

THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR AND PROCEDURAL JUSTICE APPLIED TO  
JOB OFFER ACCEPTANCE INTENTIONS AND BEHAVIORS

by

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(Under the Direction of Gary Lautenschlager)

ABSTRACT

This study examined the applicability of Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) to job offer acceptance intentions and behaviors in a sample of 211 job applicants. Variables from Gilliland's (1993) procedural justice framework were included in an effort to determine how applicant reactions to selection procedures fit in with the TPB components. Path analysis results indicated that perceptions of test fairness (i.e., procedural justice) are linked to attitudes toward acceptance of a job offer, and that attitudes toward job offer acceptance and subjective norms are related to intentions to accept a job offer. Perceived behavioral control was not found to significantly predict job offer acceptance intentions. By examining the utility of the TPB as a theoretical framework to model applicant reactions and job offer acceptance behaviors, the present study: a) informs researchers and organizations of some of the critical antecedents present in the selection process that affect job offer acceptances, and b) fulfills the call from applicant perceptions researchers for a unifying theoretical framework under which to study applicant reactions and link them to job acceptance behaviors.

INDEX WORDS: The Theory of Planned Behavior, Procedural Justice, Applicant Reactions, Path Analysis, Employee Selection, Job Acceptance

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## DEDICATION

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## INTRODUCTION

Employee selection research has broadened in scope, from a narrow focus on the psychometric characteristics of selection procedures (e.g., Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Schmidt, 1988), to a focus which also includes applicants' reactions to those procedures (e.g., Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman, & Stoffey, 1993; Macan, Avedon, Paese, & Smith, 1994; Bauer, Truxillo, Sanchez, Craig, Ferrara, & Campion, 2001). Research on applicant reactions explores the "attitudes, affect, or cognitions" individuals hold toward the hiring process (Ryan & Ployhart, 2000, p. 566). This line of research is important, because applicant reactions to a selection process are related to such outcomes as organizational attractiveness (Bauer, Maertz, Dolen, & Campion, 1998), referrals of other qualified applicants to the organization as a potential employer (Smither, et al.), and support of that organization as a consumer (Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004). Additionally, talented candidates may not accept a job offer from an organization whose procedures are perceived unfavorably (Macan, et al.); they also may be more likely to file a legal suit against the organization (Smither et al.). Applicant reactions have longer-term effects too, for impressions of the selection procedures may be reflected later on in terms of job satisfaction (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1996), outcome satisfaction (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992), organizational commitment (Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995), and turnover intentions (Dailey & Kirk, 1992).

Though it is clear that applicant reactions comprise an important component of employee selection research, exploration of this topic has not proceeded in a unified manner. Ryan and Ployhart (2000) say that this may be because there is no nomological net that (a) captures applicants' attitudes and cognitions toward the hiring process and models how those perceptions

might relate to one another, or (b) links applicant reactions to actual job choice behavior and thus demonstrates that applicant reactions really do matter. Although there is no universal model of applicant reactions, there have been attempts to ground this research in theory. Research on applicant reactions can be categorized in terms of two general categories, one that focuses on individuals' attitudes and motivational structures during the selection process (Arvey, Strickland, Drauden, & Martin, 1990), and one that examines the relationships between fairness perceptions and specific procedural characteristics of the instruments used during the process (Smither et al., 1993; Gilliland, 1993). The aim of the present study is to examine applicant reactions from the perspective of Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991) and to utilize it as a framework that not only integrates the two existing categories of reactions research, but also that extends researchers' understanding of the determinants of reactions and links reactions to applicants' job choice behaviors.

## APPLICANT REACTIONS TO SELECTION PROCEDURES

Research examining the effects of selection procedures on reactions suggests that applicants expect selection tests to have certain characteristics, and they have preferences about which procedures organizations use in personnel selection (Gilliland, 1993; Macan, et al., 1994; Schuler, 1993; De Wolff, 1993). In order for a selection test to be perceived favorably by applicants, it must satisfy their expectations of, or “rules” for the selection process (Herriot, 1989). Researchers have presented different versions of these rules.

### *Herriot’s “Selection as a Social Process”*

According to Herriot (1989), selection is a reciprocal relationship between applicants and the organization, and this relationship is governed by a psychological contract. The best version of the psychological contract between the two constituents is *congruence*, which occurs when the organization’s expectations of the applicant are similar to the applicant’s perceptions of himself/herself. Stated differently, congruence is a subjective assessment based on each party’s perception that the rules of the selection process have been met. Situations of incongruence, or occasions when either party falls short of meeting the expectations of the other, “may be characterized as the breaking of social rules” (p. 180). Thus, when the procedures used by an organization fail to satisfy an applicant’s expectations of the selection context, the two parties have an incongruent psychological contract.

### *Schuler’s Social Validity*

Like Herriot, Schuler (1993) views selection in the context of a social process involving two dependent parties. In his model, four components comprise a socially acceptable, or valid, selection situation: information, participation, transparency, and feedback. *Information* refers to

organizational culture and the knowledge applicants have about a job's core requirements.

*Participation* may take two forms. It can refer to applicants' involvement in developing or choosing a selection device; or, it may be reflected in applicants' degree of control over the selection situation. *Transparency*, whether an organization's objectives are readily apparent to applicants, is another multi-faceted component of Schuler's model. It may take four forms: transparency toward the selection situation, toward the evaluation process (e.g., diagnostic criteria and standards), toward the measurement process, or face validity of the selection devices used. Finally, *feedback* refers to the extent to which applicants receive information about their performance on the assessment exercises. According to Schuler, applicants' evaluation of the selection experience depends on these four components, which should be thought of as four independent variables that affect applicants' reactions.

#### *Gilliland's Organizational Justice*

While researchers have used several different theories to study applicants' reactions, organizational justice is currently the dominant framework for research on applicant perceptions of test fairness (Chan, Schmitt, Jennings, Clause, & Delbridge, 1998a; Imus & Ryan, 2005). According to justice theorists, individuals attend not only to the outcomes they receive in an organizational decision, but also to the procedures used to determine those outcomes (Lind and Tyler, 1988; Thibaut and Walker, 1975, Folger & Greenberg, 1985). The "procedural justice effect" (Thibaut & Walker), is evidenced to the degree that an organization's selection system satisfies a number of conditions set forth by Gilliland (1993). According to Gilliland, applicants' attitudes, intentions, and behaviors are affected by two sets of factors that are present in selection situations: distributive justice and procedural justice. Distributive justice focuses on the

perceived equity of outcomes, while procedural justice focuses on the perceived fairness of the procedures used in a selection situation.

Like Schuler's (1993) social validity theory, Gilliland's (1993) organizational justice model identifies several conditions of selection procedures which, in combination, affect applicants' perceptions of fairness. Specifically, ten procedural justice rules determine whether applicants will react favorably to a selection procedure and perceive it as "just." These rules are divided into the three categories initially defined by Greenberg (1990): formal characteristics, explanation, and interpersonal treatment. Within the *formal characteristics* category are the following rules: job relatedness, opportunity to perform, reconsideration opportunity, and consistency. The *explanation* component includes feedback given to applicants, selection information, and honesty. Finally, the procedural justice rules contained in the *interpersonal treatment* category are interpersonal effectiveness, two-way communication, and propriety of questions. For a complete review of all ten components of procedural justice, see Gilliland.

#### *Applicant Reactions and Procedural Characteristics*

Prior research using the justice framework suggests that applicants' reactions are more a result of procedural justice in the testing process itself than the outcome (pass/fail; hired/not hired). Bauer, Dolen, Maertz, & Campion (1998) surveyed applicants for an entry-level accounting job to obtain their reactions to the organization's selection procedures. At three points in time during the testing and feedback processes, data were gathered on five elements of procedural justice: information known about the test, opportunity to perform, consistency, job relatedness, and treatment at the test site. The researchers found that perceptions of all five components of procedural justice explained variance in participants' general perceptions of

testing fairness and test-taking self-efficacy. Additional studies have found similar results in their examinations of procedural justice. Greenberg (1987), for example, found that when individuals perceived the selection process as just, they also viewed the procedures as fair, even when the outcome was unfavorable. Similarly, Smither, et al. (1993) concluded that applicants' reactions to selection tests were more related than test scores to such outcomes as organizational attractiveness, justice perceptions, and willingness to recommend the employer to others.

Beyond general examinations of justice in the selection process and whether perceptions of fairness are related to important outcomes, about 90% of all previous applicant reactions studies have examined individuals' post-test perceptions of specific types of procedures (see Ryan & Ployhart, 2000). These types of studies focus on the general test characteristics that underlie those perceptions. Studies of this type have shown that applicants prefer selection procedures that are job-related (Gilliland, 1994; Macan et al., 1994; Kravitz, Stinson, & Chavez, 1996), face valid (Mabey & Iles, 1991; Macan, et al., 1994), fair (Gilliland, 1995), participatory (Mabey & Iles), not personal or intrusive (Connerley, Mael, & Morath, 1999), and which provide results feedback (Lounsbury, Bobrow, & Jensen, 1989). Meta-analytic review of the applicant reactions literature also reports that individuals react differently to different types of selection procedures (Hausknecht et al., 2004). Specifically: interviews, work sample tests, resumes, and references tend to be perceived the most favorably by participants; cognitive ability tests, personality tests, and biodata tend to be perceived with moderate favorability; and, personal contacts, honesty tests, and graphology tend to be perceived the least favorably (p. 669). It is important to temper this summary of applicants' reactions to specific types of tests with Hausknecht et al.'s note that in only a few of the studies reviewed in their meta-analysis were the participants competing for an *actual* job during an *actual* selection process. This is a common

cautionary footnote to much of the applicant reactions research, as few studies have examined applicant reactions to selection tools outside of the laboratory in field settings.

In sum, research focused on applicant reactions to certain assessments used during the selection process suggests that when selection procedures satisfy procedural justice rules, or when applicants perceive them as satisfying justice rules, those perceptions of justice can offset the negative reactions typically associated with an unfavorable outcome. Irrespective of the outcome, a test that follows procedural justice rules should be perceived as more fair than a test that violates one or more elements of procedural justice. Reactions to selection tests, according to procedural justice researchers, are therefore considerably dependent on satisfying the rules of selection.

### *Applicant Reactions and Affective States*

Procedural justice is a useful framework for examining the rules, or conditions, which must be satisfied for a selection test to be perceived as fair. However, research on individuals' perceptions of selection procedures is not limited to procedural justice. In fact, Gilliland (1993) hints at two different emphases of applicant perceptions research, saying that whether or not individuals perceive procedural and distributive justice rules as being satisfied depends on both "situational and personal conditions" (p. 700). The reactions research has advanced in two directions, either emphasizing perceptions of the *fairness* of selection procedures, or the influence of test takers' *attitudes* in selection context. As previously described, research taking the fairness route (i.e., the procedural justice framework) examines test takers' perceptions of the processes and procedures used to make a selection decision; it focuses on characteristics of selection methods, and whether applicants believe those characteristics comprise a fair

assessment (e.g., Bauer, et al., 1998; Greenberg, 1987; Smither et al., 1993). Research with an attitudes emphasis, on the other hand, examines test takers' perceptions of themselves in assessment situations. It focuses on how individual variables, such as cognitions and behaviors, affect test performance (e.g., Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Lievens, DeCorte, & Brysse, 2003; Arvey et al., 1990; work of Chan and colleagues). Important attitude variables include self-efficacy, belief in the purposes of a test, and test-taking anxiety.

In their article on the motivations and attitudes that underlie test takers' performance on selection tests, Arvey et al. (1990) explored the idea that applicants have different sets of attitudes and cognitions than job incumbents. Questioning whether predictive and concurrent validation studies sometimes yield different results due applicants (who are the subject of predictive validity studies) display different levels of motivation to complete the employment-related assessments than incumbents (who are the subject of concurrent validity studies), Arvey et al. examined the motive structures of these two groups of organizational stakeholders. The authors found that applicants and incumbents did display different levels of motivation on employment-related tests, such that applicants had higher levels of motivation to work hard and do well. Given that applicants had something at stake in the test taking process, a job with the organization, whereas incumbents completed the selection tests solely for the purpose of the concurrent validation study, this result seems logical. What is interesting about this result, though, is that it highlights an important difference between job applicants and employees.

Applicants approach selection tests with a set of attitudes and motive structures that is unique. And those attitudes and motive structures, in turn, can affect their performance on selection tests. The Arvey et al. (1990) study demonstrates that attitudinal and motivational dispositions are key components of reactions to testing within the selection process.

