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BUSINESS FACULTY RECRUITMENT: EFFECTS OF
ANNUAL SALARY AND HEALTH BENEFITS PLAN

By

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B.S.I.E. University of Puerto Rico, 1971

M.B.A. Marshall University, 1979

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of
the Graduate School of the University of Louisville
in Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

College of Education and Human Development
University of Louisville
Louisville, KY

May 2005

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A Dissertation Approved on

February 9, 2005

by the following Dissertation Committee:

Dissertation Director

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Debbie. It was through her encouragement and support that made this research effort possible.

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I can not forget to acknowledge my father, Emilio Rodriguez. From his humble roots in Puerto Rico, his constant encouragement to pursue education and excellence inspired me to try many endeavors.

ABSTRACT

BUSINESS FACULTY RECRUITMENT: EFFECTS OF
ANNUAL SALARY AND HEALTH BENEFITS PLAN

Glenn Rodriguez

February 9, 2005

The topic addressed by this study was recruiting business professionals pursuing the Masters of Business Administration (MBA) degree to teach in business departments located at two-year community colleges. Recruitment is a task vital to organizational success and is becoming increasingly problematic for community colleges due to massive retirements among members of the post-World War II "baby-boomer" generation. The participants in this study were experienced business professionals ($N = 187$) completing MBA degrees at a university located in a major metropolitan area in the Midwest. The participants role-played as applicants for community college business faculty vacancies.

Each participant rated six jobs manipulated experimentally in simulated position advertisements. The design for this study was a (3 x 2 x S) factorial analysis

of variance. The independent variables were starting annual salary (\$34,000, \$44,000, \$51,000) and employer-paid health plan (individual, family). The dependent variable was a two-item composite scale for applicant rating of the job. The items were 5-point Likert-type scales (1 = *not at all likely*, 5 = *very likely*) for these two items: (a) "How likely would you be to accept an interview for the job described?" and (b) "How likely would you be to accept the job described if offered?"

The main effect for salary explained 69% of the variance in job rating. The mean scores for all salary levels were statistically different from one another. The higher the salary level, the higher the participant rated the job. The main effect for health plan explained 13% of the variance in job rating, with participants rating jobs with a family plan significantly higher than jobs with an individual plan. The two-way interaction between salary and health plan explained 3% of the variance in job rating. This was an ordinal interaction. At all levels of salary, participants rated jobs with a family plan higher than jobs with an individual plan. Implications for recruitment practice and future research are discussed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | PAGE |
|------------------------------------|------|
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS | iv |
| ABSTRACT | v |
| LIST OF TABLES | x |
| LIST OF FIGURES | xii |
| CHAPTER | |
| I. INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| Recruitment Practices | 3 |
| Problem | 4 |
| Purpose | 4 |
| Research Questions | 5 |
| Hypotheses | 6 |
| Definitions | 7 |
| II. LITERATURE REVIEW | 11 |
| Private Sector Recruitment Studies | 12 |
| Recruiter Effects | 13 |
| Recruitment Sources | 35 |
| Realistic Job Previews | 47 |
| Applicant Job Choice Decisions | 69 |
| Person-Organization Fit Studies | 92 |
| Business College Recruitment | 114 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Recruitment Theories and Models | 123 |
| Rynes Recruitment Theory Model | 123 |
| Employment Process Model | 125 |
| General Job Search and Evaluation Model | 126 |
| Attraction Process Model | 127 |
| Recruitment Study Designs | 129 |
| Chapter Summary | 130 |
| | |
| III. METHODOLOGY | 133 |
| Research Advancement | 133 |
| Participant and Sampling Methodology | 134 |
| Design and Data Analysis | 136 |
| Independent Variables | 136 |
| Dependent Variable | 138 |
| Secondary Analysis | 138 |
| Instrumentation | 139 |
| Pilot Study | 139 |
| Actual Data Collection | 142 |
| Study Limitations | 142 |
| | |
| IV. RESULTS | 143 |
| Study Participants and Sample Size | 144 |
| Descriptive Statistics | 145 |
| Reliability Analysis | 148 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Primary Inferential Statistics | 148 |
| Secondary Analysis | 153 |
| V. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION | 157 |
| Implications for Recruitment Practices | 159 |
| Descriptive Statistics Analysis | 160 |
| Primary Statistical Analysis | 161 |
| Salary | 161 |
| Health Plan | 165 |
| Secondary Statistical Analysis | 166 |
| Implications for Future Research | 167 |
| Conclusion | 170 |
| REFERENCES | 172 |
| APPENDICES | |
| A. Business Teaching Survey | 181 |
| B. Data Collection Script | 190 |
| C. Reliability Analyses - Pilot Study | 191 |
| D. Scoring Guide | 197 |
| E. Reliability Analyses - Actual Study | 200 |
| F. Multiple Regression Results | 206 |
| CURRICULUM VITAE | 212 |

LIST OF TABLES

| TABLE | PAGE |
|--|------|
| 1. Descriptive Statistics for Pilot Participants | 141 |
| 2. Reliability Analysis of Composite Scales: \$34,000 Salary and Individual Health Plan (N = 23) | 191 |
| 3. Reliability Analysis of Composite Scales: \$34,000 Salary and Family Health Plan (N = 23) | 192 |
| 4. Reliability Analysis of Composite Scales: \$44,000 Salary and Individual Health Plan (N = 23) | 193 |
| 5. Reliability Analysis of Composite Scales: \$44,000 Salary and Family Health Plan (N = 23) | 194 |
| 6. Reliability Analysis of Composite Scales: \$51,000 Salary and Individual Health Plan (N = 23) | 195 |
| 7. Reliability Analysis of Composite Scales: \$51,000 Salary and Family Health Plan (N = 23) | 196 |
| 8. Descriptive Statistics for Pilot Participants | 147 |
| 9. Reliability Analysis of Composite Scales: \$34,000 Salary and Individual Health Plan (N = 187) | 200 |
| 10. Reliability Analysis of Composite Scales: \$34,000 Salary and Family Health Plan (N = 187) | 201 |

| | | |
|-----|---|-----|
| 11. | Reliability Analysis of Composite Scales: \$44,000 Salary and Individual Health Plan (<i>N</i> = 187) | 202 |
| 12. | Reliability Analysis of Composite Scales: \$44,000 Salary and Family Health Plan (<i>N</i> = 187) | 203 |
| 13. | Reliability Analysis of Composite Scales: \$51,000 Salary and Individual Health Plan (<i>N</i> = 187) | 204 |
| 14. | Reliability Analysis of Composite Scales: \$51,000 Salary and Family Health Plan (<i>N</i> = 187) | 205 |
| 15. | Cell Means and Standard Deviations | 149 |
| 16. | Analysis of Variance of Job Rating by Salary and Health Plan | 150 |
| 17. | Regression of Job Rating on Predictor Variables for \$34,000 by Individual Health Plan (<i>N</i> = 174) | 206 |
| 18. | Regression of Job Rating on Predictor Variables for \$44,000 by Individual Health Plan (<i>N</i> = 174) | 207 |
| 19. | Regression of Job Rating on Predictor Variables for \$51,000 by Individual Health Plan (<i>N</i> = 174) | 208 |
| 20. | Regression of Job Rating on Predictor Variables for \$34,000 by Family Health Plan (<i>N</i> = 174) | 209 |
| 21. | Regression of Job Rating on Predictor Variables for \$44,000 by Family Health Plan (<i>N</i> = 174) | 210 |
| 22. | Regression of Job Rating on Predictor Variables for \$51,000 by Family Health Plan (<i>N</i> = 174) | 211 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| FIGURE | PAGE |
|--------------------------------------|------|
| 1. Salary by Health Plan Interaction | 152 |

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Recruiting is critical to the success of an organization. It has become increasingly clear that there is a relationship between human resource practices and "bottom line" measures, such as return on assets and investment, profitability, and even organizational survival (Barber, 1998). Effective recruitment facilitates the other stages of the hiring, selection, and training process.

This study addressed the administrative task of recruiting qualified individuals to teach business at two-year community colleges using recruitment simulation techniques employed in both private-sector and education-sector research. Recruitment is distinguished separately from selection. Recruitment involves generating a large pool of job applicants. Selection focuses on identifying the most qualified candidates. In selection hiring officials match applicant abilities with organizational needs (Wanous, 1980). In recruitment the job applicant

matches personal needs with organizational and job characteristics. Although recruitment is an organization function, it also influences job applicant attitudes and behaviors. Alderfer and McCord (1970) highlighted how the recruiter can affect applicant perceptions of an organization, the job, and the likelihood of getting a job offer and accepting a job offer if one is made.

Schwab, Rynes, and Aldag (1987) explored in detail the process of searching for and evaluating job opportunities. The search is dependent on the variety of sources explored and the intensity of the search. The evaluation process is dependent on the content and the process the individual uses to evaluate these searches.

Studies to determine attraction of business candidates to faculty positions are scant (Winter, 1996; Winter, 1998; Winter & Kjorlien, 2000). This study addresses the recruitment of experienced business professionals to serve as college faculty. The operational definition that guided this research is the one developed by Rynes: "Recruitment encompasses all organizational practices and decisions that affect either the number, or types, of individuals who are willing to apply for, or to accept, a given vacancy" (Rynes, 1991, p. 429).

Recruitment Practices

Some of the different ways to recruit new applicants are interviews, newspaper advertisements, Internet job postings, employee referrals, employment agencies (private and public), direct applications, radio advertisements, television advertisements, and college placement centers. Breaugh (1981) studied the effect on absenteeism, performance ratings, and attitudes of job seekers who used newspapers, college placement centers, professional journal ads, and direct applications as a method of job search. Taylor and Schmidt (1983) explored the effect on performance ratings, turnover, and attendance on job seekers who applied through seven different sources (referrals, newspapers, employment services, radio, TV, rehires, direct applications). Winter and Kjorlien (2000) manipulated job characteristics in simulated job advertisements to determine predictors of applicant attraction to job positions.

Turnover and job satisfaction are two key dimensions of interest to the human resource professional to minimize recruitment costs. Is one recruitment practice better than another? The recruitment practice explored in this study is the job advertisement.

Problem

Barber (1998) stated that the success of later human resource efforts of selection, training and compensation depend a large part on the quality and quantity of new employees. Turnover is an issue affecting the continuity of an organization. Careful recruitment, with a clear message about the nature of the job vacancy reduces the frequency of turnover.

Researchers have postulated that job applicants will carefully consider the job attributes when considering a job advertisement (Feldman & Arnold, 1978; Mason & Belt, 1986; Posner, 1981). Due to the massive retirements among members of the post-World War II "baby-boomer" generation, there is an emerging shortage of qualified faculty to teach at American community colleges (Magner, 2000). And, despite the importance of faculty recruitment, there is little empirical research in the post-secondary literature addressing recruitment issues. The lack of relevant studies, and the applicant shortage due to retirements, makes faculty recruitment problematic issue researchers should address empirically.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine factors that impact business professional reactions to community college

business department faculty vacancies. The factors examined were assistant professor starting salary (\$34,000, \$44,000, \$51,000) and employee health insurance (individual, family plan). The dependent variable in the study was rating of a business faculty position. The research questions addressing the above variables are in the next section.

Research Questions

The research questions are as follows:

1. Does starting salary (\$34,000, \$44,000, \$51,000) impact applicant rating of a business faculty position?
2. Does type of paid employee health benefits plan (individual, family plan) impact applicant rating of a business faculty position?
3. Does a two-way interaction between salary (\$34,000, \$44,000, \$51,000) and health plan (individual, family plan) impact applicant rating of a business faculty position?

As a follow-up to the above three questions, the researcher will also address the impact of participant demographic variables on applicant rating of a business faculty position. The research question addressing this issue is as follows:

4. Do participant demographic variables (e.g., age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, willingness, current salary) impact applicant rating of a business faculty position?

The above research questions, formulated as formal null hypotheses, are shown below.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses tested in this study were as follows.

- H₀1: There is no difference in applicant mean rating of a business faculty position associated with annual salary (\$34,000, \$44,000, \$51,000).
- H₀2: There is no difference in applicant mean rating of a business faculty position associated with type of paid health benefits plan (individual, family plan).
- H₀3: There is no difference in applicant mean rating of a business faculty position associated with a two-way interaction between annual salary (\$34,000, \$44,000, \$51,000) and type of paid health plan (individual, family plan).

The null hypothesis related to participant demographic variable is as follows:

H₀4: There is no difference in application mean rating of a business faculty position associated with participant demographic variables (e.g., age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, willingness, current salary).

Definitions

The terms that follow will facilitate reader understanding of the present study.

1. Applicant Perspective - a staffing approach that emphasizes that "... individuals seek jobs that they will find rewarding and that individuals are affected by their experiences in the recruitment and selection process" (Heneman et al., 2000, p.5).
2. External recruitment - the process of identifying and attracting job applicants from outside the organization (Heneman et al., 2000).
3. Job applicant - is a person seeking employment who applies for a vacant position.
4. Job Mobility - whether or not a job applicant is willing to pursue a position that requires the applicant to relocate.

5. Organizational Perspective - a staffing approach that assumes that recruitment and selection practices are undertaken to enhance the survival, profitability, and growth of the organization (Heneman et al., 2000).
6. Person-Group Fit - "the compatibility between individuals and their work group" (Kristof, 1996, p. 7).
7. Person-Job Fit - the match between the ability of a person and the demands of a job (Kristof, 1996)
8. Person-Organization Fit - "the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both" (Kristof, 1996, p. 5).
9. Personal Characteristics - the characteristics of an applicant as described by the hiring organization in its recruitment media.
10. Policy Capturing Study - is a research method where researchers assess job applicant perceptions of the importance of job and organizational attributes inferentially rather than directly. The policy capturing methodology identifies the variance in the overall evaluation that can be attributed to

differing job and organizational attribute levels (Cable & Judge, 1994).

11. Realistic Job Preview - a recruitment practice designed to present applicants with both positive and negative information about the job (Wanous, 1980).
12. Recruitment - "... all organizational practices and decisions that affect either the number, or types, of individuals who are willing to apply for, or to accept, a given vacancy" (Rynes, 1991, p. 329).
13. Recruitment Medium - the communication device (e.g., brochures, newspaper, advertisement, internet) used by organizational representatives to transmit recruitment messages to potential job applicants.
14. Recruitment Message - the information about a job and organization communicated to potential job applicants through recruitment media such as job advertisements for a job vacancy.
15. Recruitment Practice - the internal or external activity carried out by an organization to identify and attract potential employees to an applicant pool (Heneman et al., 2000).
16. Recruitment Source - a communication on vacant job positions. Normally divided into two general

categories: (a) formal recruitment sources (employment agencies, trade unions, college placement offices, advertisements), and (b) informal recruitment sources (referrals, walk-ins, write-ins).

17. Staffing - "... the mutual process by which the individual and the organization become matched to form the employment relationship" (Heneman et al., 2000, p. 4).
18. Traditional Job Preview - recruitment messages (e.g., recruitment brochures, videotaped presentations, job postings) designed to present job applicants with only positive information about the job (Wanous, 1980).

A review of the research that framed this study is in the next chapter.

CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

This study addressed the administrative task of recruiting business professionals to teach in business departments located at two-year community colleges. Recruiting represents the first step in hiring capable people into an organization and is an administrative task essential to organizational success. Knowledge of the recruiting process can have a profound effect on an organization in terms of acquiring needed human capital. Recruiting is a process that requires positive decisions by both parties - the applicant and the organization. For the process to conclude successfully, individuals and organizations must identify a possible employment relationship (Schwab, 1982). The applicant must respond in the affirmative to the various steps of job attribute analysis, job application, interview, and offer acceptance. The organization must also respond in the affirmative by posting a job vacancy announcement, accepting applications,

screening applicants for further consideration, conducting interviews, and making job offers.

This literature review consists of empirical studies about recruitment practices. It includes laboratory and field investigations that examine the effects of various recruitment practices. The purpose of this literature review is to inform design, selection of possible independent and dependent variables, variable measurement, instrument development, and understanding of recruitment theory. This review begins with a review of private sector employment practices where most of the studies on recruitment originated. The sub-sections of private sector review include *Recruiter Effects*, *Recruitment Sources*, *Realistic Job Previews*, *Applicant Job Choice Decisions*, *Person-Organization Fit Studies*, and *Business College Recruitment*. A review of recruitment theories, models, and recruitment study designs concludes the literature review. This private-sector recruitment review follows the organization described by Rynes (1991). The focus of this study is on recruiting individuals from the private-sector to teach at two-year community colleges.

Private Sector Recruitment Studies

Competition in the private sector requires the identification, attraction, and hiring of the best

applicants for survival of an organization. Schwab (1982) stated that each year organizations fill millions of jobs from the external labor market. Schwab continued by stating that economics drive how an organization obtains new employees from external labor markets and how individuals seek and choose among organizational opportunities. Recruitment studies have focused primarily on three topics: recruiters, recruitment sources, and realistic job previews (Rynes, 1991). The section that follows examines the literature about recruiter effects.

Recruiter Effects

The recruiter affects the process of attracting a large pool of quality applicants for position vacancies. The place of the interview in the recruitment of personnel has a long and controversial history (Alderfer & McCord, 1970). The following studies focus on the impact of the recruiter's personality, behavior during recruitment interviews, and method of conducting the interview.

Alderfer and McCord (1970) conducted an empirical study to investigate applicant reactions to an interviewer. First and second-year master degree students ($N = 112$) at the Graduate School of Business and Public Administration at Cornell University participated in the study. The students completed a questionnaire about three previous

interviews. They classified the interviews as best, worst, or average. Seventeen statements about interviewer attitudes, traits, and behaviors measured the independent variables. These statements used a 6-point Likert-type scale with two anchors (1 = *strongly agree*, 6 = *strongly disagree*). The 17 items consisted of positive statements such as, "The interviewer seemed interested in the kind of contributions I could give to the company", and "I felt as though I could trust what the interviewer said" (Alderfer & McCord, p. 381).

The applicant's estimation of the probability of receiving and accepting a job offer from the previous interviews operationalized the dependent variables in the study. The participants responded to two items designed to estimate the probability of receiving and accepting a job offer from each of the three interviews. A scale ranging from 0 (*no probability*) to 1 (*certain probability*) recorded their responses. The applicants circled a 1 for the first item, if they had received a job offer, plus a 1 for the second item if they accepted the job. The applicants entered a zero for the second item if they turned the job offer down.

The researchers used Pearson product-moment correlations to estimate the relationship between

applicant's responses to the 17 statements about perceived interviewer characteristics and the probabilities that the applicants would receive and accept a job offer. Results showed that interviewer characteristics related significantly to candidates expecting to receive job offers for the following traits: (a) interviewer willingness and ability to answer questions, (b) interviewer interest in the candidate, (c) interviewer understanding the MBA point-of-view, (d) interviewer trustworthiness and likeability, (e) interviewer interest in the contribution of the candidate, (f) interviewer familiarity with the background of the candidate, (g) interviewer appearance of youthfulness and success, and (h) interviewer ability to make the candidate feel comfortable.

Schmitt and Coyle (1976) determined the impact of interviewer personality, manner of delivery, and adequacy of job information on the likelihood of accepting a job offer. The respondents were undergraduates ($N = 237$) at Michigan State University who were applying for summer or permanent jobs. Questionnaires were mailed to students with instructions to rate their perceptions of the last interview they had. The first part of the questionnaire consisted of 74 items to be evaluated on Likert-type scales. These items measured the independent variables. The

researchers used factor analysis to reduce the 74 items to six factors: (a) interviewer warmth and thoughtfulness, (b) interviewer manner of delivery, (c) interviewer aggressiveness, (d) interviewer correctness in presentation and speech patterns, (e) interviewer presentation of job information, and (f) interviewer willingness to express an opinion and to ascertain the opinion of the applicant.

The second part of the questionnaire consisted of nine items that operationalized the dependent variables: (a) applicant impression of the interviewer and the company, (b) applicant likelihood of receiving a job offer, and (c) applicant probability of accepting a job offer. The participants responded to seven of the nine items on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The remaining two items were measured as follows: (a) student received a job offer (*yes, uncertain, no*), and (b) student accepted a job offer (*yes, no*).

The researchers used multiple regression analysis to analyze the data. The primary factor that accounted for most of the variance in the applicant rating of the interview was the empathy dimension (the interviewer's warmth and thoughtfulness). Other factors included the interviewer's clarity of questions, the specificity with which the interviewer responded to questions, self-

confidence, and amount of job information provided. Three factors predicted the perception of likelihood of a job offer - the interviewer's friendliness, warmth, and willingness to share information about the job. The results as a whole supported the conclusion that the interviewer is important in job acceptance. Interviewees formed an overall impression of the goodness or badness of an interviewer and that this was an important factor in the employment decision they made.

Rogers and Sincoff (1978) determined if the effects of three variables (recruiter age, recruiter title, and recruiter presentation) had an effect on job applicants. Underlying the purpose of this study was the relevant experiential, empirical, and experimental literature that addressed the question, "What characteristics of a campus recruiter make a good impression on college students?" The independent variables were: (a) age (20, 30, 50), (b) title of interviewer (no title, title of recruiting director), and (c) the quality of the interview (good, poor). Manipulation of the three independent variables determined the student impression (dependent variable).

Participants were undergraduates ($N = 376$) at Ohio State. Researchers divided the participants into two groups and introduced them to three interviewers. The researchers

provided only the name of the interviewer to one group of participants as they prepared to evaluate him. The other group was told the interviewer's name, title, and organization. Eliminating incomplete and excess questionnaires provided a final sample ($N = 312$) of completed questionnaires for analysis to meet the proportionality test of the $3 \times 2 \times 2$ factorial design. The researchers performed three post hoc tests to complete the analysis of between group means. Results indicated that interviewer title, age, and presentation influenced participant impressions of the recruiter.

The study supported the position of interviewer training. An important factor was the need to let applicants know the title of the interviewer. There was an impression that the students were either impressed with the title, the organization's commitment to sending an interviewer of stature, or the initial establishment of a relationship.

Fisher, Ilgen, and Hoyer (1979) investigated how the perceived trustworthiness, expertise, and liking of four sources of job-related information influenced the credibility of the source and the decision to join the organization. Seniors ($N = 99$) from Purdue University read prepared information about a job and completed a

questionnaire. The independent variables were job information source (friend, incumbent, recruiter, professor) and job information favorability (positive, negative). The questionnaire measured four dependent variables: (a) trustworthiness, (b) perceived expertise, (c) liking of the person who provided the information, and (d) choice of acceptance of a job offer. A three-item scale measured the variables trustworthiness, perceived expertise, and liking of the source. A four-item scale measured the decision to accept an offer. All measures used a 5-point Likert-type scale (5 = *strongly agree*, 4 = *agree*, 3 = *uncertain*, 2 = *disagree*, 1 = *strongly disagree*).

The researchers used a 2 x 4 factorial design and a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and found that both the most and least trusted sources (incumbent and interviewer) were company employees. The interviewer was the least liked source by a considerable margin, while the friend, professor, and the incumbent were the highest trusted sources of information. The campus interviewer/recruiter was the least trusted source and negatively affected the likelihood of job acceptance.

Herriot and Rothwell (1981) performed two experimental studies to investigate the effects of job advertisement brochures and interviews on application attraction to a

job. The experiments were undergirded by decision theory. Decision theory in its basic form involves the assessment of two variables, the individual's beliefs about the outcomes of choosing one alternative or another, and evaluation of those outcomes, whether positive or negative. The prediction of a choice will be the sum of the highest composite index. Further studies by the same author found that two other variables helped predict better outcomes. These two subjective norms variables were the perception of others on the alternatives, and the beliefs of attainability of the alternative. Because these conclusions were all correlational, an experiment was necessary to improve its credibility.

