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Applicant self-selection during the hiring process: Developing and testing a model of applicant withdrawal

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APPLICANT SELF-SELECTION DURING THE HIRING PROCESS: DEVELOPING AND TESTING A MODEL OF APPLICANT WITHDRAWAL

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ABSTRACT

Applicant withdrawal behavior is of considerable interest to organizations and selection system designers. Some of the primary reasons for this interest are that applicant decisions to withdraw from a selection procedure can impact the size and quality of the applicant pool (Barber & Roehling, 1993), which can decrease the utility of the selection procedure (Murphy, 1986) and increase the potential for adverse impact (Ryan, Sacco, McFarland, & Kriska, 2000; Tam, Murphy, & Lyall, 2004). The current study builds a model of applicant withdrawal based on prior theoretical and empirical work and subsequently tests components of this model. The proposed predictors of withdrawal intentions and behavior include applicant perceptions, motivation, selection process features, employment background characteristics, and individual differences.

Data were collected from ~ 25,000 applicants to a large manufacturing start-up company in the US at four time points in the selection process – application, post-test, post-assessment, and post-interview. Results from linear and logistic regression analyses provided support for the proposed model of applicant withdrawal, highlighting the importance of both applicant perceptions and contextual features.

More specifically, the study found that perceptions of Person-Job (P-J) and Person-Organization (P-O) fit as well as perceptions of offer expectancy were among the strongest predictors of withdrawal intentions. Withdrawal behavior was more difficult to predict, but was significantly predicted by current employment status, demographic characteristics, number of previous jobs held, P-O fit perceptions, and withdrawal intentions.

Implications of the study's results for organizations and selection system designers are discussed within the limitations of the current research. Additionally, directions for future research are detailed within a broader framework of applicant withdrawal.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my mother and father, Judy and Hector. They have served as role models for hard work, perseverance, and personal sacrifice and have given me the tools I needed to be successful in life. I am forever grateful for all of their love and support. I also dedicate this work to my brothers, Glenn and Pete. Your support and encouragement throughout my life have been unwavering – you rock!

I also dedicate this dissertation to my wife, Jenna. Your friendship, love, patience, and support throughout the past few years have given me the strength and ability to accomplish almost anything.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Applicant withdrawal behavior is of considerable interest to organizations and selection system designers for many reasons. First, when there are fewer qualified or skilled applicants in the general population, organizations generally want to ensure that skilled individuals remain in the selection process (Rynes, 1991). Withdrawal from the selection process may reduce the pool of qualified candidates, making it harder for organizations to select the best people. In addition, several studies have documented a differential withdrawal rate for minorities and majorities (e.g., Arvey, Gordon, Massengill, & Mussio, 1975; Ployhart, McFarland, & Ryan, 2002; Ryan et al., 2000; Schmit & Ryan, 1997). If more females or minorities withdraw than males or majorities, it may decrease the chances of identifying and selecting qualified minority applicants, which might also increase the likelihood of the selection system having adverse impact (Tam et al., 2004).

Second, applicant withdrawal may result from negative reactions to various characteristics of the hiring process, and these negative reactions may have additional consequences for the organization. There has been a plethora of research demonstrating that applicant reactions to selection procedures can influence attitudes, intentions, and behaviors toward the hiring organization (e.g., Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman, & Stoffey, 1993; Truxillo, Bauer, Campion, & Paronto, 2002). Applicants who withdraw for negative reasons (e.g., perceived unfairness) might then also hold negative perceptions of the organization, tell others

about their negative experience with the organization, and perhaps even pursue legal action against the organization (Rynes, 1991).

Although most researchers and practitioners tend to think of withdrawal in a negative light, there may also be several positive consequences of applicant withdrawal, both for organizations and for applicants. From an organization's perspective, applicant withdrawal may reduce early turnover on the job (due to those ill-fitting applicants self-selecting out during the hiring process, and thus the better fitting candidates remain and become employees), and it may lead to higher job performance once the new employee has started working (Wanous, 1980). From an applicant's perspective, withdrawing from the process for one organization may increase the likelihood of greater employee satisfaction and commitment in other positions for which there is a better fit (Schmit & Ryan, 1997). Organizations are thus motivated to help those candidates with a poor fit or skills-match to self-select out and those with a good fit and skills-match to remain in the process.

Beneficial or not, withdrawal occurs at substantial rates across many different selection contexts (e.g., Ryan et al., 2000; Schmit & Ryan, 1997) with about 10% of acceptable applicants removing themselves from a selection process. Before one can understand whether withdrawal is necessarily good or bad, it is important to more fully understand the factors that predict applicant withdrawal.

While there have been a few studies that have examined applicant withdrawal, many have examined this phenomenon from the perspective of applicant perceptions/reactions. Some authors have noted that "the nature and magnitude of the

relationship between test reactions and withdrawal from the selection process remain relatively unclear" (Chan & Schmitt, 2004, p. 17). These authors suggest that future researchers should more directly examine applicant reactions and contextual variables (such as job market considerations, work experience, and available alternatives) within a withdrawal context. Indeed, other researchers have noted that a model of applicant withdrawal that incorporates theory and the many contextual factors at play is needed (Ryan et al., 2000). Therefore, the current paper answers these calls by developing and testing a model of applicant withdrawal from the hiring process.

The purpose of the present study is threefold: 1) to build upon existing research on applicant withdrawal by creating a theoretical model of the predictors of withdrawal; 2) to propose several hypotheses and questions for future research based on this model of applicant withdrawal from selection; and 3) to test components of this model of withdrawal from selection with a longitudinal design and a sample of real applicants to a production level job. I will begin with a definition and examples of applicant withdrawal followed by a review of several theories that could be used to provide the foundation for a model on applicant withdrawal research. Then, I will propose a comprehensive model of the antecedents of applicant withdrawal, developing hypotheses and research questions as I discuss the components of this model.

Applicant Withdrawal

Applicant withdrawal occurs when an individual applies for and makes some degree of progress through a hiring process, but then decides to remove him/herself from the process. It is distinct from self-selection, which is a broader construct involving

decisions to apply for a job opening, to continue or to withdraw from the process, or to accept or reject an offer of employment (Ryan et al., 2000; Tam et al., 2004). Additionally, it differs from job choice, which is limited to the last phase of a hiring process and is concerned with an applicant's decision to either accept or reject a job offer (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005). Finally, withdrawal differs from organizational selection decisions, as these actions are initiated by the organization and deal with whether or not to progress an applicant from one phase of the selection process to another. Therefore, applicant withdrawal is behavior that is under the control of an applicant and occurs after one has chosen to apply for an organization but before one has accepted a job offer.

A few examples of withdrawal behavior might be useful to more fully understand the behavior. Consider example 1: an individual finds an opening at a local retail establishment (let's call them Clothing Hut) and decides to submit an application or letter of interest. Then Clothing Hut contacts the applicant and schedules an interview for 2 weeks later. A few days before the interview, the candidate learns of another applicant being treated unfairly by the manager of Clothing Hut and makes a decision to skip the interview and thus withdraws from the process. In example 2, an individual applies for a position at an accounting firm (let's call them Experia) and is subsequently given an online test. The individual passes the test and is invited for a role playing exercise at Experia, which involves tasks that are similar to those that will be performed on the job. Additionally, the applicant meets with the CEO of Experia while on site and learns about the vision, mission, and future goals of the company. One of these goals is in stark

contrast to a core belief of the applicant, and so the applicant decides to withdraw from the process. Both of these examples involve an individual applying for a job and then making a decision to remove him/herself from the process at some later stage. The goal of the present paper, then, is to examine the predictors of this withdrawal behavior and organize the current literature in this area.

Theoretical Background

Several theories have been used to guide research in the areas of job choice and applicant withdrawal. Four of these theoretical frameworks will be discussed in the following review. When studying the decision processes of applicants, most research has focused on job choice decisions rather than on the decision to apply, because choice decisions are mutually exclusive, but application decisions are not (because one could decide to apply to all available jobs). Thus, choice decisions are more amenable to empirical study than apply decisions. With job choice decisions, various factors influence the decision making process at different stages of the selection process (e.g., Taylor & Bergmann, 1987). For example, at earlier stages in the selection process, recruiter characteristics may play an important role in decisions to remain in the process, but in later stages, job characteristics (such as benefits and the nature of the work) may play a larger role (Boswell, Roehling, LePine, & Moynihan, 2003).

One theory that may account for some of these issues is image theory (Beach, Puto, Heckler, Naylor, & Marble, 1996). According to this theory, individuals have three knowledge structures or images against which they compare job choices – an image of their ideals, beliefs, and values regarding how things should be in the world (referred to

as the value image); an image of their goals that will be pursued in line with their ideals, values, and beliefs (referred to as the trajectory image); and an image of what behaviors should be performed in order to achieve these goals (referred to as the strategic image; Beach, 1998). During the decision making process, individuals forecast how well they think the plan is going and they continually monitor these forecasts and make changes if they are not making adequate progress toward the ideal trajectory image. Decisions are made in two different stages – a screening stage in which options are compared against the 3 images and rejected if they are inconsistent with these images; and a choice stage where the best possible remaining option is chosen based on the attractiveness of the consequences (Beach, 1998).

Although specific applications of image theory to applicant withdrawal are relatively lacking in the literature (for an exception see Ryan et al., 2000), image theory is quite relevant to this topic. An applicant may choose to self-select out of the selection process at several different time points. Earlier stage withdrawals would be considered to be screening decisions, in image theory terms, whereas later stage withdrawals would be considered choice decisions. These decisions are made with reference to the person's ideals, beliefs, and goals. Several predictions can be made based on the choice decisions component of image theory. Firstly, image theory would predict that an applicant will either self-select in or out on the basis of how well the job fits with their value image (or their values, personality, goals, or plans). Perceptions of person-job fit and person-organization fit would therefore be important components of an applicant's decision making process for a particular job.

An additional prediction that can be made from image theory concerns the decision process. Image theory states that applicants make decisions by first screening multiple alternatives. Assuming that having to screen more alternatives takes more time and cognitive resources, one logical extension of this is that candidates with fewer alternatives will have an easier time making decisions and may actually take less time to decide among alternatives. Therefore, the number of alternatives available to the applicant will play an important role in the decision making process, and indeed this proposition has been supported in the literature (Ryan et al., 2000).

While in the job search process, a job seeker will make a forecast to see if their plans and tactics will produce the desired outcome and if the forecast approximates the desired outcome, the plans/tactics will be adopted. As with many areas of cognitive processing, evaluating plans and tactics is aided by prior experience (Stevens, 1998). Candidates with greater job search experience have richer knowledge structures about how the process should work and can more easily make comparisons among alternatives because of their more advanced schema (i.e., their trajectory and strategic images may be more developed). As a result, candidates with greater experience may put less effort into the screening process, and may also take less time to screen alternatives (Stevens, 1998).

Image theory also recognizes the impact of other people on an individual's decision making. Significant others may influence an individual's beliefs and values, and may also impact their goals and plans. These other individuals may weigh in on the decision making process, or they may indirectly change the goals and plans an individual has for their future. Therefore, examining social influence in relation to withdrawal

decisions may be of relative importance. Finally, as individuals are making decisions, they are continually monitoring their progress toward their goals and examining how well their actions are helping them to achieve these goals. This forecasting process points to the importance of examining perceptions of self-performance (or meta-perceptions) during the selection process. Candidates that feel they are performing up to their standards may continue to make progress toward their goals (of obtaining the job in question), whereas if they feel they are not making progress, they may adjust their plans (and potentially self-select out of the process).

Beyond image theory, other theories have been used to predict job pursuit/withdrawal behaviors of applicants. One theory that is thought to be a promising explanatory framework for job pursuit behavior is the theory of planned behavior (TPB; Chapman et al., 2005). This theory assumes that most behavior is under willful control and can be predicted by understanding two constructs: the perception of behavioral control and behavioral intentions. Many researchers have used this theory to guide research on applicant behavior and it has demonstrated reasonably good validity in predicting a number of specific behaviors, including the use of job search websites (Lin, 2010), job search behaviors (Van Hooft, Born, Taris, Van der Flier, & Blonk, 2004), job pursuit behaviors (Schreurs, Derous, Van Hooft, Proost, & De Witte, 2009), and employee turnover (Van Breukelen, Van der Vlist, & Steensma, 2004).

According to the TPB, the most direct determinant of behavior is the intention to engage in it. Intention is the level of effort that a person plans to put forth to perform a behavior, and is itself comprised of three components. The first component is attitude

toward the behavior, which is the positive or negative assessment of performing the behavior. The second component is subjective norm, which is the person's perception of social pressure for performing the behavior. The third component is perceived behavioral control (PBC), which is how much control the person perceives that they have over performance of the behavior. Perceived behavioral control was added to the theory of reasoned action (TPB's predecessor) to help explain situations in which people do not have complete willful control over a specific behavior. According to the TPB, individuals that have a high level of PBC should be more likely to perform the behavior. In the TPB model, PBC is also assumed to influence behavior directly and has been found to improve the incremental prediction of behavior beyond intentions (Armitage & Conner, 2001).

In an applicant withdrawal context, the TPB suggests that withdrawal behavior (that is, an applicant's decision to withdraw from the selection process) can be predicted by withdrawal intentions (that is, an applicant's intention to remove oneself from the selection process). Withdrawal intention, then, is expected to be comprised of withdrawal attitude (that is, an applicant's subjective evaluation of removing oneself from the selection process with this organization), subjective norm (that is, an applicant's perception of social pressure from friends, family, and peers), self-efficacy (that is, an applicant's level of confidence in their ability to remove him/herself from the hiring process), and controllability (that is, an applicant's belief that he/she has the resources and can navigate any obstacles that may get in the way of his/her goal of self-selecting). Therefore, it is predicted that the intention to withdraw from the selection process will be

related to actual withdrawal from the selection process. Additionally, attitudes about withdrawing, social pressure from others, self-efficacy, and controllability will all influence withdrawal intentions.

An additional theory that is relevant to an applicant withdrawal context is expectancy theory (e.g., Barber & Roehling, 1993; Vroom, 1995). This theory was originally developed to deal with employee motivation, but it can also be applied to applicant withdrawal (Wanous, 1980). According to this theory, applicant withdrawal is dependent upon three things: 1) the attractiveness of each job/organization, 2) the amount of effort that is spent in the selection process for each organization, and 3) the expectations regarding the likelihood of receiving an offer from each organization. The attractiveness of a particular choice option is a function of the expectancy of receiving that option and the subjective weight (or valence) that the individual places on that option. This relationship is often noted as $I = V \times E$ or instrumentality is a function of expectancy and valence. Additionally, the amount of effort that an individual will exert to attempt to obtain a position with an organization is thought to be a function of the attractiveness of that organization and the expectancy of receiving a job offer. Therefore, expectancy of receiving a job offer (or offer likelihood) and valence or subjective weight (conceptualized as attractiveness of the organization (or organizational image)) are important variables to examine in an applicant withdrawal context.

One final theory that may be relevant to job choice and applicant withdrawal is organizational justice theory (Gilliland, 1993). Gilliland proposed a model of organizational justice in a selection context which states that if various procedural rules

(such as the job relatedness of the procedure and the consistency of administration) and distributive rules (such as having an equal chance of receiving a job offer) are not satisfied, then this will impact an applicant's overall evaluation of the fairness of the selection process. These overall fairness perceptions are proposed to impact a host of outcomes during the hiring process (including job choice decisions, test motivation, and recommendation intentions), after the hiring process (including job satisfaction and performance), and also may impact an individual's perception of themselves (including self-efficacy and self-esteem). This theoretical model has served as the basis for a large number of the studies in the applicant perceptions literature and many of the proposed relationships between the justice rules and outcomes have been supported (e.g., Bauer, Maertz, Dolen, & Campion, 1998; Gilliland, 1994; Ployhart, Ryan, & Bennett, 1999; Steiner & Gilliland, 1996; Truxillo et al., 2002). For these reasons, the current paper includes applicant perceptions of fairness as an important component in the applicant withdrawal model.

The following sections will outline the many variables that are predicted to impact applicant withdrawal decisions. In each section, research on the variables of interest will be reviewed and predictions will be made regarding how each variable impacts applicant withdrawal. Additionally, a detailed model of the withdrawal process will be constructed based on existing research and theory. This model will contain propositions for future research as well as specific hypotheses that will be tested in this study. The overall model can be viewed in Figure 1a whereas the model being tested by the current study can be viewed in Figure 1b.

Applicant Perceptions

Process Fairness

A number of studies have examined the role that applicant reactions play in predicting job choice or withdrawal from the hiring process. Much of this research has been embedded in organizational justice theory (Gilliland, 1993), which states that candidate perceptions of the fulfillment of certain justice rules will impact outcomes like organizational attraction and job choice. Gilliland's (1993) model of organizational justice in selection points to the importance of examining 10 procedural justice rules in order to understand applicant perceptions of the overall fairness of the selection process. The most studied of these relationships with procedural justice are job relatedness (including face validity and predictive validity), interpersonal treatment, and opportunity to perform (Hausknecht et al., 2004).

Job relatedness deals with the extent to which the selection procedure appears to be related to the job and has been found to consist of two constructs – face validity and perceived predictive validity (Bauer et al., 2001). Face validity is the perception of how well the test appears to relate to the content of the job (Smither et al., 1993). Perceived predictive validity is the perception of how well the selection procedure forecasts future performance on the job (Smither et al., 1993) and involves beliefs about whether people who score better on the test also perform better on the job. Interpersonal treatment has been operationalized most often in terms of interactional justice. Interactional justice reflects the perception of fair treatment from selection personnel during the selection process (Colquitt & Shaw, 2005) and is thought to consist of two dimensions -

interpersonal justice (or the respect and sincerity of selection personnel) and informational justice (or the extent to which procedures are explained honestly and adequately; Colquitt, 2001). Opportunity to perform represents an applicant's perception of the chance to express oneself or demonstrate his/her skills and abilities during a selection process (Gilliland, 1993).

Perceptions of how job related the selection procedure is, how much opportunity there is for the candidate to perform, and how fairly the selection personnel treat the candidates have been shown to influence several important outcomes (Hausknecht et al., 2004). This literature has suggested that those candidates who have negative reactions to the hiring process will be less likely to recommend the organization to others, to accept offers, and to reapply to the organization if rejected (Macan, Avedon, Paese, & Smith, 1994; Smither et al., 1993). These relationships have indeed been found to be stable across studies and construct measurements (e.g., Hausknecht et al., 2004). One criticism of this literature, however, is the lack of studies into the impact of these perceptions on hard behavioral outcomes, such as withdrawal from selection.

A few studies have examined process perceptions within an applicant withdrawal context and have found mixed results. One such study was conducted by Ryan, et al. (2000) who used a sample of 3,550 police applicants in a multiple hurdle selection process. The authors examined the relationships between self-selection out (or withdrawal) and perceptions of the hiring process. The specific perceptions examined in this study include procedural fairness, perceived predictive validity, interpersonal treatment, selection information, perceptions of the exam, and face validity. The authors

hypothesized that negative perceptions of the process are related to decisions to withdraw. The results did not strongly support this hypothesis, as the group that held the most negative reactions was the group that failed to pass phase one of the selection process (and thus did not have an opportunity to withdraw). Additionally, the reactions of those who self-selected out did not significantly differ from the reactions of those who remained in the process.

Other studies of reactions and withdrawal have found similarly small, mixed, or non-existent relationships. Schmit and Ryan (1997) examined police recruits and measured pre-test attitudes (motivation, anxiety, literacy, and belief in tests) and conducted interviews with those who dropped out of the process. Those candidates who had high anxiety, motivation, or literacy were less likely to withdraw and the most commonly reported reasons for withdrawal were having to work (16%) or negative perceptions of the hiring process (12 %). These results suggest that perceptions may play a role in predicting withdrawal. Other studies by Bauer et al. (1998) and Macan et al. (1994) reported similar small or nonexistent effects of test reactions on remaining in the hiring process. Truxillo et al. (2002) reported no relationship between selection information and continuation in the process; however, they did not provide any data on the relationship between fairness reactions to the process and withdrawal. One study by Singer (1992) found that individuals who perceived the selection procedures to be unfair had less intentions to accept the job.

Chan and Schmitt (2004) point out that for the most part one would not expect there to be a large relationship between applicant reactions and withdrawal since there are

likely to be so many contextual issues that may impact the relationship (such as market conditions, number of other alternatives, social influence, etc.). These authors point out that

> the nature and magnitude of the relationship between test reactions and withdrawal from the selection process remain relatively unclear. Studies that more directly address the influence of multiple hurdle processes and contextual variables (e.g., those mentioned above) on the reactions-withdrawal relationship would certainly provide value-added contribution to the literature on the criterion outcomes of applicant reactions. (Chan & Schmitt, 2004; p. 17).

Therefore, the current study aims to answer this call by exploring the relationship between reactions and other contextual variables in an applicant withdrawal context.

> Hypothesis 1a: Perceptions of process unfairness will be related to greater withdrawal intentions.

Beyond fairness perceptions, motivation may play a key role in the applicant withdrawal process as well. Chan and Schmitt (2004) propose that motivational processes will play a mediating role in the reactions-withdrawal relationship, such that reactions might impact test-taking or interview motivation, which might then impact withdrawal. Therefore, it is proposed that those candidates who hold negative perceptions of the hiring process will be less motivated to perform well in subsequent stages of the selection process and have higher withdrawal intentions.

> Hypothesis 1b: Test-taking/assessment motivation will mediate the relationship between fairness perceptions and withdrawal intentions.

Perceptions of Fit (P-J fit, P-O fit)

Issues of fit are an emerging area of research in personnel selection (e.g., Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005) that have implications for pre-hire outcomes

(such as applicant attraction and job choice) and post-hire outcomes (attitudes, performance, tenure). Multiple levels of fit have been examined in the literature, however the two most common are the fit between the person and the job (Person-Job or P-J fit) and the person and the organization (Person-Organization fit, or P-O fit). P-J fit emphasizes the match between requirements of the job and the person's knowledge, skills, and abilities (referred to as demands-abilities fit) or the match between an employee's needs, desires, and preferences (referred to as needs-supplies fit; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). P-O fit emphasizes the match between the culture, values, and personality of the person and the organization (Kristof, 1996). Both of these variables are noted to have a strong relationship with several variables relevant to job choice and recruitment. Specifically, meta-analytic evidence suggests significant positive relationships between organizational attraction and P-J fit (.48) and P-O fit (.46), and between job offer acceptance and P-O fit (.24; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Several studies have examined perceptions of fit in a longitudinal design with applicants (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1996; Harold & Ployhart, 2008). Cable and Judge (1996) examined job seekers for full-time and internship positions with 18 different organizations and measured their perceptions of fit immediately after an interview and then measured their job choice intentions several months later. These authors found that job seeker perceptions of P-O fit predicted job choice intentions, suggesting that candidates will choose organizations which demonstrate a greater perceived fit between their own values and the values of the organization. Other longitudinal research in this area has found similar results. For example, Harold and Ployhart (2008) conducted a

longitudinal examination of graduate school applicants using a policy capturing approach to learn of the changes in weightings of fit (and other attributes) over time (across three time periods). These authors found that candidates tended to weight fit greater as they moved through the various stages of the selection process.

In an applicant withdrawal context, Ryan et al. (2000) found that applicants who self-selected out of the hiring process at an early stage had lower perceptions of "job desire" (a larger scale which contained P-J fit items) than candidates who remained in the process, but the size of the difference was not very large, nor was the relationship with P-J fit specifically reported. To the author's knowledge, perceptions of P-O fit have not been assessed in an applicant withdrawal context. Based on the findings of Cable and Judge (1996), one would predict that a candidate's perception of how well his/her goals, values, and personality match with the organization to be an important predictor of applicant withdrawal behavior. Therefore, it is proposed that there will be a negative relationship between perceptions of both P-O fit and P-J fit and withdrawal intentions. That is, candidates with higher levels of fit will have lower intentions to withdraw from the selection process, and candidates with lower levels of fit will have higher intentions to withdraw.

> Hypothesis 2: Levels of person-organization fit and person-job fit will be negatively related to withdrawal intentions.

Organizational Image

The image that an applicant holds of an organization has been shown to be an important predictor of attitudes, intentions, and behaviors (e.g., Chapman et al., 2005; Ryan et al., 2000; Sinar, Reynolds, & Paquet, 2003). For example, using a sample of

graduating students from a 4-year college, Rynes, Bretz, and Gerhart (1991) conducted a qualitative analysis of the factors that influence job choice. These authors noted that one of the commonly reported characteristics that influenced rejection of job offers was company reputation or image.

In an applicant withdrawal context, Ryan et al. (2000) studied whether perceptions of the organization might differ among candidates who remain versus withdraw from the selection process. These authors found that perceptions of organizational attractiveness, organization image, and community image were all lower for those applicants who withdrew from the process. Also, those withdrawing earlier had more negative perceptions than those who exited later. Rynes et al. (1991) suggest that candidates use information from organizational representatives to learn about the organization and form impressions based on these interactions. Further, they found that candidates used information from recruiters more in earlier stages of the recruitment and selection process than in later stages.

