

PROCEDURAL JUSTICE, FACE VALIDITY, AND DEPARTURE FROM EXPECTATIONS
IN SELECTION PROCEDURES AS ANTECEDENTS OF ANTICIPATED
ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

by

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ABSTRACT

JACKSON ROATCH. Procedural Justice, Face Validity, and Departure from Expectations in Selection Procedures as Antecedents of Anticipated Organizational Support
(Under the direction of DR. LINDA SHANOCK)

Although perceived organizational support (POS) is a widely studied construct with well-established antecedents and consequences, less is known about how perceptions are formed in the early stages of the individual-organization relationship. Building on and integrating the signaling theory, employee attitudes, applicant reactions, and prospect theory literatures, it is proposed that perceived face validity of selection procedures, perceptions of procedural justice during selection procedures, and the departure from applicant expectations of procedural justice each serve as antecedents of anticipated organizational support (AOS). A vignette experimental design was used to simulate the job selection process comparing a contextualized vs. uncontextualized personality assessment as selection procedures, with surveys administered electronically before and after the simulation to assess selection procedure procedural justice perceptions, face validity perceptions, departure from procedural justice expectations, and anticipated organizational support. Results of hypothesis testing using structural equation modeling and polynomial regression with response surface analysis provide support for the hypotheses that procedural justice, face validity, and departure from procedural justice expectations are antecedents of anticipated organizational support. These findings advance organizational support theory by building understanding of where perceptions of organizational support may originate. Practical implications, limitations, and suggestions for future research are discussed.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents. To my mom Lisa, for her continuous support for my development as a student and person. If it weren't for her encouragement, I would not have completed this work. To my dad Steve, for contributing ideas and ways of thinking which have developed me intellectually since long before I started this work, as well as for help developing ideas during the work.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AOS	Anticipated Organizational Support
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
FV	Face Validity
H1-H7	Hypotheses 1 through 7
PJ	Procedural Justice
POS	Perceived organizational support
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling

INTRODUCTION

In some ways, labor markets can be considered similar to markets for goods: labor is a service that organizations purchase through monetary compensation, which functions as a price set by supply and demand (Borjas, 2015). However, participants on both sides of a labor market face unique conditions in which information about the other party is limited; for example, organizations have incomplete information on the abilities of job candidates, and job candidates have incomplete information about the job and the organization. This mutual state of incomplete information impacts both organizations and workers: poor information may lead to poor outcomes for organizations (i.e., selecting the wrong workers, increased search costs of talent recruitment) and for job candidates (i.e., low job satisfaction, increased search costs of applying and interviewing for jobs). Signaling theory (Spence, 1973) is one useful framework that helps explain how labor market participants evaluate the other party in the case of imperfect information. Spence suggests that organizations and workers make judgements by extrapolating from the few characteristics of the other party that are observable. For example, organizations may use education as a signal of high productivity in workers, whereas workers may rely on pre-hire experiences with the organization as indicators of underlying organizational characteristics. Because of this phenomenon, it is important for organizations to understand candidates' perceptions pre-hire (i.e., in the selection process), and how their perceptions may be extrapolated expectations of what the job or organization may be like.

From the point of view of employees, an important quality of an organization is perceived organizational support (POS), or the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al. 1986). There is a robust literature establishing both the importance of POS for the employee (e.g., enhanced job

satisfaction, reduced stress) and the organization (e.g., positive relationships with performance, citizenship behavior, and negative relationships with turnover), as well as important antecedents of POS (see Kurtessis et al., 2017 for meta-analysis of antecedents and outcomes of POS).

However, despite an emerging literature utilizing the construct of anticipated organizational support (AOS), which is the extent to which individuals *anticipate* the organization to value their contributions and care about their wellbeing, little is known about how newcomers', let alone job candidates' perceptions of organizational support are initially formed.

In addition to filling a gap in the research literature, a better understanding of AOS formation could be valuable to organizations looking to hire employees who will be likely to succeed in the job, but who also feel connected and supported by the organization from the beginning of the relationship. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to contribute to the research and practice of organizational support by proposing and empirically testing a model comprised of two novel approaches to AOS formation: First, pre-employment determinants of organizational support that follow logically from relationships established in prior research, namely applicant reactions to selection procedures including perceived face validity and procedural justice, may predict AOS. Secondly, applying prospect theory to applicant reactions, the attitudes of job candidates may be influenced by the difference between their expectations and their reactions to selection procedures, which may function as perceived as “signals” from the organization.

If supported, the proposed predictors of AOS may have significant implications for leaders and practitioners. With the rise of notorious assessments like “brain teasers” which are publicly perceived to be unfair (Bacharach, 2017), combined with growing organization reputation systems in which job applicants record information about their experiences such as

Glassdoor.com, it is increasingly pertinent for organizations to ensure that their procedures are perceived as fair, in addition to being valid. With a clearer understanding of how these procedures contribute to early employee attitudes such as AOS, practitioners may be better positioned to explain to leaders how selection procedures serve as signals to job applicants, and how careful management of these procedures could ultimately improve employee outcomes such as job performance, organizational commitment, and turnover.

Organizational Support Theory

In his original work on social exchange theory as applied to work (Levinson, 1965) argued that relationships between individuals and organizations are characterized by norms of reciprocation, which function to ensure that the psychological needs of the individual and the task demand needs of the organization are respectively satisfied. Levinson argued employees attribute person-like qualities to organizations, viewing favorable or unfavorable treatment as indicators that the organization favors or disfavors them. Building on this thinking, organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al. 1986; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011) posits that employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (perceived organizational support or POS) in part to determine their organization's readiness to serve as a worthwhile exchange partner. The literature demonstrates that positive treatment in the form of fairness, favorable HR practices and working conditions, as well as leader support are among major antecedents of POS (Eisenberger et al., 2020; Kurtessis et al. 2017). Based on the norm of reciprocity (i.e., employees are willing to reciprocate supportive treatment), as well as other mechanisms such as performance-reward expectancies and identification with the organization, POS relates positively to a host of good outcomes such as reduced turnover, enhanced employee well-being, and enhanced job

performance and commitment (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Because POS has been shown to predict a variety of important organizational outcomes, a better understanding of how to foster high levels of POS in individuals very early on in the employment process (e.g., during selection before they are employed) may be of strong interest to practitioners and leaders looking to acquire talent who will perform better, be more committed to the organization, and be less likely to leave. This point is underscored by research demonstrating that perceptions are known to be strongly influenced by first impressions (Rabin & Schrag, 1999; Wood, 2014) meaning that in terms of employee attitudes, more could be “at stake” early in the individual-organization relationship. Although POS is a widely studied topic with well-established theory and empirical evidence regarding its predictors and important outcomes, little is yet known about the formation of POS in the early stages of the individual-organization relationship such as during the pre-employment selection period.

