant perceptions of fit, fairness reactions is included because of its important to applicant reactions research.

The other dependent variable in the proposed study is intention to remain in the selection process. It was expected that PO Fit, and several other cues, would impact a typical recruitment outcome. While the ideal outcome in recruitment research is actual job offer acceptance, this variable is impossible to study in a lab situation. It was decided that in the current situation, where participants are placed into an interview scenario, it would be most advantageous to simulate what would typically be the real-life decision. Following a job interview, and an early on at that, the candidate is probably most likely deciding whether he/she would be interested in pursuing the position via follow-up interviews rather than deciding whether to accept a job or not. If a job offer were extended, it would probably follow the interview by some time, and would likely be affected by other factors, such as compensation and location. Therefore, in the current study, the more general outcome, intention to continue in the selection process, was used.

Hypotheses. Several hypotheses are listed below. Hypotheses 1a through 1d focus on the prediction of the PO Fit dependent variable. Hypotheses 2a and 2b focus on the dependent variable of fairness. Hypotheses 3a through 3c focus on the dependent outcome variable,

intention to continue. Finally, Hypotheses 4a through 4e propose a set of mediation hypotheses.

Values congruence is reported to be the main determinant of PO Fit. Research has suggested that interviewers and recruiters utilize pointed questions to communicate the organization's values. Questions were written and pilot tested to represent indicators of values categories from the Organizational Culture Profile (O'Reilly et al., 1991). All participants completed a pre-test, where they established individual rank ordering of values. Values congruence was considered strong when the sample questions included in the interview profile represented the participant's highly ranked values. Values congruence was considered weak when the sample questions included in the interview profiles represent the participant's low ranked values. This also served as a test that participants attended to questions as implied statements of organizational values. It was expected that values congruence would lead to stronger PO Fit perceptions and intentions to accept a job offer.

Hypothesis 1a: The values congruence of interview questions will predict PO Fit perceptions. That is, individuals will report stronger PO Fit perceptions when they are given values-congruent interview questions

It is possible that all available cues in a given context signal to the applicant certain traits and characteristics of an organization (Kohn & Dipboye, 1998; Turban et al., 1998). Therefore, it was expected that the manipulation of contextual variables will influence participants' perceptions of PO Fit.

Hypothesis 1b: Interviewer behaviors will predict PO Fit perceptions. That is, individuals will report stronger PO Fit perceptions when they are exposed to favorable interviewer behaviors. Individuals will report weaker PO Fit perceptions when they are exposed to less favorable interviewer behaviors.

Hypothesis 1c: Interview format/structure will predict PO Fit perceptions. That is, individuals will report stronger job PO Fit perceptions when they are exposed to favorable interview format elements. Individuals will report weaker PO Fit perceptions when they are exposed to less favorable interview format elements.

Because the values congruence variable is based on a robust foundation of PO Fit research and the most common definitions of PO Fit itself, this variable is expected to be a stronger predictor of any PO Fit perceptions than the more contextual effects of interview format and interviewer behavior.

Hypothesis 1d: Values congruence will be a stronger predictor of perceived PO Fit than interviewer behaviors or interview structure.

Across the applicant reactions research, it is clear that elements of how a selection test is conducted will predict reactions related to the fairness of the procedures. Hence, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 2a: Interviewer behaviors will predict fairness perceptions. That is, individuals will report higher fairness perceptions when they are exposed to favorable interviewer behaviors. Individuals will report lower fairness perceptions when they are exposed to unfavorable interviewer behaviors.

Hypothesis 2b: Interview process factors will predict fairness perceptions. That is, individuals will report higher fairness perceptions when they are exposed to favorable interviewer behaviors. Individuals will report lower fairness perceptions when they are exposed to unfavorable interviewer behaviors.

The next hypotheses relate to the ultimate decision variable of intentions to continue in the selection process. Interviewer behavior and interview format/structure elements are two sets of variables that commonly impact important applicant-centered recruitment outcomes. Hypotheses 3a and 3b reflect that these effects should be replicated here.

Hypothesis 3a: Interviewer behaviors will predict intentions to remain in the selection process. That is, individuals will report higher intentions when they are exposed to favorable interviewer behaviors. Individuals will report lower intentions when they are exposed to less favorable interviewer behaviors.

Hypothesis 3b: Interviewer format/structure will predict intentions to remain in the selection process. That is, individuals will report higher intentions when they are exposed to favorable interview format elements. Individuals will report lower intentions when they are exposed to less favorable interview format elements.

Research has supported that values congruence leads to important recruiting outcomes. If the question manipulation adequately signals the organizational value, then applicants who receive questions that are convergent with their own values should also be more attracted to stay in an organization's selection process.

Hypothesis 3c: Individuals will report higher intentions to continue in the selection process when they are given values-congruent interview questions

The hypotheses listed above describe the proposed main effects of the three factors on the three outcomes of PO Fit (the main variable of interest), fairness (a common variable among applicant reactions research), and intention to continue in the selection process (an ultimate consequence of PO Fit). The following hypotheses propose relationships among these variables. In all cases, part of the effect of the individual cues on job offer acceptance will be explained by PO Fit. That is, PO Fit is predicted to partially mediate the relationships between the individual cues and the recruitment variable, job offer acceptance intentions. Support for the mediating effect of PO Fit will show that questions are truly providing values-related information or that contextual factors are cuing some cultural characteristics, and that these effects are leading to organizational attraction. A second set of mediating

relationships are proposed, suggesting that fairness perceptions are explaining the effect of the contextual cues on the outcome variable.

Hypothesis 4a: Perceived PO Fit will partially mediate the relationship between values congruent questioning and job offer acceptance intentions.

Hypothesis 4b: Perceived PO Fit will partially mediate the relationship between interviewer behaviors and job offer acceptance intentions.

Hypothesis 4c: Perceived Fairness will partially mediate the relationship between interviewer behaviors and job offer acceptance intentions

Hypothesis 4d: Perceived PO Fit will partially mediate the relationship between interview process factors and job offer acceptance intentions

Hypothesis 4e: Perceived Fairness will partially mediate the relationship between interviewer process factors and job offer acceptance intentions

Chapter 3. Method

A two-phase approach was taken to testing the above hypotheses. In the first phase, two pilot studies assisted in the development of a series of vignettes representing various interview scenarios. In the second phase, a policy capturing design was used to examine how participants consider and combine available information as they assess their degrees of fit with the interviewing organization.

Phase I: Scenario Development

The goal of this phase was to develop a collection of interview scenarios that represent the study's factorial design. To test the study's hypotheses, each scenario included one of two levels of interviewer effects (preferred and non-preferred interviewer behaviors), one of two levels of interview procedures (preferred and non-preferred interview procedures), and one of the four work-related values. This collection of scenarios was then used as the material for the focal study. There were two parts of this scenario development pilot process. The first part included two focus groups to decide on a set of values that was meaningful to a college student job seeker population, and to brainstorm possible statements to represent the cue variables. The second part was a survey designed to establish which statements would be most representative of the different levels of the cue variables.

Pilot Activity One: Focus Groups

Participants. The focus group sample consisted of eight undergraduate students that were recruited from Psychology classes. The first group consisted of four females and two males, and the second group consisted of one male and one female. Because the current study deals with job search attitudes and cognitions, it is within reason that undergraduate students were used in the sample. A great deal of research related to recruitment and job applicant reactions has utilized college undergraduates (e.g., Aiman-Smith et al., 2001; Bauer, Truxillo, Paronto, Weekley & Campion, 2004). Almost all college students have engaged in some form

of short-term or part-time employment, and most will enter the job market shortly. Their behaviors and perceptions related to the job search are important and relevant to both practice and research.

Procedure. In the first of two focus groups, the researcher convened a group of students and facilitated discussion to arrive at a set of discreet personal values that are relevant to a college age job-seeker sample. To begin, the researcher read some definitions of values from the values congruence literature (Bodenman, 1996; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Judge et al., 2000). Then, the students discussed how the concepts relate to their everyday lives: how they choose friends and partners, how they make decisions in general, and how they would choose employers. After a short brainstorming session of generating potential values, the group worked to categorize the list of values into themes. Examples from the various literature-based models were given (O'Reilly et al., 1999; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987; Sarros, Gray, Denston & Cooper, 2005), but only after a list was created in the group. Four clear and distinct themes emerged from the discussion: *interpersonal relationships* (including building social networks, developing friendships, and collaborating at work), *achievement* (including setting and achieving goals and focusing on results), *social responsibility* (including working for "the greater good," and the importance of ethics, morality, and fairness), and *development* (including continuous learning and training, and opportunities to grow and advance).

In the second focus group, two students were presented with the four-value taxonomy created in the first group, and were asked to comment on its relevance to them. They agreed that the four values were indeed different from each other, relevant to job seekers, and clear and understandable. They were asked to brainstorm questions that would best represent each of the four given values. Finally, they were asked to brainstorm examples of interviewer behaviors and interview process factors. These lists were then used in Pilot Activity Two.

Pilot Activity Two: Survey

Participants. The survey sample was recruited via Sona System, the Psychology Department's online experiment management system. This sample consisted of 40 undergraduate Psychology students (11 male, 29 female). Eighty-two percent of the sample has been on at least one job interview. All participants received extra credit in participating Psychology classes.

Materials. A list of 41 interviewer behaviors was drafted by the researcher based on the output of the second student focus group and the literature from the effects of interviewer behaviors on recruitment outcomes (e.g., Alderfer & McCord, 1970; Connerley & Rynes, 1997; Rynes & Connerley, 1993; Fear & Chiron, 2002; Harris & Fink, 1987; Martin & Nagao, 1989; Rynes et al., 1991). From this list, survey items were created. As shown in Appendix A, the interviewer behavior statements were listed along with a 5-point Likert-type favorability scale (where 1= “not at all favorable” and 5 = “most favorable”). Survey instructions tasked the pilot participant with reading each interviewer behavior, and then indicating the extent to which that behavior would be favorable, from the perspective of the interviewee, if emitted by the interviewer within the context of an interview.

Similarly, a list of 40 interview procedure statements was drafted by the researcher. The list was based on the statements generated in the second focus group and the literature about interview procedures and structure (Campion et al., 1997; Van der Zee, Bakker & Bakker, 2002). As shown in Appendix B, a second survey item section was created with the interview procedure statements listed along with a 5-point Likert-type favorability scale (where 1= “not at all favorable” and 5= “most favorable”). Survey instructions tasked the pilot participant with reading each interview procedure statement, and then indicating the extent to which that procedural element, from the perspective of the interviewee, would be favorable within the context of an interview.

Based on the popular literature about common interview questions (Deems, 1994; Fear & Chiron, 2002; Stewart & Cash, 2005) and suggestions from the second focus group, several interview questions were created to correspond with each of the four values categories. Care was taken so that the interview questions seemed realistic and unambiguous. For example, for the values category “Relationships,” a sample interview question was “What do you think is the key to getting along well with others in the workplace?" The final survey activity introduced the concept of work values with the following text: "A value is a guiding principle or belief that influences the behaviors and commitment of people, or groups of people. You will be given a list of four values: Responsibility, Development, Relationships, and Achievement." In addition, short descriptions were given for each value. The instructions tasked the pilot participant to read each sample interview question, to select which of the four values categories is most relevant for that interview question, and also to respond to the following question: "By asking this question, do you think that the interviewer would be looking to hire someone who is high or low in the value you selected?" This final question was necessary to firmly establish that a question would not only be related to the value, but also that the question would intuitively aiming to find people who were positive in the value, and not negative. Each interview question, and the accompanying two survey items, was presented on its own page; an example item is presented as Appendix C.

Procedure. Upon registering for the pilot study in Sona System, participants were presented a link, which directed them to the online pilot survey. The front page of the survey was an informed consent form; if they agreed to the conditions of the study, they advanced to the study instructions. They then completed each of the three sections of the survey: rating the favorability of interviewer behaviors, rating the favorability of interview process factors, and categorizing the interview questions into categories of work values. Upon submitting the survey, participants were thanked and assigned credit in Sona Systems.

Written Scenarios

Data from the pilot survey were used to select the subset of statements that best represent each level in the 2X2X4 design. With the goal of developing 16 unique statements for each of the three cues, and based on summary statistics from the second pilot study, eight statements were selected for the favorable interviewer behavior cues, the unfavorable interviewer behavior cues, the favorable interview process cues and the unfavorable interview process cues; four statements were selected for each of the four values categories. From these sets of statements, 16 scenarios were developed to mirror the 16 cells in the 2X2X4 design. The statements were combined to ensure believability, logical flow, and unique scenarios. A typical interview scenario looked like the following (note that the specific cue categories are denoted in brackets, and were not part of the study stimuli):

> "You have just completed an interview with an employer in your field. The following profile describes some of the things you remember about this interview:
>
> - You were not given much opportunity to share the information you most wanted to share [interview format/structure].
> - This sample question represents the kind of information she wanted to know: "What do you think is the key to getting along well with others in the workplace?." [values question]
> - The interviewer did not answer the phone when it rang during the interview [interviewer behavior]"

For greater confidence that the resulting data would represent participants' policies, and to adhere to guidance that there should be, conservatively speaking, a minimum of 10 scenarios per cue (Cooksey, 1996), two additional sets of scenarios were drafted. The procedure described above was repeated two more times, yielding a total of 48 unique

scenarios. Care was taken so that no scenario was repeated in this three-part development process. It is recommended that in policy capturing studies, participants get sufficiently oriented to the decision task before data are recorded; to this end, eight practice scenarios were drafted from the cue statements that were not chosen. Finally, it is also customary to include some duplicate scenarios to assess intrarater reliability of the participants. Four of the interview profiles were randomly drawn from the collection and duplicated. This yielded a total of 60 profiles in all. It should also be noted that the order in which the factors are presented within a scenario were randomized, such that interviewer behavior statements appeared first in some of the scenarios, interview procedure statements appeared first in some of the scenarios, and sample interview questions appeared first in some of the scenarios.

Phase II: Policy Capturing Study

Participants

Participants for the focal study were also recruited from Sona System; the study's profile alerted students that it was a two-part online study worthy of extra credit toward participating Psychology courses. A total of 157 participants took the Time 1 survey. Of these, 11 individuals either did not fully complete the survey or provided responses that could not be interpreted (e.g, in the ranking task, they were inconsistent in which values they preferred). A total of 122 of the eligible Time 1 participants responded to the Time 2 survey. Of these, 14 students did not complete the full survey or reported fatigue or boredom. In all, there were 108 students who successfully provided data for both Time 1 and Time 2, which is not an atypical sample size for policy capturing studies in social sciences. This sample consisted of 35 males and 73 females. The mean age of the sample was 20 years. Forty-three percent of participants reported that they were currently looking for a job; 88% have attended at least 1 job interview, and the majority (77%) has engaged in one to four interviews.

Materials

Time 1 Survey. An electronic survey was developed to collect demographic information about participants, and to assess each participant's rank ordering of the four values. Demographic questions included major, gender, and relevant personal history information (e.g., number of times interviewed, whether or not he/she is currently interviewing). Then, to obtain each participant's rank order of the four values categories, the survey included an ipsative rating task. Every possible pairing of values categories was presented, and the respondent was asked to choose which of the two is more personally relevant to his/her behavior. These results, then, revealed a rank ordering of each individual's values categories. In cases where the person's rank ordering was indecipherable due to internally inconsistent responses, the person's data were omitted from further analyses. Items from this Time 1 survey can be found as Appendix D.

Time 2 Survey. The stimulus in the focal study was the policy capturing activity that included all 60 interview scenarios. The survey began with an informed consent page, to which the participants must agree before advancing to the study's instructions. There, it was outlined that the participant should assume that he/she is looking for a job after graduation.

Because it is believed that PJ Fit would be a common prerequisite to actively considering one's PO Fit in a job search process (e.g., Aiman-Smith et al., 2002), participants were first led through four questions about vocational interest. One open-ended item inquired about the participant's major. A second question listed several industries (e.g., Pharmaceutical, Sports/Leisure, Healthcare) and job types (Human Resources, Marketing, Accounting), and asked the participant to check beside all choices that were of interest. A third item asked the participant to enter keywords toward his/her "dream" job title, and a fourth open-ended item asked for the participant to list any companies for which he/she would most like to work. Then, the survey text read that several jobs fit with the person's

interests. Although this text was identical for all participants, this activity gave the illusion that the following interview scenarios would meet participants' minimum PJ Fit requirements.

Then, the survey introduced the 60 interview scenarios. Participants were told that they should imagine that they had just completed the interview described in the scenario, and respond to the three questions at the end of the profile. It was stressed that the interviews vary only in the ways described; otherwise, all information can be assumed to be constant (e.g., the type of work, the location of the job opportunity, etc.) (e.g., Rentsch & McEwen, 2002; Kristof Brown, Barrick, & Franke, 2002).

Following each profile, the same three questions were used to assess the outcome variables. The first outcome variable is the perceived fit with the target organization. Accordingly, the following question was used: "I feel like my values match/fit with the organization.(adapted from Cable & Judge, 1996)" To measure the perceived fairness of the interview, the second item was "This interview seems like a fair one." The final question, "If offered the opportunity, I would choose to continue in the process for getting this job (adapted from Cable & Judge, 1996)," represented one's intention to continue in the job search process. All three dependent variable questions utilized a 7 point agreement scale, where 1 = "I strongly disagree" and 7 = "I strongly agree." Instructions and a sample item from the Time 2 survey are presented in Appendix E.

To address some of the common weaknesses in policy capturing design, the instructions also encouraged the participants to stop and take a break if, at any time, they felt fatigued or bored (e.g., Kristof Brown et al., 2002). A question at the conclusion of the study also asked "Do you feel like any fatigue, boredom, or external events have caused the information that you provided to be invalid or unusable?"

Procedure

When participants registered for the study, they were presented with a link to the Time 1 survey. Once they accessed the link, they were instructed to complete all demographic and personal history information as well as the ipsative rating task. At the conclusion of the Time 1 survey, participants were thanked and notified that they would receive an invitation for the Time 2 study in approximately 1 week.

After approximately one week, an e-mail message was sent to the study participants. The e-mail message included a link to the Time 2 survey website. The first page featured an informed consent agreement; after agreeing to participation, the participants were led to the study instructions and then to the first of the 60 scenarios. At the conclusion of the scenarios, the participants were thanked for their input, were reminded of the name and contact information of the researchers, and were assured that they would receive the proper credit in the experiment management system.