These results suggest that perceptions of the organization may play an important role in predicting early stage withdrawal from the selection process, but at later stages, organizational image may not play as large a role. Therefore, it is proposed that perceptions of the organization will play a role in predicting withdrawal intentions in the pre-assessment phase, but these perceptions will play less of a role at later phases of the selection process. In the current study, input from candidates is restricted to these latter phases, so this specific hypothesis will not be tested in this study, but is an important question to address in future research.

Research proposition 1: Perceptions of organizational image will be negatively related to withdrawal intentions during early phases of selection (pre-application or pre-test).

Perceptions of Job Attributes

There is extensive evidence to support the idea that applicant perceptions of job and organizational characteristics have a positive impact on applicant job choice attitudes (e.g., see Boswell et al., 2003; Carless, 2003; Taylor & Bergmann, 1987). For example, Taylor and Bergmann (1987) examined 1,286 undergraduate students who were searching for jobs and examined their perceptions of several recruitment variables (including demographics and interview behavior), communication (timeliness and number of contacts), and job attributes (level of responsibility, advancement opportunity, and interesting work) in predicting job choice behaviors (offer acceptance likelihood, tenure intentions, and job offer decision). They also proposed that comparability of other offers, years of full-time work experience, and number of other labor market opportunities would impact outcomes. Their results indicated that job attributes such as the nature of the work, advancement opportunities, work location, and the industry appear to have the strongest and most consistent impact on job acceptance decisions.

Another study by Turban, Eyring, and Campion (1993) examined applicants of a large chemical company who indicated their job preferences before and after making a job decision and then indicated the importance of these attribute preferences in their decision to accept or reject an offer. Candidates felt that the type of work was the most important variable before making a job decision, and also felt this was the most important attribute that impacted their decision to accept a job offer. However, candidates listed

location as the most important reason for rejecting an offer. Opportunities for advancement and co-workers were also ranked highly (3rd and 4th, respectively) in both groups. This study provides evidence that different factors may play different roles in decisions to reject a job than in decisions to accept a job offer. Therefore, it is proposed that candidate perceptions of job attributes (including pay, promotion likelihood, location, and the type of work) will be related to withdrawal intentions. That is, candidates with positive perceptions of these attributes will be less likely to withdraw. In the current study, the focus is on a single position within one organization, therefore these attributes will not vary as much as they would in a multi-job/multi-organization study, and therefore this issue will be proposed as an area for future research.

> Research proposition 2: Perceptions of job attributes (that is, pay, promotion likelihood, location, and the type of work) will be negatively related to withdrawal intentions. That is, candidates with negative perceptions of job attributes will have a greater intent to withdraw from the process.

Perceptions of Preparedness

Feeling prepared for a test, interview, or other selection procedure can surely make the process less nerve wracking, and may even influence a candidate's decision to withdraw (e.g., Schmit & Ryan, 1997). In their study of police officer recruits, Schmit and Ryan asked the candidates who withdrew from the selection process several questions during a post-withdrawal interview, including whether or not the presence of a test in the process impacted their decision to withdraw. Their results were surprising, as very few individuals (0.6%) indicated that the presence of a test itself impacted their decision to withdraw. However, when asked about the role of preparation (or feeling prepared) in their decision to withdraw, 29.3% of candidates indicated that lack of

preparation time impacted their decision. These results suggest that feelings of preparedness may impact a candidate's perceptions of performance and decisions to withdraw. Therefore, it is proposed that level of preparedness will impact perceptions of performance, which will then impact withdrawal intentions. Specifically, those candidates who feel they were less prepared for the test or assessment will be more likely to indicate that they did not perform well, and will also be more likely to indicate intent to withdraw from the process.

> Hypothesis 3a: Level of perceived preparedness will be positively related to perceptions of performance.
>
> Hypothesis 3b: Additionally, level of perceived preparedness will be negatively related to intentions to withdraw.

Job Offer Expectancy

Expectations of receiving a job offer are another important component of the decision making of an applicant during the selection process. Much of the work on expectancies comes from a foundational motivation theory known as expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964, 1995). This theory predicts that the attractiveness of an option is a function of the expectancy of receiving that option and the valence (or subjective value) that an individual places on that option. Much work has applied expectancy theory to the area of job choice (for a review, see Wanous, Keon, & Latack, 1983) and a recent article by Chapman and Webster (2006) discusses the origins and uses of expectancies in job choice. With regard to the origins of expectancies, Barber and Roehling (1993) note that expectancies likely do not develop during the application phase where they are exposed to job advertisements, but likely at a later phase in the selection process. These

expectancies could develop during a screening test or interview (Chan, Schmitt, DeShon, Clause, & Delbridge, 1997; Rynes, 1991).

Applicants may form meta-perceptions of their own behavior based on many different cues. These include observations of others reactions' to their behaviors (Kenny, 1994), their own memory of how they performed in similar situations in the past, or based on scores they receive on components of the selection process (Kuncel & Klieger, 2007). An example of this latter situation can be found in a study by Kuncel and Kleiger (2007). These authors examined law school applicants and found that candidates who knew their score (and thus had a fairly clear perception of their chances of receiving an offer of admission to law school) tended to send in applications to schools whose rank closely approximated their score on the test. That is, candidates with lower scores and who knew the selection rates tended to apply to lower ranked schools and those with higher scores tended to apply to higher ranked schools. In an applicant withdrawal context, these results suggest that candidates who find out their test score during the process may decide to withdraw if their score was low. However, in many traditional selection contexts, candidates do not learn of their exact scores on the predictors, neither do they learn of their percentile rank on these predictors (which is the case for many education tests like the LSAT), nor do they learn of the selection rate of the organization. For these reasons, it is believed that candidates must derive meta-perceptions of performance from either feedback from selection personnel or their own experience with similar procedures in the past.

With regard to meta-perceptions of performance, there have been a few studies in the applicant reactions literature, including a study by Chan et al. (1997). These authors found that performance on a cognitive ability test was related to face-validity perceptions and test-taking motivation. Accordingly, in the current study, it is proposed that self-perceptions of performance in the computer assessment phase will be related to assessment motivation in the production assessment and interview phase.

> Hypothesis 4a: Self-perceptions of performance during the computer assessment phase will be positively related to motivation in the production assessment and interview phase.

Additionally, these self-perceptions of performance in the assessment phase have been shown to be related to expectancies of receiving a job offer (e.g., Chapman & Webster, 2006). Thus, it is proposed that self-perceptions of performance on the computer assessment will be related to expectations of receiving a job offer at the end of the assessment day and after the interview phase.

> Hypothesis 4b: Levels of self-perceived performance on the assessment phase will be positively related to expectancy of receiving a job offer, measured at the end of the assessment phase.

Now that the origins of expectancies have been covered, one might wonder – how do applicants use these expectancies to self-select in or out of the hiring process? Image theory would predict that candidates will compare the information they have about a company to their images of their desired end state (having a job that matches their values, plans, and goals). Candidates would then compare their alternatives to each other during the screening process and finally choose the best possible option during the choice stage. However, image theory does not take into account the changing weights that may be

applied to options as a result of self-perceptions of performance and expectancy of receiving a job offer. For example, if the selection process for a job with high levels of fit with one's images is not going well and a person perceives themselves to have performed poorly in the assessment phase, then they may abandon this choice in favor of another position in which they felt they assessed more favorably (even though this first option was a better fit with their images). Additionally, image theory does not specify exactly *how* decision makers might screen and ultimately choose an option beyond comparison to their various images.

Work by other decision making theorists may be able to fill this gap. Specifically, Janis and Mann (1977) describe a process known as defensive avoidance which might occur in situations in which people are faced with a rigid timeline to make an irrevocable choice (such as accepting a job offer). In this situation, individuals may choose to postpone decision making (procrastination), pass the decision making on to someone else (deferment of decision) or if they must make the decision themselves, they may engage in bolstering. Bolstering involves examining alternatives (similar to the screening process of image theory) and then emphasizing the options that are more favorable, while downplaying the less favorable options.

How then do expectancies and meta-perceptions play into candidate decisions to self-select in or out of a particular job? An example of how this might play out with a candidate who has two job options is provided to illustrate how this process might work. Suppose that a candidate is involved in the selection process for multiple positions/companies. Image theory would predict that first the candidate will weigh the

features of the various companies against their images, and discard any options that do not align with their values, goals, and plans – they will make a screening decision. This screening decision will ideally remove all but two options that match well with their value image (company A and company B). The candidate will then use information gained from their experiences in the selection process to gauge their performance (either self-perceived or from the reactions of hiring personnel). Candidates will form expectancies about their likelihood of receiving an offer at company A and B based on this information.

Suppose that in company A the candidate perceives that the test was very challenging and that they did not know many of the answers and thus performed poorly (meta-perception) and as a result they feel they do not have a high likelihood of receiving a job offer (an expectancy). However in company B, a different test was used and the candidate feels that he or she performed fairly well (meta-perception) and that he/she has a good chance of receiving the offer (expectancy). It is possible that the candidate performed equally well in both selection processes, but it is the candidate's perception that is important here. Although the candidate has not received an offer/rejection for either company yet, (outcome) and he or she has not made a formal decision (social commitment), it is consistent with defensive avoidance strategies that the candidate would spread these alternatives by bolstering the attractiveness of the position he or she expects to be offered (company B) and downplaying the desirability of the position for which he/she expects to be rejected (company A) and perhaps self-select out of company A.

Empirical research in the job choice domain has demonstrated an important link between expectancies and job pursuit intentions (Chapman & Webster, 2006). In this study, sample was comprised of college students who were applying for a 4 month internship program at a Canadian university and data were gathered at 3 measurement points: 1.) Pre-interview, 2.) Post-interview, and 3.) Outcomes. During the pre-interview measurement period, the authors measured attractiveness and job offer acceptance intentions. After the interview, attractiveness, job offer acceptance intentions, and expectancy of receiving a job offer were assessed (among other variables). Finally, a set of outcomes were gathered, which included rankings from the interviewer, job choice ratings (a scale of strong interest to weak interest), and actual placement (placed or not placed into the internship). The results indicate that pre-interview attractiveness and intentions are significantly related to post-interview attractiveness and intentions. Additionally, and of most importance for the current model, job offer expectancy was highly related to job offer acceptance intentions and intentions predicted job choice.

While Chapman and Webster did not assess withdrawal behavior in their study, their results suggest that self-perceptions of performance and expectations regarding a job offer will be related to withdrawal behavior. Specifically, if a candidate feels that he/she has performed well and has a high expectancy of receiving a job offer, then withdrawal intentions will be lower than if he/she perceives that performance was poor and there is a low likelihood of receiving an offer.

> Hypothesis 4c: Candidates who have high performance self-perceptions and high job-offer expectancies will have lower withdrawal intentions and be less likely to withdraw from the selection process.

Selection Process Features

Process Delays

Candidates are often engaged in the selection process with multiple organizations and the best candidates often receive multiple offers from which to choose (Blau, 1992). Candidates also often gauge their performance in the process based on cues from organizational representatives (Chapman & Webster, 2006; Kenny, 1994). If an organization takes a long period of time to contact an applicant, then that applicant is likely to assume that they have either performed poorly on the selection procedure or that the organization has filled the position with someone else (Rynes et al., 1991). Another possible reaction to delays in the process might be that candidates perceive the organization to be disorganized, and they thus might be less attracted to this organization. Therefore, it is important to understand the role of time lapses in predicting applicant withdrawal.

Several studies have noted this relationship in the last 50 years. One of the earlier studies is by Arvey et al. (1975) who examined minority-majority differences among civil service jobs of varying levels to determine the impact that time lags have on withdrawal. Results indicated an overall effect for time delay, such that at longer time delays, greater percentages of candidates did not appear for the next step in the process. Other authors have also noted this relationship (e.g., Becker, Connolly, & Slaughter, 2010; Rynes et al., 1991; Schreurs et al., 2009). For example, recent evidence by Becker et al. (2010) confirms this finding with candidates who received earlier offers being more likely to accept them. Another interesting finding in the Becker et al. (2010) study was

that new hires who accepted earlier offers did not differ in job performance or turnover as compared to those candidates who accepted later offers. Based on previous findings that delays in the process are related to job acceptance behavior and withdrawal, it is proposed that delays in the process will be positively related to withdrawal. That is, longer delays will be associated with a greater likelihood of withdrawal.

Hypothesis 5: Delays in the selection process will be positively related to withdrawal.

Personnel Characteristics

Several recruitment practices have been shown to impact job choice decisions and applicant withdrawal, including characteristics of selection personnel. Researchers have found that interviewer characteristics such as warmth and general competence have a positive impact on applicant attraction and job choice decisions (Carless & Imber, 2007). Several researchers have noted similar findings (e.g., Rynes et al., 1991) and have theorized that interviewer characteristics serve as signals of unseen organizational characteristics. Early in the selection process, applicants have an incomplete understanding of what the organization is like, so they use cues from selection personnel to learn about the organization and if they would like to work there (Rynes & Miller, 1983). These characteristics may have the greatest impact on applicant behavior during the early stages of the selection process, and for applicants with less knowledge of the organization. Therefore, it is proposed that perceptions of selection personnel's warmth and competence will be negatively related to withdrawal intentions, and that this relationship will be stronger in the earlier stages of selection than in later stages. The

current study will focus on applicant behavior from the testing phase to the job offer phase and will not cover the early stages such as application and initial organizational contact, and thus is limited in determining whether this relationship exists or not. Therefore, this relationship is proposed for future research to address.

> Research proposition 3a: Selection personnel warmth and competence will be negatively related to withdrawal intentions.
>
> Research proposition 3b: This relationship will be moderated by time, such that the effect will be stronger in earlier stages of the selection process.

Employment Background

Employment Status

Anecdotal evidence from several applicant withdrawal studies suggests that one of the main reasons why an applicant may withdraw from the selection process is because he or she is currently employed and decided not to quit their current job. Ryan et al. (2000) found that the top reason given for self-selecting out of the hiring process was 'having to work on the day of the selection procedure.' Individuals who are currently employed and on the job market may be very different from those candidates who are unemployed and on the job market. For one thing, the urgency of obtaining a job in order to maintain quality of life will not be present. Additionally, if they are not selected by the hiring organization, they will still have a job to fall back on. Indeed, Ryan et al. (2000) found that employed individuals were more likely to self-select out after the first stage of the selection process than those candidates who were not employed. For these reasons, it is proposed that those candidates who are currently employed will withdraw at earlier stages of the selection process than those who are not currently employed.

Hypothesis 6: Candidates with current jobs will be more likely to withdraw in the early stage of the selection process than candidates without jobs.

Job Embeddedness/Satisfaction

If an applicant is currently employed with another organization but is going through the selection process for a new job, there are two possible outcomes under the applicant's control: the person will either turnover from his/her current job or withdraw from the selection process with the hiring organization. Research in the turnover literature suggests that the decision to turnover or to withdraw is likely to be driven by the extent to which the candidate is embedded in, satisfied with, and/or committed to the current job (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). As a construct, job embeddedness reflects the extent to which a person is bound to the location, people, and issues at work (Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004). Generally, it is thought to have two factors – on-the-job embeddedness, which is how enmeshed the person is in the organization; and off-the-job embededness, which is how enmeshed the person is in the community (Crossley, Bennet, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007). Embeddedness may actually increase as an employee's tenure with an organization increases, because the "bonds (i.e., social bonds, community bonds, financial inducements, etc.) between the individual and his or her employer strengthen… [making it harder] for the individual to 'break the ties that bind.'" (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009; p. 280).

The other two main variables that may impact the decision to turnover are job satisfaction and commitment. Generally, job satisfaction is the extent to which people like or dislike their job (Spector, 1997). Traditional models of turnover include dissatisfaction as a core determinant of turnover (e.g., Mobley, 1977) and a mountain of

support has been found for this relationship (e.g., Tett & Meyer, 1993). Another frequently examined variable in turnover models is job commitment. Job commitment is thought to have three components – affective commitment (emotional attachment to the organization); continuance commitment (commitment based on the recognized costs associated with leaving); and normative commitment (staying because it is the right thing to do; Allen & Meyer, 1996). Commitment has been found to explain unique variance beyond satisfaction in predicting turnover intentions and turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

While satisfaction and commitment have been used to explain turnover in many traditional models, embeddedness has been found to explain turnover over and beyond satisfaction and commitment (Crossley et al., 2007). Indeed, Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, and Erez (2001) point out that as much as half of the embeddedness construct does not overlap with the traditional organizationally-focused constructs of satisfaction and commitment because it includes community-related issues in addition to job-related issues. Beyond these three core variables, Crossley et al. (2007) included perceived available alternatives and intentions as the only additional variables in a model that effectively predicted turnover. These two additional variables will be given more attention in the sections below.

To the author's knowledge, there have not been any studies that have examined the job embeddedness, satisfaction, or commitment of currently employed applicants who are trying to decide whether or not to withdraw from the application process for jobs with another organization. Due to their strong associations with turnover, they should play an important role in predicting withdrawal from the selection process as well. As such, it is

proposed that there will be a positive relationship between embeddedness, satisfaction, and commitment with withdrawal intentions and withdrawal. That is, candidates who are highly embedded, satisfied, or committed to their current job will have higher withdrawal intentions and be more likely to withdraw. However, candidates who are highly embedded, satisfied, and committed to their current jobs may not be on the job market to begin with, and thus not be applying to new jobs; therefore, these relationships will be somewhat restricted in magnitude as compared to what they might be if everyone within a company was applying for different jobs. Nonetheless, these variables are proposed as important directions for future research.

> Research proposition 4: Embeddedness, satisfaction, and commitment to a current job will be positively related to withdraw from the selection process.

Job Characteristics

Job Level

Candidates for positions at different levels of an organization may differ from one another in terms of their tendency to withdraw from the selection process. As Hausknecht et al. (2004) note, "the selection process may be different for individuals who are applying for senior-level and executive positions when compared with reactions of entry-level or public sector personnel" (p. 674). The empirical data concerning this question are limited, but research by Arvey and colleagues (1975) suggests that candidates for lower grade jobs may withdraw at greater rates than candidates for higher grade jobs. Therefore, it is proposed that candidates for lower level jobs will withdraw at greater rates than candidates at higher level jobs. Since the current study focuses on a single job level (production team member), this proposition is suggested for future research.

Research proposition 5: Job level will be negatively related to likelihood of withdraw, such that candidates at lower job levels will be more likely to withdraw.

Individual Differences

Personality and Cognitive Ability

Certain stable characteristics of individuals are likely to influence the intention to withdraw from the selection process, including cognitive ability and negative affect. Barber, Hollenbeck, Tower, and Phillips (1994) noted that the relationship between information acquisition and continuing in the application process was moderated by negative affect, such that those candidates who scored lower on an open-ended test about the position and had high negative affect withdrew at greater rates than those who scored lower on the test and were low in negative affect. Other research on individual differences has focused on the cognitive ability of candidates. Candidates with low cognitive ability tended to drop out of the selection process earlier than candidates with higher cognitive ability (Barber et al., 1994). This finding is surprising given that candidates who are higher in cognitive ability are generally likely to have more available alternatives (due to their greater abilities), and thus may be more likely to withdraw as a result. This relationship is likely to be more complex than simply examining cognitive ability and withdrawal in isolation (for example, perceptions of fit may play an important role as well). Future research on the role of cognitive ability in withdrawal is needed to understand the true relationship and what other factors might impact this relationship.

Research proposition 6a: There will be a positive relationship between neuroticism and withdrawal.

Research proposition 6b: The relationship between cognitive ability and withdrawal will be moderated by perceptions of fit. Specifically, the slope of the

fit-withdrawal relationship will be steepest for those candidates with high cognitive ability and less steep for those candidates with low cognitive ability.

Demographic Characteristics (Race, Gender, Age)

Organizations are confronted with a challenging task when selecting employees. They are motivated to maximize validity, such that applicants who score highly on the selection procedure will also demonstrate high performance once on the job. However, they are also motivated by the legal guidelines to avoid discriminating against protected groups (Black or African-Americans, women, or older adults). Unfortunately, a few of the more highly valid selection procedures, including cognitive ability tests, are associated with large sub-group differences favoring the majority group (Roth, Bevier, Bobko, Switzer, & Tyler, 2001). As such, organizations are in a bind to try to satisfy these competing goals of employing a highly valid selection instrument while avoiding adverse impact against minority groups (Ployhart et al., 2002).

The issue is further complicated by the frequently found difference in drop-out or withdrawal rates among majority and minority groups. Several previous studies have demonstrated that there are disproportionate withdrawal rates for minorities and majority applicants (e.g., Arvey, et al, 1975; Ployhart et al., 2002; Ryan, Horvath, & Kriska, 2005; Ryan et al., 2000; Schmit & Ryan, 1997), with Black or African-American candidates withdrawing at a much higher rate than white or Caucasian applicants. Some authors have also found different withdrawal rates for males vs. females for certain positions (including the police force), with more females withdrawing from the process than males. A differential withdrawal rate for minorities and majorities is problematic because if more females or minorities withdraw than males or majorities, it may decrease the

chances of identifying and selecting qualified female or minority applicants, which could impact adverse impact rates. In the current study, it is proposed that applicant withdrawal rates will differ by demographic group. Specifically, a replication of previous studies is expected such that Black or African-American candidates will withdraw at greater rates than Caucasian candidates.

Hypothesis 7a: Ethnic minorities will withdraw at greater rates than majorities.

As noted above, image theory predicts that candidates with more job search experience (that is, more experience in going through the selection process with organizations) will have less difficulty with making decisions and may even be able to decide on a job more quickly than those with less job search experience (Stevens, 1998). While there is little research in an applicant withdrawal context on job search experience or age effects, there have been several studies in the managerial decision making literature on the role of decision making experience and age on decision making quality and speed (e.g., Taylor, 1975). Across domains, this research suggests that older adults may be better at making decisions than younger adults (Thornton & Dumke, 2005). These results suggest that older applicants may be better at making job choice decisions, and thus may be able to make the decision sooner than younger applicants. Therefore, it is proposed that older adults may be more likely to withdraw at earlier stages than younger adults.

Hypothesis 7b: Older adults will withdraw at a greater rate during earlier stages as compared to younger adults.

Withdrawal rates may also differ based on gender, as noted above. Many of the previous studies in the area of applicant withdrawal have examined a profession that is

typically male-dominated (e.g., police officer; Ployhart et al., 2002; Ryan et al., 2000; Schmit & Ryan, 1997). One would not expect as many females to apply or accept offers for these positions as males. In the current study, the position that will be the focus of analyses is a manufacturing team member, and historical data indicate that a majority of employed persons in this type of work are male (Wootton, 1997). Even if the position is not a typically male-dominated position, there may be other forces at play that might explain why more females might remove themselves from the selection process than males. For example, in a study by Van Hooft, Born, Taris, and Van der Flier (2006), the authors found that applicant decision processes may differ depending on gender. In their study, women were more sensitive to the opinions of significant others than men. That is, if females did not have high social support, they were more likely to withdraw than men. For these reasons, it is proposed that females will withdraw at greater rates than males in the current study.

Hypothesis 7c: Females will withdraw at greater rates than males.

Outside Influence

Peer Influence and Social Support

When making important life decisions (such as applying for a new job), individuals often draw on others for help with making the decision (Beach, 1998; Janis & Mann, 1977) and count on their support once a decision has been made. In a job choice context, many researchers have examined the role that important others play in the decision making process (e.g., Ryan et al., 2000; Van Hooft et al., 2006). In one study, Van Hooft et al. (2006) studied 191 applicants to a Dutch employment agency who

completed a questionnaire after applying for a job. These authors measured 8 constructs: job application intention, job application attitude, peer influence, job attractiveness, hiring expectancy, job reputation, perceived P–O fit, and perceived P–J fit. Van Hooft et al. found that attitudes and peer influence were related to intent to apply. Additionally, adding gender as an interaction term with each variable was also significant. Attitudes toward the job were a stronger predictor of intentions to apply among males than females. However, peer influence was a stronger predictor of intentions to apply for females than males, as noted in the section above. These results suggest that peer influence may play an important role in predicting self selection behaviors (such as withdrawal).

In an applicant withdrawal context, a few studies have examined the role of peer influence and social support. Specifically, Schmit and Ryan (1997) noted during their interviews with applicants that approximately 9% of candidates reported that input from another person was the main reason for their withdrawal from the process. Two-percent of the candidates reported that family or friends were actually opposed to the position. In another study of applicant withdrawal, Ryan et al. (2000) examined whether or not there are differences in level of peer influence and support between candidates who decide to withdraw or remain in the process. The authors found that those candidates who completed the 2nd hurdle in the selection process were more supported by their family-friends than those who self-selected out or failed the first stage. Together, these findings indicate that social support and peer influence may play an important role in the decision to withdraw. Therefore, it is proposed that peer influence and social support will play a role in predicting which candidates will withdraw from the selection process.

Research proposition 7a: Candidates who report greater levels of peer influence will be more likely to withdraw from the process.

Research proposition 7b: Candidates who report greater social support will be less likely to withdraw from the process.