Anticipated Organizational Support

A few studies have examined the role of POS early in the individual-organization relationship. Notably, there is evidence of early POS as a predictor of quality of new member socialization (Meyer & Bartels, 2017). Also, research from (Perrot et al., 2014) provided evidence that POS was a moderator of the relationship between socialization tactics and important socialization outcomes, suggesting that while effective socialization tactics can improve new member perceptions of being socialized into the organization, organizations cannot rely solely on socialization tactics to ensure that employees feel adequately valued and supported from the beginning and must provide signals of organizational support as well. Beyond the role of POS during the socialization process, which occurs once employees are hired, a nascent body of research has begun to examine anticipated organizational support (AOS), or the extent to

which newcomers *anticipate* the organization will value their contributions and care about their well-being prior to being hired (Casper & Buffardi, 2004). Although not yet articulated in the literature, this construct connects Spence's (1973) signaling theory of labor markets to Levinson's (1965) theory of reciprocation. Applying these frameworks, we would expect an organizational newcomer to extrapolate from their pre-hire experiences, developing expectations of the extent to which the organization would reciprocate their efforts and meet their psychological needs.

Existing research on AOS has found it to predict a variety of positive outcomes including job pursuit intentions (Casper & Buffardi, 2004) and leader-member exchange during employment (Zheng et al. 2016). The latter study suggests that organizations who foster AOS may enjoy higher levels of POS post-hire, in addition to subsequent favorable employee outcomes. However, Zheng et al. suggested that research is needed to understand pre-employment determinants of AOS. In one example of such research, Casper and Buffardi used an experimental vignette design that mimicked a recruiting situation, finding evidence that both childcare assistance and work flexibility (two examples of supportive HR practices) uniquely predicted AOS, which in turn predicted job pursuit intentions. Although the main focus of their research was on supportive work-life practices and job pursuit intentions, it is plausible that other antecedents of POS could function similarly in the pre-hire context. In particular, drawing from the applicant reactions literature (Hausknecht et al., 2004; Koczwara et al., 2012; Steiner & Gilliland, 1996), fairness of assessments used during the selection process may signal anticipated support. Therefore, research testing the impact of other known antecedents of POS, such as fairness perceptions, could strengthen our understanding of how organizations can foster AOS.

Fairness Perceptions and Applicant Reactions

Fairness perceptions, also referred to as organizational justice perceptions, consistently exhibit some of the strongest positive relationships with POS (Eisenberger et al., 2020; Kurtessis et al. 2017). A full review of organizational justice perceptions is outside the scope of this research, but Folger and Konovsky (1989, p. 115) offered a helpful summary of two key facets of organizational justice in the context of employment, suggesting “distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the amounts of compensation employees receive; procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the means used to determine those amounts”. Mapping this framework onto personnel selection, distributive justice concerns perceptions of the fairness of the outcome (job offer), and procedural justice concerns perceptions of the fairness of policies and practices used to reach the outcome (e.g., selection procedures). In their meta-analytic investigation of antecedents and consequences of POS, Kurtessis et al. suggested that of the various facets of organizational justice, procedural justice may be more crucial for fostering POS than distributive justice because it reflects policies and practices that are under the discretionary control of the organization. Indeed, they found procedural justice to be a stronger predictor of POS ($\rho = .66$) than distributive justice ($\rho = .57$), though both meta-analytic correlations are notably high.

Because the above research on fairness and POS was conducted in the post-hire context, it is important to consider the broader literature on pre-hire perceptions of fairness as well. Research on the formation and development of employee attitudes emphasizes the importance of pre-employment events as key antecedents (Mowday et al., 2013). Drawing from signaling theory (Spence, 1973; Rynes, 1991), research from Collins and Stevens (2002) and Turban and Cable (2003) supports the idea that prospective workers may extrapolate recruitment and selection-related experiences as signals, or indicators of underlying organizational

characteristics. One obvious pre-hire experience is the selection procedure itself, of which applicant reactions have previously been found to predict organizational attractiveness, job acceptance intentions, and recommendation intentions (Hausknecht et al., 2004). While motivation and anxiety have been shown to be strong predictors of these outcomes (McCarthy et al., 2017), one of the most frequently reported predictors of these key outcomes is fairness perceptions, namely procedural justice. In comparisons of common selection procedures, interviews and work sample tests have been found to be perceived as procedurally fairer, whereas personality and cognitive ability tests are considered less fair on average, despite their predictive validity (Steiner & Gilliland, 1996; Koczwara et al., 2012). Specifically, Steiner and Gilliland found that personality tests were perceived less favorably across several dimensions of procedural fairness including chance to perform, employers right to receive information, and respect for privacy, or propriety. Synthesizing key findings from the aforementioned literatures, we expect procedural justice to serve as an origin of anticipated organizational support, as well as a mediator between choice of selection procedure and anticipated organizational support.

Hypothesis 1: Procedural justice perceptions of the selection process will be positively related to anticipated organizational support.

Hypothesis 2: The choice of selection procedure will predict anticipated organizational support as mediated by procedural justice perceptions

In addition to the research on procedural justice reactions, there is evidence suggesting that face validity is a distinct, but similarly important, construct related to the type of assessment used (Hausknecht et al., 2004) that may eventually impact applicants' perceptions of organizations. Although procedural justice and face validity are commonly conflated, they are arguably separate constructs. Smither et al. (1993) defined face validity as "the extent to which

applicants perceive the content of the selection procedure to be related to the content of the job” (p. 54). Although content validity is a similar concept, the key distinction is that content validity is evaluated by assessment developers and/or raters with subject matter expertise, whereas face validity simply involves an individual’s judgement about the job relatedness of the assessment.

The Hausknecht et al. (2004) meta-analysis reported that the perceived face validity of selection procedures is a strong predictor of procedural justice perceptions, meaning that face validity may constitute one mechanism by which selection procedures produce variability in procedural justice perceptions. In addition to serving as an antecedent to applicant reactions such as procedural justice, the literature suggests that face validity may serve as an important determinant of broader attitudes about the organization. For example, the Hausknecht et al. (2004) meta-analysis reported that the face validity of selection procedures was related to organizational attractiveness, recommendation intentions, and offer acceptance intentions. Thus, prior research suggests that applicants’ perceptions of face validity of selection assessments may be related to overall impressions of the organization and could impact anticipated organizational support as well. This idea is supported by the fact that the job-relatedness of a selection procedures is within the discretionary control of organizations, meaning that by the same logic applied to procedural justice reactions, it is plausible that applicants may extrapolate their perceptions of face validity in the selection process to be indicators of how an organization would treat them if they were members.