Chapter 4. Results

Study results are reported below for both the pilot activities of scenario development, and the testing of main effects and mediation hypotheses from the policy capturing activity.

Scenario Development

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the results from the pilot study, and to determine which statements would compose the focal study scenarios. Table 1 lists each interviewer behavior statement, along with its average favorability rating. The mean favorability ratings ranged from 1.21 to 4.74 on the 5-point scale, with an average rating of 3.00 and standard deviation of 1.20. In addition, a favorability percentage was calculated as the percentage of the sample that responded "favorable" or "very favorable," and an unfavorability percentage was calculated as the percentage of the sample that responded "unfavorable" or "very unfavorable." Then, the mean ratings and the percentages were used to establish the most and least favorable behavior statements. Eight statements, with an average rating of 4.42 and an average favorability of 96%, were retained to represent favorable interviewer behaviors, and eight statements, with an average rating of 1.44 and an average unfavorability rating of 96%, were retained to represent unfavorable interviewer behaviors. Finally, six statements, with an average rating of 3.09, that had neither high unfavorability nor high favorability were chosen to be used in practice scenarios. The same procedure was conducted for the set of interview process statements. Table 2 presents the list of statements, along with the means and favorability and unfavorability proportions. The mean favorability ratings ranged from 1.30 to 4.43 on the 5-point scale, with an average rating of 3.18 and standard deviation of .98. Eight statements, with an average of 4.09 and a favorability rating of 87%, were chosen to represent favorable interview process factors and eight statements, with an average of 1.79 and an unfavorability rating of 89%, were chosen to

represent unfavorable interview process factors. Six statements, with an average rating of 2.93, were chosen to be included in the practice items.

Table 3 presents the information that supported the selection of interview questions for scenario creation. For each sample interview question, frequencies are reported, indicating the number of respondents who categorized that question into each of the four values categories. To further qualify this frequency statistic, a second frequency is given, representing the number of participants who both (a) categorized that questions into the given values category, and (b) indicated that an interviewer's asking the question would logically be aimed at finding a candidate who possessed a high level, rather than a low level, of the given value. The data were then examined, with the aim of selecting the four interview questions that were most representative of each values category. For the selected questions, the average proportion of the sample that correctly placed the question into the values category was no less than 94% and the average proportion of the sample that correctly identified the question into the values category and noted that the question would be aimed toward a high level of the values category was no less than 86%. Again, six questions that were not clearly associated with any particular value were chosen to construct the practice items. Table 3 indicates which questions were selected for each value and for practice items.

Policy Capturing Main Effects

The data from each individual participant were submitted to a series of within-subject multiple regression operations. Within each participant, each scenario's data were recorded as a unique case, with three predictors and three criterion variables. Effect coding was used for the interviewer behavior and interview process variables; for example, when a given scenario featured a favorable interviewer behavior statement, the interviewer variable was entered as "+1" and when a scenario featured an unfavorable interview process statement, the interview process variable was entered as "-1." Recall that the values were ranked by participants in the

Time 1 survey. Table 4 presents descriptive statistics about the rankings of the four values. As indicated, the value that was most often chosen as the top value was Responsibility, and the value least often chosen as the top value was Achievement. Within the data set for each individual, the Question variable was coded for each scenario as the participant's assigned rank for that value. For example, when a scenario featured a question that represented the participant's second most highly ranked value (of the four values), a "2" was entered for the question variable.

To examine the data against the study's hypotheses, each of the three dependent variables was regressed onto the three cue variables to explore whether participants' policies were adequately captured. That is, a regression analysis was conducted on each dependent variable, with the three cue variables entered simultaneously as predictors. If the regression analysis revealed that the set of cues accounted for a considerable amount of variance in the decision variable, it was believed that the individual's policy was sufficiently captured and that he/she was consistent in his/her consideration of the available cues. Operationally, the R^2 value and the significance of the F test were examined to make this determination. If the *F* test is significant at $p<.05$, then the policy is said to be significant. If the R^2 value >.50, then the policy is said to account for greater than 50% of the variance in the criterion. Looking across the R^2 data in the current study's dependent variables, there was great variability in these values (the range was .01 to .87). For any given dependent variable, significant policies were captured for at least 85% of the sample; non-significant data were removed from further analyses. All significant policies featured R^2 values equal to or greater than .15; furthermore, a minority of the significantly captured policies (18% for PO Fit, 8% for fairness, and 10% for intentions) explained between 15% and 25% of the criterion. For the testing of all hypotheses, two sets of analyses were performed: one less conservatively including all

significant policies and one more conservatively including only policies with R^2 value >.50 (Cooksey, 1996).

Then, to test the main effects hypotheses, the standardized beta weights were interpreted as the strength at which that factor affected the person's decision (measurement on the criterion variables). Before exploring these results, it should be reported that there were no differences in mean responses to the dependent variables based on which of the two forms were completed (PO Fit: $t(105) = 1.08$, p = n.s.; Fairness: $t(105) = 1.26$, p = n.s.; Intention to Continue: $t(105) = 0.36$, p = n.s.). Intercorrelations among the dependent variables for each participant appear in Table 5. As shown on the table, the correlations and the Alpha coefficient were generally high and positive; this will be discussed in detail later. Also, within each individual, and for each of the three dependent variables, an indicator of his/her intra-rater reliability was calculated by correlating each of the four duplicated scenarios with its repeated occurrence.

First, the perceived Person-Organization Fit variable was regressed onto the three available cues. The resulting R^2s ranged from .01 to .81, with a mean R^2 of .39 and a standard deviation of .21. Eighty-six percent of the sample (93 out of 108 participants) showed statistically significant policies when using the available cues in formulating their impressions of PO Fit. The R^2s for this subset ranged from .15 to .81, M = .44, SD = .17. Furthermore, 18% of the significant policies featured R^2 values less than .25. For 39% of the significant policies, which is 33% the entire sample (36 of 108 participants), the collection of cues accounted for at least 50% of the variance in the criterion variable. The intra-rater reliability coefficients ranged from .09 to 1.00, and averaged r_{xx} = .81.

Data about these policies appear in Table 6. Each participant is listed, along with the standardized beta weight for each cue, the R^2 value, and the indication of his/her intra-rater reliability. As can be seen in the table, the interviewer behavior factor was a significant cue in

95% of the policies. The standardized beta weights for interviewer behavior ranged from .23 to .77, with a mean of .47 and a standard deviation of .13. Similarly, the interview process factor was a significant cue in 87% of the policies. The standardized beta weights for interview process ranged from .25 to .65, with a mean of .42 and a standard deviation of .10. Alternatively, only 20% of the significant policies included a significant effect of interview questions on perceived fit. These beta weights ranged from -.63 to .35, with a mean of -.26 and a standard deviation of .23.

Second, perceived fairness was regressed onto the three available cues. The resulting R^2 ranged from .01 to .87, with a mean of .46 and a standard deviation of .23. Ninety-two participants (85% of the sample) used a statistically significant policy when using the cues in formulating their impression of fairness. The R^2s for this subset ranged from .15 to .87, M = .53, SD = .17. Furthermore, 8% of the significant policies featured R^2 values less than .25. For 57% of the significant policies, which is almost half of the entire sample (52 out of 108 participants), the collection of cues accounted for at least 50% of the variance in the criterion variable. The intra-rater reliability coefficients ranged from .16 to 1.00, and averaged r_{xx} = .76.

Table 7 presents details about the policies that the 92 participants used to arrive at their fairness perceptions. As shown, the beta weight for the interviewer behavior cue was significant in all but two participants' policies (98%). The beta weights ranged from .24 to .77, with a mean of .52 and a standard deviation of .12. Eighty-eight of the 92 (96%) beta weights for the interview process factors were significant. They ranged from .26 to .69, with a mean of .46 and a standard deviation of .11. Finally, only 7 of the 92 participants (8%) utilized the question cue in their policies for fairness. These beta weights ranged from -.31 to .29, with a mean magnitude of -.10 and a standard deviation of .23.

For the final dependent variable, Intention to Continue, the R^2 values ranged from .01to .86, with a mean of .47 and standard deviation of .21. There were 97 participants (90% of the sample) who displayed a statistically significant policy, and the associated R^2 values ranged from .15 to .86, M =.51, SD = .17. For ten of these participants (10% of the significant policies), R^2 were less than .25; fifty-seven participants (53% of the entire sample and 59% of the significant policies) displayed R^2 values greater than .50. Furthermore, the intra-rater reliability coefficients ranged from .16 to 1.00, and averaged r_{xx} = .81.

As shown in Table 8, all 97 participants utilized the interviewer behavior factor when determining their intentions to continue. Beta weights ranged from .25 to .77, with a mean of .52 and a standard deviation of .12. Most participants also used the interview process cue, as 92 of the 97 (95%) were associated with significant beta weights. The standardized beta weights ranged from .24 to .66, with a mean of .45 and a standard deviation of .10. Only 10 of the 97 participants with significant policies utilized the question cue in a significant manner. The average magnitude of these 10 beta weights was -.17, with a standard deviation of .17. These beta weights ranged from -.31 to .29.

Table 9 summarizes these results in one place to help explore the totality of policies against the study's main effects hypotheses. In Hypothesis 1a, it was predicted that interview questions that represent the individual's own values would predict higher levels of perceived PO Fit. To support this hypothesis, there should be a majority of participants for whom a stable policy was captured, where the policies include significant negative beta weights for the Interview Questions variable. There was not a great deal of support from the data in the policy capturing activity. Only 20% of the participants that had significant policies for determining PO Fit considered the interview questions in a meaningful way. For that 20%, the beta weights for the questions variable ranged from -.63 to .35, and the average beta weight was -.26. It should also be noted that for two of these 19 respondents, there was a

positive beta weight, indicating that less relevant values predicted greater perceived PO Fit. When taking these two data points out of the data set, the average significant beta weight is -.32.

In Hypothesis 1b, it was suggested that the favorability of interviewer behaviors predict levels of perceived PO Fit. Of the participants who showed significant policies, 95% of the policies included a significant beta weight for Interviewer Behaviors. These beta weights ranged from .23 to .77, and the average interviewer behavior beta weight was .47. A closer look at only those participants whose policies captured at least 50% of the variance in the criterion variable revealed that 100% of this subset used the interviewer behavior variable in a significant way. The average beta weight from this subset was .58. These data seem to support that interviewer behaviors were significantly predicting one's perceived PO Fit.

The next analyses explored whether interview process factors related to perceived PO Fit. Of the participants who had significant policies to determine their perceived PO Fit, 87% of these policies included significant beta weights for Interview Process Factors. These beta weights ranged in magnitude from .25 to .65, with an average of .42. When this subset was restricted further to include only those participants whose policies accounted for at least 50% of the variance in the dependent variable, the average beta weight for the interview process factors was .49. Taken together, these data provide support for Hypothesis 1c.

In Hypothesis 1d, it was predicted that the values-laden interview questions would be stronger predictors of the participants' perceived PO Fit than the interviewer or interview process factors. Because there is only some evidence in a small subset of the population for the influence of Interview Question, and more evidence that the policies include significant influence from Interviewer Behaviors and Interview Process Factors, Hypothesis 4 was not supported. To further explore this finding, t-tests were conducted to compare the differences between each pair of average beta weights. These tests reveal that the average beta weight for

Interviewer Behavior is greater than that of Interview Process Factors, $t(167)=2.88$, $p<.05$ and that the average beta weight for Interview Process Factors is much greater than that of Interview Question, $t(96) = 15.91$, $p<.001$. Based on these results, plus the fact that 95% and 87% of the beta weights for Interviewer Behaviors and Interview Process factors, respectively, are significant while only 20% of the beta weights for Interview Question are significant, the data point to the opposite findings of Hypothesis 1d.

Next, the dependent variable of Fairness is reviewed briefly. As shown in Table 7, the relationships of the cues and the criterion, fairness, are similar to those between the cues and the previously described dependent variable. That is, interviewer behaviors and interview process factors were both significant factors in the determination of perceived fairness in almost all of the significant captured policies, thereby confirming Hypotheses 2a and 2b respectively. The average beta weight of interviewer behaviors was .52, and the average beta weight of the interview process factors was .46. Furthermore, both cues were significant predictors in 100% of the policies that captured greater than 50% of the variation in the fairness criterion. The average beta weight of interviewer behaviors was .58, and the average beta weight of the interview process factors was .51.

No hypothesis was offered for the relationship between interview questions and perceived fairness. Just as with the other dependent variables, the interview question factor was not a widely used cue to the fairness decision. Only 8% of the significant captured policies featured a significant beta weight for the questions variable. The average beta weight was -.10, which included two positive beta coefficients.

The next set of analyses test whether the three independent variables are used to arrive at one's decision to remain in a job search process. Hypothesis 3a predicted that the favorability of the interviewer's behavior would influence this decision. As detailed in Table 8 and summarized in Table 9, the interviewer behavior beta weights were positive and

significant in 100% of the significant policies captured. The beta weights ranged from .25 to .77, with an average of .52. Furthermore, when the sample of participant policies were restricted to those that captured at least 50% of the variation in the dependent variable, the beta weights ranged from .47 to .77 with an average of .59. This provides clear support for Hypothesis 3a.

Hypothesis 3b predicted that the favorability of the interview process factors would significantly influence the intention decision. As shown in Table 7, in 95% of the significant policies, the interview process factors were positive and significant. The beta weights ranged from .24 to .66, and averaged .45. In the subset of policies that explained at least 50% of the variance in the intention criterion, 100% of the policies included positive and significant beta weights for the interview process factor variable. These beta weights ranged from .25 to .66 with an average of .49.

Hypothesis 3c proposed that the interview question content would significantly predict one's intention to remain as a candidate. Of the captured policies, only 10% included significant use of the questions cue. These beta weights ranged from -.31 to .29, with and average of -.17. It should be noted that the maximum magnitude in this range of beta weights, .29, was the only positive beta weight. When this one policy was removed, the mean beta weight was -.22. Although some individuals did utilize the interview questions cue, there is not enough evidence to support Hypothesis 3c.

Additional main effects analyses. It is customary in policy capturing studies to include some analysis of participant fatigue. A common way to explore potential fatigue is to compare the variance in the participant's ratings from the first half of the scenarios with the variance in the participant's ratings for the second half of the scenarios. The logic is that if an individual becomes fatigued or bored, he/she will stop processing the scenario information on a deep level, and will answer according to response sets, thus decreasing the variance in

responses over time. It was also believed that, because there are three dependent variables, not only would fatigued participants answer the same questions similarly over time, but would answer the different questions for each scenario similarly. This could lead to stronger correlations among the three outcome variables in the second half of the study, and be evidenced through larger coefficient alpha values. Table 10 can help to examine these questions. For each of the study's participants, data are listed for his/her standard deviation in each of the three outcome variables, as well as for his/her coefficient alpha value across outcome variables.

For example, on Table 10, there were nineteen individuals (of the 108 participants) who had significantly less variance in PO Fit perceptions in the second half of the scenarios. Five of these participants were not included in PO Fit analyses because they did not have significant policies. When the remaining 14 people were removed from the analyses presented and discussed in Table 6, a brief look at the changes in results shows that these data do not change the overall conclusions. The average beta weights change from .47 to .48 for the interviewer behaviors predictor, from .42 to .43 for interview process factors, and from -.26 to -.25 for the values question variable. The percentage of participants who used each of the three cues also remained stable: from 95% to 94% for interviewer behaviors, from 87% to 89% for interviewer process, and from 20% to 21% for values-related questions. Furthermore, there were no large increases from the first to the second half of scenarios in terms of the alpha coefficients.

The same investigations were carried out on the remaining two variables as well. For the variable of fairness, there were 12 participants who were removed from the analyses presented in Table 7. This did not change the average beta weight for interviewer behaviors (.52), and changed the average beta weight for interview process factors from .46 to .47, and for values-related questions from -.10 to -.09. The percentages of participants who used each

of the three cues changed from 98% to 100% for interviewer behaviors, and did not change for interview process (96%) or values-related questions (8%). For the outcome of intentions, there were 13 participants who were removed from the analyses presented in Table 8. This changed the average beta weight for interviewer behaviors from .52 to .53; average beta weights for both interview process (.45) and values-related questions (-.17) remained the same. The percentages of participants who used each of the three cues remained at 100% for interviewer behaviors, and changed from 95% to 97% for interview process, and from 10% to 11% for values-related questions. Overall, these results show that fatigue or response sets influenced some individual participants, but this does not change the findings reported above.

It should also be noted that in the above analyses, the values-related question variable was based on the participants' ipsative forced-choice activity. Rankings were assigned to each values category (i.e., achievement, relationships, development, responsibility) based on these responses. While this treatment of the data does represent the order of the individual's values preferences, it also assumes some variability among the rankings. In other words, it assumes that there is a true difference between the individual's first choice and second choice, and, further, that this difference is comparable to the difference between his second and third choice. This variability may or may not present, which has the potential to misrepresent the effect of the values variable on the criterion.

To investigate how this phenomenon affected the study's results, additional analyses were conducted. First, a subset of the sample was selected by choosing some participants who yielded high, medium, and low R^2 values in their ratings of PO Fit. Within the data for each of these participants, three new predictor terms were created and dummy coding was used to represent the four values. Consistent with dummy coding practices, one fewer variable was created; in the current study, variables were created to represent achievement, relationships, and development. For each scenario, if the featured question represented a given value, that

value was coded as "1" and the other three values were coded as "0." If the missing value, responsibility, were featured in a scenario's questions, "0" was entered for all three variables.

Regression analyses were performed where, in the first model, the contextual variables of interviewer behaviors and process factors were entered as predictors of PO Fit perceptions. In the second model, the three dummy coded variables were entered. The change in R^2 from the first to second model represented the incremental variance in PO Fit accounted for by the group of values. The results are presented in Table 11. The first column in the table displays the incremental variance in PO Fit that was explained by the single vector treatment of values rankings. The second column in the table displays the incremental variance in PO Fit that was explained by the three vector treatment of the values variable. If there were significant changes in R^2 change in the effect of the values when entered as three vectors versus when entered as a single vector, then it would indicate that more investigation would be warranted into the effects of each variable (i.e., one of the four values may be more influential, which would be masked by the single ranking approach). Rather, none of the R^2 values were significant in either column of data. Hence, it is concluded that the ranking treatment used for the values variable is not necessarily misrepresenting its effects in the study.