Highlighting the importance of looking beyond the procedural justice framework to explain reactions, Arvey et al. demonstrate the importance of examining the applicants' experience during organizational selection in terms of their attitudes and motivations; they encourage examinations of attitudes and motivations of applicants *together with* applicants' perceptions of procedural fairness.

*Integrating two Dimensions of Reactions Research: Affective States and Procedural Characteristics*

In an effort to bridge the gap between attitudes and fairness research, Lievens et al. (2003) sought to integrate variables from both streams of research. In their study of the effects of providing information about selection procedures on test-takers' attitudes, the researchers measured individuals' test anxiety and belief in tests and then measured their perceptions of eight different selection procedures. The information given to test takers about the procedures was manipulated so that half of the participants received pre-test information about the reliability and validity of the procedures (*informed* participants), and half received only a brief generic description of the procedure (*uninformed* participants). The authors hypothesized that providing participants with information about a selection test's scientific merit would positively affect both perceptions of test fairness and beliefs that the test was a good measure of job-related abilities. That is, they expected informed participants to provide different post-test reactions than uninformed participants, since they had received information about each procedure's utility in the selection process. Despite prior research supporting this line of reasoning (e.g., Chan, Schmitt, DeShon, Clause, & Delbridge, 1997; Gilliland, 1994), their hypothesis was not

supported. Lievens et al. found no significant differences in the post-test reactions of informed and uninformed participants.

Although Lievens et al.'s (2003) hypothesis was not supported, their study should not be discounted for two reasons. First, the effects of information, while not significant, were all in the expected direction. Participants' perceptions of a procedure's fairness, scientific value, and job relatedness were somewhat related to the information they received about its reliability and validity. Second, the authors did find a significant positive effect of belief in tests on perceptions of fairness and job relatedness. Participants' general belief in tests and their initial attitude toward testing affected perceptions of test fairness, and the strength of this effect varied depending on the specific assessment procedure. This conclusion elucidates the plausibility of a link between attitudes and fairness variables; perceptions of test fairness seem to be related to individuals' perceptions of themselves in an assessment situation. But how are they related? With no theoretical framework to inform this conclusion, researchers who desire to further explore the link between attitudes and fairness variables are left empty-handed.

## NEW CONCEPTUALIZATIONS OF APPLICANT REACTIONS RESEARCH

The two independent streams of applicant reactions research, one focusing on applicants' self-perceptions, i.e., their attitudes and motivation toward testing, and one focusing on applicants' perceptions of the fairness of procedures used in the selection process, have served employee selection researchers to date. However, several researchers have noted that an integration of these streams, which are expected to relate to one another, and a grounding in a common theoretical basis with propositions that explain *why* applicants react in the way they subsequently do is necessary for work in this arena to progress further (e.g., Ryan and Ployhart, 2000; Lievens, Van Dam, & Anderson, 2002; Anderson, 2003; Deros, Born, & De Witte, 2004; Hausknecht, et al., 2004; Truxillo, Steiner, & Gilliland, 2004).

In their critical examination of the applicant reactions literature, Ryan and Ployhart (2000) put forth a call for a causal model of applicant reactions, one that does not just catalogue the consequences of applicant perceptions, but which also tests the empirical question, "*What leads to fairness perceptions?*" (p. 595). They encouraged researchers to move away from the piecemeal approach of studying reactions to specific types of tests and instead investigate the overarching antecedent variables that explain post-test reactions using frameworks other than the procedural justice model. Ryan and Ployhart note that behavioral intention models, in particular, might be relevant. Specifically, they said that "intention models [such as the TPB] might also serve to supplement justice models or be more formally integrated with them to better understand how applicant perceptions connect to applicant behavior" (p. 598). Additionally, Ryan and Ployhart point out that existing frameworks of reactions fall short in two critical areas:

explaining how perceptions are formed, and linking perceptions with actual behavioral outcomes. These shortcomings of existing frameworks are the key strengths of intention models.

Beyond elucidating how perceptions are formed and how perceptions are linked with important outcomes, a behavioral intentions model would also explain the causal roles of social information and perceptions of control on the formation of reactions. Ryan and Ployhart (2000) point out that, even though it has not been examined by researchers, social information may be a key component of applicant reactions. Additionally, perceptions of control and the effect of those perceptions on reactions remains an area that is largely unexplored, even though it has been suggested as a key influence on how applicants view the selection process (e.g., Schuler, 1993).

While it is important for organizations to consider the subjective effects of their selection procedures on applicants, it is equally as important to have (a) a more complete picture of the conditions which led to those effects and (b) evidence demonstrating that applicant perceptions really matter. Little is known about the causal mechanisms underlying applicants' reactions to selection procedures, and little is known about how those perceptions of the process are ultimately related to actual decisions to accept a job offer. Because selection is the beginning of a relationship between an individual and his/her potential employer, when deciding on which procedures to use to select new employees, it is important for organizations to consider not only the ways in which applicants react to those procedures, but also the implications of those procedures in terms of applicants' ultimate decisions to accept a job offer. As Anderson, Lievens, van Dam, and Ryan, (2004) noted, it is time to look beyond dependent variables that are themselves perceptions (e.g., test motivation, perceived test performance, and perceived organizational attractiveness) and study the practical consequences of applicant reactions (e.g., acceptance of a job offer). An understanding of "when and why applicants have more or less

favorable impressions of a selection process might increase ability to influence those perceptions and related applicant attitudes and behaviors” (Ryan and Ployhart, 2000, p. 566). Using the TPB to study applicant reactions would give researchers an understanding of the *when* and the *why*, as it specifies the causal mechanisms through which intentions are formed and provides a framework of behavioral decision-making.

### *The Theory of Planned Behavior*

Designed to predict and explain human behavior in particular situations, and developing out of research which suggested that attitudes affect behavior, the TPB is thought to be a comprehensive theory of human behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen, 1991). In its inception, the model was known as the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA); it stated that behavioral intention is comprised of two components -- attitude and subjective norm. *Attitude* refers to an individual’s overall evaluation of a particular behavior, and more specifically, how positively or negatively he/she views that behavior. *Subjective norm* refers to whether persons close to that individual would endorse a particular action; that is, the social pressure to perform or not perform a particular behavior. With only these two components in the model the applicability of the TRA was somewhat limited, because it could only apply to behaviors that were explicitly chosen by individuals. That is, it did not adequately explain the behavior of individuals who felt they had little control over executing a particular behavior. Because of this, the TRA was revised into the TPB with an additional component, perceived behavioral control (PBC), added to the model. *Perceived Behavioral Control* is the degree to which individuals feel they have power over a behavior, or, the perceived ease or difficulty of performing a behavior given the resources that are available (Ajzen).

In its current form the TPB establishes that, when making a decision to act in a certain manner, individuals form intentions first, going through a rational decision-making process whereby they evaluate the information available to them and consider the consequences of their actions before actually deciding on a course of action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Thus, intention, defined as an indicator of an individual's willingness to exert effort to perform a specific behavior, is an immediate precursor to human behavior; it is also thought to capture the motivational factors that influence a behavior. As shown in Figure 1, intentions are proposed to be a function of the three independent variables described previously: attitude, SN, and PBC (Ajzen, 1991). PBC, has a dual role in the model. It can have both an indirect effect on behavior through its influence on intentions, and/or it can serve as a proxy for actual control and have a direct influence on both intentions and behavior. PBC has a direct influence on behavior when the following conditions are met: (a) individuals have adequate information about the behavior, (b) individuals have adequate resources available to them to perform the behavior, and (c) individuals are familiar with the specifics of the situation. When these conditions are not met, PBC does not have a substantial direct affect on the prediction of behavior, but only has an effect on behavior through its impact on intentions (Ajzen).

The relative importance of each of the TPB components varies across situations and behaviors (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Ultimately, individuals use the information associated with each of these components and take it into account during the decision-making process that produces their intentions to act in a certain manner; the actual behavior, in turn, follows from the intentions that were formed during this process (Norman & Bonnett, 1995). Previous research has found intentions to be a powerful predictor of behavior, with meta-analytic research suggesting that, on average, 22% of the variance in behavior can be accounted for by intentions

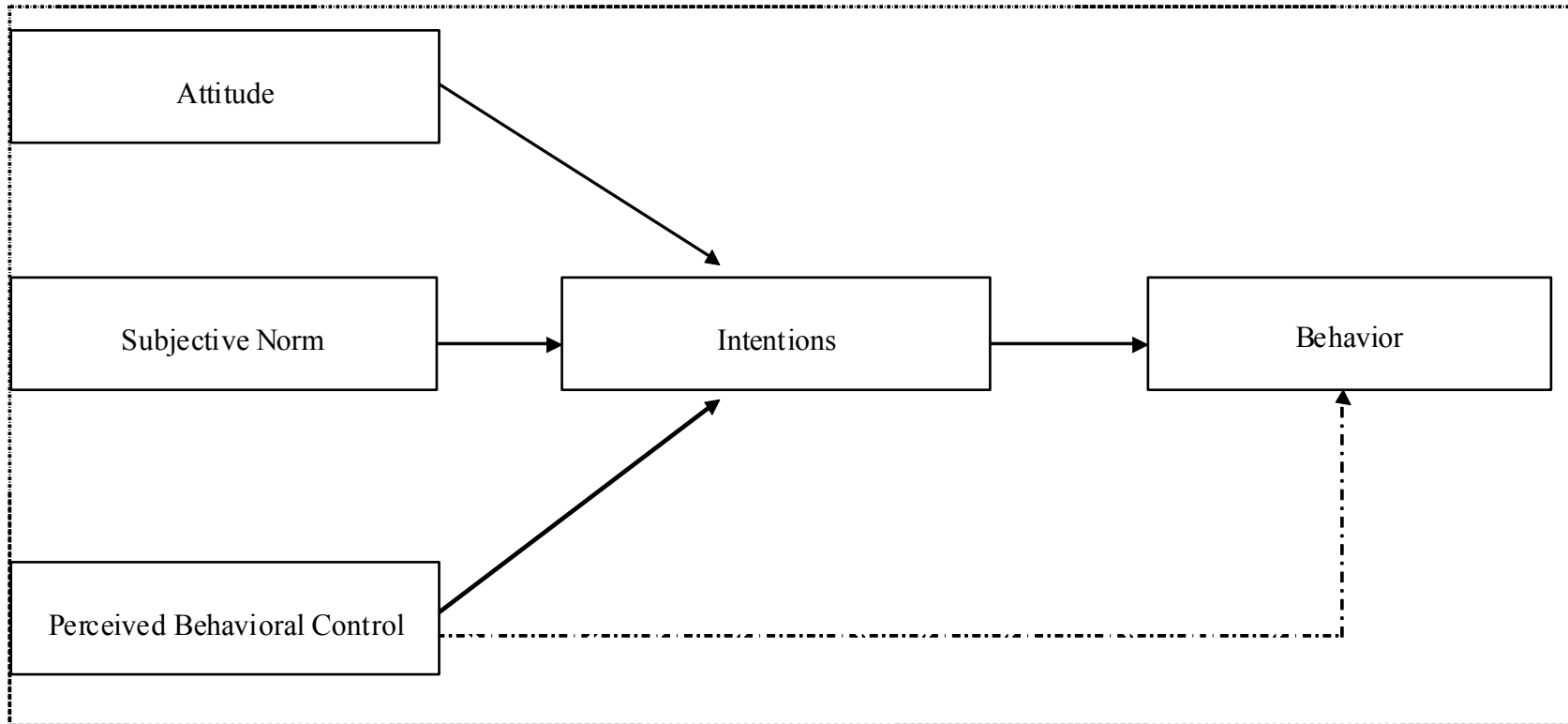


Figure 1 (p. 15)  
Model of the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991)

alone (Armitage & Conner, 2001). The TRA and TPB have been successfully applied across a wide range of behavioral domains, predicting individuals' decisions to lose weight, stop smoking, apply to graduate school, and perform leisure activities (Ingram, Cope, Harju, & Wuensch, 2000). In fact, so much support for the predictive validity of the TPB has been found that some researchers say little can be gained at this point by further demonstrating the theory's applicability to particular domains (Ajzen, 2001).