Hypothesis 3: Face validity of selection assessments will be positively related to procedural justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 4: Face validity of selection procedures will be positively related to anticipated organizational support.

A logical way of testing hypotheses 1-4 would be to offer job applicants different types of assessments. However, there are several practical concerns that could make this difficult to accomplish in a laboratory setting, such as cost and time. Furthermore, assessments could introduce other confounding variables such as the time it takes for an applicant to complete the assessment which could impact the hypothesized relationships. Despite the research finding that applicants perceived personality assessments to be less job-relevant than other common selection methods such as interviews (Smither et al., 2003), they offer a cost-effective and consistent option for studying applicant reactions. Furthermore, recent research offers interesting opportunities to manipulate the job-relatedness of the assessments, which could be particularly useful for researching their impact on face validity and subsequent attitudes. Several studies have reported that contextualization of personality measures increases the face validity of personality assessments (Holtrop et al, 2014; Robie et al, 2017). Contextualization is the process of adding relevant context to a questionnaire, for example, changing the item “People often call me a perfectionist” to “People often call me a perfectionist at work”. By simply adding the words “at work” at the end of the item, the question is placed in context for the assessment-taker, a process which has been shown to increase the predictive validity of personality assessments (Shaffer & Postlewaite (2012). Building from the aforementioned literature, it is expected that contextualized personality assessments will lead to an increase in perceived face validity in the context of the selection process. Additionally, although there is no prior research on the question, this logic is extended to hypothesize that contextualized measures will yield increased perceptions of procedural justice as well.

Hypothesis 5: Contextualized personality assessments will be related to greater perceptions of face validity.

Hypothesis 6: Contextualized personality assessments will be related to greater perceptions of procedural justice.

A Prospect Theory Approach to Fairness

While choice of selection procedure by the organization and candidate perceptions of procedural justice may offer novel explanations of the origin of anticipated organizational support, considering these antecedents alone views that candidate as a “blank slate”, their attitudes being solely affected by the choices of the organization. In contrast, (Bell et al., 2004) applied prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979) to justice perceptions, arguing that expectations of fairness may serve as a kind of reference point for the applicant, and that these expectations may influence applicant attitudes, cognition, and behavior. Therefore, a more complete model of applicant reactions to selection procedures and AOS may consider the effects of justice expectations on subsequent reactions. As a theory of decision making, prospect theory emphasizes that individuals make judgements of value not in absolute terms, but in relation to a point of reference, that is, their expectations or past experiences. In addition, prospect theory describes how these value judgements are biased due to loss aversion and framing effects (Tversky & Kahneman, 1986).

Prospect theory is most commonly applied in the financial context: for example, loss aversion explains why people prefer to avoid a risk of losing \$1000 than an equal chance of acquiring the same amount. However, researchers in management and work psychology have used the theory to make advances in understanding other phenomena that are less tangible. For example, Heath et al. (1999) applied prospect theory to goal setting, demonstrating that goals serve as reference points, dividing outcomes into either perceived gains or losses. To illustrate, consider that if one sets a goal of performing 50 push-ups but is only able to perform 45, then we

would predict them perceive the outcome in a negative light, whereas the same number of push-ups could be perceived as a substantial achievement by someone with a smaller goal. In another example, Alessandri et al. (2021) performed a longitudinal field study, finding evidence that an employee's trend in job performance (i.e., departure from reference point) predicted whether they would be promoted beyond the previous level of performance alone.

This framework can be applied to employee attitudes as well, because they often involve value judgements. For example, researchers (Chen et al., 2011) investigated the relationship between changes in job satisfaction and turnover intentions, demonstrating that the trajectory of an employee's job satisfaction over time added incremental predictive validity over and above an employee's absolute level of job satisfaction. In other words, a given level of job satisfaction may have different meaning, depending on an individual's reference point. Thus, prospect theory is of great value to employee attitudes research in that it can contribute to the understanding of attitude-outcome relationships as well as enable more dynamic situational and context-dependent models of employee attitudes as called for by (Judge et al. 2017) in a review of the employee attitudes literature. In the organizational justice literature, (Paddock et al., 2014) provided experimental evidence that the value employees ascribe to "voice" is consistent with prospect theory and that employees' self-held justice rules (Lau & Wong, 2009) serve as a reference point. Similarly, (Ganegoda & Folger, 2014) provided experimental evidence that perceptions of the fairness of outcomes can be affected by the way a decision outcome is framed. Perhaps most relevant to the goals of the present study was a study by (Konradt et. al, 2016) which investigated changes in fairness perceptions during the selection process. Konradt and colleagues used a three-wave longitudinal design to model job applicants' perceived fairness over time, using fairness expectations as a reference point, and found that on average, applicants

have medium levels of initial fairness perceptions which slightly and linearly decrease over the course of the selection process.

Examining the relationship between fairness and perceived organizational support through the lens of prospect theory prompts several interesting hypotheses. As Chen et al. (2011) demonstrated, departures from an individual's attitude reference point may predict an outcome variable over and beyond the level of the attitude. Similarly, during the selection process we might expect that increases in fairness above one's reference point (past experiences or expectations of the fairness of the procedure) would predict higher levels of anticipated organizational support. On the other hand, decreases in fairness from one's reference point (losses) would predict decreases in anticipated organizational support, with the relationship being stronger than that of gains consistent with loss aversion. In the proposed model, an applicant's expectations of fairness are treated as their reference point, consistent with (Konradt et al., 2016; Jones & Skarlicki, 2013). In other words, it would be expected that fairness perceptions that exceed or fail to meet an applicant's expectations will amount to perceived "gains" or "losses", and that such gains or losses will predict anticipated organizational support over and above the most recent level of fairness perceptions (see Figure 2).

Hypothesis 7A: A positive departure or change in perceptions of procedural justice from an applicant's expectations will be positively related to anticipated organizational support.

Hypothesis 7B: A negative departure or change in perceptions of procedural justice from an applicant's expectations will be negatively related to anticipated organizational support.

Hypothesis 7C: Relationship H7B will be stronger than H7A, such that departures from expectations that are negative (losses) versus positive (gains) will more strongly predict anticipated organizational support.

Proposed Model Summary and Implications

Utilizing departure from fairness expectations, Hypotheses 7A through 7C complement Hypotheses 1-6 in that taken together, these hypotheses offer a holistic model of how applicant reactions in the selection procedure could serve as a point of origin of anticipated organizational support. If supported, this model would offer a key contribution to the organizational support literature, as well as contributing incrementally to the literatures on applicant reactions and prospect theory by establishing linkages between them. Also, a more complete understanding of how the choice of selection procedure may affect applicant reactions and attitudes such as AOS, practitioners may be better positioned to articulate how careful management of these procedures could ultimately improve important employee outcomes.