Mediation analyses. To test for mediation effects of PO Fit and fairness in the relationships between the cues and the intention criterion, a series of regression equations was performed as outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986). The first step in this series involves testing whether the independent variable affects the dependent variable; if this test is not significant, then there is no relationship to be mediated by a third variable. The second step of the series tests whether the independent variable leads to the proposed mediating variable. If this relationship does not exist, then it would not make sense that it would be the mechanism through which the independent variable affects the dependent variable. In the final regression

analysis, the dependent variable is regressed onto both the proposed mediator and the independent variable at once. Investigation of the effect of the mediator on the dependent variable will reveal whether or not the mediator, controlling for any effect of the independent variable, significantly affects the dependent variable. Finally, if this effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable -- after controlling for any effect of the proposed mediator -- is less than the same relationship in the first step (when the effect of the mediator was not controlled), then it is concluded that the proposed mediating variable is indeed at least partially responsible for the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. If the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is reduced to non-significance, then the relationship is said to be fully mediated by the third variable.

No published studies were found that both utilized policy capturing methods and tested for mediating relationships. That said, because policy capturing is based on multiple regression, it was decided that the tests described above would allow the investigation of the remaining hypotheses. Again, all analyses took place within the individual participant. For each participant, the set of regression analyses was conducted for each of the mediation hypotheses. The results of all tests of mediation are summarized in Table 12. Each row in the table represents a single hypothesized mediation relationship. The top half of the table displays the results for PO Fit as a mediator of the relationships, and the bottom half of the table displays the results for perceived fairness as a mediator of the relationships. Again, the left side of the table displays data for all significant participant policies, and the right side of the table displays data for policies that explained at least 50% of the variance in the intention criterion variable. The data within the table report the percentage of the sample for which the mediation conditions have been met. To illustrate, for any given hypothesized relationship in the table, the indices represent the portion of the significant policies that have met the first step condition (a significant relationship between the independent and dependent variables,

when the independent variable is entered into the regression analysis individually), the second step condition (a significant relationship between the independent and proposed mediator, when the independent variable is entered into the regression analysis individually), the third step condition (a significant relationship between the mediator and the dependent variable, when the mediator and the independent variable are entered into the regression analysis simultaneously), and the fourth step condition (when the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable is weaker in the third regression, which controls for the effect of the mediator, than in the first regression, where the independent variable was entered individually). The final column for each subset of the population (i.e., significant policies, R^2>.50) shows the percentage of those policies where the relationship between the independent and dependent variables became no longer significant after controlling for the mediator (fully mediated).

To test Hypothesis 4a, that perceived PO Fit mediates the relationship between Interview Questions and Intention to Continue, the four regression operations were conducted. First, the intention to remain in the job search was regressed upon the question variable. As suggested in the results from Hypothesis 1, the captured policies largely did not include a relationship between Interview Questions and Intention to Continue. From an idiographic perspective, when entered individually, Interview Questions led to Intentions for only 2 of 97 (2%) participants. In both of these policies, the second requirement - that the question variable leads to the PO Fit mediator - was satisfied. Furthermore, when Intention was then regressed onto both the PO Fit mediator and the questions variable, it was shown that the mediator did predict the criterion variable, and that the relationship between Questions and Intention was reduced to non-significance. One of these two policies was within the subset of those that accounted for greater than 50% of the variance in the dependent variable. Looking across participants, because there was no convincing

relationship between the Questions variable and the Intention variable and therefore no relationship to mediate, Hypothesis 4a was not supported.

The same approach was taken to test Hypotheses 4b and 4d. As shown in Table 12, an investigation of all significant policies reveal that for 85% of this subset (76% of the 108 participants in the study), there is evidence that PO Fit at least partially mediates the relationship between Interviewer Behaviors and Intentions to Remain in the Job Search; in 41% of this sample (37% of the 108 participants in the study), PO fully mediated the relationship. When this subset was restricted to policies with R^2>.50, 91% of participant policies supported the requirements for at least partial mediation with 46% demonstrating full mediation. This provides support for Hypotheses 4b.

The requirements for mediation of PO Fit on the relationship between Interview Process Factors and Intentions are also presented in Table 12. As shown, in 76% of significant policies (74% of the 108 participants in the study), all four requirements for some mediation were met. Furthermore, in 51% of the significant policies (49% of the 108 participants in the study), there was evidence for full mediation. When this subset is restricted to policies with R^2>.50, 93% of these policies support the requirements for at least partial mediation (51% for full mediation). This provides some support for Hypothesis 4d.

Figures A and B were designed to illustrate the nature of the mediational paths tested in Hypotheses 4b and 4d. The top of Figure A displays data from two participants for whom PO Fit perceptions partially mediated the relationship between interviewer behaviors and intentions to continue in the selection process. For these two participants, the path between interviewer behaviors and PO Fit perceptions and the path between PO Fit perceptions and intentions to continue in the selection process were both significant. There was also, though, a significant direct relationship between interviewer behaviors and intentions to continue, which supports partial mediation. Conversely, as shown in the top of Figure B, there were

other participants for whom the direct relationship between interviewer behaviors and intentions were non-significant when controlling for the mediator variable. That is, for participants 62 and 123, PO Fit fully mediated the relationship between interviewer behaviors and intentions to remain in the selection process. The bottom half of Figure A shows path models that illustrate partial mediation of PO Fit in the relationship between interview process and intentions. Again, these paths feature significant direct relationships between the main predictor and the dependent variable. The bottom half of Figure B displays path models that illustrate full mediation, where no direct path between the interview process and the intention criterion were present.

The final set of hypotheses proposes that perceptions of fairness mediate the relationships between the cue variables and the intention criterion. Though it was not hypothesized, it should be reported that no mediation for the fairness variable was found in the relationship between the question content and the intentions variable. This was found because questions typically did not predict intentions. A closer idiographic look at the two participants for whom questions did predict intentions revealed that in one case, all requirements were met to support partial mediation and that in the other case, all requirements were met with the exception of the relationship between questions and fairness, which did approach significance (b=-.26, r=.06).

As evidenced in the middle row on the bottom half of Table 12, data support that all requirements of mediation were met for the role of fairness as a mediator in the relationship between interviewer behaviors and intentions. In 90% of all significant policies (81% of the 108 participants in the study), and 95% of all policies where R^2>.50, the requirements for the mediating effect of fairness were upheld. In 62% of the sample of significant policies (56% of the 108 participants in the study), there was full mediation of the relationship between behaviors and intentions. This provides support for Hypothesis 4c. Finally, Hypothesis 4e

proposed that fairness has the same effect on the relationship between process factors and the intention decision. A similar result was found, as 89% of all significant policies (80% of the 108 participants in the study), and 95% of those with R^2>.50, supported the existence of at least some mediation.

Chapter 5. Discussion

The aim of the current research was to explore what factors that are available during a typical interview situation influence job candidates as they determine their level of PO Fit. This question holds great importance for research and practice, as perceptions of a strong fit will lead to one's intention to continue in the job process and ultimate acceptance of a job offer. Knowing what components are most influential within and across individual job candidates could help to clarify ambiguities in the knowledge base, and also suggest to employers how to target their recruitment and selection processes to retain the most attractive candidates.

In the reported study, a set of interview scenarios was used to represent actual interview experiences. Three factors were chosen to be systematically manipulated across the interviews, in an effort to determine the relative contribution of each cue. The definition used for perceived PO Fit was congruence between the values of the organization and the values of the individual. As interviewing literature consistently describes the process as a reciprocal exchange of information through question-and-answer dialogue, and if interviewers are using pointed interview questions as a chance to engage in values-related talk, then the content of interview questions would also provide information that candidates use to make their determinations of values congruence. Therefore, it was believed that a strong predictor of perceived PO Fit would be interview question content.

Because the interview is such a cognitively busy interaction, and the content of that dialogue is only one of many factors influencing both parties' perceptions, it was also believed that job candidates would allow contextual factors to influence outcomes decisions. The way that an interviewer behaves interpersonally, and the way that the interview is conducted procedurally are commonly known to influence overall applicant reactions, including fairness perceptions and intentions to continue in the selection process. Here,

because all available stimuli could be interpreted as signals of cultural or social characteristics, interviewer behavior and interview process factors were hypothesized to influence PO Fit perceptions. That said, the more relevant messages in the question content was expected to be a stronger correlate of PO Fit.

As the assumption of Fit research is that PO Fit perceptions lead to a candidate's attraction to and intentions toward an employment relationship, the current study modeled this relationship in one experiment by including both outcome variables. Specifically, it was tested whether PO Fit would partially explain why being asked certain questions could relate to one's intentions to remain in the job search process with an organization. Similarly, mediation analyses tested whether any of the positive effects of interviewer and process variables on one's intentions is due to PO Fit. Finally, because some of the strongest effects in associated literature are related to perceptions of fairness, mediation analyses were also conducted to determine if fairness mediated these relationships.

Findings

In research situations where various cues are predicted to impact some decision making, policy capturing is an efficient technique for experimentally testing the significance and relative contribution of each variable. In the current study, PO Fit, fairness perceptions, and intention to continue were each treated as decision outcomes. When interview question content, interviewer behaviors, and process factors were presented as available stimuli in the interviewing situation, a portion of the participant sample formed stable policies, utilizing at least one of these cues to arrive at the decision outcomes. There was variability in the R^2 values for each of the three outcome variables, suggesting that individuals used the cues to different extents. Comparing across the outcomes, there was more variability in how participants used the cues to determine Fit perceptions than there was in determining fairness

and intentions. This supports the notion that Fit is a complex concept that likely varies idiosyncratically.

Counter to the first hypothesis, it was found that, across participants, congruence of interview questions and personal values did not affect candidates' perceptions of PO Fit. Only a small percentage of the participants seemed to utilize the question cue in their PO Fit perceptions, and in those participant policies, the effect of question content was smaller than those of interview behavior and interview process. Conversely, almost all participants weighed the effects of interviewer behavior and interview process in a positive and significant way, providing support for Hypotheses 1b and 1c. These results also show that Hypothesis 1d was disconfirmed. Though it was predicted that values-related questions would be more related to PO Fit than contextual factors, this was not the case.

Looking across the policies for determining fairness perceptions, it was clear that a majority of participants considered the interviewer and process factors. This agrees with research in the justice literature base, where procedural and interactional effects are well supported. Thus, Hypotheses 2a and 2b were supported. When investigating the ultimate dependent variable of intention to continue in the selection process, familiar effects were found. Both interviewer behaviors and interview process factors were used in the overwhelming majority of participants' policies, confirming Hypotheses 3a and 3b. These results were not surprising, given that both variables were incorporated in the current study because of their well supported relationships with important recruitment outcomes (e.g., Chapman et al., 2005). Again, question content was utilized by very few participants, disconfirming Hypothesis 3c. It seems that the sample questions in the profiles were not actively used by participants in their decision-making.

Mediation analyses were conducted for each individual's data set. For the significant relationships between interviewer behavior and intention to continue and between interview

process factors and intention to continue, both PO Fit and fairness were confirmed as partial or full mediators for many participants. It seems that when interviewers behave in friendly, knowledgeable or otherwise desirable ways, or when and in interview is conducted in a way that pleases the interviewee, he/she will see these behaviors and procedures as indicative of a fair interview and a good match with one's values. These will then motivate the candidate to remain interested in pursuing a job with the organization. This mediation of PO Fit could be due to a signaling effect, where participants infer certain values when confronted with favorable or unfavorable interview characteristics.

While these findings point to generally mixed support for the study's hypotheses, a closer look at the results points to two important issues with the current study. Any conclusions from the reported results should be developed with these issues in mind. First, the bivariate correlations and the coefficient alpha among the three outcome variables (PO Fit, fairness, and intention to continue) were uniformly high. Second, the manner in which the cue factors were manipulated differed for the questions variables versus the more contextual variables. For each of these two issues, the following discussion will present (a) how this issue affects the findings and conclusions, (b) how this can be interpreted from both a methodological and a conceptual perspective, and (c) how future research may be designed to address this issue.

Intercorrelated Dependent Variables

The three outcome variables were highly intercorrelated. With individuals' coefficient alphas ranging from .518 to 1.000, with an average of .922, it seems that, on the whole, participants were not distinguishing among these three variables. Therefore, all results must be interpreted with caution and conservatism. The primary related issue is that it is unclear whether the proposed independent variables are actually predicting what is conceptually each dependent variable, or some aggregate of the three. Second, one step of the mediation

analyses entails correlating the proposed mediator with the DV. Although it is expected that there will be a correlation between these variables, almost every participant policy in the mediation analysis featured a significant relationship between intention to continue and the two proposed mediator variables.

The nature of the activity for participants may have contributed to intercorrelation among dependent variables. Participants read a total of 60 scenarios, each followed by the same three questions presented together and employing the same 7-point agreement rating scale. Policy capturing studies typically feature only one outcome question following the scenarios. In some cases, multiple questions or scales of items are used, but they still measure a single variable (e.g., Cable & Judge, 2000; Kristof-Brown et al., 2002). In other studies (e.g., Aiman-Smith et al., 2001), two dependent variables were investigated, but the sample was divided in half, such that a portion of the participants responded to each. This limits the extent to which you can model relationships among variables within a single decision-maker. One unpublished policy capturing study (Blancero & Dyer, 1995) included five dependent variables, with multiple items measuring each variable. The authors tested mediation hypotheses where one of these variables was proposed to mediate the relationships between three other variables and a final outcome. Due to differences in the policy capturing methods used (any one participant saw and responded to only eight of 64 scenarios in the 2^6 design) and the data reported (no internal reliability or factor analyses among the dependent variables were reported), it was difficult to compare results from their study to the current one. Finally, Ones and Viswesveran (1999) included four outcome variables in a policy capturing study of expatriate selection; while they found the variables to be considerably correlated, they relied on the distinct conceptualizations and literature bases to justify them as separate constructs. Ultimately, it is likely that highly correlated outcome variables can be attributed to the method employed; this should be noted as a caveat to any firm conclusions.

From a more conceptual perspective, it could also be true that the pattern of responses represents what actually occurs in job applicants' cognitions. That is, job candidates, after an interview, may form a holistic impression of the organization and potential employment situation. In a form of halo effect, they may then allow this impression to act as a lens through which other attitudes are formed or reported. For example, if the candidate has the clear impression that he/she would like to work for an organization, he/she will likely respond to any questions in a way that is consistent with that overall intention. Or, if he/she feels strong positive affect for the interviewer or a strong feeling of comfort with the culture of an organization, he/she may assign additional positive traits to the organization. The findings from the current study suggest that job candidates are more likely to form a single generalized impression of an interview situation than separate and discreet psychological reactions.

It is a strong finding in the literature that values congruence will lead to meaningful recruiting outcomes. In the current study, intention to continue was chosen because it would logically be the most proximal decision rendered by the applicant. One of the strengths of the current study was the testing of predictors of PO Fit, the relationship between PO Fit and intentions, and the mediating effect PO Fit on the predictor-intentions relationship. This improves upon various studies that have manipulated the values of an organization to find an effect on recruiting outcomes. In the Judge and Bretz (1992) policy capturing study, the authors listed whether a potential employer was high or low on a given work-related value. When the participant's reported value matched the organization's listed value, and this led to increased reported intention to accept a job offer, this relationship was explained as evidence of PO Fit. However, the variable of perceived PO Fit was not measured. In the current study, one goal was to measure the outcome variable of intention to continue and the mediating variable of PO Fit perception together. While a strong positive correlation was expected, the

average bivariate correlation of r = .846 and the overall intercorrelation among all dependent questions render the mediation results challenging to interpret with much confidence. That is, to the extent that the correlations between the proposed mediators and the outcome variable were artifacts of the method employed, it is possible that the reported findings have inflated the true mediating effects of PO Fit.

To retain a similar design in testing this hypothesis in the future, and to reduce any encouragement to respond to multiple dependent questions identically, a Time 2 policy capturing activity could have half of the profiles followed by PO Fit measures and half of the profiles (identical to the first half) followed by intention measures. This would likely require the use of fewer profiles, which would potentially decrease the level of confidence in the profiles. Alternatively, a three-phased approach could be implemented. As in the current study, a first survey may establish the participant's values. A second survey, the first policy capturing activity, may present the series of scenarios and feature the single outcome question about perceived PO Fit. Then, after some time period, a second policy capturing activity could be administered in a Time 3 survey. The Time 3 policy capturing survey would include the same scenarios as the Time 2 survey, but could ask about Intentions to Continue rather than perceived PO Fit. Then, these data could be matched and investigated for effects.

To summarize, the three outcome measures in the policy capturing activity were highly correlated. This pattern could be a result of the procedure itself, such that participants cannot easily consider a single profile with limited information, and then make relatively fine-grained distinctions on outcomes. Or, it could be that people, in similar situations, will experience only generalized reactions. While these issues warrant attention, it should also be noted that the findings do not exactly point to isomorphism of the outcomes. Differences in how each cue factor predicts the three outcomes, as well as the evidence of partial mediation in many participants' policies (i.e., additional variance explained in the outcomes, after

removing variance accounted for by the mediators), suggest that participants are not necessarily forming a single reaction. The discussion now turns from criterion issues to predictor issues.

Manipulation of Independent Variables

The results indicate that interviewer behaviors, followed by process-oriented factors about how the interview was conducted, were more likely to impact interviewee reactions than was the content of interview questions. Considering that the questions were designed to evoke a level of values congruence and that PO Fit was defined here as values congruence, this finding was unexpected. This too could be explored from both a methodological and a conceptual perspective.

From a methodological perspective, one need only refer to the manner in which these cues were manipulated in the current study. Interviewer behaviors and interview process factors were operationalized in the same way: pilot participants rated their most and least preferred instances of each. Then, the extremes were retained and included in scenario building. These resulting statements were behaviors and procedures that people universally favor or disfavor strongly. The third variable, values-related questions, was treated in a much more sensitive way. In an effort to tailor the data collection to each individual's values, the Time 1 survey collected the relative rank order of four distinct, but all socially desirable, values. Then, questions were written to clearly and unambiguously represent each of the values. The questions that were selected based on pilot survey data seemed to clearly represent the given values. However, the levels at which participants needed to process the information in the various cues were markedly different. That is, for interviewer behaviors and interview process, the statement could be read and interpreted at face value. For the questions factor, participants would first need to consider that the question was indicative of some concept, and then integrate that concept with his/her own commitment to personal

values. Aware of the need to accomplish this task 60 times, participants might have failed to exert this level of processing in favor of a more cognitively simple strategy. The naivety of participants (while 88% of participants reported having interviewing experience, they are removed from the world of full-time employment) may also be a factor; with less job-search experience than the average job-seeker, they may be less likely to consider values-related information and more likely to be influenced by simple and superficial variables.

