

CAN INTERVIEW STRUCTURE BE MANIPULATED TO ENHANCE
APPLICANT REACTIONS?

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department

of Psychology

University of Houston

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

By

Kara M. Polk

December, 2017

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ABSTRACT

Employee selection researchers have predominantly focused on the validity and reliability of selection tools, and applicants' reactions to these tools (Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Ryan & Ployhart, 2014; Smither et al., 1993). However, few researchers have studied applicant reactions to specific selection tool characteristics, such as facets of the employment interview. Thus, the current research seeks to study the relationship between five facets of structure (i.e., rapport building, transparency, probing, ancillary information, and applicant questions during the interview) and three applicant reactions: procedural justice, anticipated organizational support (AOS), and job pursuit intentions. Using conceptual frameworks from justice and organizational support theory, I hypothesized that less-structured facets would increase job pursuit intentions directly, as well as indirectly, by enhancing perceptions of procedural justice and AOS. I found full support for these hypotheses. These findings improve our understanding of structure and inform employment interview best practices.

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Chapter I: Introduction

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. residents born between the years 1980 and 1984, on average, held 7.2 jobs between the ages of 18 and 28 (U.S. Department of Labor, 2016). This equates to U.S. employees changing jobs roughly every 1.4 years. As a result of these frequent job changes, an organization's ability to recruit and retain high performance employees may be paramount to maintaining a human capital competitive advantage and organizational success (Ryan & Ployhart, 2014). Theory-based support for this suggestion is embodied within human capital theory, which states that organizations that invest in quality selection procedures recoup the costs by having a higher performing workforce with increased organization-specific knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs; Becker, 1964). Yet, human capital theory and selection research predominantly emphasize quality selection based on job analysis (e.g., an assessment of KSAOs required to be successful within a specific job) and its relationship to future job performance, with a small focus on applicant reactions to these selection processes and their influence on recruiting job applicants (Binning & Barrett, 1989; Goldstein, Zedeck, & Goldstein, 2002; Kuncel, Klieger, Connelly, & Ones, 2013; Lang, Kersting, Hülshager, & Lang, 2010; Murphy & Shiarella, 1997; Ryan & Ployhart, 2014; Schmidt, 2002; Van Iddekinge, Ferris, Perrewe, Perryman, Blass, & Heetderks, 2009). Therefore, further research is needed to better understand applicant reactions to specific characteristics of selection tools.

Over the past couple of decades, personnel researchers have endeavored to better understand applicant reactions and decision making in relation to broadly-defined selection tools (Arvey & Sackett, 1993; Bauer, Maertz, Dolen, & Campion, 1998;

Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005; Gilliland, 1993; Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Ployhart & Ryan, 1997; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Rynes & Connerley, 1993; Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman, & Stoffey, 1993; Truxillo, Bauer, Campion, & Paronto, 2002). Applicant reactions are defined as “attitudes, affect, or cognitions an individual might have about the hiring process” (Ryan & Ployhart, 2000, p. 566). The hiring process includes a variety of selection tools that range in form, from tests (e.g., personality, cognitive ability, integrity, situational judgement; Goldstein, Zedeck, & Goldstein, 2002; Judge, Rodell, Klinger, & Simon, 2013; Lang, Kersting, Hülshager, & Lang, 2010; McDaniel, Hartman, Whetzel, & Grubb, 2007; Morgeson, Campion, Dipboye, Hollenbeck, Murphy, & Schmitt, 2007; Ryan & Ployhart, 2014; Tett & Christiansen, 2007) to structured interviews (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Cortina, Goldstein, Payne, Davison, & Gilliland, 2000; Levashina, Hartwell, Morgeson, & Campion, 2014), inventories (e.g., biodata; Mount, Witt, & Barrick, 2000; Reiter-Palmon & Connelly, 2000) and assessment centers (Lievens & Patterson, 2011; Woehr & Arthur, 2003). Research indicates that applicants experience a range of positive and negative reactions to each of the aforementioned selection tools (Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Rynes & Connerley, 1993; Smither et al., 1993). For instance, research suggests that there is a relationship between face validity (e.g., the amount that a job applicant believes selection tool performance indicates ability to perform on the job) and positive evaluations of situational judgement tests and assessment centers (Macan, Avedon, Paese, & Smith, 1994). When face validity is higher, job applicants have positive reactions to selection tools; conversely, when face validity is lower, job applicants have negative reactions to selection tools.

Likewise, researchers have studied the applicant's generalized reactions to the structured employment interview.

The employment interview is one of the most common selection tools used by organizations (Posthuma, Morgeson, & Campion, 2002). Employment interviews vary in their degree of *structure*, which refers to any facet that improves an interview's psychometric properties, provides standardization, or guides the interviewer's questions (Campion, Palmer, Campion, 1997). Increasing the structure of an interview minimizes confounding variables, which may decrease reliability and validity (Burnett & Motowidlo, 1998; Conway, Jako, & Goodman, 1995; Cortina et al., 2000; Huffcutt, 2011; Levashina et al., 2014). In short, structured interviews improve the psychometric properties of the employment interview (Huffcutt, 2011; Huffcutt & Arthur, 1994; McDaniel, Whetzel, Schmidt, & Maurer, 1994; Wiesner & Cronshaw, 1988). Researchers have identified 19 facets of structure, which, when standardized, may improve the psychometric properties of the employment interview (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Levashina et al., 2014; Hartwell & Campion, 2016).

While structured interviews improve the psychometric properties of the interview (i.e., reliability and validity), unstructured interviews (i.e., interviews without any standardization) lead to positive applicant reactions and job acceptance intentions (Bies & Shapiro, 1998; Latham & Finnegan, 1993). For instance, research suggests that interviews with unstandardized facets (i.e., unstructured) are related to more positive applicant reactions in comparison to their standardized (i.e., structured) counterparts (Kohn & Dipboye, 1998; Latham & Finnegan, 1993). In Latham and Finnegan's (1993) study, unstructured interviews were defined as a "free-flowing conversation," structured

(patterned) interviews as an “orally administered questionnaire,” and situational interviews as “a series of hypothetical situations.” (pg. 42). They studied both interviewer and applicant reactions to unstructured, structured (patterned), and situational interviews. Applicants were asked if any of these three interview types would influence their intentions to pursue employment with the organization. Most applicants chose the unstructured interview as positively influencing their intentions to pursue the organization.

Similarly, Kohn and Dipboye (1998) studied applicant reactions to the employment interview at two levels: unstructured and structured (patterned). They defined unstructured and structured (patterned) interviews comparably to Latham and Finnegan (1993). Structured (patterned) interviews were conceptualized as consistent in questions and more job-related in content, while unstructured interviews were conceptualized as a free-flowing conversation that varied based on applicant’s needs. Overall, applicants preferred the unstructured interviews. However, neither Latham and Finnegan (2003) nor Kohn and Dipboye’s (1998) studies researched specific facets of structure in relation to applicant reactions.

In addition to immediate negative applicant reactions to structured interviews, research suggests that these negative applicant reactions may produce negative “spillover effects” (Smither et al., 1993). When an applicant’s reaction to a selection tool is no longer confined within the time and space of the selection process, a “spillover effect” occurs. In short, selection methods not only influence how an applicant feels toward the company during the selection process, but also after the selection process, possibly

affecting future buying behaviors, job pursuit intentions, and likelihood of recommending the organization to others (Smither et al., 1993).

To mitigate negative spillover effects, Chapman & Zweig (2005) favor the use of differing levels of interviewing structure. They defined structure as being made up of facets that improve the psychometric properties of the interview (similarly to Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). They sought to explore both interviewer and applicant reactions to the interview. In relation to interviewers, Chapman and Zweig (2005) studied antecedents to implementation of facets of structure (e.g., interviewer training), interviewer affective reactions to the interview, what structural facets interviewers chose to implement, and interviewer focus (i.e., recruitment/attraction or screening/selection). Since structural facets implemented varied by interviewer, Chapman and Zweig (2005) were uniquely able to assess applicant reactions to the interview at various levels of structure. As such, some interviewers employed a greater number of more structured facets, while others employed a greater number of less structured facets. For applicants, they were interested in applicant perceptions of procedural justice, interview difficulty, and likelihood of accepting a job offer. In so doing, Chapman and Zweig (2005) could assess both interviewer and applicant reactions to the overall process of the interview and varying degrees of structure. Specifically, they found that evaluation standardization, question consistency, question sophistication, and rapport building contributed the most to ratings of structure by the interviewer. However, these facets of structure showed mixed reactions from applicants (e.g., negative reactions to high-structure rapport building and positive reactions to high-structure question consistency). From these findings, Chapman and Zweig (2005) suggest practitioners conduct interviews that vary

in levels of structure. Additionally, further research is needed to identify which combination(s) of more and less structured facets elicit positive applicant reactions without hurting the validity and reliability of the interview.

As alluded to by Chapman and Zweig's (2005) study, applicant reactions are defined by a variety of conceptual frameworks (Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Smither et al., 1993). One classification of applicant reaction that has been studied often in relation to the employment interview is perceptions of procedural justice (Arvey & Sackett, 1993; Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Gilliland, 1993; Gilliland & Hale, 2005; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Smither et al., 1993). Procedural justice, one of the three organizational justice constructs (distributive and interactional being the other two justice constructs) is understood as "the processes that lead to decision outcomes" (Colquitt, 2001). Researchers found that job applicants that were able to express opinions and ask questions of the interviewers viewed the interviewing process as more procedurally just (Bies & Shapiro, 1988). Furthermore, researchers posit that the strong relationship between the employment interview and procedural justice may be explained by the theory of "voice," a component of procedural justice. Voice, in the employment interview context, is considered an opportunity to express oneself and one's knowledge skills and abilities. As such, applicants may perceive greater equal employment opportunity compliance, which researchers suggest relates to why so few lawsuits are filed when an employment interview follows procedural rules (Campion & Arvey, 1989). Arguably, procedural rule adherence may diminish negative applicant reactions, such as filing a lawsuit against an organization, and may engender positive applicant reactions, such as job pursuit intentions.

While procedural justice is related to many positive pre-employment outcomes, such as job pursuit intentions (Macan et al., 1994; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Smither et al., 1993), research has yet to focus on applicant reactions that may influence job pursuit intentions and have positive ripple effects once the applicant becomes an employee. An applicant reaction that has potential to deliver positive pre-employment and post-employment outcomes is perceptions of organizational support. Organizational Support Theory (OST) states that when employees feel that an organization cares about their well-being and values their contributions, they feel indebted to the organization and reciprocate the support with positive outputs, such as higher affective commitment, decreased likelihood of leaving the organization (lower turnover), and increased organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), just to name a few (Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2011; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Kurtessis, Eisenberger, Ford, Buffardi, Stewart, & Adis, 2017; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The central construct of organizational support theory is perceived organizational support (POS; Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS is the amount of support an employee feels from an organization while employed (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). However, OST identifies anticipated organizational support (AOS) as the amount of support a non-employee (e.g., job applicant) expects to experience from an organization once employed (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Casper & Harris, 2008; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Wayne & Casper, 2012). Researchers have studied the relationship between HR systems, such as benefits provided, and job applicants AOS (Casper & Buffardi, 2004). In relation to personnel selection practices, Eisenberger and Stinglhamber (2011) suggest that fair selection practices may relate to

applicants exhibiting higher levels of AOS. However, this proposition has yet to be empirically tested.

To explore this gap in the literature, this study examines how applicants react to specific facets of structure. Two relevant theories used to examine applicant reactions are used to explore the possible link between facets of structure and job pursuit intentions: organizational justice theory and organizational support theory. In the following paragraphs, I will review the literature on personnel selection methods, applicant reactions, organizational justice theory, organizational support theory, and the relationship between applicant reactions and job pursuit intentions. The aim of this study is to explore how anticipated organizational support and procedural justice may help us understand the relationship between facets of structure and job pursuit intentions.