Method

Sample

A convenience sample was drawn using the Prolific system to enroll participants in an experimental between-subjects vignette design. Using Prolific options, the participant pool was narrowed to only those who are seeking employment. The only other criteria for inclusion was that the participants were 18 years or older and reside in the United States. After affirming informed consent and answering demographic questions, the vignette set-up in the online survey software Qualtrics randomly enrolled each participant in either the general personality test condition or the contextualized personality test condition. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was the primary technique proposed for hypothesis testing; therefore, a large overall sample was required. Fritz and MacKinnon (2007) suggest a sample size of 397 in order to detect medium effects in structural equation models. More recently Wang and Rhemtulla (2020), in a simulation, showed power curves demonstrating that when factor loadings in SEM are generally

.70 or higher for indicators of latent variables, and structural coefficients are .30 or above, samples of 200-400 or more are well-powered power to test structural relationships. Even with lower factor loadings and structural coefficients, 400 or more participants results in power of .80 or above. Therefore, a sample of 400 individuals was obtained for the present study. Hypotheses 2 and 3 were tested via regression within the structural equation model, however in order to further validate that the experimental manipulation could be adequately detected, a power analysis via G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) was conducted to verify that 200 participants in each experimental condition would allow for detection of a medium sized effect ($d=.2$) with 80% power.

Procedure

Using Prolific, participants were recruited to complete an online survey via Qualtrics survey software. Once a participant entered the survey, they reached an informed consent page, providing them with a study description and emphasizing that participation is optional. After being asked to indicate consent to participate, they were asked screening questions to confirm that they are at least 18 years of age and that they reside in the United States, as well as demographic questions asking participants to indicate their ethnicity, gender, and type of occupation they are seeking (using the major occupation types from the BLS Standard Occupational Classification taxonomy). Participants were then introduced to the hypothetical scenario in which they were being interviewed for a project manager job (See Appendix A). The project manager job was chosen because it is a common job, easily describable, and not specific to a particular industry. These characteristics should increase the chance that participants are familiar with the job, and/or be able to understand it from the mock description, which would maximize task salience. Participants then answered questions regarding procedural justice

expectations. From there, participants were randomly selected to one of the two experimental conditions. Both conditions utilized items from Costa and McCrae's (1992) NEO-PI-R domain subscales, but in one condition, measures were contextualized by adding "at work" to the end of the item or adding similar language earlier in the phrase if needed to preserve grammatical clarity. The survey was relatively short in length, consisting of 83 questions in both conditions. Including time to read informed consent and instructions, the survey was estimated to take between 15-20 minutes to complete. Although a cross-sectional design cannot be used to establish causality which is presumed in a mediation model, in the present study at least an experimental vignette design was used in attempt to link the type of selection procedure to the face validity, procedural justice perceptions, and departure from expectations (the potential mediators). For the latter half of the model linking procedural justice perceptions and departure from expectations with AOS, ideally those measures would at least be separated in time to help meet the temporal precedence criteria for mediation, although it still would not rule out alternative explanations for the relationships in the model. However, in this case one would expect AOS to form immediately after the selection procedure experience, thus the time frame (measuring the outcome variable AOS right after the potential mediators) might be realistic. This will be discussed further in the limitations section.

Measures

Procedural Justice Perceptions. Procedural justice perceptions were measured using the "propriety of questions" and "chance to perform" subscales of the selection procedural justice scale (SPJS) developed by (Bauer et al. 2001). The study used these subscales and not the others for the following reasons. First, the "job relatedness-predictive" and "job relatedness-content" subscales were used to assess face validity (see below), rather than conflating it with procedural

justice. The remaining subscales - information known, reconsideration opportunity, feedback, consistency, openness, treatment, and two-way communication - involve aspects of the selection process that are not in the scope of this study, such as in-person treatment by administrators (treatment subscale, sample item: The test administrators were considerate during the test) and the feedback of assessment results (feedback subscale, sample item: I had a clear understanding of when I would receive my results). Furthermore, it could be argued that the propriety of questions and chance to perform subscales are the most relevant to the theoretical underpinnings of the study. For example, the extent to which a selection instrument is perceived to be too personal or private (proprietary of questions), or not providing a sufficient opportunity to demonstrate skills and abilities (chance to perform) are the portions of the SPJS that align most closely with the logic applied in the aforementioned review of the applicant reactions and procedural justice literatures. Responses to each item in the chosen scales were rated on a scale of 1-7 and anchored by “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree.”

Procedural Justice Expectations. To measure procedural justice expectations, the same procedural justice scales as outlined in the previous paragraph were adapted to change the context to expectations. Although again, concerns remain about the validity of adapted scales (Heggestad et al., 2019), the application of prospect theory to procedural justice requires a consistent measure of procedural justice. Rather than using difference scores (i.e., procedural justice perceptions minus procedural justice expectations), departure from expectations was operationalized using polynomial regression with response surface analysis, as recommended by Shanock et al. (2010).

Face Validity. Face validity was measured via the job relatedness-predictive and the job relatedness – content subscales of the selection procedural justice scale (SPJS) developed by

(Bauer et al. 2001). This face validity scale consists of four items asking about an applicant's perception of whether or not a selection instrument is related to the job in question. Bauer et al. reported an internal consistency reliability of $\alpha = .87$ for this scale. Responses were rated on a scale of 1-7 and anchored by "strongly disagree" and "strongly agree."

Anticipated organizational support. Anticipated organizational support was measured using eight items from the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS; Eisenberger et al., 1986) previously adapted by Casper and Buffardi (2004) to assess AOS. Similar to (Casper & Buffardi, 2004), a small adjustment in wording from the wording of the original SPOS was made for each question to put the items in the context of future expectations, in addition to the context of the vignette. For example, the item "My organization cares about my opinions" became "This organization would care about my opinions". Casper and Buffardi reported an internal consistency reliability of $\alpha = .90$ for their AOS scale using the same items. Responses will be rated on a scale of 1-7 and anchored by "strongly disagree" and "strongly agree." In their paper on scale adaptations, Heggstad et al. (2019) present several concerns about scale adaptation in general, as well as recommendations for various types of adaptations. Although they do not generally recommend changing the content of items, it is necessary to measure AOS, so any discussion of the study findings will have to consider the limitations of this kind of adaption. However, adapting the SPOS scale in the same way as (Casper & Buffardi, 2004) will help to avoid cascading adaptations in the budding AOS literature.

