INTENTION – BEHAVIOR GAP AS A PREDICTOR OF APPLICANT WITHDRAWAL FROM THE JOB APPLICATION PROCESS

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

YALÇIN AÇIKGÖZ

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE Degree OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

JUNE 2016
Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

Prof. Dr. Meliha Altunışık
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz
Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Prof. Dr. H. Canan Sümer
Supervisor

Examin ing Committee Members

Prof. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç (METU, PSY) _____________
Prof. Dr. Canan Sümer (METU, PSY) _____________
Doç. Dr. Aslı Göncü (ÇU, PSY) _____________
Yrd. Doç. Dr. Afife Başak OK (AU, PSY) _____________
Yrd. Doç. Dr. Yonca Toker (METU, PSY) _____________
I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last name : Yalçın Açıkgöz

Signature :
ABSTRACT

INTENTION – BEHAVIOR GAP AS A PREDICTOR OF APPLICANT WITHDRAWAL FROM THE JOB APPLICATION PROCESS

Açıkgöz, Yalçın
Ph.D., Department of Psychology
Supervisor: Prof. Dr. H. Canan Sümer

June, 2016, 133 pages

The purpose of this study was to examine the predictors of withdrawal from a job application process. Based on the proposition that those who make an initial application to a job have intentions to pursue the opportunity, and later withdrawal indicates a failure to enact those intentions, this study utilized the concept of intention-behavior gap as its theoretical framework and its predictors as potential predictors of applicant withdrawal.

Utilizing a large sample of applicants for a low-level military job (N = 5346), the results of this study revealed that change in perceptions of fit, information search intensity after initial application, applicant emotional stability and conscientiousness, and the amount of information and self-efficacy regarding selection procedures all had negative relationships with applicant withdrawal; whereas time interval after the application and perceived alternatives had positive relationships. Type of intentions (goal vs. implementation intentions) also predicted applicant withdrawal such that those who had formed implementation intentions were less likely to withdraw.
The findings indicated that the concept of intention-behavior gap could be used to predict withdrawal. One implication of this finding is that although intentions are among the best predictors of behavior, this relationship is not perfect, indicating that a revision to the Theory of Planned Behavior may be necessary. Given the characteristics of the job examined in this study (a low level military position), future research on the subject should examine several jobs with varying levels within the same organization and in different organizations to ensure the generalizability of the findings.

**Keywords**: recruitment, military, applicant withdrawal, intention-behavior gap
ÖZ

ADAYLARIN İŞ BAŞVURU SÜRECINDEN ÇEKILMESINI ETKILEYEN BİR FAKTOR OLARAK NIYET – DAVRANİŞ UYUMSUZLUĞU

Açıkgöz, Yalçın

Doktora, Psikoloji Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. Dr. H. Canan Sümer

Haziran 2016, 133 sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı iş başvurusu sürecinden çekilmeyi tahmin eden faktörleri incelemektir. Bir işe başvuru yapanların bu işi elde etmeye niyetli kişiler olduğu ve daha sonra çekilmenin bu niyetin davranışa dönüşmemesini gösterdiği varsayımından hareketle, bu çalışmada kuramsal çerçeve olarak niyet-davranış uyumsuzluğunu ele alınmış ve niyet-davranış uyumsuzluğunu tahmin eden faktörler iş başvurusu sürecinden çekilmeyi tahmin eden muhtemel faktörler olarak incelenmiştir.

Giriş düzeyinde bir askeri işe başvuru yapan kişiler (N = 5346) bu çalışmanın örneklemeni oluşturmuştur. İşte yönelik uyum algısındaki değişim, ilk başvurudan sonra bilgi edinme davranışları, başvuranların duygusal dengelilik ve sorumluluk bilinci seviyeleri ve seçim prosedürlerine ilişkin bilgi ve özgüven seviyeleri iş başvurusu sürecinden çekilme davranışı ile negatif bir ilişki sergilerken; başvurudan sonraki bekleme süresi ve alternatif iş imkânlarının varlığına ilişkin algı başvuru sürecinden çekilme davranışı ile pozitif ilişki sergilemiştir. Niyetin niteliğinin de (amaç veya uygulama niyeti) iş başvuru
sürecinden çekilme üzerinde etkili olduğu ve uygulama niyetine sahip kişilerin daha düşük oranda çekildikleri gözlemlenmiştir.

Bulgular niyet-davranış uyumsuzluğu kavramının iş başvuru sürecinden çekilmeyi tahmin etmede kullanılabileceğini göstermiştir. Bu bulgunun bir sonucu olarak, her ne kadar niyet davranış en iyi tahmin eden faktörler arasında olsa da bu ilişkinin mükemmel bir ilişki olmadığını ve bu nedenle Planlı Davranış Kuramında bir revizyon ihtiyacını ortaya konmuştur. Bu çalışmada incelenen işin (alt düzey askeri bir iş) özellikleri dikkate alınarak, elde edilen bulguların genellenebilmesi için gelecekte yapılacak olan çalışmalarında hem aynı kurum içinde farklı düzeylerde işlerin hem de farklı kurumlarda farklı düzeylerde işlerin incelenmesinin yararlı olacağını düşünülmektedir.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** personel temini, askeri, başvuru sürecinden çekilme, niyet-davranış uyumsuzluğu
To my wife, Pınar, without whom none of this would have been possible.

To my daughter, Defne, without whom life would not have a meaning.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my utmost gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Canan Sümèr, for believing in and encouraging me, for her guidance, and for becoming an extremely supportive mentor, not just for this study but throughout my journey towards becoming a Ph.D and beyond.

I would like to thank the examining committee members, Doç. Dr. Aslı Göncü and Yrd. Doç. Dr. Yonca Toker for their valuable recommendations and comments on the study.

I would like to offer my sincere appreciation to each participant of the study for their contribution. I am also grateful to Turkish Armed Forces for giving me the opportunity to work on this project, and the staff at the Army Recruiting Center for their assistance in data collection.

The opinions and comments presented in this study represent only the author’s thinking and understanding of the subject matter and in no way should be seen as the official point of view of the Turkish Armed Forces or any affiliated organization.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT ........................................................................................................ iv  
ÖZ .................................................................................................................. vi  
DEDICATION ................................................................................................... viii  
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ................................................................................ ix  
TABLE OF CONTENTS .................................................................................. x  
LIST OF TABLES ........................................................................................... xii  
LIST OF FIGURES .......................................................................................... xiii  
CHAPTER  
1. INTRODUCTION ......................................................................................... 1  
   1.1. Overview ................................................................................................. 1  
   1.2. Employee Recruitment ........................................................................... 4  
   1.3. Applicant Withdrawal from Job Pursuit ................................................ 10  
   1.4. Intention – Behavior Gap in Job Pursuit Behaviors .............................. 18  
   1.5. Change of Intentions to Pursue a Job ................................................... 21  
      1.5.1. Time Interval .................................................................................... 24  
      1.5.2. Applicant Emotional Stability .......................................................... 28  
   1.6. Failing to Enact Intentions to Pursue a Job ........................................... 30  
      1.6.1. Perceived Alternatives .................................................................. 31  
      1.6.2. Implementation vs. Goal Intentions .................................................. 34  
      1.6.3. Uncertainty ...................................................................................... 37  
      1.6.4. Applicant Conscientiousness ........................................................... 41  
   1.7. Conceptual Overview ........................................................................... 43  
2. METHOD ..................................................................................................... 45  
   2.1. Information about the Organization and the Job .................................. 45  
   2.2. Participants and Procedure .................................................................... 46  
      2.2.1. Participants ...................................................................................... 46  
      2.2.2. Procedure ....................................................................................... 46
2.3. Measures ................................................................................................................. 47
  2.3.1. Time Interval ........................................................................................................ 47
  2.3.2. Change in Perceptions of Fit ............................................................................... 48
  2.3.3. Employment Status ............................................................................................ 48
  2.3.4. Emotional Stability ............................................................................................. 48
  2.3.5. Perceived Alternatives ....................................................................................... 49
  2.3.6. Job Search Behavior ........................................................................................... 49
  2.3.7. Implementation Intentions ................................................................................... 50
  2.3.8. Amount of Information ....................................................................................... 50
  2.3.9. Self-Efficacy about the Testing Procedures ....................................................... 51
  2.3.10. Conscientiousness ......................................................................................... 51
  2.3.11. Information Search Intensity ............................................................................ 51
  2.3.12. Withdrawal Status ............................................................................................ 52
  2.3.13. Self-Reported Reason for Withdrawal ............................................................. 52

3. RESULTS ....................................................................................................................... 53
  3.1. Tests of the Hypotheses ......................................................................................... 53
  3.2. Additional Analyses ............................................................................................... 61

4. DISCUSSION ............................................................................................................... 67
  4.1. Hypotheses ............................................................................................................. 67
  4.2. Theoretical and Practical Implications .................................................................... 78
  4.3. Limitations ............................................................................................................. 85
  4.4. Conclusion ............................................................................................................. 88

REFERENCES ................................................................................................................. 90
APPENDICES .................................................................................................................... 100
  A. Time-1 Survey ......................................................................................................... 100
  B. Time-2 Survey ......................................................................................................... 105
  C. Summary of the Findings ......................................................................................... 107
  D. Turkish Summary / Türkçe Özet .......................................................................... 109
  E. Vita ........................................................................................................................... 132
  F. Tez Fotokopisi İzin Formu ...................................................................................... 133
LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 1 - Descriptive Statistics for and Correlations among the Variables Examined in This Study .................................................................54

Table 2 - Descriptive Statistics for and Correlations between the Sources of Information and Change in Perceptions of Fit ........................................57

Table 3 - Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for the Non-Participant Group ..............................................................................................................63

Table 4 - Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for the Participant Group ..............................................................................................................64

Table 5 - Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Withdrawal Status .................................................................66
LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 1 - Conceptual model examined in the present study ..................44

Figure 2 - Results of the path model .....................................................65
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Overview

Employee recruitment is a critical function for organizations to survive and prosper. Similarly, job search is a critical activity most individuals perform in order to reach their employment and therefore life goals. To illustrate, although average tenure with an employer has shown an increase in the U.S. over the last decade, it is still under five years (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). Especially with the proliferation of downsizings and layoffs by organizations, more and more people search for jobs, apply to jobs, or attend selection procedures carried out by work organizations each day. This increase in the number of individuals searching for jobs coincided with an increased research interest in the areas of employee recruitment and job search. This has led to a culmination of individual studies and meta-analyses (e.g., Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005; Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz, 2001; Uggerslev, Fassina, & Kraichy, 2012) examining predictors of applicant attraction to a job and predictors of job search success.

Albeit from different perspectives, job search and employee recruitment literatures both examine the factors which lead to a job opening being filled by an appropriate candidate. However, while the research on employee recruitment examines the issue from the organizational perspective and thus is aimed at predicting factors which influence the quality and quantity of the applicant pool, the literature on job search examines the issue from the job-seeker perspective and thus investigates factors which influence whether or not an individual successfully lands a position which fits his or her expectations. Accordingly, a complete understanding of each process is only possible with a good understanding of the other. Job search researchers whose goal is to offer practical implications to job seekers and career
consultants have to take into account the ways in which organizations recruit in order to increase the chances that their recommendations are useful. Similarly, researchers examining how organizations can generate the applicant pool they desire have to have a clear understanding of the job search processes employed by potential applicants. Thus, it is important that organizations have a clear understanding of the factors which influence job-seeker behavior in the process of job search. In this respect, one important job-seeker behavior that organizations need to understand is voluntary applicant withdrawal from the job application process. As explained in more detail below, although vastly under-researched, applicant withdrawal has the potential to greatly influence employee recruitment success. Accordingly, it is important that organizations have a clear understanding of the factors leading to applicant withdrawal behavior from the recruitment process.

Research examining the antecedents of human behavior has generally found that the likelihood that an individual will behave in a certain way can be predicted with some degree of success. For example, Oullette and Wood (1998) found that under well-practiced conditions in constant contexts, frequency of past behavior and thus habit strength was a good predictor of future behavior. However, for behaviors that were performed under unstable conditions and in novel contexts, conscious decision making was necessary and thus intentions was the best predictor of future behavior. The behaviors performed by job seekers during job search are examples to behaviors performed under unstable conditions and in novel contexts. Thus, it can be argued that intentions are good predictors of behavior in this domain. In fact, intentions have been frequently utilized in the employee recruiting and job search literature as a predictor of job pursuit behavior and has been found to predict job pursuit with a good deal of success (e.g., Chapman et al., 2005).

The extent to which an employee recruiting operation is successful is generally measured using metrics such as the quality and quantity of applicants generated. On the other hand, the success of a job search is generally measured using metrics such as the number of interviews or job
offers or whether or not the job-seeker is employed at the end of the job search. One class of behaviors common to both processes and thus is likely to influence both outcomes is whether or not job-seekers apply for jobs and subsequently stay in the applicant pool until the job is filled. This requires the job-seeker to perform several behaviors such as attending several selection procedures conducted by the employing organization. Accordingly, factors which influence whether or not individuals perform the behaviors of applying for a job and subsequently attending the selection procedures have great potential to influence recruiting and job search outcomes. However, most recruiting and job search studies only examine predictors of the initial application to a job, and to some extent predictors of job offer acceptance. There is a gap in the literature when it comes to examining the predictors of staying in the applicant pool.

The literature on employee recruitment has revealed many factors which are likely to influence the initial application to a job. Specifically, job and organizational characteristics, perceptions of person-organization and person-job fit, and recruiting source characteristics are among the factors which have been found to influence the behavior of initial application to a job (Chapman et al., 2005; Uggerslev et al., 2012). However, these factors generally fail to become good predictors when it comes to predicting whether or not an individual eventually chooses a job among many alternatives (Chapman et al., 2005). Studies examining the factors related to the extent to which job-seekers who make the initial application to a job subsequently withdraw from the remaining procedures in the recruiting process are much less common. In other words, there is a paucity of research on factors predicting persistence of an applicant in staying in the applicant pool.

In support of the above arguments, recent studies on employee recruitment suggest that initial perceptions of P-O and P-J fit and accordingly initial attraction to a job opening are likely to change during the subsequent stages of the recruiting process (e.g., Walker, Bauer, Cole, Beneath, Field, & Short, 2013; Swider, Zimmermann, & Barrick, 2015). This may help explain why
traditional predictors of applicant attraction generally fail to predict job choice. That is, some other factors may lead an individual withdraw from the process and this may reduce the extent to which initial attraction predicts subsequent job pursuit. This suggests that, examining the factors influencing whether or not a job applicant stays in the applicant pool may be at least as important as revealing factors leading to an initial job application in order to help organizations increase their chances of generating a qualified workforce. Accordingly, in addition to factors leading to an initial job application, it is necessary to examine the variables influencing the likelihood that job applicants stay in the applicant pool. In order to help close this gap, in this study I examined the factors which are likely to influence the extent to which individuals who made the initial job application to a job opening are likely to stay in the applicant pool in the subsequent stages of recruiting. In the following section, a general review of the literature on employee recruitment is presented.

1.2. Employee Recruitment

Employee recruitment can be defined as activities that influence the number and types of applicants who apply for a job, stay in the applicant pool until a job is offered, and accept the job offer (Breaugh, 1992). A distinction is made between internal and external recruitment (Breaugh, 2008), the former referring to the ways by which current employees of the organization are nominated to or made aware of a job opening within the organization while the latter referring to actions aimed at bringing the job opening to the attention of potential applicants who do not currently work for the organization. A further distinction can be made between active and passive recruitment, with active recruitment involving activities aimed at attracting passive job seekers (i.e., those who are not currently looking for jobs but would potentially accept a job offer) while passive recruitment involving activities aimed at attracting active job seekers (i.e., those who are actively looking for jobs). This distinction is important because different types of recruiting activities are required to attract active and passive job seekers. Specifically, while active job seekers can be
attracted by relatively passive methods of recruiting such as posting information about a job opening on an online job board or a company website, passive job seekers can only be reached by specifically targeting them.

Employee recruitment is generally conceived of as consisting of three stages which include generating applicants, maintaining applicant status, and influencing job choice decisions (Barber, 1998). In the generating applicants phase, organizations try to attract as many active or passive job-seekers as possible in order to generate a large applicant pool to choose from. In addition to generating a large quantity of applicants, organizations may also desire that this initial applicant pool consists of individuals who are highly qualified for the job and are likely to be good fits for the job and the organization. In order to achieve this, recruiters conduct what is known as targeted recruiting (e.g., Avery & McKay, 2006), which refers to strategically choosing recruiting channels in order to attract the right type of individuals. In the maintaining applicant status phase, job applicants go through several recruiting procedures which are aimed at evaluating whether or not the applicant is a qualified candidate for the job opening. This stage may involve procedures such as job interviews, ability tests (e.g., physical ability, cognitive ability, etc.), personality assessments, assessment center examinations, or site visits. Finally, in the influencing job choice decisions phase, one or more job applicants are generally offered the job at the end of these hurdles.

Methods of recruitment (i.e., recruitment sources) include advertisements (TV, internet, newspaper, etc.), employee referrals, walk-in applications, campus recruiting, job fairs, and employment agencies (Zottoli & Wanous, 2000). More recently, internet job boards, company websites, and social media have become frequently utilized sources of employee recruitment (Acikgoz & Bergman, 2016). Recruiting sources are generally classified as formal (i.e., outside) sources and informal (i.e., inside) sources. Formal or outside sources refer to those methods which generally involve more bureaucratic procedures and include sources such as advertising, company websites, and employment agencies. Informal or inside sources, on the other hand, refer to sources which
do not involve as much bureaucracy and rely on prior social connections. These sources include networking and referrals. One major research avenue in the employee recruitment literature examines and compares the effectiveness of the above sources and investigates the factors contributing this effectiveness or ineffectiveness. For example, Breaugh and Mann (1984) compared newspapers, employee referrals, and walk-in applications in terms of the job performance and retention rates of the individuals recruited through each source. What they found was that individuals who directly applied to organizations were more likely to receive high performance ratings than those recruited through newspapers and employee referrals. In addition, although no significant differences were observed for voluntary turnover, those who were recruited through employee referrals were less likely to be terminated than those recruited through newspapers, paralleling the previous findings. Another study examining source effects compared employee referrals, direct applications, employment agencies, newspaper ads, and school placement offices (Kirnan, Farley, & Geisinger, 1989). This study found that applicants who were referred by a current employee or those applied directly had higher scores on a background questionnaire which assessed applicant quality. Finally, Rafaeli, Hadomi, and Simons (2005) compared employee referrals, geographically focused ads, and geographically unfocused ads. These researchers found that referrals generated more applicants and more hires with a higher hire-per-applicant ratio (i.e., source yield or yield ratio) compared to geographically focused ads, which were superior to geographically unfocused ads.

Based on the above studies on the effectiveness of recruiting sources, it seems that informal sources are superior to formal sources in terms of applicant quality, job performance, and retention. In support of this, Zottoli and Wanous (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of the available studies and found that informal sources had a lower withdrawal rate compared to the formal sources. In terms of job performance, informal sources were again found to be superior, although with a smaller difference. These authors provided potential explanations for why informal recruitment sources may be superior
to the formal sources. Two of the most plausible explanations include the realism hypothesis and the individual differences hypothesis. First, the realism hypothesis (Reid, 1972) suggests that prior to being hired, re-hires and employee referrals have a greater amount of information which is also accurate and thus these candidates are less likely to turnover once they are hired given it is more likely that their expectations are met compared to those recruited through other external sources. Second, the individual differences hypothesis suggests that different recruitment sources may be more or less appealing to potential applicants from different demographic groups, such as older individuals being more likely to read hard copy newspapers compared to younger individuals. Thus, applicants recruited from different sources may be coming from different demographic groups, which may be more or less qualified for the job opening (Schwab, 1982). Reviewing the studies which tested these hypotheses, Zottoli and Wanous (2000) concluded that the realism hypothesis had received the most support.

The basic idea of the realism hypothesis is also similar to the idea of a realistic job preview in which if job applicants’ expectations are not fulfilled, they become dissatisfied and more likely to quit than applicants with more accurate expectations (Breaugh & Starke, 2000). Realistic job previews (RJPs) are based on the notion that many job applicants have inflated expectations regarding the job and this may potentially lead them to be dissatisfied with the job if they are hired (Breaugh, 2008). RJPs are used as a way to provide information regarding the negative aspects of the job along with its positive attributes. For example, a newspaper ad about a mining job may include information about the high salary and also mention that the job requires to spend a substantial amount of time underground under unpleasant working conditions. Based on the three meta-analytic investigations regarding the effectiveness of RJPs (Earnest, Allen, & Landis, 2011; Phillips, 1998; Premack & Wanous, 1985), it can be said that RJPs have a small, although consistent, effect on reducing turnover. However, given their low development costs, it is generally suggested that RJPs are still a cost-effective way of reducing turnover (Earnest, et al., 2011).
Another major research avenue in the employee recruitment literature examines the factors which influence applicant attraction to a job. It is assumed that applicant attraction to a job leads to organizational-level recruiting outcomes such as quality and quantity of the applicant pool and whether or not the position is filled. In a recent meta-analysis, Uggerslev et al. (2012) found that job characteristics, including total compensation ($r = .29$) and the attributes of the job itself including the extent to which the job involves autonomy ($r = .22$), advancement opportunities ($r = .35$), development ($r = .49$), challenge ($r = .46$), and travel ($r = .29$) were significant predictors of applicant attraction. Organizational characteristics were another class of predictors and included organizational image ($r = .48$), familiarity with the organization ($r = .24$), size ($r = .09$), location ($r = .22$), and work environment referring to coworkers ($r = .31$), diversity ($r = .12$), how employees are treated ($r = .52$), job security ($r = .25$), supervisors/management ($r = .22$), teamwork/social activities ($r = .37$) and work hour arrangements ($r = .12$). Recruiter behaviors including competence ($r = .27$), personableness ($r = .38$), trustworthiness ($r = .30$), and informativeness ($r = .19$) also predicted applicant attraction. A fourth set of predictors were called recruiting process characteristics and included website characteristics such as aesthetics ($r = .39$) and ease of use ($r = .41$), message credibility ($r = .35$), procedural justice of the process ($r = .25$), and interactional justice ($r = .40$). Finally, perceived person-job ($r = .59$) and person organization fit ($r = .63$) and hiring expectancies ($r = .21$) were among the predictors of applicant attraction.

As explained above, recruiting is generally conceived of as consisting of multiple stages (Barber, 1998). Accordingly, Uggerslev and colleagues also examined the possibility that the predictors of applicant attraction would change as a function of the recruiting stage. In other words, they examined if the importance of a predictor would be different in one stage compared to another stage. To accomplish this, they examined the predictors separately for the first (i.e., generating applicants), second (i.e., maintaining applicant status), and the third (i.e., influencing job choice decisions) stages of the recruitment process. They found that organizational characteristics were
stronger predictors of applicant attraction in the second stage than the first stage, recruitment process characteristics were stronger predictors in the second and third stages as compared to the first stage, and perceived alternatives became significant in the second stage. However, in this meta-analysis, the outcome variable was largely attitudinal and intentional in nature and were generally measured through self-report instruments. Although intentions are among the best predictors of future behavior (Oullette & Wood, 1998), it has been argued that recruiting research should go beyond intentions and examine factors related to actual job pursuit behavior (Chapman et al., 2005). Thus, there is a need for research which examines job pursuit behavior as the dependent variable.