In Experiment 1, second year engineering students ($N = 96$) participated. The independent variables were brochure type (employer, control group), pretest (yes, no), post-test (immediate, delayed), quantity of information about research and work variety (high, low), and company type (nationalized, private). The dependent variables in the study was a composite-score rating that included recruitment outcomes such as intentions to pursue the job, beliefs regarding the job, expectancies of obtaining the job, and applicant's perceptions of the beliefs of referent others regarding the job.

The researchers operationalized the dependent variable via a questionnaire using Likert-type scales. Utilizing a series of univariate 3-way analyses of variance with unequal cell sizes to analyze the data, the findings suggested that a high number of mentions of research opportunities and work experience variety, significantly influenced applicants intentions to apply for the job as compared to brochures with low mentions of the same levels. Findings also suggested intentions dissipated over time and the mention of research and work variety had a high positive impact on attraction to the job.

Herriot and Rothwell (1981) used a multiple regression analysis to analyze the dependent variables (expectancy to obtain a job, beliefs about the job, and applicant perceptions of the beliefs of referent others) recast as independent variables. The results demonstrated that only applicant expectation for obtaining a job was a significant predictor of applicant intention to apply for the job. This provided limited support for the expectancy theory concerning the job applicant decision-making context.

In Experiment 2, the researchers investigated interviewer effects using five groups of graduating students ($N = 72$) as participants in a study similar to Experiment 1. The independent variables in the study were

interview status (interviewed, not interviewed), order of questions about ideal versus actual interview outcomes (ideal first, actual first), and a post-test (immediate, delayed). An ANOVA indicated that interviews resulted in lower applicant ratings of intentions to accept a job, and applicant ratings of intentions to accept a job dissipated when the post-test treatment condition was delayed.

The researchers then used a multiple regression analysis, similar to Experiment 1, to reanalyze the dependent variables (expectancy to obtain a job, beliefs about the job, and applicant perceptions of the beliefs of referent others) as independent variables. Results indicated that the applicant probability of accepting the job was influenced by the applicant's beliefs about the job, the applicant's perception of the beliefs of referent others concerning the job, and applicant's expectation of obtaining the job.

Rynes and Miller (1983) conducted two experiments to investigate the influence of recruiter behavior and job attributes on job applicant employment decisions. The first experiment focused exclusively on recruiter behaviors. The second experiment extended the study by adding job attributes as factors that may influence the job applicant employment decision. Undergraduate students ($N = 133$)

participated in Experiment 1. The students viewed a videotape of a mock interview for an entry-level sales position that operationalized the independent variables of recruiter behavior (positive, negative) and recruiter knowledge of the job (high, low). The recruiter exhibited positive behavior by steady eye conduct, frequent smiling and nods of encouragement, verbal approval of applicant responses, and positive reactions to applicant attempts at humor. Negative recruiter behavior included limited eye contact with applicant, infrequent smiling, ignoring applicant attempts at humor, and the appearance of desiring to terminate the interview as soon as possible. Knowledgeable recruiters informed students of the average salary and career opportunities. Unknowledgeable recruiters withheld the career opportunities information but did communicate the average salary.

The experiment had four dependent variables: (a) assessments of the recruiter, (b) perceived likelihood that the organization would pursue the applicant after the first interview, (c) assessments of the desirability of the job and organization, and (d) whether the applicant would continue pursuing the organization after the initial interview. The applicants assessed recruiter behavior and knowledge via a 9-item questionnaire with either a 4-point

or 5-point scale. The researchers used a MANOVA to determine how recruiter behavior and knowledge impacted the dependent variables. Results showed that recruiters with a positive affect are perceived to be better organizational representatives, associated with favorable perception of how well the organization members are treated, and influence applicants to be willing to attend a second interview.

Experiment 2 combined the recruiter affect manipulation of Experiment 1 with variations in the attractiveness of the job portrayed in the interview. Undergraduate students ($N = 178$) in business viewed a videotape of a mock interview that operationalized the independent variables of job characteristics (attractive, unattractive), and recruiter behaviors (positive, negative). Manipulating salary (\$17,000 versus \$12,500 starting salary), benefits (3 weeks versus 1 week annual vacation), working condition (car choice paid by company, or mileage reimbursement), and job assignment (50% probability of getting your first choice of eight versus being assigned a territory) operationalized the job attractiveness characteristics. The recruiter behavior attributes remained the same as in Experiment 1.

The dependent variables were the same as in Experiment 1: (a) assessments of the recruiter, (b) perceived likelihood that the organization would pursue the applicant after the first interview, (c) assessments of the desirability of the job and organization, and (d) whether the applicant would continue pursuing the organization after the initial interview. The applicants assessed recruiter behavior and job characteristics via an 8-item questionnaire with either a 4-point or 5-point scale. The researchers then computed a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to determine how recruiter behavior and job characteristics impacted the dependent variables. Unlike Experiment 1, results suggested that recruiter affect did not influence applicant willingness to pursue the job. Attractive job characteristics were found to influence applicant willingness to accept a second interview and job, if offered. The combined findings indicated that recruiter knowledge and job attractiveness have more effect on applicants than recruiter behavior.

Powell (1984) combined the work of previous researchers by integrating the effects of job attributes and recruiting practices in a study on the likelihood of job acceptance by actual job applicants. Graduating college students ($N = 200$) who had attended actual interviews at a

college placement center participated in the study. The independent variables were job attributes and recruitment interview. Students completed a post interview questionnaire to operationalize the independent variables. The questionnaire had a 7-point Likert-type scale with two anchors (1 = *very weak*, 7 = *very strong*) that measured 15 job attributes. A scale with 11 items with two different anchors (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*) concerning recruitment interviews measured recruitment interviews.

The dependent variable was a score rating the likelihood of job acceptance as assessed by one question, "Given how you feel now, what are the chances that you would accept a job offer if one was made to you by this company?" The participant had six choices (0%, 10%, 20%, 80%, 90%, 100%). The researchers used path analysis on these variables to determine the simultaneous effect. The examination of the effects of job attributes and recruiting practices simultaneously on likelihood of job acceptance found a significant effect on job attributes only.

Harn and Thornton (1985) conducted a study that identified behaviors related to recruiter warmth and thoughtfulness. The researchers also identified other variables that influence the relationship between job

applicant perceptions of recruiter warmth and thoughtfulness with willingness to accept a job offer. Graduating college students ($N = 105$) agreed to complete a questionnaire after participating in a real job interview held on campus. The independent variables in the study were (a) the applicant impression of recruiter counseling behaviors, (b) indications that applicant was suitable for the job, (c) recruiter informativeness, (d) recruiter interpersonal sensitivity, and (e) recruiter listening skills. The dependent variables were the perceived recruiter warmth and friendliness, and willingness to accept an offer.

The researchers operationalized the variables with a five-part questionnaire. Part one of the questionnaire contained the demographics of the participants. Parts two and three consisted of measures of the recruiter interviewer behavior in six areas: (a) understanding, (b) acceptance, (c) genuineness, (d) communication skills, (e) fulfilling an implied counselor-client contract, and (f) rapport building. Part two had a 7-point Likert-type scale with two anchors (1 = *never*, 7 = *constantly*). Part three consisted of a true or false response. Part four of the questionnaire consisted of 20 items on a 5-point Likert scale with two anchors (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly*

agree). These items measured the applicant impressions of the recruiter warmth and thoughtfulness. Part five consisted on two questions, "If I were offered a job by the company, I would probably accept it," and "The recruiter was representative of the employees in this company." A 7-point Likert scale with two anchors (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*) measured the responses.

Horn and Thornton (1985) used factor analysis and multiple regression procedures to analyze the survey responses. The results of the study indicated that non-directive counseling behaviors, listening skills, and interpersonal sensitivity were strongly related to warmth and thoughtfulness, recruiter listening skills relate to applicant willingness to accept a job offer, and when the recruiter is seen as representative of the company there is a stronger relationship between counseling behaviors and willingness to accept a job offer.

Liden and Parsons (1986) conducted a study to determine the effects of low level job entry interviews, pressure of parents' and friends to accept the job, alternative job opportunities, and behavioral intentions to accept the job. Job applicants ($N = 422$) to a seasonal part time job opportunity responded to a questionnaire to determine what factors related to applicants' intent to

accept the job if offered, and second, consider how race and sex of applicants and interviewers related to perceptions of interviewers' behaviors and overall reactions towards the interview.

Questionnaire items captured applicant perception of the interviewer, general affect concerning the interview, general affect concerning the job, external influences, and intentions of accepting a job offer. A 20-item scale adopted from Schmitt and Coyle (1976) captured perceptions of the interviewer. A two-item scale assessed the general interview effect. A single-item scale measured the general job effect. A four-item scale measured external influences. A single-item scale measured job acceptance intention. Because the influence of a common method measured all the variables with a single questionnaire, variance was a concern. Responses sorted into two categories: those that should vary across interviewers, and those that should not be affected by interviewers.

Correlations and univariate analysis indicated that the general affect towards the interview was most strongly influenced by the interviewer's personableness. The length of the interview did not strongly affect the desirability of a job. Black applicants saw the interviewers as less competent. (All interviewers were White, 54% of applicants

were Black.) Parental and friend pressure influenced acceptance intentions more than any other factor.

Harris and Fink (1987) conducted a pre-post study design in a naturally occurring setting to investigate whether recruiter characteristics were related to perceived job attributes and intentions to accept a job, and to determine if recruiter influence on job applicants was moderated by applicant characteristics, job attributes, and interview characteristics. A college graduating student population ($N = 145$) on campus interviews participated at the university placement office. The independent variables were applicant impressions of the recruiter (personableness, competence, informativeness, aggressiveness), recruiter sex, and personnel versus line recruiter. A 33-item, 5-point Likert scale with two anchors (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*) measured the perception of the recruiter.

The dependent variables in the study were applicant perceptions of the job attributes, expectancy of job offer, intentions to accept the job, and regard for the company. Attributes measured were the job itself, work/company environment, compensation/job security, and minor fringe benefits. Job attributes measured the likelihood the company had the characteristics on a 5-point Likert scale

with two anchors (1 = *very unlikely*, 5 = *very likely*). A single question, "How likely is it that you will be offered a job by this company?" answered on a 5-point scale where 1 = *very unlikely* and 5 = *very likely*) measured expectancy of a job offer. Another single item assessed overall attractiveness of or regard for the job, "Overall how attractive is this job?" (1 = *very unattractive*, 7 = *very attractive*). "If you were offered this job, would you accept it?" (1 = *very unlikely*, 5 = *very likely*), and "If you were offered this job, would you accept it immediately?" (1 = *definitely not*, 5 = *definitely would*) measured intention to accept the job. Regard for the company measured with a single item scale, "How highly do you regard this company?" (1 = *hold in low regard*, 5 = *hold in high regard*).

Harris and Fink (1987) used correlations and multiple regressions to show a significant relationship between recruiter characteristics and the participant perceptions of the job itself and job attributes, participant regard for the company and the job, and participant likelihood of joining the organization. The researchers also found a significant relationship between previous work experience and the participant perceptions of the job itself, compensation/job security, regard for the job, and

intention to accept the job. Extensive review of the hypothesis regarding the effects of moderating variables indicated that only the number of previous interviews had an effect on the participant's regard for the company.

Taylor and Bergman (1987) conducted a cross sectional longitudinal field study to determine the influence of job attributes and recruitment practices during a five-stage recruitment program. The five-stages were defined as: (a) campus interview, (b) post-campus stage, (c) site visit, (d) job offer, and (e) job offer decision. A total of 1,286 applicants participated in the study. They selected from a larger pool of candidates who had interviewed for a large national manufacturer. The participants completed questionnaires at the various stages of the employment process.

At the campus interview stage, the independent variables were recruiter demographics (age, educational degree, job tenure, interview training, race, recruiting experience, sex, job type), recruiter descriptions of interviews (percentage of time spent evaluating applicants, selling the organization, leading the interview conversation, empathy, evaluation, defensiveness), and applicant descriptions of recruiter interview behavior (empathy, job information). At the post-campus stage, the

variables were interview and response lag time, the communication medium used to interact with applicants, and timeliness of contact determined during the interview.

During the third stage (site visit), the independent variables were pre-visit discussions of information about the job and travel arrangements, and applicant treatment during the visit. During the job offer and the job offer decision stages, the participant rated the way the company extended the offer, company contacts with applicants during the decision period, and the way applicant was treated during the decision period.

The researchers performed a principal component analysis with varimax rotation to reduce the data to a smaller set of predictors. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis examined the data. Results for the campus interview indicated that recruiter demographic characteristics are significantly related to applicant's reactions. Applicants tended to view older recruiters, female recruiters, and recruiters affiliated with personnel departments as representative of a less attractive potential employer. Applicants interviewed by recruiters who held bachelors degrees, rather than graduate degrees, tended to report a lower probability of job offer acceptance. Female applicants who where interviewed by

male recruiters report a higher probability of offer acceptance than those interviewed by females.

Results of analysis of the post-campus interviews found no significant evidence to indicate an affect of the timeliness of follow-up, the time lag, or the medium (phone call) used to communicate with the participant. Analyses performed on the final three recruitment stages - site visit, job offer and job offer decision, provide strong support that significant relationship of job attributes to applicants reactions across the recruitment stages exist.

In summary, general findings of recruiter effects indicated that the more warmth shown towards the applicant during recruitment interviews, the more positive the applicant's reaction to the recruiter, the hiring organization, and the job vacancy (Alderfer & McCord, 1970; Horn & Thornton, 1985; Schmitt & Coyle, 1976). The affect of job attributes descriptions in the interview process was new knowledge and the most significant factor affecting job acceptance (Powell, 1984; Rynes & Miller, 1983). Supported by new studies (Harris & Fink, 1987; Taylor & Bergman, 1987), the most consistent positive influence on applicant ratings of a job after the recruitment interview were the behavior and personality of the recruiter, and the manner

in which the recruiter conducted the recruitment interview including information on job attributes.

Recruitment Sources

As suggested by Fisher, Ilgen, and Hoyer (1979) many sources of job availability exist. Previous studies have focused on recruiters as sources for recruitment. Other forms of recruitment sources exist. The most popular applicant sources include employee referrals, employment agencies (including private and government), newspaper, radio, and walk-ins. Organizations need to understand the successes, limitations, and effectiveness of the various sources in order to maximize their job applicant pool. This section examines the literature on the various sources of recruitment.

Hill (1970) studied the effects of referrals by workers as a source of job applicants on worker performance. Three insurance companies clerical workers ($N = 203$) participated in the study. The companies, identified as Company A ($n = 39$), Company B ($n = 94$), and Company C ($n = 70$), were of different sizes and located in different metropolitan areas. The independent variable was the type of employee referral: referral (acquaintance of employee) and non-referral (walk-in, job advertisement, other). The

dependent variable was the performance rating of the new employee.

The researcher reviewed the company records in Company A to identify the performance ratings. Participants indicated on a questionnaire the recruitment channel to the company (walk-in, employment agency, want ads, and employee referral). Hill (1970) calculated the mean performance rating for all workers and compared the two groups (referral, non-referrals). The *t*-test performed indicated no significance differences between the mean score of the referral and non-referral groups.

Hill (1970) reviewed the company records for Company B and Company C to identify the performance ratings. Participants responded to a questionnaire to indicate if they had obtained accurate or inaccurate pre-hire information from the intermediary friend and to indicate the type of relationship they had with the intermediary friend (close relationship, casual relationship). The researcher used this data to group the participants into two groups. One group indicated they had received good pre-hire information and had a close relationship with the intermediary friend. The other group indicated they had inaccurate pre-hire information and a casual relationship to the intermediary friend. A *t*-test indicated there was

significance between the accurate pre-hire-close relationship group and the inaccurate information-casual relationship group. As in Company A, the mean performance rating for non-referrals calculation and comparison to the overall mean for referrals, indicated that the performance ratings between workers recruited through employee referrals and non-referrals were not statistically significant.

Gannon (1971) conducted a study to test the hypothesis that recruiting patterns of six sources of referral are predictive of employee turnover. The researcher conducted a longitudinal study of bank employees ($N = 6,390$). The independent variable was the referral source (employee referral, employment agencies, advertisements, rehires, high schools referrals, others [walk-ins]). The dependent variable was annual quit rate. Results of a chi-square analysis demonstrated that four sources of referral predicted stable employees, namely, the rehires of former employees, high school referrals, employee referrals, and others (walk-ins).

Reid (1972) investigated the effectiveness of job-finding methods on employee turnover. Laid-off engineering and metals trade workers ($N = 876$) participated in the study. The independent variables in an open ended

questionnaire were: (a) direct application with firm, (b) advertisements, (c) employment services, (d) trade union, (e) friend/relative, (f) private employment agency, (g) casual application, and (h) other (rehire). The dependent variable was annual employee turnover. The results of an analysis of variance indicated that workers who found jobs through employee referral stayed on the job longer than workers who found jobs through advertisements, employment services, and others (walk-ins).

Decker and Cornelius (1979) investigated several recruiting sources to determine the relationship with job survival. Participants were employees of an insurance company, a bank, and a professional abstracting service ($N = 2,466$). Similar to Gannon (1971) and Reid (1972) the independent variable in the study was referral source (newspaper advertisement, employment agency, employee referral, walk-in). The dependent variable was annual employee-quit rate. Employee records provided the referral source and if the employee had quit, regardless of voluntary or involuntary termination. The researchers used chi-square analyses to analyze the data. Findings indicated that employee referrals were a good recruiting source, employment agencies are a poor recruiting source,

and referral source is significantly related to job survival in the insurance company and bank.

Breaugh (1981) conducted a field study to determine the relationship between recruitment sources and employee performance, absenteeism, and work attitudes. Research scientists ($N = 112$) working for a large midwestern organization participated in the study. The independent variable was referral source (newspapers, college placement, journal/convention ads, direct applications). The personnel files of the participants provided the recruitment source data. The dependent variables were worker performance, absenteeism, and work attitude. Work attitude measured the attributes of work satisfaction, satisfaction with supervisor, and job involvement. Personnel files recorded worker performance and absenteeism of the previous 12 months. A four-dimension scale (quality, quantity, dependability, and job knowledge) recorded performance ratings. The participants completed a questionnaire to indicate their work attitude.

The researcher used a univariate analysis of variance to test for the existence of any group differences in the demographics variable. There was no statistical significance among the demographic variables of age, sex, education, years with company, years in current position,

and years under present supervisor. Correlation analyses indicated slight intercorrelations between the four performance ratings. The three work attitude variables were also slightly intercorrelated. Due to its general lack of association with the other dependent variables, univariate analysis of variance assessed employee absenteeism differences. Multivariate analysis of variance identified the effects of recruitment sources on employee performance and work attitude variables.

Results indicated (a) highly significant multivariate effects for employee performance, absenteeism, and worker attitudes; (b) the employees recruited through direct application or professional journal/convention had a higher performance rating compared to employees recruited through college placement and newspapers ads; (c) employees recruited through newspaper ads missed almost twice as many workdays as those recruited through college placement, journal ads, or direct application; and (d) job involvement and satisfaction with supervision was significantly less with workers recruited through college placement as compared to those recruited through newspapers, journal ads, or direct application.

Quaglieri (1982) examined how job information provided to job applicants varied between sources of referral.

Recently graduated business students ($N = 64$) participated in the study six weeks after beginning their new jobs. Three general types of referrals classified the independent variables: (a) formal (newspaper ad, agencies, and journal ads); (b) informal (friends, relatives); and (c) walk-ins (direct applicants). The dependent variables were participant perceptions of job source accuracy and specificity in describing the job.

The participants completed a questionnaire that operationalized the variables. Participants responded to demographic information to indicate company tenure, work, tenure, age, sex, and the referral source. A 5-point Likert-type scale measured job source accuracy and specificity. The item job source accuracy measure had two anchors (1 = *very accurate*, 5 = *totally inaccurate*). The item measuring job specificity had two anchors (1 = *all specific*, 5 = *all general*). The researcher used one-way analysis of variance to determine the accuracy and specificity differences among the recruitment sources. Results showed that informal sources (friend, relatives) and walk-ins (direct applicants) provided more specific and accurate information about the job as compared to formal sources (newspaper ads, agencies, and journal ads).

Caldwell and Spivey (1983) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between recruiting source and race of successful employees. A racially mixed group (Blacks, $n = 370$; Whites, $n = 832$; Asians, Native Americans, and Spanish surnamed, $n = 198$) of store clerks participated in the study. The independent variable was recruitment source (referrals, in-store notice, employment services, newspaper ads) provided by the employee's application. The dependent variables in the study were employee performance (satisfactory, unsatisfactory) and employee turnover (short term, long term).

The researchers used Chi-square analysis to analyze the data obtained from company files and a significant relationship between recruiting source and race of successful employees was found. Findings showed that media announcement were more effective in recruiting successful Black employees, in-store ads were more effective for recruiting successful White employees, and employee referrals were more effective for recruiting successful Asian, Native American, and Spanish surnamed employees.

Taylor and Schmidt (1983) conducted a study to determine the differences in recruitment source effectiveness. Seasonal hires for a packaging plant ($N = 293$) participated in the study. The independent variable

was the recruiting source (employee referrals, newspaper advertisements, public employment office referrals, radio advertisements, rehires from previous seasonal work, television ads, and unsolicited walk-ins). Employee records provided the data. The dependent variables were job performance rating, tenure, and attendance ratings. Employee records provided participant performance, tenure, and attendance ratings. Four identified moderating variables established individual differences. These were: (a) height and weight, (b) sex, (c) previous pay, and (d) shift preference. Data were collected from job applications completed prior to time of hire.

Taylor and Schmidt (1983) postulated four hypothesis for the study: (a) the seven recruiting sources will differ in effectiveness as evaluated by job performance, job tenure, and attendance; (b) employees recruited from sources believed to provide more realistic job information (employee referrals and rehires) will show longer organizational tenure than those recruited from sources less likely to present realistic information (television ads, radio, newspaper, and walk-ins); (c) employees recruited from more or less effective sources will differ significantly with respect to individual characteristics related to job success; and (d) with individual

characteristics held constant, employees recruited from various sources will no longer differ in effectiveness as evaluated by performance, tenure, and attendance.

The researchers used analyses of variance and hierarchical multiple regression analysis to demonstrate: (a) no differences in performance rating according to recruiting source; (b) rehires had longer tenure and less absenteeism; (c) rehires differed in terms of individual characteristics variate; and (d) controlling for individual differences, no source difference were found for absenteeism and turnover.

Breaugh and Mann (1984) conducted a field study to investigate realism and individual differences as alternative explanations for recruitment source effects. The sample for this study consisted of 98 social service workers. The independent variable was recruitment source (newspaper ads, employee referrals, direct applications). The dependent variables were employee performance ratings and employee turnover within 12 months. The participants completed a questionnaire indicating demographic information (sex, race, age, education level), perceived ease of movement, and recruitment source for the job. Participant personnel records provided employee ability

(quality) information, performance ratings, and retention data.

The researchers performed an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to analyze the data. Results indicated workers who were recruited through employee referral reported a more realistic view of the job compared to workers recruited through newspaper ads and direct applications, and workers recruited through newspaper ads were more likely to be older males compared to workers who were recruited through employee referrals and direct applications. Two additional ancillary statistical analyses on employee performance ratings and retention rate conducted indicated that workers who applied directly to the organization received a higher performance rating compared to workers recruited through newspaper ads and employee referrals, and workers recruited through employee referrals experienced fewer involuntary terminations compared to workers recruited through newspaper ads.

Swaroff, Barclay, and Bass (1985) conducted a field study in which they examined the relationship between recruiting source, employee tenure, and productivity. Professional technical salespersons ($N = 618$) employed by a large corporation participated in the study. The independent variable was recruitment source (employee

referrals, direct applications, newspaper ads, employment agencies, college recruitment). Background demographic variables were age, marital status, and number of prior jobs. The dependent variables were voluntary turnover within two years and performance (rating and percentage of sales quota in first and second years). All the data was obtained from personnel records.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA), *t*-test, and univariate analysis conducted on the data indicated no significant differences between recruiting sources relative to employee turnover, and no differences between recruiting sources relative to employee performance. Referral source did relate to all three demographic variables.