Personality assessment

The personality assessment serves as an experimental instrument rather than a measure for testing a hypothesis. Items from Costa and McCrae's (1992) NEO-PI-R domain subscales were used in both conditions. Items were contextualized by adding "at work" tags at the end of

the item, for example, “make plans and stick to them” becomes “make plans and stick to them at work”. Where it didn’t make grammatical sense, items were tagged with “work” earlier in the phrase. Out of the 50 items from Costa and McCrae’s domain subscales, 8 were removed because they did not make sense in the work setting, for example “Do not enjoy going to art museums”. Responses were rated on a scale of 1-7 and anchored by “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree”, however participants’ responses were not scored as part of the core study.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 displays means, standard deviations, and correlations. Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal range from .74 - .97 indicating good internal consistency for all measures. The descriptive statistics indicated that participants who took the contextualized personality assessment (Condition = 1) had significantly higher ($p < .05$) perceptions of propriety, chance to perform, and perceived predictive validity, suggesting that the experimental manipulation had its intended effect on the facet subscales of procedural justice and face validity. However, unexpectedly, taking the contextualized personality assessment did not result in significantly higher global procedural justice perceptions. Another unexpected finding was that both face validity subscales-perceived predictive validity and perceived job relatedness-were very highly correlated with the procedural justice subscale chance to perform (both coefficients .75). Such high correlations raise questions about whether there is discriminant validity between these scales. To provide an initial test of discriminant validity, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was run, testing an alternative model with face validity as a latent factor underlying the chance to perform, perceived predictive validity, and perceived job relatedness subscales. Model fit indices (CFI = .99, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .04) suggested good overall fit

and the chance to perform items all loaded highly ($>.95$) on the latent factor, indicating that there does not appear to be discriminant validity between chance to perform and face validity, at least within the current study sample. To avoid this issue, the global measures of procedural justice were used instead of the procedural justice facets (i.e., chance to perform) in the structural equation model to test hypotheses 1-6.

Demographic variables age, ethnicity, sex, and desired occupation were measured to describe the sample and assess the sample's representativeness of the U.S. working adult population. Results suggest that the sample had a mean age of 33 years, with a standard deviation of 11 years, indicating a large age range in the sample and a mean slightly younger than that measured in the US census data on the overall population, 38.6. Participants were 52% female compared to 50.8% for the overall population. For ethnicity, Whites (68% vs. 62%) and Asians (11% vs. 6%) were overrepresented in the sample and Blacks (8% vs. 13%) were underrepresented in the sample. Data suggested that participants in the sample were seeking a large range of different occupations.

Table 1 includes only the two demographic variables that were significantly related to any of the study variables (age and sex). Different racial identities and occupations did not show significantly different means of the study variables. Descriptive statistics in Table 1 suggest that age was significantly positively correlated with perceived propriety and chance to perform on the assessment (procedural justice), as well as perceived predictive validity of the assessment (face validity). Conversely, being female was significantly negatively related to perceived propriety after the assessment, despite being positively related to anticipated procedural justice and anticipated propriety.

Data Analysis Strategy

Hypotheses 1 through 5 were tested with structural equation modeling using the lavaan package in R. This method was selected for a few reasons. First, each variable in the hypotheses except for the assessment condition (i.e., procedural justice perceptions, AOS) is an unobserved latent construct that reflects the shared variance of the observed measures (items). Given that the hypothesized relationships are between the *latent variables*, rather than the *observed variables*, SEM allows for the combination of measurement models and a path analysis testing the relationships between the latent variables and allows for assessment of all relationships in the model simultaneously. Given the confirmatory factor analysis results for the face validity measures and chance to perform subscale, the global procedural justice scale was used. Also, given the high raw correlation between the measures, this avoids multicollinearity issues in the structural equation model. A combined measurement and path model was specified with procedural justice reactions and anticipated organizational support as first-order latent factors, and face validity as a second order factor measured by perceived predictive validity and job relatedness. Model fit statistics suggested acceptable overall fit (CFI = .94, RMSEA = .10, SRMR = .04).

Because hypotheses 7A through 7C involve the use of difference scores (procedural justice reactions vs. procedural justice expectations, they were tested separately from the overall model, via polynomial regression as suggested by Shanock et al. (2010). The extended versions of both anticipated procedural justice and procedural justice reactions were mean centered for response surface analysis to aid interpretation. The regression model was specified using the stats package and response surface analysis was performed via the rsm package in R.

Results of Hypothesized Structural Equation Model

Table 2 displays results for hypotheses 1 through 6. Hypothesis 1 was supported, with procedural justice perceptions predicting anticipated organizational support ($\beta = .48, p < .001$). For Hypothesis 6, similar to what was observed in the correlation matrix, being in the contextualized condition was not significantly directly related to perceptions of procedural justice ($\beta = .02, p = .65$), however, as explained in the next paragraph, Hypothesis 2 was supported indirectly once overall path analysis was performed which included calculating indirect effects. Hypothesis 5 was also supported, with the contextualized personality assessment being positively related to face validity ($\beta = .11, p < .05$), indicating that participants who took the contextualized assessment had significantly higher perceptions of face validity than those who took the general version.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 were supported, with face validity positively predicting procedural justice perceptions ($\beta = .62, p < .001$) and anticipated organizational support ($\beta = .29, p < .001$) respectively. These results suggest that face validity may contribute to anticipated organizational support both directly and indirectly through procedural justice perceptions. The overall model garners support for Hypotheses 2 and 6 – with path analysis yielding a significant indirect relationship between the contextualized condition and procedural justice, as well as a significant total indirect relationship between the contextualized condition and anticipated organizational support ($\beta = .06, p < .05$). However, although procedural justice did mediate the relationship between the contextualized assessment and AOS via face validity, the contextualized assessment condition did not predict procedural justice perceptions directly. According to recommendations from Aguinis et al. (2017), demonstrating a direct effect between an initial variable and the outcome is not required when testing for mediation. Establishing a significant indirect effect is

required, as was the case in the current study. Thus, the support for Hypotheses 2 and 6 follow recommendations from (Aguinis et al., 2017) that researchers should conclude that mediation effects do exist when the indirect effect is supported, even if the direct effect is not.

Results of Polynomial Regression with Response Surface Analysis

Table 3 displays results for the polynomial regression model used to test Hypotheses 7A-7C along with response surface analysis. The polynomial regression coefficients are not interpreted themselves but are used together to calculate slopes along the response surface curve, signified in Table 3 as a1-a4. Coefficients a1 and a3 indicate slope along $x = y$ (the line of congruence) and the $x = -y$ line (the line of incongruence), respectfully. Coefficients a2 and a4 represent curvature along the $x = y$ and $x = -y$ lines. The slopes can also be interpreted in Figure 5, which provides a visualization of the estimated relationships between procedural justice expectations, procedural justice reactions, and anticipated organizational support, where $x =$ anticipated procedural justice and $y =$ procedural justice. More information on polynomial regression with response surface analysis can be found in (Shanock et al. 2010). The a3 and a4 coefficients are most pertinent to Hypotheses 7A-7C, as discussed below.