Another factor which may result in a change of the predictors of applicant attraction between different stages may be that not all applicants go through every stage in the recruiting process as a result of voluntary or involuntary withdrawal (Chapman et al., 2005). Therefore, in most studies examining predictors of applicant attraction across stages, it is likely that there is a restriction of range in the later stages such that those who are less attracted to the job are likely to withdraw from the recruiting process and do not show up in the later stages. In support of this possibility, Rynes, Bretz, and Gerrhart (1991) found that almost half of applicants did not participate the remaining selection processes following an interview. Similarly, Barber, Holenbeck, Tower, and Phillips (1994) found that one in three applicants did not stay in the applicant pool until the job choice stage. Indeed, Chapman et al. (2005) found that the relationship between perceived fit and job choice was non-significant in their meta-analysis, despite fit perceptions being a very strong predictor of other criteria such as job and organizational attraction ($r = .45$). Chapman and colleagues concluded that range restriction may be responsible for the lack of a relationship between perceptions of fit and actual job choice decisions. This indicates that in addition to studies predicting factors related to job and organizational attraction for those who stay in the applicant pool, recruitment research should also examine factors related to staying in the applicant pool in the first place. This is also consistent with calls to go beyond
intentions and examine actual job pursuit behavior as the outcome variable in the recruiting research (Breaugh, 2008).

This brings us to the purpose of the present study, which is to reveal factors related to staying in the applicant pool vs. withdrawing during the recruitment process. Applicant withdrawal refers to a voluntary decision to self-select out of the selection process by individuals who have applied for a job opportunity (Griepentrog, Harold, Holtz, Klimoski, & Marsh, 2012; Rynes, 1991). Even though factors predicting initial attraction and job choice have received a good amount of research interest in the employee recruitment literature, research examining the predictors of applicant withdrawal from the job pursuit is relatively scarce (Griepentrog, et al., 2012; Rynes, 1991). However, applicant withdrawal from the recruiting process may potentially be detrimental for organizations as it may reduce the likelihood that organizations will reach their recruiting goals by reducing the number of applicants in the pool from which the organizations can select. Below, the extant literature on predictors of applicant withdrawal from the job pursuit process is reviewed.

1.3. Applicant Withdrawal from Job Pursuit

Job seekers who make an initial application to a job may be considered as demonstrating their intentions to pursue the job opportunity. However, the literature suggests that not all individuals who submit an initial application to a job opening stay in the applicant pool long enough to be offered a job (e.g., Rynes et al., 1991). For organizations to reach their recruiting goals, ensuring that the highest percentage of job applicants stay in the applicant pool in the subsequent stages is of crucial importance. The percentage of those who stay in the applicant pool during the second and third stages of recruiting is at least as important as the size of the initial applicant pool since it has the potential to greatly influence the quality of the employees who are eventually hired. This is especially important given the time it generally takes to hire an employee. Specifically, recent studies indicate that average hiring time is 25 working days across organizations, and even longer for larger companies, 58 working days (Weber & Feintzeig, 2014).
Despite its potential importance, research examining applicant withdrawal from the job pursuit is very scarce. The earliest studies on the issue seem to have been motivated by a desire to increase the number of minority employees who remain in the applicant pool in order to be able to abide by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) laws regarding discrimination. Some of the later studies on the issue have also followed suit and examined if minority and majority applicants were more or less likely to withdraw from the recruiting process and the factors contributing to this differential withdrawal, if there was one. In one of the earliest studies on the issue, Arvey, Gordon, and Massengill (1975) examined if time lags between the application and the selection procedures were associated with the withdrawal of minority and majority job applicants. Using data provided by the personnel department associated with the civil service for a large city, these authors examined applicant records for seventy entry level jobs in terms of the time lag between the closing date of applications and the first selection procedure. They found that the time delay was significantly related with applicant withdrawal, with 25% withdrawing when the delay was short, compared to 34% when the delay was long. This effect was especially pronounced for lower level jobs compared to higher level jobs. There was also a significant time lag and minority status interaction such that the percentages for minority applicants were 22% for shorter delays and 41% for longer delays; compared to 25% and 27% for majority applicants. These authors proposed that employment status may have played a role. Specifically, although they did not have data on the employment status of job applicants, they speculated that since a higher percentage of majority applicants were likely to be employed, minority applicants might be more sensitive to delays as a result of a need to find employment as soon as possible.

Another study by Schmit and Ryan (1997) examined if attitudes towards test-taking was related with applicant withdrawal for minority and majority candidates. Using a sample of 2,714 applicants (out of an applicant pool of 3,290) for the job of police officer on the police force of a large city, these authors first collected data on test-taking attitudes during the initial application.
Out of the initial 3,290 applicants, 2,054 applicants participated in the second stage of recruiting, with 1,236 applicants withdrawing from the process. Schmit and Ryan conducted telephone interviews with those who dropped-out, in which they asked questions about the possible reasons for withdrawal. They found that attitudes toward test-taking were not related with withdrawal from recruiting process. However, those who were less anxious about the selection hurdle, were less motivated, and had lower scores on a literacy scale were more likely to withdraw. The most frequently mentioned reasons for withdrawal included having to work during the scheduled testing time (17%), being upset about hiring practices (favoring minority applicants; 12%), and having changed mind about wanting to become a police officer (10%). Finally, although race was also related with applicant withdrawal such that minority applicants were more likely to withdraw, test-taking attitudes did not predict withdrawal for neither minority nor majority applicants, indicating the lack of an interaction between minority status and withdrawal behavior.

Using another sample of applicants also applying for a police officer job, Ryan, Sacco, McFarland, and Kriska (2000) examined if applicant withdrawal could be predicted by perceptions of the organization (i.e., organizational image), commitment to obtaining the job, expectations regarding the job (i.e., job characteristics), employment alternatives, need to relocate, social influence by friends and family, and perceptions of the recruiting process. In this study, out of an initial sample of 3,550 applicants, 1,223 self-selected out of the process before the first hurdle. In addition to those who withdrew after the initial application, Ryan and colleagues also examined whether or not applicants who participated in the first hurdle withdrew before the second hurdle (294 out of 1,822), and whether or not those who attended the second hurdle passed with high grades, passed with low grades, or failed. Finally, these authors conducted telephone interviews with 597 applicants who withdrew from the process (first and second hurdles combined), asking their reasons for withdrawing with one open-ended question. Ryan and colleagues found that the factors they examined did not predict voluntary withdrawal from the recruitment process when they compared those who voluntarily withdrew
to the rest of the applicants. This is in fact not surprising because although not discussed as a limitation by these authors, most potential predictors of applicant withdrawal they examined were also significant predictors of initial attraction to a job (see Chapman et al., 2005). Thus, range restriction on the predictors, combined with the dichotomous nature of the withdrawal criterion may have contributed to the non-significant results.

Next, Ryan et al. (2000) created another dependent variable using the six categories of final status of job applicants (i.e., self-selected at first hurdle, failed at first hurdle, self-selected at second hurdle, failed at second hurdle, passed with low score, and passed with high score). Using this new dependent variable, they found that perceptions of the organization, commitment to obtaining the job, need to relocate, and social influence were significant predictors of final status. However, these results do not tell much about voluntary withdrawal and thus must be interpreted with a great amount of caution because the dependent variable also included involuntary withdrawal through failing either the first or the second selection hurdles. Thus, it is inevitable that the criterion was contaminated with ability variables predicting the likelihood that an applicant will pass or fail the selection test. Finally, the results of the telephone interviews Ryan and colleagues conducted with those who did not participate in the selection hurdles suggested that the most frequently mentioned reasons for voluntary withdrawal were having to work on the selection day, having other things to do on the selection day, and preferring to take another job.

In another study utilizing the attribution theory (Weiner, 2012), Ployhart, McFarland, and Ryan (2002) examined the reasons for withdrawal from the recruiting process and the attributions made by minority and majority applicants regarding these reasons in terms of locus (i.e., internal vs. external), stability (i.e., the extent to which the reasons provided were likely to change in the future), and controllability (i.e., the extent to which the reasons provided could be controlled by themselves or others) dimensions. Interviewing a sample of 196 (out of a possible 1,106) applicants to a police
officer job who withdrew (out of an initial applicant pool of 2,805) from the process, these authors also examined the consequences (i.e., whether or not they would re-apply for a police officer job in this city) of the attributions made by these applicants. Ployhart and colleagues found that the most frequently reported reasons for withdrawing were having to work or go to school on the selection day (15%), forgetting/oversleeping/losing required documents (11%), taking another job (11%), and feeling not qualified to pass the tests (11%). In terms of the attributions made, these reasons were perceived differently by those who withdrew in terms of locus, stability, and controllability dimensions. Finally, these authors found that to the extent that the reasons were perceived to be stable and controllable, applicants who withdrew reported lower expectancies for re-applying to the job.

Using the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991); Schreurs, Derous, Van Hooft, Proost, and De Witte (2009) examined the extent to which job pursuit attitude, subjective norm (what significant others think about pursuing the job), and perceived behavioral control on job pursuit predicted intentions to stay in the applicant pool and the behavior of staying in the applicant pool. First, Schreurs et al. applied a survey to 269 applicants to jobs in the Belgian military measuring their attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and intentions to stay in the applicant pool on the day of the initial application. Next, these authors obtained data regarding whether or not these applicants attended the second selection hurdle and the time between initial application and assigned selection date for each applicant who completed the survey. They found that 71% of the applicants had participated in the selection hurdle. In addition, Schreurs and colleagues found that attitude towards staying in the applicant pool, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control were significantly related to intentions to stay in the applicant pool. However, only the time lag between the application and the selection day significantly predicted actual withdrawal behavior. Schreurs et al. concluded that the theory of planned behavior did not work well in their study and that in a multiple hurdle selection context such as the one they examined, job pursuit intention might not always be an accurate predictor of subsequent behavior.
One other study examined withdrawal behavior in the context of the theory of planned behavior. Specifically, Griepentrog, Harold, Holtz, Klimoski, and Marsh (2012) developed and tested a model of applicant withdrawal by integrating social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) and the theory of planned behavior. These authors proposed that a decision to remain in or to withdraw from a recruiting process involved both rational and emotional components and that the theory of planned behavior largely captured the rational component while the social identity theory captured the affective component. Griepentrog et al. further proposed that the rational component consisted of attitudes to pursue a job opportunity, self-efficacy, and subjective norms (i.e., the predictors of intention in the theory of planned behavior) whereas the affective component consisted of perceived fit, organizational prestige, and organizational distinctiveness (i.e., the extent to which the organization is exclusive from other organizations). According to these researchers, the rational component, in turn, was expected to predict job pursuit intentions while the affective component was expected to predict organizational identification. Finally, these two variables were expected to combine to predict applicant withdrawal. An initial survey was applied to 2,175 potential applicants who expressed their interest in joining the US military. This survey included items measuring rational and affective components as described above. Next, they applied a follow-up survey three months later, to which 706 participants from the initial sample who were either currently going through selection or had voluntarily withdrawn responded. The second survey included a measure of applicant withdrawal. Testing the proposed model with a structural equation modeling approach, Griepentrog and colleagues found that the model fit was good and all the proposed links were significant. Thus, these authors concluded that pursuit intention and organizational identification were significant predictors of withdrawal behavior such that those who had lower levels of intentions and identification were more likely to withdraw from the recruiting process. Aside from its direct effect on withdrawal behavior, organizational identification was also a significant predictor of pursuit intentions. Thus, it can be said that this study supports the applicability of the
theory of planned behavior in the context of withdrawal from the recruitment process. However, in this study the first survey was applied shortly after potential applicants expressed their interests in the selection process through a reply mail and before they had gone through any formal recruiting procedures. In other words, the participants in the initial survey had not applied for a job at the time of data collection. It is possible that some of those who responded to the second survey may have never applied and therefore may not have participated in any of the formal selection procedures. Thus, the results of this study must be interpreted with caution as the initial level of commitment of the participants in this study may be lower than someone who takes the initiative and applies for a job opportunity.

Finally, a recent study examining the antecedents of applicant withdrawal (Baskin, Zeni, & Buckley, 2014) sought to reveal if the physical accessibility of the testing center and several other reasons revealed in previous studies (i.e., Schmit and Ryan, 1997) were related to applicant withdrawal. Using data from 112 applicants who had applied for a social service specialist position and then did not show up to take the selection test, Baskin and colleagues found that two of the most commonly cited reasons for withdrawal were inconvenience of the travel to the testing facility (57%) and change in perceptions of fit (26%); and that many applicants who withdraw from the selection process would like to remain in the applicant pool but are inhibited by some problem. In addition, they found that those living in relatively inaccessible areas were more likely to withdraw for reasons unrelated to the job (e.g., transportation problems) while those living in accessible locations were more likely to withdraw for reasons related to the job (e.g., the job was not right for me).

As the above review of the literature suggests, the extant research is not yet conclusive regarding the antecedents of withdrawal behavior from the job pursuit process. However, at least two common themes seem to emerge. First, factors unrelated to the job are frequently cited as reasons for withdrawal from the recruiting process. These include scheduling conflicts (e.g., having
to go to work or school on the day of selection procedure), physical inaccessibility of the recruiting station, and issues related to forgetting or failing to act. In these situations, although applicants are willing to participate in the selection procedure (i.e., their initial intentions to pursue the job have not changed), they fail to do so for other reasons. This suggests that at least some of the applicant withdrawal can be avoided by taking administrative measures related with the recruiting process.

Second, it seems that the initial levels of job and organizational attraction and fit perceptions are not likely to predict applicant withdrawal (Ryan et al., 2000; Schreurs et al., 2009). This is in fact not surprising because although perceptions of job and organizational attributes have been found to be good predictors of applicant attraction (e.g., Chapman et al., 2005), it is likely that those who apply are within the upper range of scores on perceptions of fit and therefore there is a range restriction in the initial scores for the predictors of applicant attraction. This may limit the predictive power of these factors when predicting those who withdraw from the recruiting process. In fact, one of the most frequently expressed reasons for withdrawal in most studies is that the applicant decides the job is not right for him or her. This suggests that not the initial level, but the change in perceptions of fit and thus intentions to pursue the job opportunity is likely responsible for some of the variance in the withdrawal behavior. However, the studies reviewed above examining the predictors of applicant withdrawal generally examine the predictors of initial attraction to a job opening as potential predictors of applicant withdrawal. In this study, instead of factors which have been found to be associated with the emergence of initial intentions and attraction, I will examine factors which have been found to influence the relationship between intentions and behavior as potential predictors of applicant withdrawal.

Either as a result of external factors unrelated to the job or through a change of initial attraction to a job, the above findings indicate that there is an intention-behavior gap in the job pursuit behavior for those applicants who withdraw from the recruiting process. That is, some of the individuals who had
demonstrated their initial intentions to pursue a job opportunity fail to behave according to their intentions in the later stages of the recruitment process. This is in fact consistent with and supported by the third major finding that emerged in the applicant withdrawal literature. Specifically, the time lag between the initial application and the first selection hurdle seems to be a significant predictor of withdrawal behavior such that the longer the time interval, the more applicants withdraw from the process (Arvey et al., 1975; Schreurs et al., 2009). The influence of the time lag is likely to operate through one of the two above mechanisms. That is, when the time interval is long, it is more likely that occurrences unforeseeable on the day of the initial application may prevent the applicant from participating in the selection hurdle. Similarly, a longer time interval is likely to be associated with a higher likelihood that the initial intentions will change.

Accordingly, to be able to discover factors predicting applicant withdrawal, the extant literature on applicant withdrawal suggests that it is probably not very useful to examine factors predicting initial intentions (e.g., the predictor variables in theory of planned behavior). Instead, examining the factors associated with failing to act upon initial intentions to pursue a job appears to be a more fruitful approach. Thus, below I review the literature on intention-behavior gap and how it can be used to predict applicant withdrawal from the job pursuit process.

1.4. Intention – Behavior Gap in Job Pursuit Behaviors

There are several theories in the field of social psychology which attempt to explain the predictors of human behavior. Two of the most widely supported theories are theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991). According to the theory of reasoned action, attitudes towards performing a behavior and subjective norms (the attitudes of significant others) towards the behavior combine to predict intentions, which then predicts the behavior. Theory of planned behavior is an extension of the theory of reasoned action such that it also includes perceived behavioral control as another variable influencing the performance of the behavior
Specifically, to account for the situations in which the actions and the extent to which those actions lead to the desired outcomes are not under the control of individuals (i.e., low volitional control), Ajzen (1991) proposed perceived behavioral control (PBC) as another construct in the model, which he used interchangeably with the self-efficacy construct. According to the theory of planned behavior, PBC serves two functions. First, PBC influences whether or not intentions are formed since factors not controlled by the individual may hinder the forming of an intention. Second, to the extent that PBC reflects actual control, PBC may exert a direct effect on the subsequent behavior.

According to both the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior, intentions are among the most proximal predictors of behavior, and the literature generally supports this proposition. For example, Armitage and Conner (2001) found that the TPB variables explained 39% of the variance in intentions and 27% of the variance in behavior. Similarly, a meta-analysis by Webb and Sheeran (2006) examining the extent to which a change in intentions would lead to a comparable change in behavior has found that a change in intentions through interventions led to a small-to-medium change effect ($d = .36$) in subsequent behavior. Intentions have also been utilized to predict job pursuit behavior with a considerable degree of success. For example, Chapman et al. (2005) found that acceptance intentions was the best proxy variable predicting job choice.

However, even though intentions have generally been successful in predicting subsequent behavior, as seen above the relationship between intentions and behavior is not perfect. This imperfect relationship suggests that there might be other factors which potentially influence the relationship between intentions and behavior. In fact, the literature examining the extent to which intentions predict behavior suggests that there are two mechanisms through which initial intentions may fail to predict behavior. First, influenced by several external (e.g., new information, time interval, etc.) and internal (e.g., emotional stability) factors, individuals’ initial intentions may change and thus they may be more
likely to behave according to their new intentions. Second, even though their intentions stay the same, they may fail to act upon those intentions as a result of some internal (e.g., low conscientiousness) and external (e.g., perceived alternatives) factors. Either way, it is likely that those who either change their intentions or fail to act upon their intentions may lead to an intention-behavior gap in studies examining the relationship between intentions and behavior (e.g., Fennis, Adriaanse, Stroebe, & Pol, 2011; Sheeran, 2001).

In support of this proposition, Sheeran (2001), upon reviewing the literature on intention-behavior relations, created four groups of participants who are likely to be responsible for the intention-behavior gap. Specifically, he proposed that in the context of the mechanisms linking intentions to behavior, any individual may be either an inclined actor (i.e., acted according to an intention), disinclined abstainer (i.e., did not intend to act and did not act), inclined abstainer, or disinclined actor. It is the latter two groups who are responsible for a gap between intention and behavior because they either perform an unintended behavior or do not perform an intended behavior. Next, using these groups, he examined the available studies to determine the percentage of participants who were either inclined abstainers or disinclined actors. He found that 47% were those who failed to enact their intentions (i.e., inclined abstainer), compared to 7% who performed an unintended behavior (i.e., uninclined actors). Thus, the intention-behavior gap generally stems from those who fail to enact their intentions.

The extent to which intentions predict or fail to predict subsequent behavior is relevant in the context of applicant withdrawal from the job opening because as explained above, an initial application to a job opening may be considered as an indication of an intention to pursue a job opening and thus stay in the applicant pool during the recruiting process. Thus, it can be argued that those who withdraw after the initial application to a job can be considered as individuals who do not act upon their initial intentions. Webb and Sheeran (2006) criticize the studies examining intention-behavior interventions in the literature as assuming that intentions directly cause behavior without actually
testing it. The same can be said for the current state of affairs in the recruitment literature. Although it has been acknowledged that the relationship between job pursuit intentions and job choice is not perfect (Chapman et al., 2005), no empirical or theoretical examinations exist which seek to discover the factors leading to this attenuation of the relationship between job pursuit intentions and job pursuit behavior and thus contributing to the number of job applicants who withdraw from the applicant pool.

As explained above, the literature on intention-behavior gap suggests that two mechanisms are likely to be responsible for the extent to which applicants are likely to withdraw from the recruiting process after making an initial job application. First, it may be that job applicants may change their initial intentions and act upon their new intentions. That is, through updated perceptions of fit during the time between forming of initial intentions and subsequent behavior, individuals’ intentions may attenuate and thus the occurrence of behavior may be less likely. The variables examined in the literature as potential reasons for a change in perceptions of fit include time interval between the intention and the behavior and applicant emotional stability. Second, even though they do not change their intentions, other factors may inhibit job applicants from enacting their intentions. According to the literature, these factors include perceived job alternatives, nature of initial intentions (i.e., implementation intentions vs. goal intentions), uncertainty regarding the behavior, and applicant conscientiousness. Accordingly, using the findings of the literature examining the predictors of intention-behavior gap, in the following section both of these mechanisms are examined in more detail in the context of applicant withdrawal from the recruiting process.

1.5. Change of Intentions to Pursue a Job

As explained above, recruiting has been conceptualized as consisting of multiple stages. These include generating applicants phase, maintaining applicant status phase, and influencing job choice decisions phase. Flipping the coin, it can be said that the process by which individuals search for jobs can also be considered as consisting of three corresponding phases. The first
phase, which begins with a decision to search for jobs and ends when a job-seeker applies to one or more jobs, can be called as the ‘generating job options’ phase. The second phase can be called as the ‘selection phase’ since job seekers are likely to go through selection and screening procedures, potentially by multiple companies simultaneously, during this period. Job seekers are also likely to keep collecting more information about the jobs they apply during this stage (Rynes et al., 1991). Thus, it is appropriate to call this phase ‘selection’ because job seekers are also likely to select among the companies they apply using the information they collect. Finally, the third phase can be called the ‘job acceptance’ phase since job seekers are going to make decisions regarding whether or not to accept a job offer during this stage.

During these three stages, job seekers are likely to perform multiple behaviors for each job option such as applying for the job, participating in several selection tests, or attending site visits until they finally accept a job offer. This suggests that the dominant practice of examining job pursuit intentions early in the recruitment process and testing hypotheses regarding whether or not those intentions are likely to predict job choice may be an oversimplification of the process (Chapman et al., 2005). What is needed is a more nuanced treatment of the intention construct which covers intentions for each specific behavior leading to job choice. In fact, recent theorizing about employee recruitment supports this view. Specifically, it has been proposed that although perceptions of fit are among the best predictors of applicant attraction and job pursuit intentions, those fit perceptions are not stable and are likely to constantly change as new information about the job opening is gathered (Swider et al., 2015). Thus, using initial intentions as a predictor of the behavior at the very end of the job search process (i.e., job choice) is likely to lead to less than desirable correlation coefficients.

What is more, Swider and colleagues argue that individuals are likely to engage in more elaborate information processing after applying for a job; and as more information comes in through more elaborate processing, perceptions
of fit may change even more in the subsequent stages. In a test of this argument, using data from a group of MBA students who had the opportunity to be interviewed by same four companies during a semester, these authors examined change in perceptions of fit towards four firms over a period of five months in eight occasions. What they found was that participants’ fit perceptions were increasingly differentiated from each other over the course of the recruitment process, and that positive change in perceptions of fit with a company was positively related with accepting a job offer from that company. This also suggest that, in the context of intention-behavior gap in the job application process, these changes in perceptions of fit through new information may influence whether or not applicants will participate in the selection procedures. That is, those who experience a positive change in perceptions of fit after making the initial application may be even more likely to participate whereas those who experience a negative change may be less likely to do so.