In summary, these early studies found that recruitment sources have been classified into two major categories—formal (newspaper ads, journals, television, radio, employment agencies, college placement services) and informal (friends, relatives). Research on the effectiveness of the different recruitment sources have indicated the informal recruitment sources provide longer tenure employees than do more formal sources (Decker & Cornelius, 1979; Gannon, 1971; Reid, 1972). Other studies have suggested that the realism of personal referrals has an effect on productivity or personnel performance

(Breaugh, 1981; Breaugh & Mann, 1984; Taylor & Schmidt, 1983)

Realistic Job Previews

Retaining employees after recruiting them is one of the key functions of effective human resource management. Many researchers have studied the relationship between retention and job expectations (Reilly, Tenopyr, & Sperling, 1979; Wanous, 1973, 1976). Job expectations are developed through job previews. Recruitment researchers classified job previews as: (a) traditional job previews (TJPs) and (b) realistic job previews (RJPs). TJPs present applicants with only positive information about the job and the organization. TJPs suggest that when positive job and organization information is presented it will attract a large number of job applicants. RJPs differ in that they present realistic information about a position, including the negative aspects.

Wanous (1973) was the first to study the survival rate of applicants based on RJPs. According to Wanous (1973), realistic job previews function as a screening device for applicants who are likely to quit as a result of a poor match with the organization. Wanous (1980) developed two hypotheses to explain the effects of realistic job previews: (a) realistic information allows applicants to

self-select in to or out of jobs according to applicant needs and (b) realistic information reduces employee turnover by creating pre-employment expectations consistent with post-employment work realities. Self-selection involves the matching of an applicant's needs with an organization's climate and ability to fulfill those needs (Rynes, 1991; Wanous, 1992). The following section examines the literature on these postulates.

Wanous (1973) conducted a longitudinal field experiment to determine the effects of job previews on job acceptance, job attitudes, and job survival. Telephone operator applicants ($N = 80$) who volunteered to view one of two job preview films after receiving a job offer but prior to accepting the position participated in the study. The researcher randomly administered one of two fifteen-minute job preview films to the applicants. Film one provided only positive traditional information about the job and film two provided realistic positive and negative information. The independent variable was job preview. Initial job acceptance, initial job attitude, and job survival were the dependent variables in the study.

A modified Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Randall, & Hulin, 1969) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) measured the

effect of job preview on job acceptance and job attitude. The instrument instructions to the job applicants asked the participants to think in terms of "preferences" for each item on the questionnaire. The researcher used "realistic expectations when I become an operator" to measure initial job attitude. The measure for job survival was a self-report of thoughts to leave the job after one month and continued employment three months after beginning employment. Wanous (1973) used independent samples *t*-tests to analyze the data. The results indicated that participants who reviewed the realistic job preview had more realistic job expectations, fewer thoughts of quitting, and a slightly higher job survival compared to participants given the traditional preview. There was no difference in job acceptance rates between the two groups.

Wanous (1976) conducted two experiments to determine individual perception of organizational and job characteristics when individuals move from outsiders to newcomers and then to insiders of an organization. In Experiment 1, MBA students ($N = 861$) from three graduate business schools in New York City participated. The independent variable was organizational entry point with three levels: (a) prior to entry (outsider), (b) shortly after entry (newcomer), and (c) after more experience

(insider). The dependent variables in the study were applicant perceptions of either the intrinsic or extrinsic aspects of the organization.

A questionnaire with a 6-point Likert-type scale assessed the student perception of the organization. Wanous (1976) analyzed the effects of organizational entry by using one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) for the intrinsic and extrinsic factors. A factor analysis showed most of the common variance resulted from two main factors. Factor I consisted of intrinsic items such as the basic educational processes, the quality of teaching, and the chance to gain a great deal of knowledge. Factor II consisted of extrinsic items and included characteristics more tangential to the learning process such as tuition and program scheduling. Results indicated that organizational entry influenced student expectations for the intrinsic factor but not the extrinsic factor.

Telephone operators ($N = 46$) participated in Experiment 2 by completing a 7-point Likert-type scale questionnaire administered at three organizational entry points: (a) initial contact with the employment office, (b) after one month of employment, and (c) after three months of employment. The entry points were levels of the independent variable. The dependent variable was the

applicant perception of either the intrinsic or extrinsic aspect of the organization.

The researcher used the questionnaires and a modified Short Form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) to measure the applicant perception. Composite scores computed and repeated measures of analysis of variance indicated that organizational entry had a significant effect on outsider expectations for both intrinsic and extrinsic factors for the telephone operators. Wanous (1976) concluded:

. . . that intrinsic factors seem to be the ones most in need of a "realistic job preview". Recruitment personnel at both the telephone company and the three business schools found it much easier to communicate factual material than to articulate the subtle, intrinsic aspects of organizational climate. Closing the gap between naïve expectations and realistic beliefs will continue to be a thorny practical problem for many organizations. (p. 28)

Reilly, Tenopyr, and Sperling (1979) investigated the effects of job previews on job acceptance and turnover among telephone operator candidates. The researchers tested two hypotheses during this study: (a) job offer acceptance by candidates receiving the RJP would be significantly lower than other groups, and (b) applicants who accept jobs under realistic conditions would survive at a higher rate. Candidates for a telephone operator

position ($N = 325$) participated in the study. The researchers randomly assigned the participants to one of three groups: (a) realistic, (b) favorable, or (c) control job preview treatment group.

The independent variable was job preview type (realistic, favorable, control group). The dependent variable was applicant acceptance of a job offer and job survival rate. The researchers used a 2×3 independent samples chi-square test of association to analyze the job offer and job survival rate. A series 2×2 chi-square tests (corrected for continuity) assessed the differences between the two groups. Study findings indicated support for the first hypothesis that job acceptance was lower for applicants who received the realistic job preview. There were no significant differences in survival rates beyond one month compared to applicants who received the favorable job preview to support the second hypothesis.

Reilly, Brown, Blood, and Malatesta (1981) conducted a field study to determine the effects of realistic job previews. Candidates for telephone service representatives ($N = 842$) that had pre-qualified via a paper-and pencil participated in the study. The researchers assigned the telephone service representatives to one of three study treatments: (a) film preview, (b) job visit, or (c) control

group before receiving a formal job offer. The candidates in the film preview group watched a 21-minute film that depicted service representatives in realistic training and work. The candidates in the job visit group toured the location and layout of a business office and spoke with a supervisor and other office personnel in a 30 to 40-minute job visit. These candidates could ask questions during the tour, observe incumbents taking calls, and get an overview of the job. Candidates in the control group received a job offer without any job preview.

The independent variables were film preview and job visit. The dependent variables were job acceptance rate and turnover. The study questionnaire contained two separate scales to operationalize participant job commitment and the discrepancy between participant expectations and what they actually encountered on the job. Chi-square tests indicated no significant difference between candidates assigned to the realistic job preview group and candidates assigned to the control group for both job acceptance rate and turnover rate. An analysis of variance conducted to assess the effects of treatment on commitment and met expectations indicated no significant difference.

Colarelli (1984) conducted a field experiment to investigate the effectiveness of two methods of presenting

realistic job preview (RJPs) to applicants and to examine possible mediating processes involved in RJPs. Applicants for teller positions ($N = 164$) in a major commercial bank participated in the study. The researchers assigned each teller to one of three groups after an initial interview to operationalized the independent variables: (a) a treatment group in which job applicants received a realistic job preview from an incumbent teller, (b) a treatment group in which applicants received a RJP brochure, and (c) a control group.

The applicants completed two questionnaires after the initial interview. The first questionnaire consisted primarily of items dealing with personal background characteristics, such as age, sex, and years of work experience. The second questionnaire asked applicants about their reactions to the information they received at the employment office (amount of information, trustworthiness and accuracy of information, personal relevance of information, commitment to choice). A third questionnaire dealing primarily with mediating and dependent variables was mailed to applicants approximately 60 days after they were hired. This questionnaire included scales measuring stress reactions, job satisfaction, realism to expectation, and intention to quit.

Colarelli (1984) used 5-point Likert-type scales to measure all the dependent variables except: realistic expectations, stress, and job satisfaction. A three-item scale developed by Feldman (1976) measured the extent to which participants believed they had realistic expectation of the job when they were hired. A 19-item scale with three subscales (depression, anxiety, and irritation) measured stress. The short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967) measured job satisfaction.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed no significant difference among the three groups on levels of job satisfaction. A chi-square test revealed that the difference in turnover rates over the three groups was significant. Fewer applicants who received a RJP from an incumbent teller left the job after two and three months compared to applicants who received the brochure or control group treatment. The turnover rate between applicants who received the brochure treatment was not significantly different from the treatment rate of those who received the control group treatment. There was no support for self-selection and commitment to choice as mediating processes. There was no significance in the meet expectations and stress mediators.

Dean and Wanous (1984) conducted a longitudinal study to investigate the effects of realistic job previews on job expectations, job attitudes, job survival, job performance, and turnover rate of new employees. Newly hired bank tellers ($N = 249$) who had not worked as tellers nor at the particular bank participated in the study. The independent variable job preview had three levels (realistically specific job preview, realistically general job preview, no job preview). The dependent variables in the study were: (a) initial expectations (work, pay, promotions, supervision, co-workers, customers); (b) job attitude; (c) job survival; (d) job performance; and (e) turnover.

The applicant read a booklet with either realistically specific job preview, general-general job preview, or no booklet to operationalize the independent variable. The bank tellers operationalized the dependent variable by completing two questionnaires (first day, eight weeks after employment). The expectations format of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) measured the initial expectations on the first day of employment. The researchers measured job attitudes at both points of the study using (a) the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), (b) a three-item scale to assess the desire to remain on the job, and

(c) a three-item scale to assess employee perception of company honesty and concern for new employees.

Dean and Wanous (1984) used analysis of variance (ANOVA) to analyze the data. The results showed that (a) the differences in job attitudes and job performance among the realistically specific job preview group, the realistically general job preview group, and the no job preview group were not significant; (b) job survival differences among the three groups were not significant; and (c) the differences in turnover rate among the three groups was significant. The tellers in the specific and general job preview groups generally left the bank during the first three weeks on the job compared to tellers in the no preview group who generally left employment during the first twenty weeks.

Suszko and Breaugh (1986) conducted a field experiment to examine the effects of providing realistic job previews to applicants. Hypotheses developed were that RJPs would affect self-selection, job satisfaction, coping ability, and employee turnover. The participants ($N = 28$) were applicants for an inventory taker position with a national inventory service firm. The researchers randomly assigned the applicants to either a treatment group ($n = 15$) or control condition ($n = 13$). The independent variable was

job preview (realistic, control). The participants in the treatment condition received a written RJP before their final interview, and an oral RJP as part of their training program. The control condition participants did not receive a written RJP prior to employment or during their training period.

The dependent variables in the study were: (a) realism of expectations, (b) honesty and openness, (c) ability to cope, (d) satisfaction, and (e) turnover. Researchers used questionnaires to operationalize the dependent variables. Participants responded to a 5-point Likert-type scale to measure realism of expectations, ability to cope, and satisfaction. The realism of expectation had two anchors (1 = *did not expect this at all*, 5 = *this was exactly what I expected*). The ability to cope scale had two anchors (1 = *handled very poorly*, 5 = *handled very well*). The satisfaction scales had two anchors (1 = *very dissatisfied*, 5 = *very satisfied*). A four-item self-report scale assessed honesty and openness. Voluntary turnover was measured at the end of the training program and again at the end of three months.

The researchers used ANOVA and correlations to analyze the data. The results indicated that (a) participants who received RJPs were more likely to turn down a job offer

than the non-RJP participants, (b) RJP participants were more satisfied with their jobs than non-RJP participants, and (c) RJP recipients had less voluntary turnover than non-RJP recipients. At the end of three months, nine of the 11 RJP recipients who accepted the job offer were still employed with the organization. Only two of the non-RJP participants remained after three months.

Weisner, Saks, and Summers (1991) conducted a laboratory study with two different job previews (traditional job preview, realistic job preview) to examine the acceptance rate when the alternative was no job. Undergraduate students ($N = 60$) in an Industrial/Organizational psychology course at a Canadian university participated. Most of the students (98%) had work experience either through an internship, summer employment, or full-time work. The researchers randomly assigned students to one of three equal treatment groups assuming they had applied for a product specialist position with the marketing division of a toy company.

Group one received a written traditional job preview (TJP) along with a job offer. Group two receive a written realistic job preview (RJP) along with a job offer. Group three was divided into two subgroups. In the first subgroup, they received a TJP for one position, and another

job offer with a RJP for a similar position with another toy manufacturer. The second subgroup of group three, received an RJP first with a job offer and then a second offer with a TJP. The independent variable was the job preview type.

There were five dependent variables in the study: (a) adequacy of job information, (b) job attractiveness, (c) organization attractiveness, (d) organization recommendations, and (e) job choice. The participants assessed the first four variables with a 6-point Likert-type scale with the following anchors: (a) adequacy of job information (5 = *more than enough*, 0 = *extremely insufficient*); (b) job attractiveness (5 = *extremely desirable*, 0 = *extremely undesirable*); (c) organization attractiveness (5 = *extremely favorable*, 0 = *extremely unfavorable*); and (d) organization recommendation (5 = *extremely likely*, 0 = *extremely unlikely*). Responses to the question, "Will you accept this job offer?" (*Yes, No*) indicated job choice. Participants in-group three choose one of the two job offers or decline them both.

Fisher's exact test indicated no difference in acceptance rates between the TJP and the RJP group when no job was the alternative. Job and organizational perceptions did not differ between participants who receive only the

RJP and those who received the TJP. Participants rated the TJP more attractive than the RJP and rated the RJP as more adequate than the TJP.

Saks, Weisner, and Summers (1994) conducted a laboratory simulation experiment to study the effects of job previews (traditional job previews, realistic job previews) on self-selection and job choice. Commerce and administration students ($N = 138$) voluntarily participated in the classroom experiment. The researchers randomly assigned participants to one of three groups. Subjects in group 1 assumed that they had applied for and been offered the job of a product specialist with the marketing division of a toy manufacturer. Each subject in group 1 received a written TJP, subjects in group 2 received a written RJP. Subjects in group 3 assumed they had applied for and been offered the job of product specialist with two different toy manufacturers. They received a TJP for one position and a RJP for the other position. The job previews operationalized the independent variable.

The dependent variables were self-selection and job choice. Work-related needs on a 12-item scaled adapted from Alderfer's desire questionnaire (1967, 1969) assessed self-selection. Students rated these variables on a 5-point Likert-type scale with anchors (1 = *not at all important*, 5

= *extremely important*). A 5-point Likert-type scale with anchors (1 = *no opportunity*, 5 = *excellent opportunities*) measured the expectations of work-related needs. Self-efficacy measured on a 10-item task-specific scale developed by Ellis and Taylor (1983). Subjects responded to a 5-point scale with two anchors (1 = *strongly disagree*, and 5 = *strongly agree*).

Saks et al. (1994) performed a one-way MANOVA to test for differences in the one-job preview group and the two-job preview group. Results indicated no significant difference for the one-job preview group, but it found significant difference for the two-job preview group. Chi-squared tests performed also found significant difference in job acceptance rate in the two-job preview treatment. Finally, the *t*-test performed on self-efficacy by job choice indicated significance in the two-job preview group. Study results suggested that RJPs result in lower job acceptance rates when subjects have TJPs as an alternative job choice, and that job previews do result in self-selection in which subjects match their needs with their need expectations of job alternatives.

Buckley, Mobbs, Mendoza, Novicevic, Carraher, and Beu (2001) conducted a field study to assess the effects of pre-employment interventions on newly hires. Realistic job

previews (RJP), expectation-lowering procedures (ELP), and a combination (RJP & ELP) were compared to a control condition (minimum socialization). Applicants ($N = 128$) for a telemarketing sales representative on a day or evening shift in a large southwestern U.S. telemarketing company participated in the study. Participants were randomly assigned to one of four experimental conditions before a scheduled interview. Group 1 (control group) received the standard interview. The process consisted of the applicant reading a script concerning company information and answering several questions regarding their abilities to communicate on the phone. Qualified applicants immediately received job offers after meeting the selection criteria. Group 2 (RJP group) received a job-specific RJP in addition to the standard interviewing procedure. Group 3 (ELP group) received a non-job-specific expectation-lowering procedure in addition to the standard interview. Group 4 (RJP & ELP group), the combination group, received the exact same information as did Groups 2 and 3 after the interviewer determined they were qualified for the position. An interactive format of presenting the materials encouraged the applicants of Groups 2, 3, and 4 to ask questions about the specifics of the position.

The dependent variables were: first day attendance, job expectations, and number of days worked. The researchers hypothesized that (a) applicants in the control group would be more likely to show up for work on the first day than those in the treatment conditions, (b) applicants in the control condition would report significantly higher expectations than those in the treatment conditions, (c) applicants in the treatment conditions would remain with the organization for longer period of time than those in the control group, (d) that the applicants in the combination group (Group 4) would remain with the organization for a longer period of time than those in any other group, and (e) expectations would mediate the relationship between the different socialization programs and the number of days worked.

Buckley et al. performed *t*-tests, chi-square analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and multiple regressions to assess the data. Results did not indicate support for the hypothesis that the participants in the control condition would be more likely to report for the first day of work than those in the RJP, ELP, and RJP & ELP conditions. Participants in the experimental condition (ELP, RJP, and ELP & RJP) reported significantly lower expectations than did the control group. The expectations, however did not

result in higher retention rates in all conditions. The RJP & ELP combination resulted in the largest number of days worked. There was no significant difference in number of days worked between the control group and the RJP group. The findings also indicated that the expectations did mediate the relationship between the different socialization programs and the number of days worked. The current study suggested that a non-job-specific ELP in combination with an RJP may exceed the benefits of an RJP or an ELP used alone.

Ganzach, Pazy, Ohayun, and Brainin (2002) conducted a field experiment that investigated the effects of exchange-inducing treatments on pre- and post-entry commitment to an organization. Exchange-inducing treatments considered were traditional job previews (TJP), realistic job previews (RJP), decision-making training (DMT), at-home control group, and on-site control group. Physically fit male candidates ($N = 828$) for military service in the Israeli Defense Forces (IDF) participated in the study. The numbers of participants per group were as follows: $n = 116$ in the TJP group, $n = 92$ in the RJP group, $n = 137$ in the DMT group, $n = 203$ in the on-site group, and $n = 280$ in the at-home control group.

DMT is a form of training that teaches candidates how to use a balance sheet in order to identify and weigh positive and negative outcomes of a set of alternatives (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Janis & Mann, 1977). This treatment conveys an essentially similar metamessage as the of RJP, that is, that the organization expends effort so that candidates will independently and competently make decisions that are good for them (even if it is not "good" for the organization, such as when the candidate refuses to accept a job that the organization would like to staff). (p. 615)

The researchers hypothesized that RJP and DMT exchange-inducing treatments would increase pre-entry commitment relative to control treatment (at-home and on-site) and that RJP and DMT treatments would lead to long-range increase in post-entry commitment relative to control treatment (at-home and on-site).

Two surveys operationalized the independent variables. The candidates completed the first survey about eight months before entry. RJP and DMT treatment groups participated in 3-hour workshops where they received additional recruitment information. The on-site control group received the questionnaire upon arrival to the orientation session, asked to complete, and were dismissed. The at-home group received the survey by mailed, asked to complete, and instructed to return the questionnaire by mail. Two measures assessed the combat service willingness as a measure of pre-entry commitment: "To what extent are

you willing to serve as a combat soldier?" on a scale (5 = to a large extent, 1 = to a small extent); and a multiple measure on willingness to serve in one of seven specific combat units utilizing the same five-item scale. Army records reviewed immediately upon enlistment provided information about the unit the participant committed to and a second review conducted on the first anniversary assessed turnover or change in unit assignment. The second questionnaire, administered about 2 years after enlistment, assessed late service attitudes. Variables assessed were: commitment, job satisfaction, unit satisfaction, information satisfaction, perceived fairness, and perceived variety. The three dependent variables measured were: (a) combat service willingness (Survey 1), (b) service (review of army records), and (c) attitudes towards the service (Survey 2).

Ganzach et al. performed multiple regressions and several analyses of group mean differences to assess the effects of exchange-inducing treatments on pre- and post-entry commitment of the participants to the organization. Hypothesis 1 was fully supported with the analysis of both indicators of pre-entry commitment lending strong support that the RJP and DMT exchange-inducing treatments increased pre-entry commitment relative to control treatment (at-home

and on-site). Analysis for Hypothesis 2 provided mixed results. Late service commitment among RJP participants was not significantly different from late service commitment participants in the control groups; however, post-entry commitment of the DMT participants was significantly higher than that of the control groups. These results indicated that decision-making training is an effective exchange-inducing protocol.

In summary, research on realistic job previews indicated that job acceptance rates were lower when compared to traditional job previews and alternative job offers were considered (Reilly, Tenopyr, & Sperling, 1979; Suszko & Breaugh, 1986; Saks, Weisner, & Summers, 1994; Wanous, 1973). These researchers also concluded support for the self-selection hypothesis. Other researchers also studied the dropout rate of job candidates as it related to job acceptance rates (Wanous, 1973; Colarelli, 1984; Suszko & Breaugh, 1986) concluding that realistic job previews did reduce turnover and increase longevity on the job. Recent studies have explored other alternative protocols (DMT and ELP) and their impact with RJP and TJP (Buckley, Mobbs, Mendoza, Novicevic, Carragher, & Beu, 2001; Ganzach, Pazy, Ohayun, & Brainin, 2002).

Applicant Job Choice Decisions

The desired outcome of the recruitment process is the successful job choice by applicants. Previous studies suggested employee individual differences affect job choice. Feldman and Arnold (1978) were the first to examine the effect of pay and fringe benefits in job choice decisions. Other researchers added new knowledge by examining effect of self-esteem, specific job attributes, and the extent to which worker demographics (race, sex, age or collar color) influence job choice decisions. This section examines the affect of these and other variables on applicant job choice decisions.

Wanous (1974) examined three individual differences relevant to employee reactions to job characteristics. Newly hired female telephone operators ($N = 80$) participated in the study. The three individual differences studied were: (a) urban or rural background, (b) Protestant Work Ethic belief, and (c) high versus low attitude on the measurement of "higher order need strength".

Participants provided their urban or rural background attribute via a modified questionnaire developed by Hackman and Lawler (1971) by responding to "describe the area where you lived most of the time you were growing up". Four of

eight items from Blood's (1969) scale measured belief in the Protestant Work Ethic. The items were: (a) "hard work makes you a better person;" (b) "wasting time is as bad as wasting money;" (c) "a good indication of a person's worth is how well he does his job;" and (d) "if all other things are equal, it is better to have a job with a lot of responsibility than one with little responsibility." The measurement of "higher order needs strength" was a composite score on eight items measuring the *preferences for specific amounts* of various job characteristics.

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) Short Form (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) measured satisfaction with specific job characteristics. The sum of the responses to two global direct questions: (a) "generally speaking, how satisfied are you with your job;" and (b) "how characteristic is this statement of you?: Taking everything into account I am very satisfied with my job," measured overall job satisfaction. Absenteeism and performance measured job behavior. The supervisory ratings of an individual's quality and quantity of performance measured job performance.

Wanous (1974) used correlations to analyze the data. The results indicated that the use of higher order need strength was the best predictor of individual differences.

Protestant Work Ethic showed a moderate effectiveness and urban versus rural differences was generally ineffective as a means of predicting individual differences on job characteristics.