Results from the model provide support for Hypothesis 7B but not Hypothesis 7A. The significant a4 coefficient suggests that a greater degree of discrepancy (difference) between procedural justice expectations and reactions is associated with lower anticipated organizational support in general. Most notably, this provides evidence that applicants who had high procedural justice expectations, but low procedural justice reactions had significantly lower perceptions of anticipated organizational support, as proposed in Hypothesis 7B. A two-dimensional plot of the response surface (Figure 6) demonstrates that among applicants whose expectations were violated (bottom-right side of the line of congruence), procedural justice reactions that depart

further from expectations are associated with lower levels of anticipated organizational support. Alternatively, this can be visualized through an interaction plot (Figure 4) demonstrating that participants with high expectations, but low reactions had significantly lower anticipated organizational support, or in Figure 5 looking at the right-hand side of the response surface.

Hypothesis 7A proposed the inverse, that anticipated organizational support would be higher in cases where applicants' expectations were exceeded. Unfortunately, there were relatively few cases wherein reactions were higher than expectations, as can be visualized in Figure 7 on the upper-left side of the line of congruence. This means that the responses were insufficient to adequately test hypothesis 7A. The significance test of the response surface coefficient a_3 provides a test of Hypothesis 7C, and the significant negative coefficient indicates that the direction of the discrepancy does make a difference – with AOS being slightly higher when procedural justice expectations are greater than procedural justice reactions versus the opposite, where reactions were higher than expectations. This runs contrary to Hypothesis 7C, however, the skew in responses mentioned above and visualized in Figure 7 mean that overall results for Hypothesis 7C should be taken as inconclusive.

Discussion

Despite a robust literature on the antecedents of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 2020; Kurtessis et al. 2017), relatively little research has investigated the formation of POS prior to entering the organization (called anticipated organizational support) and determinants of workers' anticipated organizational support early in the individual-organization relationship. This study drew on a wide range of theories including signaling theory and prospect theory to propose several hypotheses to fill this gap in the organizational support literature. The selection process was a natural place to investigate first because all organizational

newcomers undergo selection, and past literature on applicant reactions points to its importance in determining other attitudes such as procedural justice and willingness to recommend the organization (Hausknecht et al., 2004). Using an experimental vignette design simulating the job assessment process to test these hypotheses, most aspects of the model were supported.

Procedural justice reactions to the assessment were found to positively relate to AOS, as was face validity which related to AOS both directly and indirectly as mediated by procedural justice perceptions. The effects were relatively large as well – model R-squared values indicated that 48% of the variance in AOS was accounted for by the predictor variables. Path analysis also supported the hypothesis that procedural justice would mediate the effect of a contextualized personality assessment on anticipated organizational support, however this effect, in addition to the overall indirect effect of the contextualized assessment on anticipated organizational support was small. This should be interpreted within the broader finding that the vast majority of vignette participants experienced lower levels of procedural justice reactions post-assessment than they expected. These unfavorable reactions are in line with prior research from (Steiner & Gilliland, 1996; Koczwara et al., 2012) that found that applicants generally react poorly to personality assessments. Thus, despite the benefits of contextualization for applicant reactions, the results of this study suggest that any benefits, while statistically significant, may not be practically significant, since applicants may perceive the assessment in a negative light compared to their expectations.

The hypothesis that departure from procedural justice expectations would predict AOS was supported, with participants at each level of procedural justice expectations exhibiting lower levels of AOS to the extent to which their expectations were violated. However, as shown in Figure 7, responses overwhelmingly skewed towards violated expectations, versus exceeded

expectations. This skew in responses means that only “one side” of the hypothesis was tested, which is discussed more in the limitations section below. This skew in responses led to a lack of support for Hypothesis 7B, in that it was difficult to compare the effect of departure from expectations between violated and exceeded given that very few people had their expectations exceeded. However, the addition of departure from procedural justice expectations to the overall model contributes a nascent understanding of a dynamic component to AOS formation that can be extended and built upon in future research.

Theoretical Implications

There is a paucity of research on the antecedents of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 2020; Kurtessis et al. 2017), however less is understood about how the attitude is formed earlier in the individual-organizational relationship. The hypotheses tested in this study drew from signaling theory, organizational support, and prospect theory to offer several theoretical contributions that address this gap in understanding. Although not previously articulated, Spence’s (1973) signaling theory of labor markets and Levinson’s (1965) theory of individual-organization reciprocation together suggest that job applicants may extrapolate from their pre-hire experiences to develop expectations of the extent to which the organization would meet reciprocity norms, meet psychological needs, and treat them well in general. In line with this thinking, research by (Casper & Buffardi, 2004) previously provided evidence that signaling supportive HR practices to job applicants predicted anticipated organizational support. The present research provides an extension of that work, drawing on the theories above to integrate and apply the applicant reactions literature in a novel manner. Namely, in this study it was proposed (with results providing supporting evidence) that job applicants may perceive their experiences in the selection process as signals of how the organization is likely to function on

“the inside”. Therefore, although the amount of research on pre-employment antecedents of anticipated organizational support is still relatively sparse to research on antecedence of perceived organizational support post-entry, we do have evidence that signaling both supportive practices and fair processes may contribute to anticipated organizational support. As will be discussed in the future directions section below, it is likely that there are additional events in the recruiting and selection processes that function as signals of organizational support, presenting a fruitful avenue for future research.

Another key theoretical contribution provided is the application of prospect theory to the nascent anticipated organizational support literature, in addition to the organizational support and applicant reactions literatures more broadly. While researchers Chen et al., (2011) had provided a demonstration of the applicability of prospect to employee attitudes, this is the first known research to apply the theory to these literatures as well as the pre-employment context. The results of this study serve as evidence that departure from expectations, specifically in the negative direction, relate to anticipated organizational support such that applicants whose expectations are violated by selection procedures may have lower anticipated organizational support. In proposing this model and providing supporting evidence, this study offers a dynamic model of the formation of anticipated organizational support that considers a temporally-based psychological process in which outcomes depend not only on reactions to events, but applicants’ comparison of these events to their past experiences. This aspect of the model represents an incremental theoretical improvement upon what would have been offered without it, answering the call for more realistic, dynamic models of job attitudes as called for by (Judge et al. 2017).