Apart from methodological issues, it is possible that results are indicative of what is actually occurring as part of job candidates' cognitions. A person's reported feelings of fit are known to be highly subjective. Regardless of the definition adopted in the current study, it is likely that candidates' real feelings of fit are much less focused and more of a generalized affective reaction. If this were true, it would seem logical that the most salient factors during the interview setting would influence one's fit perceptions. In the current study, with aspects of the interviewer and aspects of the interview both being manipulated strongly, it is not surprising that corresponding fit perceptions were affected as they were.

Another possible explanation is that interviewees do not necessarily assume that the questions asked during an interview are indicative of the organization's values. They may process the questions enough to understand what is being asked, reply in a way that either best represents his/her feelings or impresses the interviewer, and focus all further reflection on his/her responses rather than the question stimuli. It is also possible that they would not place as much emphasis on what is being asked in the questions as they would on other information obtained.

Future research could shed some light on the findings related to the featured independent variables. A simple extension of the current research could task participants with not only ranking the four variables, but also assigning a numerical rating that represents the value's relevance to his/her life. This would allow for a more complete examination of the

individuals' exact standing on each value, or at least select for the study only those participants who show true variation in their commitment to the given values. Another extension of the current research could employ a more exhaustive values taxonomy. The original version of the Organizational Culture Profile (O'Reilly et al., 1991), for example, lists over 50 values. It is more likely that, among this list, participants will identify with some values very strongly and even dis-identify with others as strongly. While it does not seem likely that any individuals will have strong feelings against a value like "social responsibility" or "learning and development," they may have stronger feelings against values such as "risk-taking" or "aggressiveness." If so, a similar study could be implemented with three dichotomous predictors: interviewer behaviors, interview process, and interview question, where the question was manipulated to represent only the participant's highest and lowest value.

It should also be noted that while interview questions were only statistically significant in a scant minority of participants' policies for any of the outcome variables, almost all relationships were in the predicted negative direction. That is, there was some evidence that questions that relate to people's most personally relevant values were related to more positive interviewee reactions and questions that were related to people's least personally relevant values were related to less positive interviewee reactions. Future research can investigate whether findings would be different if less dominant or polarized statements were used to represent the other cues. Furthermore, the questions variable was associated more with the PO Fit criterion than the other two criteria. Considering how the question variable was manipulated and the outcome variable was measured, this finding was expected, and provides further support for at least some distinction among outcomes. Taken together, this suggests that some questions may influence candidates as they process the information from a job interview experience. Future research should continue to consider this question

and also investigate how participants combine various sources of values-relevant information. For example, it could be true that the interviewer lists the core values of an organization, but asks questions which indicate that an entirely different set of values is expected. Alternatively, research could investigate how information obtained during an interview is combined with information obtained outside of the interview setting (e.g., recruitment materials, website text).

Strengths and Limitations

Beyond the two issues outlined above, there are other aspects of the current study that should be noted. Some of these reflect the strengths and weaknesses of policy capturing approaches in general, and others are specific to the policy capturing used in the specific study.

Because the purpose of the study was to investigate what factors affect individual perceptions of PO Fit, it was logical to employ policy capturing methods, which model individual decision making according to predefined cue variables. The level of experimental control translates into greater internal validity than is possible in other research designs. Using only three cues, with two levels on each of two cues and four values on the third, allowed for a manageable number of profiles to be read and rated by participants. Furthermore, whereas many policy capturing studies in the literature employ only one profile for each cell of the factorial combination of cues, the current study used three instances of each. This allowed for greater confidence that the policies captured are truly representative of the decision-maker's relative use of available cues. Several other best practices from policy capturing methodology were used, including the randomized presentation of cue order, the repetition of scenarios to check for intrarater reliability, and practice decision exercises to orient the participants to the exercise itself.

Another strength of the current study's design is the general approach to cue manipulation. Many policy capturing studies feature rather simple and direct manipulations of the key variables. For example, in Judge & Bretz (1992), to manipulate "fairness" as an organization's cultural value, the authors used "Fairness is an important consideration in organizational activities (high)" and "Fairness is not an important consideration in organizational activities (low; p. 265)." If the current study were implemented in a similar fashion, the cue statements might have resembled the following: "The interviewer was friendly" (for interviewer effects), "The interview was structured"(for interview process effects), and "Most of the interviewer's questions were about relationships" (for values effects). While such statements are clear and unambiguous, and may have led to different results, it was decided that they are much too simplistic and remove the interpretation that is inherent in actual decision making scenarios. Instead, care was taken to prepare statements that were externally feasible, that were behaviors and quotations rather than interpretations or perceptions, and that were verified by a sample of pilot participants.

As an approach, policy capturing is not without its drawbacks. Most notably, the increased level of internal validity is also associated with a compromised level of realism. Certainly, an individual's reading a collection of scenarios is a different activity than his/her participation in actual job interviews. A large number of scenarios are required to carry out a policy capturing design, yet rarely are job interviewees participating in quite as many actual interviews. Moreover, a non-trivial weakness of typical policy capturing designs is the inevitable restriction of cues. Of course, there are many more cues inherent in any interview than is feasible to include in scenarios. In fact, many would argue that interviewer behaviors, interview procedures, and question content are not the three most salient or memorable factors. In the current study, an attempt was made to hold PJ Fit constant through a fake job choice exercise, but there would be no way, in one study, to address all of the other most

relevant factors. Despite the common guidance for participants to assume that all other aspects of the interview are identical, other than that which is reported, this is a difficult assumption to make. Future studies could select the variables that have historically correlated the most strongly with applicant reactions, and find some way (similar to the PJ Fit activity here) to address this in the procedure. A final weakness in the contrived setting of this policy capturing activity is the single exemplar of behavior, question, and process. In actual interviews, the individual would remember more than one aspect of each of the cues.

Theoretical Implications

Despite the issues reviewed, the current study has contributed to the relevant bodies of research. Judge et al. (2000) called for more research in the interviewing domain that focuses on applicant reactions as meaningful outcome variables, and that incorporates PO Fit as an interview construct. This study addressed both recommendations, but treated PO Fit solely as values congruence. One direction for future study is to explore other content-relevant antecedents to values congruence determinations; candidates can potentially collect information about a company's values from many sources, both during and prior to an interview situation. A second direction for future study is to incorporate other leading definitions of PO Fit. There are many definitions of PO Fit, ranging from a supplementary personality match to complementary exchange of skills and resources. Also, recognizing that for some individuals, the concept of fit may still differ from any of these definitions, future research may employ creative techniques for exploring individual-level conceptualizations of fit. For example, Billsberry et al. (2005) outlined a causal mapping approach to uncovering the very individualized definitions of PO Fit.

According to the current findings, people may interpret general preferences for interviewers behaviors and processes as symbols of PO Fit. However, fit should fundamentally relate to the congruence between the individual and the organization, and not

merely the main effects of certain behaviors. Early research in PO Fit from the employer's perspective (Rynes & Gerhart, 1991) established that PO Fit was important above and beyond general employability of an applicant. Research should continue to establish this from the candidate's perspective as well. Ployhart and Ryan (1997) have suggested that applicant reactions research explore the role of individual differences; there may be such variables that predispose some job candidates to weigh values or fit more than others.

Practical Implications

From a practical perspective, the results indicate that small behaviors and procedural elements can have meaningful effects on applicants' overall reactions. These reactions may be generalized and non-focused, and lead to candidates' decisions to remain in the applicant pool. If retaining applicants is important, companies should take these behaviors and procedures seriously. A glance through the results from the pilot test provides a list of behaviors and procedures that job applicants like and do not like. (It should also be noted that many of the procedural elements that are typically associated with structured interviews and have been criticized in the research for serious negative implications on applicant reactions, Kohn & Dipboye, 1998, were not considered among the most unfavorable in the current study). The policy capturing activity provides validation that these preferences are not just trivial; they are influential in overall attitudes and intentions.

Furthermore, while guidance has pointed organizations toward using the interview as an opportunity to test the candidate's values (Parsons & Wilkerson, 1999), the current study provides a way to do this. The questions listed here, to varying degrees, demonstrate stimuli that can stimulate values-related discussion. It remains to be seen whether these questions alone, or the questions in conjunction with other information, provide cues to the individual about the values of the organization or are effective in collecting candidate values information.

From the candidate's perspective, it would make sense to think critically about the stimuli from interview situations that factor into any decisions or perceptions. According to the findings, people are influenced by what may be trivial or irrelevant interviewer behaviors and procedures. In some cases, being treated impersonally, for example, may indeed be a signal about the organization's culture. However, placing too much emphasis on such an infirm condition at the expense of considering other stimuli (e.g., what questions are being asked, which may indicate what is truly important criteria for an organization) may engender non-optimal decision-making. Regardless, past research indicates that employers are often mindful of their organizational culture, and look for candidates who are duly aligned with these values. It would be a good exercise for candidates to reflect on their own personal values, their commitment to choosing environments that support these values, and their strategies for detecting these values in potential employment situations. As PO Fit is known to predict post-selection outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), these considerations at the pre-hire phase could be quite valuable.

Conclusions

The current study was the first to investigate how PO Fit perceptions are shaped by available factors during the job interview situation. Although questions about the intercorrelation among outcomes and the manipulation of independent variables preclude too strong an assertion about the findings, some conclusions can be drawn. Interviewees do seem to use cues from the interview environment to form their impressions about how well they fit with an organization. Strong contextual elements, such as the interviewer's behaviors and interview process factors, were generally used more than the values-related content of interview questions as candidates form their impressions of PO Fit, perceived fairness, and one's intentions to continue in the selection process. In fact, for many people, favorable

interviewer behaviors and interview procedures left the candidate willing to remain in the selection process *because of* a perceived fit with the organization and perceptions of interview fairness. These findings should inspire more research about how individuals define and weigh various Fit conceptualizations as they navigate the job search process.

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Appendix A

Interviewer Behavior Survey Items (Pilot Study)

This first section of the survey deals with behaviors that might be displayed by the interviewer (the person at the employing organization who conducts the interview) during the course of a job interview.

In each row, there is a statement describing an interviewer's behavior. For each statement, imagine that you are a job candidate interviewing for a job, and that the interviewer displays that behavior. Then, please rate the extent to which you would find that behavior favorable. (favorable means that you would have a positive reaction; unfavorable means that you would have a negative reaction)

	I would find this… 1 = very unfavorable 2 = somewhat unfavorable 3 = neither favorable nor unfavorable 4 = somewhat favorable 5 = very favorable				
The interviewer checked to make sure you had directions for the drive home	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer was reading a file on her desk during the interview	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer spoke in a very quiet and meek voice	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer used some jargon that you did not understand	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer regularly leaned toward you as you were talking	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer regularly used your name throughout the interview	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer told you the story of how the company was founded	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer complimented you on how well your resume was put together	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer did not answer the phone when it rang during the interview	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer maintained intense and constant eye contact	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer offered you refreshments when you arrived at the office	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer did not know the company facts that you asked about	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer sent a text message to someone during the interview	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer brought you a bottle of water for your drive home	1	2	3	4	5
During the interview the interviewer referred back to things you said earlier in the conversation.	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer spoke with a lot of inflection in her voice	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer gave a lengthy history of the company's life cycle	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer once called you by the wrong name	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer used large and exaggerated gestures	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer sat in his chair with his arms crossed on his chest	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer maintained comfortable eye contact throughout the interview	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer lost his train of thought at one point as he was talking	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer seemed familiar with your background from your resume	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer used especially proper grammar throughout the interview	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer did not smile during the interview	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer used many examples and stories to make a point	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer used incorrect grammar during the interview	1	2	3	4	5
Before the interview the interviewer noted how stressful the job search can be and gave some friendly encouragement	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer did not seem familiar with your background from your resume	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer interrupted you as you were talking	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer used language that was easy to understand	1	2	3	4	5

The interviewer provided pamphlets and website addresses so that you can find more information about the company	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer did not stand up or shake your hand when you were led into her office	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer thanked you for driving the distance to come to the interview	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer checked to make sure that you were comfortable	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer checked his watch at various times throughout the interview	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer slouched in his chair behind his desk	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer smiled regularly throughout the interview	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer was staring off into space as you were answering a question	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer said something slightly derogatory (negative) about your college	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer gave you her phone number and e-mail address and encouraged you to be in touch if you had any other questions	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B

Interview Format Survey Items (Pilot Study)

This next section of the survey deals with how the interview is conducted.

In each row, there is a statement describing a procedural or format-related aspect of the interview. For each statement, imagine that you are a job candidate interviewing for a job, and that the interview proceeds as described. Then, please rate the extent to which you would find that description favorable. (favorable means that you would have a positive reaction; unfavorable means that you would have a negative reaction)

	I would find this… 1 = very unfavorable 2 = somewhat unfavorable 3 = neither favorable nor unfavorable 4 = somewhat favorable 5 = very favorable				
All questions were read off a list of questions	1	2	3	4	5
The interview was well over on hour and a half long	1	2	3	4	5
After the interviewer was finished asking questions she asked you if there was anything else that you wanted to talk about that wasn't yet covered.	1	2	3	4	5
When you were answering questions the interviewer provided no nonverbal feedback	1	2	3	4	5
When you asked the interviewer to rephrase a question he/she would only repeat the question	1	2	3	4	5
The interview process could best be described as conversational	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer took notes as you were giving your responses	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer started by providing an outline of the interview process	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer read interview questions verbatim from an interview guide	1	2	3	4	5
It was clear that all questions were based on job knowledge and skills	1	2	3	4	5
You found it relatively easy to guide the conversation to topics about which you were comfortable speaking	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer seemed to create questions on the spot based on your dialogue and previous responses	1	2	3	4	5
The interview could best be described as relaxed	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer paused to rate you after every response that you gave	1	2	3	4	5
You received plenty of nonverbal feedback (nodding head squinting eyes)	1	2	3	4	5
As you were answering the questions the interviewer provided no verbal feedback	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer had an interview guide that he/she followed closely	1	2	3	4	5
You were told that you could not ask any questions to the interviewer; you needed to direct them to someone else.	1	2	3	4	5
The structure of the interview could best be described as casual	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer did not ask if you had any questions about the job or the company	1	2	3	4	5
The interviewer asked the questions and did not engage in much other dialogue	1	2	3	4	5
You had ample opportunities to share the information that you most wanted to share	1	2	3	4	5
You were not given much opportunity to share the information that you most wanted to share	1	2	3	4	5
The structure of the interview could best be described as formal	1	2	3	4	5
You asked the interviewer if you were on the right track with your answer and	1	2	3	4	5

he told you how you should expand a little					
The interview took place over lunch at an upscale restaurant	1	2	3	4	5
The interview could best be described as comfortable	1	2	3	4	5
The interview began promptly at the time quoted	1	2	3	4	5
The interview did not begin until 15 minutes after the quoted start time	1	2	3	4	5
You were asked to give your permission that the interview be audio recorded	1	2	3	4	5
Other than the main interviewer there were two other people in the room rating your answers	1	2	3	4	5
As you answered questions you received some feedback about whether you were on the right track	1	2	3	4	5
You had the opportunity to ask as many questions about the company as you wanted	1	2	3	4	5
As part of the interview you had to read a case study and answer questions about what you read	1	2	3	4	5
From time to time in the interview the conversation flowed into topics like vacation spots and favorite movies	1	2	3	4	5
The interview process could best be described as structured	1	2	3	4	5
You were asked for very specific examples of on-the-job behavior	1	2	3	4	5
When you asked the interviewer to clarify a question he was able to describe what he was looking for in clearer language	1	2	3	4	5
During the interview you had the opportunity to talk off the record to recently hired employees	1	2	3	4	5
The company reimbursed you for mileage and lodging for before and after the interview	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C

Values Interview Questions Activity (Pilot Study)

Introduction

During any interview, the interviewer asks a series of questions that you, as the candidate, must answer. On each of the upcoming screens, you will be given a question that could be asked by an interviewer.

You will then be asked to categorize that question in terms of the value that it represents. A value is a guiding principle or belief that influences the behaviors and commitment of people, or groups of people. You will be given a list of four values: Responsibility, Development, Relationships, and Achievement (descriptions are given on the following screens).

For each interview question, you will select the value that is most represented in the question.
There are approximately 30 questions. When you are finished with this section, you are finished with the survey.

Sample Item

Question: How important is it for you to form meaningful relationships with your co-workers?

Which of the following values does this question most represent?

Achievement: Setting goals and accomplishing them, focusing on results, being better than the competition
Development: Learning new knowledge and skills, opportunities to accept new challenges and advance both personally and in the company
Relationships: Building friendships and social networks, supporting and helping others in their work, true collaboration and teamwork
Responsibility: Working for the greater good of society, treating all employees with fairness and equality, demonstrating ethics and morals

By asking this question, do you think that the interviewer would be looking to hire someone who is high or low in the value you selected?

Low
High

Interview Questions

How important is it to you to form meaningful relationships with your coworkers?
Give me an example of when a company needs to put ethics ahead of profit.
If the company offered a tuition reimbursement program, would you consider pursuing an advanced degree?
Tell me about a time when you succeeded at something solely because of cooperation and teamwork.
What is the most difficult goal that you ever set for yourself and achieved?
Tell me about a time when you put "doing the right thing" ahead of accomplishing a goal or completing a task.
What do you think it means for an organization to have a "continuous learning culture"?

Tell me about any awards, honors, or recognitions you have received recently.

What do you think is the key to getting along well with others in the workplace?

How would you describe your competitive spirit?

Why do you think it is important for a company to provide training to its employees?

How important do you think it is to engage in charitable and philanthropic work?

Tell me about a time when you accepted a difficult challenge, and it ended up teaching you some important lessons

How important is it to you to be widely regarded by others as the best in what you do?