Though the TPB was developed outside the realm of organizational science, researchers have found it to be a valuable framework for investigating the causal underpinnings of behavior in work-related settings. The TPB has demonstrated predictive utility in a number of different organizational settings, having been applied to understand decision-making as it relates to such topics as technology adoption (e.g., Rei, Lang, & Welker, 2002), individuals' intent to participate in employee involvement programs (e.g., Dawkins & Frass, 2005), recruiters' adoption of structured interview techniques in employee selection (e.g., van der Zee, Bakker, & Bakker, 2002), managers' intentions to improve their job-related skills following developmental feedback sessions (e.g., Maurer & Palmer, 1999), and managers' decisions to undertake benchmarking efforts in their organizations (e.g., Hill, Mann, & Wearing, 1996). The TPB has yet to be considered, however, in regards to applicant perceptions of selection procedures. Such a novel application of the TPB has parallels with recent calls for an underlying unifying framework to use in the prediction of employee reactions to selection procedures (e.g., Lievens, Van Dam, & Anderson, 2002; Anderson, et al., 2004; Derous, et al., 2004; Hausknecht, et al., 2004; Truxillo, et al., 2004), and, in particular, a suggestion to apply behavioral intention models to employee selection (Ryan & Ployhart, 2000).

Because it focuses on intention, explaining behavior in terms of the decision-making process that led to a particular behavior, and because it explicitly breaks down the decision-making process into three distinct components that illuminate motivational factors associated with that process, the TPB separates itself from other models of behavior (van Hooft, Born, Taris, van Der Flier, & Blonk, 2004). As a robust and highly adaptable theory of human behavior that has demonstrated applicability across many domains, the TPB should be examined as a framework for examining applicant perceptions. On this basis, the present study examined the TPB as an organizing framework with predictive power to explain applicants' reactions to selection procedures and their ultimate acceptance of job offers.

## THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR AS AN ORGANIZING FRAMEWORK OF APPLICANT REACTIONS

The present study utilized the TPB to examine the antecedents of applicants' reactions to assessments used in the selection process and their job offer acceptance intentions and behaviors. Previously in the present paper, we reviewed the applicant reactions research, zeroing in on the dominant framework of reactions, Gilliland's (1993) procedural justice. In this review, we noted that the justice model of reactions is concerned with how the procedural characteristics of selection instruments affect applicants' perceptions of fairness and their corresponding attitudes and behaviors (e.g., intentions to accept a job offer, intentions to recommend the organization to others, organizational attractiveness, etc.).

The central feature of Gilliland's (1993) model is a linkage between perceptions of fairness and "important individual and organizational outcomes" (p. 722). Although Gilliland says that the critical value of examining reactions lies in understanding the relationship between perceptions and outcomes, he fails to explicate the mechanisms through which those linkages occur. Researchers still need to delineate exactly how perceptions are related to behavioral outcomes. Additionally, "researchers have not identified boundary conditions within which selection fairness should matter, nor have they studied those outcomes most likely to relate to selection fairness" (Truxillo, et al., 2004, p. 41). What is needed is a framework that accounts for the linkage between a variety of applicant perceptions (i.e., not just fairness, but also attitudes and motivational factors) and behavioral outcomes. We have a good understanding of applicants' impressions of and reactions to selection procedures, and we understand the characteristics of various selection procedures that are viewed as being fair by candidates, but

what is lacking is an explanation of how that understanding actually translates into helping us predict the behaviors associated with those reactions and fairness perceptions.

To date, there have been no field studies that connect applicants' reactions to selection procedures to their subsequent job offer acceptance behavior. Field research in this area is warranted because employee selection is a rich context with a number of different influences (e.g., the applicant's needs and desires in a job, the applicant's family and their opinion of the job, the organization's hiring constraints, etc.). Most research examining fairness perceptions of selection procedures has used student or incumbent samples (e.g., Horvath, Ryan, & Stierwalt, 2000; Ployhart, Ryan, & Bennett, 1999), with only a handful examining actual job applicants (Bauer, et al., 1998; Bauer, et al., 2001; Truxillo, Bauer, Campion, & Paronto, 2002). The student/incumbent versus job applicant dichotomy is worthy of noting, since researchers have cautioned against viewing students and incumbents as equal substitutes for actual job applicants (Ryan & Ployhart, 2000). A strength of the present study is the fact that we are assessing the linkage between the perceptions and behaviors of actual job applicants. Since researchers have noted that, because "there is not as yet solid evidence that desirable applicants turn down job offers because of their views of the selection process," testing this linkage is critically important (Ryan & Ployhart).

Framing selection in terms of the TPB components would serve several purposes. First, it would answer the call from researchers to apply a nomological net to the perceptions research. As a causal model of applicant reactions, the TPB would explain how the various applicant perceptions that have been extensively catalogued in the literature actually relate to one another (Ryan & Ployhart, 2000). Second, it would fulfill researchers' desires to link the attitudes-focused and procedural-fairness-focused streams of applicant reactions research, grounding both

in a common theoretical model that explains why applicants react to selection assessments in the manner that they do (e.g., Ryan and Ployhart; Lievens, Van Dam, & Anderson, 2002; Anderson, 2003; Derous, et al., 2004; Hausknecht, et al., 2004; Truxillo, et al., 2004). Third, applying the TPB to reactions would fulfill researchers' desire to expand on the extensive study on the *consequences* of applicant reactions and devote empirical attention to the *antecedents* of these reactions (Van Vianen, Taris, Scholten, & Schinkel, 2004). Fourth, the TPB would provide a broad framework to link applicant reactions to behavioral outcomes of import to organizations (e.g., acceptance of a job offer, applicant withdrawal, and actual recommendations to others), extending prior research which stopped short by focusing on intentions as the criterion of interest (see Hausknecht et al.). And, finally, using the TPB to study applicant reactions would provide broader benefits to organizational science researchers, given that it is a model whose applicability is not restricted to the organizational sciences community and whose theoretical underpinnings are well-understood and have buy-in from the psychology community.

### *The Present Study*

Due to recent calls in the literature to move beyond the procedural justice model of reactions and (a) ground the reactions research in a more comprehensive theory that links perceptions to actual behaviors and (b) consider applicant perceptions other than procedural fairness, we employed the TPB as a explanatory framework of how applicants' reactions to selection procedures are linked to behavioral outcomes. The TPB provides a framework to predict intentions that accounts for the multiple influences of behavior and multiple perceptions associated with selection procedures. And, importantly, it provides a mechanism with which those influences and perceptions can be linked to both intentions and actual behavior. The

present study applied the TPB in an employee selection context and proposed that by assessing applicants' perceptions in terms of the each of the components of the TPB, researchers end up with a more complete understanding of organizational selection, and employers can with more consistency predict job offer acceptance intentions and behaviors.

Previous research has examined how perceptions of the selection process are related to such behaviors as applicants' decisions to withdraw from the process and applicants' test performance (Schmit & Ryan, 1997; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000). Previous research has also examined the relationship between perceptions and job offer acceptance intentions (e.g., Macan, et al., 1994; Ployhart & Ryan, 1998), and meta-analytic research has reported moderate to large positive relationships between positive applicant reactions and intentions to accept a job offer (Hausknecht et al., 2004). There have not been, however, any field studies that examine the relationship between applicant reactions and job offer acceptance (Ryan and Ployhart, 2000).

Ryan and Ployhart (2000) note a methodological issue that plagues the applicant perceptions research, namely, that in some studies researchers have treated certain variables as correlates or potential antecedents of perceptions (e.g., organizational attractiveness and self-efficacy; Macan et al., 1994; Ryan, Ployhart, Greguras, & Schmit, 1998; Truxillo & Bauer, 1999), while those same variables have been treated as outcomes of perceptions in other studies (e.g., Bauer, et al., 1998; Ployhart, Ryan, & Bennett, 1999). The result of this inconsistency is that there is no clear indication of the causal direction of perceptions; that is, it cannot be determined what causes perceptions versus what *is caused by* perceptions. In the present paper, we employ a unifying theoretical framework that explores applicant perceptions in terms of a behavior, *acceptance of a job offer*, that is the ultimate end result of the selection process. While there is no clear picture of whether perceptions are an antecedent or a consequence of selection

procedures, we believe that the TPB framework can shed some light on the broader question in perceptions research – that is, how applicant perceptions are ultimately related to job offer acceptance behavior.

In the present paper, we examined applicant perceptions in terms of attitudes, subjective norm, and PBC. Additionally, we include procedural justice perceptions in the model, viewing perceptions of the selection tests as a key component of the attitudes one holds toward a particular job. By using the TPB to predict the acceptance of a job offer, we can tease apart the causal influences of attitudes and situational characteristics and examine each as a determinant of the ultimate behavior. And, by accounting for procedural justice perceptions, we draw from the large body of justice literature which has examined applicants' subjective perceptions of selection procedures.

#### *Attitudes and Job Offer Acceptance.*

The procedural justice literature highlights the importance of examining applicants' attitudes toward the procedures used in the selection process. Additionally, the applicant reactions research in the "attitudes" stream of research (which focused on belief in tests, test-taking anxiety, etc) reviewed in earlier sections of the present paper highlighted the importance of examining applicants' attitudes in conjunction with outcomes of interest. Given this previous research, we examine both sets of attitudes in the context of the TPB.

The procedural justice framework will be the basis of our examination of attitudes toward the tests used in the selection process. We will examine applicants' perceptions of the tests' fairness and job relatedness, as well as their perceived opportunity to demonstrate job-related skills and abilities. As discussed previously in the present paper, it is important to determine the place of procedural justice perceptions in relation to behavioral outcomes of interest. By casting

procedural justice perceptions as an exogenous variable that affects attitudes toward a behavior (see Figure 2), we augment the TPB with the procedural justice literature. Doing this answers the call from researchers to examine applicant perceptions in the context of a nomological net that effectively links applicant reactions to an important behavior and thus demonstrates the importance of examining applicant reactions. In the present study, we predict that:

H<sub>1a</sub>: Attitudes toward the selection tests (i.e., procedural justice perceptions) will be positively related to attitudes toward the acceptance of a job offer.

A central hypothesis of the TPB is that individuals' overall attitudes toward a behavior are grounded in beliefs about the likelihood of certain outcomes related to the behavior and subjective evaluations of those outcomes (Ajzen, 1991). Thus, the focus of the Attitude component of the TPB is a linkage between attitudes and intentions to perform a particular behavior. Because attitudes in this context are linked to the behavior of interest, they are considered a different component of the present study's model than attitudes toward the tests used in the selection process. Applicants' test taking attitudes as they relate to an outcome of interest to organizations, *acceptance of a job offer*, will be examined. Specifically, we predict that:

H<sub>1b</sub>: Applicants' attitudes (i.e., individuals' subjective evaluation of accepting the job) will be positively related to job offer acceptance intentions.

#### *Subjective Norm and Job Offer Acceptance.*

Part of the reason why researchers may have had difficulty connecting applicant reactions to job offer acceptance behavior in the past is because attitudes toward the process and perceptions of procedural fairness are only one piece of the applicant perceptions puzzle that drives behavior. The possible influences of reactions to selection procedures most likely extend

beyond applicants' attitudes and perceptions of fairness. Other applicant perceptions should be considered. Although research has suggested that (a) applicants incorporate the opinions of others into their assessments of whether selection processes were fair or not (Ambrose, Harland, & Kulik, 1991; Lind & Tyler, 1988), and (b) applicants may alter their perceptions of selection procedures after they solicit comparison information from friends and family about the fairness of the procedures research (Ryan and Ployhart, 2000), the influence of social information and the influence of others' opinions on perceptions of selection procedures has not been thoroughly examined in the applicant perceptions arena. Thus, the suggestion that the SN component of the TPB model predicts intentions to accept a job is based on the idea that when applicants decide to accept a job offer, they do not do so in a vacuum, but rather they take into account the opinions of significant others. Given this, we predict that:

H<sub>2</sub>: Perceived social pressures toward job choice will be positively related to job offer acceptance intentions.

*Perceived Behavioral Control and Job Offer Acceptance.*

Choosing to accept a job offer is to a large extent constrained by social, economic, and organizational factors that are outside of the immediate control of the job seeker. There are multiple stakeholders and influences in the job choice process which affect the degree of self efficacy individuals feel in any selection situation. For example, the organization serves as a gatekeeper, extending offers to only those candidates who are deemed qualified for the position; and, the candidate's family and social network present environmental constraints (e.g., Is a change in location required? How does the job's schedule affect one's familial responsibilities?) that impact an individual's ability to outright accept an offer of employment. Additionally, individuals who are considering job offers from other organizations and/or have multiple offers

on the table may feel higher levels of behavioral control to accept or deny one particular job offer, as compared to those candidates with no additional job offers. Individuals who are unemployed at the time of the job application also may perceive lower levels of control to accept the job – they may feel they *have* to accept the first job offered to them simply to stay afloat.