Practical Implications

This research has several important practical implications for human resources practitioners and leaders of any organizations that recruit new members. First, this research supports the larger notion that the foundations of worker attitudes are laid before workers walk through the door. This research used a simulated job assessment process to examine how anticipated organizational support may be affected by applicant reactions to the job assessment procedure. In an immediate sense, practitioners could consider that the choice of selection procedure may impact attitudes of job candidates and possibly go on to influence employee attitudes for those who are selected to be members of the organization. This study replicated past findings that contextualizing personality assessments led to higher face validity (Holtz, Ployhart, and Dominguez, 2005, Holtrop et al, 2014; Robie et al, 2017) among applicants than non-contextualized personality assessments. Therefore, if practitioners opt to use these kinds of assessments in personnel selection, they should consider that contextualization could have positive impacts on anticipated organizational support as mediated through face validity and procedural justice reactions.

Although this study underscores the benefits of contextualization, this should be interpreted in the context of the broader findings in the study, particularly that participants tended to have perceptions of procedural justice that did not meet expectations (mean perception of 4.66 compared to expectation of 5.58 on a 7 point scale). In addition, participants had rather unfavorable perceptions of chance to perform (3.17), predictive validity (3.5), and job relatedness (3.1) of the assessment, all on 7 point scales. Therefore, it is recommended that practitioners reference aforementioned literature (Steiner & Gilliland, 1996; Koczwara et al.,

2012) which found evidence that candidates typically perceived interviews and work sample tests to be fairer than personality and cognitive ability tests.

More broadly, the results of this study imply that job applicants form attitudes towards organizations before they are members, and that these attitudes are within the control of the organization insofar that their choice of selection procedure affects applicants' perceptions of procedural justice and face validity. Therefore, when choosing between various selection procedures, practitioners should balance these applicant reactions with other concerns such as predictive validity, adverse impact, and cost. In addition, although more research is needed before specific recommendations can be made, practitioners should note that it is very likely that other elements of the recruitment and selection processes can and do affect applicant attitudes. Based on signaling theory, job applicants may be looking out for signals of organizations' characteristics – for example, the level of organizational support offered to workers – throughout the process, meaning how an organization presents itself in the job posting all the way through the first day of employment may be consequential to eventual employee attitudes. If negative attitudes, or even favorable attitudes with a downward trajectory are formed before a worker walks in the door, this could be setting organizations up for failure from the perspective of job satisfaction, job performance, and employee turnover. For applicants who are not selected, these attitudes may translate to broader opinions of the organization as reviewed in the (Hausknecht et al. 2004) meta-analysis, which could be consequential for many organizations that are not just viewed as employers, but as brands that want to attract and retain customers as well.

Limitations and Future Directions

There are several key limitations of this study that, taken alongside the theoretical contributions made, could point researchers in fruitful new directions. To begin, although the

study participants were job seekers, this research did not take place within an actual job selection process. In reality, job selection processes take place over longer time periods, are more salient and/or meaningful to individuals, and include a host of factors other than a single selection assessment that could affect attitudes. This limitation has two major implications. First, research is needed to replicate the results of this study in real organizational settings, where attitudes may form over longer periods. Secondly, it is likely that other aspects of the job selection procedure, such as interactions with organizational members, the time it takes to hear back about selection decisions, and how the organization presents itself more broadly, could all affect attitudes such as anticipated organizational support. Additional research should build off these findings here to piece together a fuller picture of how these initial worker attitudes are created.

Another limitation of this study is that the generally unfavorable reactions towards the personality assessment restricted the sample sizes of different combinations of procedural justice expectations and reactions. Namely, as presented in Figure 7, there were relatively few cases in which a participant's expectations were exceeded by the assessment process, which restricted the ability to test Hypothesis 7B. Drawing from the theory of loss aversion, this hypothesis suggested that a negative departure from expectations would more strongly affect anticipated organizational support when compared to a positive departure from expectations. Future research testing different types of assessments could yield a more complete response distribution and allow for a more rigorous test of whether loss aversion is a viable model in this context.

Finally, there may be opportunities to improve upon the model presented here by improving measures. First, although it was initially argued that face validity and procedural justice should be treated as separate constructs, data from this sample did not suggest discriminant validity between the chance to perform (procedural justice) and face validity

measures used. More research to further understand this measurement issue, as well as research clarifying constructs and measures of applicant reactions in general would be beneficial for future research efforts utilizing these constructs. Furthermore, a post-hoc analysis of the structural equation model using modification indices suggested a considerable amount of unexplained covariance between two AOS items, “If given the opportunity, this organization would take advantage of me” and “This organization would show very little concern for me.” These items were the only two reverse-worded items in the scale which could account for this residual covariance. Adding an additional parameter specifying this residual covariance between these observed variables (items) to the model improved overall model fit (CFI = .97 RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .03) and the parameter specifying the covariance between the error terms of the two reverse-worded items indicated a large, standardized effect size of .62 ($p < .001$), suggesting that the response patterns for these two items explained a large amount of variance independent from the latent AOS factor. Future research should investigate the extent to which reverse-worded items may contribute to residual error in larger models, and in line with recommendations from (Landis et al., 2009), hypothesize correlated residuals among reverse-worded items in the future to avoid post-hoc modification. In addition, while the anticipated organizational support measure used here and in (Casper and Buffardi, 2004) was adapted from the original 8-item perceived organizational support scale from the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS; Eisenberger et al., 1986), it is possible that improved anticipated organizational support scales could be created by removing or replacing the reverse-worded items. For example, (Merritt, 2012) used an experimental design to demonstrate that cognitive fatigue may have detrimental effects on measurement of constructs using reverse-worded items and recommended replacing them with positively worded items.

Conclusion

Organizations face a personnel selection problem in that they have incomplete information about worker characteristics such as ability. Selection procedures provide a solution, functioning as signals of job candidates underlying characteristics. However, the selection process also presents an opportunity for workers to learn more about organizations' characteristics. This research used an experimental vignette design, simulating the job assessment process to test a holistic model of how reactions to selection procedures could result in an early worker attitude, anticipated organizational support. The findings support the hypotheses that procedural justice, face validity, and departure from procedural justice expectations are antecedents of anticipated organizational support. This study fills a key gap in the research literature in terms of building our understanding of where perceptions of organizational support may originate. In addition, the findings provide recommendations to practitioners about how their choice of selection procedure could affect applicant and new worker attitudes. There are future research opportunities to overcome some of the limitations of this study as well as expand upon the theoretical contributions made here.