Tell me about a time when you helped someone else with a task even if it slowed you down personally?

Suppose that your boss decided to implement a new policy that would be beneficial to you but unfair to some other employees. What would you do?

How important is it for you to know that you are developing skills toward your next promotion or position?

How often do you find yourself comparing your work against the work of your peers?

Describe to me an ethical or moral dilemma that you've faced in life, and how you resolved the situation.

Imagine your dream job. How would you describe the working relationships you have with your coworkers?

Give me an example of when you chose to treat people equally even though it was difficult

Think about the best team that you were a part of. What were the characteristics and behaviors of the teammembers that made it so effective?

Think about the job you would like to have in five years. What types of training or opportunities would you expect to help you get there?

Think about a victory over others that you are particularly proud of. Describe why you think you succeeded, and how you felt?

Suppose that you learned that a friend of yours was working for a company that engaged in large scale pollution. Would you do anything?

How important is it for you to continue to learn new things on the job?

What would you do if the only way to complete a project by a certain deadline were to deliver a lower quality product?

Tell me about a time when you came to the aid of a good friend or colleague.

How do you plan to stay true to your morals while managing your work and career?

How do you intend to build and maintain a good network of colleagues and contacts?

How important has setting goals been in your life? What kinds of goals have worked the best for you?

Suppose that you are assigned a project that may teach you new skills, but is such a challenge that there is a chance for failure. How would you react?

Appendix D

Time 1 Survey

Answer the following questions

Are you currently looking for a job?	No Yes
In your life, approximately how many job interviews have you had?	0 1-4 5-10 Over 10
What is your sex?	Female Male
What is your age?	
What is your major?	
List any three companies you think you might like to work for.	

Below, you will find a short list of different work values. A value is a guiding principle that influences the behaviors and preferences of individuals. Please read the values and consider how important each value is to you in your life.

Achievement:
Setting goals and accomplishing them, focusing on results, being better than the competition

Development:
Learning new knowledge and skills, opportunities to accept new challenges and advance both personally and in the company

Relationships:
Building friendships and social networks, supporting and helping others in their work, true collaboration and teamwork

Responsibility:
Working for the greater good of society, treating all employees with fairness and equality, demonstrating ethics and morals

Each of the following questions presents a pair of these values. For each pair, you should select the one value that is more important to you. It is likely that both values will be important to you -- your job is to choose the one that is MORE relevant.

Select the one value that is more important to you. *[presented one at a time, with the values descriptions included at the top of each page]*		
1	Achievement	Development
2	Development	Responsibility
3	Relationships	Achievement
4	Relationships	Responsibility
5	Achievement	Responsibility
6	Development	Relationships

Appendix E

Time 2 Survey
Instructions and Sample Item

Instructions

Assume that you have found several job openings that match with the information you just provided. You decide that you are interested in the content of the jobs themselves. It is now time to participate in the interviews.

On each of the following screens, you will be presented with a short description of a job interview. Please read the scenario and imagine that you have just been a job candidate in this interview. Assume that the only differences among the interviews are what is presented in the profiles. Then, answer the three questions based on your reactions to the scenario.

There are sixty scenarios. If you feel at all fatigued or overly bored, please take a break and then return to finish the task. When you are finished with the scenarios, you will be thanked and assigned credit.

You have just completed an interview with an employer in your field. You remember the following three points from the interview:

- When you asked the interviewer to clarify a question, he was able to describe what he was looking for in clearer language
- A representative question from the interview is "How important is it for you to continue to learn new things on the job?"
- The interviewer did not answer the phone when it rang during the interview

	1 = I strongly disagree						7 = I strongly agree
I feel like my values match or fit with this organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This interview was a fair one	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If offered the opportunity, I would choose to continue in the process for getting this job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Table 1.

Scenario Development: Favorability Ratings of Interviewer Behaviors

Interviewer Statement	*M* (*SD*)	Unfavorability % [a]	Favorability % [b]	Status [c]
The interviewer checked to make sure you had directions for the drive home	3.82 (1.17)	0.13	0.72	
The interviewer was reading a file on her desk during the interview	2.10 (1.02)	0.77	0.13	
The interviewer spoke in a very quiet and meek voice	1.92 (0.90)	0.74	0.05	
The interviewer used some jargon that you did not understand	1.79 (0.77)	0.85	0.03	
The interviewer regularly leaned toward you as you were talking	3.21 (0.83)	0.21	0.36	P
The interviewer regularly used your name throughout the interview	4.08 (0.96)	0.10	0.79	
The interviewer told you the story of how the company was founded	3.56 (0.88)	0.08	0.62	P
The interviewer complimented you on how well your resume was put together	4.74 (0.44)	0.00	1.00	+
The interviewer did not answer the phone when it rang during the interview	4.36 (0.81)	0.03	0.92	+
The interviewer maintained intense and constant eye contact	3.62 (0.99)	0.13	0.59	
The interviewer offered you refreshments when you arrived at the office	4.08 (0.74)	0.03	0.82	
The interviewer did not know the company facts that you asked about	1.44 (0.50)	1.00	0.00	-
The interviewer sent a text message to someone during the interview	1.21 (0.51)	0.97	0.03	-

The interviewer brought you a bottle of water for your drive home	4.05 (1.07)	0.08	0.77	
During the interview the interviewer referred back to things you said earlier in the conversation.	4.23 (0.63)	0.00	0.90	+
The interviewer spoke with a lot of inflection in her voice	3.33 (0.66)	0.08	0.38	P
The interviewer gave a lengthy history of the company's life cycle	2.54 (0.85)	0.49	0.13	
The interviewer once called you by the wrong name	1.49 (0.61)	0.95	0.00	-
The interviewer used large and exaggerated gestures	2.49 (0.75)	0.41	0.03	P
The interviewer sat in his chair with his arms crossed on his chest	2.03 (0.71)	0.79	0.03	
The interviewer maintained comfortable eye contact throughout the interview	4.36 (0.54)	0.00	0.97	+
The interviewer lost his train of thought at one point as he was talking	2.62 (0.75)	0.33	0.05	P
The interviewer seemed familiar with your background from your resume	4.18 (0.64)	0.03	0.92	
The interviewer used especially proper grammar throughout the interview	3.72 (0.83)	0.08	0.64	
The interviewer did not smile during the interview	1.49 (0.56)	0.97	0.00	
The interviewer used many examples and stories to make a point	3.31 (0.80)	0.18	0.46	P
The interviewer used incorrect grammar during the interview	2.03 (0.78)	0.82	0.03	
Before the interview the interviewer noted how stressful the job search can be and gave some friendly encouragement	4.05 (0.86)	0.08	0.82	

The interviewer did not seem familiar with your background from your resume	1.72 (0.65)	0.95	0.03	-
The interviewer interrupted you as you were talking	1.56 (0.64)	0.92	0.00	-
The interviewer used language that was easy to understand	4.44 (0.55)	0.00	0.97	+
The interviewer provided pamphlets and website addresses so that you can find more information about the company	4.18 (0.64)	0.00	0.87	
The interviewer did not stand up or shake your hand when you were led into her office	1.41 (0.55)	0.97	0.00	-
The interviewer thanked you for driving the distance to come to the interview	4.36 (0.67)	0.03	0.95	+
The interviewer checked to make sure that you were comfortable	4.26 (0.55)	0.00	0.95	+
The interviewer checked his watch at various times throughout the interview	1.95 (0.76)	0.79	0.03	
The interviewer slouched in his chair behind his desk	1.92 (0.70)	0.79	0.00	
The interviewer smiled regularly throughout the interview	4.18 (0.72)	0.03	0.87	
The interviewer was staring off into space as you were answering a question	1.41 (0.59)	0.95	0.00	-
The interviewer said something slightly derogatory (negative) about your college	1.31 (0.52)	0.97	0.00	-
The interviewer gave you her phone number and e-mail address and encouraged you to be in touch if you had any other questions	4.62 (0.54)	0.00	0.97	+

Note: $N = 40$;

[a] Favorability % = the percentage of the pilot sample that rated that statement as either favorable or very favorable; [b] Unfavorability % = the percentage of the pilot sample that rated that statement as either unfavorable or very unfavorable; [c] Status of the item: "+" = this statement selected for the favorable statement bank; "-" = this statement selected for the unfavorable statement bank; "P" = this statement selected as a practice item

Table 2.

Scenario Development: Favorability Ratings of Interview Process Factors

Interviewer Statement	*M* (*SD*)	Unfavorability % [a]	Favorability % [b]	Status [c]
All questions were read off a list of questions	2.60 (0.71)	0.40	0.08	P
The interview was well over on hour and a half long	2.20 (0.86)	0.68	0.08	
After the interviewer was finished asking questions she asked you if there was anything else that you wanted to talk about that wasn't yet covered.	4.15 (0.49)	0.00	0.95	+
When you were answering questions the interviewer provided no nonverbal feedback	1.90 (0.64)	0.90	0.03	-
When you asked the interviewer to rephrase a question he/she would only repeat the question	1.65 (0.78)	0.93	0.05	-
The interview process could best be described as conversational	4.38 (0.75)	0.03	0.98	
The interviewer took notes as you were giving your responses	3.68 (0.77)	0.05	0.60	
The interviewer started by providing an outline of the interview process	3.78 (0.86)	0.05	0.68	
The interviewer read interview questions verbatim from an interview guide	2.45 (0.79)	0.58	0.10	
It was clear that all questions were based on job knowledge and skills	3.20 (0.86)	0.18	0.35	
You found it relatively easy to guide the conversation to topics about which you were comfortable speaking	4.18 (0.52)	0.00	0.93	+

The interviewer seemed to create questions on the spot based on your dialogue and previous responses	3.90 (0.79)	0.05	0.75	+
The interview could best be described as relaxed	4.38 (0.59)	0.00	0.95	
The interviewer paused to rate you after every response that you gave	2.33 (0.90)	0.60	0.10	
You received plenty of nonverbal feedback (nodding head squinting eyes)	3.93 (0.78)	0.05	0.73	+
As you were answering the questions the interviewer provided no verbal feedback	1.75 (0.75)	0.88	0.03	-
The interviewer had an interview guide that he/she followed closely	2.90 (0.82)	0.28	0.23	P
You were told that you could not ask any questions to the interviewer; you needed to direct them to someone else.	1.30 (0.46)	1.00	0.00	-
The structure of the interview could best be described as casual	4.15 (0.71)	0.00	0.83	
The interviewer did not ask if you had any questions about the job or the company	1.88 (0.61)	0.93	0.03	-
The interviewer asked the questions and did not engage in much other dialogue	1.85 (0.74)	0.85	0.03	-
You had ample opportunities to share the information that you most wanted to share	4.38 (0.67)	0.03	0.95	+
You were not given much opportunity to share the information that you most wanted to share	1.80 (0.70)	0.90	0.03	-
The structure of the interview could best be described as formal	3.10 (0.85)	0.18	0.30	

You asked the interviewer if you were on the right track with your answer and he told you how you should expand a little	3.43 (0.94)	0.18	0.55	
The interview took place over lunch at an upscale restaurant	3.18 (1.05)	0.20	0.35	P
The interview could best be described as comfortable	4.43 (0.50)	0.00	1.00	
The interview began promptly at the time quoted	4.18 (0.64)	0.00	0.88	
The interview did not begin until 15 minutes after the quoted start time	2.20 (0.73)	0.75	0.03	-
You were asked to give your permission that the interview be audio recorded	2.93 (0.90)	0.33	0.23	P
Other than the main interviewer there were two other people in the room rating your answers	2.20 (0.86)	0.68	0.08	
As you answered questions you received some feedback about whether you were on the right track	3.80 (0.77)	0.08	0.83	+
You had the opportunity to ask as many questions about the company as you wanted	4.15 (0.54)	0.00	0.93	+
As part of the interview you had to read a case study and answer questions about what you read	2.50 (1.00)	0.50	0.18	P
From time to time in the interview the conversation flowed into topics like vacation spots and favorite movies	3.48 (0.64)	0.05	0.50	P
The interview process could best be described as structured	3.43 (0.88)	0.13	0.50	
You were asked for very specific examples of on-the-job behavior	3.30 (0.73)	0.10	0.35	

When you asked the interviewer to clarify a question he was able to describe what he was looking for in clearer language	4.23 (0.81)	0.05	0.88	+
During the interview you had the opportunity to talk off the record to recently hired employees	3.93 (0.93)	0.05	0.73	
The company reimbursed you for mileage and lodging for before and after the interview	4.20 (1.00)	0.05	0.78	

Note: $N = 40$;

[a] Favorability % = the percentage of the pilot sample that rated that statement as either favorable or very favorable; [b] Unfavorability % = the percentage of the pilot sample that rated that statement as either unfavorable or very unfavorable; [c] Status of the item: "+" = this statement selected for the favorable statement bank; "-" = this statement selected for the unfavorable statement bank; "P" = this statement selected as a practice item

Table 3.

Scenario Development: Categorization of Interview Questions

Interview Question	Achievement			Development			Relationships			Responsibility			Practice
	#[A]	#[B]	S[C]	#[A]	#[B]	S	#[A]	#[B]	S	#[A]	#[B]	S	
How important is it for you to form meaningful relationships with your coworkers?	0	0		2	2		37	36	Y	0	0		
Give me an example of when a company needs to put ethics ahead of profit.	2	1		1	1		0	0		36	34	Y	
If the company offered a tuition reimbursement program, would you consider pursuing an advanced degree?	13	11		24	22		0	0		2	0		P
Tell me about a time when you succeeded at something solely because of cooperation and teamwork.	9	9		1	1		29	28		0	0		
What is the most difficult goal that you ever accomplished?	36	32	Y	3	3		0	0		0	0		
Tell me about a time when you put "doing the right thing" ahead of accomplishing a goal or completing a task.	1	1		0	0		0	0		38	34	Y	

What do you think it means for an organization to have a *continuous learning culture*?	2	2		34	32	Y	0	0		3	2		
Tell me about any awards, honors, or recognitions you have received recently.	37	34	Y	2	2		0	0		0	0		
What do you think is the key to getting along well with others in the workplace?	0	0		0	0		39	38	Y	0	0		
How would you describe your competitive spirit?	27	24		4	4		6	3		2	2		
Why do you think it is important for a company to provide training to its employees?	0	0		37	37	Y	0	0		2	2		
How important do you think it is to engage in community service or philanthropic work?	1	1		2	2		7	7		29	24		
Tell me about a time when you accepted a difficult challenge, and it ended up teaching you some important lessons	8	7		24	24		0	0		3	3		P
How important is it to you to be widely regarded by others as the best in what you do?	30	21		1	1		4	2		4	4		
Tell me about a time when you helped someone else with a task even if it slowed you down personally?	0	0		3	3		24	21		12	11		P

Suppose that your boss decided to implement a new policy that would be beneficial to you but unfair to some other employees. What would you do?	1	1	0	0	7	5		31	26		
How important is it for you to know that you are developing skills toward your next promotion or position?	8	7	30	28	1	1		0	0		
How often do you find yourself comparing your work against the work of your peers?	22	12	5	5	12	7		0			P
Describe to me an ethical or moral dilemma that you've faced in life, and how you resolved the situation.	3	3	5	4	0	0		31	29		
Imagine your dream job. How would you describe the working relationships you have with your coworkers?	2	2	0	0	37	34	Y	0	0		
Give me an example of when you chose to treat people equally even though it was difficult.	0	0	1	0	12	10		26	25		P
Think about the best team that you were a part of. What were the characteristics and behaviors of the team members that made it so effective?	0	0	2	2	35	35		2	1		

Think about the job you would like to have in five years. What types of training or opportunities would you expect to help you get there?	3	3		35	33	Y	0	0		1	0				
Think about a victory over others that you are particularly proud of. Describe why you think you succeeded, and how you felt	37	33	Y	2	2		0	0		0	0				
Suppose you learned that a local company was engaging in large scale pollution. Would you do anything?	1	1		0	0		1	1		37	34	Y			
How important is it for you to continue to learn new things on the job?	0	0		39	39	Y	0	0		0					
What would you do if the only way to complete a project by a certain deadline were to deliver a lower quality product?	17	11		2	2		1	1		19	14				P
Tell me about a time when you came to the aid of a good friend or colleague	0	0		0	0		37	34		2	1				
How do you plan to stay true to your morals while managing your work and career?	1	1		0	0		0	0		38	38	Y			
How do you intend to build and maintain a good network of colleagues and contacts?	0	0		0	0		39	39	Y	0	0				

How important has setting goals been in your life? What kinds of goals have worked the best for you?	37	35	Y	2	2	0	0	0	0	
Suppose that you are assigned a project that may teach you new skills, but is such a challenge that there is a chance for failure. How would you react?	5	5		32	31	1	1	1	0	

Note: N = 39;

#^{A} = number of respondents (of 39) who classified the interview question in that value category; #^{B} = number of respondents (of 39) who classified the interview questions in that value category and who responded "High" to the question "By asking this question, do you think that the interviewer would be looking to hire someone who is high or low in the value you selected?"; S^{C} = Status of the item: Y = this item was chosen for the statement bank in this values category; P = this question was chosen to be included in the practice scenarios

Table 4.

Descriptive Data about the Participants' Ranking of Values

Value	Frequencies				*M*	*SD*
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th		
Achievement	20	21	34	33	2.74	1.09
Development	24	34	32	18	2.41	1.01
Relationships	23	28	22	35	2.64	1.15
Responsibility	41	25	20	22	2.21	1.16

Note: N = 108;

1st = the number of participants who ranked this value as the top value; 2nd = the number of participants who ranked this value as the second value; 3rd = the number of participants who ranked this value as the third value; 4th = the number of participants who ranked this value as the lowest value

Table 5.