In further support of this claim, Chapman et al. (2005) found that all predictors of job choice they examined, including perceptions of fit, had either small or zero correlations with job choice behavior. This is consistent with the above findings as the predictors in this meta-analysis were measured at the beginning of the job application process. However, change in perceptions of fit later in the process may have influenced the likelihood that they will actually accept a job offer from an organization. Evidence supporting that fit perceptions are likely to change during the recruiting process was obtained by Walker et al. (2013) who examined the effects of dynamic justice perceptions on applicant attraction. These researchers found that during the maintenance stage of recruitment (i.e., after submitting their applications), individuals were likely to update their perceptions of organizational justice through successive interactions with organizational agents, and these updated perceptions were likely to influence an initial attraction in a positive or a negative way. These updated job and organizational attraction levels are likely to influence the resulting perceptions of fit, which is likely to influence job pursuit intentions in the subsequent stages.
What has been described so far suggests one mechanism through which initial intentions may not predict whether or not a job pursuit behavior will be performed. That is, through new information about the job and the organization and the resulting updated perceptions of fit, individuals may change their intentions to pursue a job opportunity during the maintenance stage of the recruitment process, and this may result in withdrawal from the applicant pool. Accordingly, I hypothesize the following:

**Hypothesis 1:** A decrease in perceptions of fit after initial application is related with a higher likelihood of applicant withdrawal from the job application process.

In addition, the literatures on intention-behavior gap and applicant job search behavior suggest that it is possible that some other factors influence whether or not intentions are likely to change. That is, the variables examined below may increase the likelihood that perceptions of fit will actually change, leading to a change in intentions to pursue a job and thus withdrawal from the job application process. In addition, it is possible that some factors directly influence whether or not withdrawal behavior is likely to occur.

### 1.5.1. Time Interval

One factor which is likely to be associated with the extent to which job applicants are likely to withdraw from the recruiting process is the time interval between the initial application and the next selection hurdle. As explained above, an initial application for a job opening may be considered as demonstrating an intention to pursue the job opportunity during the following stages in the selection process. However, the likelihood that intentions turn into behavior may be smaller when there is a large interval between the formation of intentions and the time to act. This is especially relevant in the recruitment domain where the average hiring time is 25 working days and even longer for larger companies, 58 working days (Weber & Feintzeig, 2014).
In one of the earliest studies published examining the predictors of withdrawal from the recruiting process, Arvey, Gordon, and Massengill (1975) examined the dropout rates due to time lags between selection procedures. Specifically, these authors examined applicants to 70 jobs ranging from the lowest to the highest level in the civil services for a large city. Operationalizing time interval as the number of days between the closing date for application and the first selection procedure, Arvey and colleagues found that the percentage of applicants who withdrew from the selection process was 25% for jobs with relatively short time delays and 34% for jobs with longer time delays. Thus, as the reviewed literature suggests, it is possible that the time interval between the initial application and participation in the selection process may influence the extent to which applicants are likely to withdraw. Many occurrences unforeseeable at the time of the initial application may decrease the likelihood that applicants will participate in the selection tests, and this is arguably more likely as the time interval gets longer. In addition, another potential mechanism linking time interval to withdrawal behavior involves the employment status of the applicants. Specifically, especially job applicants who are unemployed may not be able to afford to wait for an extended duration of time during the maintaining applicant status phase and may withdraw from the process to pursue another job opportunity (Arvey et al., 1975). This line of reasoning suggests a direct relationship between time interval and withdrawal behavior, moderated by employment status (see Figure 1). Accordingly, the following are hypothesized:

Hypothesis 2a. Time interval between job application and selection procedures is positively related with applicant withdrawal from the job pursuit process.

Hypothesis 2b. This relationship is moderated by employment status such that the relationship is stronger for unemployed job applicants.

Another potential reason why time interval may be related with applicant withdrawal is that longer intervals may result in a decrease in perceptions of fit with the job as applicants may get frustrated as a result of the uncertainty
stemming from not knowing whether or not they will be offered the job. In perhaps one of the earliest studies which applied a longitudinal scrutiny on the recruitment process, applicant decision making process, and the outcomes resulting from those recruitment experiences; Rynes et al. (1991) found that negative recruitment experiences had the potential to lead applicants to withdraw from the recruiting process or act as red flags which led applicants to apply more scrutiny than they would have applied. They explained this finding in terms of signaling theory (Spence, 1973), which proposes that applicants make inferences about the organizational attributes using their interpretations of the recruitment process. In accordance with Rynes et al. (1991), it is possible that delays in the recruiting process may serve as an unfavorable recruiting experience and therefore signal that there is a problem with the recruiting organization, increasing the likelihood that applicants will perceive lower levels of fit. Thus, in addition to the hypothesized direct effect of change in perceptions of fit on applicant withdrawal, this line of reasoning suggests a partial mediation by change in perceptions of fit between time interval and applicant withdrawal. However, a full mediation is not expected because as explained above, there may be several other reasons for a relationship between time interval and applicant withdrawal other than a decrease in perceptions of fit. Thus, the next hypothesis of the present study is as follows:

Hypothesis 3a: Change in perceptions of fit partially mediates the relationship between time interval and applicant withdrawal.

Maintaining applicant status phase generally involves execution of several selection hurdles, and these are generally applied over a period of time on separate occasions. Accordingly, maintaining applicant status phase in the recruiting process can be conceived of as successive cycles of intention and behavior in which the behavior at the end of each cycle indicating intentions to go through the next cycle. As Soelberg (1967) noted, applicants evaluate several job opportunities simultaneously, and thus they keep collecting information about a job opening even after making the initial application. When
the time interval between these cycles is long, it is possible that new information collected during the waiting period through increased elaboration processing (Swider et al., 2015) may conflict with the available information and attenuate intentions, and it is likely that this effect is more probable for applicants who search for information with more intensity. This suggests a moderation by information search intensity on the relationship between time interval and change in perceptions of fit. Accordingly, the following is hypothesized:

*Hypothesis 3b: The relationship between time interval and decrease in perceptions of fit is moderated by information search intensity such that the relationship is stronger for those who search for information more intensively.*

While we hypothesize that information search intensity will influence the extent to which applicants’ perceptions of fit will change over time, it is also possible that the characteristics of the source of information used will influence the direction of this change in perceptions of fit. Applicants who are searching for information about an organization have several options available to them such as official company websites, social media, and word-of-mouth. Depending on which source of information they are using, applicants may obtain information which is either favorable or unfavorable about the organization. Specifically, while one would expect to find mainly favorable information on organization generated content (OGC) sources such as an organization’s official website (except for when there is a realistic job preview available, see Phillips, 1998), it is possible that mainly unfavorable information may be found on user generated content (UGC) sources such as social media or through word-of-mouth.

The UGC sources examined in this study were internet forums, Facebook groups, and friends working in the same organization, and the OGC sources were two official organizational websites and information booklet about the job. This comparison is important because there is evidence suggesting that medium credibility can predict its use for information purposes (Kioussis, 2001; Stavrositu & Sundar, 2008), and user generated content is seen as more
credible than company or organization-generated content (Cheong & Morrison, 2008; Jonas, 2010). In addition, in their seminal paper, Hovland and Weiss (1951) found that when the information source is perceived to be highly credible, more opinion change occurs in the direction presented in the information medium; and this effect is later replicated by many studies (Pornkitapkan, 2004). This suggests that the direction of the change in perceptions of fit may also be influenced by the information source utilized when looking to learn more about a job. Accordingly, in an exploratory fashion, the following research question will be examined:

Research Question 1: Does the source of information used when collecting information about a job influence the direction of change in perceptions of fit?

1.5.2. Applicant Emotional Stability

One dominant model of human personality is the big five model (e.g., Goldberg, 1993), which suggests that human personality can be described using five universal higher order traits, each consisting of several lower-level facets (McCrae & Terracciano, 2005). These higher order traits are neuroticism (i.e., emotional stability; which includes anxiety, anger, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness, and vulnerability), extraversion (which includes warmth, gregariousness, positive emotions, assertiveness, activity, and excitement seeking), openness (which includes fantasy, aesthetics, feelings, actions, ideas, and values), agreeableness (which includes trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tender-mindedness), and conscientiousness (which includes competence, order, dutifulness, achievement striving, self-discipline, and deliberation). These personality traits have been found to be associated with several job-related outcomes including general career processes (e.g., job search, career progression, career commitment), occupational outcomes and well-being (e.g., job satisfaction, occupational stress), and organizational outcomes (e.g., job performance); with neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness most frequently showing associations with vocational behavior (Tokar, Fischer, & Subich, 1998). In the context of this study,
applicant personality has also been found to influence job pursuit behavior. Specifically, Kanfer et al. (2001) found that higher levels of extraversion, conscientiousness, openness, and agreeableness and lower levels of neuroticism were associated with higher levels of job search behavior.

One personality trait which has been found to be especially relevant to the withdrawal behavior is emotional stability (Lounsbury, Saudargas, & Gibson, 2004). Low levels of emotional stability is generally associated with being unable to modulate strong negative emotions in the face of stressors and possibility of being overwhelmed by fear, anxiety, and depression (Caprara, Vecchione, Barbaranelli, & Alessandri, 2013). These characteristics are likely to be associated with an increased likelihood of withdrawal in the face of suboptimal situations, or making decisions under the influence of strong emotional states only to change them later when in a different emotional state. In support of this possibility, low levels of emotional stability have been found to be related with higher levels of career indecision (Tokar et al., 1998). For example, in a study by Chartrand, Rose, Elliot, Marmarosh, and Caldwell (1993) examining the correlates of career indecision, it was found that low levels of emotional stability was related with a deficit in problem-solving skills, a dependent decision-making style, and several other predictors of career indecision. Meyer and Winer (1993) also found a direct negative relationship between emotional stability and career indecision. Reviewing several studies examining the relationship between emotional stability and career indecision, Tokar et al. (1998) concluded that low levels of emotional stability was associated with a deficit in career decision-making ability.

This finding has implications for the withdrawal from the recruiting process as well. Specifically, given their lower abilities related to making proper career decisions, individuals with lower levels of emotional stability who make an initial application to a job may be more likely to change their intentions and withdraw from the process during the selection phase of job pursuit. In fact, there is direct evidence for such a mechanism in a career decision-making context. Specifically, Lounsbury et al. (2004) examined the relationship
between the big five personality traits of openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability, several other narrow personality traits, and intention to withdraw from college. Using a sample of 233 college freshmen, these authors found that emotional stability was negatively related with intentions to withdraw from college, and together with sense of identity and work drive, emotional stability explained 22% of the variance in intention to withdraw. These findings, as well as the personality facets considered under the big five dimension of emotional stability (e.g., anxiety, impulsiveness, and vulnerability) suggest that job applicants with low levels of emotional stability may be more likely to withdraw from the applicant pool during the selection process. This is because with higher levels of anger, depression, worry, or insecurity; individuals who are lower on emotional stability may apply for jobs with potentially undesirable characteristics and thus low levels of fit with his or her individual attributes. However, through a deeper processing of the information about job and organizational characteristics in the following stage, they may change their initial intentions and withdraw from the applicant pool. Accordingly, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 4: There is a negative relationship between applicant emotional stability and applicant withdrawal from the job pursuit process.

1.6. Failing to Enact Intentions to Pursue a Job

In addition to the possibility of a change in the initial intentions, job applicants may withdraw from the applicant pool even though their initial intentions have not changed. For example, after making an application to a job, a job applicant may determine that another alternative is likely to be better and thus choose that job option. In addition, after making the initial application, a job applicant may perceived that he or she lacks the ability to become successful in the selection tests and thus may not attend the interview or a cognitive ability test. Similarly, not having enough information about the selection procedures may discourage applicants from participating in the selection process. Applicant conscientiousness may also influence whether or not they are likely to behave
in accordance with their intentions. I examine each of these possibilities in more detail below.

1.6.1. Perceived Alternatives

Perceived alternatives refers to applicants’ perceptions of the extent to which other alternative employment opportunities are available (Uggerslev et al., 2012). According to one model of job search (Soelberg, 1967) and several studies that followed (e.g., Rynes et al., 1991, Swider et al., 2015), when searching for jobs, individuals evaluate several jobs concurrently and are likely to identify more than one job which satisfy their criteria during the generating alternatives phase of job search. After generating several alternatives, the literature on job search suggests that individuals are likely to apply for more than one job at the same time (Schreurs & Syed, 2011). This suggests that the extent to which job applicants are attracted to other job openings after initial application may influence the extent to which they will withdraw from the applicant pool of a specific job opportunity. However, despite the logical appeal of this argument, empirical evidence has been equivocal. Specifically, the meta-analysis by Chapman et al. (2005) found that perceived alternatives was not a significant predictor of acceptance intentions. However, the meta-analysis by Uggerslev et al. (2012) found that even though perceived alternatives did not predict applicant attraction at the ‘generating applicants’ stage of the recruitment process, it became a significant predictor at the ‘maintaining applicant status’ stage.

The reason for these conflicting findings and the differences between recruiting stages in terms of whether or not perceived alternatives predict applicant attraction may lie in the amount of investment required to apply for a job compared to the investment required to stay in the applicant pool. Specifically, since the initial application for a job generally requires little investment on the part of a job seeker, individuals may apply for several jobs simultaneously. In fact, applying for jobs is becoming much easier as the technology advances. For example, many large companies today allow job-seekers to apply for jobs using mobile devices, and UPS made 10,000 hires
via mobile in 2012 alone (DeWitte, 2015). However, job applicants may be more likely to withdraw from the applicant pool in later stages of the recruiting process because as the recruitment process advances, each procedure requires more investment than the initial application on the part of the job applicant. Specifically, the following stages in the process generally involve physically attending the selection procedures such as interviews or ability tests and therefore are likely to require a higher level of investment by the job applicant. Thus, even though job seekers may apply for several jobs at once, they may be less likely to stay in the applicant pool of a job opportunity when there is a better alternative in the later stages.

This view of job search process in which job seekers evaluate multiple alternatives simultaneously is also supported by recent empirical evidence. Specifically, Swider et al. (2015) examined the degree of differentiation between job opportunities at the beginning of the recruitment and at eight subsequent assessments during the selection phase. They found that applicants had independent perceptions of fit towards several job openings at the beginning of their job searches and these perceptions of fit for each job became increasingly different from each other during the following stages of the recruitment process, resulting in one favorite which is most likely to be chosen eventually. In the context of this study, perceived alternatives may be especially relevant because it is proposed that perceived alternatives become increasingly important in the maintaining applicant status stage of employee recruitment (Uggerslev et al., 2012), which is the stage during which withdrawal is most likely to occur. As suggested by Swider et al. (2015), the differentiation between alternatives is likely to be smaller at the beginning of job search because it is likely that job seekers have lower levels of information about job openings during the initial application. Thus, at this stage job seekers apply for several job openings which pass the initial screening. However, through an increasingly more elaborate information processing during the second stage, the differences between job alternatives are likely to become more apparent. As suggested by Swider and colleagues, this is likely to lead to higher levels differentiation between perceptions of fit towards each
job, and to the extent that some of those alternatives appear more viable, job seekers may be more likely to withdraw from the applicant pool. Accordingly, I hypothesize the following:

**Hypothesis 5:** The extent to which applicants perceive that they have other job alternatives is positively related with applicant withdrawal from the job pursuit process.

A construct relevant to perceived alternatives is the extent to which applicants search for jobs. Job search behavior has generally been conceptualized as including two separate, although related, classes of behaviors (Blau, 1994). The first one is job search effort, which refers to the amount of time and energy a job seeker devotes during job search. The second job search behavior is job search intensity, which refers to the frequency with which a job seeker engages in behaviors associated with looking for employment such as collecting information about job openings, submitting a resume, or interviewing with potential employers (Kanfer et al., 2001). The difference between job search intensity and job search effort is that while the focus on job search intensity is on specific job search behaviors and the frequency with which those behaviors are performed, the emphasis on job search effort is the overall amount of time and energy spent while performing those behaviors (Saks, 2006).

Both job search effort and intensity have been found to be related with a number of job search outcomes. Specifically, those who exerted more effort and intensity during their job searches were likely to receive more job offers and more likely to obtain employment in a shorter duration of time compared to those who exerted less effort (Kanfer et al., 2001). This may suggest that the amount of job search effort and intensity a job-seeker conducts may be associated with the number of alternatives a job-seeker is likely to have. That is, given its association with the number of job offers, an increased amount of job search effort and intensity may be associated with an increased number of alternatives, and as described above, this may also influence applicant withdrawal from job pursuit.
However, another pattern of relationship between job search behavior and job alternatives is also possible. Especially for lower level occupations, it may be argued that those who are searching for jobs with more effort and intensity are in an immediate need of finding a job, and given this desperate need, one could argue that those who are searching for jobs with such an effort and intensity may be more likely to be under-qualified. This line of reasoning suggests that higher job search effort and intensity may actually be associated with a lower number of alternatives. Thus, instead of forming hypotheses, I pose the following research question:

*Research Question 2: Is there a relationship between job search behavior as operationalized by the mean of job search effort and job search intensity and the extent to which applicants perceive that they have other job alternatives?*

### 1.6.2. Implementation vs. Goal Intentions

One construct which has been found to influence the relationship between intentions and behavior is implementation intentions (Gollwitzer, 1999). Gollwitzer distinguished between two types of intentions: goal intentions, which is defined as intentions which only specify a desired end state, and implementation intentions, which also include the when, where, and how of the goal intentions. In other words, implementation intentions are specific action plans leading to the desired end state defined in a goal intention. While goal intentions specify what one wants to achieve, implementation intentions specify both the behavior to be performed towards goal attainment and the situational context in which it will be performed. Thus, while a goal intention can be in the form of “I intend to do X”, an implementation intention is in the form of “I intend to do X in situation Y”. An implementation intention is said to be formed when an individual both identifies a behavior that will lead to goal attainment and a suitable occasion to perform the behavior. It is suggested that implementation intentions are effective in leading to the performance of the behavior because linking a behavior with a certain situation increases the likelihood that the behavior will be triggered and enacted when the situational cue is present (Gollwitzer, 1999). In other words, implementation intentions
increase the accessibility of the behavior in the memory and increase the likelihood that the behavior is to be performed (Gollwitzer, 1999). Implementation intentions have been found effective in a variety of behaviors in closing the intention-behavior gap, including eating a low-fat diet (Armitage, 2004), exercising (Milne, Orbell, & Sheeran, 2002), breast self-examination (Orbell, Hodgkins, & Sheeran, 1997), and attending a workplace safety training (Sheeran & Silverman, 2003).

According to Gollwitzer and Sheeran (2006), forming a goal intention towards a behavior may not guarantee goal achievement because people often face problems when they are working through their goals. The first problem they are likely to face is that people often fail to start working through an intended goal. The reasons for this failure include forgetting to act because of situational demands on cognitive resources, missing an opportunity to act, and failing to overcome an initial reluctance to act. The second reason for why people fail to achieve an intended goal is that most goals require the individual to perform a series of behaviors and it is possible that they get derailed during this process by unwanted influences. Third, individuals may fail to stop acting upon an unproductive course of action as a result of over-commitment, and this may lead to being unable to reach ones intended goal. Finally, when individuals overextend themselves through completion of an initial goal, the attainment of subsequent goals may not be achieved. Gollwitzer and Sheeran (2006) propose that forming implementation intentions (i.e., specific if-then plans) toward a goal may facilitate effective self-regulation when faced with the threats explained above since implementation intentions are likely to enhance people’s ability to initiate, maintain, disengage from, and undertake further striving toward a goal.

Since applying for a job generally only requires sending out a resume or filling out an online application form, it is possible that only a goal intention may be enough to make the application. However, this intention may not transfer to the maintenance stage because the behaviors required during this stage are generally more complex and likely to require multiple actions by the job
seeker. Thus, it is possible that the problems explained above may emerge during the process by which individuals seek employment. For example, after making the initial application, individuals may fail to pursue the job opportunity as a result of forgetting to act in a timely manner when they are required to perform some kind of an action such as attending an online interview. It is also possible that when implementation intentions are not present, applicants may be distracted by other tasks they are required to do and may fail to pursue the job opportunity. The basic idea of the implementation intentions is that compared to those who only form a goal intention, individuals forming implementation intentions are likely to exhibit increased accessibility of the critical situational cue defined in an implementation intention, and therefore should be more likely to detect and discriminate the cue when it is present. This increased accessibility of the situational context is also likely to facilitate spontaneous attention and lead to a better recall of the situational cue, leading to a higher likelihood that the intended behavior is to be performed (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). Implementation intentions are found to be effective at improving the intention-behavior relationship in a number of studies. Meta-analyzing 94 such studies, Gollwitzer and Sheeran (2006) found that forming implementation intentions had a medium-to-large sized effect ($d = .65$) on goal achievement.

Although not yet tested in a recruiting context, these findings suggest that it is possible that implementation intentions increase the likelihood that applicants stay in the applicant pool during the maintenance stage of the recruitment process. In other words, job-seekers who form a clear pathway (i.e., if-then plans) from the initial application to what they will do when a job is offered may be more likely to act upon those intentions compared to those who only aim to apply and see what happens. These implementation intentions may include the specific behaviors a job-seeker needs to perform in order to stay in the applicant pool such as completing the necessary documents for a background check, mailing out necessary documents, or being present on time at an interview site; and contextual cues that are likely to trigger these behaviors. For example, after making an initial application to a job, an applicant may plan
to ask for reference letters to be mailed at least a month before the due date, buy tickets for a flight to a site visit when he or she hears from the recruiting organization, or complete a required physical examination by the time he or she leaves for the interview. These specific plans may facilitate the enactment of each behavior when it is necessary and thus may contribute to whether or not the applicant is likely to stay in the applicant pool throughout the maintenance stage. Accordingly, I hypothesize the following:

_Hypothesis 6. Job applicants who form implementation intentions are more likely to stay in the applicant pool than those who do not._

1.6.3. Uncertainty

Another potential factor which is likely to be related to applicant withdrawal is the uncertainty regarding the selection process. There are two mechanisms through which uncertainty may be related with withdrawal from recruiting. First, a job applicant may have limited knowledge about what is involved in the specific procedures which will be applied in a selection hurdle and may be reluctant to participate as a result of this lack of information. Second, a job applicant may know what a selection hurdle involves but may be unsure about the outcome. This may also decrease the likelihood that an applicant will participate in the selection procedures. Expectancy theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964) can be used to explain both mechanisms.