Feldman and Arnold (1978) designed a study to determine the relative importance of organizational and job factors in job choice decisions. Graduate students ($N = 62$) in a Canadian and an American university participated in the study. The independent variables were three job characteristics and three organizational characteristics. The three job characteristics were: (a) opportunities to use important skills and abilities, (b) amount of autonomy and independence, and (c) responsibilities and leadership. The three organizational characteristics were: (a) providing essential services and products to the public, (b) salary and fringe benefits, and (c) flexibility in scheduling hours worked and vacations. Each variable had two levels (yes/no). A one-paragraph description of a work position operationalized the independent variables. Participants answered a 64-item questionnaire and rank-ordered the variables from most preferred to least preferred by distributing 100 points among the six variables.

The researchers used multiple regressions to analyze responses of the questionnaire and the rank-order results. Results suggested that (a) pay and fringe benefits were the most important factors in the position choice situation; (b) use of skills and abilities, responsibility and leadership, and autonomy and independence were the second most important factors in affecting position choice; (c) flexibility of working hours and types of service the organization provides were the least important factors influencing position choice; and (d) growth need strength and amount of previous work experienced related to relative importance of job and organizational variables.

Posner (1981) investigated the extent to which students and faculty were aware of how corporate recruiters evaluate students and the extent to which recruiters and faculty understand the importance of various potential job factors and characteristics to students. A sample of corporate recruiters ($N = 198$) who had recruited and interviewed business students in the Placement Center of a private university, senior business majors ($N = 148$) who had interviewed through the Placement Center, and faculty of the College of Business ($N = 31$) participated in the study. The independent variables in the study were (a) applicant characteristics, (b) important job

characteristics, and (c) benefits for recruiters, students, and faculty. The dependent variable in the study was the additive composite score from the three questionnaires.

The recruiters and students responded to questionnaires with a 7-point Likert-type scale with two anchors (1 = *not very important*, 7 = *very important*). The recruiters responded to a questionnaire to rate fourteen factors concerning applicant characteristics (personal appearance, grades, communications ability, personality, future ambitions and potential, extra-curricular activities, faculty and personal recommendations, good health, sense of humor, maturity, work experience, and knowledge of company or job). The students and faculty responded to a questionnaire to rate the importance of 18 characteristics when choosing a job or employer (job security, opportunity to learn, freedom to do the job my own way, opportunity to use my abilities, variety of activities, job title, opportunity for rapid advancement, type of work or service performed, challenging/interesting work, competent/sociable co-workers, opportunity to show superiors that I can perform effectively, location of work or company, salary, fringe benefits, reputation of company, size of company, training programs, and opportunity for extensive travel).

The students, faculty, and recruiters responded to a third questionnaire to rate the importance of 13 items relating to the importance of various types of pay and fringe benefits with a Likert-type scale with two anchors (1 = *not very important*, 7 = *very important*). The items were: (a) high beginning base salary, (b) frequent salary increases, (c) bonuses, (d) stock options, (e) retirement plans, (f) vacation plans, (g) medical insurance benefits, (h) life insurance, (i) management development programs, (j) health services, (k) credit union, (l) recreational facilities/programs, and (m) counseling services.

Multivariate analysis of variance by the researcher indicated a significant difference among students, recruiters, and faculty concerning the perceptions of important applicant and job characteristics. Students perceived that recruiters viewed personal recommendations as more important than recruiters actually viewed personal recommendations. Recruiters weighed maturity and sense of humor more important than did students. The faculty believed recruiters would be influenced by applicant personal appearance much more than recruiters were actually influenced by personal appearance and conversely, the faculty underestimated the importance attached by recruiters to future ambitions and a sense of humor.

Other significant findings were: (a) recruiters rated job security, fringe benefits, job freedom, variety, performance, and co-workers to be less important to students job choice than did the students; (b) recruiters thought company reputation to be more important to students than did the actual students; (c) faculty assessed job security, variety, co-workers, performance, company, reputation, opportunity to learn, job freedom, use my abilities, challenge work/service performed, fringe benefits and training as significantly less important to students than did the students; (d) recruiters and faculty consistently overestimated high beginning base salaries for students than did students; and (e) the importance of non-monetary benefits was under estimated by recruiters. Three areas of general agreement among students, faculty, and recruiters were (a) frequent salary increases, (b) bonuses, and (c) recreational facilities and programs.

Freeman and Carpenter (1983) conducted an experiment designed to investigate the effects of work environment and economic information on the recruitment of hospital nurses. The researcher assigned graduating nursing students ($N = 41$) to two groups based on type of degree ($n = 20$, Associate Degree; $n = 21$, Baccalaureate Degree). Each group reviewed mock recruiting advertisements. These

advertisements operationalized the independent variables (economic job attribute, work environment job attribute). The dependent variable was the participant intent to seek additional information based on the contents of the mock advertisements. The participants indicated their intent by responding to three items on a 100-point Likert-type scale anchored from 0 to 100.

A randomized block analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that advertisements containing economic job attributes caused more participants to seek additional information compared to advertisements containing work environment attributes.

Ellis and Taylor (1983) studied the effect of self-esteem in the job search process by examining differences between global self-esteem and specific measures of self-esteem. Graduating business students ($N = 86$) who had registered with the university placement center to interview for jobs on campus during the spring semester before graduating participated in the study. Participants completed two questionnaires at two different points during the study: two weeks before the interviewing season began and two weeks before graduation. The independent variable was self-esteem. There were five dependent variables: (a) use of job source, (b) goal for applications field, (c)

actual applications field, (d) search satisfaction, and (e) job search outcomes.

The Rosenberg (1965) general self-esteem inventory assessed global self-esteem. The participants responded to 10-items addressing self-liking and responded to self-approval on a 4-point Likert-type scale to report their level of agreement. A 10-item list with 5-point Likert-type scale measured the task specific self-esteem in the job search context. These items measured individual confidence in general search ability as well as in specific job search knowledge and skills.

Participant's self-reported five job sources (direct applications, friends or relatives, private employment agencies, public employment agencies, and newspaper ads) and the total number of hours spent using each source. The participants indicated their goal for applications filed during the semester on a pre-search questionnaire and indicated actual applications filed at the end of the search period. Students reported their search satisfaction and job search outcome on the post-search questionnaire.

Correlation analysis showed self-esteem correlated positively with (a) the job sources participants used, (b) organizational recruiters interview evaluations, (c) participant job search satisfaction, (d) number of offers

received, (e) job acceptance before graduation, and (f) intended tenure. Global self-esteem factors were a better predictor of search outcomes and task-specific self-esteem was more strongly related to search motivation and satisfaction.

Mason and Belt (1986) investigated the effects of job descriptions and job specifications on the probability of job applicant response to recruitment advertisements based on applicant qualifications. Senior-level engineering students ($N = 250$) participated in the study. Researchers assigned students to two groups according to their qualifications for an electrical engineering position. Group one ($n = 125$) consisted of electrical engineering students with a cumulative grade point average of 2.7 or higher. Group two ($n = 125$) consisted of non-electrical engineering majors with a grade point average below 2.7. The researchers classified the students in group one as qualified and those in group two as unqualified for the position.

Both groups completed a 7-point Likert-type scale to assess their likelihood of responding to four different recruitment advertisements. The scale had two anchors (1 = *definitely would not respond to this ad*, 7 = *definitely would respond to this ad*). The dependent variables were

participant evaluation of their likelihood of responding to the ads and participant ranking of the ads.

The researchers used analysis of variance (ANOVA) and a composite score summation of the participant ranking to evaluate the data. Results showed (a) the qualified group response to all ads was significantly higher than the unqualified group response, (b) the qualified group was more likely to respond to ads containing specific information than the unqualified group, and (c) the specificity of applicant qualifications had a significant negative effect on the probability of response for unqualified participants.

Rynes, Bretz, and Gerhart (1991) conducted a qualitative longitudinal study to investigate how applicants made job search and job choice decisions and to determine whether job search and job choice decisions were related to demographic variables. The participants in the study were graduating students ($N = 41$) from a northeastern university. The researchers conducted two interviews 8 - 10 weeks apart during the senior year to collect the data. The first interview contained structured, open-ended questions directed at how applicants formed an initial impression of fit with various organizations. Interview questions asked for examples of good and poor fit, examples

of good fit and bad fit that ran counter to peer opinions, and positive and negative changes in assessments of fit during the job search. The second interview concentrated on the later phases of the job search and impressions of the recruitment practices.

The independent variables were the personal characteristics of the applicants. The dependent variables were the job search and job choice behaviors of the applicants. The researchers analyzed the data by (a) coding the interview data according to an agreed-upon scheme, (b) computing descriptive statistics concerning the interview questions, and (c) using *t*-tests and one way analysis of variance to identify possible relationships between personal characteristics and job search and job choice behaviors. Analysis revealed three systematic relationships: (a) delay in getting back to the applicants influenced the impressions and decisions of males significantly more than females, (b) interactions with recruiters and potential co-workers influenced females significantly more than males, and (c) campus recruiters influenced inexperienced applicants significantly more than experienced applicants.

Turban and Dougherty (1992) conducted a study to examine the influence of recruiters on applicant attraction

to an organization. Students ($N = 182$) and recruiters ($N = 70$) at a college placement center from a midwestern university participated in the study. The study had six independent variables: (a) applicant perceptions of recruiter behaviors (interest in applicant, informativeness, interview structure, intimidation, selling behavior); (b) recruiter demographic characteristics (gender, age, education, organizational division); (c) recruiter similarity to applicant (alumnus-alumna, gender); (d) recruiter perceptions of interview focus (applicant qualifications, time spent discussing applicant, time spent discussing job, company marketing); (e) recruiter perceptions of interview structure; and (f) moderator variables (gender, self-esteem, number of prior interviews). Recruiters and students completed questionnaires after each interview to indicate their interview experience.

The dependent variables in the study were expectancy of job offer and applicant attraction to the organization. Researchers used a questionnaire with a 5-point Likert-type scale to operationalize the dependent variable. The item measuring student perceptions of the likelihood of the company inviting them back for a second interview and offering them a job had two anchors (1 = *very unlikely*, 5 =

very likely). The item measuring student regard to company and attractiveness of the job had two anchors (1 = *low regard*, 2 = *high regard*).

The researchers used correlation analysis, regression analysis, hierarchical regression analysis, and canonical analysis to analyze the data. The results indicated that applicant perceptions of recruiter behaviors, especially the interest shown in the applicant, had the strongest influence on applicant attraction to organizations and applicant self-esteem and number of prior interviews had no moderating effect on recruiter influence of applicant.

Williams and Dreher (1992) examined the relationship between compensation system attributes of firms, the number of applicants attracted to a job, applicant job acceptance rates, and the time length of open positions. U.S. banks ($N = 352$) participated in the study. The independent variables were: (a) bank characteristics (total, net income, unemployment, benchmark, wage, tellers hired); (b) other human resource practices (recruitment, hours of training, advancement); and (c) compensation (long-term incentives, short-term incentives, bonuses, base pay adjustments, average percentage raise, basis of raise, benefit percentage, benefit flexibility, paid days off, retirement plan, medical coverage, medical cost). The human resource

director of each participating bank responded to a survey by recording the information concerning the bank and recruitment activity during the recently completed fiscal year to operationalize the independent variables.

The study had three dependent variables: (a) number of teller applicants, (b) acceptance rate, and (c) time length of open position. One long survey and one short survey were sent to the human resource directors of the participating banks. The human resource director completed the long survey and referred the short survey to another employee who had knowledge of human resource management practices at the bank. The results of the correlation analysis indicated that (a) banks with a large total compensation to benefits percentage attracted more teller applicants compared to other banks, (b) pay level and benefits were significantly correlated with job acceptance, and (c) time length of open positions was significantly correlated to the percentage of pay raise given to tellers in the previous year.

Barber and Roehling (1993) used Verbal Protocol Analysis (VPA) to investigate applicant decisions to interview for a job. Undergraduate students ($N = 87$) enrolled in a business course in a midwestern university participated in the study. The researchers assigned the participants to one of four treatments: experimental

condition (VPA with prompts for inferences, VPA without prompts for inferences) or control condition (written responses with prompts, written responses unprompted).

The study had 10 independent variables: (a) size of organization, (b) type of industry, (c) location, (d) compensation salary, (e) benefits, (f) job title, (g) recruiter gender, (h) title, (i) number of openings, and (j) equal employment opportunity statement. The researchers randomly combined the independent variables to create four job postings to operationalize the independent variables. Participants in the first treatment group (VPA with prompts for inferences) thought aloud while reviewing the job postings describing the fictitious companies and responded to six statements to determine if inferences were made about these attributes: (a) challenge, (b) responsibility, (c) job security, (d) opportunities for advancement, (e) effort, and (f) hours required. The postings contained no information about these attributes.

Participants in the second treatment group (VPA without prompts for inferences) responded to specific questions concerning attractiveness of the job and willingness to accept an interview. Participants in the third treatment group (control group - written responses with prompts) responded to six statements to determine if

inferences were made about six job attributes (about which no information was given): (a) challenge, (b) responsibility, (c) job security, (d) opportunities for advancement, (e) effort, and (f) hours required.

Participants in the fourth treatment group (control group - written responses, without prompts) responded in writing about position attractiveness and willingness to interview. After reviewing the four postings, participants responded to a questionnaire to provide demographic information and answer questions about the study experience.

The dependent variables in the study were job attractiveness rating and decision to interview. The researchers used two items to operationalize the dependent variable. A 5-point Likert-type scale with two anchors (1 = *very unattractive*, 5 = *very attractive*) rated job attractiveness. Participants responded to the second item with "yes" or "no" to indicate interview acceptance.

Barber and Roehling (1993) used descriptive statistics, multivariate analyses of variance, and analysis of variance to analyze the data. Results indicated that (a) location, compensation salary, and benefits received more attention than the other seven job attributes; (b) applicant tendencies to make inferences when prompted was significant for the experimental group; and (c) neither the

verbal protocol analysis process (VPA) nor the use of prompts significantly influenced applicant decision to accept a job interview.

Bretz and Judge (1994) investigated the role of human resource systems in job applicant decisions. Students ($N = 65$) enrolled in several upper-level human resources courses at two universities in the Midwest and northeast participated in the study. The study had six within-subjects independent variables: (a) salary level, (b) promotion opportunities, (c) justice system, (d) reward system, (e) mobility system, and (f) work/family policy. The study also had five between-subjects independent variables: (a) team orientation, (b) locus of control, (c) work/family conflict, (d) fairness value dominance, and (e) applicant characteristics such as age, gender, and race. The researchers created scenarios containing all combination of the independent variables such as:

This organization has implemented policies that promote a balance between work and family life (e.g., day-care, parental leave, flextime, etc.). The starting salary of this job is \$35,000. Employees are assured that outcomes and rewards are distributed fairly. By the fourth year, the average graduate has received one promotion. All employees compete for promotions on the basis of their recent performance, regardless of their historical accomplishments. Yearly salary increases are determined by your individual productivity. (p 538)

The dependent variable was the probability of applicant accepting job offer, if such an offer were made. Students responded on a 7-point Likert-type scale with two anchors (1 = *highly unlikely*, 7 = *highly likely*) to operationalize the dependent variable.

The researchers used multiple regression analyses to analyze the data. Findings indicated that human resource systems are an important part in job choice decisions by applicants indicating that salary and promotional opportunities were among the most significant predictors of job offer acceptance, and reward systems, mobility systems, and work/family policies had a significant affect on job acceptance.

Saks, Leck, and Saunders (1995) investigated the effects of application blanks and employment equity on applicant reactions and job pursuit intentions. Undergraduate business students ($N = 135$) role-played a simulated job application to participate in the study. The independent variables in the study were application blanks and perception of employment equity. The researchers randomly assigned participants to one of four conditions to operationalize the independent variables. These conditions were: (a) non-discriminatory application blank, (b)

discriminatory application blank, (c) employment equity application, and (d) control group.

The non-discriminatory application blank consisted of appropriate items such as educational background, previous work experiences, skills, qualifications, and references. The discriminatory application blank completed by applicants assigned to the experimental condition consisted of inappropriate items such as age, gender, marital status, disabilities, and ethnic/cultural/racial group. The survey method provided each student with a brochure describing the organization, an application blank, and a questionnaire. Participants completed the application blank followed by the questionnaire after reading the brochure.

The dependent variables in the study were: (a) organization attractiveness, (b) job application success, (c) motivation to pursue employment, (d) job acceptance intention, (e) treatment of employees, and (f) organization recommendation. Students responded to a 7-point Likert-type scale with 12 items to measure the dependent variable. The scale had two anchors (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*).

Saks et al. utilized MANOVA and ANOVA to analyze the data. The results indicated that participants who completed the application blank without discriminatory

questions had significantly more positive reactions of organization attractiveness, job application success, motivation to pursue employment, job acceptance intention, fairness of treatment of employees, and the likelihood of recommending the organization to a friend compared to participants who completed the discriminatory application blank. The participants who believed the organization had an employment equity program were more positive about pursuing employment with the organization, job acceptance intention, fairness of employee treatment by the organization, and the likelihood of recommending the organization to friends.

Turban, Campion, and Eyring (1995) conducted a longitudinal study over two years to investigate predictors related to job acceptance decision of college recruits. Engineering applicants ($N = 773$) for positions with a large petrochemical company participated in the study. During the first year, the applicants ($n = 379$) completed and returned the surveys. Job offers were made to applicants ($n = 229$) with applicants ($n = 82$) accepting the job offer. During the second year, the applicants ($n = 394$) completed and returned the surveys. Job offers were made to applicants ($n = 147$) with applicants ($n = 53$) accepting the job offer.

The independent variables in the study were site visit with three levels (pre-site visit information, information provided at site visit, overall evaluation of site visit) and job and organizational attributes with six levels (type of work, warm co-workers, compensation and benefits, socially responsible company, supportive supervisor, location). The surveys operationalized the independent variables. The applicant responded to pre-site information on a 5-item scale indicating agreement or disagreement with receiving sufficient information about (a) transportation, (b) lodging, (c) reimbursement procedures, (d) the site visit agenda, and (e) the appropriate dress for plant tours before the site visit.

The applicants responded to an 11-item scale to indicate agreement or disagreement with receiving sufficient information during the site visit about (a) advancement opportunities, (b) fringe benefits, (c) the company, (d) co-workers, (e) work hours, (f) work location, (g) pay, (h) job security, (i) the supervisor, (j) type of work, and (k) working conditions. A three-item scale ("Overall was conducted very well," "Raised my opinion of the company," and "Was one of the best I've had") measured overall evaluation of the site visit. The applicants responded to a 51-item scale to indicate agreement with

items describing attributes of the job, company, and location.

The dependent variables in the study were job acceptance intention, and job offer decision. The applicants responded to a 6-point Likert-type scale to indicate the likelihood of accepting a job offer if extended. The scale had two anchors (1 = *very unlikely*, 6 = *very likely*). Examination of company records provided the job acceptance decision.

Turban et al. used descriptive statistics and correlation analyses to analyze the data. Data for year-one and year-two were analyzed separately using identical scales. A host likableness scale was added for year-two. The results indicated that (a) across both years, job offer decision was significantly correlated with job acceptance intentions and overall evaluations of the site visit, the type of work, compensation and benefits, supportive supervisor, and the location; (b) host likableness was significantly correlated with job offer decision in the second year; and (c) job acceptance intentions mediated the relationship between the predictors and job offer decisions.

In conclusion, many researchers have studied applicant job choice decisions. Turban and Dougherty (1992) added

new knowledge to job choice by developing new measures of recruiter behaviors (how the interview was conducted) on applicant impression of the recruiter and attraction to the organization. Research also supported that companies with the best pay, fringe benefits, and compensation will generate a larger acceptance pool (Feldman & Arnold, 1978; Freeman & Carpenter, 1983; Williams & Dreher, 1992).

Person-Organization Fit Studies

Job seekers actively seek recruitment from organizations that they deem have attributes that are closely aligned with their own set of values and attributes. This person-organization (P-O) fit is also a viable predictor of their job choice intentions and work attitudes should they be accorded organizational entry. Studies conducted by various researchers highlight the variability of P-O fit.

O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) determined the person-culture fit associated with individual commitment, satisfaction, and longevity with an organization. The researchers approached this study by demonstrating that organization cultures existed and that a relationship existed between individual preferences and organizational cultures. The researchers developed and validated an instrument for assessing person-organization fit called the

Organizational Culture Profile (OCP). Accountants ($N = 127$) from eight of the largest U.S. public accounting firms participated in the study. The independent variables were the characteristics of the organization and the values of the individuals. The OCP operationalized the independent variable.

The researchers used O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) 12-item scale to measure commitment. The single-item Faces Scale (Kunin, 1955) measured overall satisfaction with a job. Four questions with a 7-point Likert-type scale measured intention to leave an organization. The questions were: (a) "To what extent would you prefer another more ideal job than the one you now work in?" (b) "To what extent have you thought seriously about changing organization since beginning to work here?" (c) "How long do you intend to remain with this organization?" and (d) "If you have your own way, will you be working in this organization three years from now?" The dependent variable was the person-organization fit score for each individual. The researchers used correlational analysis to find that person-organization fit was a significant predictor of organization commitment, job satisfaction, and intentions to stay.

Turban, Eyring, and Campion (1993) investigated the influence of job attributes on job offer decisions. Chemistry, chemical engineering, and mechanical engineering majors ($N = 123$) participated in the study. The participants responded to a mailed questionnaire to rank job attributes. The applicants ranked the job attributes (independent variables) using Jurgensen (1978) Job Preference Form to determine the most important attribute of a job. The attributes were: (a) advancement, (b) benefits, (c) company, (d) co-workers, (e) hours, (f) location, (g) pay, (h) security, (i) supervisor, (j) type of work, and (k) working conditions. The most important attribute was ranked one. The dependent variable was the job offer decision (yes/no). Company records provided the job offer decision.

Turban et al. performed multivariate analysis of variance to determine the most important attribute. Results indicated that the most important job attribute for job acceptance was type of work, company, advancement, co-workers and security. The least important job attribute for accepting a job offer was location. The most important reasons given for rejecting job offer were location, type of work, advancement, co-workers and pay.

Adkins, Russell, and Werbel (1994) assessed whether congruence between applicant work values and those of the organization contributed to recruiter judgments of P-O fit. Corporate recruiters ($N = 44$) and job applicants ($N = 171$) interviewed at the placement center of a large state university participated in the study. The independent variables were indices of (a) the congruence between applicants work values and recruiter perceptions of the organization work values, (b) the congruence between applicants and recruiters personal work values, and (c) the congruence between applicant work values and a "universal" set of work values. The dependent variables were: (a) recruiter ratings of candidate employability and (b) P-O fit. Traditional predictors of employability served as control variables: (a) GPA; (b) employment history; (c) involvement in campus activities; (d) sex; (e) minority group membership; (f) behavioral social skills; and (g) type of industry (business, engineering, civil service).

The researchers used several multiple regression analyses to measure the relationship of value congruence to recruiter judgment for employability and P-O fit. The results indicated that work value congruence between the recruiter and the applicant was a significant predictor of recruiter ratings of general employability and P-O fit.

Recruiter perception of congruence between the applicant and the organization did not relate significantly to ratings general employability and P-O fit.

Cable and Judge (1994) conducted an experimental policy-capturing study to investigate the influence of pay preferences on job search decisions and to determine the relationship between compensation attributes and applicants personality. The participants ($N = 171$) were engineering and hotel administration students at a large northeastern university who interviewed at the university placement center. The researchers employed a variety of surveys depending upon the specific company and the individual student major and degree. The researchers also performed three investigator procedures during the study: (a) policy capturing, (b) organization pursuit, and (c) person-organization fit.

The independent variables for the policy capturing study were: (a) pay level (low, high); (b) benefits flexibility (flexible, rigid); (c) evaluative focus (individual, group); (d) pay stability (contingent, fixed); and (e) pay base (knowledge, job). The dependent variable was the applicant attraction to organization according to pay characteristics. The researchers created 36 scenarios and presented the scenarios to the participants in random

order to minimize order effects. The participants responded to a 7-point rating scale with two anchors (1 = *highly unlikely*, 7 = *highly likely*) to indicate the likelihood of pursuing an interview with the organization described in the scenario.