Correlations among the Outcome Variables by Participant

ID	$r_{\text{Fit / Fairness}}$	$r_{\text{Fit / Intention}}$	$r_{\text{Fairness / Intention}}$	A
10	.353	.488	.799	.787
11	.918	.975	.913	.977
13	.921	.928	.980	.980
14	.692	.865	.866	.926
16	.638	.762	.554	.838
17	.852	.820	.886	.945
19	.957	.951	.930	.981
21	.690	.766	.885	.914
22	.775	.874	.775	.933
23	.707	.709	.794	.878
25	.821	.889	.870	.943
27	.677	.856	.839	.917
30	.727	.779	.910	.926
33	.938	.971	.958	.984
35	.824	.931	.966	.966
39	.750	.760	.864	.907
40	.735	.765	.852	.905
42	.725	.898	.821	.928
44	.352	.636	.678	.793
45	.513	.594	.758	.829
46	.868	.881	.924	.960
47	.674	.786	.925	.919
49	.941	.967	.906	.978
50	.835	.879	.907	.954
51	.671	.857	.850	.913
53	.772	.888	.803	.917
54	.993	1.000	.993	.998
55	.508	.740	.378	.782
56	.850	.863	.908	.946
57	.818	.831	.829	.933
59	.654	.633	.902	.892
60	.632	.872	.717	.896
61	.728	.765	.858	.914
62	.917	.971	.954	.981
64	.663	.806	.843	.910
65	.616	.897	.689	.888
66	.971	.971	.979	.991
68	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
70	.704	.742	.709	.882
71	.380	.744	.792	.823
72	.854	.936	.882	.960
73	.804	.923	.798	.935
74	.638	.798	.793	.895
75	.797	.947	.894	.956
76	.863	.894	.906	.950

77	.975	.988	.988	.994
78	.894	.920	.920	.953
79	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
80	.675	.735	.858	.888
81	.969	.985	.975	.992
82	.705	.663	.797	.885
83	.927	.919	.832	.960
85	.634	.897	.809	.915
87	.582	.746	.869	.893
89	.561	.648	.900	.870
90	.784	.790	.877	.930
92	.555	.606	.591	.798
94	.893	.920	.935	.969
96	.735	.847	.841	.923
97	.908	.943	.944	.975
98	.849	.928	.889	.959
99	.975	.973	.974	.991
100	.955	.960	.984	.988
103	.879	.876	.909	.955
112	.162	.551	.153	.546
113	.823	.921	.882	.954
114	.935	.933	.947	.978
115	.811	.858	.885	.942
119	.929	.902	.917	.969
120	.908	.962	.928	.976
121	.669	.754	.814	.891
122	.883	.907	.911	.963
123	.944	.882	.923	.970
125	.818	.853	.818	.935
126	.889	.945	.913	.969
129	.563	.850	.754	.886
131	.908	.965	.942	.977
133	.212	.331	.567	.518
134	.947	.968	.971	.988
136	.912	.919	.951	.974
137	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
138	.920	.973	.963	.983
139	.712	.876	.873	.932
141	.939	.955	.973	.984
142	.722	.825	.850	.922
145	.716	.820	.865	.922
146	.733	.801	.759	.893
147	.706	.803	.845	.913
151	.684	.868	.781	.910
152	.959	.983	.963	.989
153	.958	.954	.979	.986
154	.292	.521	.729	.753
155	.609	.726	.798	.869
158	.648	.811	.763	.885
1211	.657	.808	.892	.911
Averages	*.767*	*.846*	*.856*	*.922*

Table 6.

Individual Policies for Determining Perceived PO Fit

ID	$\beta_{Interviewer}$		$\beta_{Process}$		$\beta_{Questions}$		R^2	r_{xx}
10	0.26	*	0.14		-0.63	**	0.46	.71
11	0.41	**	0.35	**	-0.19		0.32	.83
13	0.72	**	0.30	**	-0.01		0.63	.97
14	0.52	**	0.51	**	-0.14		0.56	.52
16	0.41	**	0.36	**	-0.19		0.34	.58
17	0.22		0.26	*	-0.18		0.15	.65
19	0.51	**	0.37	**	0.18		0.45	.81
21	0.33	**	0.19		-0.40	**	0.32	.98
22	0.45	**	0.21		-0.16		0.28	.77
23	0.63	**	0.35	**	-0.02		0.54	.67
25	0.51	**	0.46	**	-0.19		0.50	.91
27	0.40	**	0.31	**	-0.16		0.30	.73
33	0.41	**	0.42	**	-0.17		0.38	.76
35	0.43	**	0.46	**	-0.10		0.42	.73
39	0.43	**	0.50	**	0.07		0.47	.82
40	0.37	**	0.56	**	-0.13		0.48	.97
42	0.62	**	0.22	*	0.05		0.44	.94
45	0.39	**	0.13		-0.30	*	0.26	.41
46	0.58	**	0.41	**	-0.15		0.54	.47
47	0.57	**	0.27	*	0.04		0.42	.90
49	0.43	**	0.55	**	-0.12		0.51	.76
50	0.55	**	0.29	**	0.09		0.40	.67
51	0.42	**	0.29	**	-0.39	**	0.41	.97
53	0.50	**	0.41	**	0.11		0.45	.99
54	0.55	**	0.42	**	0.03		0.49	1.00
55	0.25		0.30	*	-0.08		0.17	
56	0.58	**	0.50	**	-0.20	*	0.63	.89
57	0.23		0.46	**	-0.25	*	0.32	.58
59	0.30	*	0.27	*	-0.28	*	0.25	.71
60	0.42	**	0.56	**	0.04		0.51	.64
61	0.54	**	0.47	**	0.24	*	0.56	.71
62	0.61	**	0.65	**	0.07		0.81	.96
64	0.27	*	0.34	**	0.01		0.19	.09
65	0.65	**	0.55	**	-0.04		0.75	.85
66	0.53	**	0.48	**	0.17		0.62	.67
68	0.55	**	0.51	**	-0.16		0.61	1.00
70	0.31	*	0.37	**	-0.20		0.27	
71	0.23		0.32	**	-0.46	**	0.35	1.00
72	0.44	**	0.57	**	0.08		0.55	.98
73	0.40	**	0.32	**	-0.08		0.28	1.00
74	0.30	*	0.22		-0.17		0.17	.90
75	0.41	**	0.40	**	-0.25	*	0.41	.92
76	0.66	**	0.36	**	-0.18	*	0.61	.87
77	0.53	**	0.45	**	0.05		0.51	
78	0.29	*	0.52	**	-0.05		0.37	.99

79	0.77	**	0.30	**	0.06	0.70	.88
80	0.45	**	0.23	*	-0.31 **	0.36	.87
81	0.54	**	0.55	**	0.03	0.61	.80
82	0.40	**	0.35	**	0.06	0.30	.91
83	0.58	**	0.59	**	-0.07	0.73	.98
85	0.67	**	0.45	**	-0.01	0.67	.90
87	0.39	**	0.11		-0.28 *	0.24	.76
89	0.28	*	0.26		0.13	0.17	.58
90	0.64	**	0.03		-0.04	0.41	.77
92	0.37	**	0.14		-0.20	0.19	.33
94	0.37	**	0.34	**	0.35 **	0.39	.98
96	0.29	*	0.34	**	0.06	0.20	.52
97	0.54	**	0.31	**	-0.03	0.40	.57
98	0.57	**	0.49	**	0.04	0.59	.99
99	0.62	**	0.47	**	-0.07	0.64	.84
100	0.64	**	0.41	**	-0.09	0.60	.80
103	0.45	**	0.46	**	-0.01	0.43	.78
112	0.29	*	0.34	**	0.06	0.20	.92
113	0.47	**	0.45	**	-0.02	0.44	.98
114	0.61	**	0.51	**	0.02	0.66	1.00
115	0.49	**	0.43	**	-0.12	0.45	.95
119	0.65	**	0.56	**	0.10	0.78	.93
120	0.33	*	0.25		-0.04	0.18	.97
121	0.24		0.30	*	-0.02	0.15	.58
122	0.56	**	0.55	**	0.00	0.64	.79
123	0.52	**	0.61	**	-0.01	0.67	.96
125	0.43	**	0.59	**	0.01	0.55	.88
126	0.39	**	0.32	**	-0.17	0.30	1.00
129	0.55	**	0.46	**	-0.23 *	0.57	.98
131	0.66	**	0.50	**	-0.10	0.71	.99
133	0.63	**	0.38	**	0.03	0.56	.87
134	0.38	**	0.54	**	0.15	0.48	.98
136	0.70	**	0.52	**	0.06	0.79	.84
137	0.54	**	0.29	**	0.06	0.38	.52
138	0.54	**	0.52	**	-0.15	0.62	.93
139	0.28	*	0.32	*	0.11	0.21	.76
141	0.42	**	0.20		-0.09	0.24	.17
142	0.42	**	0.20		-0.09	0.24	.85
145	0.38	**	0.36	**	0.12	0.30	.85
146	0.41	**	0.40	**	-0.30 **	0.43	.87
147	0.17		0.28	*	-0.24	0.16	.73
151	0.45	**	0.43	**	-0.20	0.46	.95
152	0.51	**	0.59	**	0.11	0.64	.98
153	0.69	**	0.49	**	-0.10	0.74	.98
154	0.31	**	0.07		-0.54 **	0.38	.82
155	0.45	**	0.49	**	0.23 *	0.50	.87
158	0.26	*	0.50	**	-0.23 *	0.37	.58
1211	0.29	*	0.34	**	0.06	0.20	.58

Note: Only participants with statistically significant policies are displayed on the table.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 7.

Individual Policies for Determining Perceptions of Fairness

ID	$\beta_{Interviewer}$		$\beta_{Process}$		$\beta_{Questions}$		R^2	r_{xx}
10	0.52	**	0.49	**	-0.06		0.52	.97
11	0.56	**	0.33	**	-0.10		0.44	.84
13	0.74	**	0.38	**	-0.02		0.70	1.00
14	0.47	**	0.52	**	0.01		0.51	.87
16	0.32	*	0.32	*	-0.12		0.22	.43
17	0.29	*	0.28	*	-0.05		0.17	.88
19	0.47	**	0.46	**	0.16		0.50	.77
21	0.56	**	0.41	**	-0.24	*	0.56	.98
22	0.54	**	0.28	*	-0.11		0.40	.65
23	0.45	**	0.68	**	0.15		0.70	.89
25	0.62	**	0.55	**	-0.22	**	0.74	.95
27	0.40	**	0.39	**	-0.11		0.34	.99
30	0.38	**	0.52	**	0.08		0.43	.90
33	0.43	**	0.48	**	-0.19		0.46	.86
35	0.55	**	0.40	**	-0.07		0.48	.73
39	0.55	**	0.66	**	0.03		0.77	.97
40	0.40	**	0.58	**	-0.02		0.52	.50
42	0.58	**	0.31	**	0.13		0.45	.70
44	0.09		0.38	**	-0.01		0.15	.77
45	0.24	*	0.48	**	-0.15		0.31	.95
46	0.66	**	0.45	**	-0.16		0.68	.71
47	0.63	**	0.39	**	-0.12		0.58	.52
49	0.42	**	0.61	**	-0.15		0.58	.97
50	0.41	**	0.49	**	0.06		0.42	.85
51	0.71	**	0.43	**	-0.12		0.73	.90
53	0.40	**	0.44	**	0.03		0.37	.76
54	0.57	**	0.40	**	0.04		0.49	.89
56	0.56	**	0.36	**	-0.15		0.67	.82
57	0.35	**	0.31	*	-0.14		0.24	.76
59	0.45	**	0.65	**	-0.10		0.67	.71
60	0.49	**	0.35	**	-0.13		0.39	.85
61	0.68	**	0.50	**	-0.09		0.74	.92
62	0.60	**	0.69	**	0.01		0.87	.89
64	0.33	**	0.26	*	0.11		0.20	.71
65	0.59	**	0.50	**	0.09		0.64	.52
66	0.63	**	0.46	**	0.15		0.64	.89
68	0.55	**	0.51	**	-0.16		0.61	.52
70	0.32	**	0.44	**	-0.02		0.31	.50
71	0.53	**	0.50	**	-0.01		0.55	.89
72	0.55	**	0.59	**	0.16	*	0.71	.82
73	0.34	**	0.37	**	-0.08		0.26	.76
74	0.37	**	0.50	**	-0.08		0.40	.82
75	0.50	**	0.66	**	-0.08		0.73	.50
76	0.65	**	0.32	**	-0.10		0.55	.82

77	0.64	**	0.57	**	0.02		0.76	.52
78	0.37	**	0.55	**	0.04		0.46	.50
79	0.77	**	0.30	**	0.06		0.70	.52
80	0.63	**	0.39	**	-0.15		0.60	.87
81	0.58	**	0.49	**	0.03		0.61	.90
82	0.54	**	0.34	**	-0.04		0.42	.90
83	0.46	**	0.67	**	-0.08		0.69	.82
85	0.45	**	0.36	**	-0.12		0.35	.82
87	0.62	**	0.47	**	-0.20	*	0.67	.52
89	0.59	**	0.50	**	-0.07		0.62	.89
90	0.61	**	0.08		-0.08		0.39	.52
92	0.10		0.56	**	-0.03		0.33	.97
94	0.45	**	0.36	**	0.29	**	0.43	.82
97	0.48	**	0.36	**	-0.05		0.38	.16
98	0.46	**	0.61	**	-0.04		0.61	.82
99	0.62	**	0.47	**	-0.10		0.65	.89
100	0.68	**	0.42	**	-0.08		0.66	.52
103	0.50	**	0.44	**	-0.05		0.47	.52
113	0.55	**	0.50	**	0.07		0.57	.82
114	0.51	**	0.65	**	0.14		0.72	.89
115	0.46	**	0.42	**	-0.06		0.40	.77
119	0.67	**	0.59	**	0.09		0.85	.89
120	0.40	**	0.26	*	0.02		0.23	.30
121	0.34	**	0.32	**	-0.08		0.24	.82
122	0.56	**	0.56	**	0.06		0.67	.74
123	0.61	**	0.56	**	0.00		0.71	.50
125	0.53	**	0.57	**	-0.05		0.64	.89
126	0.44	**	0.34	**	0.07		0.32	.92
129	0.61	**	0.48	**	-0.16		0.65	.90
130	0.59	**	0.36	**	-0.05		0.49	.50
131	0.74	**	0.38	**	-0.07		0.71	.89
133	0.71	**	0.38	**	0.04		0.68	.52
134	0.38	**	0.54	**	0.15		0.48	.52
136	0.64	**	0.58	**	-0.08		0.78	.89
137	0.63	**	0.17		0.16		0.46	.52
138	0.58	**	0.50	**	-0.13		0.63	.89
139	0.55	**	0.36	**	0.08		0.46	.87
141	0.48	**	0.21		-0.06		0.29	.85
142	0.48	**	0.21		-0.06		0.29	.82
145	0.54	**	0.52	**	0.07		0.58	.85
146	0.35	**	0.44	**	-0.31	**	0.42	.85
147	0.28	*	0.45	**	-0.20		0.33	.90
151	0.424	**	0.525	**	-0.183		0.52	.52
152	0.54	**	0.56	**	0.16		0.66	.52
153	0.72	**	0.44	**	-0.10		0.73	.90
154	0.616	**	0.611	**	0.002		0.78	.90
155	0.56	**	0.60	**	-0.09		0.72	.89
158	0.55	**	0.49	**	-0.10		0.56	.76

Note: Only participants with statistically significant policies are displayed on the table.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 8.

Individual Policies for Determining Intentions to Continue in the Selection Process

ID	$\beta_{Interviewer}$		$\beta_{Process}$		$\beta_{Questions}$		R^2	r_{xx}
10	0.66	**	0.49	**	-0.19	*	0.72	1.00
11	0.46	**	0.31	**	-0.13		0.32	.49
13	0.71	**	0.41	**	-0.02		0.70	1.00
14	0.57	**	0.53	**	-0.07		0.62	.98
16	0.41	**	0.33	**	-0.05		0.29	.52
17	0.25	*	0.40	**	-0.15		0.25	.81
19	0.52	**	0.43	**	0.15		0.51	.87
21	0.52	**	0.34	**	-0.31	**	0.51	.87
22	0.51	**	0.34	**	-0.16		0.41	.44
23	0.57	**	0.47	**	0.12		0.57	1.00
25	0.58	**	0.47	**	-0.14		0.59	.88
27	0.49	**	0.39	**	-0.06		0.41	.87
30	0.29	*	0.47	**	0.09		0.33	
33	0.40	**	0.43	**	-0.18		0.39	.70
35	0.50	**	0.46	**	-0.08		0.48	.73
39	0.63	**	0.55	**	0.06		0.74	.95
40	0.53	**	0.46	**	-0.02		0.51	.97
42	0.62	**	0.25	*	0.17		0.48	.87
44	0.29	*	0.23		-0.02		0.15	.30
45	0.50	**	0.40	**	-0.13		0.44	.30
46	0.65	**	0.43	**	-0.16		0.65	.47
47	0.61	**	0.46	**	0.01		0.60	.94
49	0.47	**	0.51	**	-0.07		0.50	.95
50	0.58	**	0.38	**	0.03		0.50	.82
51	0.54	**	0.43	**	-0.21	*	0.53	.85
53	0.49	**	0.50	**	-0.02		0.51	.72
54	0.55	**	0.42	**	0.03		0.49	1.00
55	0.35	**	0.23		-0.15		0.21	.82
56	0.48	**	0.58	**	-0.13		0.60	.89
57	0.38	**	0.39	**	-0.09		0.31	.26
59	0.52	**	0.61	**	-0.05		0.67	.82
60	0.53	**	0.45	**	0.01		0.50	.76
61	0.57	**	0.46	**	-0.17		0.58	.87
62	0.62	**	0.66	**	-0.05		0.86	1.00
64	0.36	**	0.27	*	0.06		0.21	.40
65	0.65	**	0.57	**	-0.04		0.77	.87
66	0.66	**	0.43	**	0.16		0.66	.74
68	0.55	**	0.51	**	-0.16		0.61	1.00
70	0.52	**	0.45	**	-0.11		0.50	.90
71	0.51	**	0.46	**	-0.25	**	0.53	.45
72	0.47	**	0.54	**	0.06		0.55	.95
73	0.41	**	0.38	**	-0.16		0.35	.82
74	0.39	**	0.45	**	-0.18		0.40	.89
75	0.48	**	0.50	**	-0.26	**	0.57	1.00