Personnel Selection Methods

A History of Personnel Selection

Industrial/Organizational psychologists have been concerned with the validity and reliability of personnel selection methods, especially their predictive validity (e.g., ability to predict future job performance), for over a century (Ryan & Ployhart, 2014). Varying selection tests have been created, validated, and implemented in organizations with the aim of accounting for more of the variability within job performance among incumbents. Some of the most commonly used selection methods include tests, assessment centers, and employment interviews (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Cortina et al., 2000; Goldstein, Zedeck, & Goldstein, 2002; Judge et al., 2013; Lang et al., 2010; Levashina et al., 2014; Lievens & Patterson, 2011; McDaniel et al., 2007; Morgeson et al., 2007;

Mount, Witt, & Barrick, 2000; Reiter-Palmon & Connelly, 2000; Ryan & Ployhart, 2014; Tett & Christiansen, 2007; Woehr & Arthur, 2003).

When using any of these selection tools, four components are of critical importance: criterion-related validity, legal issues, reliability, and overall cost (Binning & Barrett, 1989; Kuncel et al., 2013; Ployhart & Holtz, 2008; Pyburn, Ployhart, & Kravitz, 2008). Researchers identify criterion-related validity as when “scores on a measure of interest relate to other measures that they should relate to in theory” (Spector, 2012, p. 39). Reliability assesses the consistency with which a tool measures an applicant’s characteristics, which can take a variety of forms depending on the tool (i.e., a structured interview compared to an intelligence test; Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). Criterion-related validity is integral to having effective selection measures. The crux of selection theories is that various selection tools (i.e., cognitive ability tests, personality tests, biodata inventories, situational judgement tests, structured interviews, and assessment centers) relate to measures of future job performance, thereby effectively selecting job applicants that qualify for a specific job (Binning & Barrett, 1989). However, historically, selection tools with high validity also have high adverse impact (i.e., disproportionally select males and whites, while failing to select women and minorities for jobs; Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Ployhart & Holtz, 2008; Sackett & Ellingson, 1997). For this reason, many organizations choose to use selection methods with less adverse impact, such as the employment interview, personality tests, biodata inventories, and assessment centers (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Judge et al., 2013; Levashina et al., 2014; Morgeson et al., 2007; Mount, Witt, & Barrick, 2000; Reiter-Palmon & Connelly, 2000; Ryan & Ployhart, 2014; Tett & Christiansen, 2007). Of these

four selection methods, structured interviews typically have the highest reliability and validity with the lowest adverse impact (Cortina et al., 2000).

Employment Interviews

Organizations typically favor the use of employment interviews during selection due to their familiarity with this method (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Huffcutt & Culbertson, 2010; Levashina et al., 2014). To maintain consistency of interviews among applicants and ensure validity of the interview, researchers recommend structuring interviews (i.e., standardizing). Structured interviews provide three instrumental benefits to organization's selection processes: (1) higher reliability and validity compared to unstructured interviews (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Levashina et al., 2014), (2) defensibility in court (Williamson, Campion, Malos, Roehling, & Campion, 1997), and (3) incremental validity above and beyond personality tests and cognitive ability tests (Berry, Sackett, & Landers, 2007; Campion, Campion, & Hudson, 1994; Cortina et al., 2000; Salgado & Moscoso, 2002). Initially, researchers identified 15 facets of structure (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Levashina et al., 2014). The 15 facets of structure are broken into two categories: content and evaluation (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Levashina et al., 2014). Content includes seven units of structure: (1) deriving questions from job analysis, (2) using the same questions for all applicants, (3) limiting probing (e.g., prompting and follow-up questions), (4) using longer interviews (or more questions), (5) using better types of questions, (6) restricting ancillary information, and (7) eliminating applicant questions during the interview. Evaluation consists of eight units of structure: (1) rating each answer (or using multiple scales), (2) using anchored rating scales, (3) using multiple interviewers, (4)

using the same interviewer(s) for all applicants, (5) interviewer training, (6) no discussion of applicants between interviews, (7) using statistical prediction, and (8) taking notes (Levashina et al., 2014, Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). Researchers have identified additional facets of structure that are not currently accounted for within this taxonomy. These include limiting rapport building, minimizing transparency, and recording interviews with different mediums (Levashina et al., 2014), as well as introducing normative feedback to interviewers (Hartwell & Campion, 2016).

Structuring these facets of the interview increases validity and reliability, but at the cost of positive applicant reactions (Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000). Researchers suggest this relationship exists because employment interviews fulfill a recruitment function (i.e., help to attract applicants to or deter applicants from an organization) and influence recruitment success (i.e., if a qualified applicant will accept a job offer; Chapman et al., 2005). For this reason, interviews create trade-offs between structure and applicant reactions (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Chapman et al., 2005). For instance, Chapman and Zweig (2005) found that applicants had a negative reaction to the perceived difficulty of structured interviews. By highly structuring interviews, reliability and validity of the selection tool is improved, but applicants view these structure restrictions negatively (Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Latham & Finnegan, 1993). Research suggests a mixed structure interview may diminish the psychometric effectiveness/applicant reaction tradeoff created by structured interviews (Chapman & Zweig, 2005). However, the specific facets of structure that contribute the most to applicant reactions remain unknown.

Although the focus of their study was not on applicant reactions to specific facets of structure, Chapman and Zweig (2005) studied the reactions to mixed structure interviews to better understand the effects of structure on applicant reactions. They did not manipulate the levels of structure, but studied what facets were used when interviewing job applicants. Chapman and Zweig (2005) operationalized structure in accordance with Campion, Palmer, and Campion (1997) as any facet that improves the psychometric properties of the employment interview. They found that applicants exhibited more positive reactions to overall less-structured interviews compared to overall high-structure interviews. Chapman and Zweig (2005) concluded that using all high-structured facets of the employment interview may be hurting applicant reactions without significantly adding to the validity and reliability of the interview. Further research needs to be conducted to empirically test these conclusions and better understand the relationship between facets of structure and applicant reactions.

Other researchers agree with Chapman and Zweig (2005), such as Levashina and colleagues (2014), who suggest that some facets of structure are more important than others due to having a greater contribution to the validity and reliability of the interview compared to other facets. According to Levashina et al.'s (2014) review of the current interviewing literature, six facets of structure are used most frequently: job analysis, question consistency, better questions, rating each question, anchored rating scales, and interviewer training. Furthermore, these facets of structure appear to be associated with the highest reliability and validity compared to other components of structure. These provide further evidence that using more than six high-structure facets of an employment interview may be unnecessary to achieve high validity and reliability, while

simultaneously offering opportunities to enhance applicant reactions by employing less structure in other facets (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000).

Applicant Reactions

Where Have We Been, Where Are We Going?

Applicant reactions are defined as how job applicants react to, perceive, and think about selection procedures (Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Smither et al., 1993). Researcher's interest in applicant reactions is unique in that it changed how researchers studied selection procedures. Researchers initially examined the influence of applicant reactions on their willingness to work for an organization and likelihood of recommending it to others (i.e., organizational attractiveness; Smither et al., 1993). Rather than focusing on the organization's perceptions of job applicants, researchers began to study applicant's reactions to the organization (Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Smither et al., 1993). Researchers, over the years, have been interested in various applicant reactions, such as their perceptions of justice (procedural, distributive, and interactional; Bauer et al., 1998; Bauer et al., 2001; Ployhart & Ryan, 1997; Ryan & Chan, 1999; Smither et al., 1993) attitudes and perceptions of tests (general mental ability tests and personality assessments; Chan, Schmitt, Jennings, Clause, & Delbridge, 1998; Ryan, Ployhart, Greguras, & Schmit, 1998; Sanchez, Truxillo, & Bauer, 2000), and, more recently, how interactions with and knowledge of an organization influence anticipated organizational support (AOS). In this study, both procedural justice and AOS are of interest. The following paragraphs detail these constructs.

Organizational Justice

What is Organizational Justice? Greenberg (1987b) first used the term *organizational justice* to describe ethical expectancies employees have of their employer. Such expectancies include equal distribution of pay, rewards, and other benefits. Researchers explain that justice is a subjective perception of the fairness of resource disbursements, outcomes, and the procedure used to allocate resources (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Justice theory is rooted in equity theory, which is the idea that when an employee provides an input, an equally beneficial output is returned by the organization, such as a pay increase or other benefits (Adams, 1965). From equity theory, organizational justice grew into a variety of research focuses and conceptualizations, such as structural control of decision making (Thibaut & Walker, 1975), process consistency (Leventhal, 1980), and interpersonal treatment (Bies & Moag, 1986).

From these various conceptualizations, organizational justice grew to encompass multiple facets of justice (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003; Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Specifically, organizational justice has three facets: distributive justice, interactional justice, and procedural justice (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Each of these constructs measure various manifestations of perceptions of fairness (Colquitt et al., 2001). These fairness perceptions are discussed further in the following sections.

Distributive Justice. In the beginning of the study of organizational justice, most construct measures pertained to distributive justice (Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Distributive justice is defined as a measure of people's perceptions of the fairness of the allocation of resources (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg &

Colquitt, 2005). Distributive justice originated from Adam's (1965) equity theory. As previously articulated, equity theory relates to the comparison of one employee's inputs and outputs in relation to a fellow employee (Adams, 1965). Distributive justice can operate under a variety of rules, which differentiates itself from procedural justice (Colquitt et al., 2001). Furthermore, it is not interested in the interpersonal treatment of employees, but solely the equal disbursement of rewards, in contrast to interactional justice.

Interactional Justice. Interactional justice is concerned with the respect and dignity with which employees treat their coworkers (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). This concept was first introduced by Bies and Moag (1986) in relation to organizational procedures. Greenberg (1990a, 1993b) further delineated interactional justice into two components: interpersonal justice and informational justice. Interpersonal justice relates to the amount a person is treated with dignity and respect during a procedural event or when an outcome is being determined; in contrast, interactional justice is concerned with the transparency of communication between authority figures and their subordinates in relation to why certain procedures were implemented and used or why resources were disbursed in a specific manner (Colquitt et al., Greenberg, 1990a, 1993b). Both facets comprise interactional justice, but they are not considered by all researchers as distinct from procedural and distributive justice (Colquitt et al., 2001).

Procedural Justice. Procedural justice is commonly used to research applicant's reactions to selection tools, especially the employment interview (Arvey & Sackett, 1993; Gilliland, 1993; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Smither et al., 1993). It has frequently been

linked to positive outcomes, such as job pursuit intentions and other facets of organizational attractiveness (Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Smither et al., 1993). Researchers define procedural justice as the measure of the equity of systems implemented by an organization to make decisions, such as personnel selection methods, and applicant/employee's opportunities for voice (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Gilliland, 1993; Gilliland & Hale, 2005). Therefore, the nature of procedural justice lends itself to the study of applicant reactions within the employment interview. The interview is a procedure implemented by an organization that involves interactions between an applicant and a representative of an organization, as well as opportunities for the job applicant to express his or her knowledge, skills, and abilities (i.e., "voice;" Gilliland, 1993; Gilliland & Hale, 2005).

To better understand the measure of procedural justice in the employment interview, we must first look at the origins of procedural justice. Current procedural justice measures originated from Leventhal's (1980) six rules of procedural justice. The rules were that organization's procedures must be consistent, suppress bias, accurate, correctable, representative, and ethical (Leventhal, 1980). Leventhal (1980) believed that a violation of any of these six rules would lead to employee's perceiving a process as unfair. Researchers have empirically studied this suggestion, discovering that violation of these rules leads to negative perceptions of the organization, feelings of unfairness, and litigation (Bies & Moag, 1986; Macan et al., 1994; Smither et al., 1993; Saks, Leck, & Saunders, 1995; Singer, 1990).

Specifically, within the selection context, Singer (1990) found support for Leventhal's (1980) six rules of procedural justice. Singer's (1990) findings supported

Leventhal's (1980) suggestions in both undergraduate and employee populations. When any of the six rules were violated, undergraduates and employees both exhibited negative perceptions of fairness. These findings further reinforced the idea that procedures, especially selection procedures, needed to be fair to properly manage reactions to the organization.