The independent variable for the organization pursuit analysis was applicant perception of organization pay system. The dependent variable was applicant desire to actively pursue an organization. Judge and Cable (1994) constructed company specific surveys to ensure that participants only answered questions about the organizations relevant to his or her interviewing possibilities (e.g., chemical engineering, computer science). The participants responded to the surveys to indicate perceptions of how each company paid employees. The survey had a 5-point graphic rating scale with two anchors (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). The participants indicated their desire to pursue an organization, "rate the degree to which you would actively pursue obtaining a position with Air Products" by responding to a 5-point graphic scale with two anchors (1 = *very little*, 5 = *very much*).

The researchers used personality characteristics as the independent variable for the person-organization fit

analysis. The variable had six levels: (a) individualism/collectivism, (b) materialism, (c) risk aversion, (d) self-efficacy, (e) locus of control, and (f) demographic characteristics. The dependent variables for the person-organization fit analysis were: (a) rigid benefits, (b) job-based pay, (c) high level, (d) fixed pay, and (e) individual pay. Judge and Cable (1994) combined several scales to create a survey to operationalize the independent variables. An 11-item scale assessed individualism/collectivism. A 17-item scale assessed materialism to identify the importance a person placed on possessions. A 6-item scale measured risk aversion. A 17-item scale measured self-efficacy and locus of control. Specific survey questions captured demographic characteristics.

The researchers used descriptive statistics and correlation analysis to analyze the data for the policy capturing, organization pursuit, and person-organization fit. Results of the policy capturing analyses indicated that pay level was the most important pay system characteristic, followed by individual-based pay, fixed pay, job-based pay, and flexible benefits. The organization pursuit analysis indicated support for the policy capturing findings and suggested that participants

were more attracted to organization that were perceived to offer a high pay level, flexible benefits, individual-based pay, and fixed pay. Results of the person-organization fit analysis showed that: (a) the more materialistic participants placed greater emphasis on pay level when deciding whether or not to pursue an organization compared to the less materialistic participants, (b) participants with an internal locus of control were more attracted to organizations offering flexible benefits compared to participants with external locus of control, (c) individualists were more attracted to individual-based pay plan compared to collectivists, (d) participants with high self-efficacy were more likely to pursue an organization with individual-based pay compared to participants with low self-efficacy, (e) risk-adverse participants were more attracted to organizations with noncontingent pay systems compared to the risk taking participants, and (f) participants with high self-efficacy were more attracted to organization with skill based pay systems compared to participants with low self-efficacy.

Cable and Judge (1996) determined the dimensions of person-organization fit for job applicants and new employees and to investigate the importance of person-organization fit perceptions in job choice decisions and

work attitudes relative to job attributes. The participants were students ($N = 96$) seeking full-time paid industrial relations internships. The independent variables were: (a) values of the organization, (b) values of the applicant, (c) perceived P-O fit, (d) perceived person-job fit, (e) attractiveness of job attributes, (f) importance of P-O fit in job choice, (g) job choice intentions, (g) demographic characteristics, and (h) perceived job opportunities. The dependent variables were: (a) organizational commitment, (b) job satisfaction, (c) intent to leave, and (d) willingness to recommend organization. Data collection occurred during three times with a survey to operationalize the independent and dependent variables.

The applicants completed the first survey (Time 1) immediately after the interview. This survey addressed the job attributes of attractiveness, perceived person-organization fit, perceived person-job fit, job choice intentions, and perceptions of company. The researchers used the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) to assess the P-O fit and a 5-point Likert-type scale with two anchors (1 = *not at all*, 5 = *completely*) to assess job attributes attractiveness, perceived person-organization fit, perceived person-job fit, and job choice intentions.

In Time 2 the participants completed a survey assessing their individual differences (demographics, values, grade-point averages), the importance of P-O fit during the job search and choice decisions, perceived job opportunities, and final job choice decision. The researchers used a modified OCP (reducing 54 items to 40) to assess applicant values and a 5-point Likert-type scale to measure the importance of P-O fit, final job choice decision, and perceived job opportunities.

The participants completed the third survey (Time 3) approximately six months after employment at the end of their internship. The survey measured perceived organization and job fit, job attitudes, job attribute attractiveness, turnover intentions, willingness to recommend the organization, and perception of the company. The researchers used a 5-point Likert-type scale to measure job attributes attractiveness, perceived person-organization fit, and perceived person-job fit and a modified OCP scale (two items were added to original Time 1 scale) to measure perceptions of company values.

Cable and Judge (1996) used descriptive statistics and several multiple regression analyses to analyze the data. The results indicated that: (a) perceived values congruence between the applicant and the organization were predictive

of applicant P-O fit perceptions, (b) demographic similarity between the applicant and the organizational representative had little effect on applicant P-O perceptions, (c) applicant job choice intentions was significantly predicted by applicant P-O fit, (d) the applicant who placed greater emphasis on P-O fit when making job choice decisions experienced greater P-O fit after organizational entry compared to the applicant who placed less emphasis on P-O fit, and (e) employee perceived P-O fit significantly predicted work attitudes, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and willingness to recommend the organization to others.

Judge and Cable (1997) investigated the effects of applicant personality and person-organization fit on organization attraction during the job choice process. Students ($N = 182$) majoring in business, engineering, and industrial relations at a large northeastern university and seeking jobs participated in the study. The researchers collected data three times during a four-month period. At Time 1, the applicants were given two surveys: one they completed to self-report personality and organizational culture preferences, and the other they gave to a peer (friend, spouse, significant other, relative, other) to

complete independently to rate the applicant personality. At Time 2, three weeks after responding to the self-report, the applicant completed a survey to assess culture and attractiveness of an organization after an interview. At Time 3, three months after the interview survey, applicants responded to an email message to report attraction (received job offer, accepted job offer) towards the interviewing organization.

The independent variables in the study were: (a) personality traits (neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) and (b) subjective person-organization fit. The researchers used the short form of the NEO personality inventory (NEO-FFI) to operationalize the personality traits and a 3-item 7-point Likert-type scale with two anchors (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *completely*) to measure subjective person-organization fit. The dependent variables were: (a) organization attraction; (b) organizational culture preferences (innovation, attention to detail, outcome orientation, aggressiveness, supportiveness, emphasis on rewards, team orientation, decisiveness); and (c) job choice decisions.

At Time 2, a 3-item 7-point Likert-type scale with two different anchors: "Rate your overall attraction to this organization" (1 = *not attracted*, 7 = *very attracted*);

"Rate the likelihood that you would interview again with this organization" and "Rate the likelihood that you would accept a job offer from this organization, if it were offered" (1 = *very unlikely*, 7 = *very likely*) measured organization attraction. The researchers used the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) to operationalize the organizational culture preferences.

Judge and Cable (1997) used descriptive statistics and correlation analysis to analyze the data. Results indicated that (a) applicant personality traits were significantly correlated with applicant organizational culture preferences, (b) both objective and subjective organization fit were significantly correlated with applicant attraction to the interviewing organization, and (c) the relationship between objective fit and organization attraction was mediated by subjective fit. Neither subjective nor objective fit correlated with job offer acceptance.

Goodman and Svyantek (1999) investigated the relationship between person-organization fit and contextual performance. The researchers used volunteers ($N = 221$) encompassing a wide variety of jobs across 11 departments of a major Midwestern manufacturing organization. The study design had two phases. During Phase 1 the participants responded to a survey about organizational culture. During

Phase 2 the immediate supervisor of the participant rated the subordinate using a 16-item measure of organizational citizenship behavior and a 9-item measure of task-based job performance. The independent variables were the subordinates and supervisor perceptions of organizational culture (perceived, ideal). The dependent variables were: (a) contextual performance, (b) altruism, (c) conscientiousness, and (d) task performance.

Three instruments assessed organizational culture: (a) the organizational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ; Litwin & Stringer, 1968); (b) selected scales from Corporate Culture Questionnaire (CCQ; Saville & Holdsworth, 1993); and (c) Organizational Effectiveness Profile (OEP; Saville & Holdsworth, 1993). The researchers used descriptive statistics, principal factors analysis, and multiple regressions of the contextual performance measures and task performance measures to identify that warmth and competence were the strongest predictors of contextual and tasks performances.

Van Vianen (2000) examined the effects of two measures of fit on newcomer's commitment and turnover intentions. Newcomer preferences for organizational cultures were compared with supervisor and peer perceptions of organizational culture (P-O fit) and with their preferences

for organizational culture (P-P fit). The participants in study ($N = 359$) were newcomers ($n = 154$), peers ($n = 104$), and supervisors ($n = 101$) from 68 different organizations in the Netherlands. The participants completed the first questionnaire supplied by the researchers and a second questionnaire by mail approximately 3 weeks later. One questionnaire measured the culture preferences (preference questionnaire) and the other measured commitment and turnover intentions (supplies questionnaire). In order to control for order effects, one-third of the sample received the supplies questionnaire first and the others received the preferences questionnaire first. No order effect was found.

The independent variable was participant preferences for organizational culture. The dependent variables were newcomer commitment and turnover intentions. The researcher used 12 scales covering the different facets of organizational culture with a 7-point Likert-scale with two anchors (1 = *not at all applicable*, 7 = *very applicable*) to measure cultural preferences and cultural supplies. The responses measured on 7 scales selected from the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979) assessed newcomer commitment. One of the items was "I have this organization very much at

heart". One of the items was "When I have the opportunity to work in another organization, I will take that opportunity".

Van Vianen (2000) used regression analysis and correlation procedures to analyze the data. The results lent limited support for the hypothesized role of P-P fit for newcomer commitment and turnover intentions. Newcomer P-P fit with their supervisors concerning the "concern for people" dimension of culture preference was related to newcomer affective outcomes. The findings indicated that only when newcomer and peer preference were both high were newcomer turnover intentions low. Results for the P-O fit measures did not corroborate previous studies showing P-O fit effects. This was probably due to the operationalization of P-O fit where other P-O fit studies used aggregated measures of organizational culture based on the perceptions of a large number of organizational citizens. In this study, only two persons were involved in establishing organizational culture.

Cable and Parsons (2001) conducted a 3-wave longitudinal design that followed individuals over 2 years to study socialization tactics and P-O fit after organizational entry. Students at a large southeastern university ($N = 461$) participated in Wave 1. This survey

assessed personal values, work experience, and demographics. Wave 2 survey assessed the number of job offers received when they accepted their jobs, their organizational tenure, the socialization tactics they experienced since joining their organizations, their perceptions of their organization's values, and their subjective P-O fit perceptions. Participants ($N = 129$) responded to Wave 2 survey mailed six months after graduation. Wave 3 survey (2 years after Wave 1) assessed if the participants were still at the same organization and reassessed their personal values. Respondents ($N = 101$) who completed Wave 2 also completed Wave 3.

The independent variables were: organization values, individual values, socialization experiences, work experience, job offers, and organizational tenure. The reduced version of the OCP (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991) measured the organizational values. Respondents studied a list of 40 organizational values and deleted items when answering questions like, "Which 2 descriptors are the *most* characteristic of your organization?" and "Which 2 descriptors are the *least* characteristic of your organization." This process continued with the respondents selecting and scratching the most and least characteristic values until the last 8 items were neither characteristic

nor uncharacteristic of the organization. The reduced OCP also assessed individual's values as job seekers (Wave 1) and as employees (Wave 3). Individuals sorted the same 40 values in nine categories ranging from "most characteristic" to "least characteristic" according to the question "How characteristic is this attribute to me?"

Twelve items from Jones (1986) socialization scale reported the socialization tactics that they experienced at their organizations. The items had a 7-point Likert-type scale with two anchors (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). "How many years of relevant work experience do you have?" assessed work experience. The question "In total, how many job offer had you received when you accepted your present job?" recorded the number of job offers. The participants recorded the date they began working and the researchers computed the number of months to record organizational tenure.

The values congruence operationalized the dependent variable P-O fit. Calculating the correlation of individual and organizational values with the OCP (Chatman, 1991) provided value congruence scores. Pre-entry values congruence (Wave 1) correlated with perceptions of the organization's values (Wave 2). Post-entry values congruence correlated Wave 3 scores with Wave 2.

The researchers used descriptive statistics, multiple regressions, and factor analysis and concluded that newcomers' subjective P-O fit perceptions, as well as changes in their values, were associated with two types of socialization tactics: content (i.e., tactics that are sequential and fixed vs. variable and random) and social aspects (i.e., tactics that emphasize serial and investiture processes rather than disjunctive and divestiture processes). In addition, Cable and Parsons (2001) analyzed 32 participants that left their initial organizations during the study to determine that individuals are more likely to leave their organizations when their initial values congruence is low and when they do not perceive a good fit with their organization.

Saks and Ashforth (2002) conducted a longitudinal study on the antecedents of person-organization fit perceptions (job search) and the consequences (employment quality). In addition, the researchers measured P-O fit perceptions at pre- and post-entry to determine if P-O perceptions changed after entry into an organization and if a relationship existed between job search and employment quality (job satisfaction, job improvement, and intention to turnover). Senior-level undergraduates in business, computer science, and engineering students attending a

large university in a major Canadian city initially participated in the study. Participants received the first questionnaire during their final term of school, indicated how they conducted their job search, and if they had accepted a job offer. Respondents ($N = 113$) to the second questionnaire mailed to those who had accepted a job provided the basis for pre- and post-entry data.

The independent variables for job search were: (a) preparatory job search behavior, (b) active job search behavior, (c) job search intensity, and (d) career planning. A modified Blau (1994) scale using two 6-item scales measured preparatory and active job search behavior. These items asked participants to indicate the frequency with which they had performed each task by using a 5-point scale in which 1 = *never (0 times)*; 2 = *rarely (1 or 2 times)*; 3 = *occasionally (3-5 times)*; 4 = *frequently (6-9 times)*; and 5 = *very frequently (at least 10 times)*. Blau's (1993) general effort job search scale measured job search intensity. Participants responded to a 5-point Likert-type scale with two anchors (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*). Gould's (1979) 6-item scale dealing with having plans, goals, strategies, and objectives for one's career measured career planning. Sample questions included "I have a plan for my career" and "I have a

strategy for achieving my career goals". Participants responded to a 5-point Likert-type scale with two anchors (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*).

Two 4-item scales measured fit perceptions (dependent variables). Questions included to measure P-J fit were: "To what extent do your knowledge, skills, and abilities match the requirements of the job?" "To what extent does the job fulfill your needs?" "To what extent is the job a good match for you?" and "To what extent does the job enable you to do the kind of work you want to do?" The subjective P-O fit scale included the following items "To what extent does your personality match the personality of image of the organization" "To what extent does the organization fulfill your needs?" and "To what extent is the organization a good match for you." Participants responded on a 5-point Likert-type scale with two anchors (1 = *to a very little extent*, 5 = *to a very large extent*). Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh's (1983) three-item scale assessed job satisfaction. Allen and Meyer's (1990) affective commitment eight-item scale measured organizational commitment. Mael's (1988) six-item organizational identification scale assessed organizational identification and Colarelli's (1984) three-item scale measured intention to quit. All responses for employment

quality utilized scales ranging from 1 = *disagree strongly* to 7 = *agree strongly*.

The researchers used descriptive statistics, multiple regression analysis, and path analyses to analyze the data. The results indicated that job search behavior and career planning positively related to pre-entry person-job (P-J) and person-organization (P-O) fit perceptions. Pre-entry perceptions mediated the relationship between career planning and post entry P-J fit perceptions. P-J and P-O fit perceptions positively related to job and organizational attitudes, and pre-entry P-J fit perceptions mediated the relationship between career planning and job attitudes. Post entry fit perceptions mediated the relationship between pre-entry fit perceptions and employment quality.

In summary, P-O fit has demonstrated to be a key variable for an organization to understand in order to optimize its recruitment costs. O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) highlighted that P-O fit was a significant predictor of organization commitment and intentions to stay and Cable and Judge (1994) policy capturing study demonstrated the correlation between materialistic applicants and organization emphasis on pay level. The impact of P-O fit on the quality of employment and

organization socialization are recent areas of study (Cable & Parson, 2001; Saks & Ashforth, 2002). Researchers clearly indicate that more needs to be done to examine this phenomenon.

Business College Recruitment

A substream of private sector recruitment involves recruiting business professionals to teach in higher education. Most of the existing studies, which are few in number, address recruiting faculty to teach at two-year community colleges. Community colleges by design and definition have the mission to educate and train students for practical workplace needs. Community colleges also serve as springboards for transfer to four-year institutions by offering compensatory education and academic transfer courses. A new stream of research, initiated in the mid 1990s, began to address the factors related to recruiting business professionals to teach at community colleges.

Winter (1996) conducted an empirical study to determine whether or not organizational characteristics and job attributes described in recruitment advertisements influenced the reactions of applicants for community college business faculty positions. Experienced male and female business professionals pursuing MBA degrees ($N =$

162) role-played as job applicants reacting to jobs described in nine faculty recruitment advertisements. The organizational characteristics (independent variables) investigated in the study were (a) instructional program (academic transfer, career education, compensatory education) and (b) job attributes (intrinsic, extrinsic, work context).

The dependent variable was an additive composite rating of applicant reaction to a community college business position. The composite score consisted of four items with a 5-point Likert-type scale (5 being more favorable than 1). These items were: (a) overall attractiveness of the job, (b) likelihood of applying for the job, (c) likelihood of accepting an interview for the job, and (d) likelihood of accepting the job if offered.

The researcher conducted an ANOVA on the variables and used the Tukey (HSD) post hoc procedure. Results indicated that, across all levels of job attributes: (a) compensatory education programs were rated least favorably, (b) career education programs were rated more favorably than compensatory programs, and (c) academic transfer programs were rated more favorably than either career education programs or compensatory education programs.

Winter (1998) conducted another study to determine the effect of applicant gender, instructional programs, and job attributes on applicant rating of a community college faculty position. Two equal groups of experienced male and female MBA students ($N = 180$) participated in the study. Nine faculty advertisements operationalized the recruitment messages. The independent variables were: (a) applicant sex (female, male); (b) instructional programs (academic transfer, career education, compensatory education); and (c) job attributes (intrinsic, extrinsic, work context).

Similar to the previous study (Winter, 1996), the dependent variable was an additive composite rating of applicant reaction to a faculty position. The composite score consisted of four items with a 5-point Likert-type scale (5 being more favorable than 1). These items were: (a) overall attractiveness of the job, (b) likelihood of applying for the job, (c) likelihood of accepting an interview for the job if offered, and (d) likelihood of accepting the job if offered.

Results of the ANOVA indicated statistical significance in: (a) instructional programs, (b) the interaction between sex and job attributes, and (c) interaction between sex, instructional programs, and job attributes. Further analysis indicated that male

applicants reacted more favorably to jobs described in advertisements emphasizing academic instructional programs with extrinsic job attributes while female applicants reacted more favorably to jobs described in advertisements emphasizing academic instructional programs with intrinsic job attributes.

Winter and Kjorlien (2000) conducted an investigation to examine potential applicant reactions to jobs described in position announcements for business faculty vacancies at community colleges and to identify predictors of applicant decisions that occur prior to the initial employment interview. Randomly selected business professionals ($N = 176$) completing MBA degrees at a major research university located in the Midwest participated in the study. A biographical data sheet operationalized 11 personal characteristics: age, gender, race, marital status, percent of household income earned by the spouse, number of relatives in the area, number of dependent children, years lived in the area, number of friends in the area, current job satisfaction, and years of business experience. The participants randomly reviewed one of four versions of the position announcement created by crossing the two predictors of interest: relocation (yes, no) and recruiter background (business, education).

The dependent variable was applicant rating of a job described in a faculty recruitment advertisement. The additive composite score consisted of four items with a 5-point Likert-type scale (5 being more favorable than 1). These items were: (a) overall attractiveness of the job, (b) likelihood of applying for the job, (c) likelihood of accepting an interview for the job if offered, and (d) likelihood of accepting the job if offered.

The researchers used stepwise multiple regression to analyze the data. The most significant predictor of interest was applicant current job satisfaction (increment $R^2 = .484$). As the applicant rating of current job satisfaction decreased, rating of the position increased. Applicant rating of the job also increased as the percentage of household income earned by the spouse decreased. Beta coefficients also indicated that applicant rating of a business faculty position was more favorable when the recruiter background was similar (business) to that of the applicant and the job did not require relocation.

Winter and Kjorlien (2000) conducted a factorial experiment to investigate effects of job mobility, gender, and recruiter background on the decision to apply for a community college faculty position. Masters of business

administration students ($N = 136$) at a major research university in a large metropolitan area in the Midwest participated in the study. Job mobility (relocation, no relocation); recruiter background (business, education); and applicant gender (male, female) were the three independent variables examined in the study.

The dependent variable was a composite score rating by the applicant of a job described in a formal position announcement. The four items operationalized on a job evaluation instrument were: (a) "How would you rate the overall attractiveness of the teaching job described?" (b) "How likely would you be to apply for the teaching job described?" (c) "If offered, how likely would you be to accept an interview for the teaching job described?" and (d) "If offered, how likely would you be to accept the teaching job described?" A 5-point Likert-type scale, with 5 being more favorable than 1, measured the job rating dependent variable.

An initial analysis of the means and standard deviations suggested that both male and female applicants preferred jobs described by recruiters with the same background (business) and jobs that did not require relocation. The researchers conducted a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ completely crossed fixed-factor ANOVA to further analyze

the data. The main effect indicated that across all levels of applicant gender and recruiter background, participants rated business faculty jobs that did not require relocation more favorably than jobs that did require relocation. There was also a significant main effect for recruiter background. Applicants, across all levels of job mobility and gender, were more favorable to jobs described by recruiters depicted as similar to the applicant (business) than to jobs described by a recruiter depicted as dissimilar (education).

Winter and Kjorlien (2001) conducted an experimental study on job recruitment to assess the attractiveness of a faculty position at a community college based on employment status, person characteristics, and gender. Randomly selected Masters in Business Administration students ($N = 136$) from two large public universities in the Midwest participated in the study. Employment status (part-time, full-time); ideal person characteristics (business, teaching); and applicant gender (male, female) were the independent variables. A simulated job advertisement operationalized the independent variables.

The dependent variable was the applicant rating of the job. A job evaluation instrument operationalized the dependent variable. This instrument had four items to form

an additive composite score: (a) "How would you rate the overall attractiveness of the teaching job described?" (b) "How likely would you be to apply for the teaching job described?" (c) "If offered, how likely would you be to accept an interview for the teaching job described?" and (d) "If offered, how likely would you be to accept the teaching job described?" A 5-point Likert-type scale measured each item (5 being more favorable than 1).

Winter and Kjorlien (2001) used a three-way univariate analysis of variance to assess the data. The ANOVA detected a significant main effect for employment status. Participants rated part-time jobs more favorably than full-time jobs. Person characteristics and participant gender were not statistically significant.

Winter and Muñoz (2001) conducted an exploratory study to assess the association between personal characteristics and applicant rating of business faculty positions. Randomly selected MBA students ($N = 194$) from a major research university participated in the study. The independent variables were applicant demographic characteristics and applicant personal satisfaction with facets of their current jobs. The demographic variables examined were: gender, race (White, minority), marital status (single, married), working status, age, number of

dependent children, years lived in the area, hours worked per week, job tenure, total years of work experience, and years of business experience. The short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) measured the current job satisfaction of the study participants regarding 20 intrinsic and extrinsic job facets.

The dependent variable was participant rating of a business faculty job described in a simulated recruitment advertisement. Three items operationalized the job evaluation instrument: (a) likelihood of applying for the job, (b) likelihood of accepting an interview, and (c) likelihood of accepting the job if offered. The above items had a 5-point Likert-type scale, with 5 indicating a more favorable rating.