76	0.70	**	0.37	**	-0.04		0.66	.59
77	0.54	**	0.55	**	0.16		0.67	.97
78	0.28	**	0.62	**	0.08		0.48	.92
79	0.77	**	0.30	**	0.06		0.70	.88
80	0.74	**	0.46	**	-0.13		0.79	1.00
81	0.51	**	0.56	**	0.05		0.60	.80
82	0.50	**	0.36	**	-0.02		0.39	.83
83	0.57	**	0.62	**	-0.03		0.74	.98
85	0.65	**	0.46	**	0.03		0.66	.86
87	0.62	**	0.25	*	-0.21	*	0.50	.82
89	0.66	**	0.35	**	-0.07		0.58	.85
90	0.65	**	0.15		-0.02		0.45	.97
92	0.43	**	0.53	**	0.05		0.49	.78
94	0.45	**	0.39	**	0.29	**	0.46	.92
96	0.27	*	0.28	*	0.00		0.16	.85
97	0.58	**	0.31	**	-0.02		0.44	.16
98	0.61	**	0.49	**	-0.06		0.64	.86
99	0.64	**	0.44	**	-0.05		0.63	.86
100	0.69	**	0.39	**	-0.06		0.65	.90
103	0.54	**	0.46	**	-0.01		0.52	.77
109	0.33	*	-0.05		0.24		0.16	.82
112	0.27	*	0.28	*	0.00		0.16	1.00
113	0.50	**	0.53	**	0.04		0.55	.96
114	0.60	**	0.61	**	0.00		0.76	.94
115	0.49	**	0.45	**	-0.20		0.48	.58
119	0.67	**	0.62	**	0.06		0.86	.99
120	0.44	**	0.21		-0.04		0.24	.93
121	0.31	*	0.35	**	-0.08		0.24	.58
122	0.55	**	0.56	**	0.03		0.65	.86
123	0.55	**	0.58	**	0.00		0.66	.38
125	0.49	**	0.61	**	-0.10		0.66	.93
126	0.47	**	0.31	**	-0.09		0.35	.43
129	0.56	**	0.47	**	-0.21	*	0.59	.70
130	0.40	**	0.48	**	-0.20		0.46	1.00
131	0.68	**	0.45	**	-0.14		0.70	.99
133	0.68	**	0.42	**	0.06		0.67	1.00
134	0.38	**	0.54	**	0.15		0.48	.98
136	0.66	**	0.57	**	-0.03		0.79	.78
137	0.59	**	0.30	**	0.11		0.46	.69
138	0.63	**	0.51	**	-0.08		0.69	.99
139	0.47	**	0.35	**	0.13		0.39	.85
141	0.53	**	0.24	*	-0.07		0.35	.34
142	0.53	**	0.24	*	-0.07		0.35	.97
145	0.58	**	0.48	**	0.13		0.61	.87
146	0.56	**	0.55	**	-0.22	**	0.68	.96
147	0.25	*	0.44	**	-0.19		0.30	.99
151	0.44	**	0.46	**	-0.18		0.46	.71
152	0.53	**	0.59	**	0.14		0.68	.98
153	0.68	**	0.45	**	-0.13		0.69	.91
154	0.50	**	0.47	**	-0.15		0.49	
155	0.57	**	0.55	**	0.08		0.65	.97

158	0.54	**	0.53	**	-0.16	0.61	.54
1211	0.27	*	0.28	*	0.00	0.16	.58

Note: Only participants with statistically significant policies are displayed on the table.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 9.

Summary of Hypothesis Testing of Main Effects

	% that used IV Significant [a]	Mean β Significant	β Range Significant	% that used IV High R^2 [b]	Mean β High R^2	β Range High R^2
Outcome: PO Fit						
Interviewer Behaviors	95%	.47	.23 - .77	100%	.58	.42 - .77
Interview Process	87%	.42	.25 - .65	100%	.49	.30 - .65
Interview Questions	20%	(-.26)	(-.63) - .35	12%	-.21	(-.24) - (-.18)
Outcome: Fairness						
Interviewer Behaviors	98%	.52	.24 - .77	100%	.58	.40 - .77
Interview Process	96%	.46	.26 - .69	100%	.51	.30 - .69
Interview Questions	8%	(-.10)	(-.31) - .29	10%	(-.13)	(-.16) - .24
Outcome: Intentions						
Interviewer Behaviors	100%	.52	.25 - .77	100%	.59	.47 - .77
Interview Process	95%	.45	.24 - .66	100%	.49	.25 - .66
Interview Questions	10%	(-.17)	(-.31) - .29	16%	(-.22)	(-.31) - (-.13)

Note: [a] Data includes all policies that are statistically significant at $p<.05$; [b] Data includes all policies with $R^2 > .50$

Table 10.

Fatigue Analyses: Differences in Variance and Coefficient Alpha between First and Second Half

	PO Fit			*Fairness*			*Intentions*			*Internal*	
ID	SD_{1st}	SD_{2nd}		SD_{1st}	SD_{2nd}		SD_{1st}	SD_{2nd}		A_{1st}	A_{2nd}
10	1.11	0.76		1.38	1.32		1.64	1.54		0.860	0.614
11	1.96	1.09	**	1.88	1.23	**	2.04	1.05	**	0.987	0.950
12	2.49	0.20	**	2.10	0.39	**	2.13	0.39	**	0.967	0.960
13	1.53	1.29		1.65	1.35		1.68	1.35		0.984	0.979
14	1.67	1.20		1.73	1.33		1.78	1.30		0.930	0.910
16	1.37	1.01		1.57	1.24		1.20	0.96		0.494	-0.039
17	2.05	1.75		1.87	1.79		2.14	1.78		0.941	0.940
19	1.63	1.57		1.65	1.61		1.75	1.55		0.986	0.975
21	2.17	1.81		1.92	1.94		2.21	1.76		0.949	0.860
22	1.62	1.10	*	1.67	1.17		1.58	1.27		0.939	0.924
23	0.72	0.91		0.88	1.19	*	0.59	0.81	*	0.814	0.906
25	1.10	1.26		1.57	1.38		1.30	1.18		0.935	0.957
27	1.41	1.15		1.26	1.46		1.30	1.26		0.882	0.957
28	1.56	0.95	*	1.41	1.06		1.69	1.39		0.941	0.852
30	1.76	1.28	*	1.70	1.35		1.84	1.32	*	0.948	0.880
33	2.01	2.29		2.07	2.02		2.30	2.35		0.979	0.988
35	2.20	2.48		2.24	2.63		2.21	2.37		0.997	0.942
39	1.12	0.96		1.61	1.47		1.55	1.54		0.869	0.946
40	1.18	1.14		1.48	1.46		0.92	1.17		0.855	0.940
42	1.60	1.58		1.23	1.45		1.64	1.63		0.881	0.966
44	2.13	1.39	**	2.01	1.39	**	2.12	2.00		0.790	0.802
45	1.39	1.47		1.47	1.08	**	1.63	1.20	*	0.814	0.875
46	1.52	1.55		1.74	1.67		1.82	1.62		0.961	0.960
47	1.42	1.23		1.67	1.70		1.58	1.60		0.937	0.907
49	1.16	0.81	*	1.12	0.90		1.13	0.81		0.972	0.983
50	1.61	1.47		1.79	1.42		1.73	1.56		0.961	0.946
51	1.53	1.00	*	1.84	1.45		1.56	1.26		0.939	0.890
53	1.58	1.66		0.83	1.16	*	1.23	1.51		0.884	0.935
54	1.01	1.21		1.03	1.21		1.01	1.21		0.996	1.000
55	1.02	0.85		0.83	0.70		1.03	1.04		0.727	0.831
56	1.08	1.03		1.41	1.10		1.00	0.84		0.944	0.944
57	1.17	1.16		1.16	1.19		1.32	1.34		0.953	0.914
58	0.53	0.47		0.53	0.49		0.55	0.50		0.968	0.943
59	1.92	1.39		2.18	1.58		2.08	1.58		0.910	0.862
60	1.81	1.51		1.88	1.52		1.84	1.67		0.881	0.896
61	1.13	1.12		1.24	1.15		1.16	0.98		0.907	0.923
62	1.90	1.76		2.02	1.97		1.84	1.83		0.977	0.987
64	1.49	1.09		1.62	1.07	*	1.69	0.89	**	0.947	0.751
65	1.32	1.47		1.21	1.17		1.81	1.62		0.873	0.897
66	2.53	2.50		2.63	2.54		2.71	2.51		0.991	0.991
68	1.34	1.67		1.34	1.67		1.34	1.67		1.000	1.000

70	0.67	0.75		0.59	0.67		0.70	0.79		0.886	0.866
71	1.60	1.24		2.22	2.59		2.08	1.77		0.922	0.683
72	1.98	1.89		2.10	1.85		2.13	2.04		0.977	0.939
73	1.12	0.87	*	0.83	0.58		1.08	0.82	*	0.953	0.899
74	1.58	1.42		1.62	1.68		1.64	1.56		0.927	0.870
75	1.94	1.87		1.70	2.00		1.73	1.96		0.947	0.950
76	1.34	1.49		1.26	1.60		1.75	2.05		0.931	0.964
77	2.12	0.00	**	2.19	0.00	**	2.21	0.00	**	0.993	0.000
78	1.17	1.12		1.17	1.12		1.69	1.52		0.957	0.942
79	2.12	1.83		2.12	1.83		2.12	1.83		1.000	1.000
80	1.06	0.99		1.46	1.34		1.88	1.50		0.873	0.912
81	2.17	1.80		2.17	1.82		2.18	1.83		0.993	0.992
82	1.15	0.99		1.27	1.18		1.38	1.16		0.845	0.899
83	1.28	1.44		1.14	1.42		1.34	1.47		0.944	0.979
85	1.87	1.79		1.90	1.77		2.14	2.10		0.917	0.937
87	1.50	1.27		1.53	1.28		1.65	1.48		0.900	0.914
89	1.68	0.71	**	2.11	2.23		2.09	1.80		0.902	0.764
90	1.31	1.37		1.17	1.46		1.34	1.42		0.891	0.959
92	1.20	0.75	*	1.63	0.86	**	1.38	1.07		0.779	0.854
93	0.88	0.95		1.13	1.13		1.29	1.13		0.864	0.903
94	1.71	1.39		1.50	1.49		1.77	1.71		0.956	0.972
95	1.14	0.77		1.31	0.61		0.99	0.78		0.857	0.434
96	1.27	0.64	**	1.38	1.05		1.13	0.92		0.950	0.851
97	1.64	1.42		1.70	1.59		1.74	1.67		0.979	0.970
98	1.98	2.32		2.10	2.07		2.25	2.59		0.951	0.966
99	2.05	2.34		2.09	2.32		2.18	2.36		0.987	0.994
100	1.58	1.81		1.58	1.80		1.68	1.81		0.980	0.996
103	1.81	1.99		1.91	1.78		2.25	2.24		0.962	0.951
108	1.98	1.72		1.90	1.72		1.91	1.72		0.951	1.000
109	1.27	0.99		1.15	1.30		1.70	1.13	**	0.737	-0.079
111	1.07	0.92		0.96	0.85		1.03	0.86		0.896	0.721
112	1.55	1.39		1.47	1.27		1.51	1.22		0.965	0.942
113	1.52	1.39		1.52	1.58		1.54	1.44		0.979	0.979
114	1.54	1.43		1.77	1.57		1.99	1.70		0.952	0.928
115	1.79	1.65		1.78	1.70		2.10	1.74		0.969	0.966
118	1.41	1.31		0.94	0.98		0.82	0.95		0.292	0.649
119	1.95	1.80		1.95	2.03		1.95	1.82		0.981	0.971
120	1.24	0.75	**	1.75	1.08	*	1.88	1.10	*	0.913	0.790
121	1.26	0.86	*	1.28	0.79	*	1.45	0.93	*	0.979	0.929
122	2.20	2.09		2.37	2.04		2.16	1.99		0.955	0.988
123	1.58	1.24		1.60	1.36		1.53	1.32		0.941	0.930
125	1.98	2.09		2.19	2.34		2.06	2.22		0.953	0.982
126	1.55	1.04	*	1.29	1.07		1.76	1.31		0.896	0.917
127	0.72	0.75		1.03	0.67		0.75	0.65		0.861	0.913
129	1.87	1.72		2.09	1.99		1.88	1.86		0.977	0.976
130	0.27	0.00	**	1.06	0.91		0.56	0.33	**	0.721	0.248
131	2.40	2.37		2.46	2.48		2.41	2.56		0.989	0.987
133	1.61	1.23	*	1.67	1.24	**	1.78	1.23	**	0.973	0.978
134	2.14	1.86		2.14	1.86		2.14	1.86		1.000	1.000
136	2.10	1.79		2.06	1.79		2.01	1.79		0.985	0.983

137	1.28	0.96		1.26	0.85	*	1.32	0.98		0.959	0.902
138	1.98	1.91		2.12	1.96		2.26	2.05		0.990	0.979
139	1.36	0.99		1.41	1.26		1.45	1.34		0.930	0.904
141	1.72	1.47		1.81	1.67		2.00	1.60		0.969	0.911
142	1.72	1.47		1.81	1.67		2.00	1.60		0.969	0.911
145	1.87	1.44		2.10	1.83		2.06	1.65		0.950	0.877
146	1.34	1.03		1.14	0.98		1.61	1.56		0.937	0.818
147	2.45	2.13		2.25	1.98		2.13	1.86		0.942	0.874
151	1.77	1.32		1.81	1.26		1.58	1.17	*	0.935	0.872
152	1.98	1.72		1.90	1.72		1.91	1.72		0.951	1.000
153	1.57	1.33		1.73	1.44		1.73	1.53		0.986	0.987
154	0.85	0.97		1.57	1.31		0.95	1.19		0.718	0.779
155	1.75	1.10	*	2.35	2.21		1.99	1.75		0.903	0.843
156	0.78	0.98		0.67	1.31	**	0.84	1.26	*	0.644	0.858
158	1.40	1.07		1.44	1.34		1.87	1.93		0.918	0.842
165	1.61	1.21		1.77	1.29		1.43	1.32		0.910	0.729
1211	1.53	1.75		1.18	1.80		1.01	1.59		0.911	0.868

Note: For each pairing of standard deviations, significance was tested using Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 11.

Explained Variance in PO Fit when Values variable entered as Categorical Data (Subset of Study Sample)

ID	R^2 One Vector	R^2 Three Vectors
19	.031	0.089
42	.003	0.042
55	.006	0.058
74	.029	0.110
79	.003	0.013
83	.004	0.016
85	.001	0.035
89	.017	0.091
92	.040	0.099
103	.001	0.076
113	.001	0.066
115	.014	0.016
120	.001	0.060
123	.001	0.011
131	.009	0.025

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Note: Both columns represent the change in R^2 from a first model, where interviewer behaviors and interview process factors were entered as predictors of PO Fit, to a second model, where the values variable was entered. In the "Single Vector" data, values was entered as ranks 1-4 of the participant's values preferences. In the "Three Vectors" data, values was entered as three dummy coded variables. No values were significant at $p<.05$

Table 12.

Percentages of policies that meet required steps for mediation

			Policies with $p<.05$ (N = 97)					Policies with $R^2>.50$ (N = 57)				
Hyp	Mediator	IV / DV Relationship	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	NS	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	NS
4a	PO Fit	Questions / Intentions	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
4b	PO Fit	Behaviors / Intentions	0.99	0.89	0.85	0.85	0.41	1.00	0.95	0.91	0.91	0.46
4d	PO Fit	Process / Intentions	0.93	0.80	0.76	0.76	0.51	0.98	0.95	0.93	0.93	0.51
	Fairness	Questions / Intentions	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
4c	Fairness	Behaviors / Intentions	0.99	0.93	0.90	0.90	0.62	1.00	1.00	0.96	0.95	0.56
4e	Fairness	Process / Intentions	0.93	0.92	0.89	0.89	0.72	0.98	0.98	0.95	0.95	0.75

Note: Step 1 = the proportion of the given sample where the IV predicts the DV; Step 2 = the proportion of the given sample where the requirement from the previous step has been satisfied and the IV predicts the mediator; Step 3 = the proportion of the given sample where the requirements from the previous steps have been satisfied and the mediator predicts the DV; Step 4 = the proportion of the given sample where the requirements from the previous steps have been satisfied and, after controlling for the effect of the mediator on the DV, the relationship between the IV and the DV is weaker than in Step 1; NS = the proportion of the given sample where the relationship that was significant in Step 1 is no longer significant in Step 4 (full mediation).