To more fully operationalize justice in the selection context, Gilliland (1993) proposed a complex model with ten rules for procedural justice in employee selection practices. The procedural justice rules have three subcategories: formal characteristics, explanation, and interpersonal treatment. The formal characteristics include job relatedness, opportunity to perform, reconsideration opportunity, and consistency. The explanation subcategory is comprised of feedback, selection information, and honesty. Lastly, interpersonal treatment encompasses interpersonal effectiveness, two-way communication, and propriety of questions. Researchers have utilized this theory to further research procedural justice as an applicant reaction to selection processes (Chapman et al., 2005; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Gilliland, 1994; Truxillo, Bauer, & Sanchez, 2001; Steiner & Gilliland, 2001).

Examples of empirical support for Gilliland's (1993) model of justice in the interview include the discovery that opportunities to perform within an interview relate to positive applicant reactions, even cross-culturally (Steiner & Gilliland, 2001; Truxillo, Bauer, & Sanchez, 2001). In a similar vein, applicants perceive unstructured interviews to be more fair than structured interviews, most likely due to a perceived lack of opportunity to express "voice" in structured interviews (Gilliland & Hale, 2005). Research suggests improving applicant opportunities for "voice" helps resolve the justice dilemma, the

phenomenon of negative applicant reactions to valid selection procedures (Cropanzano & Wright, 2003; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998), thereby influencing the perceptions of fairness within the employment interview.

While research suggests a relationship between overall structure (more vs. less) and procedural justice exists, few studies research the relationship between specific facets of structure and procedural justice. The studies that do explore the relationship between specific facets of structure and procedural justice most commonly look at question consistency and better questions (Gilliland & Hale, 2005). Studies linking question quality and procedural justice have strong support in the interviewing literature. For example, researchers found that when interview questions violate bias suppression by expressing prejudices or asking improper questions, the applicant is likely to rate the interview as unfair (Bies & Moag, 1986; Saks, Leck, & Saunders, 1995). Furthermore, Macan et al. (1994) found that accurate interview questions (i.e., questions that measure job-related qualifications) in the selection context were positively related to job acceptance intentions. As such, research suggests a relationship exists between the better questions facet of structure and procedural justice, but little is known about the relationship between other facets of structure and procedural justice, as well as which facets influence applicant reactions the most. Therefore, further research needs to be conducted to better understand the relationship between facets of interview structure and applicant's perceptions of procedural justice.

Organizational Support Theory (OST)

Definition of and Constructs within OST. Organizational Support Theory (OST) suggests that “to determine the organization’s readiness to reward increased work

effort and to meet socioemotional needs, employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being” (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, pg. 698). OST operates through three underlying psychological processes: (1) it produces a felt obligation within the employee receiving the benefits, (2) the organization’s caring behavior fulfills socioemotional needs, and (3) it strengthens the employee’s belief that the organization rewards increased performance (Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2012; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995). The core construct within OST is perceived organizational support (POS; Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2012; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS is a robust construct with empirically supported, positive work outcomes, such as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), organizational commitment, performance, and job-related affect (Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2012; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Furthermore, POS decreases withdrawal behaviors and mitigates the effects of strain on employees (Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2012).

In addition to POS, organizational support theory includes anticipated organizational support (AOS). While POS is the measure of support an employee feels while working for an organization, AOS is the amount an individual believes that in the future, once employed by an organization, they will be supported (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Casper & Harris, 2008; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Wayne & Casper, 2012). For instance, AOS helps explain the relationship between job applicant’s knowledge of special benefits provided by the organization, such as dependent care and

flexible work schedules, and job pursuit intentions (Casper & Buffardi, 2004). Additional studies support that various HR practices can promote AOS prior to employment, providing organizations with a competitive advantage during recruitment (Wayne & Casper, 2008). Researchers believe employees provide positive outcomes to organizations when they feel supported for two reasons: their socioemotional needs are met and the organization's supportive behaviors demonstrate the organization's readiness to reward increased output by the employee (Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2012; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Researchers posit that when socioemotional needs are met by the organization, an employee may feel more embedded within the organization and have increased performance (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998). Therefore, researchers suggest that both POS and AOS have positive outcomes during and prior to employment, respectively. In sum, OST is concerned with the growth, characteristics, and outcomes of POS and AOS (Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2012).

The Genesis of Organizational Support Theory. The positive outcomes job applicants and employees provide to an organization based on OST can be best understood through the lens of two theories: social-exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Blau, 1964; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Etzioni, 1961; Gould, 1979; Gouldner, 1960; Levinson, 1965; March & Simon, 1958; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Steers, 1977). Social exchange theory explains that parties develop mutually beneficial exchange relationships as they trade valuable goods or services (Blau, 1964). Furthermore, these goods are of greater value to

an employee when they are discretionarily given (i.e., not given to fulfill an externally mandated requirement).

This social exchange is possible because employees and job applicants tend to personify organizations, assigning them humanlike traits and characteristics (Levinson, 1965). These humanlike traits assigned to an organization facilitate employees entering into an exchange relationship with the organization. In this way, social exchanges take place from person-to-person and organization-to-person (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Therefore, when an organization exhibits supportive behaviors to an employee, the employee feels cared for and that they belong, which acts as a catalyst to move the employee into an exchange relationship with the organization. This exchange relationship then produces positive outputs, such as OCBs and commitment to the organization when the individual is already employed, and job pursuit intentions when the individual is not yet employed.

The exchange relationship itself functions through the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). The norm of reciprocity explains that a positive exchange develops a feeling of obligation to return the favor from the receiving party (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Gouldner, 1960). These felt obligations are normative in nature, meaning they typically follow social norms (Gouldner, 1960). For instance, if a coworker buys you coffee one morning, you are likely to return the favor in some form, whether through an exchange of coffee or some other favorable act. In so doing, you alleviate yourself from the feeling of obligation towards that colleague and adhere to social norms that dictate we should interact with my fellow humans in a caring and unselfish way. Therefore, AOS and POS promote the development of exchange relationships between the employer and the

employee (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Wayne & Casper, 2012).

The Core of Organizational Support Theory: Perceived Organizational Support. OST is comprised of both POS and AOS, but POS is the more empirically analyzed construct (Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2012; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Eisenberger and colleagues (1986) first measured POS with their 36-item survey of perceived organizational support (SPOS) to better understand employee absenteeism. Their findings concluded that there is a relationship between POS and lower absenteeism. Research has continued to build upon these findings, furthering the understanding of the underlying mechanisms, antecedents, and outcomes of POS (Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2012; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Over the past 30 years, research has established positive outcomes in relation to POS. As demonstrated by Rhoades and Eisenberger's (2002) meta-analysis, POS is related to positive outcomes such as organizational commitment, job-related affect (e.g., how you feel about your job), increased job involvement, extrarole performance, and desire to remain with the organization. They also found that POS levels appear to mitigate negative work factors, such as strain and withdrawal behavior.

Furthermore, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) sought to better understand antecedents of POS. Through path analysis, they were able to assess the strongest antecedents of POS, which proved to be fairness (i.e., justice). With further analysis, they found that both characteristics of procedural justice, interactional justice and voice, had equally large relationships to POS. The second and third strongest predictors of POS

were supervisor support and rewards/job conditions, respectively. As demonstrated through this literature review, POS continues to be a strong, valid measure and predictor of positive outcomes for organizations; however, little remains known about POS's counterpart, AOS. As such, research is needed to better understand the antecedents of AOS, such as how facets of the employment interview may relate to AOS.

AOS: The Pre-Employment Organizational Support Construct. Anticipated Organizational Support (AOS) refers to an individual's perception of how supportive an organization would be if they were to become a member (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Casper & Harris, 2008; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Mottola, Bachman, Gaertner, & Dovidio, 1997; Thompson, Payne, & Taylor, 2015; Wayne & Casper, 2012; Zheng, Wu, Eisenberger, Shore, Tetrick, & Buffardi, 2016). Research suggests that individuals start to develop perceptions of how supportive an organization is before they even begin work for the organization (Casper & Buffardi, 2004). These perceptions may develop through hearing about an organization from a friend, social media, advertisements, recruiters/recruitment materials, selection processes, or other interactions with the organization (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

Other selection procedures also influence AOS, such as job-benefits previews (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Casper and Buffardi (2004) found that the availability of work-life benefits (dependent care assistance and schedule flexibility) positively influenced applicant job acceptance intentions by conveying the organization's support for its employees. Researchers believe that the employment interview and other selection processes may influence AOS in job applicants, but this has yet to be empirically studied in published works (Eisenberger &

Stinglhamber, 2011). Additionally, researchers posit that interviewers may play an important role in job applicant's developing AOS since the interviewers may function as representatives of the organization (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Researchers believe because the interviewer may act as a representative of the organization, when the interviewer acts in a supportive and caring manner, the job applicant may be more likely to generate high AOS (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). This suggestion is important because researchers suggest that elevated levels of AOS prior to employment may translate into greater leader-member exchange once employed, increased extrarole behaviors, and lower turnover. (Zheng et al., 2016). Therefore, if organizations seek to maximize opportunities for developing job applicant AOS during the recruitment and selection process, they may directly benefit through performance and output provided by the job applicant once employed, as well as job pursuit intentions prior to employment.

Theory-Based Implications for Less Structure Influencing Applicant Reactions

Hypothesized Effects of Less Structure on Applicant Reactions

As mentioned previously, applicant reactions are frequently collected in selection research and relate to general categories of selection methods such as tests, biodata, and interviews, but researchers usually do not further study the relationship of applicant reactions to the variations of form that exists within each category (i.e., specific attributes of selection tools, such as the various facets of the structured interview; Arvey & Sackett, 1993; Bauer et al., 1998; Chapman et al., 2005; Gilliland, 1993; Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Ployhart & Ryan, 1997; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Rynes & Connerley, 1993; Smither et al., 1993; Truxillo et al., 2002). This study proposes to examine the relationship between the employment interview's structure and applicant reactions to

these facets of structure. Of the many facets of structure, five were chosen to study: rapport building, transparency, probing, ancillary information, and applicant questions during the interview. These five facets were derived as research interests from the interviewing literature for two reasons: 1) lack of empirical support in relation to applicant reactions and 2) suggested negative applicant reactions (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Chapman & Zweig, 2005; Levashina et al., 2014; Wayne & Casper, 2012; Zheng et al., 2016). For example, research suggests applicants may react more positively to transparent interviews where the interviewer engages the applicant in rapport building because the applicant has time to prepare relevant answers to the interviewer's questions and they are more at ease (Levashina et al., 2014). Additionally, Campion and colleagues (1997) suggest that a lack of probing, ancillary information, and applicant questions during the interview elicit negative applicant reactions because they restrict the conversational nature of the interviewing process and an interviewer's knowledge of an applicant's relevant experience. Each of these facets will be described in detail in the following paragraphs. The more structured and less structured of the five facets will be defined, as well as their proposed relationship to applicant reactions (i.e., job pursuit intentions, procedural justice, and AOS; see Appendix A).

First, rapport building is defined as an engaging and caring conversation between the job applicant and interviewer, as well as exhibiting supportive non-verbal behaviors, such as smiling and nodding, with the aim of creating a comfortable interviewing environment conducive to the productive exchange of personal information (Granitz, Koernig, & Harich, 2009; Levashina et al., 2014). More structured levels of rapport

building eliminate small talk, unstandardized conversations, and supportive non-verbal behaviors, while less levels allow small talk and supportive non-verbal behaviors prior to the start of the interview. I believe job applicants will have positive reactions to an organization when the interviewer engages them in small talk and seeks to make them feel comfortable, which will relate positively to job pursuit intentions. As such, I hypothesize that less-structured rapport building will have direct effects on job pursuit intentions.