According to Vroom (1964), three factors combine in a multiplicative way to determine an individual’s motivation towards a behavior. First, the individual must have an **expectancy** that if he or she spends enough effort, it will lead to performance. Second, this performance must be **instrumental** in achieving a certain result. Third, the result of the performance must be desirable (i.e., must have **valence**) for the individual. In support of the multiplicative relationship between the predictors in the expectancy theory, Arnold (1981) applied a job preference questionnaire in which the items asked participants to choose between two hypothetical jobs with differing attributes. The analyses of participants’ responses indicated that a multiplicative, rather than additive,
model was superior in describing the data. This suggests that the existence of all of the antecedents of motivation as defined in the theory (i.e., expectancy, instrumentality, and valence) is necessary for an individual to become motivated to perform a given behavior. Expectancy theory has been applied to a wide range of behaviors and has generally received considerable support. For example, Brooks and Betz (1990) found that the product term including expectancy, instrumentality and valence for an occupation was significantly related with the likelihood of choosing that occupation and accounted for between 21% and 41% of the variance in career choice decisions, depending on the occupation. In a different context, Geiger and Cooper (1996) found that the variables in the expectancy theory could be used to predict the extent to which students were likely to exert academic effort.

The first mechanism through which uncertainty regarding the selection hurdle may lead to applicant withdrawal involves the applicant not having enough information about the specific procedures applied as part of the selection process. When this is the case, the expectancy theory suggests that the motivation regarding the behavior of participating in the selection hurdle may be low. This is because as explained above, the predictors are expected to combine in a multiplicative fashion rather than an additive one, and if any of the three predictors is very low, the motivation is expected to be very low regardless of the levels of other variables. In extreme cases, if any of the predictors is zero, the motivation to perform the behavior would be zero as well. For example, a job applicant may know that if he or she passes the selection tests, a job will be offered (i.e., high instrumentality) and the job to be offered is a desirable one (i.e., high valence). However, if the applicant does not know about his or her chances of passing the test (i.e., low expectancy) as a result of not having enough information about the procedure, he or she may not determine if a certain level of performance will lead to the desired outcomes (i.e., the expectancy would be low). Given the multiplicative nature of the predictors of motivation in the expectancy theory, this may result in a low level of motivation regarding participating in the selection procedure,
and thus may lead to applicant withdrawal from the process. Accordingly, I hypothesize the following:

*Hypothesis 7: The amount of information an applicant has about the selection hurdle is negatively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process.*

Another mechanism through which uncertainty may lead to applicant withdrawal involves a job seeker having low perceived self-efficacy regarding the outcome of a selection hurdle. According to expectancy theory, instrumentality is another factor influencing the level of motivation towards a behavior. As explained above, instrumentality refers to individuals’ beliefs regarding whether or not a certain level of performance will lead to a certain outcome. When an applicant has low self-efficacy over the tests included in a selection hurdle, the instrumentality of participating in the selection hurdle may be low since he or she may not be certain about the likelihood of obtaining a passing score. Thus, the expectancy theory predicts that low self-efficacy regarding a selection procedure may be associated with a higher likelihood of withdrawing from the process.

Research on factors influencing the extent to which intentions predict behavior also suggests that low self-efficacy may be related with a lower likelihood of performing the behavior. According to this line of research (e.g., Sheeran, 2001), one factor which may influence the extent to which intentions predict behavior is the amount of control an individual has over the performance of the behavior; which is in part influenced by the type of behavior being studied. Specifically, whether the behavior being predicted is a single action vs. a series of actions (i.e., a goal) is likely to influence whether or not individuals are likely to perform the behaviors they have intended to perform (Sheeran, 2001) because single actions (e.g., applying for a job) are more likely to be under control of the individual than more sophisticated goals (e.g., passing a physical ability test). According to Sheeran (2001), several factors related to control are important in influencing whether an individual acts upon his or her intention to perform a behavior. These factors include the extent to which the
individual has enough knowledge of the target behavior, whether or not he or she has the ability to perform the behavior, the amount of resources necessary for the behavior that the individual has, and whether or not he or she has the opportunity.

Since it is generally not feasible to determine the amount of actual control over a behavior or a goal, perceived control is generally used as a proxy variable (Sheeran, 2001). In fact, perceived behavioral control is one of the focal constructs of the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991). According to the theory of planned behavior, perceived behavioral control is likely to have both an indirect and a direct effect on behavior (Armitage & Conner, 2001). First, perceived behavioral control may influence whether or not individuals intend to perform a behavior in the first place. Second, increased feelings of control may influence the extent to which individuals are likely to spend effort through the performance of the behavior, leading to a direct relationship between intention and behavior. Perceived behavioral control is similar to self-efficacy construct, and two constructs are used interchangeably by Ajzen (1991) since both self-efficacy and perceived behavioral control pertain to the beliefs that one can successfully perform a behavior.

Although inconclusive, there is evidence suggesting that there is a stronger intention-behavior relationship when perceptions of behavioral control is high. Specifically, Armitage and Connor (2001) examined 19 studies testing the interaction of perceived behavioral control and intentions in the prediction of behavior and found that nine of those studies reported a significant interaction effect such that intentions were more likely to lead to behavior when perceptions of control were high. Similarly, in a qualitative analysis of the available studies testing whether or not perceived behavioral control moderates the intention-behavior relationship in the physical activity domain, Rhodes and Dickau (2013) found that six of the 11 studies they examined reported a significant moderation effect in the same direction as above. Given the inconclusiveness of these findings, Sheeran (2001) examined if the mean level of perceived control was associated with the extent to which control
perceptions moderated intention-behavior relationship. He found that there was a significant relationship between the proportion of participants below the mean of perceived behavioral control and the strength of the moderation ($r = .45$) such that perceptions of control were more likely to be a significant moderator when the mean level of perceived control was low. Thus, it can be said that for behaviors for which there is a low level of perceived control, the relationship between intentions and behavior is likely to be weak.

As explained above, the second stage of job search, which I termed the ‘selection’ stage, generally consists of several selection procedures applied to job applicants. Above discussion on the instrumentality of participating in a selection process as well as perceived behavioral control as a predictor of behavior suggests that when a job seeker has low level of control beliefs (i.e., low self-efficacy) over any of those procedures in the selection phase, he or she may withdraw from the applicant pool. For example, if the job applicant believes that he or she is not likely to pass a physical ability test, he or she may not attend the test at all. This is because high uncertainty regarding the outcome of a selection process in the form of low self-efficacy (i.e., low perceived behavioral control) may lower the instrumentality of the act of participating in the selection test; and according to the expectancy theory, this may lead an applicant to not pursue the job opportunity after the initial application. Thus, it can be said that for those individuals who make an initial application to a job (i.e., those who demonstrated an intention to pursue the job opportunity), higher self-efficacy regarding the selection procedures is related with an increased likelihood of staying in the applicant pool. Accordingly, I hypothesize the following:

*Hypothesis 8: Self-efficacy regarding the selection hurdles is negatively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process.*

1.6.4. Applicant Conscientiousness

One final variable which may influence the extent to which applicants are likely to withdraw from the recruiting process is job-seeker conscientiousness.
Conscientiousness includes competence, order, dutifulness, achievement striving, self-discipline, and deliberation as its facets (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Through higher levels of order and self-discipline, job-seekers higher in conscientiousness may be more likely to follow a planned course of action and behave according to their initial intentions of participating in a selection procedure, compared to those lower in conscientiousness.

Evidence for the importance of conscientiousness in withdrawal behavior comes from studies examining the antecedents of applicant withdrawal from the selection process. Specifically, in studies in which the researchers contacted those who did not show up on the selection day and asked for their reasons for withdrawal, one answer that is frequently provided relates to problems with self-discipline and thus a lack of conscientiousness. For example, Schmit and Ryan (1997) found that a little over 4% of those who withdrew said they had either overslept, was late for exam, or felt that testing was too early in the morning. Similarly, using the same methodology as Schmit and Ryan (1997), Ployhart et al. (2002) found that the reason provided by 11% of those who withdrew was that they overslept, forgot that they needed to go to testing, or lost registration card. This clearly indicates that these applicants were lower in conscientiousness since the reasons provided for failing to participate indicate a lack of self-discipline.

Another piece of evidence regarding the potential effect of conscientiousness on applicant withdrawal comes from studies examining the moderators of the relationship between intention and behavior on a theory of planned behavior context. For example, Rhodes and Dickau (2013) found that of the seven studies investigating conscientiousness as a moderator of the intention-behavior relationship, five found a significant moderation effect such that intentions were more likely to lead to subsequent behavior when conscientiousness was high. Applying this finding to the job search and recruiting context, it is likely that job-seekers higher in conscientiousness are more likely to act upon their initial intentions during job search, and thus
participate in the selection hurdles as required by the organization. Accordingly, I hypothesize the following:

*Hypothesis 9: Applicant conscientiousness is negatively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process.*

1.7. Conceptual Overview

The extant literature on applicant withdrawal from the job application is yet inconclusive regarding the antecedents of withdrawal behavior. However, as explained above, it seems that the predictors of initial application to a job generally fail to predict applicant withdrawal behavior. To the contrary, factors unrelated to the job are frequently cited as reasons for withdrawal. The reason for this lack of relationship between predictors of initial attraction and withdrawal behavior is most likely that restriction of range in the predictors limits the size of the correlation. Specifically, since those who apply are already on the higher end of the continuum in the predictor variables, a significant relationship between these variables and applicant withdrawal is less likely to occur.

Given this lack of a relationship between predictors of initial attraction and applicant withdrawal, this study applies a different approach and examines the issue from the perspective of intention - behavior gap. Applicants who make an initial application to a job opening can be regarded as demonstrating an intention to participate in the selection procedures. However, when an applicant does not participate, an intention – behavior gap occurs. Despite intentions predicting later behavior with a good level of success and this being the major tenet of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), many researchers also argue and empirically demonstrate that there are some contingency variables which decrease the likelihood that intentions predict behavior. Accordingly, instead of using TPB as the theoretical foundation of this study, the hypotheses were built on the concept of intention-behavior gap and its predictors (see Figure 1).
Figure 1. Conceptual model which was examined in the present study.

The literatures on intention – behavior gap and job search process suggest that time interval, applicant personality, number of job alternatives, type of intentions (i.e., implementation intentions vs. goal intentions), and uncertainty regarding the selection procedures may be related with the likelihood that people will change their intentions or fail to enact their intentions. Accordingly, this study aims to examine these factors as potential predictors of applicant withdrawal. Given the large sample size required to predict withdrawal behavior (Griepentrog et al., 2012), the hypotheses of this study were tested on a sample of applicants for a large organization, namely the Turkish Army. Thus, this study also contributes to the literature on military recruitment, which increasingly proves to become a challenge for countries transitioning to or maintaining an all professional military structure (Manigart, 2005). This study has potential to provide the organizations with recommendations which will help them to reduce the number of applicants who withdraw from the job application process. By doing so, the findings of this study may increase the effectiveness and efficiency of employee recruitment by reducing the shrinkage of the applicant pool. In the next section, the methodology to be applied, including the description of the organization and the job, participants, and the measures to be used will be discussed.
CHAPTER 2

METHOD

This study was conducted on applicants for the contracted private position within Turkish Land Forces. Before the participants and measures are described, some information about the organization and the job which constitute the context of this study is given below.

2.1. Information about the Organization and the Job

Turkish Land Forces is one of the three Forces in the Turkish Armed Forces. The others are Navy and Air Force. In addition, although also a subsidiary of the Ministry of Internal Affairs during peace time, Gendarmerie and Coast Guard are also under the command of the Turkish Armed Forces in terms of military affairs. The mission of the Turkish Land Forces is given as “to carry out the tasks stated in the Constitution, laws and other legal regulations as a part of Turkish Armed Forces’ in its website (TAF, 2015a). Along with the war waged against terrorist organization PKK in the Southeastern Turkey, Turkish Land Forces currently also conducts peace support operations in Afghanistan, Bosnia, and Kosovo.

Until 2012, Turkish Land Forces employed soldiers under four general statuses. Among these, officers constitute the highest level status, followed by non-commissioned officers (NCOs). Officers are generally assigned to leadership roles while NCOs fill more technical positions. Specialist sergeants are generally employed at lower-level leadership roles such as squad leader or some other jobs which require higher levels of specialization such as tank driver or gunner. Finally, conscripts are given the lowest level positions which do not require as much specialization. In 2012, contracted private status was established, which was planned to replace some of the positions of the
conscripts requiring some level of specialization. The only difference between contracted privates and conscripts is that contracted privates may serve up to seven years, and are paid for their services. Sharing the same hierarchical level among the ranks with conscripts, the contracted private job is widely seen as a low level job and generally preferred by individuals with little employment options elsewhere.

The minimum conditions for submitting an application for the contracted private job include becoming a male Turkish citizen, being between the ages of 20 and 25, and having a primary school diploma. The recruiting process for contracted privates begins by making an online application over the Turkish Land Forces website. Next, those who apply are subjected to an initial background check using judicial records. Those who are found eligible are invited for the selection procedures and the date of selection exams is also announced in the same notification. The selection procedures involve an initial physical screening, a physical ability test, and an interview.

2.2. Participants and Procedure

2.2.1. Participants

The sample of the study consists of adult males who made an initial application for the contracted private job in the Turkish Land Forces in the month of January 2016 ($N = 5346$). All participants were men with a mean age of 21.41 years ($SD = 1.76$ years). Sixty-one percent of the participants had primary school diploma, 32% had high school diploma, 6% had completed a two-year college, and 1% had a four-year college degree or higher.

2.2.2. Procedure

Initially, an online survey which included questions measuring the independent variables of this study was made available over the Turkish Land Forces’ applicant tracking system such that those who completed their applications were invited to complete the survey which included measures of perceptions of fit, amount of information and self-efficacy regarding selection
procedures, job search behavior, emotional stability, conscientiousness, and perceptions of job alternatives (see Appendix - A). Next, on the day of their selection tests, a second survey which included items assessing perceptions of fit at Time-2 and information search intensity after the initial application was administered to those who participated. For those who did not participate, the same survey was sent online through an e-mail invitation. They were also asked to report their reason for not participating in the selection procedures (see Appendix – B).

Out of the initial 5346 applicants who completed the Time-1 survey, 1326 (25%) participated in the selection tests. Of these, 550 completed the Time-2 survey with a response rate of 41%. Among those who did not participate and thus were sent an e-mail invitation for the Time-2 survey (N = 4020), 919 couldn't be reached because of unresponsive e-mails, and of the remaining, 306 completed the Time-2 survey, resulting in a 10% response rate.

2.3. Measures

2.3.1. Time Interval

As explained above, after contracted private candidates make their initial application for the job, they are subjected to a background check. Next, a testing day is assigned to those who are found eligible after this procedure. Testing sessions are generally held once in every two months and consist of carrying out the selection procedures to the applicants for over a week. This means that the closer to the session a candidate makes his application, the waiting period is likely to be the shorter. Thus, depending on the exact time of the application, the time it takes to complete the background check, and other factors such as the overall workload of the recruiting center; the time between the application and testing day generally varies between 15 to 90 days and may be different for each applicant. Accordingly, in this study time interval is operationalized as the time between an applicant’s initial application and the day assigned for his selection tests.
2.3.2. Change in Perceptions of Fit

A three-item perceived fit scale developed for this study was used to measure perceptions of fit. Specifically, at both measurement points, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which the contracted private job is suitable for them in terms of three job characteristics including pay and benefits, type of work to be done, and working conditions (see Appendix A for the items). To measure change, the scores at Time-1 were subtracted from the scores at Time-2. Thus, a positive number indicated an increase in perceived fit while a negative number indicated a decrease. The internal consistency reliability of the fit scales were found to be .83 at Time-1 and .85 at Time-2 in the present study.

2.3.3. Employment Status

Employment status was measured by one-item asking if participants are currently employed. The item is “Are you currently employed at any job?” The variable was coded such that 0 refers to unemployed participants and 1 refers to employed individuals.

2.3.4. Emotional Stability

The emotional stability sub-scale of the BFI personality scale (John & Srivastava, 1999), translated to Turkish by Sumer and Sumer (2002), and validated by Sumer, Lajunen, and Ozkan (2005) was used to measure personality for this study. The scale was presented to participants with the phrase “I see myself as a ... person”, and the sample items for emotional stability include ‘is depressed, blue’, ‘is relaxed, handles stress well’ (reverse coded), and ‘gets nervous easily’. The response options for the Likert-type items range from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. The internal consistency reliability of the scale was .70 in this study.
2.3.5. Perceived Alternatives

Perceived alternatives was measured by the Turkish versions of two items adapted from Liden and Parsons (1986). The items were translated to Turkish for this study (see Appendix A). The first item is “What is your possibility of finding a job as good as the contracted private job?” and the response options ranged from 1 - Very Low to 5 - Very High. The second item was “How many other jobs do you think you can find as good as the contracted private job?” with response options ranging from 0 ‘None’ to 4 ‘Four or more’. The internal consistency reliability of the scale was .71 in this study.

2.3.6. Job Search Behavior

Following the job search literature (e.g., Blau, 1994), job search behavior was operationalized as a combination of job search intensity and job search effort. As explained above, job search intensity refers to the frequency with which a job seeker engages in certain behaviors related to finding a job such as sending a resume; while job search effort refers to the overall effort spent while conducting these behaviors.

Job search intensity was measured by five active job search behavior items (Blau, 1994) translated to Turkish for this study by the researcher. The items ask the frequency with which participants conducted five behaviors in the past six months. The behaviors include completing an application blank for an organization, attending a job interview, making a phone call to inquire about a job opening, sending a resume, and personally visiting an organization to inquire about a job opening. The response options are 1 = Never (0 times), 2 = Rarely (1 to 2 times), 3 = Occasionally (3 to 5 times), 4 = Frequently (6 to 9 times), and 5 = Very Frequently (at least 10 times).

Job search effort was measured by one item developed for this study. The item was “In the past month, for how long have you searched job postings?” The response options were 1 = For less than half an hour, 2 = For half an
hour, 3 = For one hour, 4 = For one to two hours, and 5 = For more than two hours.

The overall job search behavior variable was calculated by computing the mean of job search effort and job search intensity variables. The internal consistency reliability of the scale was .79 in this study.

2.3.7. Implementation Intentions

Implementation intentions measure was applied in an experimental fashion using a between-groups design. Specifically, half of the participants who were randomly selected were asked to specify the timing of certain behaviors they need to do in order to participate in the selection tests such as purchasing a ticket for traveling to the recruitment center, preparing the necessary documents, etc. The other half were asked irrelevant control questions examining the amount of information they had regarding different aspects of the contracted private job (see Appendix – A for the items). In this way, those who were asked about their specific plans regarding participating in the selection procedures are forced to think about the process, resulting in the forming of implementation intentions for these participants.

This method of implementation intention manipulation, in which those who are asked about specific plans are considered to have formed implementation intentions, is consistent with past studies examining the effect of forming implementation intentions on future behavior (e.g., Budden & Sagarin, 2007; Milne, Orbell, & Sheeran, 2002; Sheeran & Orbell, 2000). The resulting variable is a binary variable with 0 referring to a participant who has not formed implementation intentions and 1 referring to a participant who has formed implementation intentions.

2.3.8. Amount of Information

The amount of information the participants had about each selection procedure was measured with three items written for this study. The items were presented with the phrase “How much information do you have about
each of the below selection procedures?” and the selection procedures included preliminary physical examination, physical ability test, and interview. The response option ranged from 1 = “I do not know how this is conducted at all” to 5 = “I know how this is conducted very well.” The internal consistency of the scale was found to be .91 in this study.

2.3.9. Self-Efficacy about the Testing Procedures

Self-efficacy of the participants concerning each selection procedure was measured by three items written for this study. The items were presented with the phrase “Do you think you can be successful in the below selection procedures?” and the selection procedures included preliminary physical examination, physical ability test, and interview. The response option ranged from 1 = “I cannot be successful in this” to 5 = “I can definitely be successful in this.” The internal consistency of this scale was found to be .66.

2.3.10. Conscientiousness

The conscientiousness sub-scale of the BFI personality scale (John & Srivastava, 1999), translated to Turkish by Sumer and Sumer (2002), and validated by Sumer, Lajunen, and Ozkan (2005) was used to measure conscientiousness. The scale was presented to participants with the phrase “I see myself as a ... person”, and the sample items for conscientiousness include ‘does a thorough job’, ‘is a reliable worker’, and ‘is easily distracted’ (reverse coded). As in emotional stability, the response options ranged from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. The internal consistency of the scale was .76 in the present study.

2.3.11. Information Search Intensity

The extent to which applicants search for additional information and the specific sources they utilize after making an initial application was measured by six items written for this study, each assessing the frequency with which participants used a source of information to get information about the job. The sources of information in the scale included internet forums, organizational
official website run by the higher-level organization, Facebook groups, official website run by the recruiting organization, information booklets, and friends/relatives working in the organization. The response options range from 1 – I never looked into this source to 5 – I looked into this source more than once a day. This scale was used in the Time-2 survey only. The overall information search intensity was calculated by getting the mean of the responses for each specific source of information. The internal consistency reliability of the scale was found to be .79 in this study.

2.3.12. Withdrawal Status

The information regarding whether or not the applicants withdrew from the recruitment process after initial application was obtained from the recruiting center. Specifically, those who participated in the selection procedures were coded as 1 = Present, and those who did not participate were coded as 0 = Absent.

2.3.13. Self-Reported Reason for Withdrawal

In the Time-2 survey, those who did not participate in the selection procedures were asked one-item to investigate the self-reported reasons for their withdrawal behavior. Following the previous studies on the subject, the response options were having to go to work on the selection day, having something else to do on the selection day, losing application documents, not being able to wake up on the selection day, finding another job, deciding that the job is not a good fit, and not having intentions to participate in the first place. An ‘other’ option was also provided.
CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

The descriptive statistics for and the correlations between the variables examined in this study are presented at Table 1. As can be seen in the table, the correlations between the variables are generally in the expected direction.

3.1. Tests of the Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 stated that a decrease in the perceptions of fit after initial application would be positively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process. In order to test this hypothesis and the other hypotheses proposing a difference between the applicants who participated and those who did not, independent samples t-test was used such that withdrawal status was used as the grouping variable. The results of this analysis revealed that, supporting Hypothesis 1, there was a significant difference between changes in perceptions of fit, $t = -8.08$, $df = 466.68$, $p < .001$, $d = .60$, with equal variances not being assumed. The mean level of change in perceptions of fit was $-.34$ ($SD = .92$) for those who did not participate in the selection tests and $.13$ ($SD = .63$) for those who participated.