In the context of job offer acceptance behavior, then, PBC should be thought of in not in terms of how easy or difficult it is for an applicant to accept the job, but rather in terms of whether the candidate can turn down a job offer if he/she receives one. In other words, how easy or difficult is it for applicants to say “no” to a job offer, and to what extent are external factors outside of their immediate control (e.g., economy, other employment prospects, state of the job market) involved in that decision. The job search literature informs the present paper’s conceptualization of PBC over accepting a job offer.

Research has demonstrated the usefulness of the TPB to predict the intensity of individuals’ job search behaviors (e.g., Caska, 1998; Van Ryn & Vinokur, 1992). Researchers who have applied the TPB to job search behaviors have conceptualized PBC as *job search self efficacy*, because Ajzen described PBC as being compatible with Bandura’s (1982) conceptualization of self-efficacy (Caska, 1998; Van Ryn & Vinokur, 1992). According to Strauser and Berven (2006), job search self efficacy is one’s confidence in his/her abilities to “successfully execute job-seeking behaviors” (p. 208). In a meta-analysis by Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz (2001), job search self efficacy was found to be significantly related to job search behavior. However, in a study by Caska which examined job search self efficacy in the context of the TPB, limited support for its influence was found. This result highlights Ajzen’s (1991) note that direct links from PBC to behavior should be expected only when perceived control is a close representation of actual control (i.e., when there are not a lot of external factors

that impact one's perceived control in a given situation). Thus, when examined in the context of a behavior that has a lot of outside influences -- which job offer acceptance certainly does -- *self efficacy* does not seem the best conceptualization of control.

Job Search Locus of Control (JSLOC) has also been examined in the context of job search behaviors. Defined as the amount of control that job seekers feel they have over the outcome of their job searches, researchers have shown JSLOC to be related to job search intensity (Wanberg, 1997; Saks & Ashforth, 1999). Individuals' JSLOC is thought to fall on a continuum from *internal* to *external*; individuals with an internal JSLOC believe that their own abilities, efforts, and behaviors lead them to find a job, while individuals with an external JSLOC believe that their finding a job is exclusively dependent on outside forces like luck, the condition of the labor market, or recruiters' decisions (Van Hooft and Crossley, 2008).

In the present study, we will adapt the JSLOC conceptualization of control to the domain of job offer acceptances. Given that acceptance of a job offer is the next significant behavior following job search behavior, it makes sense to conceptualize control in similar terms that have been used in the job search literature. And, because examining control over accepting a job offer in terms of locus of control allows us to account for the effects of external factors on this behavior, this conceptualization of control seems to be a better fit than the self efficacy conceptualization that some researchers have adopted.

The TPB views *control* in terms of the amount of influence an individual has over a particular behavior. Utilizing locus of control terminology, PBC will be thought of as a continuous variable, with high scores indicating an internal JSLOC and low scores indicating external JSLOC. Van Hooft and Crossley's (2008) definitions of internal and external JSLOC will be adapted for the present study, such that internal JSLOC relates to individuals who believe

that their own abilities, efforts, and behaviors lead them to accept a job offer, while external JSLOC refers to individuals who believe that their finding a job is dependent solely on outside forces like luck, the condition of the labor market, or recruiters' decisions. To that end, individuals with an internal JSLOC will be characterized as more able to say *no* to a job offer, because external factors (e.g., financial responsibilities, job market stability, and family commitments) are not the main drivers of their job acceptance behavior. Thus, we predict that:

H<sub>3</sub>: PBC toward job choice will be positively related to job offer acceptance intentions.

The relationship between PBC and intentions to accept the job offer will be stronger for individuals with an internal JSLOC than for individuals with an external JSLOC.

The TPB predicts that the greatest positive relationship between intentions and behavior occurs when control beliefs are high (Ajzen, 1991). This is very important in a selection setting, because the receipt of a job offer from an organization is largely dependent on factors outside of applicants' immediate control (e.g., hiring constraints, economic needs, etc.); even the best intentions to accept a job offer may not, by themselves, predict actual acceptances. If applicants do not truly believe they have control over whether they choose to accept a job (i.e., if they feel their decision to accept the job is more driven by external factors, such as current employment state or the economy), then intentions alone will not likely lead to job acceptance behaviors.

Therefore, we explored the interaction between PBC and job offer acceptance intentions:

H<sub>4</sub>: PBC over choosing the job and intentions to accept the job will interact to predict actual job acceptance behavior.

Figure 2 presents a model of the variables included in the present study. Appendix C presents a snapshot of the TPB as applied to job offer acceptance behavior.

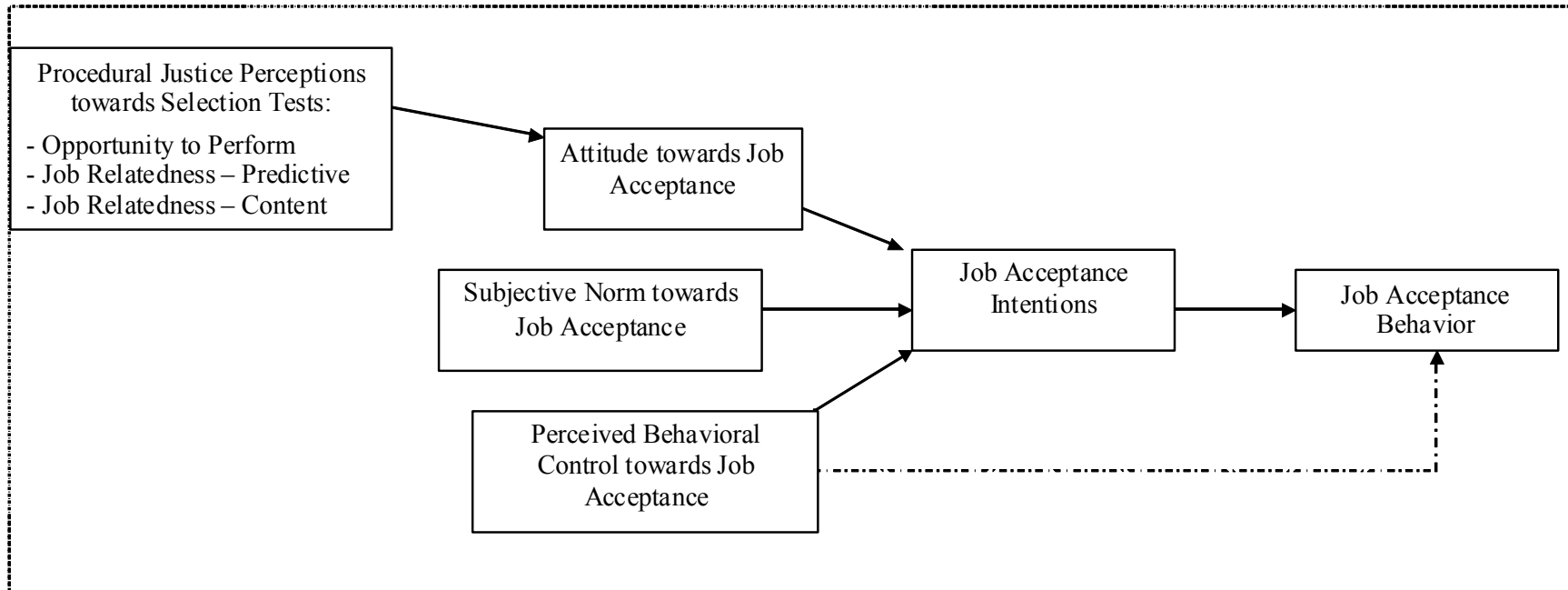


Figure 2 (p. 28)  
Hypothesized Model of Study Variables

Practically speaking, use of the TPB to model applicant reactions would help organizations identify specific aspects of their selection procedures to target if they were not satisfied with their rates of job offer acceptances from qualified candidates. Wiechmann & Ryan (2003) note that when implementing new types of selection tools, “designers need to consider the impact that individual differences may have on applicants’ perceptions of the selection test as well as their performance” and identify “which individual differences can be changed through simple interventions (e.g., self-efficacy)” (p. 227). If organizations analyzed job applicants’ standing on each of the three components of the TPB in relation to their job offer acceptance behaviors, they could devise strategies that result in higher acceptance rates by those candidates they wish to retain. For example, if highly talented applicants reported unfavorable attitudes toward the procedures used in the selection process, then the organization could take steps to alter their assessments in a manner that would yield more favorable reactions. They could look to the procedural justice literature to determine the specific ways in which their procedures should be altered (e.g., make them more face valid, provide performance feedback, provide more information regarding the purpose of the test, etc.). As another example, if highly talented applicants reported that significant others had an unfavorable perception of the job, then the organization could take steps to market themselves in a manner that would be perceived more favorably by both applicants and individuals close to the applicants. Or, if highly talented applicants perceived low levels of behavioral control to turn down a job offer, then the organization could emphasize the skill and ability match between the individual and the job.

The present study, by examining the utility of the TPB as theoretical framework to model applicant reactions and job offer acceptance behaviors, serves a dual purpose: it will inform organizations of the critical antecedents present in the selection process that affect job offer

acceptances, and it will fulfill the call from applicant perceptions researchers for a unifying nomological net under which to study applicant perceptions. We hope to determine the relative strength of each of components of the TPB as they relate to a) intentions to accept a job offer and b) actual job offer acceptances. Results of our study will shed light on the applicability of the TPB to the personnel selection domain, and serve as an assessment of its utility as a framework through which researchers can jointly examine applicants' attitudes and their fairness perceptions of specific selection procedures, while also accounting for the rich and multifaceted context in which employee selection takes place.

## METHOD

### *Sample Characteristics*

Participants for the present study were applicants for customer service positions in a call center at a large nationwide telecommunications company. When applying for the customer service positions, applicants complete a test battery administered by a third-party test vendor. The test battery is comprised of a realistic job simulation and a custom job- and organization-fit assessment created by the third-party vendor; it takes between 30 and 40 minutes to complete and is administered on a computer to candidates in an unproctored setting.

Approximately one thousand individuals apply each month for customer service positions at the study organization. Acceptance rates are around 10%, meaning that one hundred of the one thousand applicants accept positions each month. Individual-level responses to the present study's survey were not shared with the employing organization, and information collected in the survey had no bearing on the organization's hiring decision.

### *Measures*

To avoid potential contamination of the Attitude measures and examine the two Attitudes constructs in the present study's model, care was taken to use items which specifically referred to attitudes toward the test (i.e., procedural justice perceptions) or attitudes toward acceptance of a job offer (i.e., the TPB conceptualization of attitude).

Socially desirable responding, that is, impression management or faking (i.e., intentionally responding in what is perceived to be the favorable direction) is a concern in any study which employs participants' self-response to a survey instrument to collect data (Ellingson,

Sackett, & Hough, 1999). When making hiring decisions, the most common method of accounting for socially desirable responding is to control for the presence of distortion by measuring it separately, and then partialing out its variance. Proponents of this strategy argue that such social desirability corrections provide corrected assessment scores that reflect actual applicant rankings rather than faked applicant rankings, thereby minimizing false positives in hiring decision. To address the issue of whether it is appropriate to correct for faking when making hiring decisions, it is also necessary to determine whether response distortion reflects job-relevant information or whether it reflects error variance.

Meta-analytic findings indicate that social desirability is consistently related to true individual differences in emotional stability and conscientiousness, such that job applicants scoring high on social desirability also tend to score high on conscientiousness and emotional stability (Ones et al., 1996). Furthermore, some researchers argue that an individual's ability to distort responses in a socially desirable direction indicates a functional awareness of social norms, which may in fact be related to higher levels of job performance (Ones et al.). For example, social competence may be related to successful interpersonal interactions on the job.

In the present study, we take the position that partialing out social desirability from scale scores would likely remove some of the true variance from the measures, thus reducing the reliable variance in the survey. We agree with Ellingson, Sackett, & Hough (1999) that commonly applied social desirability corrections may not properly adjust scores presumed to be affected by response distortion. Due to survey length considerations, the job-relevant nature of social competence in the target customer service positions, and the unresolved nature of the arguments surrounding how to statistically account for response distortion in applied research, we will neither measure nor correct for response distortion in the present study.

*Measures of Attitude towards the Test*

Bauer et al.'s (2001) Selection Procedural Justice Scale (SPJS) is a validated measure of Gilliland's (1993) procedural justice framework. This scale provides a common metric that researchers use in their studies of applicants' perceptions of procedural justice. Items from this scale were used to broadly measure procedural justice perceptions (defined in terms of Bauer et al.'s definitional adaptations of Gilliland's framework). Three scales from the SPJS were used to measure procedural justice perceptions: *opportunity to perform*, *job relatedness-predictive*, and *job relatedness-content*. Because the procedural justice rules are thought to be nonorthogonal (Arvey & Sackett, 1993; Gilliland), these three scales were combined into one overall measure of procedural justice perceptions.