Second, transparency is defined as the amount that an applicant is made aware of the goals of the interview (e.g., what specific job applicant qualifications the interviewer is looking for in the interview) and questions asked within the interview (Levashina et al., 2014). When interviews lack transparency (high-structure), applicants know neither the goals of the interview nor the possible questions they will be asked. At high-levels of transparency (low-structure), applicants are given both the goals of the interview and interview questions. I believe that job applicants will have more positive reactions to organizations when provided the goals of and questions to be asked in the interview, which will positively relate to job pursuit intentions. As such, I hypothesize that less-structured transparency will have direct effects on job pursuit intentions.

Third, probing is a facet of structure that is believed to influence applicant reactions negatively (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). Levashina et al. (2014, pg. 271) define probing as “a follow-up question that is intended to augment an inadequate or incomplete response provided by the applicant, or to seek additional or clarifying information.” When probing is more structured, probing is eliminated, requiring interviewers to not ask any follow-up questions or offer job applicants question

clarification. At less levels, interviewers are free to ask probing questions whenever they see fit and provide clarification of questions. I believe that when probing is allowed in the interview and job applicants are aided by follow-up and clarifying questions they will have more positive reactions to the organization, which will positively relate to job pursuit intentions. As such, I hypothesize that less-structured probing will have direct effects on job pursuit intentions.

Fourth, ancillary information is defined as the job applicant's application and application materials (i.e., resume, cover letter, test scores, etc.; Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). When more structured, interviewers do not see any of the applicant's ancillary information. However, at less levels of structure, interviewers view all an applicant's ancillary information. According to Campion, Palmer, and Campion (1997) controlling ancillary information standardizes what information is available about a job applicant, decreases EEO bias by controlling interviewer knowledge of unrelated job applicant information, and ensures the interview measures applicant qualifications, not applicant qualifications based on ancillary information. However, they believe that both interviewers and job applicants may have negative reactions to elimination of ancillary information. As such, Campion and colleagues (1997) suggest interviewers react negatively to being barred from accessing relevant information and job applicants react negatively to an interviewer's lack of knowledge of their qualifications (e.g., past work experience, education, etc). For this reason, I believe that when interviewers are allowed to access job applicant ancillary information before the interview, their questions will reflect their knowledge of the applicant's background and will communicate to the applicant that the interviewer has consciously and specifically prepared for their

interview. Then, job applicants will react more positively to the organization. Therefore, I hypothesize that less-structured ancillary information will have direct effects on job pursuit intentions.

Lastly, research defines applicant questions as the amount that a job applicant is allowed to ask the interviewer questions during the interview. Applicants are either allowed to ask questions during the interview (low-structure) or only allowed to ask questions outside of the interview (high-structure; Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). High-structure interviews decrease contamination, meaning they do not allow irrelevant and potentially bias-producing information to enter the interviewing process. When interviews are contaminated, interviewers may begin to assess applicants based on a question they asked, rather than pertinent qualifications they have for the job. But, researchers believe applicants react negatively to the standardization of applicant questions during the interview (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). Therefore, I believe that when job applicants are allowed to ask questions during the interview, they will have more positive reactions to the organization. As such, I hypothesize that less-structured applicant questions during the interview will have direct effects on job pursuit intentions.

Hypothesis 1: The employment interview's structure will have a direct effect on applicant's intentions to pursue employment, such that less structure will be positively related to applicant's intentions to pursue employment with an organization.

Now that I have discussed the proposed direct effects of the employment interview's structure on job pursuit intentions, I will describe the proposed indirect

effects of the employment interview's structure on job pursuit intentions through procedural justice. In the following paragraphs, I will outline how these five facets of structure (rapport building, transparency, probing, ancillary information, and applicant questions during the interview) may relate to procedural justice. Specifically, I will explain the proposed relationships through two of procedural justice's underlying mechanisms: voice and opportunities to perform.

Rapport building, as defined previously, is an interviewer action with the goal of creating a comfortable and positive interviewing environment. Examples of rapport building creating a comfortable environment include the interviewer engaging the job applicant in small talk and providing supportive, non-verbal behaviors (e.g., smiling and nodding) when the applicant answers a question (Granitz, Koering, & Harich, 2009; Levashina et al., 2014). In so doing, I believe that job applicants will feel they have more voice for two reasons: 1) more opportunities to express their personal characteristics and 2) an opportunity to share unique qualifications they have for a job that may not typically be covered in a job interview. Additionally, I think small talk between the interviewer and job applicant may cause the applicant to feel he or she had more opportunities to perform. For instance, job applicants may feel during the small talk they were able to make a favorable first impression with a representative of the organization (i.e., the interviewer), which may relate to applicant attraction to the organization. Therefore, I hypothesize that less-structured rapport building will have an indirect effect on job pursuit intentions through applicant perceptions of procedural justice.

For the second facet of structure of interest, transparency, I believe it may relate to both feelings of voice and opportunity to perform in job applicants. When job

applicants are given an opportunity to prepare answers for interview questions prior to the start of the interview, they may perceive the employment interview as more procedurally just due to opportunities to express voice. Furthermore, when job applicants are provided the characteristics they will be rated on (such as leadership), they may perceive that they have more opportunities to perform in the interview due to advanced notice of interviewer expectations. Both of these aspects of transparency will relate to procedural justice, which I suggest will relate to applicant's attraction to an organization. For both of these reasons, I hypothesize that transparency will have indirect effects on job pursuit intentions through procedural justice.

Similarly, I believe less-structured probing will have an indirect effect on job pursuit intentions through applicant perceptions of procedural justice. By probing a job applicant's answer to gain more information, applicants may feel they have more opportunities to express their knowledge, skills, and abilities. As such, they may have more opportunities to express their voice and to perform by providing more information to the interviewer. Furthermore, when interviewers provide clarification to questions, applicants may feel they can better answer a question to the satisfaction of the interviewer. In this way, they may feel they have both more opportunities for voice and to perform well in the interview. I suggest that probing may positively influence procedural justice through feelings of voice and opportunities to perform during the interview, which will relate to job applicants being more attracted to the organization. Therefore, I hypothesize that probing will have an indirect effect on job pursuit intentions through procedural justice.

Additionally, I believe an interviewer's knowledge of ancillary information will influence applicant feelings of voice and opportunities to perform. For instance, if an interviewer is aware of an applicant's education and work history, the interviewer may be better equipped to ask the applicant questions about his or her knowledge, skills, and abilities. Then, the applicant may feel that they have more opportunities for voice. Furthermore, this may relate to an applicant's feelings of having more opportunities to perform. The applicant may feel that the quality of materials they submitted to the organization in their application gave them more opportunities to perform. When less-structured ancillary information elicits feelings of voice and opportunity to perform in job applicants, I suggest they will have perceptions of procedural justice, which will relate to the organization being more attractive. Therefore, I hypothesize that when interviewers are allowed access to job applicant ancillary information (low-structure), it will have indirect effects on job pursuit intentions through applicant perceptions of procedural justice.

Lastly, I believe allowing applicants to ask questions during the interview may have indirect effects on job pursuit intentions through perceptions of procedural justice. Restriction of applicant questions during the interview may hurt applicant perceptions of procedural justice because of a perceived lack of voice and a lack of control. For instance, when applicants are not allowed to ask questions that are pertinent to the interviewing process, they may not be allowed to voice their needs or questions relating to the organization. Furthermore, when applicants are not allowed to ask questions, they may feel that they don't have opportunities to perform. For example, an inability to ask questions may restrict an applicant's opportunities to voice insightful questions or

concerns. I suggest that when applicants can ask questions they will perceive that they have more voice and opportunities to perform, which will relate to the organization being attractive. Therefore, I hypothesize that less-structured applicant questions during the interview will have indirect effects on job pursuit intentions through applicant perceptions of procedural justice.

Hypothesis 2: The employment interview's structure will indirectly effect job pursuit intentions through procedural justice.

Now that I have established the hypothesized direct effect of less-structured on job pursuit intentions, and the indirect effect of less structure on job pursuit intentions through procedural justice, I will outline the proposed indirect effect of less structure on job pursuit intentions through AOS. In the following paragraphs, I will describe how the five facets of structure of interest (rapport building, transparency, probing, ancillary information, and applicant questions during the interview) relate indirectly to job pursuit intentions through AOS. I hypothesize that these five facets will relate with AOS through two underlying mechanisms: fulfillment of socioemotional needs and felt obligation.

Firstly, I hypothesize rapport building will have indirect effects on job pursuit intentions through AOS. For instance, the interviewer, on behalf of the organization, provides an applicant with a benefit: comfort and ease during the selection process through small talk and non-verbal supportive behaviors. In this way, the interviewer may fulfill a job applicant's socioemotional needs in the interview. Additionally, the comfort provided by the interviewer may create a felt obligation in the job applicant, which she or he repays with job pursuit intentions. Therefore, I hypothesize less structured rapport building will have an indirect effect on job pursuit intentions through AOS.

Secondly, I hypothesize that transparency will have indirect effects on job pursuit intentions through AOS. Transparency, as previously described, allows job applicants knowledge regarding the questions they will be asked and characteristics they will be rated on in the interview prior to the start of the interview. When the interviewer exhibits this supportive benefit, providing the job applicant additional opportunities for success in the interview, the job applicant may have his or her socioemotional needs met. Furthermore, the provision of this benefit to the job applicant may relate to a job applicant's felt obligation, which she or he may repay with job pursuit intentions. As such, I hypothesize that less-structured transparency will have an indirect effect on job pursuit intentions through AOS.

Thirdly, probing affords a job applicant the opportunity to share more of his or her accomplishments and/or expound upon qualifications in more detail (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Levashina et al., 2014). Therefore, the act of probing by the interviewer could create a feeling of support and that the interviewer desires for the applicant to have a successful interview. In this way, probing may fulfill a socioemotional need of the job applicant. Furthermore, a job applicant may react to this supportive behavior with a felt obligation, manifested in a job applicant's job pursuit intentions. As such, I hypothesize that when the interviewer uses probing to ask follow-up questions and clarify questions (low-structure) it will have an indirect effect on job pursuit intentions through AOS.

Fourthly, I believe ancillary information will relate to job applicant AOS. The interviewer, by reading a job applicant's ancillary information, may be more likely to ask the applicant questions that specifically pertain to her/his knowledge, skills, and abilities,

which may generate feelings of support. For example, the job applicant may feel that the interviewer cares about him or her enough to review his or her resume and other pertinent information. In this way, knowledge of ancillary information may fulfill a job applicant's socioemotional needs and create a felt obligation, which the applicant reciprocates with job pursuit intentions. In short, I hypothesize that when interviewers are allowed to view job applicant ancillary information (low-structure) it will have an indirect effect on job pursuit intentions through AOS.

Lastly, I believe that job applicant questions allowed during the interview will have an indirect effect on job pursuit intentions through AOS. When allowed to ask questions and voice concerns during the interview, I believe job applicants will feel that a socioemotional need is met. Furthermore, job applicants may feel that the organization supports and cares for them, which may engender a felt obligation that the job applicant repays with job pursuit intentions. Therefore, I hypothesize that applicant questions during the interview (low-structure) will have an indirect effect on job pursuit intentions through AOS.

Hypothesis 3: The employment interview's structure will indirectly effect job pursuit intentions through AOS.

Chapter II: Method

The current study used a policy capturing design to assess a 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 within-subject, fully-crossed design. I presented subjects with 36 behavioral scenarios describing varying levels (e.g., less or high) of the five facets of structure of interest: rapport building, transparency, probing, ancillary information, and applicant questions. After reading each scenario, participants rated their AOS, perceived procedural justice,

and their intentions to pursue the organization. To assess reliability and cognitive load, conducted a pilot test of the behavioral scenarios (Aimen-Smith, Scullen, & Barr, 2002). The first three of the 36 scenarios were repeat scenarios to decrease start-up effects (Aimen-Smith, Scullen, & Barr, 2002). The fourth scenario acted as a check for test-retest reliability (Aimen-Smith, Scullen, & Barr, 2002). All surveys were presented to subjects through an online survey system. I completely randomized each behavioral scenario through the computer system to control for order effects. I gathered job experience and current employment information from participants (i.e., employed or unemployed). Determining past job and interviewing experience assisted in assessing the generalizability of the information gathered.