Moderators

Past Job History

Job choice researchers have examined experience as an applicant in a number of different ways. One way that they have examined it is with regard to the number of past jobs that a candidate has held, and the focus has been on how often they have gone from one job to the next. This phenomenon, known as the hobo syndrome, is the tendency for a person to job hop or frequently leave a job in search of another only to again leave that job (Ghiselli, 1974). While there are no known studies on the hobo syndrome within an applicant withdrawal context, research from the turnover literature indicates that this tendency is stable within individuals and may help to explain withdrawal from the selection process.

Judge and Watanabe (1995) conducted a longitudinal event history analysis using a national sample of young adults and found that those employees who have job hopped in the past also tended to turnover and find another job again in the future. These findings can easily be carried over to the withdrawal context, as candidates that are higher in impulsiveness or hobo tendencies are not likely to give decisions as much thought as those with lower levels of impulsiveness, and thus may be more likely to withdraw from the selection process. Therefore, it is proposed that hobo tendencies (as assessed by

number of past jobs that an individual has held) will be positively related to withdrawal from the selection process. The more jobs that an individual has held, the more likely they are to withdraw from the selection process.

> Hypothesis 8: There will be a positive relationship between number of past jobs and withdrawal.

Candidates with more experience looking for jobs and going through the job search process may make decisions differently from those with less experience. This is consistent with the predictions of image theory related to experience and time spent comparing alternatives (Stevens, 1998). One empirical test of this relationship was reported in a study by Bretz and Judge (1998) who examined a group of students that were given information about hypothetical organizations with either positive or negative levels of attributes (such as time pressure and supportiveness of culture). These authors attempted to determine the subsequent impact of these attributes on organizational attraction. The results suggest that negative information has a strong negative impact on attraction, but this relationship was moderated by applicant quality and experience. Candidates of higher quality (based on a judges assessment of résumé quality) and with less experience put more emphasis on negative information than candidates of lower quality and more experience.

These results suggest that more experienced candidates may process information in the selection process differently from those with less experience, and that job search experience may be an important variable to consider in a withdrawal context. Therefore, it is proposed that experience as an applicant will play a moderating role between perceptions of job attributes and intentions to withdraw. Those candidates with less

experience will view negative information as more detrimental and will be more likely to withdraw, whereas candidates with more experience will take this information with a grain of salt. In the current study, experience as an applicant is conceptualized as the number of past jobs that the candidate has held. This should reflect the number of times they have been through the selection process, since for each job that the candidate has held they presumably have gone through some form of hiring process to obtain that job.

> Research proposition 8: Experience as an applicant (number of past jobs) will moderate the relationship between job attributes and withdrawal intentions.

Available Alternatives

Job applicants will differ on a variety of dimensions, including experience, education, and ability. Additionally, it is often the case that a candidate will apply for more than one position when they are on the job market (Blau, 1992). Thus, some applicants will be sought by many organizations, whereas others will be sought by fewer organizations. As a result, some candidates may receive multiple offers during the process and need to turn down a few companies during the process (Blau, 1992).

In the job choice literature, there is evidence which suggests that the job choice process might differ when applicants are selecting from among several job offers (also known as applicant marketability or perceived marketability) as compared to choosing whether or not to accept a single offer (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chapman et al., 2005; Chatman, 1991; Harold & Ployhart, 2008). Some research has suggested that number of job offers is negatively related to job choice (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1996). Specifically, Cable and Judge (1996) found that candidates with greater perceived alternatives were less likely to accept a job offer. As noted above, image theory suggests that candidates

with more alternatives need more time to compare these options, and therefore the probability of accepting any one of those options is less than for a candidate with fewer or no alternative opportunities.

Other research has found that alternative opportunities might play a moderating role in the relationship between perceptions and organizational attraction or job choice (e.g., Harold & Ployhart, 2008; Liden & Parsons, 1986). In the Harold and Ployhart (2008) study, the authors proposed that number of offers would influence the weighting of job and organizational attributes over time. Specifically, they hypothesized that at early stages and when there are few or no job offers, candidates will have to rely on perceptions of their own marketability (for example, their GPA) and these perceptions would influence weightings of attributes which would impact organizational attractiveness decisions. At later stages, as candidates either receive or do not receive job offers, they may gain a better sense of their 'market value.' As such, candidates with fewer offers were predicted to change the weighting originally placed on attributes. Their results suggest that candidates who had more offers in the later stages of the recruitment process needed perceptions of fit to be at higher levels in order to be attracted to the organization. Said another way, highly sought after candidates are likely to reject offers from organizations with which they feel a poor fit.

These results can be extended to an applicant withdrawal context. One particular study has examined the role that perceived alternatives play in an applicant withdrawal context (Ryan et al., 2000). In this study, the authors measured employment alternatives with three measures – perceived alternatives, currently employed, and currently

searching. Those applying for other jobs were less likely to self-select out of the process at time 1 but more likely at time 2. It follows from Ryan et al. (2000) that candidates who are currently involved in the selection process with other organizations will be more likely to self-select out at later stages. Also, the results of the Harold and Ployhart (2008) study suggest that candidates with more available alternatives (other job offers) and lower fit in the later stages of the selection process will likely have greater withdrawal intentions than candidates with fewer offers.

> Hypothesis 9a: Candidates with greater perceived alternatives will be more likely to self-select out at the early stage than candidates with fewer perceived alternatives.
>
> Hypothesis 9b: Number of perceived alternatives will moderate the relationship between perceptions of fit and withdrawal intentions, such that when a candidate does not feel a strong fit and has other job alternatives, they have a greater intention to withdraw than if they do not have other alternatives.

Economic and Labor Market Conditions

The selection process in any organization is always embedded within a local and national economy, and the state of these economies may have an impact both on organizations and the candidates applying to these organizations. In poor economic conditions, an organization may need to be more selective, as there are likely to be more candidates on the job market. Additionally, candidates may be less selective in a poor economy if there are fewer job openings; they may be more likely to accept an offer that they would not normally select in order to be employed. Smither, Millsap, Stoffey, Reilly, and Pearlman (1996) suggest that poor labor market conditions (such as one in which there is high unemployment and low selection rates) may cause applicants to pursue jobs even if they perceive the selection process to be unfair. These conditions

would likely attenuate the relationship between fairness perceptions and outcomes. Therefore, it is proposed that economic and labor market conditions may play a moderating role in the relationship between applicant perceptions and withdrawal, such that in poor economic conditions, the relationship between perceptions and withdrawal will be weaker than in good economic conditions. In the current study, the economic conditions will be static (since the focus is on a single organization in a fairly defined window of time), and so this relationship will not be tested in this study but it is proposed as an important question to address in future research.

> Research proposition 9: Economic and labor market conditions will moderate the relationship between applicant perceptions and withdrawal.

Behavioral Intentions

Many studies in the applicant reactions and job choice literatures have focused on the role that behavioral intentions and expectations have on predicting actual behavioral outcomes. The theory of planned behavior, whose core components include behavioral intentions and perceived behavioral control, has demonstrated validity in predicting a variety of behaviors (for reviews, see Ajzen, 1991, 2002; Armitage & Conner, 2001), such as job search (Van Hooft et al., 2004) and employee turnover (Van Breukelen et al., 2004).

Ajzen (1991) notes that the components of the theory of planned behavior (TPB) will be most accurate in predicting actual behavior when the behaviors in question (in this case withdrawal from the hiring process) are under the control of the individual. Ajzen also notes that "good examples can be found in behaviors that involve a choice among available alternatives." (p. 186). Job search involves choosing among alternatives,

whether it is other job offers or between a job offer and remaining with one's current job. One concern with using this theory alone to explain job pursuit is that some see job pursuit behavior and specifically withdrawal from the hiring process as not being under the complete control of applicants (Schmidt & Ryan, 1997). However, by studying perceptions of control, one may be able to add to the prediction of actual behavior (Schreurs et al., 2009).

Research on applicant withdrawal has demonstrated that several of the reasons why people withdraw from the selection process are perceived as being under the applicant's control (Ployhart et al., 2002). In this study, Ployhart et al. examined a group of applicants for a police officer position and conducted interviews with those candidates who withdrew from the selection process. During these interviews, the researchers asked candidates to provide a reason for why they had withdrawn from the process, and then asked them to rate their reason on 3 aspects – locus, stability, and controllability (which derive from attribution theory and deal with one's attribution for the causes of events). The authors found that the most frequently reported reason for withdrawing was that they had to work or had class during the test time, and thus they could not show up for the next phase. The next most frequently reported reasons were that they had taken another job, followed by the candidate not feeling qualified for the job, or changing mind about the job. When looking at the attribution ratings, the controllability for the top reason (having to work or go to class) was low, indicating that candidates felt that this situation was out of their control. However, the next two reasons (taking another job or changing mind about job) were rated as being highly under one's control. These results indicate

that the decision to withdraw from the selection process may be one that is perceived to be under one's willful control, and thus is amenable to study under the theory of planned behavior.

The other key component of the TPB is intention. Behavioral intention is included in many studies in the job choice and withdrawal literatures (e.g., Chapman & Webster, 2006; Chapman et al., 2005; Hausknecht et al., 2004; Schreurs et al., 2009). Behavioral intentions are thought to be the most direct predictors of behavior, according to the TPB. From a database of 185 independent studies published prior to 1997, the TPB accounted for 27% of the variance in behavior. In a job pursuit context, Hausknecht et al. (2004) found that job acceptance intentions were significantly positively related to job choice behaviors. These results suggest that in a withdrawal context, intentions to withdraw will be an important predictor of withdrawal behavior.

Hypothesis 10: Withdrawal intentions will predict withdrawal behavior.

Summary and Current Study

Applicant withdrawal from the hiring process can have several negative consequences for organizations. It has the potential to reduce the validity of selection procedures (Murphy, 1986), reduce the number of qualified candidates in the applicant pool (Rynes et al., 1991), and increase the chances of adverse impact (Arvey et al., 1975; Ryan et al., 2000; Schmit & Ryan, 1997). For each of these reasons, organizations are motivated to reduce the incidence of applicant withdrawal. In order to reduce the incidence, one must have a thorough understanding of the predictors of withdrawal.

The current study makes the following contributions to the literature: empirically tests additional predictors of withdrawal proposed by Schmit and Ryan (1997); examines perceptions of fairness in relation to withdrawal intentions and behavior at three time points in the selection process; examines the role of motivation in relation to fairness perceptions, withdrawal intentions, and behavior; moves beyond civil service and student populations to examine applicants to a manufacturing organization, and proposes a more comprehensive model of applicant withdrawal. Each of these contributions will be discussed a bit further below.

The model of applicant withdrawal developed by Schmit and Ryan (1997) as a result of their interviews with withdrawn candidates received partial support by Ryan et al. (2000); however perceptions of P-O fit and preparedness were not examined in this study. The current study, while missing a few variables from both of these studies (most notably social influence), fills a gap in our understanding of how perceptions of P-O fit relate to other perception variables in predicting withdrawal intentions and behavior. Previous work on applicant withdrawal has examined the phenomenon using perceptions measured at either one or two time points. Other studies have measured fairness perceptions at more than two time points (e.g., Bauer et al., 1998), but this will be the first study, to the author's knowledge, that examines fairness perceptions (in addition to other perceptions and contextual variables) in relation to withdrawal intentions and behavior at three points in time during the selection process.

In their original work, Schmit and Ryan (1997) examined candidate motivation in relation to withdrawal behavior. However, to the author's knowledge, this will be the first

study to examine the role that motivation plays in the perceptions-outcomes relationship in a withdrawal context, across time. An additional contribution of the current study deals with the sample under study. All previous work has either examined Midwestern civil service candidates (police officers, fire fighters, or city government positions) or student populations in their examination of withdrawal behavior. The current study will extend this examination to a population of manufacturing candidates from the southeast. Finally, the current study offers a comprehensive model of applicant withdrawal intentions and behavior. The model developed by Schmit and Ryan (1997) has been extended to include additional perception variables, contextual variables, and individual differences. This model will hopefully help to guide future research on applicant withdrawal behavior.

In the review that preceded this section, several propositions were provided for future research and specific hypotheses were detailed. A summary of these hypotheses is found in Table 1a and 1b below. The current study will test the specific hypotheses developed above with a sample of production team member applicants from a large south-eastern manufacturing plant in order to understand the predictors of withdrawal from the selection process.

CHAPTER TWO

METHOD

Participants

Data for the current study were gathered from approximately twenty-five thousand applicants to a production team member position at a large southeastern manufacturing plant. Data collection began in December 2009 at the beginning of the hiring process and will continue until the client has hired 1,200 candidates (projected to be mid-summer 2011). The measures and procedure below have been in place since the beginning of the hiring process.

Procedure

Participants in this study completed three questionnaires at different points in the selection process. The selection process involved 4 stages. The first was the application stage where candidates completed an online application asking questions about education, work preferences, and work experience. The next stage was the assessment phase. In this phase, candidates completed 3 different assessments in 2 time periods. The first time period involved completing a computer-based test and a computer-based manufacturing assessment. The second time period in the assessment phase was a hands-on production simulation. The third stage was the interview stage, during which candidates completed one face-to-face structured interview with the hiring manager. Finally, candidates who were given a conditional job offer were then asked to complete a medical and drug test along with a background check. Candidates passing this stage are given a job offer and began new-hire training on-site. The current study utilizes self-

report data collected from candidates at 3 points in time during this hiring process – a questionnaire immediately following the computer-based assessment; a questionnaire immediately following the hands-on production simulation; and a questionnaire after the interview has been completed. The questionnaires completed during the assessment phase are paper and pencil-based (see Appendices B and C), are given to candidates by the selection personnel, and candidates are instructed to bubble-in their answers on a Scantron form. The questionnaire completed after the interview is an online questionnaire which is emailed to each candidate with an invitation asking for their input on the process (see Appendix D).

Data-matching

Per the hiring organization's request, candidates are given the option to write their candidate ID number on the assessment questionnaire response form. Since this is optional, some candidates did not provide their ID number. As a result, it was not possible to match some candidates to their background information and link them with their questionnaire responses completed at other points in the selection process. Out of all candidates who completed the assessment process (n = 8,754), 6,423 completed the assessment survey (73.4% of those assessed) and 3,633 provided their candidate ID number (41.5% of those assessed). Out of all candidates who were interviewed (n = 2,475), 1,113 completed the interview survey (44.9% of those interviewed), and 539 candidates provided their name and were thus able to be matched with their assessment survey data and background information (21.8% of those interviewed).

Measures

As a preface to the description of measures used in this study, it is important to note that because this was an applied data collection effort occurring during the actual selection process with real candidates, there were restrictions to the type and number of items that could be presented to applicants. Therefore, the measurement approach used here focused on a parsimonious item set, at times utilizing single item measures. The applicant reactions items for this survey were culled from a larger subset of items used in previous applied research studies (e.g., Sinar et al., 2003). The decision criteria used to select the items for this study included face validity and content validity, (as many scales were carefully linked with the constructs in question), adequate variance as exhibited by means and standard deviations from archival data, factor loadings from exploratory factor analyses completed during previous research studies, and additional item parameters such as item-total correlations and internal consistency reliability estimates.

Demographics

Demographic information was collected within the application process using EEOC guidelines. Applicants were asked to provide their birth date (to calculate age), gender, and race (please refer to Appendix A). Age was dichotomized to address the hypotheses that predicted a difference between older vs. younger candidates in withdrawal behavior. The cut point for dichotomizing age was set at 40 years (under 40 years old vs. over 40 years old). This cut point was chosen to match the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's (EEOC) standards for examining age discrimination in organizational practices (EEOC, 2008).

Post Computer-Based Assessment Questionnaire

After completing the computer based assessments, candidates were given a questionnaire designed to gather their reactions and perceptions of the computer-based assessment phase (please refer to Appendix B). This questionnaire was comprised of multiple constructs, which are outlined below. Unless otherwise indicated, each item was preceded by instructions which asked candidates to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree (on a 5-point Likert scale, 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree) with each statement based on the computer-based assessment that they had just completed.

Fairness Perceptions

As described in Gilliland (1993), overall fairness perceptions are likely to be determined by the extent to which certain procedural justice rules are met. These rules include job-relatedness, advance information, opportunity to perform, and interpersonal treatment. Additionally, overall fairness perceptions are predictive of outcomes and should be measured as well. Each of these measures is described below.

Job-relatedness. Job-relatedness was assessed with a 2-item scale adapted from previous research on applicant fairness perceptions (e.g., Bauer et al., 2001). One item was designed to assess perceptions of predictive validity ("Doing well on this assessment probably means that a person can do the job well"), while the other item was designed to assess face validity ("This assessment measured skills and capabilities related to the job in question").

Advance Information. Advance information is the extent to which a candidate has "information, communication, and explanation about the selection process prior to testing" (Bauer et al., 2001, p. 391). Previous research on information known in advance has indicated a consistent relationship with overall fairness perceptions, and a grouping with other "structure" oriented reactions constructs such as job-relatedness and opportunity to perform (Bauer et al., 2001). Advance information was measured with a single item in the current study, "I feel I had enough information regarding the purpose of this assessment."

Opportunity to Perform. Opportunity to perform is the extent to which a candidate feels that he or she has the chance to demonstrate his/her skills and capabilities during the assessment (Gilliland, 1993). Opportunity to perform was measured by a 2-item scale, with items similar to those from the Selection Procedural Justice Scale (Bauer et al., 2001). An example item is "This assessment gave me the chance to demonstrate my skills and abilities." Previous research with these two items has indicated good reliability (α = .85; Giumetti, Wasko, & Sinar, 2010).

Interpersonal Treatment. Interpersonal treatment is an important component of a candidate's perceptions of selection process fairness (Gilliland, 1993). In the current study, interpersonal treatment was measured with a single item, "I felt that I was treated fairly by people during this assessment."

Overall Fairness Perceptions. Overall fairness perceptions reflect a candidate's overall evaluation of the justice of a selection procedure. In the current study, overall fairness was measured with a single item, "I believe that this assessment was objective

and fair." As can be seen, this item is high in face validity and it is similar to items used in previous research (e.g., Gilliland, 1994).

Test-taking Motivation

Test-taking motivation represents the extent to which a candidate is driven to perform on a selection test procedure. In the current study, test-taking motivation was assessed with a single item, "I was motivated to do well on this assessment." On the face, this item appears to represent the construct of motivation well, and it is similar to items in the motivation scale of the Test Attitude Survey (TAS; Arvey, Strickland, Drauden, & Martin, 1990).

Self-Perceptions of Performance

Self-perceptions of performance represent a candidate's retrospective view of how well they have done on the selection procedure. This construct was measured by a single item in the current study, "I felt that I performed well on this assessment."

Preparedness

To measure the extent to which candidates felt prepared for the computer-based assessments, a single item was used. This item asked participants "How prepared did you feel for the computer-based assessments today?" and provided 5 response options, ranging from 1 = very prepared to 5 = very unprepared. This measure appears to be measuring what it purports to measure, and thus has high face validity.

Other reactions

Eight additional items were included in the computer-based assessment questionnaire for the purposes of selection diagnostics (e.g., providing more instructions

or reducing distractions for future candidates) and other research studies. These items can be found in Appendix B. Constructs in this section include adequacy of access to resources for help, adequacy of time, presence of distractions, user-friendliness, clarity of instructions, innovativeness, and engagement.

Post Production Assessment Questionnaire

The first section in the post-production assessment questionnaire was essentially the same as the post-computer-based assessment questionnaire (see Appendix C). That is, the constructs of job-relatedness, opportunity to perform, advance information, interpersonal fairness, overall fairness, assessment motivation, self-perceptions of performance, and preparedness were gathered from participants using the same items and format as above. In addition to these questions, candidates were asked to respond to additional questions that measured the constructs below.

Offer Likelihood

Perceptions of the likelihood of receiving a job offer were assessed with a single item, "How do you feel about your chances of receiving a job offer with this organization?" Response options for this item ranged from 1, "Very good chance that I will receive a job offer" to 5, "Very good chance that I will not receive a job offer." This item is similar to items used in previous research on job offer expectancy (e.g., Chapman & Webster, 2006).

Withdrawal Intentions

Intentions to withdraw from the selection process represent the candidate's perception of how likely he/she is to remove him/herself from the selection process. In

the current study, intentions to withdraw were assessed with a single item, "Describe how likely you are to continue to seek employment with this organization after today." Response options ranged from 1 = very high likelihood that I will continue to seek employment with this organization after this stage to 5 = very low likelihood that I will continue to seek employment with this organization after this stage.

Perceptions of Fit

Perceptions of fit represent the extent to which a candidate feels a match between his/her personal characteristics and certain aspects of the job or organization. Person-job fit reflects the extent to which a candidate feels a match between his/her qualifications and the requirements of the job in question. Person-organization fit represents the extent to which a candidate perceives a match between his/her values and the values or goals of the organization. In the current study, person-job fit was assessed with a single item, "Describe your overall level of fit with the production team member position. That is, how well do the requirements and tasks of the job seem to match with your knowledge, skills, and abilities?" Response options for this item range from 1, "Very good match between this job and my knowledge, skills and abilities" to 5, "Very poor match between this job and my knowledge, skills and abilities." This single item contains many of the features found in the Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001) measure of P-J fit.

Person-organization fit was also assessed with a single item, "Describe your overall level of fit with this organization. That is, how well do the values, personality and/or goals of the organization seem to match with your values, personality, and/or goals?" Response options for this item ranged from 1, "Very good match between this

organization and my values, personality, and goals" to 5, "Very poor match between this organization and my values, personality, and goals." This item contains features from each of the 3 items found in the Cable and Judge (1996) measure of P-O Fit. Both of these fit items were reverse coded for the purposes of data analyses such that high scores represented greater levels of fit with the organization.

Perceived Alternatives

The construct of perceived alternatives reflects the number of other job opportunities that a candidate has available to him/her. In the current study, perceived alternatives were assessed with 2 items. The first item asked candidates to indicate "To how many other jobs are you currently considering applying or have you applied to in the past month?" The response options for this question ranged from 1, "None" to 5, "Ten or more." The second item assessing perceived alternatives asked candidates "For how many of these jobs do you feel that you have a good chance of receiving a job offer?" Response options for this second item were identical to the first item. It is this second item that will be used as the measure of number of perceived alternatives since it more directly reflects the number of other job offers. This item is similar to those that have been used in past research on alternatives and withdrawal or job choice (Cable & Judge, 1996; Ryan et al., 2000) in that these other studies have also asked candidates to think about the number of other alternatives available to them at the present time.

Post-Interview Questionnaire

As in the post-production assessment questionnaire, the first section of the post-interview questionnaire used the same measures of job-relatedness, advance information,

opportunity to perform, overall fairness, interpersonal fairness, and motivation (see Appendix F). Additionally, preparedness, offer likelihood, withdrawal intentions, perceptions of fit, and perceived alternatives were also gathered in the post-interview questionnaire and the items were identical to those from the post-production assessment questionnaire.

Additional Data Points

Current Employment Status

To test hypothesis 6, that candidates who are currently employed will be more likely to withdraw at early stages, candidate background information was gathered from the hiring organization's candidate database. Specifically, for each candidate, the response to the dates of employment from the work history section of the application form were examined and candidates who indicated 2008-Current (for example) were coded as currently employed, whereas candidates who provided a specific end date that was before December 2009 were coded as not currently employed.

Process Delays

To test hypothesis 8, that candidates who experience greater delays in the selection process will be more likely to withdraw, the time period between selection procedures was gathered from the hiring organization's candidate database. Specifically, the dates for application, assessment, interview, and job offer (if applicable) were gathered for each candidate in the system. Then, new variables were created that reflected the number of days between application and assessment, the number of days between assessment and interview, and the number of days between application and interview.

Withdrawal

To test the hypotheses that deal with actual withdrawal behavior, withdrawal behavior was gathered from the hiring organization's candidate database as well. When candidates removed themselves from the process (as opposed to when the organization decided not to select them), the selection personnel were instructed to make a notation for this in the candidate's record. Candidates could have removed themselves at multiple different time points – they may have chosen to leave after the computer-based assessment/during the production assessment, they may have chosen to leave after the assessment day but before the interview, or they may have chosen to leave after the interview but before the job offer. A dichotomous variable was created that reflected either no withdrawal or a withdrawal (0 and 1, respectively).

Hypothesis Testing

To test the hypotheses proposed by the current study, regression analyses were conducted with version 18 of SPSS (a statistical software package for the social sciences). Specifically, to test hypotheses dealing with withdrawal intentions (hypotheses 1a, 2, 3b, and 4c), individual hierarchical linear regressions were conducted, with withdrawal intentions as the dependent variable (DV), and process unfairness, perceived fit, preparedness, and self-perceptions of performance as independent variables (IVs), respectively. Additional linear regressions were conducted to test the relationships between perceptions of preparedness and performance (hypothesis 3a), performance and motivation (hypothesis 4a), as well as offer expectancy (hypothesis 4b).