*Opportunity to perform.* Opportunity to perform was assessed using a three-item scale adapted from Bauer et al.'s (2001) SPJS. Applicants responded on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*), indicating the degree to which they felt they could demonstrate their job-relevant competencies on the selection tests. A sample item from this scale is "I could really show my skills and abilities through this test" ( $\alpha = .82$ ).

*Job relatedness-content.* Job relatedness-content (i.e., face validity) was assessed with two items adapted from Bauer et al.'s (2001) SPJS. Applicants responded on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*), indicating perceptions of whether the test content seemed to be related to the content of the job. A sample item is "It would be clear to anyone that this test is related to the job for which I am applying" ( $\alpha = .85$ ).

*Job relatedness-predictive.* Job relatedness-predictive (i.e., predictive validity) was assessed with two items adapted from Bauer et al.'s (2001) SPJS. Applicants' responses ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*), indicating perceptions that individuals who

perform well on the test likely perform well on the job. A sample item is “A person who scored well on this test will be a good employee in the job for which I am applying” ( $\alpha = .82$ ).

#### *Measures of Attitude toward Job Acceptance*

Attitudes toward acceptance of a job offer (i.e., attitudes in the context of the TPB) were measured using items adapted from van der Zee, Bakker, and Bakker (2002). Bipolar adjectives were used to benchmark the strength of applicants’ attitudes toward the test within the context of job choice behaviors. For example, applicants rated on a 7-point scale the degree to which they felt the selection tests, when considered in relation to the customer service position for which they were applying, were a) bad/good, and b) unpleasant/pleasant ( $\alpha = .93$ ).

#### *Measures of Subjective Norm toward Job Acceptance*

Subjective Norm (SN) was measured with two items adapted from past research which used the TPB to predict organizational behaviors (e.g., Jimmieson, Peach, & White, 2008; van der Zee, Bakker, & Bakker, 2002; Dawkins & Frass, 2005). Applicants responded on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) to items such as, “Most people who are important to me (e.g., significant other, family) think that I should accept this job.” Additionally, the bipolar adjective Attitudes items leveraged from van der Zee, Bakker, and Bakker (2002) were used to assess the degree to which applicants felt significant others had favorable impressions of the organization’s selection process. For example, applicants rated on a 7-point scale the degree to which they felt friends and family members would view the selection process as: a) bad/good, and b) unpleasant/pleasant ( $\alpha = .89$ ).

#### *Measures of Perceived Behavioral Control toward Job Acceptance*

Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) of job offer acceptance was measured using six items constructed for this study. Previous applications of the TPB to predict organizational

behaviors (e.g., Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen., 1992; Hill et al., 1996) and examinations of Job Search Locus of Control (JSLOC; e.g., Van Hooft & Crossley, 2008) were used as a basis for these items. All responses were recorded on a 7-point scale, where high scores indicate an internal JSLOC (i.e., high PBC) and low scores indicate an external JSLOC (i.e., low PBC). A sample item is, “My decision to accept a job offer from this organization will be primarily driven by internal factors that are in my immediate control (e.g., my desire to work for this company, and/or my desire to perform customer service work)” (alpha = .45).

#### *Measures of Intentions toward Job Acceptance*

Job acceptance intentions were measured using items from Wiechmann and Ryan (2003) and Ployhart and Ryan (1997). Applicants were asked the likelihood (1 = *not at all likely*, 7 = *very likely*) that they would accept a job offer from the organization (e.g., “Even if I was offered the job, I would not accept it”). Additionally, continuance/withdrawal intentions, which have been shown to be related to applicant reactions previously in the literature (Ni & Hauenstein, 1998; Smither, Millsap, Stoffey, Reilly, & Pearlman, 1996), were assessed using items developed specifically for the present study. A sample item is “I am going to drop out of this application process” (alpha = .60).

#### *Background Measures*

We asked several background questions related to applicants’ job acceptance intentions and behaviors. For example, we asked applicants whether they (a) had applied for similar jobs recently, and (b) were a candidate for any other positions at the time of the survey.

See Appendix A for a complete list of the items used in the present study.

## RESULTS

Background characteristics of applicants who participated in this study are presented in Table 1. At the time of the survey, 53% of applicants were unemployed, 65% were candidates for at least one other position, and 67% had previous experience working in a similar job as a customer care agent.

Coefficients alpha were calculated for each scale included in the survey. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for two scales, Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) and Intentions, did not exceed Nunnally's (1978) criterion of internal consistency (i.e., .70). All items in both scales were retained for the initial analysis.

Scale composites were formed by calculating a mean of the items of each scale for each applicant. If an item from a scale was skipped by an applicant (resulting in missing data), an average of the remaining items represents that applicant's scale score. The percentage of missing data ranged from 1.4% to 6.6% across scales, with one exception. The PBC scale had a large percentage of missing data (33.0%) in comparison to the other scales. Out of the 211 applicants who completed the survey, 70 of them skipped at least one PBC item.

Prior to analyses, the distributions of all variables were screened for normality. Intentions was not normally distributed (skewness = -2.13, kurtosis = 5.41). A negatively skewed distribution on this variable, however, is not surprising due to the high unemployment rate and economic recession at the time of the study.

Means and standard deviations of the model variables are displayed in Table 2, and

correlations of all model variables are displayed in Table 3. Subjective Norm (SN) was highly correlated with Attitude towards job choice ( $r = .91$ ). This result raises the question of whether those two scales represent unique constructs.

### *Analysis of Study Data*

Path analysis, appropriate for quasi-confirmatory models (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982), was used to test the hypothesized relationships in Figure 2 and test hypotheses 1 through 3. Since the dimensions of procedural justice are nonorthogonal (Arvey & Sackett, 1993; Gilliland, 1993), procedural justice perceptions were measured in terms of one overall component in the path model. And, since the final dependent variable in Figure 2 is a true dichotomy (i.e., accept or do not accept a job offer), logistic regression was used to analyze those data.

### *Prediction of Intentions*

Condition 9 tests determine whether the proposed paths depicted in the theory-based model are significant. A Condition 9 path is confirmed if a significant relationship is found between the predictor and criterion and disconfirmed if no significant relationship exists between the two variables. Each path was tested by regressing the residualized criterion variable onto the predictor(s). The following structural equations were tested:

$$Attitude = .49(ProceduralJustice) + 3.53$$

$$Intentions = .18(Attitude) - .03(SubjectiveNorm) + .01(PBC) + 5.90$$

In the above structural equation for Attitude, the regression coefficient was significant. In the Intentions equation, only the regression coefficient for Attitude was significant.

Path analysis also determines whether paths omitted from the model were done so appropriately. A condition 10 test was conducted to examine the omitted parameter in the model. The following structural equation was tested:

$$Intentions = .15(Attitude) - .04(SubjectiveNorm) + .02(PBC) + .05(ProceduralJustice) + 5.85$$

The addition of Procedural Justice ( $p = .21$ ) to the model did not increase the model's prediction of Intentions above that which is accounted for Attitude, SN, and PBC. This result supports the a priori theory-based model, in which there is no direct path from Procedural Justice to Intentions.

A disturbance term regression test for Intentions was also conducted. Intentions was regressed on Attitude, SN, and PBC. The residuals were saved and then regressed on Procedural Justice. The resulting coefficient ( $\beta = .03, p = .40$ ) was not significant, which suggests there is no relationship between Procedural Justice and the disturbance term for Intentions. This condition 10 test indicates that the model as specified is correct. Although the model as specified is correct, it accounts for only 9% of the variance in Intentions ( $R^2 = .09, se = .33$ ).

#### *Prediction of Job Acceptance Behavior*

Before running the logistic regression, we looked at a crosstabs chart to see if any cells were empty or particularly small. This was the case, as few applicants who were offered a job declined it ( $n = 35$ ) as compared to the number of applicants who were offered a job and accepted it ( $n = 171$ ). The results of the logistic regression should be interpreted with caution.

A Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test yielded a  $\chi^2$  of .47 and a p-value of .49, which suggests that the model containing a link between Intentions and Job Acceptance Behavior is a reasonable fit of the data. Comparison of the constant-only model with a model that included Intentions as a predictor, however, suggested that Intentions does not provide a significant increase in fit over the null model,  $\chi^2(1, N = 206) = 1.92, p = .17$ . Additionally, the

Nagelkerke  $R^2$  was small ( $R^2 = .02$ ), indicating that Intentions accounts for very little variance in Job Offer Acceptance Behavior. The Wald statistic (2.08) for Intentions was not significant ( $p = .15$ ), indicating that the path between Intentions and Behavior is not significant in the model.

According to the TPB, direct links from PBC to a behavior should be expected only when there are *not* a lot of external factors that impact one's perceived control in a given situation. While there are a lot of external factors that come into play in accepting a job offer, the direct path between PBC and Job Acceptance Behavior was explored. A logistic regression was performed to compare the predictive value of the PBC parameters for Job Offer Acceptance Behavior. The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test yielded a  $\chi^2$  of 3.33 and a p-value of .91, which suggests that the model containing a link between PBC and Job Offer Acceptance Behavior is a reasonable fit of the data. Comparison of the constant-only model with a model that included the PBC measure as a predictor, however, suggested that PBC does not provide a significant increase in fit over the null model,  $\chi^2(1, N = 208) = 1.15, p = .28$ . Additionally, the Nagelkerke  $R^2$  was small ( $R^2 = .009$ ), indicating that PBC accounts for no variance in Job Offer Acceptance Behavior. The Wald statistic (1.15) for PBC was not significant ( $p = .28$ ), indicating that the path between Intentions and Behavior is not significant in the model.

Results of the Condition 9 tests are presented in Table 4 and Figure 3 and results of the Condition 10 test are presented in Table 5.

### *Re-analysis of Study Data*

Due to the low reliabilities of PBC and Intentions, the data were re-analyzed using modified PBC and Intentions scales. Items were deleted from these scales after conducting a rational analysis of the items' content. Condition 9 and Condition 10 tests were repeated using

the revised scales for these two variables in the model. Prior to analyses, the distributions of all variables were screened for normality. See Appendix B for the revised scale items.

On the Intentions scale, item 1 (“Even if I was offered this customer service job, I would not accept it”) asks applicants to indicate their intentions to accept the job for which they are applying, and item 4 (“I do not think I will accept an offer from xxxxx even if I receive one”) asks applicants to indicate their intentions to accept the job. These items seem to have the most face validity for the Intentions construct and are adapted from measures used in prior research (i.e., Wiechmann and Ryan, 2003; Ployhart and Ryan, 1997). Item 2 (“I will continue with this application process”) and item 3 (“Based on these tests, I am going to drop out of this application process”) also are similar, measuring continuance and withdrawal intentions, respectively, rather than “intentions to accept a job.” Based on this rational analysis, the Intentions scale was revised to include only items 1 and 4.

The PBC scale was also revised after rational analysis of the items’ content. It seems possible that applicants did not interpret item 3 on the internal PBC (“If this organization offers me a job, I will accept it because my skills are a good fit for customer service work.”) scale as a PBC measure per se, as they may have focused on the end portion of the item stem, “I will accept it because my skills are a good fit for customer service work.” They might have strongly agreed to the end portion of the item, and not realized that the purpose of the item was to assess their feelings of control, not their assessment of the match between their skills and the work. Item 1 on the internal PBC scale (“If I receive a job offer from this organization, it would be easy for me to turn it down”) might be problematic because the survey was attached to assessments presented by the hiring organization. Because it seems unlikely that applicants would indicate

on their pre-hire assessments that it is easy to turn down a job offer from the organization, this item was removed from the scale.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the revised Intentions scale was .78, which does exceed Nunnally's (1978) criterion of internal reliability of .70. While the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the revised PBC scale still did not exceed Nunnally's (1978) criterion of internal reliability, it did increase to .56 (original scale alpha = .45), indicating greater internal consistency among the items on the revised scale. When items 1 and 3 were deleted from the PBC scale, however, the number of respondents decreased dramatically ( $n = 142$ , compared to  $n = 208$  for the PBC full scale). This means that the items that were the most relevant to the PBC scale were also the items that were more likely to be skipped by applicants.

Means and standard deviations for variables in the revised analysis are displayed in Table 6, and correlations for all model variables in this re-analysis of the data are displayed in Table 7.