Research Methodology: Policy Capturing

I used a policy capturing research design to assess decision-making habits of job applicants within the employment interview. Policy capturing is a multiple regression-based method commonly used in organizational contexts to assess decision-making processes (Aimen-Smith, Scullen, & Barr, 2002). Policy capturing facilitated the assessment of “weighted, combined, or integrated information” during decision-making (Zedeck, 1977, p. 51), while also providing an estimate of individual decision-making variability (Graves & Karren, 1992). The current study employed an experimental policy capturing design, which has participants rate scenarios through a survey, artificially gauging their decision-making responses rather than actual responses (Karren & Barringer, 2002).

While policy capturing has some drawbacks, it also has many strengths that lend themselves to testing my proposed hypotheses. A strength includes diminishing social

desirability effects, which are often present in self-report attribute methods (Karren & Barringer, 2002; Arnold & Feldman, 1981; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Rynes, Schwab, & Heneman, 1983). Additionally, making decisions about multiple attribute scenarios is more realistic than single-attribute self-insight scenarios (Rynes, Schwab, & Heneman, 1983). Furthermore, policy capturing diminishes likelihood of multicollinearity in predictor variables due to assessing each possible scenario with one respondent (Karren & Barringer, 2002). For this reason, I employed the policy capturing research method to assess multiple facets of structure's effect on the decision making process when choosing to pursue employment with an organization.

Concerns when using policy capturing include compromised external validity, respondent overload, and reliability (Karren & Barringer, 2002). The current study follows best practices to ensure the highest quality research design and mitigate negative impact on validity and reliability. To this end, I use 36 behavioral scenarios, with 3 repeat scenarios to diminish start-up effects and 1 repeat scenario to serve as a reliability check, which is randomly inserted in the scenario order (Aimen-Smith, Scullen, & Barr, 2002). The 36 scenarios fall within the ideal range of 25 to 40 (Stewart, 1988). Furthermore, using a fully-crossed factorial design diminishes multicollinearity (Karren & Barringer, 2002). Due to the idiographic nature of the methodological design, a fully-crossed factorial design remains the test of choice for strong reliability and power (Aimen-Smith, Scullen, & Barr, 2002). In conclusion, policy capturing is a well-designed methodology that provides a strong framework for assessing decision-making processes (Karren & Barringer, 2002).

Participants

We collected data from 227 college students. The average age of participants were 23.1 years old ($SD = 5.27$). Participants, on average, previously experienced 6.76 employment interviews. Demographics of participants were as follows: 40.53% white/Caucasian, 16.74% black/African American, 1.76% American Indian or Alaska Native, 18.94% Asian, 22.03% Other. Participants represented a variety of industries, further supporting the generalizability of my sample (Appendix D, Table 2).

Procedure

At the beginning of the survey, participants were asked to read a brief description of an organization from which they are seeking employment. The participants were informed that they would be interviewing with a representative from the organization. Participants were asked to read through 36 policy capturing scenarios. These scenarios describe how an interviewer treated and interacted with an applicant (i.e., the participant) during the interview at varying levels of structure of the five facets of interest (rapport building, transparency, probing, ancillary information, and applicant questions). While most facets of structure have 4 levels of standardization, to prevent participant fatigue from cognitive load, I only measured the facets of structure and the lowest and highest levels of standardization (Aimen-Smith, Scullen, & Barr, 2002; see Appendix B for a summary of the structure manipulations used in this study). Per Graham and Cable's (2001) recommendation, the number of scenarios were kept below at 36-scenario factorial design.

Furthermore, I fully-crossed each scenario, meaning that every participant rates every combination more and less structure for all five facets (rapport building,

transparency, probing, ancillary information, and applicant questioning). This ensures orthogonality of predictors, increasing the effectiveness of the experimental design and rendering the strongest regression weights (Aimen-Smith, Scullen, & Barr, 2002; Karren & Barringer, 2002). To analyze this study, I used regression-based methods to decipher the strength of the proposed relationships.

Single-item Scales. In the current study, I measured a job applicant's perceptions of mock employment interviews that vary in structure. Due to the number of scenarios (i.e., 36), having multiple construct measures following each behavioral scenario would greatly increase the cognitive load and time to complete, thereby increasing participant fatigue and potentially adversely impacting the quality of the data collected (Böckenholt & Lehmann, 2015). As such, this study used a single item to measure AOS, procedural justice, and job pursuit intentions. Other researchers, such as Gosling and colleagues (2003), have been successful in demonstrating convergence validity and test-retest reliability when using similar limited measures. Furthermore, some researchers suggest that single-items provide greater face validity, high convergence with multiple items, and take less time (Nagy, 2002).

To assist participants in understanding the item measures, I provided participants at the beginning of the survey with an explanation of the constructs. The explanation for AOS, procedural justice, and job pursuit intentions read as follows: “(1) anticipated organizational support is the amount that someone expects an organization to show concern for their welfare and value their work and effort once they become employed, (2) procedural justice is the measure of how just (i.e., fair) a process is that organizations use to make decisions, such as whom to hire for a job, and (3) job pursuit intentions are the

amount of effort you would exert to work for an organization.” These definitions are derived from prominent research in their respective fields (Colquitt et al., 2001; Highhouse, Lievens, & Sinclair, 2003; Kurtessis et al., 2017). Following these definitions, participants were asked to rate their agreement with the statements that follow each interview scenario (see Appendix C for a summary of the definitions and single-item scales used).

AOS. To measure AOS, participants are asked to rate their agreement with the following statement, “The organization would be supportive of me.” We provided the definition of AOS at the beginning of the survey. Then, we presented this measure after each behavioral scenario. The item is rated on a Likert-type scale from 1 to 7 (1 = “strongly disagree,” 7 = “strongly agree”).

Procedural Justice. To measure procedural justice, participants are asked to rate their agreement with the following statement, “The interviewing process is fair.” Then, we presented a definition of procedural justice at the beginning of the survey. We presented this measure after each behavioral scenario. The item is rated on a Likert-type scale from 1 to 7 (1 = “strongly disagree,” 7 = “strongly agree”).

Intentions to Pursue. To measure job pursuit intentions, participants were asked to rate their agreement with the following statement, “I would exert a great deal of effort to work for this organization.” We modeled the measure from Highhouse, Lievens, and Sinclair’s (2003) measure of organizational attractiveness. The scale used is a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = “strongly disagree,” 7 = “strongly agree”).

Chapter III: Results

Descriptive statistics are in Table 1 (means, SD, correlations). Interview structure variables (i.e., transparency, ancillary information, rapport building, probing, and applicant questions during the interview) were dummy coded (0 = more structure; 1 = less structure). I assessed test-retest reliability with a repeat behavioral scenario per Aimen-Smith and colleagues (2002) recommendation. Participants were dropped if they took less than 7 minutes to complete the survey (i.e., less than two standard deviations below the mean). Furthermore, if participants had an absolute value difference between their responses on the original and repeat scenario above 2. I implemented these cleaning techniques to control for non-conscientious responders. After cleaning the data, my sample included 227 respondents. Additionally, following these deletions, my test-retest reliability coefficient neared adequate reliability ($r = .67$).

The intraclass correlations for AOS, procedural justice, and job pursuit intentions ($ICC(1) = .15, .17, \text{ and } .18$, respectively) all suggest that multilevel modeling is the appropriate analysis. Multilevel analysis allows for variance to be attributed to its correct source (i.e., within-person or between-person), thereby rendering more stable standard errors than general linear regression (Chan, 2005). As such, each participant represented the level-2 variable in the analysis. Mehta and Neale (2005) suggest that individuals are variables, too, acting as interchangeable components of a model. Therefore, the model assessed is considered a 1 (1,1) 1 multilevel mediation model (Preacher et al., 2010, 2011). Since all variables are assessed at level 1 and it is of substantive interest how each relationship varies across participants, all intercepts were fixed effects and slopes were random effects (i.e., allowed to vary; Bauer, Preacher, & Gil, 2006).

In the following paragraphs, I outline my results. First, I describe the main effects of each facet of structure on job pursuit intentions. Then, I describe the indirect effects of each facet of structure on job pursuit intentions first through procedural justice followed by AOS.

Main Effects

Hypothesis 1 proposed that less structured facets of the employment interview are positively related to job pursuit intentions. Transparency, ancillary information, rapport building, probing, and applicant questions during the interview all had significant direct effects on job pursuit intentions (Appendix D, Table 3). Therefore, hypothesis 1 is fully supported. For simplicity, all effects of facets of interview structure on job pursuit intentions, both direct and indirect, are depicted for each facet of structure individually (see Appendix E, Figures 2-6).

Indirect Effect – Path *a*

The indirect effects were calculated per Preacher and colleagues' (2010, 2011) recommendations. On average, participants positively rated less structured facets of the employment interview (i.e., transparency, ancillary information, rapport building, probing, and applicant questions during the interview) as more procedurally just and predictive of future organizational support (i.e., AOS), compared to their more structured counterparts (Appendix D, Table 3). These findings are illustrated in Figures 2-6. These data provide support for hypothesis 2 and 3.

Indirect Effect – Path *b*

Perceptions of both procedural justice and AOS within the employment interview, on average, predicted job pursuit intentions for each participant (Appendix D, Table 3;

Appendix E, Figure 2-6). These data provide support for both hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 3.

Tests of Indirect Effects

Indirect effects were tested per research precedent (i.e., indirect effect = $a \times b + cov(a, b)$; Preacher et al., 2010). All indirect effects were significant for all five facets of structure (Appendix D, Table 4). Therefore, the effect of all five facets of structure on job pursuit intentions is both direct and indirect through procedural justice and AOS. These findings provide full support for both hypothesis 2 and 3. Interestingly, across all five indirect effects, AOS demonstrated a stronger effect compared to procedural justice (see Appendix D, Table 4).

Residual Variances The within- and between-cluster residual variances, with a few exceptions (i.e., the direct effect of ancillary information, rapport building, and probing), are significant (see Table 5). These findings suggest that the five facets of structure are not the only contributors to the outcome variables studied. Research supports the presence of other predictors for these outcome variables (e.g., benefits previews, selection tool fairness, and selection tool relationship with job pursuit; Bauer et al., 1998, Bauer et al., 2001; Ployhart & Ryan, 1997; Smither et al., 1993). As such, including all predictors of procedural justice, AOS, and job pursuit intentions within my model would have made the model cumbersome and less informative.

Chapter IV: Discussion

My study assessed how specific facets of interview structure may relate to applicant reactions. For decades, researchers have urged practitioners to use more structured facets of the interview, while practitioners have, in some respects, resisted

implementing more structure. SHRM reported roughly half of practitioners implement more structure in the employment interview (Mariotti, Esen, Chen, Mulvey, & Scanlan, 2014). Researchers suggest practitioners resist structure due to a variety of issues, such as restrictions of the interview and information available about applicants (Campion et al., 1997), to maintain political capital, assess environment fit of applicant, make fair decisions, express organizational values, and for personal satisfaction (Dipboye, 1994). As such, the study of structure in relation to applicant reactions is pertinent for both practitioners and researchers. Understanding the relationship between structure and applicant reactions allows both researchers and practitioners to make more informed decisions about research and practice.

In my study, I suggested that when the employment interview is less structured, job applicants would have more positive reactions to the employment interview (such as higher perceptions of procedural justice and anticipated organizational support (AOS)) and be more likely to pursue employment with the organization. I assessed these hypotheses in relation to five facets of structure: 1) transparency, 2) ancillary information, 3) rapport building, 4) probing, and 5) applicant questions during the interview. I found that when these five facets of the employment interview are less structured, participants were more likely to perceive the interview as procedurally just, expect future support from the organization (AOS), and pursue employment with the organization. Thus, the nature of my study lends itself to both practitioners and researchers by providing both theoretical and practical contributions. Below, I outline the theoretical and practical implications for my study, followed by potential limitations.