For hypothesis 1b predicting a mediating role for motivation between fairness and withdrawal intentions, a series of hierarchical linear regressions were conducted. The indirect effect was calculated by multiplying two regression coefficients (Sobel, 1982). The first regression coefficient was obtained from a model in which the IV (fairness perceptions) and the mediating variable (test-taking motivation) were both predicting withdrawal intentions. From this regression, the unstandardized regression coefficient and standard error for motivation were gathered. Next, a regression with fairness perceptions predicting motivation was conducted. From this regression, the unstandardized regression coefficient and standard error for fairness perceptions were gathered. Then, the regression coefficients were multiplied together and divided by a product of their standard errors. This provided a *Z*-statistic that can be compared to a significance table to learn if the indirect effect is statistically different from zero.

To determine whether perceived alternatives moderate the relationship between fit perceptions and withdrawal intentions (hypothesis 9b), a moderated regression analysis was conducted. In this analysis, perceived alternatives and fit perceptions were entered in the first step and the interaction between these variables was entered in the second step with withdrawal intentions entered as the dependent variable. To reduce issues associated with multicollinearity, fit perceptions and perceived alternatives were centered before computing the interaction term (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). To understand the form of the interaction, simple slopes for perceived fit at different levels (1 standard deviation below the mean, at the mean (which is now zero because each variable was centered on the mean), and 1 standard deviation above the mean) of perceived alternatives were

calculated and tested based on their slopes and standard errors to determine if they statistically differ from zero (Aiken & West, 1991).

Finally, to test the hypotheses involving withdrawal behavior (which was dichotomously coded), a series of ordinal logistic regression analyses with maximum likelihood estimation were conducted with withdrawal as the DV and delays in the process (hypothesis 5), current employment status (hypothesis 6), race, age, and gender (hypothesis 7a-c), perceived alternatives (hypothesis 9a), and finally withdrawal intentions (hypothesis 10) as IVs. Each IV was mean centered to aid interpretation of the output. The first step was to run the null model with no IVs predicting withdrawal behavior, and then for each model, the IV was added to the model and the difference in chi-square was calculated and tested for significance. To interpret significant effects, the logit was transformed to the odds, and then transformed to the probability to understand the probability of withdraw given a 1 unit increase in the IV. The effect size of each logistic regression was computed using the log likelihood ratio R^2 or R^2_L, an index of fit (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). This was computed by taking the product of the -2 Log Likelihood for the full model and the -2 Log Likelihood for the null model. The resulting output is analogous to a normed fit index in structural equation modeling and allows for interpretation of the fit of each model.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics for the study variables are outlined in Table 2. The perceptions variables (variables 9 – 25) were fairly negatively skewed, as reflected by means ranging from 3.47 to 4.82 on a 5 point scale. All variables were measured with single item scales, with the exception of the fairness perception scales, which were comprised of 7 items: one advance information item, two job-relatedness items, two opportunity to perform items, one interactional justice item, and one procedural justice item. These 7 item scales appeared in all three surveys – post-test, post-assessment, and post-interview. Coefficient alpha reliabilities are presented for these three scales in Table 3. All three scales exhibited sufficient reliability (e.g., all α's were above .82; Nunally, 1978) and are similar to those reported by the scale developers (Bauer et al., 2001). Frequency of withdrawal behavior was similar to previous studies (e.g., Schmit & Ryan, 1997), as about 10.4% of the sample (2,830 out of 27,148) withdrew from the process. Table 4 presents information on the number of candidates who withdrew at each stage of the selection process (as of January 2011). This table reveals that the majority of withdrawal behavior is occurring in the testing or interview phases, with the most candidates simply not showing up for the test day or walking out during the test day.

Intercorrelations among all 30 study variables are provided in Table 5. The following sections address the results of the study's hypotheses. First, the hypotheses involving standard ordinary least squares linear regression (hypotheses 1a, and 2 through 4c) will be presented. Next, those hypotheses dealing with extensions of linear

regression, specifically mediation (hypothesis 1b) and moderation (hypothesis 9b) will be addressed. Then, the hypotheses dealing with withdrawal behavior as the outcome and analyzed with logistic regression (hypotheses 4c, 5, 6, 7a-c, 9a, and 10) will be presented.

Hypotheses Tested with Linear Regression

In order to test the hypothesis that process fairness perceptions would be related to withdrawal intentions (hypothesis 1a), three regressions were conducted. First, assessment withdrawal intentions were regressed on assessment fairness perceptions. Second, interview withdrawal intentions were regressed on interview fairness perceptions. Third, a cross-time regression analysis tested whether interview withdrawal intentions were predicted by assessment fairness perceptions. Tables 6a-c present the results of these regression analyses, respectively. The results of the first regression indicate that intentions to withdrawal measured at the time of assessment was not significantly related to testing fairness perceptions (B = 0.02, $SE\ B$ = 0.03, t = 0.67, p > .05) but was significantly related to assessment fairness perceptions (B = -0.26, $SE\ B$ = 0.03, t = -9.81, p < .001). Overall, the model containing testing and assessment justice perceptions accounted for about 3% of the variance in assessment withdrawal intentions (see Table 6a). Individually, perceptions of assessment fairness uniquely explained 1.5% of the variance in withdrawal intentions.

The results of the second regression indicate that intentions to withdrawal measured at the time of interview was significantly related to interview fairness perceptions (B = -0.16, $SE\ B$ = 0.02, t = -7.24, p < .001). Interview fairness perceptions accounted for about 4.5% of the variance in interview withdrawal intentions (see Table

6b). The results of the third (cross-time) regression analysis indicate that withdrawal intentions measured after the interview were significantly predicted by assessment fairness perceptions (B = -0.24, $SE\ B$ = 0.06, t = -3.71, $p < .001$, sr^2 = .025) but not testing fairness perceptions (B = -0.06, $SE\ B$ = 0.06, t = -1.01, $p > .05$, see Table 6c). Taken together, these results provide partial support for hypothesis 1a, that fairness perceptions predict withdrawal intentions. Testing fairness perceptions appear to be unrelated to withdrawal intentions measured at a later time (whether that is after the assessment or after the interview), but both assessment and interview fairness perceptions are related to withdrawal intentions.

To test hypothesis 2, three linear regressions were conducted to examine if levels of person-job and person-organization fit were negatively related to withdrawal intentions. First, assessment withdrawal intentions were regressed on assessment P-J and P-O fit. Second, interview withdrawal intentions were regressed onto interview P-J and P-O fit. Third, a cross-time analysis examined interview withdrawal intentions regressed onto assessment P-J and P-O fit. Tables 7a-c present the results of these regression analyses, respectively. Results from the first regression analysis indicate that there is a significant negative relationship of perceptions of person-job (B = -0.29, $SE\ B$ = 0.01, t = -25.88, $p < .001$) and person-organization fit (B = -0.38, $SE\ B$ = 0.01, t = -31.18, $p <$ .001) on intentions to withdraw. Together, these variables explain about one third of the variance (i.e., R^2 = 0.366) in intentions to withdraw (see Table 7a). The relationships of both P-J and P-O fit with withdrawal intentions are negative, indicating that as perceptions of fit increase, intentions to withdraw decrease. Individually, P-J fit explains

about 7% of the unique variance in withdrawal intentions and P-O fit explains about 10% unique variance in withdrawal intentions.

The second regression analysis results indicate that P-J and P-O fit measured after the interview significantly predict interview withdrawal intentions (B = -0.15, $SE\ B$ = 0.03, t = -5.60, $p < .001$; B = -0.27, $SE\ B$ = 0.04, t = -7.66, $p < .001$, respectively). P-J and P-O fit uniquely explained 2.5% and 4.7% of the variance in withdrawal intentions, respectively (see Table 7b). Results from the third regression analysis (the cross-time analysis) indicate that P-J fit measured after the assessment significantly predicts withdrawal intentions after the interview (B = -0.12, $SE\ B$ = 0.04, t = -3.28, $p < .01$), but P-O fit does not predict withdrawal (B = -0.02, $SE\ B$ = 0.04, t = -0.48, $p > .05$). Perceptions of P-J fit after the assessment explain 2% of the unique variance in interview withdrawal intentions (see Table 7c). Taken together, the results of these three hypotheses provide support for hypothesis 2 – perceptions of fit predict withdrawal intentions.

To examine the relationship between level of perceived preparedness and perceptions of performance (hypothesis 3a), a set of linear regressions were conducted, one for each phase of the assessment day (testing and assessment phases). Perceptions of performance were not measured after the interview, so this relationship will not be tested with the interview data. Table 8 presents the results of these regression analyses. The results from the first regression analysis indicate that perceptions of testing preparedness significantly predict perceptions of testing performance (B = 0.223, $SE\ B$ = 0.01, t = 22.32, $p < .001$), with preparedness perceptions explaining about 7.5% of the variance in

perceptions of performance. The results of the second regression analysis indicate a similar finding, that perceptions of assessment preparedness significantly predict perceptions of assessment performance ($B = 0.213$, $SE\ B = 0.01$, $t = 21.61$, $p < .001$), with perceptions of assessment preparedness explaining about 7% of performance perceptions. These results provide support for hypothesis 3a.

To examine hypothesis 3b, that perceived preparedness will be negatively related to intentions to withdraw, a series of linear regressions were conducted to capture this relationship within the assessment, the interview, and across these time points. Tables 9 a-c present the results from these analyses. Results from the first analysis indicate significant negative relationships between perceptions of testing preparedness ($B = -0.08$, $SE\ B = 0.01$, $t = -7.40$, $p < .001$) and assessment preparedness ($B = -0.17$, $SE\ B = 0.01$, $t = -16.18$, $p < .001$) on withdrawal intentions measured after the assessment (see Table 9a). Together, the two preparedness variables explained about 7% of the variance in withdrawal intentions.

The second regression analysis examined interview preparedness as a predictor of withdrawal intentions measured after the interview. Interview preparedness was found to be a significant predictor of withdrawal intentions measured after the interview ($B = -0.10$, $SE\ B = 0.02$, $t = -4.57$, $p < .001$), explaining 2% of the variance in withdrawal intentions (see Table 9b). The cross-time regression analysis examining testing and assessment preparedness on withdrawal intentions measured after the interview revealed a significant main effect for assessment preparedness ($B = -0.07$, $SE\ B = 0.03$, $t = -2.61$, $p < .01$) but not for testing preparedness ($B = -0.001$, $SE\ B = 0.02$, $t = -0.03$, $p > .05$).

Assessment preparedness explained 1.3% of the variance in withdrawal intentions measured after the interview (see Table 9c). Taken together, these three analyses provide support for hypothesis 3b – perceptions of preparedness are negatively related to withdrawal intentions.

In hypothesis 4a, perceptions of testing performance were predicted to be related to subsequent assessment and interview motivation. These relationships were tested with a series of linear regressions. Table 10 presents the results from these hypotheses. Perceptions of testing performance was significantly related to assessment motivation ($B = 0.27$, $SE\ B = 0.01$, $t = 27.98$, $p < .001$) as well as interview motivation ($B = 0.102$, $SE\ B = 0.037$, $t = 2.77$, $p < .01$). In the first model, perceived test performance explained about 11% of the variance in assessment motivation. In the second model, perceived test performance explained about 1.4% of the variance in interview motivation. Taken together, these results support hypothesis 4a.

The next hypothesis tested via linear regression was hypothesis 4b, which stated that perceived performance on the assessment phase will be positively related to expectancy of receiving a job offer. Results of this analysis are presented in Table 11 and indicate a significant positive relationship between perceived assessment performance and expectancy of receiving an offer ($B = 0.445$, $SE\ B = 0.015$, $t = 28.77$, $p < .001$). Perceptions of assessment performance explained about 12% of the variance in expectancy of receiving a job offer. These results provide support for hypothesis 4b.

The final hypothesis tested via linear regression was hypothesis 4c, which predicted that candidates who have high performance self-perceptions and high job-offer

expectancies will have lower withdrawal intentions (and be less likely to withdraw from the selection process, tested later in the logistic regression section). A second regression was performed on offer expectancy and withdrawal intentions measured at the time of the interview. Additionally, a third, cross-time regression was conducted to examine perceived performance during the testing/assessment phases and offer expectancy during the assessment phase as predictors of withdrawal intentions measured after the interview. Tables 12 a-c present the results from these analyses. Results from the first regression reveal that the overall model significantly predicts withdrawal intentions ($F(3, 6009) = 509.81$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .203$). Among the predictors, only offer expectancy is significantly negatively related to withdrawal intentions ($B = -0.33$, $SE\ B = 0.01$, $t = -34.88$, $p < .001$, see Table 12a), explaining more than 16% of the variance in withdrawal intentions. Perceptions of testing and assessment performance, while in the right direction, were not significantly related to withdrawal intentions ($B = -0.02$, $SE\ B = 0.01$, $t = -1.70$, $p > .05$, $B = -0.02$, $SE\ B = 0.02$, $t = -1.62$, $p > .05$, respectively), both explaining less than 0.1% of the variance in withdrawal intentions.

Results from the second regression analysis reveal that offer expectancy predicts withdrawal intentions ($B = -0.14$, $SE\ B = 0.02$, $t = -7.78$, $p < .001$), both measured after the interview (see Table 12b). Offer expectancy explained 5% of the variance in post-interview withdrawal intentions. Results from the third, cross-time regression reveal that perceptions of assessment performance and offer expectancy (measured after the assessment) were significant predictors of withdrawal intentions, measured after the interview ($B = -0.08$, $SE\ B = 0.04$, $t = -1.96$, $p < .05$; $B = -0.07$, $SE\ B = 0.03$, $t = -2.66$, $p <$

.01, respectively), as seen in Table 12c. Perceptions of testing performance was not a significant predictor of withdrawal intentions, measured after the interview ($B = 0.02$, $SE\ B = 0.04$, $t = 0.61$, $p > .05$). These results provide partial support for hypothesis 4c – perceptions of performance and offer expectancy predict withdrawal intentions.

To examine the combined effects of all assessment phase predictors on withdrawal intentions, an omnibus regression was conducted where all 12 assessment day predictors were entered simultaneously to predict withdrawal intentions. Table 13a presents the results of this analysis and reveals that the largest predictors of withdrawal intentions are P-O fit, P-J fit, and offer expectancy, each explaining more than 3% of the variance in withdrawal intentions uniquely. Other significant predictors include testing fairness perceptions (positively related to withdrawal intentions, which is opposite of predicted direction), testing motivation, perceived assessment performance (also positive, opposite of predictions), assessment preparedness, and perceived alternatives. Perceived testing performance, testing preparedness, assessment fairness perceptions, and assessment motivation were not significant predictors. Together, the full model explained nearly 41% of the variance in withdrawal intentions.

To examine the combined effects of all interview phase predictors, another omnibus regression analysis was conducted with all 7 interview predictors of withdrawal intentions. Table 13b presents the results of this analysis and reveals a similar pattern – P-O fit and P-J fit were the largest predictors. P-O fit and P-J fit each uniquely explained more than 2% of the variance in post-interview withdrawal intentions. Interview fairness perceptions and offer expectancy were the only additional significant predictors (each

explaining less than 1% of the variance in withdrawal intentions), as motivation, preparedness, and perceived alternatives all failed to reach significance. Together, the full model of interview variables predicted about 16% of the variance in post-interview withdrawal intentions.

Hypotheses Tested with Mediated or Moderated Regression

To test the hypothesis that test and assessment motivation will mediate the relationship between fairness perceptions and withdrawal intentions, a series of regression analyses were conducted using an extension of the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982; Hayes, 2009). One regression was conducted for the variables measured at the assessment phase (see Table 14a) and another regression was conducted for the variables from the interview phase (see Table 14b). To determine the confidence intervals around the indirect effects, a bootstrapped sampling procedure was used (Preacher & Hayes, 2008) where 5,000 re-samplings were taken from the data to compute the indirect effect. Additionally, this approach allows for two mediators to be tested simultaneously and provides a test of whether these mediating effects (ME) differ from one another.

Results from the first regression analysis with assessment phase variables indicate that both testing and assessment motivation are significant mediators of the relationship between fairness perceptions and post-assessment withdrawal intentions ($ME_{testing\ motivation}$ = -0.034, *SE ME* = 0.008, t = -5.60, $p < .001$, 95% confidence interval = -0.049 to -0.021; $ME_{assessment\ motivation}$ = -0.50, *SE ME* = 0.006, t = -5.83, $p < .001$, 95% confidence interval = -0.071 to -0.030). The test of differences between the two indirect effects was non-significant (*ME* = 0.0153, *SE ME* = 0.0126, t = 1.21, $p > .05$), indicating that these

indirect effects do not differ from one another. A frequently used effect size measure for indirect effects is the percent of the total effect that is due to the indirect effect (Preacher & Kelley, in press). Twenty percent of the total effect of testing fairness perceptions on withdrawal intentions was due to the indirect effect for testing motivation, and this number was twenty-nine percent for assessment motivation (see Table 14a).

Results of the second mediation analysis with interview phase variables indicates that interview motivation is a significant mediator of the relationship between fairness perceptions and withdrawal intentions, both measured after the interview (*ME* = -0.032, *SE ME* = 0.013, $t = 2.58$, $p < .01$, see Table 14b). Twenty-percent of the total effect of interview fairness perceptions on withdrawal intentions is due to the indirect effect for interview motivation. Taken together, these results provide support for hypothesis 1b.

A moderated hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to assess hypothesis 9b, which predicted that the relationship between perceived fit and withdrawal intentions would be moderated by perceived number of alternatives. To reduce issues of multi-collinearity between the main effects and interaction terms and to aid interpretation of the regression coefficients, P-O fit, P-J fit, and perceived alternatives were mean centered (Aiken & West, 1991). Separate interaction terms were created from these mean centered variables (interaction term #1: P-O fit and perceived alternatives and interaction term #2: P-J fit and perceived alternatives) and each was entered separately. Withdrawal intentions was regressed on P-O fit, P-J fit, and perceived alternatives in the first step of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis and then the interaction term between P-J fit and perceived alternatives was added in the second step (see Table 15). Then, in a second

moderated regression with the same variables entered in the first step, the interaction between P-O fit and perceived alternatives was entered in the second step. Each interaction term accounted for a significant amount of variance in withdrawal intentions, with the interaction of P-J fit and alternatives explaining an additional 1.3 % of variance beyond the main effects and the interaction of P-O fit and perceived alternatives accounting for 0.9% (B = .096, SE = .01, t = 11.24, p < .001; B = .09, SE = .01, t = 9.08, p < .001, respectively).

In order to examine the nature of the interaction, simple slopes were calculated in accordance with Cohen et al. (2003) using the supplied regression coefficients at high (+1 SD) and low (-1 SD) values of fit. For the interaction with P-J fit, these slopes were significant at low (B = -.19, SE = .014), z = -12.96, p < .001, moderate (B = -.26, SE = .012), z = -22.74, p < .001, and high (B = -.34, SE = .012), z = -27.15, p < .001 values of perceived alternatives. Simple slopes were also calculated for the P-O fit and perceived alternatives interaction, and were also significant at low (B = -.29, SE = .016), z = -18.43, p < .001, moderate (B = -.35, SE = .013), z = -27.5, p < .001, and high (B = -.41, SE = .013), z = -31.41, p < .001 values of perceived alternatives. The form of these relationships is similar across fit dimension, but the strength of the moderating effect is stronger with P-J fit (as seen in Table 15). Plots of these relationships may be seen in Figure 2a and 2b. These graphs indicate that the relationship between P-O fit or P-J fit and withdrawal intentions is strongest for individuals reporting high levels of perceived alternatives.

This moderating hypothesis was examined with the interview variables as well, however neither P-O fit nor P-J fit significantly interacted with perceived alternatives to predict post-interview withdrawal intentions ($B = 0.05$, $SE\ B = 0.07$, $t = 0.70$, $p > .05$; $B = 0.03$, $SE\ B = 0.05$, $t = 0.64$, $p > .05$, respectively).

Hypotheses Tested with Logistic Regression

The final series of hypotheses predicted relationships with withdrawal behavior. In this study, withdrawal behavior was measured as a dichotomous variable, with 0 indicating that the candidate had not withdrawn and 1 indicating that the candidate had withdrawn from the selection process. Since this outcome variable is dichotomous, binary logistic regression analysis is the most appropriate form of analysis. The GENLIN command (generalized linear models) was used in SPSS to conduct this binary logistic regression, as it has advantages over the simple LOGISTIC REGRESSION command (namely it provides a significance test for the harm to the fit of the model when an individual predictor is removed from the model. This is the preferred form of significance testing for a single predictor (see Cohen et al., 2003)).

For each hypothesis, withdrawal behavior was regressed on the predictor(s) and the output was examined for significance of the overall model (given as a chi-square test) and the individual predictors (if more than one was entered into the model). Significant continuous predictors were graphed with the predicted probability of withdrawal. For significant categorical predictors, the mean probability of withdrawal in each category was computed. Both of these approaches will help to provide a visual illustration of the relationship with withdrawal behavior.

The first hypothesized relationship tested with logistic regression was that candidates who have high performance self-perceptions and high job-offer expectancies will be less likely to withdraw from the selection process (hypothesis 4c). Withdrawal behavior was regressed on a model with testing and assessment performance perceptions as well as post-assessment offer expectancy. The test of this model against a constant-only model was not statistically significant, χ^2 (3, n = 2,962) = 1.94, $p > .05$, indicating that this model did not reliably distinguish between candidates who withdrew and those who did not (see Table 16). The deviance in withdrawal accounted for by these predictors was also very small with $R^2_L = .021$. Tests for the individual predictors in this model revealed that none were significant predictors of withdrawal behavior ($\Delta \chi^2_{\textit{testing performance perceptions}} = 0.21$, $p > .05$; $\Delta \chi^2_{\textit{assessment performance perceptions}} = 0.786$, $p > .05$; $\Delta \chi^2_{\textit{offer expectancy}} = 0.24$, $p > .05$). Since none of these predictors were significant, graphical illustrations of their relationships with withdrawal are not provided. The predictions of hypothesis 4c were not supported by these results.

An additional logistic regression analysis was conducted to determine if post-interview offer expectancy was a significant predictor of withdrawal behavior. However, the full maximum likelihood analysis could not be conducted, as quasi-separation existed in the data. This occurs when the outcome is nearly completely explained by the predictor, and there is an elevated risk of this problem when the rate of the dichotomous outcome is very low. In this case, there were only 4 withdrawals in the sample selected for analysis (out of 1108). Therefore, the results of this analysis are not reported.

The next logistic regression was conducted with delays in the process as the predictor (hypothesis 5). In the current study dataset, delays could be computed from three time points – by subtracting the dates between application and assessment, between application and interview, and between assessment and interview. This produced a numerical value in days for three variables. A direct logistic regression was conducted on withdrawal as an outcome using these three predictors. A test of the full model with all three predictors failed to converge because application to assessment delays was a redundant predictor with the other two predictors. Therefore, separate logistic regressions were conducted with application to assessment delays by itself and then application to interview and assessment to interview together. The test of this first model (days between application and assessment) against a constant-only model was statistically significant, χ^2 (1, n = 6,853) = 44.83, p < .001, indicating that number of days between application and assessment reliably distinguished between candidates who withdrew and candidates who did not (see Table 17). The deviance in withdrawal accounted for by this predictor was small with R^2_L = .031. Figure 3 presents the form of this relationship. As delays between application and assessment increased, probability of withdrawal decreased (which was opposite of the prediction made in hypothesis 5).

To test the relationships of delays between application and interview and assessment and interview on withdrawal behavior, an additional logistic regression analysis was conducted. The test of this second model against a constant-only model was not statistically significant, χ^2 (2, n = 2,420) = 4.97, p > .05, indicating that this model did not reliably distinguish between candidates who withdrew and those who did not (see

Table 18). The deviance in withdrawal accounted by this model was also quite small with $R^2_L = .030$. Tests for the individual predictors (days between application and interview and between assessment and interview) in this model revealed that neither was a significant predictor of withdrawal behavior ($\Delta \chi^2_{app\ to\ interview} = 2.33$, $p > .05$; $\Delta \chi^2_{assessment\ to\ interview} = 1.34$, $p > .05$). Since neither of these predictors was significant, graphical illustrations of their relationships with withdrawal are not provided.

To interpret the significant main effect for application to assessment delay, one cannot rely on the odds ratio, as it is non-linear and does not capture the change in probability at different levels of delays. Therefore, the interpretation focuses on the change in probabilities as delays increase using three representative levels of delays, 18 days (the minimum), 218 days (the average) and 468 days (the maximum) (Peng & So, 2002). The change in probability of withdrawal when the delay between application and assessment increases from 18 to 68 days is 1.2%. The change is even smaller at values near the mean of application to assessment days, as the probability of withdrawal when the delay between application and assessment increases from 218 to 268 days is 0.4%. At values higher than the mean of application to assessment days, the change in probability of withdrawal is negligible. The predicted probabilities are plotted in Figure 3. Together with the results for application to interview and assessment to interview delays, these results failed to support the predictions of hypothesis 5 – that increased delays in the process would be associated with a greater likelihood of withdrawal.