### *Prediction of Intentions*

Paths in the model with the revised PBC and Intentions scales were tested by regressing the residualized criterion variable onto the predictor(s). The following structural equation containing the revised constructs was tested:

$$Intentions = .08(Attitude) + .06(SubjectiveNorm) + .06(PBC) + 4.74$$

For the condition 10 test of the model, one omitted parameter test was conducted for the following structural equation:

$$Intentions = .05(Attitude) + .05(SubjectiveNorm) + .06(PBC) + .05(ProcJustice) + 4.71$$

Procedural Justice ( $p = .28$ ) does not increase the model's prediction of Intentions above that which is accounted for Attitude, SN, and PBC. This result supports the a priori theory-based model, in which there is no direct path from Procedural Justice to Intentions. One disturbance

term regression test was also conducted, in which Intentions was regressed on Attitude, SN, and PBC. The residuals were saved and then regressed on Procedural Justice. This model yields a non-significant coefficient ( $\beta = .03$ ), which suggests there is no relationship between Procedural Justice and the disturbance term for Intentions. The model accounts for 11% of the variance in Intentions ( $R^2 = .11$ ,  $se = .32$ ) when the revised PBC and Intentions scales are used. Results of the Condition 9 tests are presented in Table 8 and Figure 4 and results of the Condition 10 test are presented in Table 9.

### *Prediction of Job Acceptance Behavior*

Before running the logistic regression, we looked at a crosstabs chart to see if any cells were empty or particularly small. This was the case, as few applicants who were offered a job declined it ( $n = 35$ ) as compared to the number of applicants who were offered a job and accepted it ( $n = 170$ ). The results of the logistic regression should be interpreted with caution.

A Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test yielded a  $\chi^2$  of .63 and a p-value of .43, which suggests that the model containing a link between the revised Intentions measure and Job Acceptance Behavior is a reasonable fit of the data. Comparison of the constant-only model with a model that included the revised Intentions measure as a predictor, however, suggested that Intentions does not provide a significant increase in fit over the null model,  $\chi^2(1, N = 205) = .11$ ,  $p = .74$ . Additionally, the Nagelkerke  $R^2$  was small ( $R^2 = .001$ ), indicating that Intentions accounts for no variance in Job Offer Acceptance Behavior. The Wald statistic (.12) for Intentions was not significant ( $p = .73$ ), indicating that that parameter is not significant in the model.

When the link between PBC and Job Offer Acceptance Behavior was explored with a logistic regression using the revised PBC scale, the Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test

yielded a  $\chi^2$  of 4.41 and a p-value of .82, which suggests that the model containing a link between the revised PBC measure and Job Offer Acceptance Behavior is a reasonable fit of the data. Comparison of the constant-only model with a model that included the revised PBC measure as a predictor, however, suggested that PBC does not provide a significant increase in fit over the null model,  $\chi^2(1, N = 142) = .17, p = .68$ . Additionally, the Nagelkerke  $R^2$  was small ( $R^2 = .002$ ), indicating that the revised PBC measure accounts for no variance in Job Offer Acceptance Behavior. The Wald statistic (.17) for PBC was not significant ( $p = .68$ ), indicating that that parameter is not significant in the model.

#### *Additional Exploratory Analyses*

The high correlation ( $r = .91$ ) between SN and Attitude towards Job Acceptance was investigated. Some researchers have removed SN from their analyses, arguing that this component of the TPB rarely predicts intentions, and is “inadequate” (e.g. Sparks, Shepherd, Wieringa, & Zimmermanns, 1995). Armitage and Conner’s (2001) meta-analysis provides some support for this view, as they found SN to be the TPB component with the weakest relationship to Intention. Additional analyses, however, showed that *type of measure* moderated the relationship between SN and Intention. According to Armitage and Conner, this suggests that the poor performance of the SN component was a function of its measurement. We investigated this possibility.

In the present study, the SN scale consisted of two Likert-type items and five sets of bipolar adjectives. The two Likert-type items have been used in previous organizational research, and the bipolar adjectives were adapted to the SN scale from the Attitude scale. The bipolar adjectives used on the SN scale were also used on the Attitude scale. The high

correlation between SN and Attitude in the present study was likely due to common method bias, since very similar items were used on two different scales. The data were re-analyzed using only the two items previously used in organizational research and not used on the Attitude scale. This revised scale is called *SNSubset*.

The correlation between *SNSubset* and the full Attitude scale was .34 ( $n = 197, p < .001$ ). While the resulting correlation was still significant, it was much lower than the previously reported correlation of .91 between the full scales. This result lends support to *SNSubset* as a unique construct. We explored the model's prediction of Intentions using the *SNSubset* scale.

#### *Prediction of Intentions*

The following structural equation containing the revised SN measure was tested:

$$Intentions = .11(Attitude) + .05(SNSubset) + .05(PBC) + 5.71$$

For the condition 10 test (see Table 11) of the model, one omitted parameter test was conducted for the following structural equation:

$$Intentions = .09(Attitude) + .05(SNSubset) + .05(PBC) + .03(ProcJustice) + 5.69$$

Consistent with previous results, Procedural Justice ( $p = .39$ ) does not increase the model's prediction of Intentions above that which is accounted for Attitude, *SNSubset*, and PBC.

However, contrary to the original analysis, the path coefficients for *both* Attitude and *SNSubset* are significant (see Table 10). When SN is measured using items leveraged from previous organizational research and when bipolar adjectives are not included in the measure, the path between SN and Intentions in the theory-based model is significant. This result is consistent with the Armitage and Conner (2001) meta-analysis, which found that measurement issues are often the cause of the poor performance of the SN component in applications of the TPB.

## DISCUSSION

Previous research (e.g., McFarlin & Sweeney, 1996; Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995; Dailey & Kirk, 1992) has demonstrated that applicant reactions are an important part of employee selection research. Reactions have short-term effects on organizational attractiveness and job offer acceptances, and long-term effects on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. The present study was an effort to extend this line of research and examine how reactions are related to whether qualified applicants intend to and ultimately accept a job offer from an organization. The TPB was used to model not only job applicants' attitudes toward the hiring process and how those perceptions might relate to one another, but also the link between those applicants' attitudes to actual job choice intentions and behavior. The present study is the first research study to examine the relationship of applicant reactions in conjunction with TPB constructs. Four hypotheses were examined in the present study.

Hypothesis 1a, which predicted that applicants' procedural justice perceptions would be positively related to Attitudes, was supported. The direct path between Procedural Justice and Attitudes toward accepting a job offer was significant ( $\beta = .65, p < .01$ ). Applicants who had higher perceptions of the selection tests' job relatedness and felt they had sufficient opportunity to demonstrate their abilities on the tests were more likely to have positive attitudes toward accepting a job offer. This path in the model provides a link between attitudes toward selection tests and attitudes toward the ultimate behavior of interest, acceptance of a job offer. Applicants' perceptions of fairness of selection procedures (i.e., procedural justice perceptions) and whether applicants feel they had sufficient opportunity to demonstrate job-related skills and abilities are linked to their attitudes toward accepting a job offer.

Hypothesis 1b predicted that applicants' attitudes would be positively related to job offer acceptance intentions. This hypothesis was supported; the path between Attitudes and Intentions was significant ( $\beta = .37, p < .01$ ). As predicted, applicants' attitudes (i.e., their evaluation of the likelihood of accepting the job) were positively related to job offer acceptance intentions.

Hypothesis 2, which predicted that SN would be positively related to job offer acceptance intentions, was not supported ( $\beta = -.08, p = .59$ ). There was no relationship between applicants' perceptions of whether persons close to them (e.g., friends, family) would endorse them accepting the job and their actual expressed intentions to accept the job. When the data were re-analyzed using the revised SN scale, however, SN was positively related to Intentions ( $\beta = .20, p = .02$ ). Past research suggests that we should consider the influence of social information and the influence of others' opinions in the context of applicant perceptions (Ryan and Ployhart, 2000). Mixed results of these factors' influence on Intentions were found in the present study.

Hypothesis 3, in which it was predicted that PBC would be positively related to Intentions, was not supported. There was not a significant path between PBC and Intentions ( $\beta = .02, p = .78$ ). Although there are a lot of factors outside of an individual's individual control that affect whether he or she accepts a job offer (e.g., social, economic, and organizational factors), the degree to which applicants felt they had power over those factors were not significantly related to their intentions to accept a job offer.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that PBC over choosing the job and Intentions would interact to predict actual Job Offer Acceptance Behavior. This hypothesis was not supported, as applicants' Job Offer Acceptance Behavior did not depend on their additive levels of PBC and Intentions

( $\beta = .05, p = .14$ ). Given that control beliefs were moderate ( $M = 4.22, SD = .73$ ) in the present study, and given that previous TPB research suggests that the greatest positive relationship between intentions and behavior occurs when control beliefs are high, this result was not surprising. What was surprising, however, was that the link between Intentions and Job Offer Acceptance Behavior was not significant.

### *Limitations*

Despite the limited support for the study hypotheses, the hypotheses posed in the present study should not be wholly discounted based on the results presented here. Several of the present study's methodological characteristics must be addressed. First, few applicants in the current study indicated that they would decline a job if offered one. The survey was administered during a time of high nationwide unemployment rates (between 8.0% and 9.5%, according to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, during 2009), and the high unemployment rate likely attenuated the range of responses. Also, more than half (53%) of applicants who completed the study survey were unemployed. The variable Intentions was not normally distributed, as most applicants indicated they were highly likely to accept the job if offered by the organization ( $M = 6.84, SD = .35$ ). And, PBC scores tended to be moderate ( $M = 4.22, SD = .73$ ), which indicates that applicants felt external factors had substantial impact on whether they accept a job offer.

Another limitation of the current study concerns the results' generalizability. The survey was administered as a part of the hiring organization's selection procedures. Applicants may have been hesitant to provide honest responses to a survey asking about job acceptance intentions, given that their potential employer was the one administering it. And, for 65% of the

applicants, this was the only job they were applying for, meaning the study organization was their only prospect for employment on the table.

Characteristics of the study data also had important implications for the fit of the hypothesized model. For example, when a crosstabs chart was run on Job Acceptance Behavior, there were few applicants who indicated that they would decline the job if they were offered it. There were many missing responses from PBC scale when items 1 and 3 were deleted from the PBC scales in the re-analysis of the data; the number of respondents decreased substantially to 142 from 208. This means that the items that were the most relevant to the PBC scale were also the items that were more likely to be skipped by applicants.

A final issue with the study data concerns the SN scale. When the high correlation between the original SN scale and the Attitude scale was investigated, we found that the bipolar adjectives on the SN scale introduced common method bias into the measure. The bipolar adjectives on the SN scale were identical to the bipolar adjectives used on the Attitude scale; only the instructions differed. For the Attitude scale, the instructions were, “In terms of the job I am applying for, these tests are...” For the SN scale, the instructions were, “Most people who are important to me would view these tests as...” Applicants likely provided similar responses to the bipolar adjectives on both scales, which, in turn, muddled the picture of SN as a unique construct. Re-fitting the model using the revised SN scale, SNSubset, yielded a better fit of the model than when the original SN scale was used. This result is more consistent with TPB theory, since Attitude and SN are thought to be the primary predictors of Intentions when control beliefs are low (Armitage and Conner, 2001). This was the case in the present study, as the mean for PBC ( $M = 4.22$ ,  $SD = .73$ ) was significantly lower ( $t(201) = 9.03$ ,  $p < .001$ ) than the

mean of Perceived Opportunity to Perform ( $M = 5.16$ ,  $SD = 1.25$ ), the variable that had the next-lowest mean out of all study variables.

### *Directions for Future Research*

In light of these methodological concerns, replication is warranted. The present study should be viewed as a springboard for additional research, rather than a conclusive source on whether the TPB can be used to explain applicants' job offer acceptance intentions and behaviors. The hypotheses tested in the present study are grounded a large canon of empirical research and theory, and replication is necessary in order to determine whether the results are representative of the actual relationships between the predictor and outcome variables, or whether they are artifacts of the limitations cited above.

The present paper extends the procedural justice literature by demonstrating that attitudes are significant indicators of behavioral intentions. It also fulfills the call from applicant perceptions researchers for a unifying theoretical framework under which to study reactions to selection procedures. We found some evidence that Attitudes and Subjective Norm are both related to intentions to accept a job offer, and also modeled the role of procedural justice perceptions. Replication with increased number of applicants who decline a job offer would provide valuable information about the relationship between intentions and behavior in the context of job offer acceptances.