Theoretical Contributions

The findings of my study provide further support for the underlying theories of applicant reactions. My study directly tested suggestions by Campion and colleagues (1997) relating to ancillary information, probing, and applicant questions during the interview. Campion et al. (1997) suggested that these three facets of structure at less structured levels would relate to positive applicant reactions. My study specifically tested these suggestions, looking at procedural justice, AOS, and job pursuit intentions in relation to facets of structure. These three facets of structure, when less structured, are positively related to procedural justice, AOS, and job pursuit intentions. Thus, my findings provide empirical support for Campion and colleagues (1997) suggested positive applicant reactions to less structured ancillary information, probing, and follow up questions during the interview.

Furthermore, my study built upon Levashina et al.'s (2014) recommendations to ascertain the effects of interview structure of transparency and rapport building on applicant reactions. I assessed how the structure of both rapport building and transparency may relate to procedural justice, AOS, and job pursuit intentions. I found that these two facets, when less structured, positively relate to all three applicant reactions of interest. As such, my analysis adds to the research literature by assessing Levashina and colleagues (2014) proposition to include transparency and rapport building as facets of structure in the employment interview and their proposition that researchers should assess how these facets relate to applicant outcomes, such as applicant reactions.

In addition to proposed relationships between employment interview structure and applicant reactions, previous research supports a relationship between selection processes

and future-oriented behavior of applicants (Smither et al., 1993). Smither and colleagues (1993) dubbed the relationship between selection processes and future-oriented behavior as the “spillover effect.” This effect is when a selection process not only impacts the way a job applicant feels during the process, but also how the job applicant relates to the organization in the future. For example, research suggests selection processes relate to future buying behaviors, job pursuit intentions, and the likelihood of a job applicant recommending the organization to others (Smither et al., 1993). Spillover effects can be both positive (e.g., enjoying an employment interview, which strengthens your desire to join an organization) or negative (e.g., a negative employment interview, which lessens your desire to join an organization). Past research suggests that a way to lessen negative spillover effects is by using a combination of less and more structured facets in the employment interview (Chapman & Zweig, 2005).

Chapman and Zweig (2005) found that a mixture of more and less structured facets related to more positive or negative applicant reactions; however, due to the nature of their study (that is, they allowed interviewers to include any facets of structure they preferred), they were unable to draw conclusions about effects of individual facets of the structured interview on applicant reactions. For this reason, my study looked at specific facets of structure in the employment interview related to job pursuit intentions. Studying this direct effect in a lab setting allowed me to explore the relationship between each facet of structure and job pursuit intentions. Thus, I can draw conclusions about the relationship between specific facets of structure and job pursuit intentions. Upon analysis of the direct effect of all five facets of structure (transparency, ancillary information,

rapport building, probing, and applicant questions during the interview), I found that all have a positive direct spillover effect on job pursuit intentions when less structured.

In addition to job pursuit intentions, my study also assessed the applicant reaction of procedural justice. Research has long supported the relationship between procedural justice and selection tools, such as the employment interview, as well as job pursuit intentions (Arvey & Sackett, 1993; Hausknecht et al., 2004; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Smither et al., 1993). However, these researchers operationalized the employment interview as a general selection tool, rather than studying the relationship between specific facets of the employment interview and job pursuit intentions through procedural justice. My study added to the current literature by assessing the relationship between specific facets of the employment interview and job pursuit intentions through procedural justice. Specifically, I hypothesized that less structure would positively relate to job pursuit intentions through procedural justice because less structure would relate to job applicants perceiving a greater amount of opportunities for voice and opportunities to perform within the employment interview. Decreasing structure within certain facets of the employment interview, such as transparency, ancillary information, rapport building, probing, and applicant questions during the interview, allows applicants to have more opportunities to express their personal qualifications (i.e., voice) and perform to the best of their ability (i.e., opportunities to perform), thereby relating to procedural justice and job pursuit intentions.

Furthermore, my study suggests that less structured employment interviews are related to AOS. Previous research suggests that HR systems, such as benefits provided to employees, relates to the development of AOS prior to joining an organization and job

pursuit intentions (Casper & Buffardi, 2004). Additionally, researchers suggest that selection procedures that are fair may also relate to higher levels of AOS prior to employment; however, prior to this study this relationship had not been empirically studied. The current study built upon both empirical and theoretical suggestions by empirically assessing how the employment interview may relate to AOS.

I hypothesized that less structured facets of the employment interview would relate to AOS because it would provide fulfillment of applicant's socioemotional needs and it would encourage a felt obligation to the organization within the applicant. Less structured interviews allow a human element to persist within the employment interview. For instance, rapport building encourages job applicants to feel more at ease in the high-pressure interviewing environment. Allowing a human element to persist in this environment allows job applicants to have their socioemotional needs met, while also creating in them a felt obligation towards the organization. All five facets of the employment interview (i.e., transparency, ancillary information, rapport building, probing, and applicant questions during the interview) demonstrated a positive relationship with AOS when less structured. My findings suggest that specific facets of the employment interview, when less structured, may fulfill socioemotional needs and create a felt obligation. As such, less structured facets of the interview are related to AOS and job pursuit intentions indirectly through AOS. Thus, in addition to benefits providing relating to AOS in job applicants, the employment interview also positively relates to AOS prior to employment.

Practical Implications

Applicant reactions have often been studied in relation to the employment interview. However, my study provides further empirical support for the relationship between the employment interview and applicant reactions. Rather than studying the overall effect of the employment interview on applicant reactions, I studied how facets of the employment interview may directly predict applicant reactions. Therefore, specific facets of the employment interview may be more strongly related to applicant reactions compared to other facets. My study assists organizations in choosing which facets of structure should be less and more structured in the employment interview. My findings suggest that, overall, the three most highly related facets of the employment interview to applicant reactions are ancillary information, rapport building, and probing. Rapport building has the strongest relationship with job pursuit intentions, with probing exhibiting a close second strongest relationship (Table 3). In relation to procedural justice, ancillary information has the strongest relationship, out of all five facets of interest, with probing exhibiting the second strongest relationship (Table 3). However, rapport building has the strongest relationship with AOS (Table 3). Ancillary information displays the second strongest relationship to AOS (Table 3). As such, organizations should consider using less structure in these three areas if their goal is to improve applicant reactions to the interview process.

Furthermore, by reducing structure, organizations may gain competitive advantage through enhancing applicant's perception of procedural justice. Within the selection literature, procedural justice is frequently linked to positive outcomes, such as less litigation, job pursuit intentions and other facets of organizational attractiveness

(Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000; Smither et al., 1993; Williamson et al., 1997). My study provides further empirical support for the relationship between selection tools (e.g., facets of the employment interview) and job pursuit intentions through procedural justice, as well as a direct effect of selection tools on job pursuit intentions. Thus, organizations that implement less structured ancillary information, rapport building, and probing may see greater returns on applicants pursuing employment with the organization. Furthermore, increasing job pursuit intentions among the applicant pool improves the likelihood of an organization meeting its hiring goals and provides competitive advantage in recruitment. Of course, one caveat here is that the validity of the mixed structure interview is unknown and further research is needed to address this important issue.

Additionally, strategically implementing less structured facets of the employment interview provides a potential means to resolve the justice dilemma (Cropanzano & Wright, 2003; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Meaning, some less structured facets of the employment interview improve applicant perceptions of justice, which are not always associated with valid selection methods, such as the employment interview. Therefore, including some less structured facets of the interview may help improve perceptions of procedural justice and job pursuit intentions. However, future research, as discussed in the limitations section, should assess the most effective combination of less and more structured facets of the employment interview that improve applicant reactions while preserving validity.

Furthermore, organizations may gain a competitive advantage through the use of less interview structure due to its relationship with AOS. The relationship between the

employment interview and AOS may improve the likelihood of the formation of POS once an applicant joins an organization. This suggestion is important because researchers suggest that elevated levels of AOS prior to employment may translate into greater leader-member exchange once employed, increased extrarole behaviors, and lower turnover (Zheng et al., 2016). Therefore, if organizations seek to maximize opportunities for developing job applicant AOS during the recruitment and selection process, they may directly benefit through performance and output provided by the job applicant once employed, as well as job pursuit intentions prior to employment, thus creating a competitive advantage for organizations.

Limitations and Future Research

One potential limitation of this study is that we collected data in a lab setting using college students. The generalizability of this study to the greater population is less than studies conducted in a field setting. However, the control of the lab study allowed me to assess some causal mechanisms of my model, in addition to allowing me to draw conclusions on the relationship between specific facets of structure and applicant reactions. Furthermore, although participants were college students, they all had a considerable amount of experience interviewing with organizations ($M = 6.27$). Therefore, the generalizability of my lab study may be greater than lab studies where participants had less real-world interviewing experience. I propose future research should assess facets of structure in the employment interview within a field setting to corroborate my findings and improve the generalizability of the results.

Furthermore, future studies should assess the validity of employment interviews with some less and more structured facets. The current study suggests that these five

facets (transparency, ancillary information, rapport building, probing, and follow up questions during the interview) are positively related to applicant reactions; however, no study assesses how these less structured facets may impact the validity of the employment interview. However, research suggests that ceiling effects exist in the validity of structured interviews. Meaning, increasing the level of structure in employment interviews, after level 3, does not provide any incremental validity (Huffcutt & Arthur, 1994). As such, future studies should analyze the validity of employment interviews with less structured ancillary information, rapport building, probing, and more structured facets of the employment interview, such as multiple interviewers, same interviewers, question consistency, and questions based on job analysis. These facets may maintain the validity of the interview when more structured due to their standardization of the questions and interviewers themselves, rather than the standardization of interactions between the interviewer(s) and job applicants. By conducting such a study, researchers may more strongly suggest the mixed structure employment interview as a solution to the justice dilemma. The study would be able to assess both applicant reactions, such as procedural justice, AOS, and job pursuit intentions, as well as the predictive validity of the interview. Ultimately, researchers should seek to assess the combination of less and more structured facets which improves applicant reactions without sacrificing validity.

Conclusion

In conclusion, in this study it was found that the use of some less structured facets of the employment interview improved applicant reactions, such as procedural justice, AOS, and job pursuit intentions. All five facets of structure assessed in this study

(transparency, ancillary information, rapport building, probing, and applicant questions during the interview) were positively related to job pursuit intentions (hypothesis 1), procedural justice (hypothesis 2), and AOS (hypothesis 3). Therefore, organizations may improve their competitive advantage during recruitment and hiring by including these less structured facets within the employment interview. Future research is needed to continue to examine the influence of the hybrid interview (that is, an interview with both more and less structured facets) to better understand their influence on applicant reactions in the field as well as their influence on interview reliability and validity.

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Table 1
Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Procedural Justice	3.75	1.65	1.00							
2. AOS	3.72	1.64	.75**	1.00						
3. Job Pursuit Intentions	3.65	1.69	.78**	.80**	1.00					
4. Transparency	.5	.5	-	-	-	1.00				
5. Ancillary Information	.5	.5	-	-	-	0	1.00			
6. Rapport Building	.5	.5	-	-	-	0	0	1.00		
7. Probing	.5	.5	-	-	-	0	0	0	1.00	
8. Applicant Questions During the Interview	.5	.5	-	-	-	0	0	0	0	1.00

Note. N = 227. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. Variables 4-8 are dummy coded; 0 = more transparency, 1 = less transparency.

Table 2
Study Participant's Industry Membership

Industry	Industry Membership (%)
Forestry, fishing, hunting, agriculture	2 (0.88%)
Real estate, or rental and leasing	2 (0.88%)
Professional, scientific, or technical services	7 (3.08%)
Utilities	2 (0.88%)
Management of companies or enterprises	4 (1.76%)
Construction	1 (0.44%)
Admin, support, waste management, or remediation services	11 (4.85%)
Manufacturing	2 (0.88%)
Educational services	47 (20.70%)
Wholesale trade	1 (0.44%)
Health care or social assistance	40 (17.62%)
Retail trade	28 (12.33%)
Arts, entertainment, or recreation	9 (3.96%)
Transportation or warehousing	3 (1.32%)
Accommodation of food services	28 (12.33%)
Information	6 (2.64%)
Other services (except public administration)	18 (7.93%)
Finance or insurance	8 (3.52%)
Unclassified establishments	8 (3.52%)

Note. Industry frequencies are reported, followed by percent of participants in parentheses.