Next, the relationship between current employment status and withdrawal behavior was tested. Hypothesis 6 predicted that candidates with jobs at the time of

application would be more likely to withdraw at the early stage of the process than candidates who did not have jobs. To select only those candidates who were in the early stage of the process, a filter was created that selected candidates who were at the application, scheduled for test, or testing phases. This resulted in a sample size of 24,387 available for analysis. Using this filtered sample, a direct logistic regression was conducted with employment status (coded as 0 for not employed and 1 for employed at time of application) predicting withdrawal. The test of this model against a constant-only model was statistically significant, χ^2 (1, n = 24,387) = 13.33, $p < .01$, indicating that current employment status reliably distinguished between candidates who withdrew and candidates who did not (see Table 19). The deviance in withdrawal accounted for by this predictor was moderate with $R^2_L = .427$.

Because current employment status is a dichotomous predictor, a graphical illustration would not be the best illustration of this effect. Instead, a table is presented that displays the predicted probability of withdrawal by employment status (see Table 20). This table reveals that the mean probability of withdrawal for candidates who were employed at the time of application is 10% and this value increases to 12% for candidates who were employed at the time of application (a 2% difference in probability of withdrawal by status). These results support the prediction of hypothesis 6 – that candidates who are employed will be more likely to withdraw at the early stage of the selection process than candidates who are not employed.

The next set of relationships tested included demographic variables as predictors of withdrawal. Specifically, hypothesis 7a through c predicted that ethnic minorities,

women, and older adults would be more likely to withdraw than whites, males, and younger adults, respectively. Additionally, it was specified that the time period for these relationships would be during the earlier stages of the selection process. Therefore, the same filter as above was created and used to select candidates who were at the application, scheduled for test, or testing stages of the process. This identified 3,933 candidates who had complete data on the race, gender, age, and withdrawal variables. To test the combined effects of demographic characteristics on withdrawal, a direct logistic regression was conducted with 3 dichotomized predictors of withdrawal behavior: race (white vs. non-white), gender (male vs. female), and age (under 40 vs. over 40).

The test of this model with all three demographics variables against a constant-only model was not statistically significant, χ^2 (1, n = 3,933) = 5.05, $p > .05$, indicating that, as a set, demographics do not reliably distinguish between candidates who withdrew and candidates who did not (see Table 21). The deviance in withdrawal accounted for by the full model was small with $R^2_L = .130$. Independent removal of gender significantly harmed the model fit ($\Delta \chi^2 = 4.55$, $p < .05$, $sr^2_L = .117$), indicating gender is a significant predictor of withdrawal behavior. However, removal of race and age did not significantly harm the model fit ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.172$, $p > .05$; $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.007$, $p > .05$, respectively), indicating that neither demographic variable is a significant predictor of withdrawal behavior.

To examine whether the continuous variable for age was a significant predictor of withdrawal, a separate logistic regression was conducted included race, gender, and the continuous age variable, but this model was also non-significant and age did not predict

withdrawal ($\Delta \chi^2 = 1.71$, $p > .05$, $sr^2_L = .004$) These results do not provide support for hypotheses 7a and 7b.

To understand the nature of the relationship between gender and withdrawal behavior, a table is presented that displays the predicted probability of withdrawal by gender (see Table 22). This table reveals that the mean probability of withdrawal for female candidates is 2.05% and this value decreases to 1.15% for male candidates (approximately a 1% difference in probability of withdrawal by gender). These results support the predictions of hypothesis 7c – that female candidates will be more likely to withdraw at the early stage of the selection process than male candidates.

The next hypothesized relationship with withdrawal behavior was that the number of previous jobs that a candidate has held will be positively related to withdrawal (hypothesis 8). A direct logistic regression was conducted with number of previous jobs predicting withdrawal behavior. The test of this model against a constant-only model was statistically significant, χ^2 (1, n = 27,101) = 145.05, $p < .001$, indicating that number of previous jobs a candidate has held reliably distinguishes between candidates who withdrew and candidates who did not (see Table 23). The deviance in withdrawal accounted for by the full model was moderate with $R^2_L = .561$. To understand the form of this relationship, a graph was created that plots predicted probability of withdrawal with number of previous jobs (see Figure 4). From this graph, one can see that as the number of previous jobs increases, the likelihood of withdrawal decreases, nearly linearly, which is opposite in direction from the hypothesized relationship. Therefore, hypothesis 8 is not supported by these results.

The number of perceived alternatives was the next predictor of withdrawal behavior tested. Hypothesis 9a predicted that candidates with greater perceived alternatives will be more likely to self-select out at the early stage than candidates with fewer perceived alternatives. Since this hypothesis specified the time period for examination as the early stages, the same filter as above was created and used to select candidates who were at the application, scheduled for test, or testing stages of the process. This identified 1,703 candidates who had complete data on the perceived alternatives and withdrawal variables. Tables 24a and b present the results of a direct logistic regression with perceived alternatives, measured either post-assessment or post-interview predicting withdrawal behavior, respectively. Results indicate that post-assessment perceived alternatives is not a significant predictor of withdrawal (χ^2 (1, n = 1,703) = 0.214, $p > .05$, see Table 24a), indicating that the number of perceived alternatives a candidate has does not reliably distinguish between candidates who withdrew and candidates who did not. The second logistic regression revealed that post-interview perceived alternatives was also not a significant predictor of withdrawal behavior (χ^2 (1, n = 1,033) = 0.402, $p > .05$, see Table 24b). The results of these logistic regression analyses failed to provide support for hypothesis 9a – perceived alternatives do not appear to predict withdrawal behavior.

The final hypothesized relationship was that withdrawal intentions will predict withdrawal behavior (hypothesis 10). To test this relationship, two direct logistic regressions were conducted with withdrawal intentions predicting withdrawal behavior. The first used withdrawal intentions measured after the assessment and the second used

withdrawal intentions measured after the interview. Results from the first analysis indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between withdrawal intentions measured after the assessment and withdrawal behavior (χ^2 (1, n = 3,022) = 4.37, $p < .05$; see Table 25 a), indicating that withdrawal intentions distinguish between candidates who withdrew and candidates who did not. The deviance in withdrawal accounted for by withdrawal intentions was small with $R^2_L = .161$. To understand the form of this relationship, a plot of the predicted probability of withdrawal against withdrawal intentions was created (see Figure 5). This figure reveals that as withdrawal intentions measured after the assessment increase, so does the probability of withdrawal.

To interpret the significant main effect for withdrawal intentions measured after the assessment, one should examine the change in probabilities as withdrawal intentions increased using three representative withdrawal intention scores, 1, 3 and 5 (Peng & So, 2002). The change in probability of withdrawal when a candidate increases from 1 to 2 on withdrawal intentions was 0.7%. At more moderate levels of withdrawal intentions, when a candidate changes from 3 to 4, the change in probability of withdrawal is 1.2%. At high values of withdrawal intentions, when a candidate changes from 4 to 5, the change in probability of withdrawal is 1.6%. These results illustrate that at relatively low levels of withdrawal intentions, there is not a very high likelihood of withdrawal, but as withdrawal intentions reach the scale maximum, the probability of withdrawal is greater.

The second logistic analysis regressed withdrawal behavior on withdrawal intentions measured after the interview and was non-significant (χ^2 (1, n = 1,108) = 1.18, $p > .05$, see Table 25 b). The deviance accounted for in withdrawal behavior by

withdrawal intentions measured after the interview was small (R^2_L = .117). The results of the analysis with withdrawal intentions measured after assessment provide support for hypothesis 10. However, the results of the analysis with withdrawal intentions measured after the interview failed to provide support for hypothesis 10.

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

The majority of applicant withdrawal research to this point has examined the phenomenon from an applicant reactions perspective, and with mixed success. The purpose of the current study was to broaden this perspective by developing and testing a model of applicant withdrawal which goes beyond just reactions to include contextual and other process variables (such as process delays and employment background). Many of the predicted relationships in this model received support, but a few failed to be supported by the current data. Nearly all of the hypothesized relationships with withdrawal intentions were supported, and a few significant predictors of withdrawal behavior were identified. Among these were process delays, current employment status, gender, number of previous jobs, and withdrawal intentions. However, process delays and number of past jobs were opposite in direction from the original predictions.

These results may be used by employers to manage withdrawal, in both negative forms (i.e., loss of qualified candidates due to perceived unfairness) and positive forms (e.g., self-selection out by candidates with poor fit to the job or the organization). Below, the results are discussed in greater detail within the context of the model of applicant withdrawal developed for this study. Additionally, limitations of the current study are addressed. Finally, implications for practitioners and future research directions for researchers are presented.

Model of Applicant Withdrawal

The results of the current study provide support for numerous predictors of withdrawal intentions and behavior. Predictors of withdrawal intentions include a host of applicant perceptions variables: fairness, fit, preparedness, motivation, and expectations of receiving an offer. Predictors of withdrawal behavior include selection process features, employment background variables, individual differences, and behavioral intentions. Each of these will be discussed in more detail below.

Applicant Perceptions

Organizational justice and image theories served as the foundation for several predictions that were supported by the results of this study. Firstly, candidates who felt they were treated unfairly in the process had significantly greater withdrawal intentions than those candidates who felt they had been treated fairly, supporting predictions from organizational justice theory (Gilliland, 1993). Additionally, the cross-time analyses with fairness perceptions revealed that candidate perceptions of assessment fairness were significantly related to post-interview withdrawal intentions. These results suggest that candidates who feel they were treated unfairly in one phase of the process may be more likely to have higher withdrawal intentions in a later phase of the process. While this causal linkage was not fully addressed by the current study (mainly because no variables were manipulated by the experimenter), the temporal separation of measurement does provide partial support for this interpretation.

Additionally, motivation was found to be a significant mediator of this relationship, suggesting that perceptions of fairness might impact motivation which might

then impact withdrawal intentions. The results of this meditational analysis merely provide empirical support for these relationships, but the study design does not support causal inferences from these data (mainly because no variables were manipulated). This finding addresses the call for examinations of motivational processes in research with applicant reactions (Bauer et al., 1998; Chan & Schmitt, 2004), but future work may need to be performed in a lab setting where levels of these variables can be manipulated across time.

Perceived person-job and person-organization fit were both found to be negatively related to withdrawal intentions. Candidates who felt a better fit between the requirements and tasks of the job and their knowledge, skills, and abilities had lower intentions to withdraw. Additionally, candidates who felt a better fit between the values, personality and goals of the organization and their own values, personality, and goals had lower intentions to withdraw. Compared to P-J fit, P-O fit played a larger role in predicting withdrawal intentions when both were measured at the same time, explaining about 3% more unique variance in both post-assessment and post-interview withdrawal intentions. These findings lend support to the idea from image theory that applicants will compare job choices against their value image (an image of their goals, values, and interests) when making decisions about an organization. However, results from the cross-time analysis revealed that post-assessment P-J fit predicted post-interview withdrawal intentions while P-O fit did not. This finding suggests that feeling a good fit with the job itself is a more important predictor of intentions over time.

Feelings of preparedness were reported as one of the main reasons why candidates withdrew from the selection process in a study by Schmit and Ryan (1997). Prior to the current study, there had been little work examining feelings of preparedness in relation to other perceptions and withdrawal intentions/behavior. Candidates in the current study who reported feeling prepared for the testing or assessment phases reported greater perceptions of performance on these phases and lower post-assessment intentions to withdraw. Additionally, feeling adequately prepared for the interview was associated with lower intentions to withdraw. Also, the cross-time analysis revealed that perceptions of assessment preparedness were associated with lower post-interview withdrawal intentions. It appears that feeling as though the organization adequately prepared you or that you had prepared yourself well enough for the selection procedure may be an important correlate of performance perceptions and intentions. Of course, the current study cannot establish directionality or causality and say that preparedness *causes* one to feel that they performed better and that they do not intend to withdraw. It could just as easily be the case that candidates who felt they performed better or had no intention of withdrawing may use this information to decide that they were adequately prepared.

Support was also found for a link between perceived performance, motivation, and one final perception variable – expectations of receiving an offer. Expectancy theory posits that candidates evaluate the attractiveness of a job choice based on the expectancy of receiving that option and the subjective value of that option (Vroom, 1995). Expectancies are thought to derive from a candidate's experience in the selection process (Barber & Roehling, 1993); specifically meta-perceptions may be formed based on

perceptions of performance during the different stages. In the current study, perceptions of testing and assessment performance were found to be related to motivation in subsequent selection stages (assessment or interview, respectively). Candidates who felt that they had performed well in the previous selection stage were more motivated to do well in the subsequent stage. Additionally, perceptions of performance also predicted expectancy of receiving a job offer. Candidates who felt they had performed well were more likely to report greater offer expectancy.

Finally, offer expectancy was found to be a significant predictor of withdrawal intentions. That is, those candidates who expected a job offer were much less likely to intend to withdraw. Perceptions of performance were predicted to impact withdrawal intentions as well, but no support was found for this relationship. Additionally, both perceived performance and offer expectancy were predicted to impact withdrawal behavior, but no support was found for this relationship. The significant findings with offer expectancy and withdrawal intentions align with both expectancy theory and the process of evaluating the trajectory and strategic images in image theory. Candidates who had higher offer expectancy were more attracted to the organization (as evidenced by lower withdrawal intentions), supporting one of the core links in the behavioral equation of expectancy theory. Additionally, candidates were carefully monitoring their behavior in the process (gathering perceptions of selection procedure performance) and using this information to adjust their goals (forming intentions to withdrawal if their performance was poor); a process that aligns with the strategic image from image theory.

Taken together, the various applicant perceptions played a large role in predicting candidate motivation levels and withdrawal intentions. The omnibus tests that included many survey items demonstrated that perceptions of fit and offer expectancy are the "big players" in predicting withdrawal intentions. Fairness perceptions, motivation, preparedness, and perceived alternatives also appear to play a minor role. Generally, candidates who felt that they had a good fit with the job/organization, that they were treated fairly, that they were prepared for the selection procedure, and that they performed well on the selection procedure tended to be more motivated and less likely to want to withdraw from the process.

Selection Process Features

Previous research has linked process delays with job choice behavior in a selection context (Arvey et al., 1975; Rynes et al., 1991; Schreurs et al., 2009). These authors note that the reason for this behavior may be that delays may serve as a signal to candidates that the organization has filled the position and/or decided not to select him/her. Therefore candidates may withdraw and attempt to find other suitable organizations. The current study proposed that candidates who experienced longer delays between selection stages would be more likely to withdraw from the process. While the number of days between application and assessment was a significant predictor of withdrawal in the current study, it was negatively related to withdrawal, which was opposite of the predicted direction. That is, candidates who experienced shorter delays between application and assessment were more likely to withdraw while candidates experiencing longer delays were less likely to withdraw.

One possible reason for this negative relationship between delays and withdrawal might be that candidates could have been expecting a longer delay between the application and start of assessment because of messages distributed by the hiring organization (i.e., that it would take over a year to get everyone through the hiring process). Therefore, it is possible that this group of individuals who withdrew after only a short delay were hoping that they could remain at their current jobs longer and so they withdrew from the hiring process with this organization. Another possibility is that candidates with longer delays might have been more likely to be unreachable (due to a change in contact information or relocation, for example) and so they would be listed as unreachable and not be noted as withdrawn in the candidate database.

Employment Background

Previous research on applicant withdrawal behavior has anecdotally suggested that candidates who are employed during the selection process may be more likely to withdraw from the process because they decided not to quit their current job (Ryan et al., 2000; Schmit & Ryan, 1997). Results from the current study supported this prediction, as candidates with jobs at the time of application were significantly more likely to withdraw from the process than candidates who did not have a job. The specific reasons for why these employed candidates may have decided to withdraw cannot be addressed by the current study, but one possible reason could be high levels of job satisfaction, commitment, or embeddedness in their current job, thus making it harder for them to leave.

One other employment background variable was found to be a significant predictor of withdrawal behavior – number of previous jobs that a candidate has held. Previous researchers have examined how often a candidate has gone from one job to the next, a phenomenon dubbed as the hobo syndrome, and linked this behavior with future turnover from other jobs (Ghiselli, 1974; Judge & Watanabe, 1995). It was predicted that candidates with greater numbers of previous jobs would be more likely to withdraw from the process. While number of previous jobs was found to be a significant predictor of withdrawal behavior, the finding was in the opposite direction. That is, candidates who held more jobs in the past five years were *less* likely to withdraw than candidates who held fewer jobs in the past. One possible explanation for this finding is that candidates who have held more jobs may have a better idea of what they want out of a company and therefore have selected this organization more carefully, and will thus be more likely to stick around through the process. This finding may more directly address the hypothesis dealing with age as a predictor of withdrawal behavior. Specifically, it was proposed that older adults will be more likely to withdraw than younger adults because of their enhanced experience with going through selection procedures and knowledge (the results with age are discussed further in the next section). However, it may not be age that matters here, but instead amount of experience with different companies. In this light, the finding that holding more jobs in the past is related to a lower likelihood of withdrawal might be related to this mechanism, but future research is needed to clarify this relationship.

Individual Differences

Demographic variables, including race, age, and gender, were predicted to impact withdrawal rates. Previous research on applicant withdrawal has noted different withdrawal rates where Black candidates are more likely to withdraw than are White candidates. Additionally, due to the nature of the job, gender differences in withdrawal were predicted (i.e., that more females would withdraw than males). The findings from the current study did not support a differential withdrawal rate by race. However, gender did emerge as a significant predictor of withdrawal behavior, with females being more likely to withdraw from the process than males. Given the nature of the work (manufacturing with rotating shifts possible), this area of work is not one in which there has historically been an equal representation of males and females (Wootton, 1997). One possible mechanism noted by Van Hooft et al. (2006) is that females may be more sensitive to social support influences than males. Social support was not one of the variables measured by the current study, but this remains an interesting mechanism to examine in future research.

One final demographic variable – age – was predicted to impact withdrawal behavior. Specifically, older adults were predicted to be able to make job choice decisions sooner than younger adults due to their greater levels of job search experience and enhanced mental schemas of how a selection process evolves. Findings from the current study did not support this relationship, as age was not a significant predictor of withdrawal behavior and was only minimally related to withdrawal intentions ($r = 0.07$, $p < .05$, see Table 5). Taken together, these results can be seen as good news for this

particular organization (and other organizations as well), because differential withdrawal rates in protected groups could be a precursor to adverse impact.

Moderators

In the area of applicant reactions, Bauer et al. (1998) called for a closer examination of perceptions of available alternatives in relation to other applicant perceptions and behavior. Based on image theory, the current study predicted that it may take a candidate more time to compare multiple alternatives and the probability of accepting any one of these multiple options is less than for a candidate with fewer perceived alternatives. Previous research has found that number of perceived job offers is negatively related to job choice (Cable & Judge, 1996). In the current study, candidates with greater perceived alternatives were predicted to be more likely to withdraw from the process than candidates with fewer perceived alternatives. The findings of the current study failed to provide support for this prediction as perceived alternatives measured either post-assessment or post-interview did not significantly predict withdrawal behavior. However, perceived alternatives was significantly related to withdrawal intentions ($r = .22$, $p < .001$, see Table 4). That is, candidates with greater perceived alternatives had greater intentions to withdraw.

Perceived alternatives were also found to play a significant moderating role in the relationship between post-assessment perceptions of fit and post-assessment withdrawal intentions. Generally, candidates with lower levels of perceived fit had higher intentions to withdraw (i.e., a main effect for perceived fit). However, results suggest that the relationship between fit and withdrawal intentions was strongest for those candidates who

had greater alternatives (see Figures 2a and 2b). When fit was low and candidates had high perceived alternatives, they had the greatest level of withdrawal intentions. These findings suggest that both perceptions of fit and contextual features like available alternatives are important variables in predicting applicant withdrawal.

Behavioral Intentions

The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) predicts that behavioral intentions are one of the strongest predictors of actual behavioral outcomes. Studies have linked behavioral intentions with job search behaviors, job choice behavior, and employee turnover behaviors (Hausknecht et al., 2004; Van Breukelen et al., 2004; Van Hooft et al., 2004). TPB served as the foundation for the final hypothesis of this study – that intentions to withdraw would predict withdrawal behavior. Support was found for this relationship – that candidates who had greater post-assessment intentions to withdraw from the selection process were more likely to actually withdraw. One potential reason for this relationship being as small as it was may be that withdrawal behavior may not be under the complete control of applicants, one of the necessary conditions for accurate predictions of behavior according to TPB (Ajzen, 1991). Some candidates may have no intention to withdraw, but other factors may explain a candidate's actual withdrawal from the process, including things that are outside of their own control such as spousal employment issues, family emergencies and other problems on the day of the selection procedures, and offers from other organizations. Additionally, there may have been some candidates who intended to withdraw from the process but then did not. For these candidates, it is likely that other factors led to their remaining in the process such as lack

of available alternatives or current employment. Future research on applicant withdrawal should expand the measurement of contextual factors to be able to more fully understand the phenomenon of applicant withdrawal.

Limitations

The results of the current study are an important contribution to our understanding of how applicant perceptions relate to other contextual factors in predicting withdrawal intentions and behavior during the selection process. However, the results of the current study should be understood within the context of several limitations. These limitations include the following issues: incomplete sampling of candidates/inability to match candidates; impression management and range restriction in the sample; generalizability issues; and measurement issues. Each of these limitations will be discussed further below.

One of the major limitations of the current study deals with sampling and data matching. Of all possible candidates who went through the assessment process (n = 8,754), 6,423 completed the assessment questionnaire and 3,633 provided their candidate ID (41.5% of the total number of candidates assessed) and thus were able to be matched with their background data and withdrawal status (and interview data, if the candidate advanced to that stage). Thus, the results of the current study are only based on 2/5ths of all possible candidates who have been assessed to date. One may wonder whether the candidates who did not complete the post-assessment survey meaningfully differ from those who did complete the survey. Simple *t*-tests and chi-square analyses were conducted to determine differences on any of the background variables.

The results of these analyses are quite surprising, as those candidates who did not complete the questionnaire were significantly different from candidates who did complete the questionnaire on *all* background variables. Specific ways in which they differ were that candidates who did not complete the survey had a shorter delay between application and assessment (t (6841) = -30.6, $p < .001$, D = -.74), and application and interview (t (2410) = -10.1, $p < .001$, D = -.45), a longer delay between assessment and interview (t (2410) = 7.17, $p < .001$, D = .32), were more likely to be employed (χ^2 (1, 8526) = 34.5, $p < .001$), have fewer employers in the past 5 years (t (8521) = -11.35, $p < .001$, D = -.24), be older (t (6541) = 14.24, $p < .001$, D = .35), were more likely to be female (χ^2 (1, 6704) = 8.26, $p < .01$), and also non-white (χ^2(1, 6665) = 234.87, $p < .001$). However, the biggest difference is with regard to withdrawal status, with 288 out of 4608 candidates (or 6.25%) who did not complete the survey withdrawing, compared to only 72 out of 3561 (or 2.0%) who did complete the survey (χ^2 (1, 8529) = 78.48, $p < .001$).

These results indicate that the candidates who did not complete the assessment day questionnaire were indeed quite different from those who did complete the measures, and these differences would have likely impacted the results of the current study. The results of the current study are likely to be attenuated due to this sampling issue, as many of these non-responders may have provided more negative responses to the perceptions-based items. If this was the case and these individuals had completed the survey, it would add additional variance to the measurement of these constructs and increase the size of the relationships between perceptions, intentions, and withdrawal.

Another limitation of the current study deals with impression management. Many of the candidates who completed the perceptions surveys as part of the current study may have been trying to make a favorable impression, especially if they provided their name or candidate ID on their survey form. These candidates may have felt that their responses from the survey could be used to make decisions about their candidacy (even though the instructions explicitly told them that their responses were confidential and they were assured that they would not be used to make any employment decisions). Thus, these candidates may have provided more positive responses on their surveys (e.g., that they perceive a high level of fit and that they have no intention of withdrawing).

As a result of this impression management, the resulting data exhibited a restricted range and low variance in responses, with most responses being positive in nature. This poses problems for analysis, as less variability in responses makes it more difficult to detect differences. As such, the findings of the current study are likely to be conservative relative to what they might be without such range restriction. While little work has examined the issue of response inflation in an applicant perceptions context, research in the personality testing realm suggests that it can impact the criterion validity of the measures (Van Iddekinge, Raymark, & Roth, 2005). Similar issues may exist in an applicant perceptions-withdrawal context.

A third limitation of the current study deals with generalizability issues. The current study examined a single position with a single organization in the southeastern US. From one viewpoint, this may be seen as a strength of the current study, as it holds constant job attributes and organizational characteristics, but it is also a limitation in that

some of the results may be sample specific. In particular, the findings related to gender differences might be due to the type of position or industry and would likely not be found in samples of more equally gender represented occupations. Additionally, the particular predictors used in the selection process for this organization (i.e., a computer-based test, a hands-on manufacturing simulation, and a face-to-face interview) may be different from those used in other selection contexts. As a result, perceptions in other contexts may differ merely as a function of the particular selection tools. Previous research on applicant perceptions across different selection instruments has noted differences in perceptions of fairness and other applicant reactions across different selection tools (e.g., Smither et al., 1993). Therefore, the results of the current study may not generalize beyond the sample used and the selection procedures implemented.