In sum, we know that procedural justice has important ramifications on applicants' reactions to selection tests. What we do not know, though, is how those reactions are ultimately related to job offer acceptance behaviors. By casting applicant reactions in the net of the TPB, we can place applicant reactions within a causal model that clearly defines how reactions are

related to the ultimate behavior of interest – job offer acceptances. Practically speaking, using the TPB to model applicant reactions would help organizations identify specific aspects of their selection procedures to target if they were not getting desired rates of job offer acceptances from qualified candidates. If organizations analyzed job applicants' standing on each of the three components of the TPB in relation to their job offer acceptance behaviors, they could devise strategies that result in higher acceptance rates by those candidates they wish to retain. For example, if highly talented applicants reported unfavorable *attitudes toward the tests* used in the selection process, then the organization could alter their assessments in a manner that would yield more favorable reactions. They could look to the procedural justice literature to determine the specific manner in which their procedures should be altered (e.g., make them more face valid, provide performance feedback, provide more information regarding the purpose of the test, etc.). As another example, if talented applicants reported that *significant others* had an unfavorable perception of the selection process, then the organization could take steps to market their selection procedures in a manner that would be perceived more favorably by both applicants and individuals close to the applicants. Or, if highly talented applicants perceived low levels of behavioral control during the selection process, and control was found to be an important predictor of job offer acceptance, then the organization could build into the selection procedure certain pieces of information that accentuate elements of the test that examinees may perceive as opportunities to exert control or voice in the process.

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Table 1

*Background Characteristics of Sample*

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation		
1. xxxxx would be a good place to work.	211	6.67	.81		
2. xxxxx is a good organization to work for.	211	6.61	.74		
	N	Yes(%)	No(%)		
1. Are you currently employed?	210	46.4	53.1		
2. Are you currently a candidate for any other positions at this time?	208	33.6	64.9		
3. Do you have previous work experience as a customer care agent in a call center?	210	66.8	32.7		
4. Would taking this job require you to relocate?	209	7.1	92.4		
	N	1(%)	2(%)	3(%)	4(%)
1. Approximately how many other jobs besides this one are you applying for?	207	42.7	23.7	12.3	19.4

Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics for Model Variables*

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Intentions	206	6.84	.35
Perceived behavioral control	208	4.22	.73
Attitude toward job choice	198	6.13	.79
Subjective norm	201	6.00	1.00
Perceived performance	209	8.53	1.05
Procedural justice	195	5.51	.92
Job relatedness-predictive	209	5.27	1.22
Job relatedness-content	209	5.84	1.02
Perceived opportunity to perform	202	5.16	1.25

*Note.* All variables were measured on a 7-point scale (*strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*), with the exception of Perceived Performance, which was measured on a 10-point scale (higher scores=higher self-rated performance).

Table 3

*Zero-Order Correlations among Model Variables*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Intentions								
2. Perceived behavioral control	.07							
3. Attitude toward job choice	.28**	.16*						
4. Subjective norm	.22**	.13	.91**					
5. Perceived performance	.05	-.01	.43**	.40**				
6. Procedural justice	.21**	-.07	.65**	.61**	.34**			
7. Job relatedness-predictive	.19**	-.09	.59**	.59**	.33**	.85**		
8. Job relatedness-content	.23**	-.05	.62**	.59**	.28**	.82**	.56**	
9. Perceived opportunity to perform	.15*	-.04	.65**	.61**	.40**	.88**	.68**	.64**

*Note.* \* indicates significant at  $p < .05$ .  
 \*\* indicates significant at  $p < .01$ .

Table 4

*Path Analysis Results: Condition 9 Tests*

<i>Model variable</i>	<i><math>\beta</math></i>	<i><math>R^2</math></i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p value</i>
<b>Attitudes</b>		<b>.42</b>	<b><math>F(1, 182) = 131.15^{**} p &lt; .001</math></b>	
Procedural Justice	.65**			
<b>Intentions</b>		<b>.08</b>	<b><math>F(3, 175) = 5.84^{**} p = .001</math></b>	
Attitudes toward job choice	.37**			
Perceived behavioral control	.02			
Subjective norm	-.08			

*Note.*  $\beta$  represents standardized regression coefficients.

Bold indicates criterion variable.

\* indicates  $p < .05$ .

\*\* indicates  $p < .01$ .

Table 5

*Path Analysis Results: Condition 10 Test*

<i>Model variable</i>	$\beta$	$R^2$	$F$	$p$ value
<b>Intentions</b>		<b>.08</b>	<b><math>F(4, 174) = 4.79^*</math></b>	<b><math>p = .001</math></b>
Procedural Justice	.12			
Attitudes toward job choice	.31*			
Perceived behavioral control	.04			
Subjective norm	-.11			

*Note.*  $\beta$  represents standardized regression coefficients.

Bold indicates criterion variable.

\* indicates  $p < .05$ .

\*\* indicates  $p < .01$ .

Table 6

*Re-Analysis of Data: Descriptive Statistics for Model Variables*

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Intentions	205	5.87	.31
Perceived behavioral control	142	4.35	.89

*Note.* Variables were measured on a 7-point scale (*strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*).

Table 7

*Re-Analysis of Data: Zero-Order Correlations among Model Variables*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Intentions								
2. Perceived behavioral control	.26**							
3. Attitude toward job choice	.35**	.34**						
4. Subjective norm	.33**	.25**	.91**					
5. Perceived performance	.11	.15	.43**	.40**				
6. Procedural justice	.26**	.10	.65**	.61**	.34**			
7. Job relatedness-predictive	.26**	.06	.59**	.59**	.33**	.85**		
8. Job relatedness-content	.26**	.14	.62**	.59**	.28**	.82**	.56**	
9. Perceived opportunity to perform	.22**	.16	.64**	.61**	.40**	.88**	.68**	.64**

*Note.* \* indicates significant at  $p < .05$ .  
 \*\* indicates significant at  $p < .01$ .

Table 8

*Path Analysis Results for Re-Analysis of Data: Condition 9 Tests*

<i>Model variable</i>	$\beta$	$R^2$	$F$	$p$ value
<b>Attitudes</b>		<b>.42</b>	<b><math>F(1, 182) = 131.15</math></b>	<b><math>p &lt; .001</math></b>
Procedural Justice	.65**			
<b>Intentions</b>		<b>.11</b>	<b><math>F(3, 120) = 6.20^{**}</math></b>	<b><math>p = .001</math></b>
Attitudes toward job choice	.15			
Perceived behavioral control	.15			
Subjective norm	.15			

*Note.*  $\beta$  represents standardized regression coefficients.

Bold indicates criterion variable.

\* indicates  $p < .05$ .

\*\* indicates  $p < .01$ .

Table 9

*Path Analysis Results for Re-Analysis of Data: Condition 10 Test*

<i>Model variable</i>	$\beta$	$R^2$	$F$	$p$ value
<b>Intentions</b>		<b>.11</b>	<b><math>F(4, 119) = 4.97^{**}</math></b>	<b><math>p = .001</math></b>
Procedural Justice	.12			
Attitudes toward job choice	.10			
Perceived behavioral control	.17			
Subjective norm	.13			

*Note.*  $\beta$  represents standardized regression coefficients.

Bold indicates criterion variable.

\* indicates  $p < .05$ .

\*\* indicates  $p < .01$ .

Table 10

*Path Analysis Results for Exploratory Analysis of Data using SNSubset: Condition 9 Test*

<i>Model variable</i>	$\beta$	$R^2$	$F$	$p$ value
<b>Intentions</b>		<b>.11</b>	<b><math>F(3, 178) = 8.12^{**}</math></b>	<b><math>p = .001</math></b>
Attitudes toward job choice	.23**			
Perceived behavioral control	.10			
Subjective norm	.20**			

*Note.*  $\beta$  represents standardized regression coefficients.

Bold indicates criterion variable.

\* indicates  $p < .05$ .

\*\* indicates  $p < .01$ .

Table 11

*Path Analysis Results for Exploratory Analysis of Data using SNSubset: Condition 10 Test*

<i>Model variable</i>	$\beta$	$R^2$	$F$	$p$ value
<b>Intentions</b>		<b>.10</b>	<b><math>F(4, 177) = 6.27^{**}</math></b>	<b><math>p &lt; .001</math></b>
Procedural Justice	.08			
Attitudes toward job choice	.18			
Perceived behavioral control	.11			
SNSubset	.19*			

*Note.*  $\beta$  represents standardized regression coefficients.

Bold indicates criterion variable.

\* indicates  $p < .05$ .

\*\* indicates  $p < .01$ .

## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A: Measures used in Present Study

- Measures were administered in the order they are listed. A 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) was used to measure each set of reactions, unless otherwise noted.

### Attitudes toward Test Measures

#### *Perceived Opportunity to Perform*

1. I could really show my skills and abilities through these tests.
2. These tests allowed me to show what my job skills are.
3. These tests give applicants the opportunity to show what they can really do.

#### *Job Relatedness-Predictive*

1. Doing well on these tests means a person can do the job for which I am applying.
2. A person who scored well on these tests will be a good employee in the job for which I am applying.

#### *Job Relatedness-Content*

1. It would be clear to anyone that these tests are related to the job for which I am applying.
2. The content of these tests was clearly related to the job for which I am applying.

### Attitudes toward Job Choice Measures

1. Record your feelings about the tests you have just completed using the seven point scale below. In terms of the job I am applying for, these tests are (please rate all 7):
  - a. bad/good
  - b. unpleasant/pleasant
  - c. insensible/sensible
  - d. ineffective/effective
  - e. unprofessional/professional
  - f. weak/strong
  - g. inefficient/efficient
2. A job at xxxxx is very appealing to me.

### Perceived Performance Measure

1. On a scale of 1 (very poorly) to 10 (very well), how well do you think you did on these tests?

### Perceived Behavioral Control Measures

#### **Internal (High JALOC):**

1. If I receive a job offer from this organization, it would be easy for me to turn it down.
2. The main influences of my decision to accept a job offer from this organization will be **internal** factors that are within my immediate control (e.g., my desire to work for this company, and/or my desire to perform customer service work).

3. If this organization offers me a job, I will accept it because my skills are a good fit for customer service work.

**External (Low JALOC):**

1. The main influences of my decision to accept a job offer from this organization will be **external** factors that are outside my immediate control (e.g., the economy, present state of the job market, and/or availability of other jobs).
2. If this organization offers me a job, I will accept it because I have no other job offers currently on the table.
3. If I receive a job offer from this organization, I will accept it because I need it in order to meet my financial responsibilities.

**Subjective Norm Measures**

1. Most people who are important to me (e.g., significant other, family) would think that I should accept this job.
2. The people who are important to me (e.g., significant other, family) would expect me to accept this job.
3. Record your feelings about the tests you have just completed using the seven point scale below. Most people who are important to me would view these tests as:
  - a. bad/good
  - b. unpleasant/pleasant
  - c. insensible/sensible
  - d. ineffective/effective
  - e. unprofessional/professional
  - f. weak/strong
  - g. inefficient/efficient

**Intentions Measures**

1. Even if I was offered this customer service job, I would not accept it.
2. I will continue with this application process.
3. Based on these tests, I am going to drop out of this application process.
4. I do not think I will accept an offer from xxxxx even if I receive one.

**Background Measures**

1. Are you currently employed? (Yes/No)
2. Are you currently a candidate for any other positions at this time? (Yes/No)
3. Do you have previous work experience as a customer care agent in a call center? (Yes/No)
4. xxxxx would be a good place to work.
5. xxxxx is a good organization to work for.
6. Would taking this job require you to relocate? (Yes/No)
7. Approximately how many other jobs besides this one are you applying for? (1, 2, 3, 4 or more)
8. How would you improve this test to make it more fair? (free response)

## APPENDIX B: Measures used in the Re-Analysis of Study Data

- Measures were administered in the order they are listed. A 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) was used to measure each set of reactions, unless otherwise noted.

### **Attitudes toward Test Measures**

#### *Perceived Opportunity to Perform*

1. I could really show my skills and abilities through these tests.
2. These tests allowed me to show what my job skills are.
3. These tests give applicants the opportunity to show what they can really do.

#### *Job Relatedness-Predictive*

1. Doing well on these tests means a person can do the job for which I am applying.
2. A person who scored well on these tests will be a good employee in the job for which I am applying.

#### *Job Relatedness-Content*

1. It would be clear to anyone that these tests are related to the job for which I am applying.
2. The content of these tests was clearly related to the job for which I am applying.