Table 3
Multilevel Path Analysis Parameter Estimates

Variable	Between-clusters Model				
	Procedural Justice (M1)		AOS (M2)		Job Pursuit Intentions (Y)
	<i>a path (SE)</i>	<i>b path (SE)</i>	<i>a path (SE)</i>	<i>b path (SE)</i>	<i>c' path (SE)</i>
Transparency (X1)	0.42 (0.04)***	0.35 (0.02)***	0.39 (0.03)***	0.42 (0.02)***	0.05 (0.02)*
Ancillary Information (X2)	1.15 (0.05)***	-	1.01 (0.04)***	-	0.24 (0.03)***
Rapport Building (X3)	0.76 (0.04)***	-	1.04 (0.05)***	-	0.28 (0.03)***
Probing (X4)	1.02 (0.04)***	-	0.99 (0.04)***	-	0.27 (0.03)***
Applicant Questions During the Interview (X5)	0.59 (0.04)***	-	0.65 (0.03)***	-	0.24 (0.02)***

Note. N = 227. A, b, and c' represent parameter estimates (i.e., *b*) for each hypothesized path. AOS = Anticipated Organizational Support. Standard errors are included for each coefficient in parentheses.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$

Table 4
Tests of Indirect Effects

Variable	Indirect Effects					
	Procedural Justice (M1)			AOS (M2)		
	<i>b</i>	<i>Z</i>	95% Confidence Interval	<i>b</i>	<i>Z</i>	95% Confidence Interval
Transparency (X1)	0.14***	9.51	0.11, 0.17	0.15***	8.74	0.12, 0.18
Ancillary Information (X2)	0.39***	10.68	0.32, 0.46	0.45***	15.29	0.39, 0.51
Rapport Building (X3)	0.27***	10.61	0.22, 0.32	0.45***	13.77	0.38, 0.51
Probing (X4)	0.37***	12.25	0.31, 0.43	0.41***	12.56	0.35, 0.48
Applicant Questions During the Interview (X5)	0.21***	10.37	0.17, 0.25	0.27***	12.28	0.23, 0.31

Note. All tests of indirect effects were conducted per Preacher et al.'s (2010) recommendations (i.e., indirect = $a*b + cab$).

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$.

Table 5
Between- and Within-Cluster Variance

Variable	Between-Cluster Variance				
	Procedural Justice (M1)		AOS (M2)		Job Pursuit Intentions (Y)
	<i>a path</i>	<i>b path</i>	<i>a path</i>	<i>b path</i>	<i>c' path</i>
Transparency (X1)	0.21***	0.02***	0.12***	0.02***	0.02
Ancillary Information (X2)	0.46***	-	0.28***	-	0.08
Rapport Building (X3)	0.24***	-	0.40***	-	0.10*
Probing (X4)	0.32***	-	0.28***	-	0.08
Applicant Questions During the Interview (X5)	0.17***	-	0.15***	-	0.05*
Within-Cluster Variance (residual variances)					
Procedural Justice (M1)	1.04***				
AOS (M2)	1.07***				
Job Pursuit Intentions (Y)	0.50***				

Note. AOS = Anticipated Organizational Support.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$.

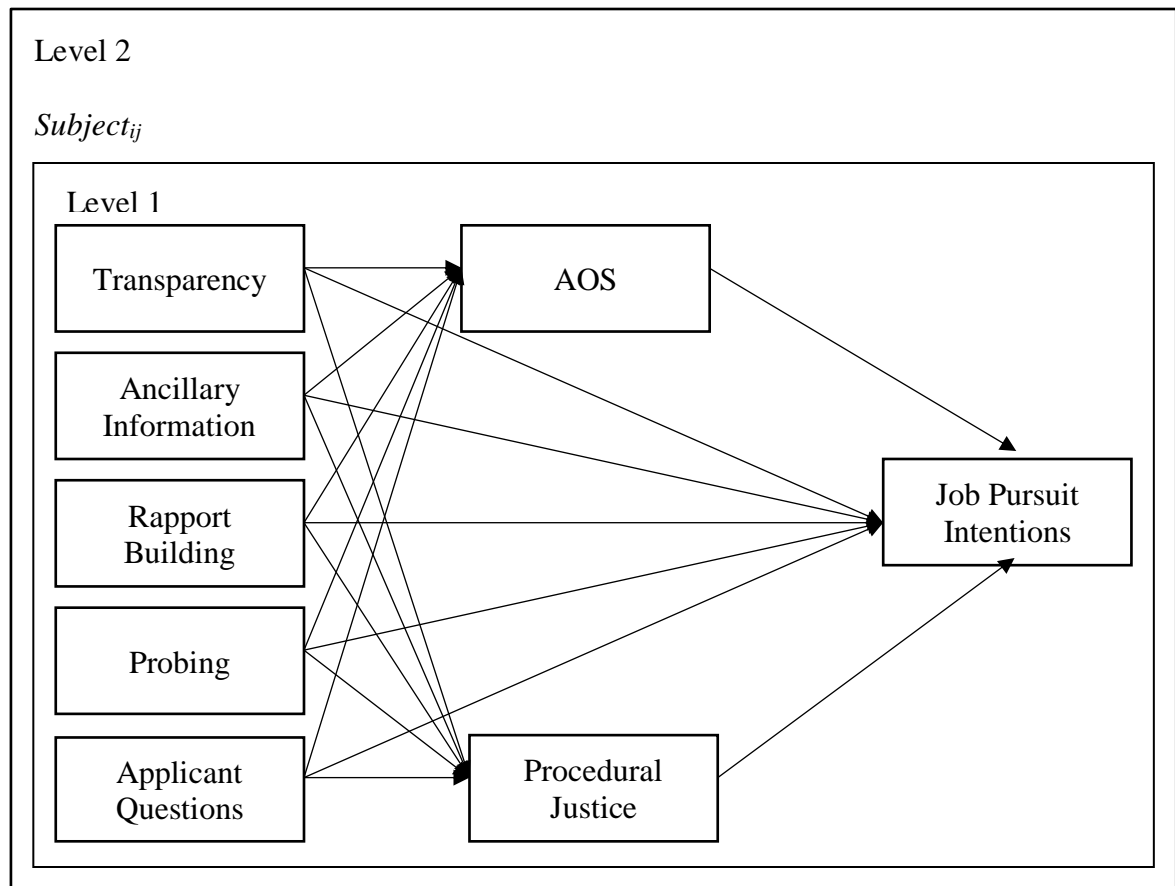


Figure 1. Proposed Conceptual Model

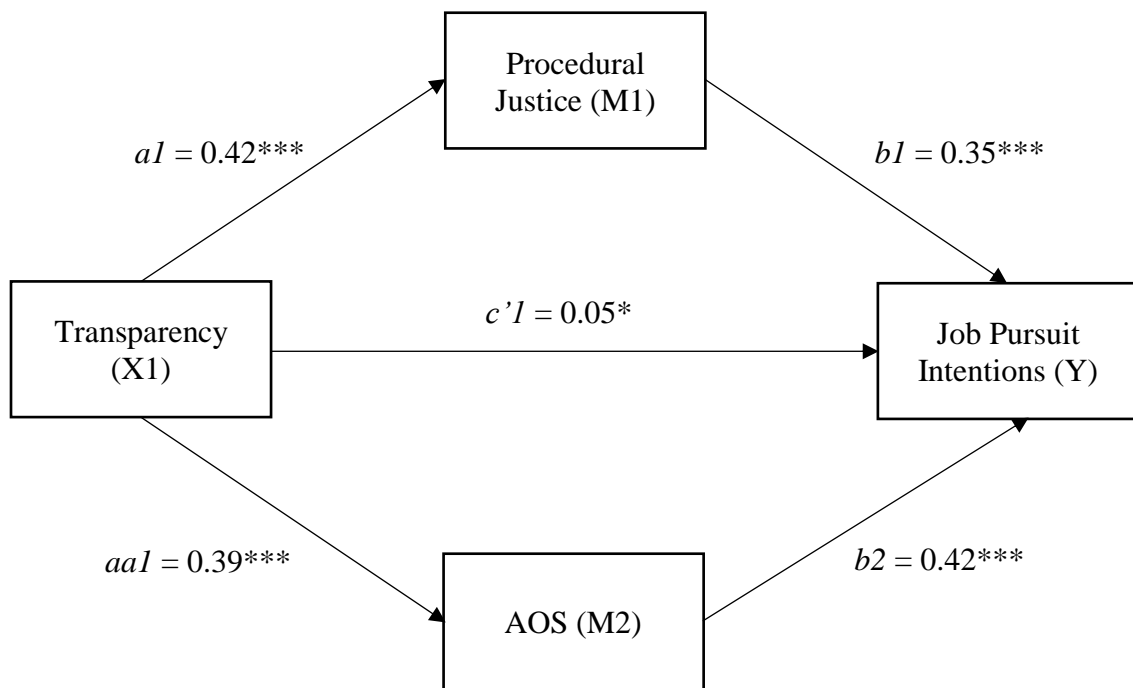


Figure 2. Results of the Structural Model for Transparency (X1)

Note. AOS = Anticipated Organizational Support.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$.

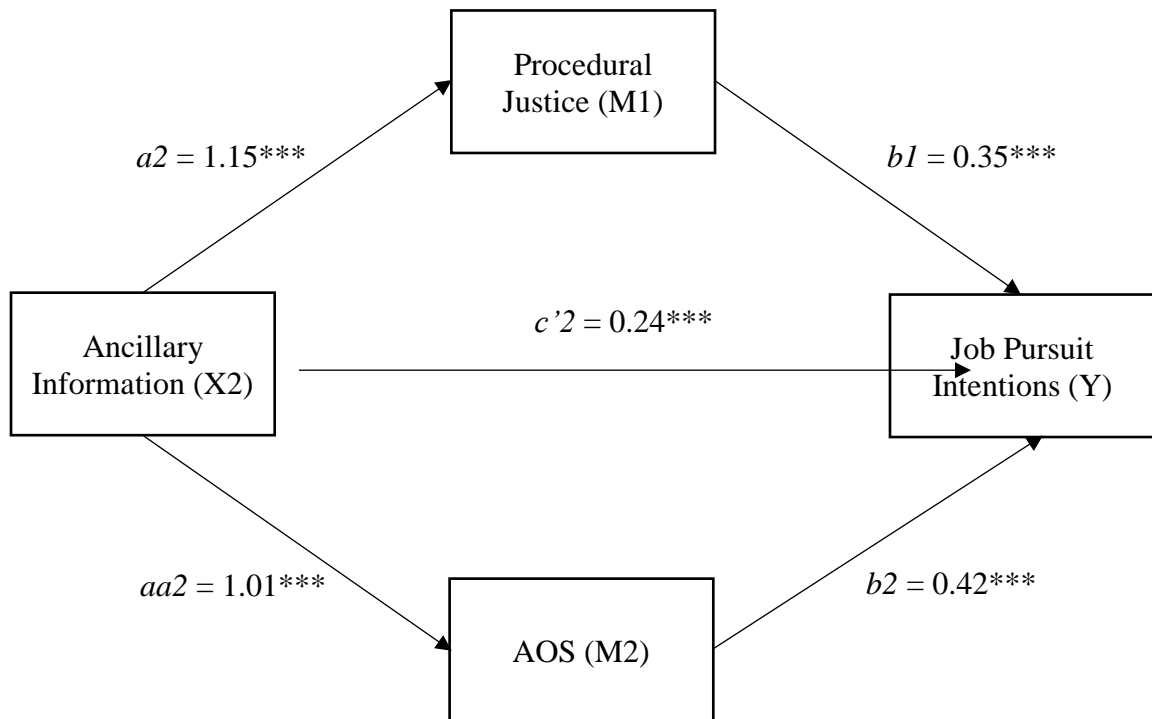


Figure 3. Results of the Structural Model for Ancillary Information (X2)

Note. AOS = Anticipated Organizational Support.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$.