In addition to the hypothesis, the relationship between applicant withdrawal and perceptions of fit at two time points were analyzed separately in an exploratory fashion. The results of these analyses revealed that, the most predictive of applicant withdrawal was fit perceptions at Time-2, which was measured at the time of the selection tests for those who participated and soon after they failed to participate for the non-participant group. The correlation between fit perceptions at Time-2 and applicant withdrawal was $r = .38$. This is a much stronger correlation than the relationship between fit perceptions at Time-1 and withdrawal behavior, which was $r = .07$. 
Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for and Correlations among the Variables Examined in This Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Time Interval</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Change in Perceptions of Fit</td>
<td>.070*</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Employment Status</td>
<td>-.008</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Emotional Stability</td>
<td>-.046**</td>
<td>-.084*</td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Perceived Alternatives</td>
<td>.029*</td>
<td>-.028</td>
<td>.045**</td>
<td>-.069**</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Job Search Behavior</td>
<td>.047**</td>
<td>-.017</td>
<td>-.173**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-.129**</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Implementation Intentions</td>
<td>-.008</td>
<td>-.058</td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>-.021</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Information about the Testing</td>
<td>-.091**</td>
<td>-.102**</td>
<td>.027*</td>
<td>.197**</td>
<td>-.004</td>
<td>.060**</td>
<td>-.007</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Self-Efficacy about the Testing</td>
<td>-.028*</td>
<td>-.080*</td>
<td>-.009</td>
<td>.198**</td>
<td>-.016</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>-.002</td>
<td>.252**</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Conscientiousness</td>
<td>-.028*</td>
<td>-.118**</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.664**</td>
<td>-.047**</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>-.006</td>
<td>.191**</td>
<td>.207**</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Information Search Intensity</td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>.108**</td>
<td>-.058</td>
<td>.129**</td>
<td>-.046</td>
<td>.138**</td>
<td>-.002</td>
<td>.135**</td>
<td>.114**</td>
<td>.119**</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Withdrawal Status</td>
<td>-.216**</td>
<td>.293**</td>
<td>.040**</td>
<td>.066**</td>
<td>-.105**</td>
<td>-.018</td>
<td>.033*</td>
<td>.092**</td>
<td>.063**</td>
<td>.062**</td>
<td>.186**</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean                | 51.81 | -.04 | .45  | 4.13 | 2.16 | 1.95 | .50  | 3.29 | 2.76 | 4.41 | 3.17 | .25 |
Standard Deviation  | 19.77 | .78  | .50  | .60  | 1.03 | .96  | .50  | 1.14 | .37  | .53  | .90  | .43 |

Note. The values in the diagonal represent the Cronbach’s Alpha statistics. Time interval was measured in days. Employment status, implementation intentions, and withdrawal status were binary variables (0 or 1). Other variables were measured via Likert-type scales (1-5).

* p < .05,    ** p < .01
When perceptions of fit at Time-2 are compared for the participant and the non-participant group, there is a highly significant difference, $t = -10.34, df = 418$. The mean level of fit for the participant group is $M = 4.52, SD = .51$, whereas the mean level of fit for the applicants who withdrew from the process is $M = 3.94, SD = .90$. When the mean levels of fit at Time-1 are compared for the participant and the non-participant group, although significant, the difference is much smaller than at Time-2, $t = -5.47, df = 5344$, with the mean level of fit for the participant being $M = 4.40 (SD = .57)$ and for the non-participant group $M = 4.30 (SD = .59)$.

Hypothesis 2a stated that there would be a positive relationship between time interval and the extent to which applicants would withdraw. In order to test the possibility of an association, an independent samples $t$-test was conducted such that participation status was used as the grouping variable and time interval was used as the independent variable. The results revealed that there was a significant difference, $t = 16.00, df = 2265.74, p < .001, d = .51$, not assuming equal variances. The mean time interval for the non-participant group was $M = 54.27, SD = 19.27$ whereas the mean for the participant group was $M = 44.45, SD = 19.40$.

Hypothesis 2b suggested that the relationship between time interval and withdrawal would be stronger for unemployed participants as compared to employed participants. In order to examine this, a moderated logistic regression analysis was conducted using the process macro by Hayes (2008). The results of the analysis revealed that the interaction term was not significant, $\beta = .00, p = .497$, leading to the rejection of Hypothesis 2b.

Hypothesis 3a stated that change in perceptions of fit would partially mediate the relationship between time interval and applicant withdrawal. First, in order to examine the first requirement of a mediation effect, the relationship between time interval and change in perceptions of fit was examined (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The correlation coefficient between the change in perceptions of fit and the time interval variable was significant, $r = .07, p < .05$, suggesting that longer time intervals were related with an increase in the perceptions of fit.
However, this relationship was in the opposite direction than expected. It is likely that this was the result of a methodological artifact. Specifically, some of the applicants who completed the Time-1 survey and participated in the selection tests could not be administered the Time-2 survey because their testing day was earlier than the rest of the participants. However, those who did not participate were invited to the Time-2 survey and some of them (N = 99) participated. These individuals had shorter time intervals (M = 28.04, SD = 5.71), and higher levels of decrease in perceptions of fit (M = -.25, SD = .91), than the remaining participants in the Time-2 survey. It is likely that the inclusion of these individuals in the analyses resulted in an uneven influence on the results, leading to a significant positive relationship between time interval and change in perceptions of fit. In fact, when these individuals are not included in the analysis, the correlation between time interval and change in perceptions is no longer significant, r = -.02, p = .554. This finding suggests that the first requirement of a mediation effect was not met, leading to the rejection of Hypothesis 3a.

Hypothesis 3b stated that the relationship between time interval and decrease in perceived fit would be moderated by information search intensity after making the initial application. This interaction term was tested using the process macro by Hayes (2008). The analysis revealed that the interaction term was non-significant, β = .00, p = .346, leading to the rejection of the hypothesis. This suggests that at all levels of the amount of information search after the initial application, the effect of time interval on the changes in perceived fit is similar and non-significant.

Research Question 1 asked if the source of information used after making an initial application influenced the direction of change in the perceptions of fit. In order to examine this, correlation coefficients between the extent to which participants used each source and the change in perceptions of fit were calculated (see Table 2).
Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics for and Correlations between the Sources of Information and Change in Perceptions of Fit*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Internet Forums</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Official Organizational Website - 1</td>
<td>.588**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Facebook Groups</td>
<td>.420**</td>
<td>.326**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Official Organizational Website - 2</td>
<td>.618**</td>
<td>.589**</td>
<td>.293**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Information Booklet</td>
<td>.573**</td>
<td>.496**</td>
<td>.257**</td>
<td>.720**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Friends Working in the Organization</td>
<td>.256**</td>
<td>.257**</td>
<td>.307**</td>
<td>.264**</td>
<td>.302**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Change in Perceptions of Fit</td>
<td>.072*</td>
<td>.075*</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.096**</td>
<td>.097**</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean                          3.44  3.14  2.45  3.72  3.61  2.53  -.04
Standard Deviation            1.17  1.24  1.46  1.07  1.11  1.44  .78

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

The results revealed that an increased use of four of the sources examined in the study was associated with a positive change in perceptions of fit. Specifically, the correlation between change and using internet forums was \( r = .07, \ p < .05 \), using the higher-level website was \( r = .08, \ p < .05 \), recruiting organization’s official website was \( r = .10, \ p < .01 \), and using the information booklet about the job was \( r = .10, \ p < .01 \). Although not very strong, these correlations indicate that searching for more information about the job after making an initial application using these sources was associated with an increase in perceived fit. Examining the usage patterns at the descriptive level, it was found that the applicants reported using recruiting organization’s official
website the most, followed by the information booklet, internet forums, and the higher-level organization’s official website. The applicants reported relatively lower usage for Facebook groups and friends in the organization. In order to compare overall usage for user-generated content (UGC) sources and organization-generated content (OGC) sources, two variables were created for each source type. A paired-samples t-test was conducted to compare if there was a significant difference between the usages of two source types. The results revealed that OGC sources were significantly more likely to be used, $t = 20.85$, $df = 816$, $p < .001$, $d = .66$. The mean usage for UGC sources was $M = 2.83$, $SD = 1.03$ while the mean usage for OGC sources was $M = 3.49$, $SD = .98$.

Hypothesis 4 stated that there would be a positive relationship between applicant emotional stability and the extent to which applicants would withdraw. In order to test this hypothesis, an independent samples t-test was conducted. The results revealed that there was a significant difference, $t = -4.87$, $df = 5344$, $p < .001$, $d = .15$, assuming equal variances. The mean emotional stability for the non-participant group was $M = 4.11$, $SD = .61$ whereas the mean for the participant group was $M = 4.20$, $SD = .58$.

Hypothesis 5 stated that there would be a positive relationship between the extent to which applicants perceived that they had other job alternatives and withdrawal from the job application process. In order to test this hypothesis, an independent samples t-test was conducted. The results revealed that there was a significant difference, $t = 8.04$, $df = 2454.13$, $p < .001$, $d = .25$, not assuming equal variances. The mean level of perceived alternatives for the non-participant group was $M = 2.22$, $SD = 1.05$ whereas the mean for the participant group was $M = 1.97$, $SD = .96$.

Research Question 2 asked if there was a relationship between the effort and intensity of the job search behavior and the extent to which participants would perceive that they had other job alternatives. Examining Table 1, it can be seen that there is a significant negative correlation between job search behavior and perceived alternatives, $r = -.13$, $p < .01$. This result suggests that
an increased amount of job search behavior does not translate into more employment alternatives. To the contrary, more effort and intensity when looking for employment options was found to be associated with a smaller number of perceived alternatives.

Hypothesis 6 stated that applicants who formed implementation intentions would be less likely to withdraw than job seekers who did not form implementation intentions. Given both nominal independent and dependent variables, a chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relationship between implementation intentions and withdrawal status. The relationship between these variables was significant, $X^2 (1, N = 5346) = 5.87$, $p < .05, \phi = .03$. Next, in order to test the possibility that the effect of implementation intentions may have diminished over time for especially longer time intervals between initial application and administration of the selection tests, two time interval groups were created such that those who had longer time intervals than the mean were included in the longer group and those who had shorter intervals were included in the shorter group. Running the chi-square test of independence separately for long and short interval groups, it was found that time interval influenced the effect of implementation intentions on withdrawal behavior. Specifically, while the association was non-significant for long interval group, $X^2 (1, N = 3287) = .32, p = .579$; there was a significant relationship between forming implementation intentions and applicant withdrawal for relatively shorter time intervals, $X^2 (1, N = 2059) = 7.80, p < .01, \phi = .06$. Thus, these results indicate that when the time interval is relatively short, those who formed implementation intentions were less likely to withdraw. Overall, these results support Hypothesis 6.

Hypothesis 7 stated that the amount of information an applicant has about the testing procedures would be negatively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process. In order to test this hypothesis, an independent samples t-test was conducted. The results revealed that there was a significant difference, $t = -6.73, df = 5344, p < .001, d = .21$, assuming equal variances. The mean level of information about testing procedures for the non-
participant group was $M = 3.23$, $SD = 1.14$ whereas the mean for the participant group was $M = 3.47$, $SD = 1.12$. These results indicate that applicants who had more information about the testing procedures were less likely to withdraw from the application process, supporting the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 8 stated that the amount of self-efficacy an applicant has about the testing procedures would be negatively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process. In order to test this hypothesis, an independent samples t-test was conducted. The results revealed that there was a significant difference, $t = -4.85$, $df = 2495.78$, $p < .001$, $d = .17$, not assuming equal variances. The mean level of self-efficacy about testing procedures for the non-participant group was $M = 2.74$, $SD = .38$ whereas the mean for the participant group was $M = 2.80$, $SD = .34$. These results indicated that applicants who had more self-efficacy about the testing procedures were less likely to withdraw from the application process, supporting the hypothesis.

One factor which may have influenced this relationship may be the relatively low reliability of the self-efficacy scale ($a = .66$). The reason for this low reliability can be that the scale examines self-efficacy for physical procedures with two items and a mental procedure (i.e., the interview) with one item. It is possible that applicants have higher levels of self-efficacy for physical screening but lower levels of self-efficacy for mental procedures, or vice versa. In fact, when examined at the item level, the mean level of self-efficacy reported by applicants for the interview ($M = 2.68$, $SD = .51$) is significantly lower than both physical screening ($M = 2.78$, $SD = .48$, $t = 13.03$, $p < .001$, $d = .20$) and physical ability test ($M = 2.81$, $SD = .44$, $t = 18.88$, $p < .001$, $d = .27$). Thus, in order to examine this possibility, a new self-efficacy variable was created which included only the items with physical content, and the remaining item was left as the indicator of self-efficacy for mental procedures. The mean comparisons with the new variables revealed that the largest mean difference was observed for the interview, $M_{diff} = .068$, compared to physical ($M_{diff} = .046$) and overall self-efficacy ($M_{diff} = .053$) between those who participated and
those who did not. The resulting correlations were \( r = .05 \) for physical procedures and \( r = .06 \) for mental procedures. Using the Fisher \( r \)-to-\( z \) transformation, the difference between correlation coefficients was non-significant, \( z = .52, p = .603 \).

Finally, Hypothesis 9 stated that applicant conscientiousness would be negatively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process. In order to test this hypothesis, an independent samples t-test was conducted. The results revealed that there was a significant difference, \( t = -4.68, df = 2357.24, p < .001, d = .13 \), not assuming equal variances. The mean level of conscientiousness for the non-participant group was \( M = 4.39, SD = .53 \) whereas the mean for the participant group was \( M = 4.46, SD = .51 \). These results indicated that applicants who were higher in conscientiousness were less likely to withdraw from the application process, supporting the hypothesis.

To summarize, it was found that change in perceptions of fit, information search intensity, emotional stability, conscientiousness, and the amount of information and self-efficacy regarding selection procedures all had negative relationships with applicant withdrawal; and time interval and perceived alternatives had positive relationships. It was also found that those who had formed implementation intentions were less likely to withdraw. Thus, most of the hypotheses of this study are supported (see Appendix – C for a summary of the findings).

3.2. Additional Analyses

In the Time-2 survey, those who did not participate in the selection tests were asked about the reasons for their withdrawal. During the analysis phase, the open-ended responses written by the participants who had selected the ‘other’ option were also analyzed and classified into either one of the existing response options or newly created categories by two independent raters. The two raters agreed on the vast majority of the cases (97%), and the remaining cases were agreed upon after discussions on each. The self-reported reasons provided for the withdrawal behavior by applicants, in order of frequency, were
having to go to work on the selection day (38%), having something else to do on the selection day (20%), losing or not being able to complete the application documents (11%), deciding that the job was not a good fit (10%), learning that they did not have the physical requirements for the job after making the application (10%), financial problems (9%), not getting the invitation for the selection procedures (8%), family not allowing to participate (5%), and finding another job (4%). These findings largely overlap with previous studies which examined self-reported reasons for withdrawal from job application (e.g., Ployhart et al., 2002; Ryan et al., 2000; Schmidt & Ryan, 1997).

In an exploratory fashion, the correlations between the variables examined in this study and their descriptive statistics were examined separately for those who did not participate in the selection procedures (see Table 3) and those who did (see Table 4). Notable differences were that for the non-participant group, the relationship between time interval and change in perceptions of fit was no longer significant, the relationship between conscientiousness and change in perceptions of fit was non-significant, there was a significant negative correlation between time interval and information search intensity, emotional stability was not related with change in perceptions of fit, and information search intensity was no longer related with change in perceptions of fit.

For the participant group, change in perceptions of fit was again not related with time interval, the relationship between emotional stability and change in perceptions of fit was stronger than the full sample but in the same direction (i.e., negative), and the relationship between conscientiousness and change in perceptions of fit was also stronger than the full sample but in the same direction (i.e., negative).
Table 3

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for the Non-Participant Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Time Interval</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Change in Perceptions of Fit</td>
<td>-.097</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Employment Status</td>
<td>-.001</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Emotional Stability</td>
<td>-.041*</td>
<td>-.064</td>
<td>-.029</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Perceived Alternatives</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>-.012</td>
<td>.062**</td>
<td>-.056**</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Job Search Behavior</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>-.031</td>
<td>.187**</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>-.135**</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Implementation Intentions</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>-.114*</td>
<td>-.007</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.032*</td>
<td>-.025</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Information about the Testing</td>
<td>-.067**</td>
<td>-.139*</td>
<td>-.045**</td>
<td>.181**</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.054**</td>
<td>-.007</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Self-Efficacy about the Testing</td>
<td>-.012</td>
<td>-.132*</td>
<td>-.002</td>
<td>.199**</td>
<td>-.003</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.256**</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Conscientiousness</td>
<td>-.028</td>
<td>-.110</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.662**</td>
<td>-.036*</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>-.006</td>
<td>.182**</td>
<td>.208**</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Information Search Intensity</td>
<td>-.175**</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>-.067</td>
<td>.131*</td>
<td>-.061</td>
<td>.138*</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.169**</td>
<td>.136*</td>
<td>.123*</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Withdrawal Status</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean: 54.28, 0.34, 0.44, 4.11, 2.22, 1.96, 0.49, 3.23, 2.74, 4.39, 2.94, 0.00

Standard Deviation: 19.27, 0.92, 0.50, 0.61, 1.05, 0.97, 0.50, 1.14, 0.38, 0.53, 1.00, 0.00

Note. The values in the diagonal represent the Cronbach’s Alpha statistics. Time interval was measured in days. Employment status, implementation intentions, and withdrawal status were binary variables (0 or 1). Other variables were measured via Likert-type scales (1-5).

* p < .05,  ** p < .01
Table 4
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for the Participant Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Time Interval</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Change in Perceptions of Fit</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Employment Status</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Emotional Stability</td>
<td>-.016</td>
<td>-.155**</td>
<td>-.011</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Perceived Alternatives</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>-.086**</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Job Search Behavior</td>
<td>.086**</td>
<td>-.038</td>
<td>-.127**</td>
<td>-.018</td>
<td>.086**</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Implementation Intentions</td>
<td>-.060*</td>
<td>-.033</td>
<td>-.074**</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>-.049</td>
<td>-.004</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Information about the Testing</td>
<td>-.091**</td>
<td>-.114**</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.231**</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.085**</td>
<td>-.017</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Self-Efficacy about the Testing</td>
<td>-.024</td>
<td>-.096*</td>
<td>-.046</td>
<td>.181**</td>
<td>-.035</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>-.031</td>
<td>.220**</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Conscientiousness</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>-.178**</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.665**</td>
<td>-.056*</td>
<td>-.005</td>
<td>-.013</td>
<td>.202**</td>
<td>.189**</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Information Search Intensity</td>
<td>-.004</td>
<td>.093*</td>
<td>-.043</td>
<td>.107*</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>.126**</td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>.105*</td>
<td>.076</td>
<td>.099*</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Withdrawal Status</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean

<p>| | | | | | | | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44.45</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standard Deviation

<p>| | | | | | | | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19.40</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. The values in the diagonal represent the Cronbach's Alpha statistics. Time interval was measured in days. Employment status, implementation intentions, and withdrawal status were binary variables (0 or 1). Other variables were measured via Likert-type scales (1-5).

* p < .05,  ** p < .01
After examining the individual links hypothesized in the study, a path analysis was conducted in Lisrel v.9.2 to test the proposed model in full (see Figure 1). Since some of the variables were only available for the sub-sample which participated in the Time-2 survey, the model was tested on this sub-sample only ($N = 856$). For two missing cases on the information search intensity variable (and its product term with time interval variable to test the moderation), mean replacement was used. Finally, in order to keep the model parsimonious, not the observed variables (i.e., survey items) but the measured variables (i.e., measured constructs) were used in the model. The results of the analysis revealed that the model fit was good (see Figure 2). The model fit statistics were $X^2 = 62.07$, $df = 10$, RMSEA = .08 (90% CI = .06 - .10), CFI = .99, NFI = .99, AGFI = .90. These findings indicate that the variables examined in this study can be used together to explain withdrawal behavior.

Figure 2. Results of the path model.

After establishing that the study variables could be used to predict withdrawal status, a logistic regression analysis was conducted to examine the usefulness of each predictor in the presence of others. The results of the
analysis revealed that the overall model was statistically significant, \( \chi^2 = 263.41, df = 10, p < .001 \). The percentage of the cases correctly classified was 64.2\% in the null model, which increased to 77.4\% after the addition of the variables in the model. An examination at the predictor level revealed that in the presence of other variables, only time interval, change in perceptions of fit, perceived alternatives, and information search intensity were significant predictors of withdrawal behavior, see Table-5.

Table 5

Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Withdrawal Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE(B)</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time Interval</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>95.326</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in Perceptions of Fit</td>
<td>1.032</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>64.497</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>2.807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment Status</td>
<td>-.202</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>1.395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.238</td>
<td>.817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.188</td>
<td>1.322</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.250</td>
<td>1.241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Alternatives</td>
<td>-.329</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>15.618</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation Intentions</td>
<td>.300</td>
<td>.172</td>
<td>3.043</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.081</td>
<td>1.349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information about the Testing</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>.080</td>
<td>.741</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.389</td>
<td>1.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy about the Testing</td>
<td>.386</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>2.504</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.114</td>
<td>1.471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>.179</td>
<td>.224</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.423</td>
<td>1.196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Search Intensity</td>
<td>.454</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td>20.448</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.575</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Time interval was measured in days. Employment status and implementation intentions were binary variables (0 or 1). Other variables were measured via Likert-type scales (1-5).
CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

4.1. Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to examine the predictors of applicant withdrawal from the job application process in a military context. To this end, this study utilized the concept of intention-behavior gap as its theoretical framework, with the assumption that making an application to a job indicates existence of an initial intention to pursue the job opportunity, and later withdrawal behavior demonstrates a failure to enact those intentions. Results suggested that change in perceptions of fit, information search intensity after initial application, applicant emotional stability and conscientiousness, and the amount of information and self-efficacy regarding selection procedures all had negative relationships with applicant withdrawal; whereas time interval after the application and perceived alternatives had positive relationships. Type of intentions (goal vs. implementation intentions) also predicted applicant withdrawal such that those who had formed implementation intentions were less likely to withdraw. In addition, self-reported reasons for withdrawal were also examined, which included scheduling conflicts, issues regarding application documents (i.e., losing or not being able to complete), deciding that the job was not suitable, not having some of the requirements for the job, not being able to travel because of financial problems, not receiving the invitation for the tests, family not allowing to participate, and finding another job. As the first study which examined intention-behavior gap in a recruitment context, these results indicate that predictors of intention behavior gap can be successfully used to predict applicant withdrawal from a job application process.
The first hypothesis tested in this study examined if applicant withdrawal could be predicted by the level of decrease in perceptions of fit after making the initial application. The results confirmed this hypothesis. This finding is in fact consistent with the previous literature on the predictors of job choice, which suggests that perceptions of fit are likely to change throughout the recruitment process (Swider et al., 2015), and that initial levels of perceptions of fit may not be a good predictor of later job choice behavior (Chapman et al., 2005). Specifically, Chapman and colleagues found that while the correlation between perceived fit and job pursuit intentions was very strong, the relationship between perceived fit and job choice was non-significant. Among other potential explanations, these authors proposed that this attenuation of correlation coefficients could be due to a range restriction in the predictor variable, occurring as a result of voluntary withdrawal by those who perceived lower levels of fit with the job opportunity. The results of this study provide a direct test of this proposition, and confirm the possibility that those who experience lower levels of fit actually self-select out of the process. In addition, in accordance with Swider and colleagues (2015), the findings of this study confirm the proposition that perceptions of fit evolve over time, and not the initial level of perceived fit, but the perceived fit at the time closest to the behavioral outcome is useful in predicting job choice decisions.

Hypothesis 2a suggested that there would be a positive relationship between time interval and the extent to which applicants would withdraw. The results confirmed this hypothesis as time interval was a highly significant predictor of withdrawal status. This is in fact not surprising and congruent with the previous literature on the issue (e.g., Arvey et al., 1975; Schreurs et al., 2009). It is likely that as the time interval between the initial application and selection tests gets longer, applicants may find other jobs, their perceptions of fit may change, other occurrences which make the job no longer desirable may be more likely, or simply the frustration stemming from the long wait may result in withdrawing from the applicant pool. Future research should examine potential mechanisms linking time interval to applicant withdrawal using more advanced methodologies. One promising methodology can be taking multiple
measurements between the application and the selection tests and applying growth curve modeling to estimate the complex nature of the relationship between the constructs.