A final limitation of the current study deals with measurement issues. For many of the constructs in the current study, single item measures were utilized. In this particular context, this decision was made to satisfy practical concerns about applicant fatigue and administrative burden. However, single item scales pose many measurement problems. Psychometricians have noted that scales with too few items may have lower content and construct validity as well as reliability as compared to scales with more items (Nunnally, 1978). Since the current study utilized many single item scales (which had just one question to measure a construct) these problems are especially likely (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989). That being said, some researchers have demonstrated that single item measures can be just as good as multi-item scales for certain constructs (Robins, Hendin, & Trzesniewski, 2001).

Another measurement issue of the current study is that while a more complete model of factors predicting applicant withdrawal was proposed, only a portion of this model was tested. Thus, the results are based on an incomplete measurement of contextual and background factors. Many additional factors, such as perceptions of organizational and job attributes, the need to relocate, peer and social influence, economic conditions, personality, and selection personnel characteristics may influence withdrawal intentions and behavior.

Practical Implications

The results of the current study have important implications for organizations. Specifically, organizations may benefit by emphasizing evaluations of fit, providing a fair selection process, giving candidates feedback on their performance in the process, helping candidates to feel prepared, and monitoring withdrawal rates in different demographic groups. One of the strongest predictors of withdrawal intentions in the current study was perceived fit (it was also one of the only significant perceptions-based predictors of withdrawal behavior, $r = -.06$, $p < .05$, see Table 5). Organizations may want to emphasize fit evaluations to candidates during the selection process. There are many ways in which organizations could do this, one of which is to provide realistic job previews (RJPs). RJPs are accurate descriptions of jobs which provide both positive and negative information to candidates during the recruitment and selection process (Breaugh, 1983) so that candidates can more fully evaluate their fit with the position and organization. Meta-analytic research suggests that RJPs are helpful for increasing self-selection, job satisfaction, and lowering the likelihood of early job turnover (Premack &

Wanous, 1985). By providing RJPs, organizations can enhance the likelihood that candidates will make fit evaluations and decide whether to remain in the process or to withdraw.

Organizations may also wish to provide candidates with feedback about their objective levels of fit with the organization. It may be in an organization's best interest to ensure that candidates are forming accurate perceptions of their fit, as misperceptions could result in ill-fitting candidates remaining in the process or well-fitting candidates withdrawing from the process. A recent set of studies in the recruitment literature have found that providing candidates with accurate P-O fit feedback can have an impact on attraction (Dineen, Ling, Ash, & DelVecchio, 2007; Hu, Su, & Chen, 2007). To do this, organizations will need to assess candidate levels of fit through an objective fit questionnaire and then provide feedback on how well the candidate fits. By providing customized fit feedback to candidates, organizations can better help candidates to make decisions about whether to remain in the process or to withdraw.

Another implication of the current study is that fairness matters, and so organizations should ensure that they are providing candidates with a fair selection process. The findings of the current study support the hypothesis that perceptions of fairness are related to behavioral intentions (and behavioral intentions are related to subsequent withdrawal behavior). Organizations should strive to maintain a consistent process, encourage selection personnel to treat applicants equally, and provide all candidates with the same opportunities to demonstrate their skills and abilities. By doing

so, organizations will ensure that qualified candidates are not walking away from the process due to unfair treatment.

Additionally, organizations may want to give candidates feedback about their performance as they move through the process, as this appears to have an impact on subsequent motivation and behavioral intentions. Candidates who perceive their performance to be poor when in actuality it was very good may be less motivated on subsequent selection procedures and this may impair their performance on their subsequent procedures as well as their decision to remain in the process. Organizations may be able to generate performance feedback information by examining historical selection procedure performance and providing real-time scoring for candidates. For example, a candidate may learn that they performed in the 90th percentile on a selection test and that historically candidates in the 90th percentile are progressed to the next stage. Organizations may want to be careful with providing this information, however, since it may cause more candidate withdrawal than intended. It is possible that some candidates who do not obtain a perfect score may decide to withdraw.

Another finding of the current study is that perceptions of preparedness are associated with fairness perceptions, motivation, offer expectancy, perceptions of performance, and withdrawal intentions. Candidates that felt prepared reported greater levels of motivation to perform well in the selection procedure, were more likely to feel that the process was fair, that they would receive an offer, that they performed well, and that they did not intend to withdraw. Organizations may consider providing candidates with information in advance to help them prepare for the selection procedures that they

will be experiencing. This provision of information may help candidates to feel more prepared on the day of the selection procedure and may reduce the likelihood of withdrawal.

One final implication of the current study is that withdrawal may occur at different rates for different demographic groups, thereby impacting the potential for adverse impact. Results in the current study were that females withdrew at greater rates than males. This differential withdrawal rate may decrease the number of qualified female candidates in the selection pool, thus making it harder to select qualified female candidates. When there are fewer qualified females in the pool of candidates, organizations may end up selecting a disproportionate number of females and males, and this could lead to violations of the 4/5ths rule of thumb (Tam et al., 2004). To avoid this issue, organizations are encouraged to closely monitor the composition of the selection pool and the selection rates for different groups to ensure that they are not discriminating against any protected classes.

Directions for Future Research

The findings of the current study provide support for the proposed model of applicant withdrawal. Furthermore, by examining various contextual factors and perceptions across three phases of a selection process, it was found that perceptions of fit and offer expectancy were the largest predictors of withdrawal intentions. Additionally, process delays, number of employers in the past five years, perceptions of P-O fit, and intentions were the largest predictors of withdrawal behavior. However, the findings of the current study are only a small step toward a comprehensive understanding of

withdrawal in organizations. Future research studies are needed that examine additional contextual and perceptions variables with valid and reliable multi-item scales across multiple hiring organizations. Researchers should also try to gather perception data prior to the start of the selection process. Additionally, researchers should attempt to measure employed candidate perceptions of job satisfaction, commitment, and embeddedness within their current job, as well as economic and labor market conditions throughout the process (or across geographic regions) to determine subsequent impact on withdrawal intentions and behavior. Each of these suggestions for future research will be discussed further below.

The ideal applicant withdrawal study would be one in which measurement of applicant perceptions and contextual variables are measured with valid and reliable multi-item scales just before and just after each phase of the process across multiple organizations. Given the difficulty of obtaining such a sample, a compromise might be to examine the predictors that we do not yet know much about. In the current paper, a model of applicant withdrawal was proposed that included theoretically identified constructs as well as constructs identified as important predictors of job choice or withdrawal in previous research. Future researchers should test this model in full, to the extent possible, to gain an understanding of how the various factors relate to one another in predicting withdrawal.

Additionally, there may be other constructs or variables that have not previously been linked with applicant withdrawal intentions or behavior but that might be predictive of this behavior. Future researchers should use theory to guide their choices in selecting

predictors as well as insights from similar areas of research, such as job choice, turnover, and workplace withdrawal. Another useful approach may be to continue to interview candidates after they have withdrawn from the selection process to understand their reasons for withdrawal (as was done in Ryan et al., 2000 and Schmit & Ryan, 1997).

Another suggestion for future research is to incorporate a measurement occasion prior to application into the measurement design along with measures throughout the selection process. This will allow for researchers to determine the factors that predict withdrawal across all possible time points in a selection process, as opposed to being limited to those candidates who were invited to the testing phase, as was the case for the current study. Additionally, future research should aim to measure perceptions and contextual variables at every selection procedure to gain a full understanding of how the factors that predict withdrawal may change throughout the selection process. Examination of other moderators of the identified relationships would also be a valuable contribution to this area of research.

Another interesting area for future research deals with attitudes of currently employed candidates. This applicant group is an interesting one because they must make a withdrawal decision from either their current job or from the selection process with the hiring organization. To more fully understand the decision that these candidates have to make and to predict their behavior, researchers will need to understand their attitudes about their current job. If these individuals are feeling highly satisfied, committed, and embedded within their current jobs, they will be more likely to withdraw from the process with the hiring organization. If, on the other hand, the individual is feeling less

satisfied, committed, or embedded, they may be more likely to turnover from their current job and continue in the selection process with the hiring organization. Of course, an understanding of perceived fit in the selection process will be an important determinant in such a study as well as the many other contextual variables identified in the proposed model (see Figure 1a).

One final area for future researchers to consider focusing attention is on the impact of economic and labor market conditions on withdrawal behavior. Such a study could gather withdrawal rates across time and organizations to determine the impact that unemployment rates and hiring rates have on withdrawal. In the current study, the unemployment rate for the region changed throughout the selection window. At the start of the data collection/hiring in December 2009, the unemployment rate for the region was at 9.2%. This rate then peaked at 10% in January 2010 and has decreased steadily over the next year to a rate of 8.3% in December 2010. It is possible that the high rate of unemployment impacted the rate of withdrawal in the current study. With the economic downturn, the results of the current study might be different from a similar study conducted 5 years ago when there was a "War for Talent" in the job market. Candidates in the current market may be less likely to withdraw than in one where the number of job openings is many. Additionally, employed candidates may feel concerned about layoffs in their current place of employment, so this may lead to these candidates searching for new jobs "just in case." Future research that more directly examines the impact of economic and labor market conditions can shed light on the impact of these contextual features on withdrawal behavior.

Conclusions

In using a longitudinal approach, the current study aimed to integrate the prior research conducted on applicant job choice and withdrawal to more fully understand the relative impact of the various predictors of withdrawal behavior. More specifically, a model of applicant withdrawal was proposed that contained perceptions, selection process features, employment background variables, individual differences, and behavioral intentions as predictors of withdrawal behavior. Results indicate that perceived fit plays a major role in predicting not only withdrawal intentions, but also withdrawal behavior. Other significant predictors of withdrawal intentions were identified, including fairness, preparedness, performance perceptions, motivation, offer expectancy, and perceived alternatives. Withdrawal behavior was predicted by shorter process delays, fewer previous jobs, being currently employed, and gender (with females withdrawing at greater rates than males). This study highlights the importance of examining the various predictors of withdrawal intentions and behavior. Future researchers in the area of applicant withdrawal are provided with a comprehensive model from which to start their examinations of this important phenomenon.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Demographic Questions

What is your Race/Ethnicity?

- American Indian or Alaskan Native
- Asian
- Black or African American
- Hispanic or Latino
- Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- White
- Two or More Races

What is your Gender?

- Male
- Female

What is your Birth Date (MM/DD/YYYY)? _____

Appendix B

Post-Computer-Based Assessment Questionnaire

Candidate Reactions Form – Computer-Based Assessments

Thank you for completing the computer-based assessments today. We are very interested in your feedback about your experience; your comments will help us to improve the process.

Your responses to the following questions will remain **confidential**. All responses will be reviewed by an external research company and **will not be shared with this organization**. Your personal answers to these questions **cannot affect hiring decisions** in any way. Therefore, we ask you to **please be as honest as possible** in your responses. Note that space is provided for you to give additional feedback about the assessment process.

Answer Sheet: Fill in all of your responses on the reactions answer sheet provided. Provide only one response to each question. Please do not make any marks on this document.

We encourage you to fill in your **ID** on the answer sheet provided, however this is **optional**.

Comments about the Assessment

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement based on the assessments that you just completed. When it says "assessment" below, it is referring to the computer-based assessments you completed earlier today. Please use the 1 to 5 scale below when answering these items.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. Doing well on this assessment probably means that a person can do the job well.

2. I feel I had enough information regarding the purpose of this assessment.

3. With this assessment, I had the opportunity to prove my ability to perform well on the job.

4. I believe that this assessment was objective and fair.

5. I felt that I was treated fairly by people during this assessment.

6. This assessment gave me the chance to demonstrate my skills and abilities.

7. I was motivated to do well on this assessment.

8. This assessment measured skills and capabilities related to the job in question.

9. I had adequate access to resources for help during this assessment.

10. I had enough time to complete this assessment.

11. I was not bothered by other people talking while I was taking this assessment.

12. Overall, the online assessment process was very user friendly.

13. I thought the instructions for the assessment were clear and easy to understand.

14. I found this assessment to be engaging (that is, it held my interest and attention).

15. This assessment used an innovative approach to measure a person's skills and capabilities.

16. I was able to respond to this assessment in ways that would not be possible using paper and pencil.

17. I felt that I performed well on this assessment.

Please use the 1 to 5 response scale presented below to answer the following question.

18. How prepared did you feel for the computer-based assessments today?

1. Very prepared 2. Prepared 3. Neither prepared nor unprepared
4. Unprepared 5. Very unprepared

19. Do you have any additional comments about the computer-based assessments, or the conditions under which you took the assessments? (Please use the blank space provided on the answer sheet)

Appendix C

Post-Production Assessment Questionnaire

Candidate Reactions Form – Hands-On Production Operation

Thank you for completing the hands-on production operation today. We are very interested in your feedback about your experience; your comments will help us to improve the process.

Your responses to the following questions will remain **confidential**. All responses will be reviewed by an external research company and **will not be shared with the organization.** Your personal answers to these questions **cannot affect hiring decisions** in any way. Therefore, we ask you to **please be as honest as possible** in your responses. Note that space is provided for you to give additional feedback about the assessment process.

Fill in all of your responses on the reactions answer sheet provided. Provide only one response to each question. Please do not make any marks on this document.

We encourage you to fill in your **ID** on the answer sheet provided, however it is **optional**.

Comments about the Assessment
Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement based on the assessment that you just completed. When it says "assessment" below, it is referring to the hands-on production exercise. Please use the 1 to 5 scale below when answering these items.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

20. I felt there was enough time for training and practice before I started the actual production periods.

21. I was able to respond to this assessment in ways that would not be possible using paper and pencil.

22. I believe that this assessment was objective and fair.

23. Doing well on this assessment probably means that a person can do the job well.

24. I found this assessment to be engaging (that is, it held my interest and attention).

25. With this assessment, I had the opportunity to prove my ability to perform well on the job.

26. I felt that I performed well on this assessment.

27. I felt that I was treated fairly by people during this assessment.

28. This assessment used an innovative approach to measure a person's skills and capabilities.

29. This assessment gave me the chance to demonstrate my skills and abilities.

30. I was motivated to do well on this assessment.

31. This assessment measured skills and capabilities relevant to the job in question.

32. I had adequate access to resources for help during this assessment.

33. I feel I had enough information regarding the purpose of this assessment.

34. I thought the instructions for the assessment were clear and easy to understand.

Comments about the Assessment Environment:

Please respond to each of the following items using the rating scale provided after each (i.e., the 1 to 5 scale).

35. How prepared did you feel for the hands-on production assessment today?

1. Very prepared 2. Prepared 3. Neither prepared nor unprepared
4. Unprepared 5. Very unprepared

36. How do you feel about your chances of receiving a job offer with this organization?

1. Very good chance that I **will** receive a job offer
2. Small chance that I **will** receive a job offer
3. Unsure of my chances to receive a job offer
4. Small chance that I **will not** receive a job offer
5. Very good chance that I **will not** receive a job offer

37. Describe how likely you are to continue to seek employment with this organization after today.

1. **Very high likelihood** that I will continue to seek employment with this organization after this stage
2. **High likelihood** that I will continue to seek employment with this organization after this stage
3. **Moderate likelihood** that I will continue to seek employment with this organization after this stage
4. **Low likelihood** that I will continue to seek employment with this organization after this stage
5. **Very low likelihood** that I will continue to seek employment with this organization after this stage

38. Describe your overall level of fit with the production team member position. That is, how well do the requirements and tasks of the job seem to match with your knowledge, skills, and abilities?

1. **Very good match** between this job and my knowledge, skills and abilities
2. **Good match** between this job and my knowledge, skills and abilities
3. **Moderate match** between this job and my knowledge, skills and abilities
4. **Poor match** between this job and my knowledge, skills and abilities
5. **Very poor match** between this job and my knowledge, skills and abilities

39. Describe your overall level of fit with this organization. That is, how well do the values, personality and/or goals of the organization seem to match with your values, personality, and/or goals?

1. **Very good match** between this organization and my values, personality, and goals
2. **Good match** between this organization and my values, personality, and goals
3. **Moderate match** between this organization and my values, personality, and goals
4. **Poor match** between this organization and my values, personality, and goals
5. **Very poor match** between this organization and my values, personality, and goals

40. To how many other jobs are you currently considering applying or have you applied to in the past month?

1. None 2. Between 1 and 3 3. Between 4 and 6 4. Between 7 and 9
5. Ten (10) or more

41. For how many of these jobs do you feel that you have a good chance of receiving a job offer?

1. None 2. Between 1 and 3 3. Between 4 and 6 4. Between 7 and 9
5. Ten (10) or more

42. Do you have any additional comments about this assessment, or the conditions under which you took this assessment? (Please use the blank space provided on the answer sheet)

Appendix D

Interview Questionnaire Invitation Email

Hello [Candidate Name],

Thank you for your participation in the [Client name] production team member interview. We invite you to provide us with your feedback about your interviewing experience; your comments will help us to improve the process. This short survey should take less than 10 minutes to complete. **You may have seen a similar reactions survey after the production assessment, but we ask that you fill out this shorter version now that you have completed the [client name] interview.**

Your responses to the following survey questions will remain **confidential**. All responses will be reviewed by an external research company and **will not be shared with [client name].** Your personal answers to these questions **cannot affect hiring decisions with [client name]** in any way. Therefore, we ask you to **please be as honest as possible** in your responses. Note that space will be provided for you to give additional feedback about the interview process.

Please click on the link below to complete this short survey. Thanks again for your help!

[survey link]

Appendix F

Post-Interview Questionnaire

Thank you for your participation in the interview. We invite you to provide us with your feedback about your interviewing experience; your comments will help us to improve the process. This short survey should take less than 10 minutes to complete. **You may have seen a similar reactions survey after the production assessment, but we ask that you fill out this shorter version now that you have finished your interview.**

Your responses to the survey questions will remain **confidential**. All responses will be reviewed by an external research company and **will not be shared with [client name]**. Your personal answers to these questions **cannot affect hiring decisions with [client name]** in any way. Although we ask for you to enter your name below, this is optional - rest assured that your individual answers will not be shared with [client name]. Therefore, we ask you to **please be as honest as possible** in your responses. Note that space is provided for you to give additional feedback about the interview process.

Please enter your name in the boxes below. _____

Comments about the Interview:
The following questions will ask you to provide a rating based on your reactions to the interview. When responding to these questions, you will use the 1 to 5 scale below (1 means strongly disagree and 5 means strongly agree).

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I recognize that my responses to the questions in this section are confidential and cannot affect any hiring decisions, as outlined above.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Doing well on this interview probably means that a person can do the job well.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel I had adequate information regarding the purpose of the interview.	1	2	3	4	5
4. With this interview, I had the opportunity to prove my ability to perform well on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I believe that this interview was objective and fair.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I felt that I was treated fairly by people during the interview process	1	2	3	4	5
7. This interview gave me the chance to demonstrate my skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
8. This interview measured skills and capabilities relevant to the job in question.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I was motivated to do well on this interview.	1	2	3	4	5

Comments about the Interview Environment:

The following items relate to the conditions under which you completed the interview:

10. How prepared did you feel for the interview today?
    1. Very prepared
    2. Prepared
    3. Neither unprepared nor prepared
    4. Unprepared
    5. Very unprepared

11. How do you feel about your chances of receiving a job offer with this company?
    1. Very good chance that I will receive a job offer
    2. Small chance that I will receive a job offer
    3. Unsure of my chances to receive a job offer
    4. Small chance that I will not receive a job offer
    5. Very good chance that I will not receive a job offer

12. Now that you have completed the interview, please tell us about your intentions related to remaining in the selection process.
    1. Very high likelihood that I will continue to seek employment with this company after this stage
    2. High likelihood that I will continue to seek employment with this company after this stage
    3. Moderate likelihood that I will continue to seek employment with this company after this stage
    4. Low likelihood that I will continue to seek employment with this company after this stage
    5. Very low likelihood that I will continue to seek employment with this company after this stage

13. Please describe your overall level of fit with this particular job at this time. That is, do the requirements and tasks of the job seem to match with your knowledge, skills, and abilities?
    1. Very good match between this job and my knowledge, skills and abilities
    2. Good match between this job and my knowledge, skills and abilities
    3. Moderate match between this job and my knowledge, skills and abilities
    4. Poor match between this job and my knowledge, skills and abilities
    5. Very poor match between this job and my knowledge, skills and abilities

14. Please describe your overall level of fit with this company at this time. That is, do the values, personality and/or goals of the organization seem to match with your values, personality, and/or goals?
    1. Very good match between this organization and my values, personality, and goals
    2. Good match between this organization and my values, personality, and goals
    3. Moderate match between this organization and my values, personality, and goals
    4. Poor match between this organization and my values, personality, and goals
    5. Very poor match between this organization and my values, personality, and goals

15. Do you have any additional comments about the interview, or the conditions under which you took the interview?

Your Work History

Please respond to the following questions by selecting a choice that corresponds to the number of jobs.

16. To how many other jobs are you currently considering applying or have you applied to in the past month?
    1. None 2. Between 1 and 3 3. Between 4 and 6 4. Between 7 and 9
    5. Ten (10) or more

17. For how many of these jobs do you feel that you have a good chance of receiving a job offer?
    1. None 2. Between 1 and 3 3. Between 4 and 6 4. Between 7 and 9
    5. Ten (10) or more

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Table 1a

Summary of Propositions for Future Research

#	Research Proposition
1	Perceptions of organizational image will be negatively related to withdraw intentions during early phases of selection (pre-application or pre-test).
2	Perceptions of job attributes will be negatively related to withdrawal intentions. That is, candidates with negative perceptions of job attributes will have a greater intent to withdraw from the process.
3a	Selection personnel warmth and competence will be negatively related to withdrawal intentions.
3b	The relationship between selection personnel warmth and withdrawal intentions will be moderated by time, such that the effect will be stronger in earlier stages of the selection process.
4	Embeddedness, satisfaction, and commitment to a current job will be positively related to withdrawal.
5	Job level will be negatively related to likelihood of withdraw, such that candidates at lower job levels will be more likely to withdraw.
6a	There will be a positive relationship between neuroticism and withdrawal.
6b	The relationship between cognitive ability and withdrawal may be moderated by factors such as perceptions of fit.
7a	Candidates who report greater levels of peer influence will be more likely to withdraw from the process.
7b	Candidates who report greater levels of social support will be less likely to withdraw from the process.
8	Experience as an applicant (number of past jobs) will moderate the relationship between job attributes and withdrawal intentions.
9	Economic and labor market conditions will moderate the relationship between applicant perceptions and withdrawal intentions.

Table 1b

Summary of Current Study Hypotheses

#	Hypothesis
1a	Perceptions of process unfairness will be related to greater withdrawal intentions.
1b	Test-taking/assessment motivation will mediate the relationship between fairness perceptions and withdrawal intentions.
2	Levels of person-organization fit and person-job fit will be negatively related to withdrawal intentions.
3a	Level of perceived preparedness will be positively related to perceptions of performance.
3b	Level of perceived preparedness will be negatively related to intentions to withdraw.
4a	Self-perceptions of performance during the computer assessment phase will be positively related to motivation in the production assessment and interview phase.
4b	Levels of self-perceived performance on the assessment phase will be positively related to expectancy of receiving a job offer, measured at end of assessment phase.
4c	Candidates who have high performance self-perceptions and high job-offer expectancies will have lower withdrawal intentions and be less likely to withdraw from the selection process.
5	Delays in the process will be positively related to withdrawal.
6	Candidates with current jobs will be more likely to self-select out in the early stage of the selection process than candidates without jobs.
7a	Ethnic minorities will withdraw at greater rates than majorities.
7b	Older adults will withdraw at a greater rate during earlier stages as compared to younger adults.
7c	Females will withdraw at greater rates than males.
8	There will be a positive relationship between number of past jobs and withdrawal.
9a	Candidates with greater perceived alternatives will be more likely to self-select out at the early stage than candidates with fewer perceived alternatives.
9b	Number of perceived alternatives will moderate the relationship between perceptions of fit and withdrawal intentions, such that when a candidate does not feel a strong fit and has other job alternatives, they have a greater intention to withdraw than if they do not have other alternatives.
10	Withdrawal intentions will predict withdrawal behavior.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

#	Variable	*N*	Min	Max	Mean	*SD*
1	Days between application and assessment	6853	18	475	217.76	111.44
2	Days between application and interview	2420	25	468	245.42	106.23
3	Days between assessment and interview	2420	3	253	40.93	59.28
4	Race[a]	6675	1	7	5.73	1.87
5	Age	6553	18	79	39.18	11.08
6	Gender[b]	6714	0	1	0.71	0.45
7	Number of employers in last 5 years	27101	0	5	1.97	1.07
8	Employed at time of application or not[c]	27148	0	1	0.49	0.50
9	Fairness Perceptions of Test[d]	6355	1	5	3.99	0.60
10	Fairness Perceptions of Assessment[d]	6326	1	5	4.10	0.56
11	Fairness Perceptions of Interview[d]	1114	1	5	3.99	0.64
12	Test Motivation	6345	1	5	4.40	0.70
13	Assessment Motivation	6280	1	5	4.41	0.66
14	Interview Motivation	1114	1	5	4.66	0.60
15	P-J Fit – Post-Assessment	6209	1	5	4.29	0.83
16	P-O Fit – Post-Assessment	6251	1	5	4.55	0.79
17	P-J Fit – Post-Interview	1108	1	5	4.65	0.55
18	P-O Fit – Post-Interview	1110	1	5	4.82	0.42
19	Test Preparedness	6308	1	5	3.47	1.03
20	Assessment Preparedness	6263	1	5	3.66	1.00
21	Interview Preparedness	1023	1	5	4.36	0.66
22	Perceived Test Performance	6254	1	5	3.94	0.84
23	Perceived Assessment Performance	6261	1	5	4.00	0.80
24	Offer Expectancy –Post-Assessment	6257	1	5	4.29	1.03
25	Offer Expectancy –Post-Interview	1114	1	5	4.65	0.79
26	Perceived Alternatives – Post-Assessment	6070	1	5	1.66	0.81
27	Perceived Alternatives – Post-Interview	1038	1	5	1.44	0.57
28	Withdrawal Intentions – Post-Assessment	6253	1	5	1.38	0.79
29	Withdrawal Intentions – Post-Interview	1114	1	5	1.15	0.48
30	Withdrawal Behavior[e]	27155	0	1	0.10	0.31

Note. [a] Race is coded 1 to 7 (1= American Indian or Alaskan Native, 2=Asian, 3=Black or African American, 4=Hispanic or Latino, 5=Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, 6=Two or More Races, 7=White). [b] Gender coded 0 (female) and 1 (male); [c] Employment status coded 0 (not employed) 1 (employed); [d] Fairness perceptions for testing, assessment, and interview phases are multi-item scales, all other measures are single item; [e]Withdrawal behavior coded 0 (not withdrawn) and 1 (withdrawn).