Figure One: Example Path Illustrations for Partial Mediation of PO Fit

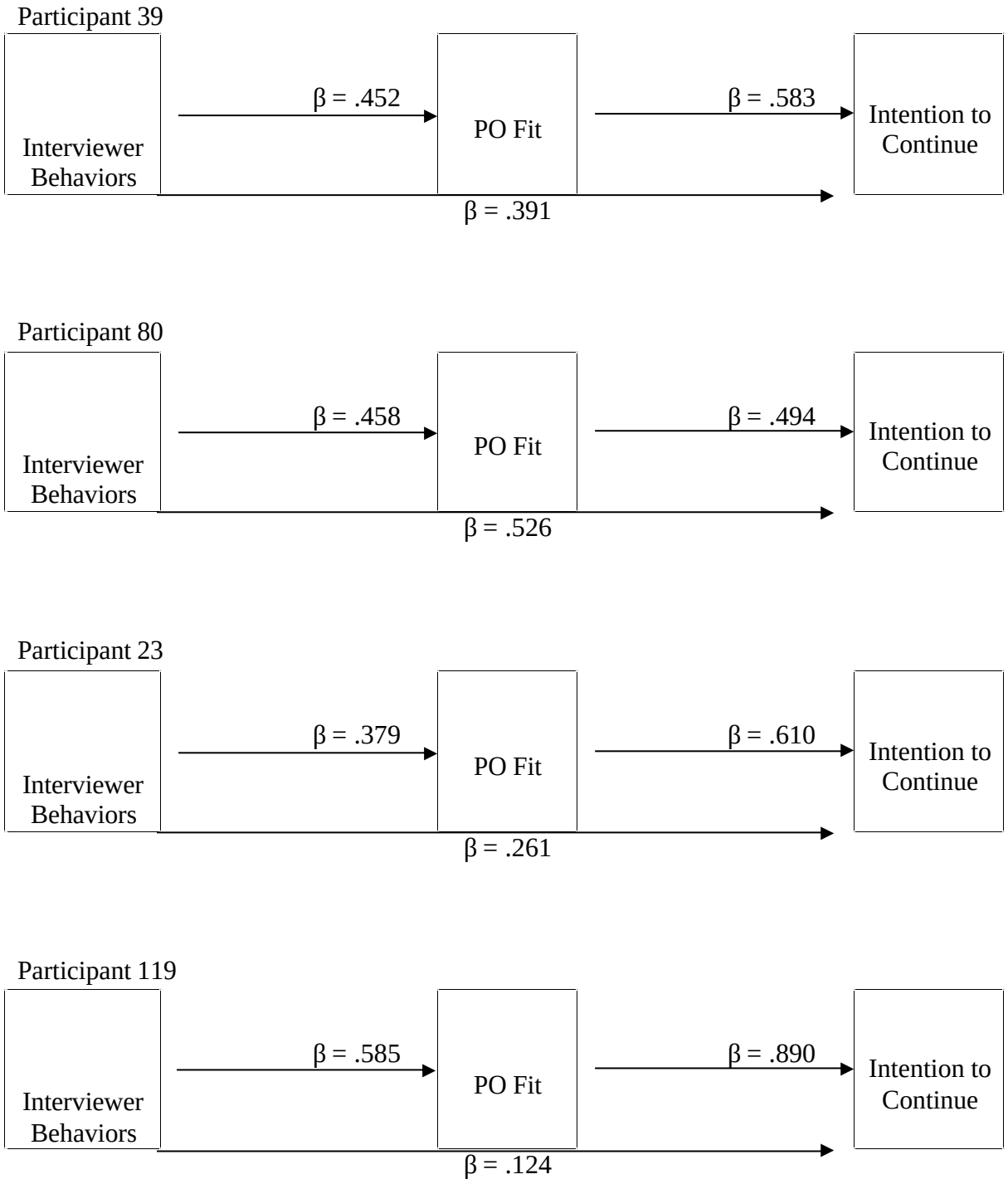
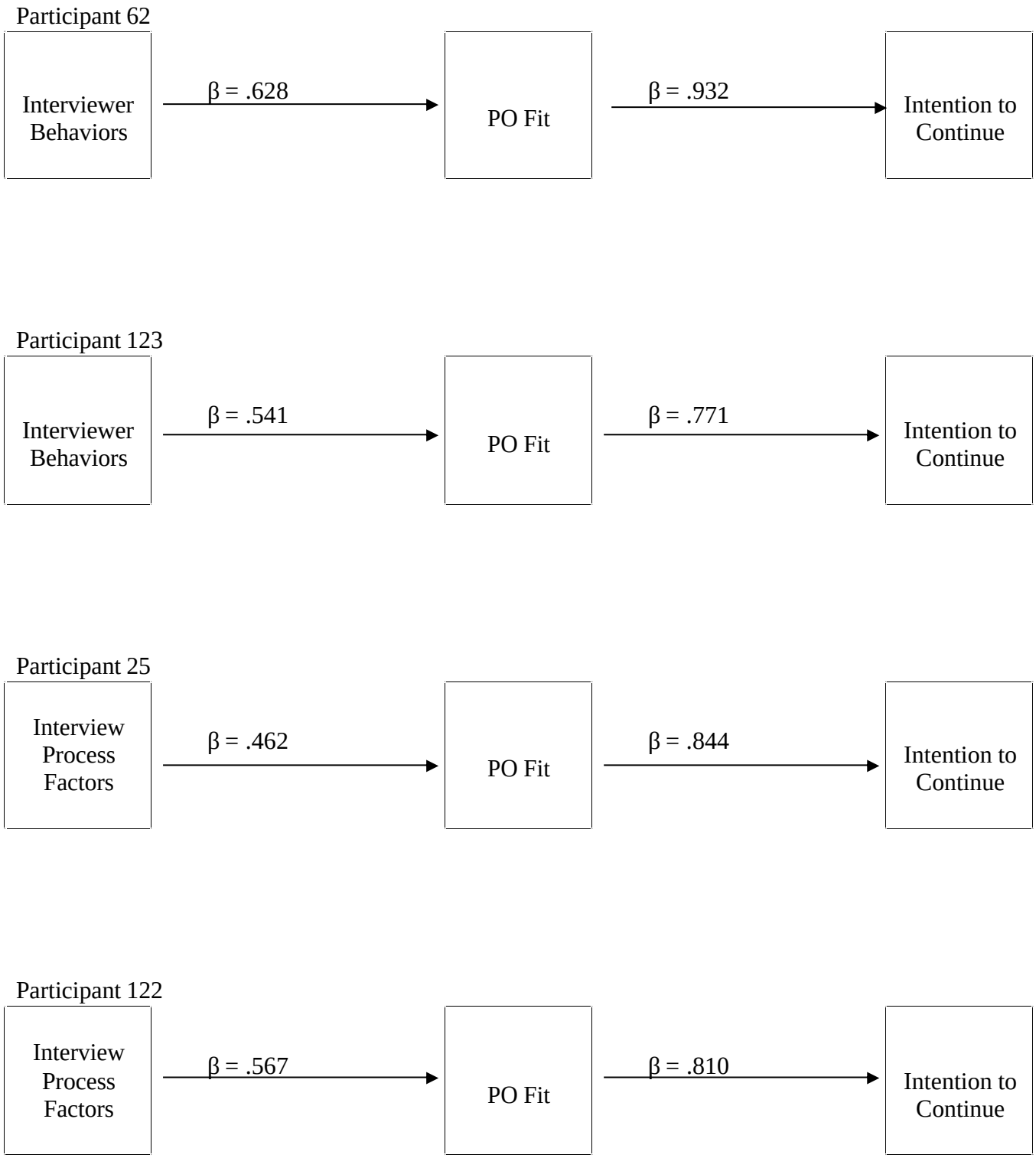


Figure Two: Example Path Illustrations for Full Mediation of PO Fit



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PROFILE

- Ph.D. in Industrial/Organizational Psychology
- Faculty Appointment at Rider University in Dept. of Management and Human Resources
- Research interests include social aspects of selection and recruitment, Person Organization Fit, organizational culture, training effectiveness, entrepreneurship and organizational citizenship behavior
- Co-author of publications in peer refereed journals including *Journal of Applied Psychology, Journal of Applied Social Psychology, Journal of Business and Psychology, and Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*
- Presentations at the annual conferences of the Society of Industrial Organizational Psychology (SIOP), the Academy of Management (AoM), and the Eastern Academy of Management (EAM)
- Applied experience includes four + years of training and development at PricewaterhouseCoopers, internships in human capital strategy at Booz Allen Hamilton and selection systems at AT&T, and various consulting projects
- Courses taught include Industrial/Organizational Psychology, Social Psychology, Psychology of Learning, Psychology of Personality, Principles of Scientific Inquiry, and Planning & Developing Research Proposals

EDUCATION

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
Blacksburg, VA
Ph.D., Industrial & Organizational Psychology
May 2007
Final Grade Point Average: 3.85
Preliminary Exam Project: "Exploring the constructs measured in selecting for airport baggage screeners"
Dissertation Project: "Assessing fit during the interview: How applicants content and context cues to Person Organization Fit"

Montclair State University
Upper Montclair, NJ
M.A.: Industrial & Organizational Psychology
January 2001
Grade Point Average: 3.8
Master's Thesis Project: "Selection interviews of overweight job candidates: Can structure reduce the bias?"
Consulting Project: Psychometric evaluation of new clinical client functioning assessment for Bridgeway Rehabilitation Services of Elizabeth, NJ

Rutgers University
New Brunswick, NJ
B.A.: Psychology, Rutgers College
B.S.: Business Management, Rutgers School of Business
May 1996

ACADEMIC EXPERIENCE

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Department of Psychology
Blacksburg, Virginia

Graduate Teaching Assistant
August, 2002 - May, 2006
Taught two semesters of "Industrial/Organizational Psychology", three semesters of "Psychology of Learning", one semester of "Psychology of Personality", one semester of "Social Psychology", and one semester of "Advanced Learning Laboratory". Facilitated three recitation sections of "Introductory Psychology".

Graduate Assistant
August 2002 – May, 2006
Performed tasks to support research studies and grants. Assisted in new student recruiting, development of program's website content, and coordination of program events.

Peer Group Facilitator, Department of Student Activities
August 2005 – May, 2006
Volunteered on a committee of graduate students to help direct and coordinate a new undergraduate leadership development program. Facilitated monthly meetings with program members to discuss leadership concepts, issues, and skills. Designed and implemented educational experiences centered on reflection, active learning, and problem-solving.

University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey, School of Health-Related Professions
Scotch Plains, New Jersey

Adjunct Instructor
Fall 1998 - present
Developed and instructed two courses ("Principles of Scientific Inquiry" and "Planning and Developing Research Projects") via classroom and online (WebCT) instruction. Taught a series of lectures to dental hygiene students introducing fundamental topics in research and statistics. Utilized teleconferencing technology to instruct populations at two New Jersey campuses simultaneously.

Outcomes Assessment Project
September 1999 – December 2000
Researched best practices in outcomes assessments for vocational and medical certification programs. Gathered data from subject matter expert interviews and document analyses to identify university, departmental, and program goals. Identified quantitative indicators for goal accomplishment, and formalized protocol for data collection and ongoing documentation.

Montclair State University, Psychology Department
Upper Montclair, New Jersey

Adjunct Instructor
January, 2001 – May, 2002
Taught three semesters of undergraduate course, "Industrial/Organizational Psychology". Created a simulation and other in-class activities to provide review and practice of course concepts. Trained a teaching assistant to maintain assessment and grading procedures for course completion.

Graduate Assistant
Summer 1997 – Summer 1998
Collaborated in literature searches, stimulus development, data collection, data analysis, and manuscript preparation for department research projects. Assisted in recruitment at undergraduate institutions, maintenance of alumni database, and coordination of program-wide

information sessions. Acted as a teaching assistant for two semesters of "Experimental Methods in Psychology".

APPLIED EXPERIENCE

PricewaterhouseCoopers, Learning and Education
Florham Park, New Jersey

Manager of Learning Effectiveness
August 2000 – August 2002; October 2006 - May 2007
Collaborated in planning and implementing new firm-wide training evaluation strategy. Conducted sessions to train designers in appropriately evaluating programs. Assisted in creating an electronic method to collect participant reaction data. Consulted with design teams to assess learning, transfer, and impact of training. Designed and implemented surveys, focus groups, and interviews to assess learning transfer.

Independent Consultant
November 2003 – April 2004
Designed, developed, and facilitated a series of workshops in response to felt needs in two PwC Washington DC offices. Titles included: "How to Motivate, Energize, and Empower your Team Members", "Feedback that Makes a Difference", "Facilitating Participation from your Team Members", and "Effective Communication"

Design & Development Consultant
January 1999 – August 2000
Designed and developed internal training and development programs for technical and non-technical knowledge/skills for all staff levels in firm. Collaborated with cross-functional teams to fully assess training and development needs for various populations. Managed relationships with industry vendors. Facilitated courses in supervisory skills, presentation skills and coaching.

Center for Organizational Research at Virginia Tech
Blacksburg, VA

Project Supervisor
October 2004 – May 2005
Collaborated in three-person team to conduct a compensation study of 25 police departments across multiple states. Researched to identify appropriate comparators. Designed survey instrument and support tools for data collection. Conducted analyses of salary, seniority, and benefits data. Prepared full report of project methodology, results and narrative interpretation for client delivery.

Booz Allen Hamilton, Organizational and Human Capital Solutions
McLean, Virginia

Doctoral Student Summer Intern
June – August 2004
Collaborated on teams of consultants to service clients from several agencies and departments across the federal government, such as the Defense Contract Management Agency, the World Health Organization, and the Army Materiel Command. Projects included: career guide development, HR strategic planning counsel, needs assessment and design of mentorship program, large-scale survey development and implementation.

New Jersey Dental Association
Atlantic City, New Jersey
Independent Consultant
Summer 2004, Summer 2006
Developed and co-facilitated interactive discussion session on workplace effectiveness ("Your Office Checkup: Enhancing your Team's Ability to Work Together") at statewide professional association conference. Topic areas included effective teamwork, communication, and basic conflict resolution

AT&T, Measurement & Selection Systems Division
Morristown, New Jersey
Graduate Student Intern
June 1998 – January 1999
Performed statistical analyses (using SAS) to assess current selection test battery. Maintained database of selection and training measurements. Assisted in a validation study of a new simulation test. Analyzed data to monitor test assessor performance and instrument reliability.

HREasy, Inc.
Prospect Park, New Jersey
Research & Development Intern
October 1997 – June 1998
Designed study to establish functional equivalency between alternate forms of a computerized screening product. Conducted structured interviews and evaluated candidate suitability based on client criteria. Created a management task analysis questionnaire and employee attitude survey. Analyzed data for projects regarding predictive validity, survey item analysis, and job analysis.

PUBLICATIONS

Bragger, J.D., Hantula, D.A., Bragger, D., Kirnan, J., & **Kutcher, E.J.** (2003). When success breeds failure: History, hysteresis, and delayed exit decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88, 6-14.*

Bragger, J.D., **Kutcher, E.J**., Morgan, J., & Firth, P. (2002). The effects of the structured interview on reducing biases against pregnant job applicants. *Sex Roles, 46, 215-226.*

Bragger, J.D. , Morgan, J.S. , Rodriguez, O., & **Kutcher, E.J**. (2001, May). *Selection Interviews of Mothers-to-Be: Can Structure Reduce the Bias*?. Proceedings from Eastern Academy of Management Annual Conference.

Bragger, J. D., Rodriguez-Srednicki, O., **Kutcher, E.J**., Indovino, L., & Rosser, E. (2005). Work-family conflict, work-family culture, and organizational citizenship behavior among teachers. *Journal of Business & Psychology. 20(20), 303-324.*

Brecher, E. D., Bragger, J.D., **Kutcher, E.J**. (in press) The role of structure in reducing the bias of handicap in the employment interview. Under review at the *Employee Responsibilities & Rights Journal.*

Kutcher, E.J., & Bragger, J.D. (2004). Selection interviews of overweight job applicants: Can structure reduce the bias? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 34 (10*), 1993-2022.

Kutcher, E. J. "Learning Psychology" in Lehman, P.E., Dula, C., & Finney, J. (2003). Introductory Psychology Recitation Reader

Lind, R.S., **Kutcher, E.J.,** DeNicolis-Bragger, J., & Hantula, D. (1999, May). *Factors Affecting Escalation & Persistence of Commitment: A Real-World Analysis.* Proceedings from Eastern Academy of Management's Annual Conference.

PAPERS IN PROGRESS

Hauenstein, N. M. A & **Kutcher, E. J**. Cronbach's accuracy components and concerns in the performance appraisal literature. Under review at *Journal of Applied Psychology*

Kutcher, E. J., & Hauenstein, N. M. A., Exploring the constructs measured in selecting for airport baggage screeners"

Kutcher, E. J., Knee, R., & Ullom, Z. The role of procedural framing and interviewer warmth in reducing job applicant preference against structured interviews.

Kutcher, E.J. & Breen, C., Designing an outcomes assessment for an Associates level Dental Hygiene program.

PRESENTATIONS

Aamodt, M.G., Brecher, E.D., **Kutcher, E.J**., & Bragger, J.D., (2006, May). *Do Structured Interviews Eliminate Bias? A Meta-Analysis of Interview Structure.* Interactive Poster Session at Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology Annual Conference.

Bragger, J.D., Morgan, J.S. , Rodriguez, O., & **Kutcher, E.J.** (2001, May). *Selection Interviews of Mothers-to-Be: Can Structure Reduce the Bias*?. Presentation at Eastern Academy of Management Annual Conference.

Brecher, E. D., Bragger, J.D., **Kutcher, E.J.,** & Miller, J. (2004, April). *The Structured Interview: Reducing Biases Toward Disabled Job Applicants*. Poster Presentation at Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology Annual Conference.

Hantula, D.A., Bragger, J.D., Bragger, D., Kirnan, J.P., & **Kutcher, E.J.** (2002, April). *When Success Breeds Failure: History, Hysteresis, and Delayed Exit Decisions.* Poster Presentation at Society of Industrial Organizational Psychology Annual Conference.

Hauenstein, N.M.A., & **Kutcher, E.J.** (2004, April). *Cronbach's Accuracy Components and Concerns about the Performance Appraisal Literature*. Poster Presentation at Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology Annual Conference.

Kutcher, E. J., & DeNicolis-Bragger, J. (1999, May). *Selection Interviews of Overweight Job Applicants: Can Structure Reduce the Bias?* Poster Presentation at Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology Annual Conference.

Knee, R. E., **Kutcher, E. J.,** & Ullom, Z. (2006, August). *The effect of structure and interpersonal warmth on applicant reactions to selection interviews.* Presentation at the Academy of Management Annual Conference.

Lind, R. S., **Kutcher, E. J. ,** DeNicolis-Bragger, J. , & Hantula, D. (1999, May). *Factors Affecting Escalation & Persistence of Commitment: A Real-World Analysis.* Presentation at Eastern Academy of Management Annual Conference.

COURSEWORK

Organizational Systems; Personnel Psychology; Human Experimental Psychology; Research Methods; Social Psychology; Behavior Modification; Seminar in Surveys and Training Design; Human Resources Management; Statistics for Research I, II; Cognitive Psychology; Personality Processes; Work Motivation; Industrial Psychology; Multiple Regression; Advanced Measurement Theory; Structural Equation Modeling; Seminar in Higher Level Modeling; Seminar in Teams Research; Seminar in Staffing and Development; Seminar in Management Research Methods

PC SKILLS

Microsoft Office Suite, SPSS, SAS, LISREL, HLM, Comprehensive Meta-Analysis, Information Mapping

AFFILIATIONS

Student Affiliate, Society for Industrial & Organizational Psychology (SIOP)
Member, American Society of Training and Development (ASTD)
Student Member, Academy of Management (AoM)
Member, Psi Chi National Psychology Honors Society
Ad Hoc Reviewer, Journal of Social Psychology and Journal of Applied Social Psychology

REFERENCES

Neil M.A. Hauenstein, Ph.D., (540) 231-5716; Associate Professor, Virginia Tech Department of Psychology
Jennifer DeNicolis Bragger, Ph.D., (973) 655-7387; Associate Professor, Montclair State University Department of Psychology
Carolyn Breen, Ed.D., (908) 889-2419; Professor/Program Chair, UMDNJ Department of Allied Dental Education
Roseanne J. Foti, Ph.D., (540)231-5814; Associate Professor/Area Director, Virginia Tech Department of Psychology