Hypothesis 2b suggested that the relationship between time interval and withdrawal status would be stronger for unemployed participants as compared to employed participants. The reasoning behind this hypothesis was that unemployed individuals would be in pressing need to find a job as quickly as possible, and this would potentially lead them to accept another job offer during the time interval between the application and the selection procedures. The results of the moderated logistic regression analysis did not confirm this expectation as the relationship was equally strong for both employed and unemployed individuals. One explanation for this finding can be that since unemployed individuals are less employable than employed individuals in the first place, they may be obliged to stay in the applicant pool even in case of longer time intervals. Indirect support for this proposition comes from the study by Griepentrog et al. (2012), who found that employed individuals were more likely to withdraw from the applicant pool than unemployed applicants in their sample.

In order to test the possibility that there would be a difference between employability levels, an independent samples t-test was conducted in which perceived alternatives was compared for employed and unemployed applicants. This comparison is meaningful because the extent to which applicants perceive that they have other alternatives is likely to influence whether or not they will stay in the applicant pool, as indicated by the negative correlation between perceived alternatives and withdrawal status variables. The results of the analysis revealed that, consistent with the expectations, unemployed individuals reported having significantly less alternatives than employed individuals, $t = -3.27$, $df = 5031$, $p < .01$. Thus, it is possible that this lower employability may have forced unemployed applicants to stay in the applicant pool at comparable rates to employed applicants; even in the case of a longer time interval between the initial application and the selection tests.
Hypothesis 3a was that the relationship between time interval and applicant withdrawal was partially mediated by change in perceptions of fit. However, this hypothesis was not supported as the results revealed that there was not a relationship between time interval and change in perceptions of fit, failing to satisfy the first requirement of a mediation effect. A potential explanation for this null finding can be that the type of the job and the overall socio-economic status profile of the applicants may influence the effect of time interval on perceptions of fit. Specifically, for higher level jobs which attract individuals with higher education levels, frustration stemming from long waiting periods after making the application may lead to a decrease in perceptions of fit. However, it may be that for low level jobs which attract individuals from lower social classes, shorter durations may not be an expectation in the first place.

In addition, the job examined in this study was in the public sector, and therefore the fact that the employer was a state organization might have contributed to this effect. Potential evidence for this explanation comes from Rynes et al. (1991), who found that there were some contingency variables which limited the signaling value of negative recruiting experiences and reduced the likelihood that they led to withdrawal behavior. One such contingency variable was prior knowledge of the organization. Accordingly, given the fact that the recruiting organization in this study was a public sector employer widely known by all applicants, it is possible that longer delays were not interpreted as negative signals about the organization. Future research should examine this potential moderation by job type and prior knowledge about the organization in the relationship between time interval and change in perceptions of fit.

Another potential explanation can be that since the change variable was obtained by calculating the difference between fit scores at Time-2 and Time-1, it is likely that a large amount of variance was lost. This may have contributed to the null relationship between time interval and change in perceptions of fit. In addition, another potential reason for the possibility of a small variance in the change in perceptions of fit has to do with the specific job examined in this study. Specifically, since the participants were applicants
for a low-level military job, the job may have largely attracted individuals of a certain type who are inclined to serve in the armed forces. This may have resulted in relatively stable perceptions of fit, leading to a little variance in the change variable.

Hypothesis 3b was that the relationship between time interval and change on perceptions of fit would be moderated by information search intensity. The results of the analysis revealed that there was not a significant interaction effect. The findings that there is not a relationship between time interval and change in perceptions of fit, and that there is no moderation by information search intensity can be explained by the tenets of a decision-making model of job choice. Specifically, Soelberg (1967) proposed that at some point when looking for jobs, an implicit choice is made and people stop actually seeking to generate new job opportunities. However, since this choice is implicit, they still seemingly search for other options and do not stop their job searches. Given the sample of this study consisted of individuals who have made an application to a job, it is likely that most of the participants had made their implicit choices by the time they made their applications (and therefore when they completed the survey). In accordance with Soelberg (1967), any search for information at this stage is likely to be mostly confirmatory, so it is in fact not surprising that information search intensity does not moderate the relationship between time interval and change in perceptions of fit.

The first research question examined if there was a relationship between the source of information used after making the application and change in perceptions of fit. The emphasis was especially on comparing the organization-affiliated sources and sources which housed word-of-mouth information. The results did not confirm these expectations as there was no difference between sources of information in terms of the direction of change in perceptions of fit resulting from increased usage. Instead, more use was associated with more positive change in perceptions of fit for each of the sources, regardless of the type of content (UGC vs. OGC) hosted by the source. It looks like the effect worked through a different mechanism.
Specifically, it seems that those who were more inclined to participate in the selection procedures were more likely to use those sources of information to learn more about the job and the selection procedures. This explanation is also congruent with Soelberg’s (1967) model, which posits that information search after making an implicit choice is mostly confirmatory.

When the mean levels of usage was compared among the sources, it was found that there was a preference towards OGC sources as indicated by higher means for usage variables. Although not directly examined in this study, based on the findings in the literature (e.g., Kiousis, 2001) these results indicate that applicants find the sources hosting OGC credible. In fact, these results are consistent with recent literature on the issue. Specifically, in an unpublished thesis, Acikgoz (2013) found that job applicants were more likely to prefer using organization-generated content when looking for information about a job opportunity, potentially as a result of higher expertise ascribed to organization-affiliated sources of information. Thus, these results replicate the finding by Acikgoz (2013) and suggest that organizations’ efforts regarding providing information about job openings on their websites is well-justified.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that there would be a positive relationship between applicant emotional stability and the extent to which applicants would withdraw, and the results of the analyses confirmed this expectation. Emotional stability is an important variable in the employment context because it is one of the variables which have been found to influence job performance in a positive way. For example, in their meta-analysis of 15 prior meta-analyses, Barrick, Mount, and Judge (2001) found that emotional stability was a valid predictor of job performance across jobs. Therefore, the results observed in the present study suggests that not all withdrawal from the applicant pool is detrimental for the recruiting organization. Despite its negative effect on the amount of applicants organizations can choose from, given the finding that applicants with lower levels of emotional stability are more likely to withdraw, it seems that at least some of the applicants who are
lost at this stage would have been low performers, had they participated in the selection tests and were hired eventually.

Hypothesis 5 suggested that there would be a positive relationship between the extent to which applicants perceived that they had other job alternatives and withdrawal behavior. The results of the analyses confirmed this hypothesis. As explained above, the job examined in this study was a low-level job and therefore it is not surprising that those who perceived that they had other job alternatives were more likely to withdraw from the applicant pool. However, regardless of the job level, having the perception that one has many job alternatives can be seen as an indicator of perceived employability, and recent research suggests that perceived employability can be used as a resource to gain a better employment situation under certain conditions (Cuyper, Makikangas, Kinnunen, Mauno, & Witte, 2012) such as having a low level of commitment to the organization (Acikgoz, Sumer, & Sumer, 2016). In support of this proposition, Acikgoz et al. (2016) found that affective commitment moderated the relationship between perceived employability and employees’ turnover intentions such that there was a stronger and positive relationship when affective commitment was low. Therefore, it is plausible that applicants with more perceived alternatives are more likely to withdraw from the job application process.

On the other hand, there is another potential mechanism which may have lowered the relationship between perceived alternatives and applicant withdrawal. As explained above, since this study examined a low-level military position, it is possible that the job may have attracted individuals who were especially inclined towards military. Thus, as would be expected from such an applicant profile, some of the participants may have chosen to stay in the applicant pool regardless of the number of other employment options they had or perceived to have. This may have influenced the observed relationship between perceived alternatives and applicant withdrawal. Accordingly, future research examining job seeker behavior in a military context should also
evaluate inclination towards military positions as another potential predictor of applicant withdrawal.

The second research question in this study asked if there was a relationship between job search behavior and the extent to which participants would perceive that they had other job alternatives. This was set up as a research question because there were justifications available for both a positive and a negative relationship. The correlation between job search behavior and perceived alternatives was significant and negative in the current study. That is, those who search for jobs with more effort and intensity reported lower levels of perceived alternatives. Of course, it is important to note that this is a mere correlation and since both variables were measured at Time-1, it is not possible to claim any causality. However, given the characteristics of the sample (i.e., lower socio-economic status individuals applying for a low-level job) and the logical ordering of the variables, the negative correlation coefficient between job search behavior and perceived alternatives in this current sample suggests that for individuals with lower socio-economic statuses, having a smaller number of perceived alternatives may lead to an increased effort in searching for jobs.

On the other hand, it is possible that for higher level white collar jobs, the chronological order of the variables and the direction of the relationship may be reversed such that spending more effort and intensity when searching for jobs may lead to having more alternatives. In fact, when the methodology applied in Saks (2006) is examined with a bit more scrutiny, it can be seen that the participants in that study were senior level undergraduate business students, who clearly would have gone after higher level jobs than the job examined in this study. Thus, one implication of this finding is that future research should examine participants from and jobs appealing to varying levels of socio-economic statuses and examine this potential moderation effect by job type and participants’ characteristics in the relationship between job search behavior and perceived alternatives.
The sixth hypothesis of this study proposed that applicants who formed implementation intentions would be less likely to withdraw than those who did not form implementation intentions. The results of chi-square analyses confirmed the hypothesis as participants who had formed implementation intentions during the Time-1 survey were more likely to participate in the selection tests than those who did not. However, although significant, the effect size was very small. One reason for this small effect size may be that in the context of participating in the selection procedures, there are many other potentially much more salient reasons for why an applicant would withdraw. As explained above, the mechanism through which implementation intentions are thought to be effective is by increasing the accessibility of the behavior in people's memories. Since the behavior examined in this study (i.e., participating in the selection tests for a job to which one has applied) was most likely already very accessible in many applicants' memories, it is no surprise that the effect size was small. However, the existence of an effect, regardless of the size, means that organizations may still benefit from using implementation intentions as part of their recruiting efforts given the low cost of the application.

Another potential reason for why the effect size was very small in this study can be that the mean time interval between the intention and the behavior was very long. Since implementation intentions are thought to work by increasing the accessibility of the behavior in memory, it is possible that this effect may diminish over time, resulting in implementation intentions not being effective over longer time intervals. In fact, support for this possibility comes from a meta-analysis by Webb and Sheeran (2006), who examined the contingency variables influencing the effectiveness of implementation intentions. These researchers found that a change in intentions had a greater impact on behavior ($d = .46$) when the time interval was shorter (i.e., lower than the median value) compared to when it was longer ($d = .23$). Thus, in order to test this possibility, two time-interval groups were created such that those who had time intervals lower than the mean was assigned into the short interval group and the others were assigned to the long interval group. The results confirmed
that implementation intentions were much more effective for shorter intervals compared to longer intervals as the effect was no longer significant for the long interval group and the effect size was larger than the overall sample for the short-interval group. Although still a small effect, the effect size for the shorter interval group was two times that of the overall sample.

The seventh hypothesis proposed that the amount of information an applicant had about the testing procedures would be negatively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process. The results confirmed this hypothesis as a significant association was observed between having more information about the selection procedures and staying in the applicant pool. However, one caveat of the correlation coefficients is that they do not say anything about the direction of the causal mechanism, and given the study design and length constraints of the survey, it was not possible to obtain data on other variables which could potentially influence this relationship. Playing the devil’s advocate, it is possible that there is another potential mechanism which may have led to this effect. That is, rather than having more information regarding the selection activities resulting in a decreased likelihood of withdrawal, it is also possible that another variable such as an increased desire to get the job and thus more serious intentions to participate in the first place may be resulting in applicants both seeking more information and participating in the selection tests. Unfortunately, even though this study takes an important first step and shows that there is an association between amount of information and withdrawal status, the data is not available to more deeply examine the mechanisms underlying this relationship in the current study. Future research should apply a longitudinal design such as growth modeling and take multiple measurements of amount of information in a multiple hurdle process to examine if changes in the amount of information between different hurdles influence the likelihood of participating in each hurdle. Examining this relationship on a set of hurdles with varying levels of difficulties applied at different times would ensure that the effect of an increased decisiveness at the intra-individual level would be eliminated. Future research should also take other potential extraneous variables into account to examine the pure effect
of the applicants’ amount of information about selection tests on withdrawal behavior.

The eighth hypothesis was that the amount of self-efficacy applicants have about the testing procedures would be negatively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process. The results confirmed this hypothesis and a small to moderate effect was found between higher levels of self-efficacy and lower likelihood of withdrawal. Examining the association at the item level, it was found that applicants ascribe varying levels of self-efficacy to each hurdle in a selection battery, especially when both physical and mental procedures are applied. However, the difference was not very large and the difference in associations between each type of selection procedure and withdrawal was non-significant. Of course, this effect may not generalize to other selection procedures as it does not mean that for every job and with every pool of applicants, the same pattern of results regarding self-efficacy will be observed. It is possible that for this specific selection battery, the physical procedures applied were seen as easier than the mental procedure. However, what this effect suggests is that participants ascribe varying levels of self-efficacy for each selection hurdle, and rather than the overall self-efficacy, hurdle-specific self-efficacy should be taken into account by future researchers of the issue.

The above argument regarding the potential confounding variables on the relationship between amount of information and withdrawal status is also possible for the relationship between self-efficacy and applicant withdrawal. Specifically, it is possible that those who had more serious intentions to participate in the selection procedures in the first place had spent more time preparing for the selections tests and this may have increased their levels of self-efficacy. Unfortunately, as explained above, the design of the current study does not allow for testing such a mechanism. Future research should examine the effect of self-efficacy on applicant withdrawal on a multiple hurdle selection battery.
Finally, the ninth hypothesis of this study proposed that conscientiousness would be negatively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process. The results confirmed this hypothesis as those who participated in the selection procedures had higher levels of conscientiousness than those who did not. This effect was actually expected given the extant research suggesting that problems indicating a low level of conscientiousness is frequently reported as the reason for withdrawal by some of the applicants. Thus, similar to the relationship between emotional stability and applicant withdrawal, this finding indicates that at least some of the withdrawal behavior is actually beneficial for the recruiting organization.

4.2. Theoretical and Practical Implications

This study has a number of critical implications to help advance our understanding of employee recruitment and job application processes in general and military recruitment process in particular. First, the finding that the initial level of fit is not a very strong predictor of later behavioral job choice outcomes as a result of fit perceptions changing during the job application process has important theoretical and practical implications for organizational employee recruitment. Theoretically, this finding bolsters the proposition by Swider and colleagues (2015) that perceptions of fit as a predictor of job choice decisions should not be treated as a stable variable which progresses in a linear fashion over time. Instead, applicants’ levels of perceptions of fit tend to change during the stages of employee recruitment; and more important than the initial level of perceived fit is the perceptions of fit at the time of the behavioral decision point (e.g., participating in a selection test, accepting a job offer, etc.). Accordingly, models of employee recruitment and job search should acknowledge that perceptions of fit is not a stable variable which can only be measured at one point in time, but instead changes as the applicant progresses in the job application process. A related methodological implication is that, studies examining predictors of job attraction should acknowledge that range restriction is likely to occur during the stages of recruitment, and thus apply longitudinal designs instead of cross-sectional
designs in which they take measurement of the predictors at multiple points during the job application process. In terms of practical implications of this finding, it reaffirms the importance of the way in which organizations treat their candidates during the recruitment process.

The finding that applicants are more likely to prefer organization-affiliated sources to search for information after making an application has the practical implication that organizations should maintain recruiting websites, make them easily accessible to the applicants or potential applicants, and provide a good amount of information describing the job and the selection procedures. This is also important given the finding that there is a positive relationship between searching for more information and change in perceptions of fit. This finding suggests that candidates who perceived increased levels of fit with the organization were in need of more information, and given the finding that an increase in perceptions of fit is associated with a higher likelihood of staying in the applicant pool, organizations should make a satisfactory amount of information available on the channels available to them. This should include information about the organization in general, as well as about each specific job opening such as application requirements, selection process, and compensation.

Another important finding of this study was that time interval was significantly related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process. Among those who made an application, only 25% participated, and the rate was lower for longer time intervals compared to shorter intervals. Although the underlying mechanisms were not clear in the current study, and thus no theoretical implications can be offered, practically this finding shows the importance of streamlining the job application process in such a way that the interval between steps and the overall time of recruitment is not very long. This is especially important for large organizations which tend to hire too many employees at one time. One way to achieve this can be that organizations apply multiple testing sessions spread through the recruitment period in which they test small batches of applicants and have them proceed quickly through
several steps in a job application process. Another way can be that organizations embed some pre-screening mechanisms inside their online application systems, which eliminate some of the applicants from the beginning and thus reduce the amount of applicants who proceed to the more time-consuming procedures. In fact, the self-reported reasons for withdrawal in the current study include learning that they did not have the requirements for the job after making the initial application (10%). If a pre-screening mechanism was in effect, these individuals would have been eliminated from the beginning, reducing the overall workload and facilitating shorter processing times for the recruiting center, resulting in a decreased waiting time for the applicants who are invited to the recruiting center.

One self-reported reason for not participating provided by almost half of the applicants was that they had to work or had something else to do on the selection day. This demonstrates the importance that organizations provide some flexibility to the applicants in the date in which they can take the selection tests. In the current study, 45% of the applicants were employed, and it is possible that some of these applicants were not able to take the trip to the recruiting center on the selection day. Thus, organizations should provide the applicants with a range of dates to choose from, potentially including weekends. Another self-reported reason was that 9% of the applicants reported not participating because of financial problems (not having enough resources to take the trip to the recruiting center). This is in fact consistent with the finding that inconvenience of the travel to the testing facility was an important reason for withdrawal (Baskin et al., 2014). When considered together, these two findings suggest that especially large organizations which attract applicants from a large geographical area should geographically spread their recruiting and testing facilities, and provide applicants flexibility not only in terms of the time, but also the place they would be willing to take the tests. This would reduce the amount of time required to participate in the selection tests and therefore minimize the likelihood of scheduling conflicts, and also reduce the financial burden on the applicants.
willing to participate in the selection procedures, resulting in an increased rate of participation.

The finding that emotional stability and conscientiousness were associated with applicant withdrawal contributes to the literature on intention-behavior gap by confirming the finding that those who are higher in conscientiousness are more likely to act upon their intentions (Rhodes & Dickau, 2013). However, in Rhodes and Dickau’s review, emotional stability was not found to affect the relationship between intentions and behavior. This study conflicts their findings and finds that emotional stability actually influences the likelihood that individuals are likely to act upon their intentions. However, the review by Rhodes and Dickau included studies in the physical activity domain. Since this is the first study examining intention-behavior gap in the recruitment domain, it may be that emotional stability operates in a different way. Specifically, it can be argued that people ascribe different levels of importance to the outcomes of exercising and getting a new job such that the outcomes of a new employment are more substantial in people’s lives; and this difference may result in emotional stability not acting as a moderator in the exercise domain. Future research should examine this potential moderation by the importance people ascribe to the outcomes of their behaviors in intention-behavior gap.

Practically, the finding that both emotional stability and conscientiousness are related with applicant withdrawal suggests that not all withdrawal from job application is detrimental for the organization. That is, given their lower level of conscientiousness and emotional stability, and the relationship between these variables and job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991), it seems that some of the applicants who withdrew would have been low performers if they were hired. This suggests that applicant withdrawal operates as a prescreening mechanism for applicants lower in conscientiousness and emotional stability; and therefore organizations should not apply excessive measures to make sure that all applicants participate in selection procedures.

Perceived employment alternatives was found to influence applicant withdrawal such that those who perceived to have more alternatives were
more likely to withdraw from the job application process. Although not directly asked in the current study, the applicants who reported having more alternatives can be seen as considering other employment options. Using Soelberg’s (1967) terms, for some, the job examined in this study may have been the implicit choice at the time of the Time-1 survey, and it is highly likely that these individuals were less likely to withdraw, and these individuals would be expected to report having less alternatives. However, almost certainly there were some applicants who had not had an implicit choice at the time, or had other job openings as their implicit choices. Thus, overall the finding that those who reported having more alternatives were more likely to withdraw provides indirect support for Soelberg’s (1967) model which posits that individuals evaluate several job opportunities simultaneously.

Another finding of the current study was that more job search was associated with having less alternatives. This finding contradicts the findings of the study by Saks (2006) that more job search behavior was associated with having more employment options, and highlights the importance of the type of job in examining the predictors of job search and recruitment success. Although not generally acknowledged as one, a limitation of most studies in the recruiting and job search literature is that usually only one type of applicant sample (usually a sample of graduating undergraduate or graduate students) is examined and it is assumed that the findings would generalize across job types (e.g., Brown, Cober, Kane, Levy, & Shalhoop, 2006; Saks, 2006; Turban, Stevens, & Lee, 2009). However, it is highly likely that the principles that could be applied to job seekers with lower level qualifications applying for lower level jobs are different from the principles that could be applied to individuals with more sought-after qualifications applying for higher level jobs. This finding is just one example. Specifically, it seems that for the participants in this study, more job search behavior was associated with a desperation to find a job as indicated by less perceived alternatives. A very different pattern of results could have been observed, had the applicants under scrutiny in this study were applying for a managerial or another professional position. Thus, an important theoretical implication of this finding is that future research and
theory development should take into account the effect of job level applied for, collect data from applicants applying to multiple jobs with varying levels, and apply a multi-level methodology in which the job opening is regarded as the higher level and applicants are regarded as the lower level. Such a design would allow us to simultaneously examine both individual-level factors such as job search behaviors and applicant qualifications and job-level factors such as recruitment activities and job characteristics, and has the potential to greatly advance our knowledge of employee recruiting and job search by potentially demonstrating the mutual effects they apply on each other.

The current study also contributes to the literature on intention-behavior gap and specifically implementation intentions (Gollwitzer, 1999) by examining the effects of implementation intentions in the recruitment domain for the first time and demonstrating that forming implementation intentions was associated with a higher likelihood of participating in the selection procedures. In addition, the finding that this effect was moderated by the time interval between intention and behavior provides support for the proposition that implementation intentions operate through a stronger encoding of the intention in memory. As would be expected from such an encoding mechanism, the effect of implementation intentions was almost twice as strong for shorter time intervals than the overall sample. Practically, this finding suggests that organizations would benefit from embedding procedures facilitating the forming of implementation intentions in their recruitment systems. For example, as in the current study, organizations may prompt applicants to develop plans regarding participating in the selection procedures at the time of the application. Alternatively, applicants may be reached through other communication channels (e.g., e-mail, sms, etc.) after the initial application and encouraged to plan their participation in the upcoming selection procedures.

The finding that the amount of information and self-efficacy applicants had regarding the selection hurdles predicted applicant withdrawal from the job application process also has important practical implications for organizations.
That is, organizations engaging in employee recruitment activities may increase the likelihood that applicants will stay in the applicant pool by informing them about what they should expect to experience during the execution of the selection tests. Organizations may also benefit from an increased level of self-efficacy, and this can be achieved by being very clear about what is included in the selection hurdles and designing mock testing opportunities similar to those applied during selection. For example, applicants may be given the opportunity to have mock interviews in which an online artificial intelligence robot asks questions similar to those in the actual interview and gives feedback depending on the keywords used in the responses by the applicant. Similarly, a work sample test can be made available to the applicants similar to those applied as the actual selection hurdle. Aside from increasing their levels of self-efficacy and information, such practice tests could also increase the commitment by the applicants to stay in the applicant pool by showing that the organization is caring about potential future employees. In addition, such tests may also act as realistic job previews and potentially lead to the self-elimination of those who feel like they will not be successful in the job.