Table 3

Scale Reliabilities for Fairness Perceptions Scales

Scale	α
Testing Fairness Perceptions	0.82
Assessment Fairness Perceptions	0.86
Interview Fairness Perceptions	0.87

Note. All scales have 7 items: 1 item each for advance information, interactional justice, and procedural justice, and 2 items each for job relatedness and opportunity to perform.
α = Cronbach's alpha, internal consistency reliability.

Table 4

Withdrawals by Stage of the Selection Process as of January 2011

Phase	Withdrawals
1. Application	426
2. Scheduled for Test	2,115
3. Test	178
4. Interview	96
5. Conditional Job Offer	2
6. Background Check	0
7. Medical And Drug Screen	8
8. Job Offer	4
9. On-Boarding	1
Total	2,830

Note. Total sample size = 27,148, 10.42% of whom have withdrawn.

Table 5

Intercorrelations Among Study Variables

#	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Application to Assessment Delays	--									
2	Application to Interview Delays	.84*	--								
3	Assessment and Interview Delays	-.24*	.32*	--							
4	Race[a]	.21*	.08*	-.16*	--						
5	Age	-.06*	.01	-.02	.03*	--					
6	Gender[b]	.04*	.01	-.02	.11*	-.10*	--				
7	Number of Employers in Last 5 Years	.09*	.06*	-.07*	-.06*	-.23*	.06*	--			
8	Current Employment Status[c]	.03*	.01	-.01	.07*	-.04*	.04*	.03*	--		
9	Fairness Perceptions of Test	.01	.02	.09*	-.03	-.14*	.03	.06*	-.01	--	
10	Fairness Perceptions of Assessment	-.04	-.02	.07*	.00	-.21*	.02	.09*	.01	.74*	--
11	Fairness Perceptions of Interview	-.05	-.04	.02	-.12*	-.11*	-.03	.02	-.01	.27*	.29*
12	Test Motivation	-.02	-.03	.08*	.04*	-.13*	.02	.07*	.01	.50*	.46*
13	Assessment Motivation	-.04	-.03	.07*	.02	-.14*	.03	.07*	.00	.40*	.58*
14	Interview Motivation	-.06*	-.05	.02	-.06	-.17*	-.01	.06*	-.06*	.12*	.21*
15	P-J Fit – Post-Assessment	.01	-.02	.00	.02	-.11*	.13*	.06*	.02	.19*	.25*
16	P-O Fit – Post-Assessment	-.02	-.01	.04	.04*	-.02	.04	.06*	.02	.13*	.17*
17	P-J Fit – Post-Interview	-.04	-.01	.06	-.04	-.08*	.11*	.08*	.00	.14*	.16*
18	P-O Fit – Post-Interview	-.09*	-.05	.08*	.01	-.01	-.03	.03	-.04	.17*	.23*
19	Test Preparedness	-.06*	-.07*	-.01	.05*	-.10*	.03	.01	.03	.21*	.22*
20	Assessment Preparedness	-.03	-.03	-.02	-.01	-.07*	.05*	.01	.01	.17*	.21*

Note. [a] Race is coded 1 to 7 (1= American Indian or Alaskan Native, 2=Asian, 3=Black or African American, 4=Hispanic or Latino, 5=Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, 6=Two or More Races, 7=White); [b] Gender is coded 0 (female) and 1 (male); [c] Employment status is coded 0 (not employed) 1 (employed).
* $p < .05$.

Table 5 (continued)

Intercorrelations Among Study Variables

#	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
21	Interview Preparedness	-.02	.02	.07*	-.12*	-.11*	.06	.08*	.00	.23*	.24*
22	Perceived Test Performance	-.03	-.03	.07*	-.03	-.22*	.09*	.08*	-.02	.52*	.48*
23	Perceived Assessment Performance	-.01	.03	.03	-.01	-.22*	.13*	.09*	.01	.40*	.56*
24	Offer Expectancy –Post-Assessment	-.05*	-.04	.00	-.06*	-.04*	.08*	.06*	-.02	.16*	.20*
25	Offer Expectancy –Post-Interview	-.04	.00	.07*	-.07*	-.05	.05	.01	.02	.04	.09*
26	Perceived Alternatives – Post-Assessment	-.04*	-.04	.05	-.13*	.03	.00	.06*	-.11*	.01	-.03*
27	Perceived Alternatives – Post-Interview	-.07*	-.10*	-.06	-.05	.07*	.02	.05	-.17*	-.04	-.06
28	Withdrawal Intentions – Post-Assessment	.05*	.03	-.03	.00	.07*	-.06*	-.06*	.00	-.12*	-.17*
29	Withdrawal Intentions – Post-Interview	.06*	.04	-.04	.07*	.11*	.08*	-.02	.00	-.11*	-.19*
30	Withdrawal Behavior[d]	-.06*	-.01	-.03	.02	-.01	-.02	-.07*	.02*	-.01	.01

Note. [d] Withdrawal behavior is coded 0 (not withdrawn) and 1 (withdrawn).
* $p < .05$.

Table 5 (continued)

Intercorrelations Among Study Variables

#	Variable	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
11	Fairness Perceptions of Interview	--										
12	Test Motivation	.15*	--									
13	Assessment Motivation	.20*	.58*	--								
14	Interview Motivation	.49*	.27*	.31*	--							
15	P-J Fit – Post-Assessment	.13*	.19*	.22*	.12*	--						
16	P-O Fit – Post-Assessment	.13*	.16*	.16*	.17*	.55*	--					
17	P-J Fit – Post-Interview	.13*	.10*	.10*	.17*	.34*	.19*	--				
18	P-O Fit – Post-Interview	.20*	.16*	.17*	.24*	.25*	.25*	.41*	--			
19	Test Preparedness	.11*	.15*	.14*	.10*	.21*	.17*	.13*	.14*	--		
20	Assessment Preparedness	.16*	.13*	.15*	.11*	.31*	.23*	.16*	.11*	.35*	--	
21	Interview Preparedness	.27*	.19*	.17*	.17*	.16*	.18*	.17*	.17*	.22*	.24*	--
22	Perceived Test Performance	.13*	.38*	.35*	.12*	.26*	.16*	.16*	.09*	.29*	.21*	.27*
23	Perceived Assessment Performance	.12*	.31*	.43*	.19*	.30*	.17*	.18*	.13*	.24*	.28*	.17*
24	Offer Expectancy –Post-Assessment	.08	.13*	.17*	.11*	.43*	.39*	.27*	.18*	.20*	.31*	.15*
25	Offer Expectancy –Post-Interview	.27*	.02	-.03	.12*	.13*	.10*	.17*	.17*	.03	.14*	.24*
26	Perceived Alternatives – Post-Assessment	-.02	-.05*	-.05*	-.02	-.17*	-.21*	-.01	-.04	-.09*	-.11*	.00
27	Perceived Alternatives – Post-Interview	.00	-.10*	-.07	-.05	-.01	-.02	.02	.01	-.02	-.03	-.01
28	Withdrawal Intentions – Post-Assessment	-.04	-.17*	-.18*	-.11*	-.52*	-.56*	-.27*	-.22*	-.17*	-.25*	-.09
29	Withdrawal Intentions – Post-Interview	-.21*	-.12*	-.16*	-.17*	-.16*	-.09*	-.27*	-.31*	-.04	-.12*	-.14*
30	Withdrawal Behavior[d]	.03	.00	-.01	-.02	-.03	-.06*	.00	.02	.01	-.01	.01

Note. [d] Withdrawal behavior coded 0 (not withdrawn) and 1 (withdrawn).
* $p < .05$.

Table 5 (continued)

Intercorrelations Among Study Variables

#	Variable	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
22	Perceived Test Performance	--							
23	Perceived Assessment Performance	.64*	--						
24	Offer Expectancy –Post-Assessment	.30*	.35*	--					
25	Offer Expectancy –Post-Interview	.10*	.13*	.21*	--				
26	Perceived Alternatives – Post-Assessment	.01	-.02	-.14*	.10*	--			
27	Perceived Alternatives – Post-Interview	-.04	-.06	.01	.03	.48*	--		
28	Withdrawal Intentions – Post-Assessment	-.17*	-.19*	-.46*	-.06	.22*	.05	--	
29	Withdrawal Intentions – Post-Interview	-.08	-.14*	-.16*	-.23*	-.04	-.01	.22*	--
30	Withdrawal Behavior[d]	.00	-.02	-.02	.03	-.01	.02	.04*	.04

Note. [d] Withdrawal behavior coded 0 (not withdrawn) and 1 (withdrawn).
* $p < .05$.

Table 6a

Regression Results for Hypothesis 1a –Post-Assessment Fairness Perceptions Predicts Post-Assessment Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2	R^2
Intercept	2.37	0.08	--	30.97*	--	0.03
Testing Fairness Perceptions	0.02	0.03	0.01	0.67	0.0001	--
Assessment Fairness Perceptions	-0.26	0.03	-0.18	-9.81*	0.015	--

Note. n = 6,176, F (2, 6173) = 94.57, p < .001.
* p < .001.

Table 6b

Regression Results for Hypothesis 1a –Post-Interview Fairness Perceptions Predicts Post-Interview Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	R^2
Intercept	1.78	0.09	--	20.13*	0.045
Interview Fairness Perceptions	-0.16	0.02	-0.21	-7.24*	--

Note. n = 1,114, F (1, 1112) = 52.35, p < .001.
* p < .001.

Table 6c

Regression Results for Hypothesis 1a –Post-Assessment Fairness Perceptions Predicts Post-Interview Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2	R^2
Intercept	1.89	0.18	--	10.42*	--	0.038
Testing Fairness Perceptions	-0.06	0.06	-0.06	-1.01	0.0018	--
Assessment Fairness Perceptions	-0.24	0.06	-0.24	-3.71*	0.025	--

Note. n = 536, F (2, 533) = 10.47, p < .001.
* p < .001

Table 7a

Regression Results for Hypothesis 2 – Post-Assessment Perceptions of P-O Fit and P-J Fit Predicts Post-Assessment Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2	model R^2
Intercept	4.36	0.05	--	85.74*	--	0.366
P-J Fit	-0.29	0.01	-0.31	-25.88*	0.068	--
P-O Fit	-0.38	0.01	-0.38	-31.18*	0.099	--

Note. n = 6,187; F (2, 6184) = 1754.6, $p < .001$.
*$p < .001$.

Table 7b

Regression Results for Hypothesis 2 – Post-Interview Perceptions of P-O Fit and P-J Fit Predicts Post-Interview Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2	model R^2
Intercept	3.17	0.17	--	18.97*	--	0.119
P-J Fit	-0.15	0.03	-0.17	-5.60*	0.025	--
P-O Fit	-0.27	0.04	-0.24	-7.66*	0.047	--

Note. n = 1107, F (2, 1104) = 74.77, $p < .001$.
*$p < .001$.

Table 7c

Regression Results for Hypothesis 2 – Post-Assessment Perceptions of P-O Fit and P-J Fit Predicts Post-Interview Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2	model R^2
Intercept	1.77	0.19	--	9.19*	--	0.027
P-J Fit	-0.12	0.04	-0.15	-3.28*	0.020	--
P-O Fit	-0.02	0.04	-0.02	-0.48	0.0004	--

Note. n = 536, F (2, 533) = 7.39, $p < .01$.
*$p < .01$.

Table 8

Regression Results for Hypothesis 3a – Perceived Testing/Assessment Preparedness Predicts Perceptions of Testing/Assessment Performance

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	R^2
Model 1: DV = Perceptions of Testing Performance					
Intercept	3.16	0.036	--	87.39*	0.075
Testing Preparedness	0.223	0.01	0.274	22.32*	--
Model 2: DV = Perceptions of Assessment Performance					
Intercept	3.216	0.037	--	86.20*	0.071
Assessment Preparedness	0.213	0.01	0.266	21.61*	--

Note. Model 1 F (1, 6141) = 498.4, $p < .001$; Model 2 F (1, 6129) = 466.9, $p < .001$.
*$p < .001$.

Table 9a

Regression Results for Hypothesis 3b – Post-Assessment Perceived Preparedness Predicts Post-Assessment Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2	model R^2
Intercept	2.26	0.04	--	52.53*	--	0.071
Testing Preparedness	-0.08	0.01	-0.10	-7.51*	0.008	--
Assessment Preparedness	-0.17	0.01	-0.22	-16.35*	0.040	--

Note. F (2, 6131) = 233.07, $p < .001$.
*$p < .001$.

Table 9b

Regression Results for Hypothesis 3b – Post-Interview Perceived Preparedness Predicts Post-Interview Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	model R^2
Intercept	1.56	0.09	--	16.63*	0.020
Interview Preparedness	-0.10	0.02	-0.14	-4.57*	--

Note. F (1, 1021) = 20.86, $p < .001$.
*$p < .001$.

Table 9c

Regression Results for Hypothesis 3b – Post-Assessment Perceived Preparedness Predicts Post-Interview Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2	model R^2
Intercept	1.40	0.11	--	12.93*	--	0.014
Testing Preparedness	0.00	0.02	0.00	-0.03	0.000001	--
Assessment Preparedness	-0.07	0.03	-0.12	-2.61*	0.013	--

Note. F (2, 531) = 3.88, $p < .05$.
*$p < .01$.

Table 10

Regression Results for Hypothesis 4a – Perceived Testing Performance Predicts Assessment and Interview Motivation

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	R^2
Model 1: DV = Assessment Motivation					
Intercept	3.36	0.04	--	88.07*	0.114
Self-perceived Testing Performance	0.27	0.01	0.338	27.98*	--
Model 2: DV = Interview Motivation					
Intercept	4.23	0.152	--	27.88*	0.014
Self-perceived Testing Performance	0.102	0.037	0.12	2.77*	--

Note. Model 1 F (1, 6058) = 783.04, $p < .001$; Model 2 F (1, 527) = 7.69, $p < .01$.
*$p < .01$.

Table 11

Regression Results for Hypothesis 4b – Perceived Assessment Performance Predicts Offer Expectancy

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	R^2
Intercept	2.508	0.063	--	39.76*	0.119
Self-perceived Assessment Performance	0.445	0.015	0.345	28.77*	--

Note. F (1, 6119) = 827.6, $p < .001$.
*$p < .001$.

Table 12a

Regression Results for Hypothesis 4c – Perceived Test/Assessment Performance and Offer Expectancy Predicts Post-Assessment Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2	model R^2
Intercept	2.98	0.05	--	55.09*	--	0.203
Perceptions of Testing Performance	-0.02	0.01	-0.03	-1.70	0.0004	--
Perceptions of Assessment Performance	-0.02	0.02	-0.03	-1.62	0.0004	
Offer Expectancy	-0.33	0.01	-0.43	-34.88*	0.162	--

Note. F (3, 6009) = 509.81, $p < .001$.
*$p < .001$.

Table 12b

Regression Results for Hypothesis 4c – Post-Interview Offer Expectancy Predicts Post-Interview Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	model R^2
Intercept	1.79	0.08	--	21.33*	0.052
Offer Expectancy	-0.14	0.02	-0.23	-7.78*	--

Note. F (1, 1112) = 60.55, $p < .001$.
*$p < .001$.

Table 12c

Regression Results for Hypothesis 4c – Perceived Test/Assessment Performance and Offer Expectancy Predicts Post-Interview Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2	model R^2
Intercept	1.70	0.15	--	11.15*	--	0.032
Perceptions of Testing Performance	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.61	0.0007	--
Perceptions of Assessment Performance	-0.08	0.04	-0.11	-1.96*	0.0071	
Offer Expectancy	-0.07	0.03	-0.13	-2.66*	0.013	--

Note. F (3, 524) = 5.72, $p < .01$.
*$p < .05$

Table 13a

Omnibus Regression Analysis of All Post-Assessment Predictors of Post-Assessment Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2
Intercept	4.57	0.08	--	56.24*	--
Testing Fairness Perceptions	0.05	0.02	0.04	2.38*	0.0006
Testing Motivation	-0.06	0.02	-0.05	-4.02*	0.0017
Testing Perceived Performance	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.78	0.0001
Testing Preparedness	-0.01	0.01	-0.02	-1.56	0.0003
Assessment Fairness Perceptions	-0.03	0.03	-0.02	-1.11	0.0001
Assessment Motivation	-0.02	0.02	-0.02	-1.34	0.0002
Assessment Perceived Performance	0.03	0.02	0.04	2.30*	0.0005
Assessment Preparedness	-0.02	0.01	-0.03	-2.67*	0.0007
Offer Expectancy	-0.17	0.01	-0.22	-17.92*	0.0335
P-J Fit	-0.21	0.01	-0.23	-17.47*	0.0317
P-O Fit	-0.32	0.01	-0.31	-25.23*	0.0666
Perceived Alternatives	0.06	0.01	0.06	5.73*	0.0034

Note. Model $R^2 = .406$; F (12, 5694) = 324.39, $p < .001$.
*$p < .05$.

Table 13b

Omnibus Regression Analysis of All Post-Interview Predictors of Post-Interview Withdrawal Intentions

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2
Intercept	3.66	0.20	--	18.25*	--
Interview Fairness Perceptions	-0.07	0.03	-0.10	-2.78*	0.0069
Interview Motivation	-0.03	0.03	-0.04	-1.17	0.0012
Interview Preparedness	-0.01	0.02	-0.02	-0.62	0.0004
Offer Expectancy	-0.06	0.02	-0.10	-2.98*	0.0079
P-J Fit	-0.16	0.03	-0.19	-5.79*	0.0299
P-O Fit	-0.20	0.04	-0.17	-5.19*	0.0240
Perceived Alternatives	-0.03	0.02	-0.03	-1.139	0.0012

Note. Model $R^2 = .158$; $F\ (7, 941) = 25.19$, $p < .001$.
*$p < .01$.

Table 14a

Regression Results for Hypothesis 1b – Test/Assessment Motivation Mediates Fairness Perceptions and Withdrawal Intentions Relationship

Variable	*a*	*SE a*	*b*	*SE b*	ME	*SE ME*	*t*	% total	*Lower CI*	*Upper CI*
Testing Motivation	0.344	0.013	-0.100	0.018	-0.034	0.008	-5.603*	0.20	-0.049	-0.021
Assessment Motivation	0.431	0.011	-0.115	0.020	-0.050	0.006	-5.831*	0.29	-0.071	-0.030

Note. n = 6,050; a = path between procedural justice and motivation; b = path between motivation and withdrawal intentions; SE = standard error; % total = percent of total effect due to indirect effect; CI = confidence interval around the indirect effect. Indirect effects do not significantly differ from one another (*ME* = 0.0153, *SE ME* = 0.0126, t = 1.212, $p > .05$).
*$p < .001$.

Table 14b

Regression Results for Hypothesis 1b – Interview Motivation Mediates Fairness Perceptions and Withdrawal Intentions Relationship, Both Measured after the Interview

Variable	*a*	*SE a*	*b*	*SE b*	ME	*SE ME*	*t*	% total	*Lower CI*	*Upper CI*
Interview Motivation	0.462	0.024	-0.07	0.027	-0.032	0.013	-2.58*	0.20	-0.078	-0.006

Note. n = 1,114; a = path between procedural justice and motivation; b = path between motivation and withdrawal intentions; SE = standard error; ME = mediating effect; % total = percent of total effect due to indirect effect; CI = confidence interval around the indirect effect.
*$p < .01$.

Table 15

Moderated Regression Results for Hypothesis 9b – Perceived Alternatives Moderates Perceived Fit and Withdrawal Intentions Relationship

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	*t*	sr^2
Step 1: F (3, 5940) = 1166.74, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .371$					
Intercept	1.37	0.01	--	170.46*	--
Person-Organization (P-O) Fit	-0.373	0.01	-0.37	-29.84*	0.094
Person-Job (P-J) Fit	-0.284	0.01	-0.301	-24.51*	0.064
Perceived Alternatives	0.078	0.01	0.08	7.49*	0.006
Step 2a: F (4, 5939) = 925.12, $p < .001$, $\Delta R^2 = .013$*					
Interaction of Alternatives & P-J Fit	-0.096	0.01	-0.12	-11.24*	0.013
Step 2b: F (4, 5939) = 907.89, $p < .001$, $\Delta R^2 = .009$*					
Interaction of Alternatives & P-O Fit	-0.08	0.01	-0.10	-9.08*	0.009

Note. $*p < .001$

Table 16

Logistic Regression Results for Hypothesis 4c – Performance Perceptions and Offer Expectancy Predict Withdrawal Behavior

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	$\Delta\chi^2$	sr^2_L	*Odds Ratio*	95% CI for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
Intercept	-3.068	0.852	--	--	--	--	--
Testing Performance Perceptions	0.036	0.250	0.021	0.0002	1.037	0.635	1.693
Assessment Performance Perceptions	-0.227	0.256	0.786	0.008	0.797	0.482	1.317
Offer Expectancy	-0.079	0.159	0.24	0.003	0.924	0.677	1.262

Note. CI = confidence interval; Model χ^2 (3, N = 2962) = 1.94, $p > .05$; model R^2_L = 0.021; Null -2LL = 92.62; Final -2LL = 90.69.

Table 17

Logistic Regression Results for Hypothesis 5 – Assessment Process Delays Predict Withdrawal Behavior

						95% CI for Odds Ratio	
Variable	*B*	*SE B*	$\Delta\chi^2$	R^2_L	*Odds Ratio*	Lower	Upper
Intercept	-2.782	0.159	--	--	--	--	--
Days between application and assessment	-0.005	0.001	44.81*	0.031	0.995	0.993	0.996

Note. CI = confidence interval; n = 6,853; Null -2LL = 1429.06; Final -2LL = 1384.25.
*$p < .001$.

Table 18

Logistic Regression Results for Hypothesis 5 – Interview Process Delays Predict Withdrawal Behavior

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	$\Delta\chi^2$	sr^2_L	*Odds Ratio*	95% CI for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
Intercept	-3.988	0.634	--	--	--	--	--
Days between application and interview	-0.004	0.003	2.330	0.014	0.996	0.99	1.001
Days between assessment and interview	-0.012	0.014	1.339	0.008	0.988	0.961	1.016

Note. CI = confidence interval; Model χ^2 (2, N = 2420) = 4.97, $p > .05$; $R^2_L = .030$; Null -2LL = 161.85; Final -2LL = 156.88

Table 19

Logistic Regression Results for Hypothesis 6 – Current Employment Status Predicts Withdrawal Behavior

Variable	*B*	SE_B	$\Delta \chi^2$	R^2_L	*Odds Ratio*	95% CI for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
Intercept	-2.149	0.029	--	--	--	--	--
Current Employment Status	0.149	0.041	13.33*	0.427	1.160	1.071	1.257

Note. n = 24,387; Null -2LL = 31.2; Final -2LL = 17.87.
*$p < .01$

Table 20

Predicted Probability of Withdrawal by Candidate Employment Status

Employment status	Mean Probability of Withdrawal	*n*
Not employed at time of application	0.10	12,608
Employed at time of application	0.12	11,779
Total	0.11	24,387

Table 21

Logistic Regression Results for Hypothesis 7a-c – Demographics Predict Withdrawal Behavior

						95% CI for Odds Ratio	
Variable	*B*	SE_B	$\Delta\chi^2$	sr^2_L	*Odds Ratio*	Lower	Upper
Intercept	-3.969	0.313	--	--	--	--	--
Race[a]	0.116	0.278	0.172	0.004	1.123	0.651	1.936
Gender[b]	-0.602	0.279	4.55*	0.117	0.548	0.317	0.946
Age[c]	0.024	0.282	0.007	0.0002	1.024	0.589	1.780

Note. CI = confidence interval; Model χ^2 (3, N = 3,933) = 5.05, $p > .05$; model R^2_L = 0.130; Null -2LL = 38.85; Final -2LL = 33.794; [a]Race coded 0 = white, 1 = minority; [b]Gender coded 0 = female, 1 = male; [c]Age coded 0 = under 40, 1 = over 40.
*$p < .05$.