Winter and Muñoz (2001) assessed the data with multiple regression analysis. Marital status, hours worked per week, age, total work experience, and number of dependent children correlated significantly with the dependent variable. Marital status correlated negatively, with attraction to the job increasing when the participants were not married. Hours per week correlated positively with the job satisfaction explaining that as hours worked per week increased, attraction to the job also increased.

The above studies resulted in new knowledge about the factors that influence business professionals to consider a new career in community college teaching. Those factors included job characteristics, academic programs, employment status, and job satisfaction. Community college recruiters are able to use knowledge gained from the above studies to improve their recruitment practices.

Recruitment Theories and Models

Much of the research on recruitment developed in isolation and is concentrated on specific topics such as: recruiter affects, recruitment sources, and realistic job versus traditional previews. Integrating these bodies of knowledge in the context of other organizational, political, and social activities gives a better understanding of applicant decisions. The four models described below provided frameworks for future research.

Rynes Recruitment Theory Model

Rynes (1991) examined the major body of literature on recruitment practices and processes to develop a recruitment theory and outline for future research. The model details three major streams: (a) independent variables (recruiters, sources, administrative policies and procedures); (b) process variables (instrumentalities and expectations in the pre-hire process and self-selection

adjustment in the post-hire process); and (c) dependent variables (pre-hire, post-hire). Three kinds of recruiter characteristics included: (a) recruiter demographics (sex, race, age); (b) functional area (personnel versus department recruiter, recruiter versus job incumbent); and (c) personality and behavioral traits.

Recruitment sources identified were: (a) referrals; (b) newspaper ads; (c) employment agencies (public, private); (d) advertisements; (e) direct application; (f) rehires; (g) college placement centers; (h) journal ads; and (i) radio/TV. Of the independent variables, administrative policies and procedures has been the least studied. Those studied include: (a) timing of recruitment follow-up, (b) policies regarding recruitment expenditures (reimbursement policies), (c) nature of the application process, and (d) realism of recruitment messages.

The second major recruitment stream suggested by Rynes (1991) addressed the psychological process variables of how applicants translate attributes and recruiting practices (instrumentalities) into decisions and behaviors (expectancies). Instrumentalities are concerned with how (a) applicants may interpret recruitment characteristics as signal or cues for unknown organizational attributes, (b) imperfect attribute information allows recruiters to

manipulate information they give to applicants, and (c) organizational representatives leave a vivid impression on applicants when job attributes are vague. Recruiters accentuate expectancy effects by providing positive cues about job offer and applicants perceiving a job offer may favorably distort their perception of the job.

The desired outcome of recruitment is the favorable acceptance to a job offer. The third major stream of the model addresses that applicant ability to self-select into or out of jobs or the process at any time. The literature suggests that (a) applicants self-select according to their perception of fit between personal needs and the organizational environment, and (b) that realistic information may facilitate adjustment by helping new employees form realistic expectations, increase commitment, or trigger anticipatory coping mechanism (Rynes, 1991, p. 404). Rynes (1991) Recruitment Theory Model suggests that the many independent variables, process variables, and dependent variables of the recruitment process should be studied in a broader contextual manner rather than in isolation.

Employment Process Model

Schwab (1982) constructed a model to explain job applicant decision-making. The economic model of supply and

demand undergirds this model. When an offer is extended and accepted, the process of decisions leading to employment ends (Schwab, 1982, p. 104). The model contains two major threads - the applicant's decision processes and the organization's processes. The applicant seeks out and identifies potential employers and their methods of recruitment. The organization has to decide that a need exists and decide how to communicate these job openings to attract a large number of qualified candidates from which to evaluate.

This evaluation process will lead to extending offers to the candidate that exhibits the best fit. This model assumes the economic model of supply and demand, whereby job seekers have alternatives and seek the best fit of the job attributes (wages, conditions, opportunities) within an economic and political environment (e.g., labor market, political regulations). In summary, Schwab (1982) suggests that organizational recruiting procedures influences employment acceptance rates and post-employment outcomes such as survival rates.

General Job Search and Evaluation Model

Schwab, Rynes, and Aldag (1987) developed a model pertaining to decision processes of the job search and evaluation of job opportunities. This model emerged from

the characteristics of individuals seeking employment and the nature of the labor markets. Labor force status, occupational preferences and training, and cognitive abilities influenced applicant job search and evaluation methods. The two dimensions of job search hypothesized to influence employment outcome were: (a) the sources of market information, and (b) the intensity of job search.

The model for evaluating job opportunities presented on two dimensions also: (a) content (perceived importance of attractiveness of job attributes) and (b) process (the mental process used to evaluate job attributes). The dependent variable, or outcome of this model was (a) whether or not applicant obtained employment and (b) the quality of employment obtained. Schwab, Rynes, and Aldag (1987) therefore, postulate that the fact that job seekers confront imperfect information about both the availability and specific characteristics of alternatives leaves room for considerable employer influence on individual decisions.

Attraction Process Model

Rynes and Barber (1990) developed an applicant attraction model from the organization perspective. This model drew from multiple literature streams of economics, human resource management, industrial psychology,

organizational behavior, and sociology. The model defined three distinct strategies for attracting applicants: (a) altering recruitment practices, (b) targeting nontraditional applicants, and (c) modifying employment inducements.

The literature review indicated that characteristics of recruiting practices demonstrated by organizational representatives (personality, informedness, credibility), recruitment messages (RJPs), recruitment source, and timing have affected applicant attraction to jobs (dependent variable). The model also indicated that modifying employment inducements, e.g., benefits, work location, and salary, affect applicant job attraction. The model also suggests that targeting nontraditional applicants, those of a different country of origin, age, sex, or work experience will increase applicant job attraction.

In summary, the Rynes and Barber (1990) Attraction Process model postulates that external contingencies attraction strategies impact applicant outcomes such as the decisions to apply for the position. The models described above suggest a plethora of categories of variables for empirical studies. The literature research highlights various analytical methods that can be used in future studies. These are reviewed in the next section.

Recruitment Study Designs

Recruitment researchers employed two predominant recruitment designs: the correlation design and the experimental design. The correlational approach involved having individuals respond to questions about recruitment practices using Likert-type scale rating items. The usual analytical techniques for the correlation design were correlation analysis followed by some type of multiple regression analysis (Cable & Judge, 1996; Harris & Fink, 1987; Taylor & Schmidt, 1983).

The experimental design involved researchers (Barber & Roehling, 1993; Freeman & Carpenter, 1983; Mason & Belt, 1986) manipulating recruitment-related factors in simulated recruitment media (e.g., job descriptions, position advertisements, recruitment interviews, recruitment videos) with the simulated media operationalizing nominal scaled independent variables. The usual analytical procedures for the experimental studies were univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA).

In both the correlation and the experimental studies (Breaugh & Mann, 1984; Colarelli, 1984; Cable & Judge, 1994; Wanous, 1973) the dependent variables consisted of one or more Likert-type items used to measure recruitment

outcomes. The most common rating items related to outcomes such as: (a) applicant rating of the job, the hiring organization, or the recruiter; and (b) applicant rating of the likelihood of applying for the job, accepting an interview for the job, or accepting the job if offered.

Chapter Summary

The human resource efforts to attract applicants to fill specific jobs fell under the rubric of recruitment. "Recruitment encompasses all organizational practices and decisions that affect either the number, or types, of individuals who are willing to apply for, or to accept, a given vacancy" (Rynes, 1991; p. 429). Turban and Dougherty (1992) demonstrated that applicant perceptions of recruiter behaviors, especially the interest shown in the applicant, had the strongest influence on applicant attraction to an organization.

The studies of job previews (Colarelli, 1984; Saks, Weisner, & Summers, 1994; Wanous, 1976) provided data suggesting that realistic information reduced employee turnover by creating employment expectations consistent with post employment realities. Suszko and Breaugh (1986) supported this premise with results stating that RJP applicants were more satisfied with their jobs than non-RJP applicants and the RJP hires had less voluntary turnover

than non-RJP hires. Key job attributes that applicants looked for in job previews were use of skills and abilities, flexibility of working hours, beginning salary, and self-esteem (Ellis & Taylor, 1983; Feldman & Arnold, 1978; Freeman & Carpenter, 1983).

Adkins, Russell, and Werbel (1994) highlighted another effect of the recruiter in the recruiting process when they studied and determined that the congruence between applicant work values and the recruiter was a significant predictor of general employability and person-organization fit. Fit perception appears to function as a key mechanism in the organizational entry process by linking pre-entry behaviors (i.e., job search and job choice) to post-entry employment quality (Saks & Ashforth, 2002; p. 653). The empirical studies of Winter and Kjørlién (2000) in recruiting business professionals for community college positions supported other pre-entry behaviors where the similarity between recruiter and job preference affected job choice.

Utilizing multiple regression and factor analysis researchers have demonstrated correlations between job search, P-O fit, and employment quality. Other studies have utilized *t*-tests, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and chi-square analysis to review differences between one group of

applicants and another. Multiple regression and analysis of variance are the most frequently used methods of analyzing the data in recruitment research. A review of the methods used to conduct this study appears in Chapter III.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study addressed the attraction of business professionals to jobs as business department faculty members employed at two-year community colleges. There has been little empirical research about community college faculty recruitment (Winter, 1996; Winter, 1998; Winter & Kjørlien, 2000). The framework for this study was based on: (a) recognized operational definitions for personnel recruitment (Rynes, 1991), (b) widely accepted models of personnel recruitment (Schwab, 1982; Schwab et al., 1987), and (c) a reliable and valid instrument pilot tested at the research site.

Research Advancement

This was one of the few empirical investigations about factors that influence applicant attraction to vacancies at two-year community colleges. Such research was needed, and timely, because of the large number of community college faculty retiring (Magner, 2000).

Winter's (1996, 1998) studies indicated that general intrinsic and extrinsic job attributes influenced the reactions of applicants for community college business faculty positions. Winter and Kjorlien (2000) manipulated job characteristics in a simulated job advertisement to determine predictors of applicant attraction to job positions in teaching at community colleges. This study was the first to manipulate the extrinsic values of salary and health benefits.

Participants and Sampling Methodology

The study participants were practicing business professionals ($N = 187$) pursuing the MBA degree at a university located in the Midwest. The method used to determine the minimum acceptable sample size for this research consisted of power analysis criteria established by Cohen (1988) to determine acceptable sample sizes for a study involving a fixed-factor analysis of variance design. The specifications of the power analysis were (Cohen, 1988): (a) a medium effect size ($\omega^2 = .06$), (b) a planned alpha level ($\alpha = .05$), and a specified level of power ($1-\beta = .80$). Based on results of the power analysis, the minimum required sample size was 162. The formula used to compute the sample size was the one specified by Cohen and Cohen (1988, p. 396). The formula used was for a completely

crossed ANOVA design, as opposed to the repeated measures design used in this study and was, therefore, a conservative estimate of the sample size required.

The cell and sample size computations were as follows, assuming six cells (3 x 2):

$$n_c = \frac{(n' - 1) (u + 1)}{\text{number of cells}} + 1$$

$$n_c = \frac{(52 - 1) (2 + 1)}{6} + 1$$

$$n_c \approx 27$$

$$N = 6 \times 27 = 162$$

Having experienced business professionals, in the process of completing the MBA degree, serve as the study participants was a realistic procedure because community colleges recruit about "25% [of their faculty] directly from graduate studies; and another 25% from the trades, industry, business and government administration" (London, p. 248). This approach also insured that the participants had the two essential qualifications needed to assume a position teaching business at a community college: (a) job experience in the applicable field and (b) a master's degree in the applicable academic discipline (Higgins, Hawthorn, Cape, & Bell, 1994; London, 1989).

Design and Data Analysis

The design selected for this study was a factorial experiment (Campbell & Stanley, 1963) involving a two-way fixed-factor repeated-measures analysis of variance design (Keppel, 1991; Kirk, 1995). The independent variables investigated were assistant professor starting salary and employee health insurance plan. The dependent variable was participant rating of a business faculty position at a two-year community college. A detailed description of the variables and their measurement appears below.

Independent Variables

The factors examined in this study were assistant professor salaries and employer-paid comprehensive health benefits to determine if these factors influenced the attraction of business professionals to community college faculty positions. The salaries investigated represented a minimum starting salary (\$34,000), mid-range salary (\$44,000), and a maximum salary (\$51,000) for a 10-month contract for a business faculty position. Salary was nominal-scaled. Information obtained from a Chief Operating Officer of a local community system provided the operational definition of salaries (J. Eames, personal communication, July 27, 2004). The above salary levels

were the high, mid, and low levels for an assistant professor position for the year prior to the study.

Employee health insurance benefits are normally provided in private sector employment and are a significant factor in employment (Heneman, Judge, & Heneman, 2000). The health insurance benefits investigated were nominal-scaled and operationalized as either an employer-paid individual or an employer-paid family plan.

Salary and health benefits are known to be highly significant predictors of job attraction in the private sector (Rynes, 1991). Rynes and Barber (1990) recommended using economic incentives to recruit personnel, but the education literature is devoid of studies addressing salary and health benefits. In a simulated business faculty position advertisement (Appendix A), the basic faculty position responsibilities (teaching, advising students, and participating in education and training programs for area businesses) were held constant. An advertisement of six different positions manipulated the salary and health benefits variable. Prior research in the private sector (Barber, 1998; Rynes, 1991) and the education sector (Winter & Kjørlien, 2001; Winter & Muñoz, 2001) justified use of the simulation technique in the community college context.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in the study was interval scaled and consisted of a two-item composite score for applicant rating of business faculty positions described in a simulated job advertisement. The participants reviewed six jobs described in simulated job advertisements, each reflecting a different level of salary (\$34,000, \$44,000, \$51,000) and health benefit package (individual, family plan), and rated the jobs described in the advertisement using two 5-point Likert-type scales (1 = *very unlikely to accept*, 5 = *very likely to accept*). The items were: (a) "If offered, how likely would you be to **accept an interview** for the teaching job described?" and (b) "If offered, how likely would you be to **accept the teaching job** described? Previous recruitment research (e.g., Rynes & Lawler, 1983; Young, et al., 1989; Winter, 1996; Winter & Kjorlien, 2000) used these items to measure the dependent variable (job rating).

Secondary Analysis

As a secondary analysis in this investigation, the researcher analyzed the impact of participant demographic variables on applicant job rating. This procedure addressed Hypothesis 4 stated in Chapter I and involved regressing job rating (dependent variable) on the

participant demographic characteristics captured by the instrument shown in Appendix A.

Instrumentation

Reviewing actual position announcements used in the recruitment of community college faculty, the researcher developed the instrument used in this study (Appendix A). The instrument contained a personal background section followed by a scale for the participants to indicate their willingness to consider a teaching position at a community college. The next section contained a simulated job advertisement detailing the general information about the community college system, information about the jobs, application procedures, and the manipulated variables of salary and health benefits for six business faculty vacancies. Appendix A contains one version of the instrument. The researcher counterbalanced (Keppel, 1991) the order of the jobs to control for order effects. The counterbalancing procedures rendered six versions of the instrument with each job option appearing first, second, third, fourth, fifth, or sixth an equal number of times.

Pilot Study

Prior to collecting data, this study received approval from the University of Louisville Human Studies Protection Program. The researcher administered the research

instrument to a group of pilot participants ($N = 23$) with characteristics similar to participants in the study. The administration of the instrument included a standardized script (See Appendix B). The next step in the pilot procedure was to analyze the reliability of the composite scale measuring the dependent variable (job rating). Descriptive statistics for the pilot participants are in Table 1. Results of the reliability analyses are in Tables 2-7 contained in Appendix C.

Based on observing the participants during the administration of the pilot study and reviewing the completed instruments, the researcher concluded the pilot participants understood the recruitment simulation protocols and had no difficulty following the instructions or completing the instruments. As can be seen by the reliability analyses reported in Tables 2-7, contained in Appendix C, the coefficient alphas for the composite scores measuring the dependent variable (job rating) ranged from .814 to .945, magnitudes that greatly exceeded the minimum (.60) recommended for use of a composite scale in statistical analysis (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Based on the above results, the researcher adopted the instruments for use in the actual study without modifications.

Table 1*Descriptive Statistics for Pilot Participants (N = 23).*

| <i>Variable</i> | <i>n</i> | <i>%</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>Ranges</i> |
|-------------------------|----------|----------|-------------|-----------|------------------------|
| Age | | | 33.7 | 9.0 | 22 - 50 |
| Gender | | | | | |
| Female | 16 | 69.3 | | | |
| Male | 7 | 30.4 | | | |
| Marital Status | | | | | |
| Yes | 15 | 65.2 | | | |
| No | 8 | 34.8 | | | |
| Ethnicity | | | | | |
| African American | 15 | 65.2 | | | |
| White American | 7 | 30.4 | | | |
| Asian American | 1 | 4.4 | | | |
| Full-time Experience | | | 13.2 | 9.7 | 1 - 30 |
| Business Experience | | | 10.3 | 8.8 | 1 - 26 |
| Dependent Children | | | .7 | .9 | 0 - 3 |
| Working | | | | | |
| No | 0 | 0.0 | | | |
| Yes | 23 | 100.0 | | | |
| Hours | | | 41.8 | 5.6 | 24 - 50 |
| Salary | | | \$42,370 | \$18,638 | \$23,000- \$110,000 |
| Willingness to consider | | | 4.7 | 2.1 | 1 - 7 |

Actual Data Collection

The researcher collected the data by presenting the instructions orally to each participant prior to regularly scheduled classes at an MBA program at a university located in a major metropolitan area in the Midwest. Each participant acknowledged the acceptance of privacy and confidentiality by completing the instrument (Appendix A).

Study Limitations

As is the case with all research, this study was subject to limitations. The participants rated jobs under simulated conditions. It is possible individuals rating jobs under actual recruitment conditions might have reacted differently than did the participants in this study. Also, the participants in this investigation were from a single university in a midwestern state. It is possible that individuals from other institutions or other states might have reacted differently than did the participants in this study. A description of the study results is contained in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The design for this study was a factorial experiment (Campbell & Stanley, 1963) involving an analysis of variance (ANOVA) with both independent variables examined serving as within-subjects (i.e., repeated measures) factors in the analysis. The ANOVA design reflected repeated measures specifications described by Keppel (1991) and Kirk (1995). The independent variables were assistant professor starting annual salary and employer-paid comprehensive health benefits. The salaries investigated represented a minimum starting salary (\$34,000), a mid-range salary (\$44,000), and a maximum salary (\$51,000) for a 10-month contract for a business faculty position. The health insurance benefits investigated were an employer-paid individual or an employer-paid family plan.

The dependent variable was interval-scaled and consisted of a two-item composite score for applicant rating of business faculty positions described in a simulated job advertisement.

Study Participants and Sample Size

The participants ($N = 187$) in this study were experienced business professionals pursuing the MBA degree at a four-year university located in a major metropolitan area located in the Midwest. The participants role-played as applicants for community college business faculty positions by reacting to six faculty jobs described in a simulated faculty recruitment advertisement included in the research protocols (see instruments in Appendix A). The participants were volunteers who completed the instruments prior to regularly scheduled class sessions. As a result of conducting the data collection in person, and walking the participants through the instruments, there was almost no missing data in this analysis.

The power analysis reported in Chapter III specified the minimum number of participants required for this analysis was 162. The actual number of participants ($N = 187$) exceeded the minimum required, permitting the researcher to implement the research plan described in Chapter III. Because both independent variables (starting salary and health plan) were repeated measures in a 3×2 within-subjects ANOVA design, the above sample size provided 1,122 observations ($6 \times 187 = 1,122$) for the statistical analysis. This number of observations resulted

in statistical power being greater than 99% (i.e., $1-\beta > .99$), virtually insuring the researcher did not commit a Type II statistical error (Keppel, 1991); that is, failing to find statistical significance when statistical significance exists.

Having experienced business professionals pursuing the MBA degree role-play as job applicants was a realistic procedure because the two essential position qualifications for individuals hired to teach at a two-year community college are (Higgins et al., 1994; London, 1989): (a) work experience in the relevant professional area (i.e., business) and (b) a masters degree in the applicable academic discipline (i.e., business administration).

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for the study participants are in Table 8. As can be seen from the data in Table 8, 53.5% of the participants were female and 50.3% of the participants were married. The distribution by ethnicity was: White (71.1%), African American (20.9%), Hispanic American (4.3%), Asian American (2.7%), and Native American (1.0%).

The mean full-time work experience was 13.5 years, with a range of 1 to 42 years, while the mean business experience was 8.6 years with a range of 1 to 42 years. The

mean number of dependent children was .9, with the highest number of dependent children being 4. The range of hours worked per week was 5 to 70 hours, with 174 participants (93%) working a mean of 43.2 hours per week.

The mean score for willingness to consider a job teaching business at a community college was 4.8 on a 7-point scale (1 = *not at all willing*, 7 = *very willing*). Given that the mean was above the midpoint on the scale (i.e., midpoint = 4), it appeared that a majority of the participants were at least moderately willing to consider a business faculty position at a community college and make a career transition from business management to college teaching.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for Actual Study Participants (N = 187)

| <i>Variable</i> | <i>n</i> | <i>%</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>Ranges</i> |
|-------------------------|----------|----------|-------------|-----------|---------------------------|
| Age | | | 34.6 | 8.7 | 22 - 55 |
| Gender | | | | | |
| Female | 100 | 53.5 | | | |
| Male | 87 | 46.5 | | | |
| Marital Status | | | | | |
| Married | 94 | 50.3 | | | |
| Single | 93 | 49.7 | | | |
| Ethnicity | | | | | |
| White American | 133 | 71.1 | | | |
| African American | 39 | 20.9 | | | |
| Hispanic American | 8 | 4.3 | | | |
| Asian American | 5 | 2.7 | | | |
| Native American | 2 | 1.0 | | | |
| Other | 0 | 0.0 | | | |
| Full-time Experience | | | 13.5 | 9.2 | 1 - 42 |
| Business Experience | | | 8.6 | 8.1 | 1 - 42 |
| Dependent Children | | | .9 | 1.1 | 0 - 4 |
| Working | | | | | |
| Yes | 174 | 93.0 | | | |
| No | 13 | 7.0 | | | |
| Hours | | | 43.2 | 8.6 | 5 - 70 (a) |
| Salary | | | \$45,365 | \$20,121 | \$9,000- \$120,000 (b) |
| Willingness to consider | | | 4.8 | 1.8 | 1 - 7 |

(a) median = 40.0 hours, mode = 40.0 hours

(b) median = \$40,000, mode = \$35,000

Reliability Analysis

The next step in the analysis was to perform a reliability analysis for the dependent variable (job rating), using coefficient alpha to establish the magnitude of internal consistency for the six two-item composite ratings rendered by the participants during the recruitment simulation. The results of the reliability analysis are in Tables 9-14 contained in Appendix E. The coefficient alphas for the composite scores of the actual study measuring the dependent variable (job rating) ranged from .90 to .95. These scores greatly exceeded the minimum (.60) recommended for use of a composite scale in statistical analysis (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Primary Inferential Statistics

The primary statistical analysis for this study addressed findings for the two-way within-subjects ANOVA that related to the recruitment simulation and factorial experiment (Stanley & Campbell, 1963), testing the impact of starting salary and health plan on participant job rating. This inferential analysis involved (a) computing cell means and standard deviations for all cells derived from the analysis of variance procedure and (b) computing the ANOVA. The cell means and standard deviations are in Table 15. The ANOVA results are in Table 16.