Finally, and the most importantly, the current study adds to the growing body of evidence showing that the relationship between intention and behavior is not perfect and there are some factors which are likely to bridge this intention-behavior gap (e.g., Rhodes & Dickau, 2013). Theoretically, this suggests that the theory of planned behavior (TPB) would benefit from acknowledging this imperfect relationship and including such factors in the model. In their review of the extant research on the theory, Conner and Armitage (1998) suggested an expansion of the TPB in which a better explanation of how intentions led to behavior was provided; and suggested adding implementation intentions as one promising addition. Almost two decades later, the current study concurs with Conner and Armitage in their proposal to extend the model, and proposes several other variables which can be used to increase the predictive validity of TPB. Ajzen (2011) defends the current state of the theory by claiming that the major concern of TPB is predicting intentions, and whether or not these
intentions predict behavior is in part influenced by factors beyond individual’s control. This approach to a theory which was originally developed to predict behavior (Ajzen, 1991) greatly reduces the utility of the model in devising interventions of behavior change, and thus brings the usefulness of the model into questioning. Largely because of this perceived lack of utility, some has even suggested the retirement of the model (Sniehotta, Presseau, & Araujo-Soares, 2014). Although retiring the model may be going a little too far, there is clearly a need to revise the model by including some of the variables which have been found to moderate the intention-behavior relationship. However, as suggested by Ajzen (2011), “additional predictors should be proposed and added with caution, and only after careful deliberation and empirical exploration. (p.1119)” This study provides empirical exploration for some of the potential additional predictors of behavior. In order to accomplish the goal of revising the TPB and increase its utility and validity in predicting behavior, future research should seek to uncover more moderators of the intention-behavior relationship, as well as attempt to replicate the findings of this study.

4.3. Limitations

Although this study makes some important contributions to the theory and practice of employee recruitment, there are some limitations that should be acknowledged. The first limitation has to do with the generalizability of the findings. Given the low education requirements, difficult working conditions, lack of conventional testing, and the unemployment in Turkey which hovers around 10%, the job examined in this study has generally attracted individuals from lower social classes with low levels of income and/or lower prospects of finding a better job. This was evident in the current study as the mean wage for those who were employed was 1253 TL, and the median was 1300 TL, the minimum wage in Turkey at the time of the data collection. Among those who participated in the study, 61% had a primary school diploma and another 32% had a high school diploma, which means only about 7% had completed any level of education beyond high school, most of which being two-year vocational schools (6%).
In addition, at the time of the data collection for this study, the tensions in the conflict between Turkish Armed Forces and the terrorist organization PKK had escalated after a couple years of stagnation and terrorist attacks had become common news. This, combined with the other difficulties inherent in such a low-rank military position, might have influenced the decisions of applicants regarding whether or not they really want to become contracted privates. Since participating in the selection tests would indicate a higher level of commitment than making an online application, this heightened risk environment at the time of the data collection might have lowered the motivation towards participating in the selection procedures after making the initial application.

Finally, as discussed in the context of some of the findings, it is possible that the job examined in this study may have attracted a certain type of applicants, and this may have played a role in the decision regarding whether or not to stay in the applicant pool. Given the characteristics of the job and the security environment described above, most individuals applying for the contracted private position may either have strong inclinations towards the military or have applied because of the financial incentives provided. Accordingly, in addition to the factors examined in this study, the unique characteristics of this job may have played a role in the directions and sizes of the results observed. Thus, the findings of this study should be evaluated in this context and inferences regarding the generalizability of the findings must be made with caution.

However, the characteristics of this sample is not very different from what would be expected in any country recruiting individuals for low-rank military positions. Especially in developed or developing countries which seek to maintain an all-professional force or transitioning towards one, recruiting for those lower-rank positions is proving to be a difficult task (Manigart, 2005). Thus, this study contributes to the literature on military recruitment and makes some important practical and theoretical contributions. In addition, given the challenges in predicting withdrawal behavior and the large samples required,
studies examining applicant withdrawal have so far utilized individuals applying for military or other public civil-service institutions (Griepentrog et al., 2012), and this study is not an exception.

The second limitation was that for some of the findings of the study, although significant, the effect sizes were small. The dependent variable of interest in this study was applicant withdrawal from the job application process, which is in its nature a behavioral outcome. Other than the factors examined in this study, many other factors may have contributed to the decision to withdraw, and this may have led to the small effect sizes observed. For example, in explaining the non-significant relationship between job pursuit intentions and behavior, Schreurs et al. (2009) note that unplanned problems might have led some applicants to withdraw, and it is possible that the same mechanism was present in this study.

Another potential reason for the low effect sizes is that behavioral outcomes are generally hard to predict given the little variance and skewed distribution in binary behavioral outcome variables (Schreurs et al., 2009). As can be seen in Table-1, most of the correlation coefficients between the predictors and the applicant withdrawal variable were relatively small, and this is not surprising given the binary nature of the dependent applicant withdrawal variable. Since the outcome of interest was dichotomous in nature, point-biserial correlations were used, which are limited by the distributions of both dichotomous and continuous variables and thus have ceiling well below .80 (Chapman et al., 2005). To illustrate, in their meta-analysis examining intention-behavior relationship in the physical activity domain, Rhodes and Dickau (2013) found that while the mean effect size for intentional outcomes was fairly large ($d = .45, r = .22$), mean effect size for behavioral outcomes was much smaller ($d = .15, r = .07$). Thus, it can be said that small effect sizes is typical in the literature on intention-behavior relationship. Besides, two of the predictors in this study were personality variables, and when predicting behavioral outcomes using personality factors, small effect sizes are generally observed (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991).
4.4. Conclusion

One factor which may potentially influence the effectiveness of organizational employee recruitment activities is applicant withdrawal from the job application process. Depending on the quantity and the qualities of applicants withdrawing from the job application, an organization’s applicant pool may diminish considerably, and potentially qualified future employees may be lost. Thus, utilizing the research on intention-behavior gap, this study examined the factors which influence the likelihood that applicants withdraw from the job application process. The factors examined as potential predictors of applicant withdrawal were time interval between the application and selection tests, change in perceptions of fit, employment status, perceived employment alternatives, applicant personality (i.e., conscientiousness and emotional stability), type of initial intentions (i.e., goal vs. implementation intentions), job search behavior, amount of information and self-efficacy about the testing procedures, and information search intensity after the initial application. The results of this study revealed that aside from job search behavior, all these factors were related with applicant withdrawal with varying effect sizes, and the strongest predictors were time interval, a decrease in perceptions of fit, perceived alternatives, and information search intensity after the application. The mechanisms through which these variables influenced applicant withdrawal were also explored and several areas of research were suggested for future researchers.

The current study made several important contributions to the literatures on employee recruitment, theory of planned behavior (TPB), and intention-behavior gap; and has some promising practical implications. First, by uncovering some of the factors associated with applicant withdrawal from the job application process, this study advanced our knowledge of employee recruitment and job application processes, and provided recruiters with some of the potential best practices in increasing the effectiveness of their recruitment efforts. Second, by demonstrating that job type was a potential moderator in many of the relationships observed, this study demonstrated the
importance of applying a multi-level methodology in studies examining the predictors of recruitment and job search success. Third, this study provided support for Soelberg’s (1967) model by demonstrating that applicants are likely to consider multiple jobs simultaneously, and after making an implicit choice, information search is likely to be biased in favor of that choice. Fourth, by revealing many factors moderating the intention-behavior relationship, the current study contributed to the growing body of evidence suggesting that a revision in the TPB is necessary. Picking up where the current study left off, future researchers of the subject should apply a multi-level methodology with multiple measurement points across the job application process and examine within-applicant factors, between applicant factors, within organization/job factors, and between organization/job factors influencing whether or not applicants will stay in the applicant pool until a job is offered, and whether or not that job offer is accepted.
REFERENCES


APPENDICES

A. Time-1 Survey

1. Adınızi ve soyadınızı yazınız. (To be used in matching the surveys to the participation data)

2. TC Kimlik numaranızın son dört hanesini yazınız. (To be used in matching the surveys to the participation data)

3. Size ulaşabileceğimiz elektronik posta adresinizi yazınız. (To be used for contacting participants for the Time-2 survey)

4. Size ulaşabileceğimiz cep telefonu numaranızı. (To be used for contacting participants for the Time-2 survey)

5. Geçtiğimiz altı ay içerisinde aşağıdaki davranışları ne sıklıkta yaptınız? (Job Search Intensity Scale)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Başlık</th>
<th>Hiç yapmadım (0 defa)</th>
<th>Nadiren yaptım (1-2 defa)</th>
<th>Ara sıra yaptım (3-5 defa)</th>
<th>Sık sık yaptım (6-9 defa)</th>
<th>Çok sık yaptım (en az 10 defa)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Bir şirkete özgeçmişimi gönderdim.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Bir şirkete telefon ederek uygun iş olup olmadığını sordum.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Bir iş için başvuru formu doldurdum.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Bir şirkete giderek uygun iş olup olmadığını sordum.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Bir şirkette iş için mülakata girdim.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Şu an herhangi bir işte çalışıyor musunuz? (Employment Status)
   a. Evet
   b. Hayır

7. Herhangi bir işte çalışıyorsanız mesleğiniizi yazınız. (Demographic Item)

8. Herhangi bir işte çalışıyorsanız aylık gelirinizi yazınız. (Demographic Item)
9. Şu anda herhangi bir işte çalışıyorsanız birlikte yaşadığıınız tüm bireylerin toplam aylık gelirini yazınız. *(Demographic Item)*

10. Aynı evde birlikte yaşadığıınız kişi sayısını yazınız. *(Demographic Item)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(Amount of information scale)</th>
<th>1 - Bunun nasıl uygulandığını hiç bilmiyorum.</th>
<th>2 - Bunun nasıl uygulandığını biraz bilmiyorum.</th>
<th>3 - Bunun nasıl uygulandığını biliyorum.</th>
<th>4 - Bunun nasıl uygulandığını çok iyi biliyorum.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Ön sağlık muayenesi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Fiziki yeterlilik testi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Mülakat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(Self-Efficacy Scale)</th>
<th>1 - Bunu geçemezdim.</th>
<th>2 - Bunu geçip geçemedim.</th>
<th>3 - Bunu kesin geçirdim.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Ön sağlık muayenesi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Fiziki yeterlilik testi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Mülakat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. Şu anda sözleşmeli erlik mesleği kadar iyi başka bir iş bulabilme ihtimaliniz ne kadardır? *(Perceived Alternatives)*
   a. Çok düşük.
   b. Düşük.
   c. Emin değilim.
   d. Yüksek.
   e. Çok yüksek.
14. Sözleşmeli erlik mesleği kadar iyi kaç farklı iş bulabileceğinizi düşünüyor musunuz? (Perceived Alternatives)
   a. Hiç
   b. 1
   c. 2
   d. 3
   e. 4 veya daha fazla

15. Başvurunuz onaylandığı taktirde aşağıdaki işlemleri sınav tarihinden ne kadar önce yapmayı planladığınızı belirtiniz. (Implementation Intentions Manipulation Items – Only to be asked to the experiment group)
   a. Gerekli evrakları hazırlayacağım
   b. Temin merkezinin yerini öğreneceğim
   c. Ulaşım (otobüs/uçak) biletimi alacağım

16. Aşağıdaki konularda ne kadar bilgi sahibisiniz? (Implementation Intentions Manipulation Items - Only to be asked to the control group)
   a. Sözleşmeli er başvuru koşulları
   b. Sözleşmeli er özlük hakları
   c. Sözleşmeli er maaşları
17. Aşağıda sizi kısmen tanımlayan (ya da pek tanımlayamayan) bir takım özellikler sunulmaktadır. Örneğin, başkalari ile zaman geçirmekten hoşlanan birisi olduğunuzu düşünüyor musunuz? Lütfen aşağıda verilen özelliklerin sizi ne oranda yansıttığını ya da yansımadığını belirtmek için sizi en iyi tanımlayan rakamı her bir özelliğin soluna yazınız. (Personality Items)

1 = Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
2 = Katılmıyorum
3 = Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum (Kararsızım)
4 = Katılıyorum
5 = Kesinlikle katılıyorum

'Kendimi .......... biri olarak görüyorum.'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>İşini tam yapan</th>
<th>Dağınık olma eğiliminde olan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bunalımlı, melankolik</td>
<td>Çok endişelenen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biraz umursamaz</td>
<td>İşleri verimli yapan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rahat, stresle kolay baş eden</td>
<td>Gergin ortamlarda sakin kalabilen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tembel olma eğiliminde olan</td>
<td>Planlar yapan ve bunları takip eden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duygusal olarak dengeli, kolayca keyfi kaçmayan</td>
<td>Kolayca sinirlenen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Görevi tamamlanıncaya kadar zorluklara karşı sabredebilen</td>
<td>Kolaylıkla dikkati dağılan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dakikası dakikasına uymayan</td>
<td>Gergin olabilen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Güvenilir bir çalışan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

18. Son bir ay içerisinde günde ortalama ne kadar süreyle iş ilanlarına baktınız?

(Job Search Effort)

a. Yarım saat
b. Yarım saat
c. Bir saat
d. Bir – iki saat
e. İki saatten fazla
19. Sözleşmeli erlik mesleğini aşağıdaki nitelikler açısından değerlendiriniz. Sizce sözleşmeli erlik mesleği aşağıdaki kriterler açısından size uygun mudur? (Perceptions of Fit Scale)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Maaş, sigorta, servis, yıllık izin vb. özlük hakları</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. İşin içerdiği faaliyetlerin ve görevlerin niteliği (fiziksel aktivite, masa başı, vb.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Çalışma koşulları (mesai saatleri, vb.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**B. Time-2 Survey**

1. Adınızı ve soyadınızı yazınız.

2. TC Kimlik numaranızın son dört hanesini yazınız.

3. Sözleşmeli erlik mesleğini aşağıdaki nitelikleri açısından değerlendiriniz. Sizce sözleşme erlik mesleği aşağıdaki kriterler açısından size uygun mudur? *(Perceptions of Fit Scale)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Maaş, sigorta, servis, yıllık izin vb. özlük hakları</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. İşin içerdığı faaliyetlerin ve görevlerin niteliği (fiziksel aktivite, masa başı, vb.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Çalışma koşulları (mesai saatleri, vb.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Sözleşmeli er olmak için başvurduktan sonra sözleşmeli erlik ile ilgili bilgi edinmek için aşağıdaki bilgi kaynaklarına ne kadar baktınız? En uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz. *(Information Search Intensity Scale)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. İnternetteki forumlar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Genelkurmay resmi internet sitesi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Facebook'ta üye olduğum gruplar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Kara Kuvvetleri Komutanlığı resmi internet sitesi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Sözleşmeli er başvuru kılavuzu</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. TSK'da çalışan tanıdıklerim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Diğer (lütfen yazınız)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Sözleşmeli er olmak üzere başvuru yaptığınız halde sınavlara katılamamanızın sebebi aşağıdakilerden hangisidir? *(Only to be asked to those who withdrew)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Şıza durumuyla uyum uyandığı seçenekleri işaretleyiniz.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Çağırıldığım tarihte çalışmak zorundaydım</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Çağırıldığım tarihte başka bir işim çıktı</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Başvuru belgelerimi kaybettim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Sınav günü uyanamadım</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Başka bir iş bulduğum için gelmedim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Sözleşmeli erlik mesleğinin bana uygun olmadığını karar verdim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Zaten niyetim yoktu, öylesine başvurmuştum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Diğer sebepler (lütfen yazınız)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
C. Summary of the Findings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Result</th>
<th>Supported?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| H1 | A decrease in the perceptions of fit after initial application would be positively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process. | $t = -8.08$, $df = 466.68$, $p < .001$, $d = .60$  
  $r = .29$, $p < .01$ | Yes         |
| H2a| There would be a positive relationship between time interval between the initial application and selection tests and the extent to which applicants would withdraw | $t = 16.00$, $df = 2265.74$, $p < .001$, $d = .51$  
  $r = -.22$, $p < .01$ | Yes         |
| H2b| The relationship between time interval and withdrawal would be stronger for unemployed participants as compared to employed participants | $\beta = .00$, $p = .497$ | No          |
| H3a| Change in perceptions of fit would partially mediate the relationship between time interval and applicant withdrawal | Correlation between time interval and change in perceived fit:  
  $r = .07$, $p < .05$  
  After adjustment:  
  $r = -.02$, $p = .554$ | No          |
| H3b| The relationship between time interval and decrease in perceived fit would be moderated by information search intensity after making the initial application | $\beta = .00$, $p = .346$ | No          |
| RQ1| Does the source of information used after making an initial application influence the direction of change in the perceptions of fit? | Using all sources predicted increase in perceptions of fit |            |
| H4 | There would be a positive relationship between applicant emotional stability and the extent to which applicants would withdraw | $t = -4.87$, $df = 5344$, $p < .001$, $d = .15$  
  $r = .07$, $p < .01$ | Yes         |
| H5 | There would be a positive relationship between the extent to which applicants perceived that they had other job alternatives and withdrawal | $t = 8.04$, $df = 2454.13$, $p < .001$, $d = .25$  
  $r = -.11$, $p < .01$ | Yes         |
| RQ2| Is there a relationship between job search behavior and the extent to which participants would perceive that they had other job alternatives? | A negative relationship was found |            |
| H6 | Applicants who formed implementation intentions would be less likely to withdraw than job seekers who did not form implementation intentions | $X^2 (1, N = 5346) = 5.87, p < .05, \varphi = .03$ | Yes |
| H7 | The amount of information an applicant has about the testing procedures would be negatively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process | $t = -6.73$, $df = 5344$, $p < .001$, $d = .21$, $r = .09$, $p < .01$ | Yes |
| H8 | The amount of self-efficacy an applicant has about the testing procedures would be negatively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process | $t = -4.85$, $df = 2495.78$, $p < .001$, $d = .17$, $r = .06$, $p < .01$ | Yes |
| H9 | Conscientiousness would be negatively related with applicant withdrawal from the job application process | $t = -4.68$, $df = 2357.24$, $p < .001$, $d = .13$, $r = .06$, $p < .01$ | Yes |

**Other Analyses**

| N/A | Self-reported reasons for withdrawal | Having to go to work (38%), having something else to do (20%), application document issues (11%), deciding job is not a good fit (10%), not having the requirements for the job (10%), financial problems regarding travel (9%), not receiving the invitation (8%), family not allowing (5%), finding another job (4%) |
| N/A | Path Analysis | Chi-square = 77.25, $df = 22$, $p < .001$
RMSEA = .054 (CI = .041-.068)
CFI = .99, NFI = .99, GFI = .99, AGFI = .94 |
| N/A | Logistic Regression | $X^2 = 263.49$, $df = 11$, $p < .001$
Classification: 64.2% → 77.4%

**Important Predictors**

Time Interval (Exp(B) = 1.07), Fit Change (Exp(B) = 2.81), Perc.Alt. (Exp(B) = .722), Info. Search (Exp(B) = 1.57) |

| N/A | Does the effect of time interval on change in perceptions of fit differ by withdrawal status? | $\beta = .01$, $p = .073$.
After adjustment:
$\beta = .01$, $p = .126$ | No |
| N/A | Is there a difference between usage of OGC and UGC sources of information? | $t = -20.85$, $df = 816$, $p < .001$, $d = .66$ | Yes |
D. Turkish Summary / Türkçe Özet


İş arama ve personel temini yazılarda ortak olarak ele alınan ve her iki sürecin de başarısını etkileyebilecek bir davranış adayların bir iş için başvuru yapmaları ve sonrasında pozisyon doldurulana kadar başvuran havuzunda kalarak seçim aşamalarına katılmalarıdır. Dolayısıyla, adayların öncelikle işe başvurmalarını, sonrasında ise seçim aşamalarına katılmalarını etkileyen faktörler personel temini ve iş arama faaliyetlerinin sonuçlarını önemli ölçüde

109


**Personel Temini**

Personel temini, bir işe başvuran, kendisine iş teklif edilene kadar başvuran havuzunda kalan ve teklif edilen işi kabul eden kişilerin nitelik ve niceliğini etkilemek maksadıyla yapılan faaliyetlerdir (Breaugh, 1992). Personel temini, aday havuzunun oluşturulması, aday statüsünün muhafazası ve iş seçim kararını olmak üzere üç safhada oluşur. Aday havuzunun oluşturulması
safhasında kurumlar uygun nitelike ve fazla sayıda adayın işe başvurmasını sağlamakaya çalışırlar. Aday statüsünün muhafazası safhasında işe başvuran adaylar iş için gerekli nitelikleri taşıyıp taşımadıklarının anlaşılması maksadıyla çeşitli seçim aşamalarından geçerler. Son olarak iş teklifi safhasında bir veya birden fazla adaya iş teklifi yapılır.


Personel temini yazınındaki diğer bir araştırma konusu ise işe başvuru kararına etki eden faktörlerdir. Güncel bir meta-analiz çalışmasına göre (Uggerslev ve ark., 2012), işe başvuruyu etkileyen faktörler arasında işin özellikleri (maaş, yapılan iş türü vb.), başvurulan kurumun özellikleri (kurumsal imaj, kuruma aşinalık, kurumun büyüklüğü vb.), personel temininde görev alan

**Adayların İş Başvurusundan Sonra Sürecden Çekilmeleri**


İş Başvurusunda Niyet-Davranış Uyumsuzluğu


**Bir İşe Yönelik Niyetin Değişmesi**

Bir kişinin iş arama sürecinde iş yönelik uyum algılarının zaman içerisinde değiştiği (Swider ve ark., 2015) bulgusundan harekette, iş başvuru sürecinde işe yönelik ilk uyum algısının değil, davranış noktasına en yakın zamandaki

**Hipotez 1:** İlk başvurudan sonra uyum algılarındaki azalma ile iş başvurusundan çekilme arasında bir ilişki vardır.

Ayrıca, adayların başvuru usünden sonra seçim aşamalarına kadar geçen süre uzadıktan sonra başvurup yaparken öngörülemeyen bir takım faktörlerin etkisiyle adaylar seçim aşamalarına katılmayabilir. Arvey, Gordon ve Massengil (1975) başvuru sonrası bekleme süresi ile çekilme davranışı arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu bulmuştur. Ayrıca bu ilişki adayların bir işe çalıştır olup olmamalarına göre de değişebilir. Çalışan bir kişi daha uzun süre bekleyebilecekken, işsiz bir kişi süre uzadıkça başka bir iş bulmak şeklinde çekilme eğiliminde olabilir. Bu kapsamda aşağıdaki hipotezler önerilmektedir:

**Hipotez 2a:** İlk başvuru ile seçim aşamaları arasında geçen süre ile çekilme davranışı arasında anlamlı bir ilişki vardır.

**Hipotez 2b:** Çalışma durumu bu ilişkiyi düzenleyici bir değişken olup işsiz adaylarda daha güçlüdür.

başvursa dahi iş alternatiflerine ilişkin bilgi arayışına devam etmektedir. Bu süreçte edinilen bilgilerin bir kısmının olumsuz olabileceğiinden harekete, başvuru sonrası süre uzadıkça bilgi arayışı yoğunluğuna bağlı olarak uyum algısındaki değişim derecesinin etkileneceği düşünülebilir. Bu kapsamında aşağıdaki hipotezler önerilmektedir:

**Hipotez 3a:** Uyum algısındaki değişim başvuru sonrası gecikme süresi ile çekilme davranış arasındaki kismi aracılık yapar.