### **Attitudes toward Job Choice Measures**

1. Record your feelings about the tests you have just completed using the seven point scale below. In terms of the job I am applying for, these tests are (please rate all 7):
  - a. bad/good
  - b. unpleasant/pleasant
  - c. insensible/sensible
  - d. ineffective/effective
  - e. unprofessional/professional
  - f. weak/strong
  - g. inefficient/efficient
2. A job at xxxxx is very appealing to me.

### **Perceived Performance Measure**

1. On a scale of 1 (very poorly) to 10 (very well), how well do you think you did on these tests?

### **Perceived Behavioral Control Measures**

#### **Internal (High JALOC):**

1. The main influences of my decision to accept a job offer from this organization will be **internal** factors that are within my immediate control (e.g., my desire to work for this company, and/or my desire to perform customer service work).

**External (Low JALOC):**

1. The main influences of my decision to accept a job offer from this organization will be **external** factors that are outside my immediate control (e.g., the economy, present state of the job market, and/or availability of other jobs).
2. If this organization offers me a job, I will accept it because I have no other job offers currently on the table.
3. If I receive a job offer from this organization, I will accept it because I need it in order to meet my financial responsibilities.

**Subjective Norm Measures**

1. Most people who are important to me (e.g., significant other, family) would think that I should accept this job.
2. The people who are important to me (e.g., significant other, family) would expect me to accept this job.
3. Record your feelings about the tests you have just completed using the seven point scale below. Most people who are important to me would view these tests as:
  - a. bad/good
  - b. unpleasant/pleasant
  - c. insensible/sensible
  - d. ineffective/effective
  - e. unprofessional/professional
  - f. weak/strong
  - g. inefficient/efficient

**Intentions Measures**

1. Even if I was offered this customer service job, I would not accept it.
2. I do not think I will accept an offer from xxxxx even if I receive one.

**Background Measures**

1. Are you currently employed? (Yes/No)
2. Are you currently a candidate for any other positions at this time? (Yes/No)
3. Do you have previous work experience as a customer care agent in a call center? (Yes/No)
4. xxxxx would be a good place to work.
5. xxxxx is a good organization to work for.
6. Would taking this job require you to relocate? (Yes/No)
7. Approximately how many other jobs besides this one are you applying for? (1, 2, 3, 4 or more)
8. How would you improve this test to make it more fair? (free response)

APPENDIX C: Sample Application of the Theory of Planned Behavior to  
Organizational Selection

*Example:* Organizational Selection – Job Offer Acceptance Behavior

Attitude toward the Behavior: "You know what? I think I would like a job with this organization."

Subjective Norm: "I wonder if my significant other would like me to accept this job."

Perceived Behavioral Control: "I can easily turn down a job offer from this organization if I want to."

Intentions: "I will accept this job."

Behavior: "I have accepted a job with this organization."

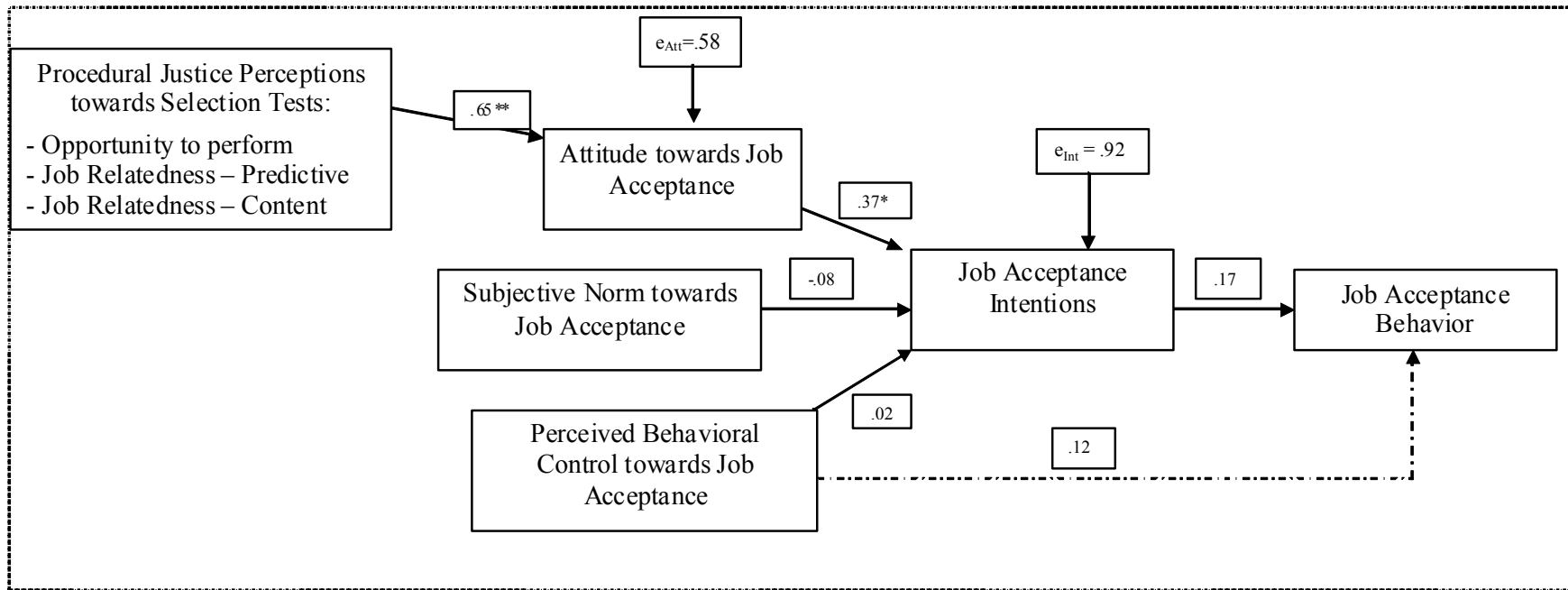


Figure 3 (p. 75)  
Path Coefficients for the Hypothesized Model of Study Variables

Note. \* indicates significant at  $p < .05$ .  
\*\* indicates significant at  $p < .01$ .

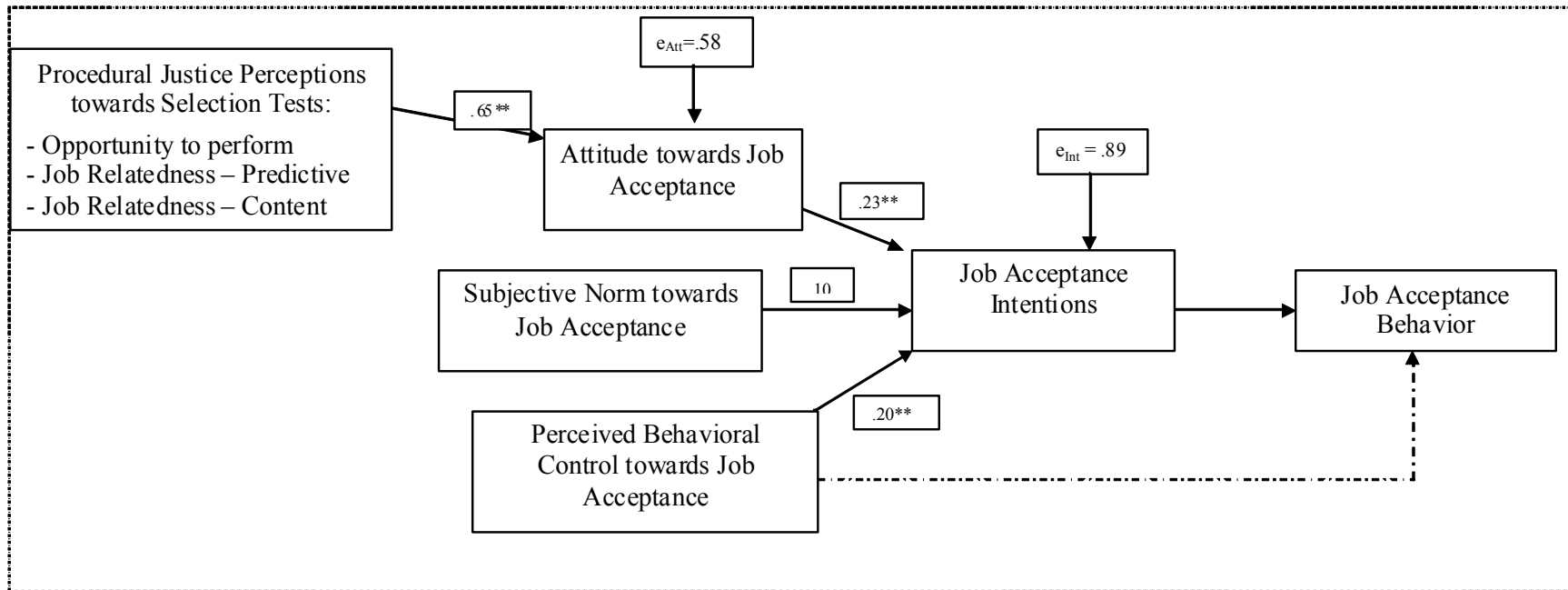


Figure 4 (p. 76)

Re-analysis of Data: Path Coefficients for the Hypothesized Model of Study Variables

Note. \* indicates significant at  $p < .05$ .  
 \*\* indicates significant at  $p < .01$ .

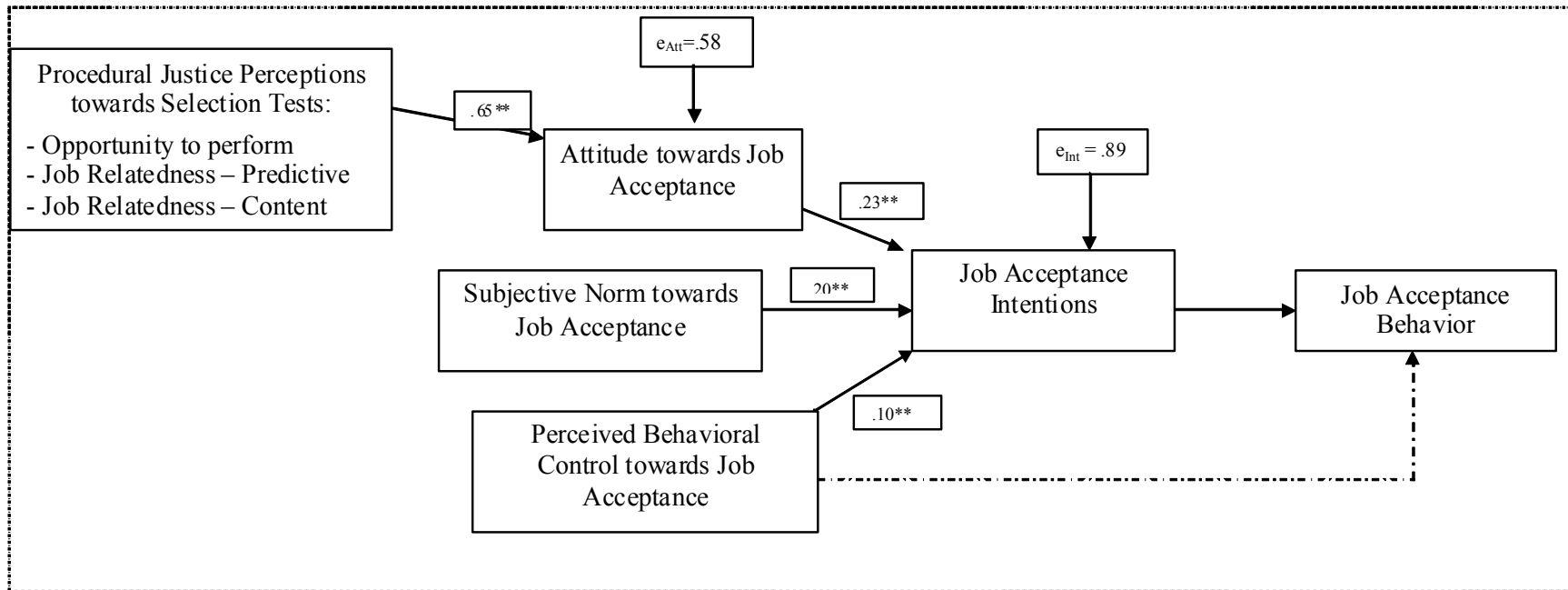


Figure 5 (p. 77)

Exploratory Analysis of Data using SNSubset: Path Coefficients for the Hypothesized Model of Study Variables

Note. \* indicates significant at  $p < .05$ .  
 \*\* indicates significant at  $p < .01$ .