Table 22

Predicted Probability of Withdrawal by Gender

Employment status	Mean Probability of Withdrawal	*n*
Females	0.0205	1,316
Males	0.0115	2,773
Total	0.0144	4,089

Table 23

Logistic Regression Results for Hypothesis 8 – Number of Previous Jobs Predicts Withdrawal Behavior

						95% CI for Odds Ratio	
Variable	*B*	SE_B	$\Delta\chi^2$	R^2_L	*Odds Ratio*	Lower	Upper
Intercept	-1.704	0.041	--	--	--	--	--
Number of Previous Jobs	-0.239	0.021	145.05*	0.561	0.788	0.756	0.820

Note. CI = confidence interval; n = 27,101; Null -2LL = 258.61; Final -2LL =113.57.
*p < .001.

Table 24a

Logistic Regression Results for Hypothesis 9a – Post-Assessment Perceived Alternatives Predicts Withdrawal Behavior

						95% CI for Odds Ratio	
Variable	*B*	SE_B	$\Delta\chi^2$	R^2_L	*Odds Ratio*	Lower	Upper
Intercept	-4.419	0.577	--	--	--	--	--
Perceived Alternatives	-0.148	0.332	0.214	0.015	0.862	0.450	1.652

Note. n = 1,703; Null -2LL = 14.61; Final -2LL = 14.51.

Table 24b

Logistic Regression Results for Hypothesis 9a – Post-Interview Perceived Alternatives Predicts Withdrawal Behavior

						95% CI for Odds Ratio	
Variable	*B*	SE_B	$\Delta\chi^2$	R^2_L	*Odds Ratio*	Lower	Upper
Intercept	-6.651	1.361	--	--	--	--	--
Perceived Alternatives	0.528	0.740	0.402	0.073	1.695	0.397	7.231

Note. n = 1,033; Null -2LL = 5.52; Final -2LL = 5.12.

Table 25a

Logistic Regression Results for Hypothesis 10 – Post-Assessment Withdrawal Intentions Predict Withdrawal Behavior

						95% CI for Odds Ratio	
Variable	*B*	SE_B	$\Delta\chi^2$	R^2_L	*Odds Ratio*	Lower	Upper
Intercept	-4.289	0.242	--	--	--	--	--
Withdrawal Intentions	0.312	0.136	4.37*	0.161	1.366	1.046	1.783

Note. n = 3,022; Null -2LL = 27.11; Final -2LL = 22.74.
*$p < .05$

Table 25b

Logistic Regression Results for Hypothesis 10 – Post-Interview Withdrawal Intentions Predict Withdrawal Behavior

						95% CI for Odds Ratio	
Variable	*B*	SE_B	$\Delta\chi^2$	R^2_L	*Odds Ratio*	Lower	Upper
Intercept	-6.486	0.900	--	--	--	--	--
Withdrawal Intentions	0.676	0.501	1.18	0.117	1.965	0.736	5.249

Note. n = 1,108; Null -2LL = 10.07; Final -2LL = 8.89.

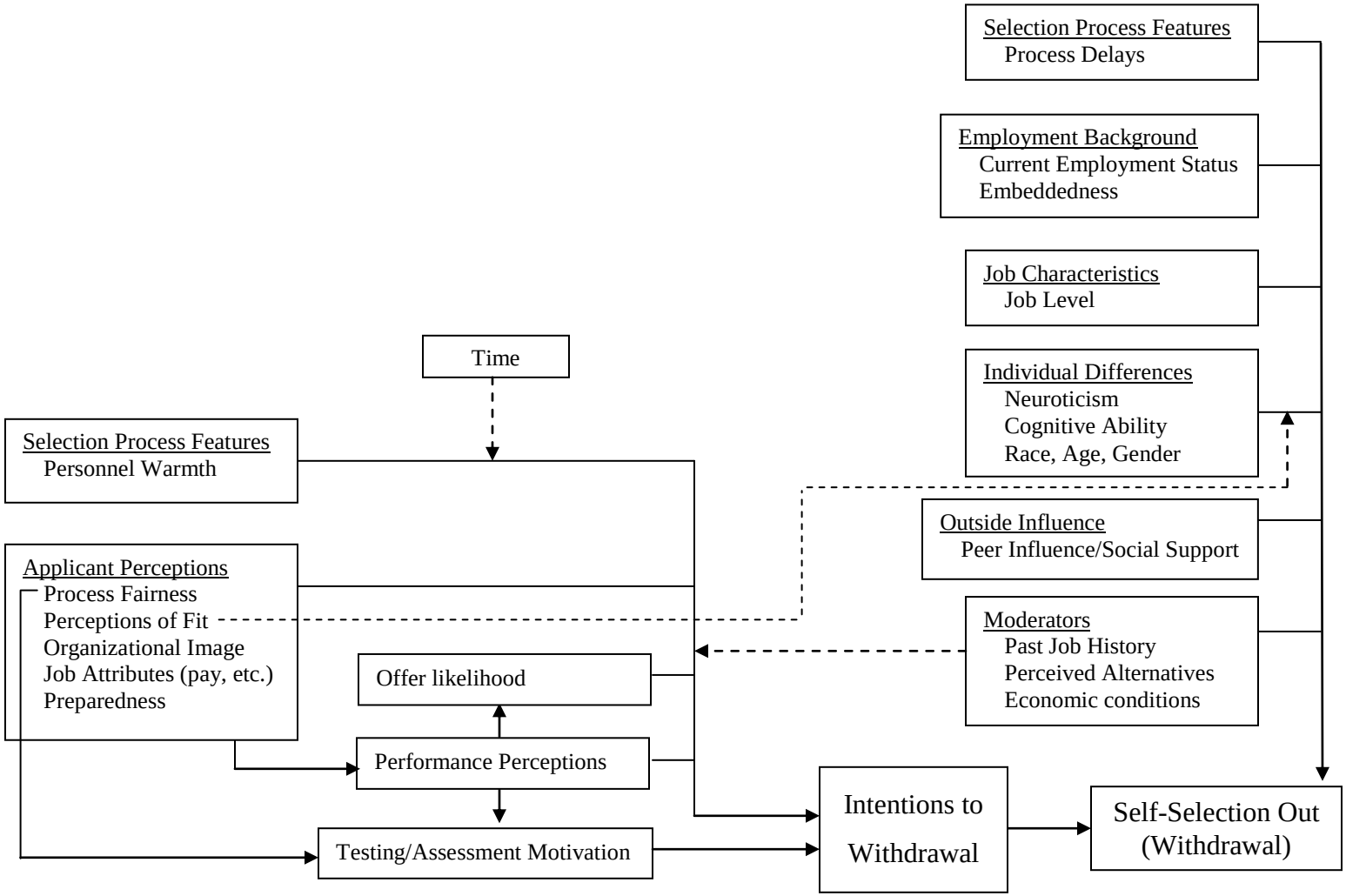

Figure 1a. Overall model of applicant withdrawal.

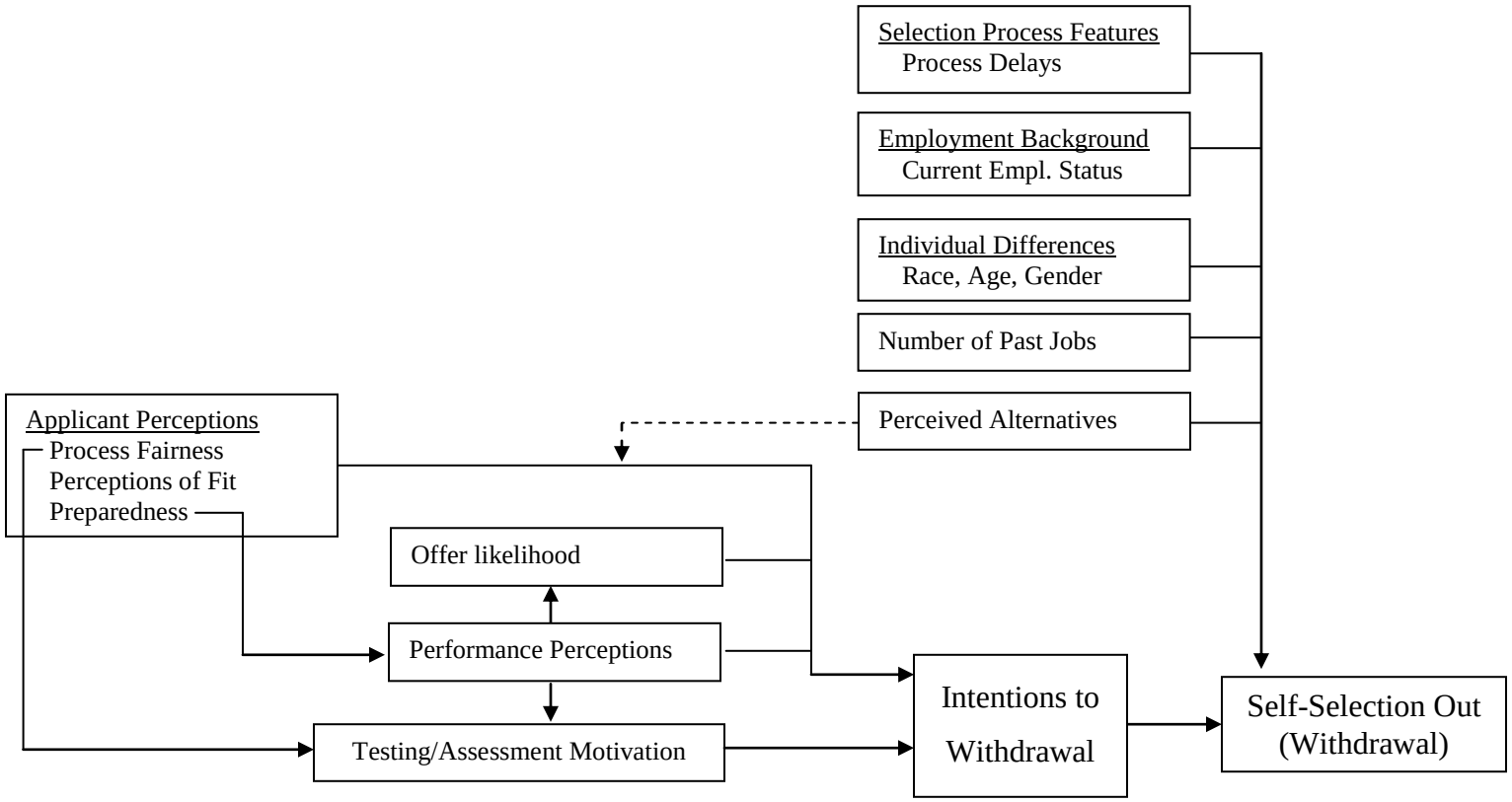

Figure 1b. Model of applicant withdrawal tested by current study.

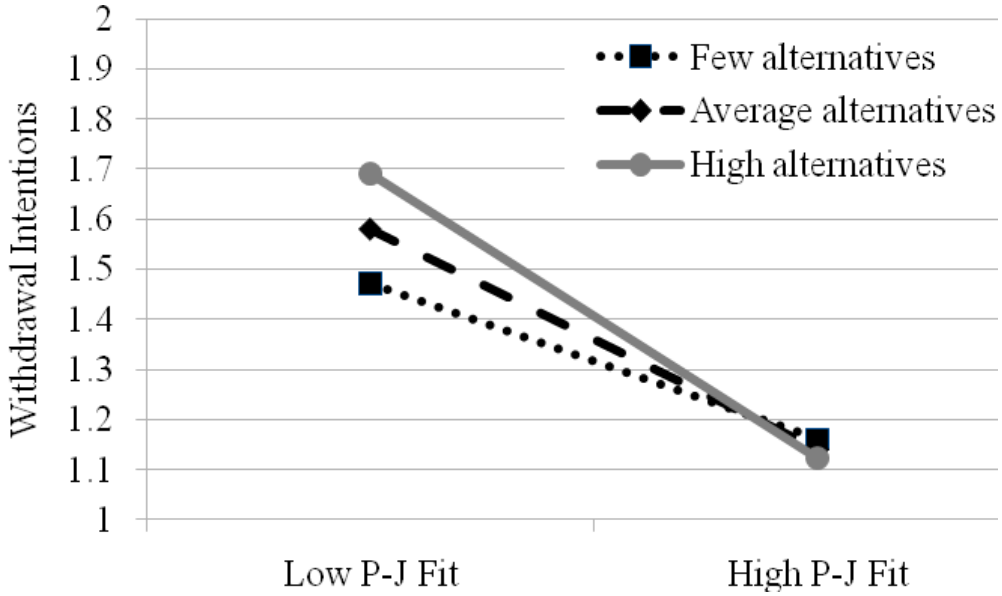

Figure 2a. Graphical representation of the interaction between P-J fit and perceived alternatives predicting withdrawal intentions.

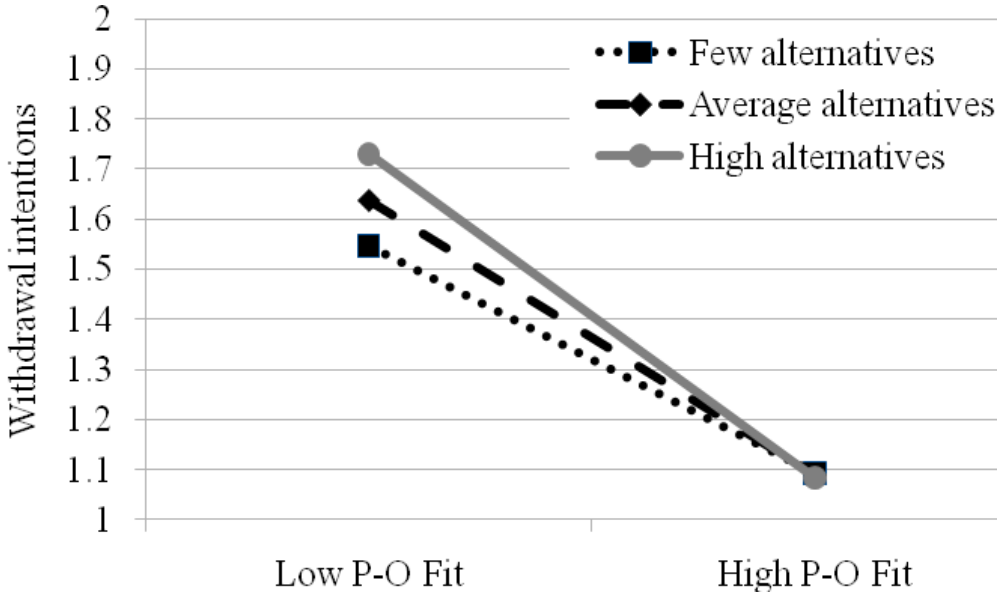

Figure 2b. Graphical representation of the interaction between P-O fit and perceived alternatives predicting withdrawal intentions.

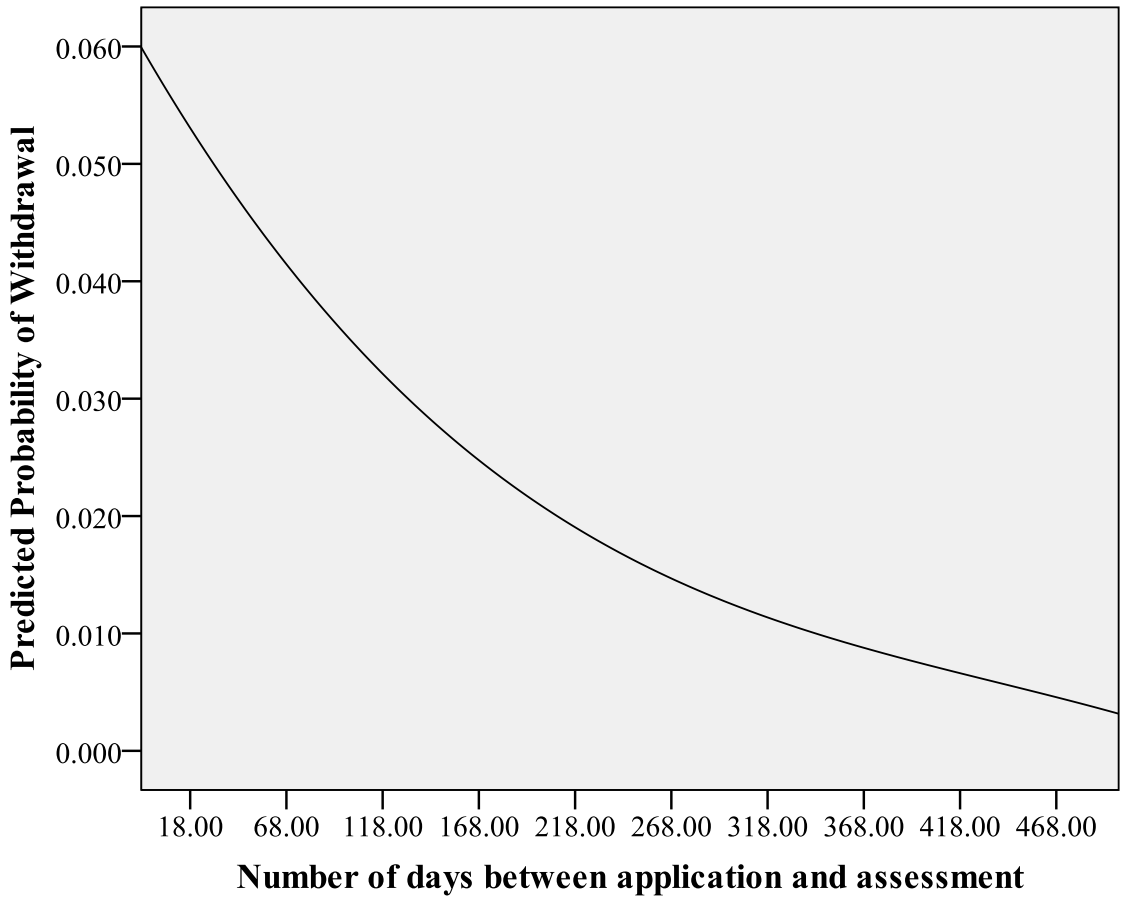

Figure 3. Graphical illustration of the relationship between delays in the process and withdrawal behavior.

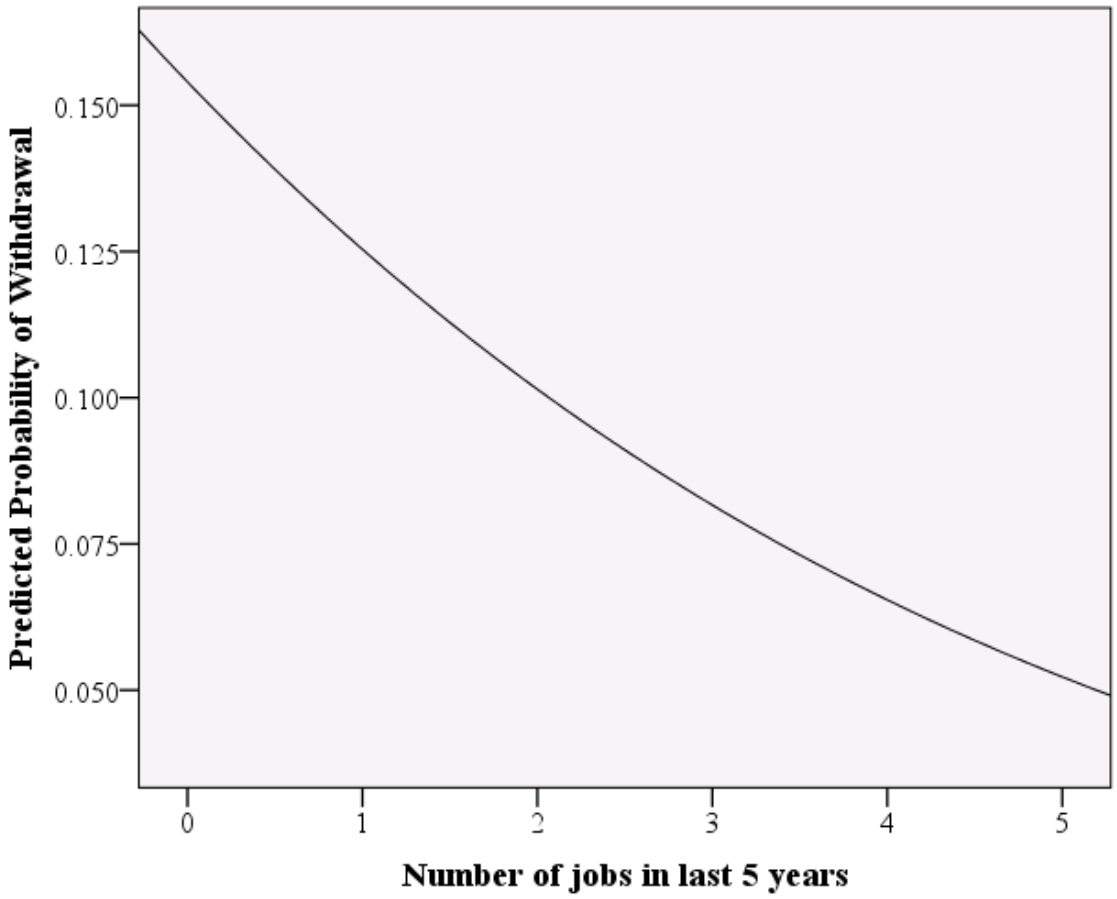

Figure 4. Graphical illustration of the relationship between number of previous jobs held by a candidate and withdrawal behavior.

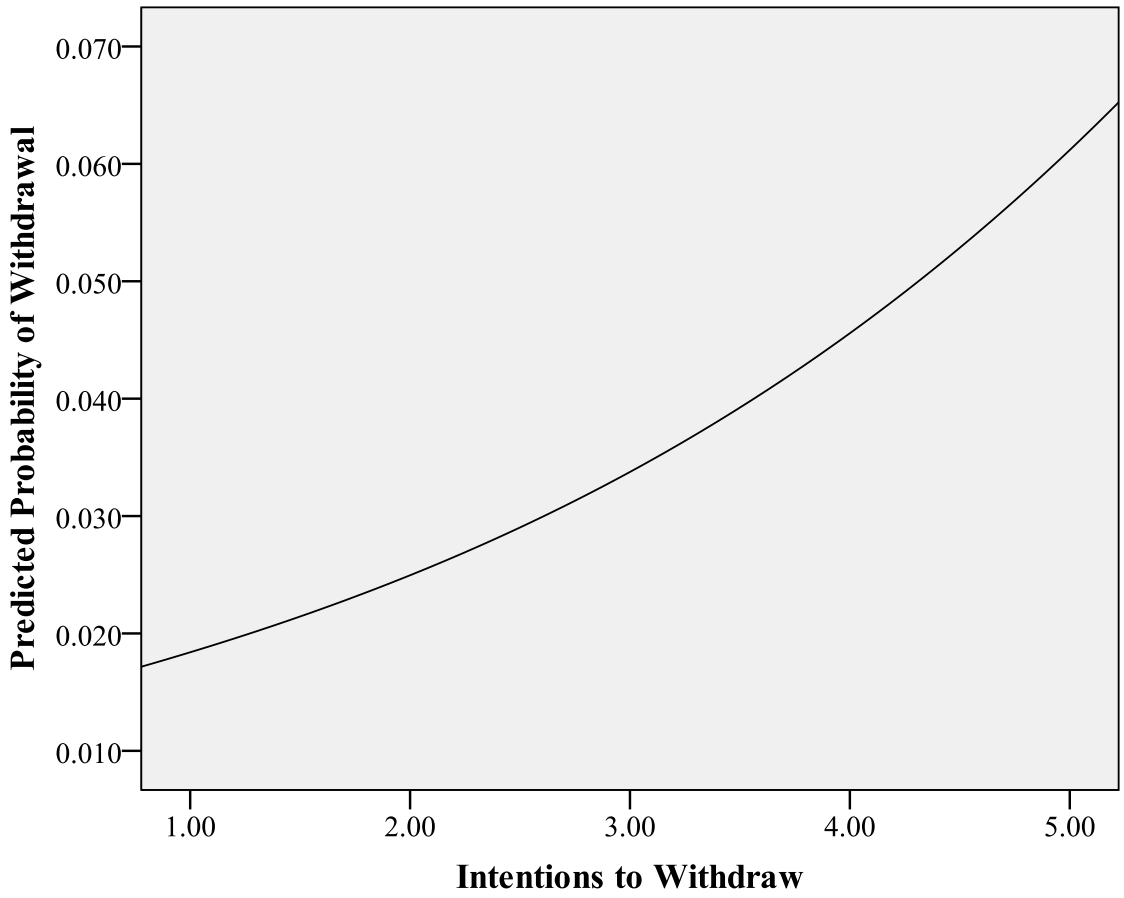

Figure 5. Graphical illustration of the relationship between withdrawal intentions and withdrawal behavior.