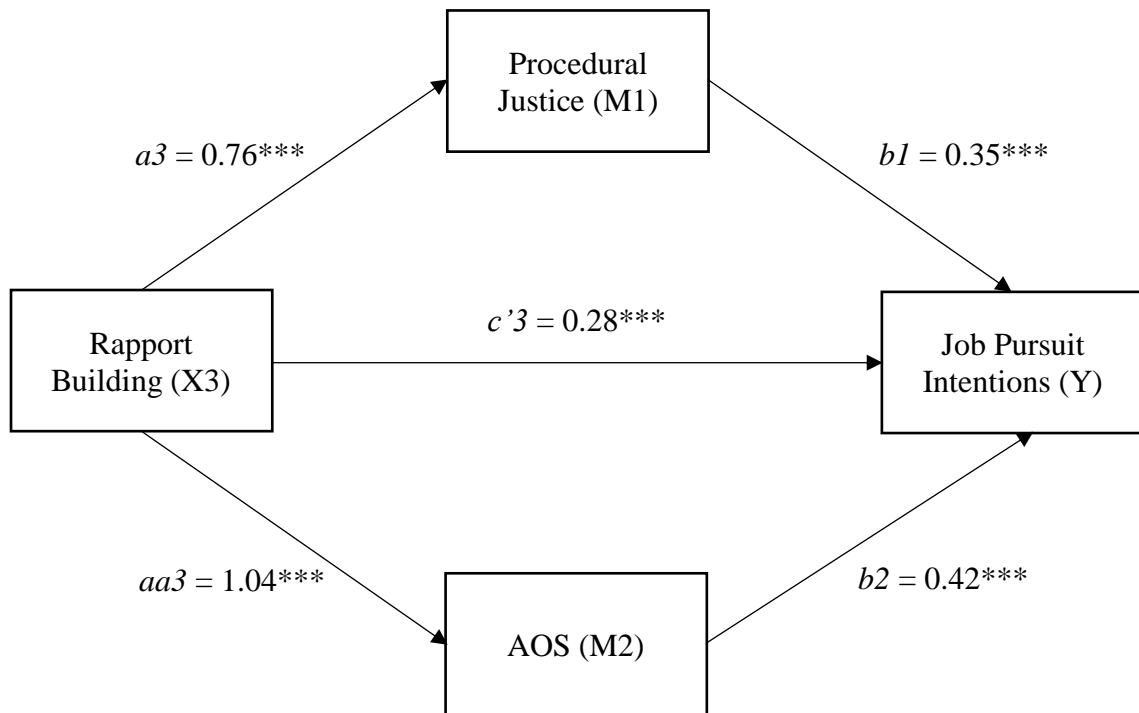


Figure 4. Results of the Structural Model for Rapport Building (X3)

Note. AOS = Anticipated Organizational Support.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$.

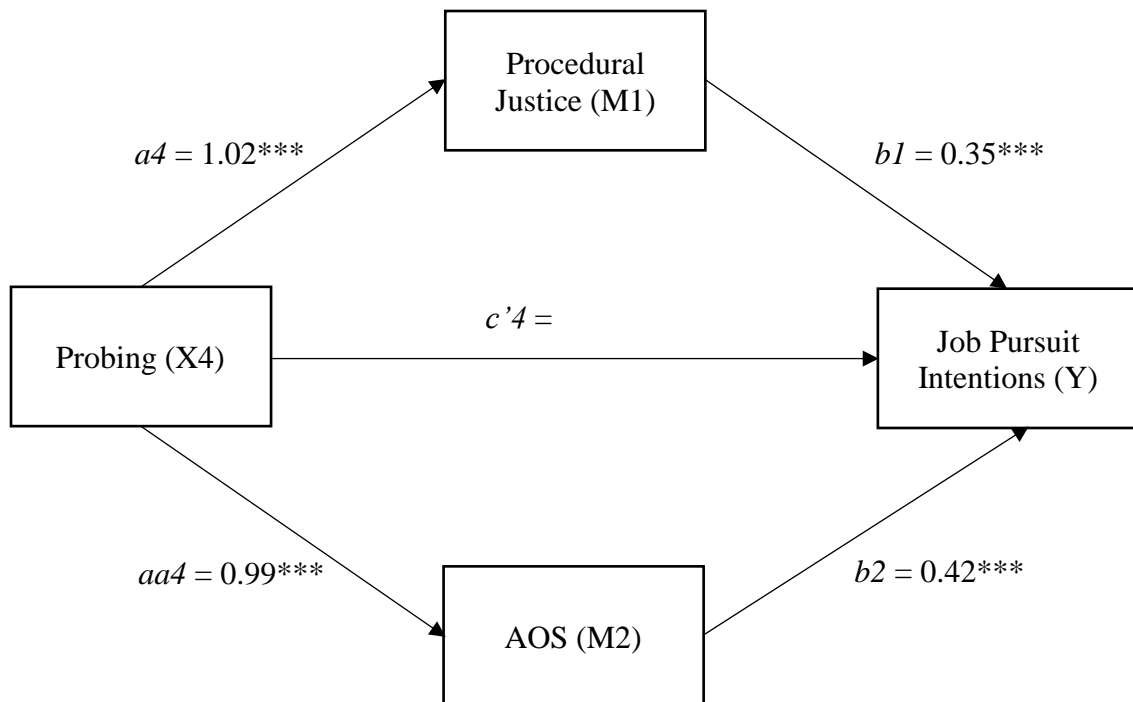


Figure 5. Results of the Structural Model for Probing (X4)

Note. AOS = Anticipated Organizational Support.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$.

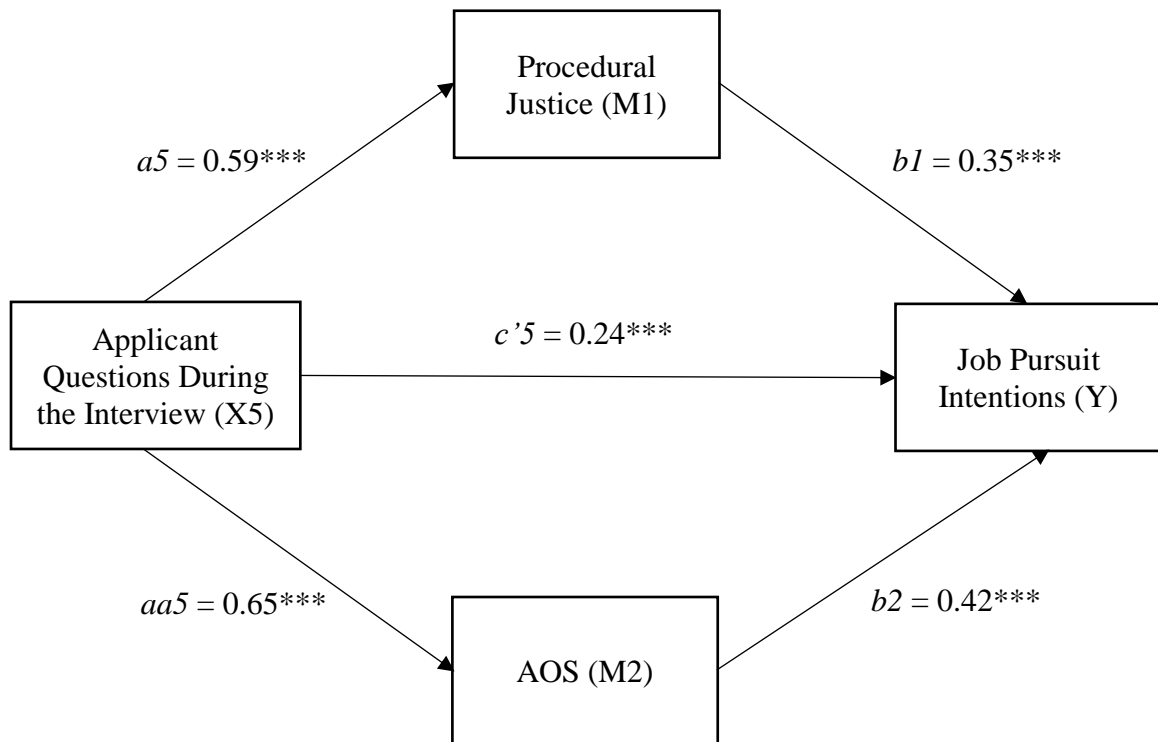


Figure 6. Results of the Structural Model for Applicant Questions During the Interview (X5)

Note. AOS = Anticipated Organizational Support.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$.

Appendix: Study Measures

Behavioral Scenario Manipulation

Behavioral Scenarios: 5 predictors at two-levels (*low vs. high*); 32 scenarios total.

Predictor	Low Structure (<i>Level 1</i>)	High Structure (<i>Level 4</i>)
Transparency	Provided questions and interview rating characteristics	No questions or characteristics prior to interview
Ancillary Information	Resume reviewed and discussed	No knowledge of resume prior to interview
Rapport building	Open-ended communication	No rapport building
Probing	Follow-up questions for answer clarification	No follow-up questions
Applicant Questions	Allowed anytime	None

I. Transparency

a. *Low-Structure*

- i. Prior to the interview, the organization **DID** send you information regarding the interview questions and the skills (e.g., leadership skills) they plan to discuss with you.

b. *High-Structure*

- i. Prior to the interview, the organization **DID NOT** send you information regarding the interview questions or the skills (e.g., leadership skills) they plan to discuss with you.

II. Ancillary Information

- a. *Low-Structure*
 - i. The interviewer clearly **DID** review your resume; The interviewer **DID** ask you specific questions about your educational background and work experience from your resume.
- b. *High-Structure*
 - i. The interviewer clearly **DID NOT** review your resume; The interviewer **DID NOT** ask you specific questions about your educational background and work experience from your resume.

III. Rapport Building

- a. *Low-Structure*
 - i. The interviewer **DID** welcome you to the organization, engage you in small talk, and ease you with non-verbal cues (e.g., nod and smile).
- b. *High-Structure*
 - i. The interviewer **DID NOT** welcome you to the organization, engage you in small talk, or ease you with non-verbal cues (e.g., nod and smile).

IV. Probing

- a. *Low-Structure*
 - i. The interviewer **DID** ask follow-up questions and encourage you to elaborate on your knowledge, skills, and abilities. When you did not fully answer a question, the interviewer **DID** rephrase the question for clarity.
- b. *High-Structure*
 - i. The interviewer **DID NOT** ask you follow-up questions or encourage you to elaborate on your knowledge, skills, and abilities. When you did not fully answer a question, the interviewer **DID NOT** rephrase the question for clarity.

V. Applicant Questions During the Interview

- a. *Low-Structure*
 - i. The interviewer **DID** encourage you to ask any questions you had during the interview.
- b. *High-Structure*
 - i. The interviewer **DID NOT** encourage you to ask any questions you had during the interview.

Anticipated Organizational Support (AOS)

Survey definition derived from Kurtessis et al.'s (2017) definition of perceived organizational support. The tense of the words used was changed to reflect the anticipation, rather than the current state, of support.

Definition: Anticipated organizational support is the amount that someone expects an organization to show concern for their welfare and value their work and effort once they become employed.

Item:

This organization would be supportive of me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Neutral	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Agree

Procedural Justice

Survey definition derived from Colquitt et al.'s (2001) definition of procedural justice.

Definition: Procedural justice is the measure of how just (i.e., fair) a process is that an organization uses to make decisions, such as whom to hire for a job.

Item:

This interview process is fair.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Neutral	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Agree

Job Pursuit Intentions

Survey definition derived from Highhouse, Lievens, and Sinclair's (2003) definition of job pursuit intentions.

Definition: Job pursuit intentions are the amount of effort you would exert to work for and recommend an organization.

Item:

I would pursue a job at this organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Neutral	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Agree