Table 15*Cell Means and Standard Deviations (N = 187)*

| Salary: | \$34,000 | \$44,000 | \$51,000 |
|---------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Health Plan: | | | |
| Individual | | | |
| Mean | 4.2 | 5.9 | 7.4 |
| (SD) | (2.2) | (2.5) | (2.5) |
| Family | | | |
| Mean | 4.4 | 6.4 | 8.0 |
| (SD) | (2.3) | (2.5) | (2.3) |

As can be seen from the results in Table 16, there was a significant main effect for starting salary ($F(2, 372) = 418.2, p < .0001$). The computed eta-squared for this effect ($\eta^2 = .69$), indicated salary accounted for 69% of the variance in the dependent variable (i.e., job rating) and greatly exceeded the percentage of variance explained (15%) considered by researchers to be a "large effect size" (Keppel, 1991, p. 66) for an ANOVA. Post-hoc tests, using the Bonferroni procedure (Keppel, 1991), indicated all mean score comparisons for the levels of salary were statistically significant ($p < .0001$): \$34,000 (mean = 4.2), \$44,000 (mean = 6.2), and \$51,000 (mean = 7.7).

Table 16

Analysis of Variance of Job Rating by Salary and Health Plan (N = 187)

| <i>Source of Variance</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>SS</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> |
|---------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Salary (SA) | 2 | 2,174.60 | 1,087.30 | 418.2 (a) |
| Health Plan (HP) | 1 | 57.50 | 57.50 | 28.8 (b) |
| SA X HP | 2 | 6.8 | 3.4 | 5.7 (c) |
| Error - SA | 372 | 979.1 | 2.6 | |
| Error - HP | 186 | 370.5 | 2.0 | |
| Error - SA X HP | 372 | 226.2 | .6 | |
| Total | 935 | 3,814.7 | | |

(a) Eta-squared = .69

(b) Eta-squared = .13

(c) Eta-squared = .03

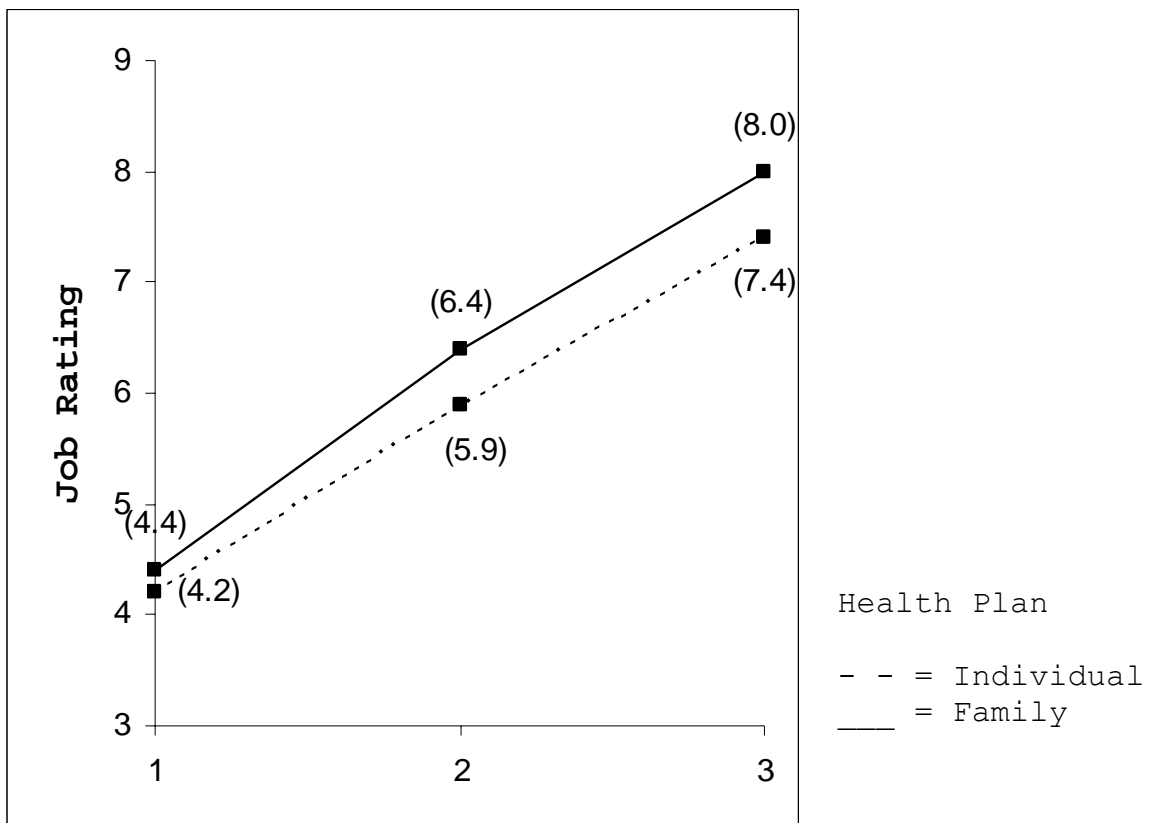
The results in Table 16 also indicate there was a statistically significant main effect for employer-paid health plan: $F(1, 186) = 28.8, p < .0001$. The eta-squared ($\eta^2 = .13$) indicated health plan explained 13% of the variance in job rating, a "medium effect size" (Keppel, 1991, p. 66), and just below the minimum amount of variance explained (i.e., 15%) considered to be a "large effect size" (Keppel, 1991, p. 66).

The mean for an employer-paid family health plan (mean = 6.2) was significantly higher ($p < .0001$) than the mean for an employer-paid individual health plan (mean = 5.8). The main effects for both salary and health plan explained sufficient variance in job rating to suggest both variables had a high enough magnitude of practical significance (Keppel, 1991; Kirk, 1995) for community college recruiters to consider using starting salary and employer-paid health plan as economic incentives (Rynes & Barber, 1990) in the task of recruiting people similar to the study participants to teach in the business departments at two-year community colleges.

The data in Table 16 further indicate there was a significant two-way interaction between salary and health plan: $F(2, 372) = 5.7, p < .004$. The computed eta-squared for this interaction effect was .03, indicating the interaction accounted for only 3% of the variance in job rating. This magnitude of explanation was a "small effect size" (Keppel, 1991, p. 66), suggesting the interaction had little practical significance (Keppel, 1991; Kirk, 1995) for the purpose of faculty recruitment.

The salary by health plan interaction appears in the form of a graph in Figure 1. As the graph in Figure 1 demonstrates, the two-way interaction was an ordinal

interaction (Keppel, 1991). At all levels of salary, mean ratings for a job with an employer-paid family health plan were higher than mean ratings for a job with an employer-paid individual health plan. However, the differences in the mean score ratings between a job with a family plan and a job with an individual plan increased as the job progressed from a position with a salary of \$34,000 to a salary of \$44,000 to a salary of \$51,000, thus, resulting in the interaction shown in Figure 1.



Salary (1 = \$34,000, 2 = \$44,000, 3 = \$51,000)

Figure 1. Salary by Health Plan Interaction

The researcher performed paired-samples *t*-tests to make mean score comparisons between the means for family plan versus individual plan at each level of starting salary and found that all mean score comparisons were statistically significant ($p < .006$ for the comparison at a salary of \$34,000, and $p < .0001$ for the salary levels of both \$44,000 and \$51,000). However, as noted above, the interaction effect ($\eta^2 = .03$) produced by these mean score differences was small in magnitude and, therefore, had little practical significance from a policy perspective.

Secondary Analysis

The secondary analysis involved determining whether or not personal characteristics of the study participants influenced the job ratings of business professionals role-playing as applicants for business faculty positions located at two-year community colleges. This analysis addressed Hypothesis 4 on page 7 of Chapter I. The personal characteristics (predictor variables) examined in the secondary analysis were age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, salary, and participant rating for willingness to consider a job teaching business at a community college (1 = *not at all* willing, 7 = *very* willing). The dependent variable in the analysis was participant rating of the job.

The procedure used to perform this analysis was ordinary least-squares (OLS) stepwise multiple regression analysis (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Because the participants provided six job ratings, one for each crossing of the levels for salary (\$34,000, \$44,000, \$51,000) and health plan (individual, family), this phase of the data analysis required the computation of six multiple regression equations. The researcher dummy coded the nominal predictor variables (Stevens, 1992).

The five dummy variables for ethnicity entered the regression equation first (Step 1) followed by age, gender, marital status and salary entered as a set (Step 2). Willingness to consider a job teaching business at a community college entered the equation last (Step 3).

The sample size for the regression analyses was 174. The reason for this reduction in the sample size was as follows. Although all participants in this study were experienced business people pursuing the MBA degree (the two criteria required for being a participant), 13 participants were not working at the time they completed the research protocols and did not provide salary data.

The results of the multiple regression analyses appear in Tables 17-22 and are in Appendix F. Tables 17-22 report only variables that were significant after Step 3 of the

variable entry process as described above. The regression tables display the standardized beta (β) coefficients and p -values for the significant predictor variables. The beta coefficients reflected all data having been converted into z -scores and, thus, all variables had the same unit of measure (i.e., standard deviation units). The predictor variable having the beta coefficient with the highest absolute value was the variable that explained the most variance in the dependent variable (Cohen et al., 2003).

At the bottom of the tables in Appendix F are the R^2 and adjusted- R^2 statistics, which report the percentage of variance in the dependent variable (i.e., job rating) accounted for by the linear combination of the significant predictor variables (Stevens, 1992). R -squared constitutes the effect size in OLS multiple regression analysis (Cohen et al., 2003). The six regression procedures rendered the same result.

For all regression equations, salary was a significant negative predictor of job rating. As participant salary score increased, job rating score decreased, holding all other significant predictors constant. Also, for all regression equations, willingness to consider a job teaching business at a community college was a significant positive predictor of job rating. Holding other predictors

in the equation constant, as willingness score increased, job rating score increased. No other participant characteristics were significant predictors.

As the data in Tables 17-22 also demonstrate, salary was the most powerful predictor of job rating in every case. Also, the magnitudes of R^2 across the six regression equations were similar in magnitude, ranging from .24 to .31. The interpretation of this finding is that salary and willingness accounted for between 24% and 31% of the variance in job rating. Cohen (1988, pp. 413-414) described 13% as a "medium effect size" in multiple regression and 26% as a "large effect size." Thus, the effect sizes detected in the secondary analysis were close to, or exceeded, the minimum magnitude defining a large effect size. The conclusion deriving from this finding is that salary and willingness rendered a large amount of practical significance (Cohen, 1988). A discussion of the practical and scholarly implications of the findings described above is in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

The topic of this study, recruiting qualified individuals to teach business at two-year community colleges, is important to the capacity of community colleges in delivering quality educational programs. Community colleges are a vital component of the American higher education system. Community colleges enroll more than one-half (55%) of all undergraduate students attending colleges and universities in the United States (Cohen & Brawer, 1989; Evelyn, October 29, 2004). In 1965, community colleges "enrolled 20% of all students at all levels of higher education, including graduate and professional school, and 24% of all first time college freshman. Two decades later, the figures were 37% and 44%, respectively" (Snyder, 1989, as cited in Adelman, 1994).

Business is one of the most popular academic areas addressed by community college community development and academic programs (Cohen & Brawer, 1989). Community colleges have invested increasing amounts of resources

aimed at economic development objectives such as customized job training, business assistance centers and incubator buildings for start-up businesses (Burger, 1988; Mihelich, 1988; Charner & Gold, 1987). And, the role of community colleges in providing job-ready graduates for all sectors of the economy, including business, received substantial attention in the 2004 presidential campaign (Evelyn, October 29, 2004).

As noted in the introduction to this study, recruiting community college faculty is becoming increasingly problematic due to massive retirements among the post-World War II "baby boomer" generation and competition for human talent with the private sector (Higgins et al., 1994; London, 1989; Magner, 2000). However, despite the importance of addressing community college recruitment, there is little empirical research about faculty recruitment in the education literature (Winter & Kjorlien, 2000). This study contributes to the task of filling this gap in the existing educational research literature.

The results of this study indicate both starting salary and employer-paid health plan are significant factors in attracting business professionals to positions teaching in the business departments of two-year community colleges. The examination of such economic factors is

consistent with the applicant attraction model of Rynes and Barber (1990), who recommended the use of economic factors as recruitment incentives. The study findings have implications for recruitment practice in future research as discussed below.

Implications for Recruitment Practice

Economic factors are an enduring focus of recruitment research in the private sector (Barber, 1998; Rynes, 1991; Schwab, 1982; Schwab et al., 1987) because private sector researchers demonstrated the utility of economic factors as incentives for increasing the size of applicant pools for position vacancies and increasing the rate of job offer acceptance (Heneman et al., 2000; Rynes & Barber, 1990).

By contrast, the literature review contained in Chapter II demonstrates there is a marked scarcity of studies in the education sector addressing economic factors as recruitment tools. This lack of attention to economic factors in the educational literature is unfortunate because, as Rynes and Barber (1990) noted, such factors are readily available to organization recruiters and "employers can raise salaries, improve benefits [. . .] or make any number of other improvements in working conditions" (p. 294) as a means of recruiting qualified individuals to fill position vacancies. The findings of this research shed

light on the potential usefulness of two economic factors (i.e., starting salary and health care plan) relative to recruiting business faculty to teach at two-year community colleges.

Descriptive Statistics Results

The descriptive statistics reported in Table 8 of Chapter IV provide a profile of the population from which the researcher drew the study sample. The statistics in Table 8 reflect a close-to-even distribution between both male and female and married and single participants. Accordingly, recruiting from this broad pool of potential applicants would likely result in gender balance within the applicant pool. Although most of the participants were White, 20.9% were African American, suggesting an opportunity to implement minority recruitment strategies targeting the dominant minority group at the research site (i.e., African Americans). A discussion about salary and willingness to consider a job as a community college business faculty member appears in the next two sections of this chapter.

Another important piece of data is the average years of work experience (8.6 years). This information is important because one of the required credentials for becoming a community college faculty member is to have work

experience in the applicable professional field (Higgins et al., 1994; London, 1989). The participants met this requirement and, thus, are potential applicants for position vacancies.

Primary Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis for this research included: (a) a primary analysis focused on results of the recruitment simulation and the ANOVA used to analyze the data derived from the simulation and (b) a secondary analysis focused on participant personal characteristics, and involving a series of stepwise multiple regression analyses. We begin with the implications of the primary statistical analysis relating to the two independent variables of interest (i.e., starting annual salary and health benefits plan).

Salary

The approach used to investigate salary in this study was to experimentally manipulate starting salary across three levels (\$34,000, \$44,000, \$51,000). As noted in Chapter III, these are actual salary levels used at the community college located in the area where the research took place, lending realism to the recruitment simulation. Further, it is within the policy discretion of community college hiring officials to hire new assistant professors

at any of these three salary levels, provided the chair of the hiring department can demonstrate sufficient justification (e.g., the need for higher salaries to attract qualified faculty in a competitive labor market) to pay other than the minimum starting salary (J. Eames, personal communication, November 5, 2004). Using salary as a recruitment tool is a time-proven strategy:

Compensation is the most important reward that the organization has to offer in its attraction strategy. It is a multifaceted reward that may be presented to the offer receiver in many forms. Sometimes that may consist of a standard pay rate and benefit package, which must be simply accepted or rejected. Other times the offer may be more tailor-made, often negotiated in advance. (Heneman et al., 2000, p. 592)

Researchers and human resources professionals might opine that the impact of the above salary levels is obvious. Job applicants will rate jobs highest when the job vacancy has a salary at the high end of the salary range for the position. However, in the context of this study (i.e., recruiting experienced business professionals to teach at a community college), the issue is not so simple. A number of important questions remain: (a) Can community college recruiters recruit business professionals at any salary level? (b) If salary is an effective recruitment incentive, how high must the salary be to make an impact on applicant attraction (high, medium, low)? (c) If salary is

an effective recruitment incentive, how effective is salary in terms of its likely practical impact on applicant attraction to position vacancies?

The descriptive statistics reported in Chapter IV, relative to applicant willingness to consider a business teaching job at a community college, indicate business professionals, similar to the participants in this study, have at least moderate interest in community college teaching (mean = 4.8 on a 7-point scale). The impact of salary ($\eta^2 = .69$) was not just significant in its potential to increase moderate job attraction to a higher level; its potential impact far exceeded the magnitude of a large effect size, suggesting salary holds a high level of practical utility as a recruitment incentive.

The ANOVA results reported in Chapter IV seem to indicate, because all mean scores for salary are significantly different from one another, that \$44,000 is a greater incentive than \$34,000 and \$51,000 is a greater incentive than both \$34,000 and \$44,000. This provides recruiters two options in terms of using starting salary as an incentive, a fact unknown before conducting this investigation. Although one might assume community colleges cannot compete with the private sector in terms of salaries, this study demonstrates this may not be the case.

The mean salary of participants in this study was \$45,365 (median = \$40,000). This would seem to suggest a salary of \$44,000 is competitive and a salary of \$51,000 could, indeed, serve as a recruitment incentive.

However, salary appears to have limitations as a recruitment incentive. Individuals already having a salary higher than what a community college can offer appear to have far less attraction to a community college faculty position. This conclusion is based on the regression results reported in Chapter IV, showing there is a significant negative correlation between salary and job rating; that is, as current salary increases, job rating decreases.

In summary, it appears community college recruiters have new knowledge to guide them in the faculty recruitment task. Salary is a potentially effective recruitment tool. Salary is likely to have a large impact. A starting salary of either \$44,000 or \$51,000 is likely to impact recruitment outcomes (e.g., likelihood of accepting the job if offered) and \$51,000 is likely to be significantly more effective than \$44,000 in attracting qualified applicants. And, the best prospects within the broad pool of potential job applicants appear to be individuals in the mid to low

levels of their current salary range as business professionals (i.e., at \$45,000 and lower).

Health Plan

Health plan also appears to have an impact at the high end of the medium effect size range ($\eta^2 = .06-.14$ is the medium effect size range, Cohen, 1988) in that health plan explains 13% of the variance in job rating and an employer-paid family plan is a more effective incentive than an employer-paid individual plan regardless of the starting salary (see Figure 1 in Chapter IV). As is the case with salary, health plan appears to be an effective recruitment tool, but would, of course require the hiring organization to adopt a policy of offering health plans fully employer-paid, a potentially risky policy given the rising cost of healthcare in the US economy. However, as private-sector researchers have noted, private companies often use employee benefits as recruitment incentives: "Sometimes the offer may provide not only standard benefits but also additional custom-made benefits or other perquisites, known as 'perks'" (Heneman et al., 2000, p. 595).

Perhaps it is time for community college officials to consider the use of a recruitment strategy proven successful in the private sector. It would seem a prudent approach for community colleges, with respect to both

salary and health plan, to conduct cost-benefit analyses and tests of both variables under actual recruitment conditions to determine (a) the affordability and economic impact of using salary and health plan as recruitment incentives and (b) the actual impact of both variables on actual recruitment outcomes (e.g., accepting a job offer).

Finally, recruiters should consider the joint effects of salary and health plan. The combined effect of using both factors simultaneously accounts for 82% of the variance in job rating, an overwhelming level of practical significance, with the highest effect (see Figure 1 in Chapter IV) being the combination of a salary of \$51,000 and a family health plan.

Secondary Statistical Analysis

The secondary analysis (see regression tables in Appendix F) indicates participant demographic variables (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity, marital status) are not significant predictors of job rating and, accordingly should not be the focus of efforts to recruit business professionals to teach at a community college. Salary is a significant negative predictor of job rating, suggesting (see previous section) individuals at the high end of the current salary range are attracted little to transitioning from a business career to a career teaching business at a

community college. Willingness to consider a job teaching business at a community college is a positive significant predictor of job rating.

This finding suggests identifying individuals who score high on this variable within the target pool of potential applicants would be a useful preliminary step in the recruitment process. Recruiters could locate such individuals in the same manner as data collection occurred in this investigation; that is, visit MBA classes in the target labor market and perform a brief survey of potential applicants. Rather than doing a recruitment simulation, focus the survey on providing information about a career teaching business at a community college and eliciting respondent ratings about various aspects of the job. Capture an overall rating of willingness to consider a community college teaching position in a business department and ask those interested in learning more to provide their name and contact information at the end of the survey. Recruiters can then follow up on this information and move to the application and interview stages of the recruitment process.

Implications for Future Research

The implications for future research relate to two issues: (a) recruitment theory and (b) variables to be the

focus of future community college faculty recruitment studies. The recruitment models discussed in Chapters II and III proved useful in guiding selection of the independent and dependent variables for this study, and should be used as framing devices in future studies about community college recruitment. These models emphasize investigating the influence of vacancy characteristics in general, and economic incentives (e.g., salary) in particular.

There are many potential economic incentives yet to be investigated in the community college context. Examples include: payment of relocation expenses, family education allowance, performance bonuses, and retirement benefits. This study addressed business faculty. Future investigations could extend examining economic factors into other disciplines, such as, arts and sciences, engineering, and computer technology.

This study addressed recruiting faculty for two-year colleges. Future studies could address other institutions of higher education (e.g., four-year colleges and universities) and other community college positions such as president, vice president of academic affairs, and other senior administrative positions. Finally, future investigations could address the limitations of this study

stated on pages 142: (a) test the effects of salary and health plan under actual recruitment conditions and (b) extend the investigation of salary and health plan to other regions of the country.

In addressing salary in other regions of the country researchers could operationalize salary according to levels described as low, medium, and high. In this study there was considerable overlap between community college salaries and salaries of business professionals who participated in the study. Future studies should examine the extent of salary overlap within the site of the proposed research. To the extent that the overlap is large, business professionals would likely react favorably to the salary of a community college professional.

And, finally, future studies should address the issue of making a career transition from business to community college teaching. The results of this study appear to suggest finding an innovative way of operationalizing a "career transition" variable could result in significant findings. The "career transition" variable could address inducements to making a career transition, such as more time with the family, less travel, more community involvement, and a service oriented career. Addressing career transition might entail operationalizing both

positive aspects of teaching and negative aspects of business (e.g., lack of job security, relocations, less generous healthcare).

Conclusion

This study is one of the few investigations to make use of the experimental design and recruitment simulation techniques in the community college context. The study findings suggest that the research methods employed in this investigation have great potential for informing the task of recruiting community college personnel. The problem of baby-boomer retirements is likely to continue for some time into the future, making competition among various sectors of the US economy (e.g., education, business) to recruit human talent increasingly intense.

Recruiting qualified faculty would appear to be an administrative task of the highest priority for community college leaders (Higgins et al., 1994). This study identified two factors (salary and health plan) among many possibilities that community college leaders can address in performing this high priority task. It is hoped that other recruitment researchers can extend the body of empirical research reported here to provide an ever-expanding knowledge base to inform community college recruitment. Hiring talented educators is, arguably, one of the most

essential tasks needed to deliver quality education programs.

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APPENDIX A

BUSINESS TEACHING SURVEY

Preamble

Dear Colleague:

You are being invited to participate in a research study by answering the attached questionnaire about community college faculty recruitment. The Department of Leadership, Foundations, and Human Resource Education at the University of Louisville sponsors this research. The purpose of this study is to learn about business professionals' views concerning the possibility of transitioning from business to a career as a community college faculty member teaching courses in their areas of business expertise. Your participation will consist of completing this voluntary and anonymous survey questionnaire. About 500 business professionals in Kentucky will be invited to participate in this research. The questionnaire takes about 15 minutes to complete. You are free to decline to answer any question that makes you feel uncomfortable.

Although you may not benefit directly from this study, it is hoped that your participation will help others in the future by assisting community college officials in hiring skilled business professionals such as you to teach business at the college level. The sponsor, the Human Subjects Protection Program Office, and the Institutional Review Board may inspect the research records of this study. The data will be kept under lock and key and will be protected to the full extent of the law. Should the data be published you will not be identified by name. Your participation in this research is voluntary. You may refuse or discontinue participation at any time without losing any benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

Should you have any questions you may call the principal investigator at (502) 852-0617. Should you have any questions about your rights as a research subject you may call the Human Subjects Protection Program Office at (502) 852-5188 and they will put you in touch with the appropriate chair of the Institutional Review Board to discuss the matter.

By completing this questionnaire you are indicating your willingness to participate freely in this research study. You are further indicating that all your present questions have been answered in language you understand and that you understand that all future questions will be answered in a similar manner. Thank you for considering our invitation to participate in this study.