**Hipotez 3b:** Bilgi arayışı yoğunluğu başvuru sonrası gecikme ile uyum algısındaki azalma arasındaki ilişki düzenleyici bir değişkendir. Bilgi arayışı arttıkça ilişki güçlenir.

Her ne kadar bilgi arayışı yoğunluğunun düzenleyici etkisi olacağı hipotezi önerilse de, kullanılan bilgi kaynaklarının da önemli olabileceği değerlendirilmektedir. Başvuru yapılan kurumca yönetilen bilgi kaynaklarında genellikle olumlu bilgilerin bulunması beklenirken, kullanıcıların yönettiği sosyal medya vb. bilgi kaynaklarında olumsuz bilgilerin de bulunması beklenilebilir. Bu nedenle uyum algısındaki değişim kullanılan bilgi kaynağı ile de ilişkili olabilir. Bu kapsamında çalışmada aşağıdaki araştırma sorusu incelenektrt:

**Araştırma Sorusu 1:** Bilgi edinmede kullanılan bilgi kaynağı ile uyum algısındaki değişim yönü arasında bir ilişki var mıdır?

Bir kişilik özelliği olarak duygusal dengeliğin çekilme davranışı ile ilişkisi olabileceğini düşünülebilir. Düşük duygusal dengeliğin stres kaynakları karşısında duygularına hâkim olamama ile ilişkili olduğu düşündüğünde, duygusal dengeliğin arzu edilmeyen durumlarda çekilme davranısını da etkilediği düşünülebilir. Bu olasılığı destekler bir bulgu olarak, düşük duygusal dengeliğin kariyer kararları vermekte zorlanma ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur (Tokar ve ark., 1998). Dolayısıyla, kariyer kararları vermekte zorlanmalarından hareketle düşük duygusal dengeliğin seviyesindeki kişilerin başvurudan sonra niyetlerini değiştirmese de süreçten çekilme olasılıklarının

117
daha yüksek olduğu düşünülebilir. Bu kapsamda aşağıdaki hipotez test edilecektir:

*Hipotez 4: Adayların duygusal dengelilik seviyeleri ile çekilme davranışı arasında negatif ilişki vardır.*

**Bir İşe Yönelik Niyet Davranışa Dönüşmemesi**


*Hipotez 5: Adayların başka iş alternatiflerine yönelik algıları iş başvurusundan çekilme ile ilişkilidir.*

arasında negatif bir ilişki olması beklenir. Bu kapsamda, bir hipotez önermek yerine bu çalışmada aşağıdaki soruya cevap aranacaktır:

Araştırma Sorusu 2: İş arama davranış ile iş alternatiflerine ilişkin algı arasında bir ilişki var mıdır?


Hipotez 6: Uygulama niyeti oluşturan adaylar hedef niyeti oluşturan adaylara göre daha yüksek oranda aday havuzunda kalırlar.

Aday havuzunda kalmayı belirleyen muhtemel diğer bir faktör seçim sürecine ilişkin belirsizlik derecesidir. Yetersiz bilgi veya düşük özgüven nedeniyle bazı adaylar seçim sınavlarının sonucunu öngöremeyebilir ve bu durum çekilme davranışını etkileyebilir. Vroom’a (1964) göre, bir davranışa yönelik motivasyonun oluşması için üç faktörün aynı anda var olması gerekmektedir. Birincisi, kişi yeterince çabalarsa hedeflediği davranışa gerçekleştirebileceğini bilmelidir. İkincisi, bu davranışın belirli bir sonuca ulaşmayı sağlayan bir davranış olmalıdır. Son olarak, söz konusu sonuç arzu edilen bir sonuc olmalıdır. Bir aday başvuru sürecinde kalma ve seçim aşamalarına katılma
davranışının sonucuna ilişkin yeterli bilgi ve özgüvene sahip olmadığını, yukarıdaki faktörler ortaya çıkmayacağınından davranışa yönelik motivasyon da düşük olabilir ve bu durum başvurucu sürecinden çekilme davranışını etkileyebilir. Esasen yapılan çalışmalar, bir davranışa yönelik kontrol algısı düşük olduğunda niyet-davranış ilişkisinin de zayıf olduğunu göstermektedir (Sheeran, 2001). Bu kapsamda aşağıdaki hipotezler test edilecektir:

Hipotez 7: Adayların seçim aşamalarına ilişkin bilgi seviyeleri çekilme davranışıyla ilişkilidir.

Hipotez 8: Adayların seçim aşamalarına ilişkin özgüven seviyeleri çekilme davranışıyla ilişkilidir.

Son olarak, çekilme davranışını inceleyen çalışmalararda çekilme sebebi olarak sıkılıkla belirtilen bazı faktörler (ör., uyanamamak, geç kalmak, unutmak vb.) düşük sorumluluk bilincinin göstergesi olan davranışlardır. Aynı zamanda niyet-davranış ilişkisinin düzenleyici değişkenleri üzerinde yapılan bazı çalışmalar sorumluluk sahibi olmanın bu ilişkide düzenleyici bir değişken olduğunu bulmuştur (Rhodes ve Dickau, 2013). Bu kapsamda aşağıdaki hipotez önerilmektedir:

Hipotez 9: Sorumluluk bilinci başvurucu sürecinden çekilme davranışı ile ilişkilidir.

Yöntem

Bu çalışmada önerilen hipotezler Türk Kara Kuvvetleri Komutanlığına sözleşmeli er olmak için başvuru yapan adaylar üzerinde test edilmiştir. Subay, astsubay ve uzman erbaş statülerine ilave olarak 2012 yılında temnine başlanan sözleşmeli erler genellikle yükümlü erlerle aynı görevleri yapmakla birlikte, daha çok uzmanlık gerektiren görevlerde daha uzun süre istihdam edilmek üzere alınmaktadır. Yüksülmü erlerle aynı haklara sahip olan sözleşmeli erlerin farkı 3-7 yıl arasında görev yapmaları ve hizmetleri karşılığında maaş almalarıdır. Bu nedenle sözleşmeli erlik genellikle düşük

**Katılımcılar ve Çalışmanın Aşamaları**

Çalışma kapsamında sözleşmeli er olmak üzere internet üzerinden ön başvurulu yapan 5346 adaya bir anket uygulanmış (EK-A), müteakiben bu adaylardan temin merkezinde seçim aşamalarına katılan 1326 adaydan 550’sine ikinci bir anket uygulanmıştır (EK-B). Ayrıca sınava katılmayan 4020 aday e-posta kanalıyla ikinci anketi doldurmaya davet edilmiş, bunlardan 306’sı katılım sağlamıştır. Ortalama yaş 21.41 olan katılımcıların %61’i ilköğretim, %32’si lise, %6’sı iki yıllık meslek yüksekokulu, %1’i dört yıllık fakülte mezunudur.

**Kullanılan Ölçekler**

Bulgular

Çalışmada elde edilen betimleyici istatistikler ve değişkenler arasındaki korelasyonlar Tablo 1’de sunulmuştur.

Uyum algısındaki azalmanın çekilme davranışı ile ilişkisini inceleyen Hipotez 1 t-testi ile test edilmiş, sınava katılan grupla (Ort = -.34) katılmayan (Ort = .13) grup arasında anlamlı bir farklılık olduğu görüldüğünden (t = -8.08, df = 466.68, p < .001, d = .60) hipotez desteklenmiştir.

Başvuru sonrasında bekleme süresi ile çekilme davranışı arasında bir ilişki öngören Hipotez 2a t-testi ile incelenmiş ve sınava katılan grupla (Ort = 44.45) katılmayan grup (Ort = 54.27) arasında anlamlı bir farklılık olduğu görüldüğünden (t = 16.00, df = 2265.74, p < .001, d = .51) hipotez desteklenmiştir.

Hipotez 2b, başvuru sonrası geçen süre ile çekilme davranışı arasındaki ilişkinin işsiz katılımcılar için daha güçlü olacağını öngörümiş, ancak yapılan düzenleyici lojistik regresyon analizi neticesinde (β = .00, p = .497) desteklenmemiştir.

Uyum algısındaki değişimin başvuru sonrası gecikme ile çekilme davranışı arasında kısmi aracı değişken olacağını öngören Hipotez 3a, aracı değişken olabilmenin birinci koşulu olan bağımsız değişken ile aracı değişken arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunması koşulunun sağlandığından (r = -.02, p = .554) desteklenmemiştir.

Hipotez 3b, başvuru sonrası gecikme ile uyum algısındaki değişim arasındaki ilişkinin bilgi arama yoğunluğu değişkeni tarafından düzenleneceğini öngörümuş, ancak yapılan analiz neticesinde etkileşim katsayısı anlamlılık düzeyine ulaşmadığından (β = .00, p = .346) hipotez desteklenmemiştir.

Başvuru yaptktan sonra kullanılan bilgi kaynağını uyum algısındaki değişim yönünü etkileyip etkilemediğini inceleyen birinci araştırma sorusu, her bir kaynağı kullanım derecesi ile uyum algısındaki değişim arasındaki
korelasyon katsayları vasıtasıyla test edilmiş, ancak kullanılan bilgi kaynağına göre değişen bir ilişki tespit edilmemiştir. Bunun yerine her bir kaynağı daha fazla kullanan adayların uyum algılarında pozitif yönde bir değişim olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Ayrıca kurum tarafından yönetilen bilgi kaynakları ile içeriği kullanıcılar tarafından oluşturulan bilgi kaynaklarının kullanım dereceleri t-testi vasıtasıyla karşılaştırılmış ve kurum tarafından yönetilen kaynakların (Ort = 3.29) kullanıcıların oluşturduğu kaynaklara göre (Ort = 2.83) daha yüksek oranda kullanıldığı bulunmaktadır ($t = -20.85, df = 816, p < .001, d = .66$).

Duygusal dengelilik ile çekilme davranışı arasında bir ilişki öngören dördüncü hipotez t-testi ile test edilmiş, sınava katılan grupla (Ort = 4.20) katılmayan grup (Ort = 4.11) arasında anlamlı bir farklılık olduğu görüldüğünden ($t = -4.87, df = 5344, p < .001, d = .15$) hipotez desteklenmiştir.

İş alternatiflerine ilişkin algı ile çekilme davranışı arasında bir ilişki öngören Hipotez 5 t-testi ile test edilmiş, sınava katılan grupla (Ort = 1.97) katılmayan grup (Ort = 2.22) arasında anlamlı bir farklılık olduğu görüldüğünden ($t = 8.04, df = 2454.13, p < .001, d = .25$) hipotez desteklenmiştir.

İkinci araştırma sorusunda iş arama davranışı ile iş alternatiflerine ilişkin algı arasındaki ilişki incelenmiş, anlamlı düzeyde bir negatif ilişki ($r = -.13$) bulunmaktadır. Bu sonuca göre daha fazla iş arama davranışı daha az iş alternatif ile ilişki göstermektedir.

Altıncı hipotezde uygulama niyetine sahip kişilerin daha düşük oranda çekilme davranışı göstererekleri öngörülmüş, bu beklenti ki-kare testi ile test edilmiştir. Elde edilen sonuçlar uygulama niyeti olan adayların daha yüksek oranda sınava katılım sağladığı ($X^2 (1, N = 5346) = 5.87, p < .05, \phi = .03$.) gösterdiğinden Hipotez 6 desteklenmiştir.

Seçim aşamalarında ilişkin bilgi seviyesi ile çekilme davranışı arasında bir ilişki öngören Hipotez 7 t-testi ile test edilmiş, sınava katılan grupla (Ort = 3.47)
katılmayan grup (Ort = 3.23) arasında anlamlı bir farklılık olduğu görüldüğünden \( t = -6.73, df = 5344, p < .001, d = .21 \) hipotez desteklenmiştir.

Seçim aşamalarına ilişkin özgüven seviyesi ile çekilme davranışı arasında bir ilişki öngören Hipotez 8 t-testi ile test edilmiş, sınava katılan grupla (Ort = 2.80) katılmayan grup (Ort = 2.74) arasında anlamlı bir farklılık olduğu görüldüğünden \( t = -4.85, df = 2495.78, p < .001, d = .17 \) hipotez desteklenmiştir.

Son olarak, sorumluluk bilinci ile çekilme davranışı arasında bir ilişki öngören Hipotez 9 t-testi ile test edilmiş, sınava katılan grupla (Ort = 4.46) katılmayan grup (Ort = 4.39) arasında anlamlı bir farklılık olduğu görüldüğünden \( t = -4.68, df = 2357.24, p < .001, d = .13 \) hipotez desteklenmiştir.

İlave Analizler

Sınava katılmayanlara uygulanmış olan ikinci ankette, hangi sebeple katılmadıkları da sorulmuştur. Bu soruya cevaben belirtilen gerekçeler sınav günü işe gitme zorunluluğu (%38), başka bir işinin çıkması (%20), başvuru belgelerini kaybetme veya tamamlayamama (%11), işin kendisine uygun olmadığına karar verme (%10), başvurudan sonra iş için gerekli koşulları taşımadığını öğrenme (%10), maddi problemler nedeniyle sınava katılamama (%9), sınav çağrısının adaya ulaşmaması (%8), ailesinin izin vermemesi (%5) ve başka bir iş bulmuş olmasıdır (%4). Bu bulgular büyük oranda geçmiş çalışmaların bulguları ile örtüşmektedir.

Çalışmada incelenen değişkenlerin betimleyici istatistikleri ve aralarındaki korelasyonlar sınava katılan ve katılmayan adaylar için ayrı ayrı incelenmiştir. Sonuçlar katılım olan adaylar için Tablo 3’te, katılan adaylar için Tablo 4’tedir.

Çalışmada öngörülen tekli ilişkileri inceledikten sonra, önerilen modeli (Şekil-1) bütün olarak test etmek için Lisrel 9.2 sürümü üzerinde bir path analizi icra edilmiş ve modelin veriye iyi derecede uyumlu olduğunu gösterdiği bulunmuştur \( (X^2 = 62.07, df = 10, \text{RMSEA} = .08 \ (90\% \ CI = .06 - .10), \text{CFI} = .99, \text{NFI} = .99, \text{AGFI} = .90) \).
Son olarak, her bir değişkenin diğer değişkenlerle birlikte çekilme davranışı üzerinde ne şekilde etkileşimi bulunduğunu incelemek maksadıyla tüm bağımsız değişkenlerin birlikte kullanıldığı bir lojistik regresyon analizi uygulanmıştır. Analiz sonucunda modelin anlamlı olduğu ($X^2 = 263.49$, $df = 11$, $p < .001$) bulunmuştur. Tüm değişkenler birlikte ele alındığında anlamli olan değişkenler başvuru sonrası gecikme süresi, uyum algısındaki değişim, iş alternatiflerine ilişkin algı ve bilgi arama yoğunluğudur (Tablo-5).

**Tartışma**

Bu çalışmada iş başvurusundan çekilme davranışını etkileyen faktörlerin incelenmesi hedeflenmiştir. Bir işe ilk başvuru yapan kişilerin o işe yönelik niyetleri olduğu ve sonrasında aday havuzundan çekilmenin bu niyetin davranışa dönüşmemesi anlamına geldiği varsayımından hareketle, çalışmada kuramsal çerçeve olarak niyet-davranış uyumsuzluğu kavramından yararlanılmış ve niyet-davranış uyumsuzluğunu tahmin etmesi beklenen faktörler iş başvurusundan çekilme davranışı da tahmin etmesi muhtemel faktörler olarak ele alınmıştır. Çalışmadan elde edilen bulgulara göre uyum algısındaki değişim, ilk başvurudan sonra bilgi arayışı yoğunluğu, adayların duygusal dengeliliği ve sorumluluk sahibi olma seviyeleri ve seçim aşamalarına yönelik bilgi ve özgüven seviyeleri çekilme davranışı ile negatif; başvuru sonrasında gecikme ile algılanan iş alternatifleri pozitif ilişkiye sahiptir. Niyetin niteliğinin de çekilme davranışı üzerinde etkili olduğu ve hedef niyetine nazaran uygulama niyeti olan kişilerin çekilme olasılığı daha düşük olduğu bulunmuştur.

mümkin ölçüde kısaltacak şekilde seçim aşamalarını düzenlemenin önemine işaret etmektedir. Bunu sağlamak maksadıyla kurumlar daha az sayıda adayı daha sık sınava alacak şekilde personel temin süreçlerini düzenleyebilirler. Bunu sağlamak için diğer bir yolu ise internet üzerinden başvurdu sistemine eklenecek çeşitli ön eleme vasıtalariyla seçim aşamalarında kesinlikle elenecek olan bir kism adayin başvuru yapmasinin ve ilave i§ yükü olu$turmasonun ounune gectilmesi olabilir.

Hipotez 2b başvuru sonras$ bekleme suresi ile çekimle davran$ isindeki iliskinin calisma durumu degiskeni tarafından duzenlenecegini onermist, ancak bu hipotez desteklenmemisti. Bu bulgu, is$ adaylarin eve alinabilirliginin düşük olmasindan dolayi uzun bekleme surelerinde dahi çekimle davran$ is gostere memesi ile a$cilanabilir. Bu onerme$ dolay$ olarak test etmek maksi$yla calisan ve is$ adaylarin i§ alternatiflerine ili$kin algilar$ kar§ila§tirilmi§ ve arada anlaml bir fark oldu$ tespit edilmi$t.

Hipotez 3a, başvuru sonras$ ge$en sure ile çekimle davran$ isindeki ili$kide uyum algisindaki de§imin ki§mi araci de§i$ken olacagini ongiromustur. Ancak bu hipotez, bekleme suresi ile uyum algisindaki de§i$im arasinda anlaml bir ili$ki bulunmamadi$ndan desteklenmemisti. Bu bulgu, basvurulan is$ in$ ve adaylarin sosyo-ekonomik düzeylerinin ele alinmasi yoluya a$cilanabilir. Daha yüksek sosyo-ekonomik düzeyde adaylarin basvurdu$ gu yüksef seviye islerde, bekleme suresinin artmasi bir hayal kirkligina ve dolayisiyla uyum algisinda azalmaya yol a$abilir. Ancak bu calismadaki gibi du$uk seviye islerde kisa bekleme surelerine yonelik bir bekli$nti olu$mayabilir. Ayrica bu calismada incelenen isveren kurumun kamu sektorunden yag$in bir is$ede bilinen bir kurum oldusi da bu etkiye katkida bulunma$ olabilir. Esasen bir ise basvuru surecinde yanalan tecrübe$elerin çekimle davran$ isile ili$ksini inceleyen calismasinda Rynes ve ark. (1991) olumsuz tecrübe$elerin etkisini s€nr$layan c€$itli de§i$kenler oldugunu ve kurumun bilindik bir kurum olma derecesinin bunlardan biri oldugunu bulmustur.

126


Çalışmanın dördüncü hipotezine uygun olarak duygusal dengelilik ile çekilme davranışı arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu ve duygusal dengelilik arttıkça çekilme davranışının azaldığı bulunmuştur. Bu bulgu, çekilme davranışının tüm etkilerinin olumsuz olmadığını, bazı adayların çekilmişesinin kurum için faydalı olabileceğini göstermiştir. Bununla birlikte bu bulgu, Rhodes ve Dickau (2013) tarafından yapılanın ve duygusal dengeliliğin niyet-davranış ilişkisi üzerine bir etkisi olmadığını bulmuş olan çalışmanın bulgularıyla çelişmektedir. Bunun nedeni, söz konusu çalışmada genel olarak fiziksel aktiviteye yönelik davranışların incelenmemiş olması olabilir. İnsanların bir iş için seçim aşamalarına katılmak ile fiziksel egzersiz yapmak davranışlarına farklı...
derecelerde önem atfettiği ve bundan dolayı duyguyal dengeliliğin fiziki egzersiz davranışında bir rolü olmadığı düşünülebilir.


arama davranışı ile iş alternatifleri arasında pozitif bir ilişki beklenebilir. Bu muhtemel düzenleme ilişkisi gelecekte yapılacak olan çalışmalarda incelenmelidir. Aynı zamanda bu bulgu, benzer çalışmalarda iş türünün düzenleyici etkisini de vurgulaması bakımından önemlidir. Bu kapsamda, konuya ilişkin gelecekte yapılacak olan çalışmalar çeşitli seviyelerdeki birden fazla işe başvuran adayları incelемeli ve çok seviyeli yöntem kullanarak iş türünün de etkisini göreme olanak sağlamalıdır.

anlamına gelmeyebilir. Örneğin üçüncü bir değişken her iki değişkeni de artırıyor olabilir. Bu olasılığı test edebilmek maksadıyla gelecekteki çalışmalarında farklı zamanlarda uygulanan birden fazla seçim aşamasının her birine ilişkin bilgi ve öz güven seviyeleri ile katılım durumları incelenmelidir.


Çalışmanın önemli bir sınırlılığı, bulguların genellenebilirliği ile ilgilidir. İncelenen örneklem düşük seviyede askeri bir işe başvuru yapmış adaylardan oluşmakta olduğundan, bulgular bu bağlamda değerlendirilmelidir. Bununla birlikte, incelenen örneklem herhangi bir ülkede benzer bir işe başvuru yapan
adaylardan farklı değildir. Bu kapsamda bu çalışma ile askeri personel temini yazısına katkıda bulunmuştur.

Diğer bir sınırlılık, elde edilen etki büyüklüklerinin düşük olmasıdır. Bu durum incelenen bağımlı değişkenin ikili ve davranışsal bir değişken olması ile açıklanabilir. İkili davranışsal bağımlı değişkenlerin düşük varyans ve eğik dağılıma sahip olması (Schreurs ve ark., 2009), bu tür değişkenlerin incelenmesinde etki büyüklüklerinin düşük olması beklenebilir.
E. Vita

PERSONAL INFORMATION
Surname, Name: Acikgoz, Yalcin
Nationality: Turkish (TC)
Date and Place of Birth: 15 October 1983, Izmir
Marital Status: Married
email: acikgoz.yalcin@metu.edu.tr

EDUCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Year of Graduation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MA</td>
<td>Industrial-Organizational Psychology, Appalachian State University, NC, USA</td>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BS</td>
<td>Systems Engineering, Turkish Military Academy, Ankara</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>Maltepe Military High School, Izmir</td>
<td>2000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WORK EXPERIENCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004- Present</td>
<td>Turkish Armed Forces</td>
<td>Officer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

English

PUBLICATIONS


PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP)
F. Tez Fotokopisi İzin Formu

**ENSTİTÜ**
- Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü
- Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü [x]
- Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü
- Enformatik Enstitüsü
- Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü

**YAZARIN**
- Soyadı: Açık göz
- Adı: Yalçın
- Bölümü: Endüstri ve Örgüt Psikolojisi

**TEZİN ADI** (İngilizce): Intention – Behavior Gap as a Predictor of Applicant Withdrawal from the Job Application Process

**TEZİN TÜRÜ**: Yüksek Lisans [ ] Doktora [x]

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. [ ]
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. [ ]
3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz. [x]

**TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ:**