Sincerely,

Paul A. Winter

Glenn Rodriguez

Please continue to next page

SECTION I.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

INSTRUCTIONS: Please check the item, or write in the information requested, that applies to you best. All information is confidential and anonymous.

Age (Years): _____

Gender: Female _____
 Male _____

Are you married? Yes _____
 No _____

Ethnicity (check one):

- African American _____
- White American _____
- Native American _____
- Hispanic American _____
- Asian American _____
- Other (Please specify)_____

Total **full time** work experience (years): _____

Total **full time** business experience (years): _____

Number of dependent children: _____

Are you working? Yes _____, I work ____ hours per week. No _____, I am not working.

If working, what is your current annual salary? \$_____ . (Please remember this information is anonymous.)

(For the question below, please **circle** the **one** number that represents your opinion best.)

Upon completion of your MBA degree, and putting other job considerations such as salary and employee benefits aside for the moment, how willing are you to **consider** teaching in your business specialty at a community college?

Not at All
Willing

Very
Willing

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Please continue to next page

SECTION II. SIMULATED POSITION ADVERTISEMENT

INSTRUCTIONS: Please imagine you are searching for a job as a business faculty member teaching in your business specialty at a two-year community college and you have encountered the following advertisement for six business faculty vacancies that vary only by starting annual salary and health benefits paid by the employer. Please read the advertisement and rate each of the six jobs described using the rating scales provided. **Circle** the **one** number on each scale that applies to you best.

COMMUNITY COLLEGE BUSINESS TEACHING POSITIONS AVAILABLE

GENERAL INFORMATION: Community College System X (CCSX) invites applications for open community college faculty positions within the system's business departments. CCSX has responsibility for 10 nationally accredited two-year community colleges recognized in this region for their excellence in delivering comprehensive postsecondary educational experiences. Serving a student body of more than 40,000 students, CCSX delivers college courses across a wide array of academic disciplines, including business administration and business technology. The community college business programs prepare graduates for careers in such business areas as: accounting, finance, marketing, advertising, general management, human resources, economics, consumer research, and computer science/business technology.

ABOUT THE JOBS: Position requirements include teaching business courses, advising students in the business department, and participating in education and training programs for area businesses.

APPLICATION PROCEDURES: Applications will undergo review by the search committee, with the review beginning in 30 days and continuing until the position is filled. To apply for the position, please send a letter of application, a professional resume, official transcripts, and three letters of recommendation to: Dr. E. E. Stone, Director of Community College Business Programs, Community Colleges System X, C/O *Community College Times*, P.O. Box 501, Washington, DC 20200.

CCSX is an Equal Access/Equal Opportunity Employer.

Please continue to next page

Please rate each of the six jobs described below using the rating scales provided.

Job #1 has a starting annual salary of **\$34,000** and an **individual** health care plan paid by the community college.

1. If offered, how likely would you be to **accept an interview** for the teaching job described?

Very
Unlikely to
Accept

Very
Likely to
Accept

1

2

3

4

5

2. If offered, how likely would you be to **accept the teaching job** described?

Very
Unlikely to
Accept

Very
Likely to
Accept

1

2

3

4

5

Please continue to next page

Job #1 has a starting annual salary of **\$44,000** and an **individual** health care plan paid by the community college.

1. If offered, how likely would you be to **accept an interview** for the teaching job described?

Very
Unlikely to
Accept

Very
Likely to
Accept

1

2

3

4

5

2. If offered, how likely would you be to **accept the teaching job** described?

Very
Unlikely to
Accept

Very
Likely to
Accept

1

2

3

4

5

Please continue to next page

Job #1 has a starting annual salary of **\$51,000** and an **individual** health care plan paid by the community college.

1. If offered, how likely would you be to **accept an interview** for the teaching job described?

| | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|--|--|--|-----------------------------|
| Very <u>Un</u> likely to Accept | | | | | | | | Very Likely to Accept |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | | |

2. If offered, how likely would you be to **accept the teaching job** described?

| | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|--|--|--|-----------------------------|
| Very <u>Un</u> likely to Accept | | | | | | | | Very Likely to Accept |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | | |

Please continue to next page

Job #1 has a starting annual salary of **\$34,000** and a **family** health care plan paid by the community college.

1. If offered, how likely would you be to **accept an interview** for the teaching job described?

| | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|----------------------------------|
| Very Un likely to Accept 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Very Likely to Accept 5 |
|--|---|---|---|----------------------------------|

2. If offered, how likely would you be to **accept the teaching job** described?

| | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|----------------------------------|
| Very Un likely to Accept 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Very Likely to Accept 5 |
|--|---|---|---|----------------------------------|

Please continue to next page

Job #1 has a starting annual salary of **\$44,000** and a **family** health care plan paid by the community college.

1. If offered, how likely would you be to **accept an interview** for the teaching job described?

| | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|--|-----------------------------|
| Very <u>Un</u> likely to Accept | | | | | | Very Likely to Accept |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 5 |

2. If offered, how likely would you be to **accept the teaching job** described?

| | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|--|-----------------------------|
| Very <u>Un</u> likely to Accept | | | | | | Very Likely to Accept |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 5 |

Please continue to next page

Job #1 has a starting annual salary of **\$51,000** and a **family** health care plan paid by the community college.

1. If offered, how likely would you be to **accept an interview** for the teaching job described?

Very
Unlikely to
Accept

Very
Likely to
Accept

1

2

3

4

5

2. If offered, how likely would you be to **accept the teaching job** described?

Very
Unlikely to
Accept

Very
Likely to
Accept

1

2

3

4

5

- THANK YOU -

APPENDIX B

Data Collection Script

“Good morning (afternoon). Thank you for assisting in this research about business faculty recruitment. I am going to ask you to complete a brief anonymous and confidential survey that will ask you to role play as an applicant to a business faculty position at a community college.”

Researcher passes out instrument to participants.

“Remember this exercise is anonymous and confidential, so please do not put your name on the instrument. The survey begins with a preamble that insures the study had been duly approved and participating is completely voluntary. When you finish reading the preamble, please look up at me.”

Participants read preamble and look at researcher.

“Please follow along with me as we complete the background data together. Please fill in complete information for age. Please check the correct item for gender. Please check the correct item indicating if you are married. Please check the one item that most represents your ethnicity. If none is specified, please indicate with a check in Other, and specify your ethnicity.

“Please complete the total full-time work experience you have in years. Please indicate the total full-time business experience you have in years in the next entry. Please indicate the number of dependent children in the space indicated. Please indicate if you are working, and if so, how many hours per week. Please indicate your current annual salary in the last entry. Please remember this information is anonymous.

“The last item of the Background Information is your rating of the question, ‘Upon completion of your MBA degree, and putting other job considerations such as salary and employee benefits aside for the moment, how willing are you to consider teaching in your business specialty at a community college.’ The scale is anchored with NOT at all willing as a one, and Very Willing as a 7.”

Researcher asks if there are any questions before continuing.

“Now let us go to Section II involving a simulated position advertisement and read the instructions together.”

Researcher reads the instructions.

“You are asked to rate 6 jobs. I ask you to do this without comparing the jobs to one another. Please read the information about each job, rate the job, and go on to the next job until you finish all the job ratings. When you complete the instrument please raise your hand and I will collect the instrument. Are there any questions about what I am asking you to do? If so let me do so now as I cannot answer questions when instruments are being completed. Thank you.”

APPENDIX C

Reliability Analyses - Pilot Study

Table 2

Reliability Analysis of Composite Scale: \$34,000 Salary and Individual Health Plan (N = 23)

| | <i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i> | <i>Scale Variance If Item Deleted</i> | <i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i> | <i>Squared Multiple Correlation</i> | <i>Alpha If Item Deleted</i> |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 1.6957 | .6760 | .7510 | .5650 | (a) |
| 2 | 2.1739 | 1.6050 | .7510 | .5650 | (a) |

Items: 1 = Likelihood of Accepting an Interview
 2 = Likelihood of Accepting the Job

(a) Coefficient alpha cannot be computed for a single item.

Composite scale Coefficient Alpha = .814

Table 3

Reliability Analysis of Composite Scale: \$34,000 Salary and Family Health Plan (N = 23)

| | <i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i> | <i>Scale Variance If Item Deleted</i> | <i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i> | <i>Squared Multiple Correlation</i> | <i>Alpha If Item Deleted</i> |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 1.9130 | 1.1740 | .8210 | .6740 | (a) |
| 2 | 2.2609 | 1.8380 | .8210 | .6740 | (a) |

Items: 1 = Likelihood of Accepting an Interview

2 = Likelihood of Accepting the Job

(a) Coefficient alpha cannot be computed for a single item.

Composite scale Coefficient Alpha = .889

Table 4

Reliability Analysis of Composite Scale: \$44,000 Salary and Individual Health Plan (N = 23)

| | <i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i> | <i>Scale Variance If Item Deleted</i> | <i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i> | <i>Squared Multiple Correlation</i> | <i>Alpha If Item Deleted</i> |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 2.6957 | 1.4030 | .8660 | .7510 | (a) |
| 2 | 3.1304 | 1.7550 | .8660 | .7510 | (a) |

Items: 1 = Likelihood of Accepting an Interview

2 = Likelihood of Accepting the Job

(a) Coefficient alpha cannot be computed for a single item.

Composite scale Coefficient Alpha = .925

Table 5

Reliability Analysis of Composite Scale: \$44,000 Salary and Family Health Plan (N = 23)

| | <i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i> | <i>Scale Variance If Item Deleted</i> | <i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i> | <i>Squared Multiple Correlation</i> | <i>Alpha If Item Deleted</i> |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 3.2609 | 1.5650 | .8640 | .7460 | (a) |
| 2 | 3.6522 | 1.6010 | .8640 | .7460 | (a) |

Items: 1 = Likelihood of Accepting an Interview

2 = Likelihood of Accepting the Job

(a) Coefficient alpha cannot be computed for a single item.

Composite scale Coefficient Alpha = .927

Table 6

Reliability Analysis of Composite Scale: \$51,000 Salary and Individual Health Plan (N = 23)

| | <i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i> | <i>Scale Variance If Item Deleted</i> | <i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i> | <i>Squared Multiple Correlation</i> | <i>Alpha If Item Deleted</i> |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 3.5652 | 1.7110 | .8960 | .8030 | (a) |
| 2 | 4.0435 | 1.6800 | .8960 | .8030 | (a) |

Items: 1 = Likelihood of Accepted an Interview

2 = Likelihood of Accepting the Job

(a) Coefficient alpha cannot be computed for a single item.

Composite scale Coefficient Alpha = .945

Table 7

Reliability Analysis of Composite Scale: \$51,000 Salary and Family Health Plan

| | <i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i> | <i>Scale Variance If Item Deleted</i> | <i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i> | <i>Squared Multiple Correlation</i> | <i>Alpha If Item Deleted</i> |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 4.0870 | 1.4470 | .8950 | .8020 | (a) |
| 2 | 4.3478 | 1.3280 | .8950 | .8020 | (a) |

Items: 1 = Likelihood of Accepting an Interview

2 = Likelihood of Accepting the Job

(a) Coefficient alpha cannot be computed for a single item.

Composite scale Coefficient Alpha = .944

APPENDIX D
Scoring Guide

| <i>Variable Name</i> | <i>Scoring</i> | | | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------|----|----|----|----|
| <u>Demographic</u> | | | | | |
| Age | Actual Years | | | | |
| Gender | <u>Dummy Coded</u> | | | | |
| | 1 = Female, | | | | |
| | 0 = Male | | | | |
| | <u>Dummy Coded</u> | | | | |
| Marital Status | 1 = Yes, 0 = No | | | | |
| Ethnicity | <u>Dummy Coded</u> | | | | |
| | E1 | E2 | E3 | E4 | E5 |
| African Amer. | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| White Amer. | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Native Amer. | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Hispanic Amer. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Asian Amer. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Other | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Continue to next page

| <i>Variable Name</i> | <i>Scoring</i> |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Full-Time Experience | Actual Years |
| Full-Time Business Experience | Actual Years |
| Dependent Children | Actual Number |
| Working? | <u>Dummy Coded</u> 1 = Yes, 0 = No |
| Working Hours | Actual Hours |
| If Working, Annual Salary | Actual Dollars |
| Willingness | 1-7 Scale |
| <u>Dependent Variable</u> | |
| r3ii | 1-5 Scale |
| r3ij | 1-5 Scale |
| r4ii | 1-5 Scale |
| r4ij | 1-5 Scale |
| r5ii | 1-5 Scale |
| r5ij | 1-5 Scale |

Continue to next page

| <i>Variable Name</i> | <i>Scoring</i> |
|----------------------|----------------|
| r3fi | 1-5 Scale |
| r3fj | 1-5 Scale |
| r4fi | 1-5 Scale |
| r4fj | 1-5 Scale |
| r5fi | 1-5 Scale |
| r5fj | 1-5 Scale |

APPENDIX E

Reliability Analyses - Actual Study

Table 9

Reliability Analysis of Composite Scale: \$34,000 Salary and Individual Health Plan (N = 187)

| | <i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i> | <i>Scale Variance If Item Deleted</i> | <i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i> | <i>Squared Multiple Correlation</i> | <i>Alpha If Item Deleted</i> |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 1.8824 | .9970 | .8390 | .7050 | (a) |
| 2 | 2.2727 | 1.5970 | .8390 | .7050 | (a) |

Items: 1 = Likelihood of Accepting an Interview
 2 = Likelihood of Accepting the Job

(a) Coefficient alpha cannot be computed for a single item.

Composite scale Coefficient Alpha = .90

Table 10

Reliability Analysis of Composite Scale: \$34,000 Salary and Family Health Plan (N = 187)

| | <i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i> | <i>Scale Variance If Item Deleted</i> | <i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i> | <i>Squared Multiple Correlation</i> | <i>Alpha If Item Deleted</i> |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 2.0428 | 1.2020 | .8720 | .7610 | (a) |
| 2 | 2.3529 | 1.6600 | .8720 | .7610 | (a) |

Items: 1 = Likelihood of Accepted an Interview

2 = Likelihood of Accepting the Job

(a) Coefficient alpha cannot be computed for a single item.

Composite scale Coefficient Alpha = .93

Table 11

Reliability Analysis of Composite Scale: \$44,000 Salary and Individual Health Plan (N = 187)

| | <i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i> | <i>Scale Variance If Item Deleted</i> | <i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i> | <i>Squared Multiple Correlation</i> | <i>Alpha If Item Deleted</i> |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 2.7701 | 1.5540 | .8660 | .7850 | (a) |
| 2 | 3.1337 | 1.8150 | .8660 | .7850 | (a) |

Items: 1 = Likelihood of Accepting an Interview

2 = Likelihood of Accepting the Job

(a) Coefficient alpha cannot be computed for a single item.

Composite scale Coefficient Alpha = .94

Table 12

Reliability Analysis of Composite Scale: \$44,000 Salary and Family Health Plan (N = 187)

| | <i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i> | <i>Scale Variance If Item Deleted</i> | <i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i> | <i>Squared Multiple Correlation</i> | <i>Alpha If Item Deleted</i> |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 3.2609 | 1.5650 | .8640 | .7460 | (a) |
| 2 | 3.6522 | 1.6010 | .8640 | .7460 | (a) |

Items: 1 = Likelihood of Accepted an Interview

2 = Likelihood of Accepting the Job

(a) Coefficient alpha cannot be computed for a single item.

Composite scale Coefficient Alpha = .93

Table 13

Reliability Analysis of Composite Scale: \$51,000 Salary and Individual Health Plan (N = 187)

| | <i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i> | <i>Scale Variance If Item Deleted</i> | <i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i> | <i>Squared Multiple Correlation</i> | <i>Alpha If Item Deleted</i> |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 3.5652 | 1.7110 | .8960 | .8030 | (a) |
| 2 | 4.0435 | 1.6800 | .8960 | .8030 | (a) |

Items: 1 = Likelihood of Accepting an Interview

2 = Likelihood of Accepting the Job

(a) Coefficient alpha cannot be computed for a single item.

Composite scale Coefficient Alpha = .95

Table 14

Reliability Analysis of Composite Scale: \$51,000 Salary and Family Health Plan (N = 187)

| | <i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i> | <i>Scale Variance If Item Deleted</i> | <i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i> | <i>Squared Multiple Correlation</i> | <i>Alpha If Item Deleted</i> |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 4.0870 | 1.4470 | .8950 | .8020 | (a) |
| 2 | 4.3478 | 1.3280 | .8950 | .8020 | (a) |

Items: 1 = Likelihood of Accepted an Interview

2 = Likelihood of Accepting the Job

(a) Coefficient alpha cannot be computed for a single item.

Composite scale Coefficient Alpha = .94

APPENDIX F

MULTIPLE REGRESSION RESULTS

Table 17

*Regression of Job Rating on Predictor Variables for \$34,000
by Individual Health Plan (N = 174)*

| <i>Predictor Variable</i> | β | <i>p-Value</i> |
|---------------------------|---------|----------------|
| Salary | -.44 | .0001 |
| Willingness | .27 | .0001 |

Total Model: $R^2 = [F(7, 166) = 7.3, p < .0001] = .24,$

Adjusted- $R^2 = .20$

Table 18

*Regression of Job Rating on Predictor Variables for \$44,000
by Individual Health Plan (N = 174)*

| <i>Predictor Variable</i> | β | <i>p-Value</i> |
|---------------------------|---------|----------------|
| Salary | -.42 | .0001 |
| Willingness | .31 | .0001 |

Total Model: $R^2 = [F(7, 166) = 7.6, p < .0001 = .24,$

Adjusted- $R^2 = .21$

Table 19

*Regression of Job Rating on Predictor Variables for \$51,000
by Individual Health Plan (N = 174)*

| <i>Predictor Variable</i> | β | <i>p-Value</i> |
|---------------------------|---------|----------------|
| Salary | -.47 | .0001 |
| Willingness | .35 | .0001 |

Total Model: $R^2 = [F(7, 166) = 10.6, p < .0001] = .31,$

Adjusted- $R^2 = .28$

Table 20

*Regression of Job Rating on Predictor Variables for \$34,000
by Family Health Plan (N = 174)*

| <i>Predictor Variable</i> | β | <i>p-Value</i> |
|---------------------------|---------|----------------|
| Salary | -.49 | .0001 |
| Willingness | .30 | .0001 |

Total Model: $R^2 = [F(7, 166) = 9.6, p < .0001] = .29,$

Adjusted- $R^2 = .26.$

Table 21

*Regression of Job Rating on Predictor Variables for \$44,000
by Family Health Plan (N = 174)*

| <i>Predictor Variable</i> | β | <i>p-Value</i> |
|---------------------------|---------|----------------|
| Salary | -.44 | .0001 |
| Willingness | .35 | .0001 |

Total Model: $R^2 = [F(7, 166) = 9.5, p < .0001] = .29,$

Adjusted- $R^2 = .26$

Table 22

*Regression of Job Rating on Predictor Variables for \$51,000
by Family Health Plan (N = 174)*

| <i>Predictor Variable</i> | β | <i>p-Value</i> |
|---------------------------|---------|----------------|
| Salary | -.47 | .0001 |
| Willingness | .32 | .0001 |

Total Model: $R^2 = [F(7, 166) = 9.6, p < .0001] = .29,$

Adjusted- $R^2 = .26$

CURRICULUM VITAE

Glenn Rodriguez

8205 Adams Run Road
Louisville KY 40228

Academic Education

PhD: Education Leadership and Organization Development -
University of Louisville, Louisville, KY
MBA: College of Graduate Studies, Marshall University,
Huntington, WV
BS: Industrial Engineering, University of Puerto Rico,
Mayaguez, PR

Military Education

Graduate: US Army Command and General Staff College
Graduate: US Army Combat Engineers Advance Course
Graduate: US Army Adjutant General School

Employment

August 2004 - Present **McKendree College: Director
of Online and Corporate Learning**, Louisville, KY.
Responsible for faculty education on web-assisted learning
and the development of corporate learning opportunities.

January 2004 - Present **CARE (Curriculum Access thru
Reading Electronically): Project Director**, Louisville, KY.
Federal research grant (\$500K) to assess the effectiveness
of text-reader software in Kentucky schools.

September 2003 - Present **Pa'lante: President**,
Louisville, KY. Independent consulting and training in
diversity, Spanish translations/interpretation services,
safety and health, and general business.

January 1999 - August 2004 **McKendree College: Adjunct
Professor**, Louisville, KY. Courses taught: Principles of
Management, International Business, Senior Seminar-
Marketing/Management.

January 1999 - August 2002 **Papa John's International:**
Director, Latin America and Caribbean, Louisville, KY.
Responsible for brand development (80+ stores in 6
countries in 3 years) in Latin America and Caribbean
regions.

June 1992 - January 1999 **Orr Safety Corporation:**
Director of Procurement; ISO Project Manager; Director of
International Development; Regional Manager/Gulf Coast,
Louisville, KY, Texas City, TX. Responsible for all
corporate procurement activities and sales inventory and
development of strategic alliances between manufacturers
and representatives in Latin America and Caribbean.

June 1971 - June 1992 **Union Carbide Corporation:**
Danbury, CT. Various positions of increasing management
responsibilities in manufacturing, procurement, materials
management, comptrollership, Total Quality Management
(TQM), Logistics, and International distribution.

Military Service

1971-1999: U.S. Army, LTC, Corps of Engineers.

Invited Conferences and Presentations

2004-Spring Education Research Conference: Model for
Locating New Institutions of Higher Learning, University of
Kentucky.

2004- Hispanic Cultures: Implications for Jefferson County
EMS/Fire Service, Jefferson County Fire Instructors
Association Fire School, Louisville, KY.

2004 - Hispanic Cultures: Implications for Jefferson County
EMS/Fire Service, McKendree College, School of Nursing,
Louisville, KY.

2003 - Expanding Banking Opportunities in the Hispanic
Market - Federal Reserve Bank, St Louis Regional Office,
Louisville, KY.

2003 - Not all Hispanics Are the Same - Rotary Club,
Louisville, KY. Broadcasted on National Public Radio.

2002 - Moral Leadership - Sigma Beta Delta, Business
Honorary Society, McKendree College, Louisville, KY.

2002 - Principles of Structural Fire Firefighting - Isla
Margarita Fire Department, Isla Margarita, Venezuela.

2001 - Doing Business in Mexico: How to Avoid Common
Mistakes, Governor's Conference on Latin America,
Louisville, KY.

2001 - U.S. Labor Laws - Universidad Latina, San José,
Costa Rica.

2001 - Respiratory Protection in the Fire Service -
Louisville Fire Department, Louisville, KY.
2000 - How relevant are International Studies? - Georgetown
College, Georgetown, KY.
1991 - End Users Statistical Quality Control Indicators
Measure Manufacturer's Performance - Scott Aviation,
Tonawanda, NY.
1990 - Statistical Process Control Applications in the
Service Industry - Texas Chemical Council, Galveston, TX.

Book Reviews

Fyock, C. (2004). *The Hiring Sourcebook. A collection of practical samples.* Alexandria, VA: Society for Human Resource Management. Chapter 7, Recruiting and retaining Hispanic employees.

Boards

2003 - Present: Civil Service Human Resources Review Board,
Louisville Metro, Louisville, KY. Appointment by Mayor
Abramson to review human resource actions.
2003 - Present: McKendree College Center for Business
Excellence, Louisville, KY. Executive committee member.
Chair, Program and Services Committee.

Professional Certificates

American Heart Association CPR/First Aid Instructor
Hazardous Waste Operations-Technician Level
Kentucky State Emergency Medical Technician
Kentucky State Firefighter Instructor
Kentucky State Firefighter - 400 Level
National Registry Emergency Medical Technician
OSHA certified Confine Space Entry Instructor
OSHA certified Confine Space Rescue Instructor
Qualified Safety Sales Professional

Military Awards

Army Meritorious Service Medal
Army Achievement Medal
Army Commendation Medal
National Defense Service Medal - two awards