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Table 1*Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliability Coefficients*

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Condition	0.50	-	-											
2. Age	33.33	10.52	.01	-										
3. Sex	0.52	-	.03	-.03	-									
4. Anticipated Procedural Justice (Global)	5.37	1.04	.06	0.07	0.11*	.92								
5. Anticipated Propriety (PJ)	5.58	1.01	.01	0.11*	0.12*	.65**	.74							
6. Anticipated Chance to Perform (PJ)	5.26	1.10	.09	0.13**	0.03	.65**	.49**	.92						
7. Procedural Justice (Global)	4.66	1.57	.08	0.11*	-0.08	.53**	.31**	.47**	.95					
8. Propriety (PJ)	4.98	1.56	.14**	0.04	-0.14**	.48**	.36**	.35**	.73**	.85				
9. Chance to Perform (PJ)	3.17	1.75	.10*	0.08	-0.06	.31**	.11**	.42**	.65**	.48**	.97			
10. Perceived Predictive Validity (FV)	3.50	1.52	.10*	0.06	-0.04	.32**	.17**	.38**	.58**	.43**	.75**	.89		
11. Perceived Job Relatedness (FV)	3.10	1.74	.07	0.09	-0.03	.21**	.07	.29**	.49**	.34**	.75**	.72**	.96	
12. Anticipated Organizational Support	4.28	1.22	.06	0.12*	-0.05	.40**	.30**	.41**	.61**	.59**	.54**	.52**	.44**	.94

Note: Condition = 1 indicates contextualized assessment condition versus general. Sex = 1 indicates female. Coefficients on diagonal represent Cronbach's alpha reliability. *Indicates correlation significant at $p < .05$; **indicates $p < .01$. Global = global measure of procedural justice, PJ = procedural justice, FV = face validity

Table 2*Structural Equation Model Coefficients*

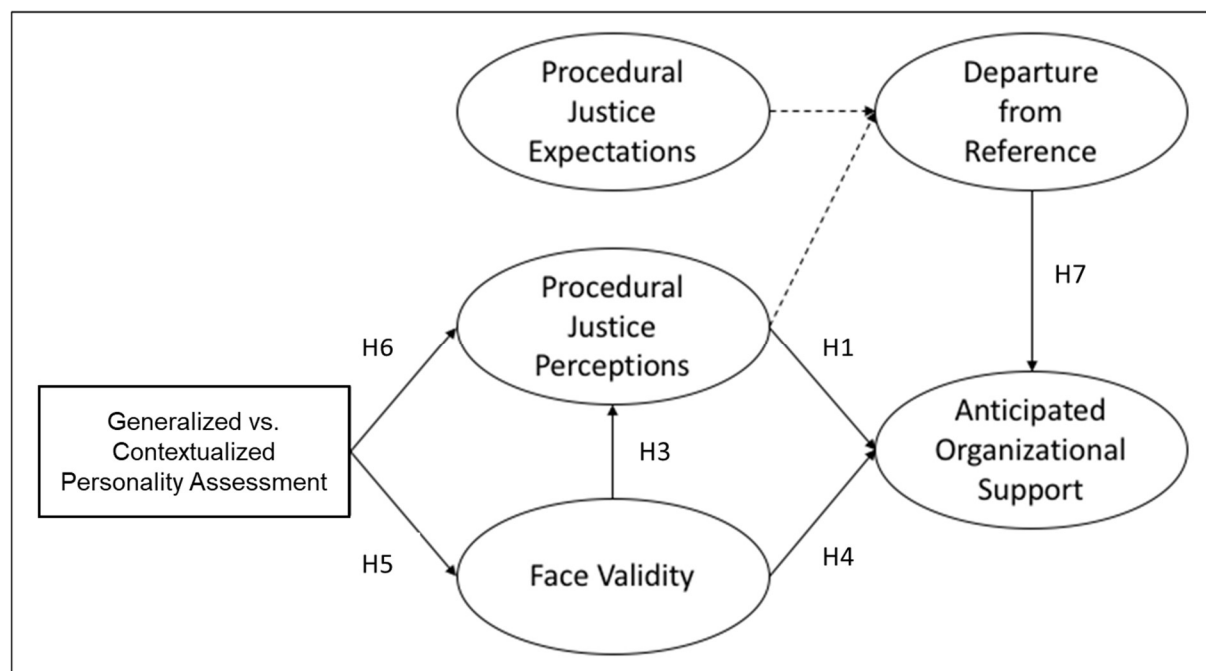
Predictor Variable	Path	Predicted Variable	Std. Estimate	SE	95% CI		p
					LL	HL	
Context. Condition	->	Face Validity	.11	.05	.01	.21	.03
Context. Condition	->	Procedural Justice	.02	.04	-.06	.10	.65
Face Validity	->	Procedural Justice	.62	.04	.55	.70	.00
Procedural Justice	->	AOS	.48	.05	.38	.58	.00
Face Validity	->	AOS	.29	.05	.18	.39	.00
Context. Condition	->	Procedural Justice*	.03	.016	.002	.065	.04
Context. Condition	->	Face Validity*	.03	.016	.001	.064	.04
Context. Condition	->	AOS^	.06	.03	.01	.13	.03

Note: N = 398 (3 observations removed due to missingness). CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit. AOS = Anticipated Organizational Support. *Indirect effect, ^Total indirect effect. Estimates are standardized

Table 3*Polynomial Regression Model Coefficients*

Effect	Estimate	SE	95% CI		p
			LL	HL	
Intercept	3.93	.11	3.71	4.15	0.00
Procedural Justice Reactions	0.27	.08	0.11	0.43	0.00
Anticipated Procedural Justice	0.64	.12	0.40	0.87	0.00
Procedural Justice Reactions ²	-0.07	.02	-0.12	-0.03	0.00
Anticipated Procedural Justice ²	-0.15	.04	-0.24	-0.07	0.00
Procedural Justice Reactions X Anticipated Procedural Justice	0.12	.04	0.03	0.21	0.01
a1: Slope along x=y (as related to Z)	0.90	0.07	0.76	1.05	0.00
a2: Curvature on x=y (as related to Z)	-0.15	0.03	-0.20	-0.10	0.00
a3: Slope along x=-y (as related to Z)	-0.37	0.18	-0.73	-0.01	0.04
a4: Curvature on x=-y (as related to Z)	-0.49	0.08	-0.65	-0.33	0.00

Note: N = 388 (13 observations deleted due to missingness). Adjusted R-squared: .47, F-statistic: 68.73 on 5 and 328 df. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit. Estimates are unstandardized.

Figure 1*Proposed Model*

Not shown: Hypothesis 2 - Procedural justice perceptions will mediate the relationship between choice of selection procedure and anticipated organizational support

Figure 2

Prospect Theory Approach to Fairness and Anticipated Organizational Support

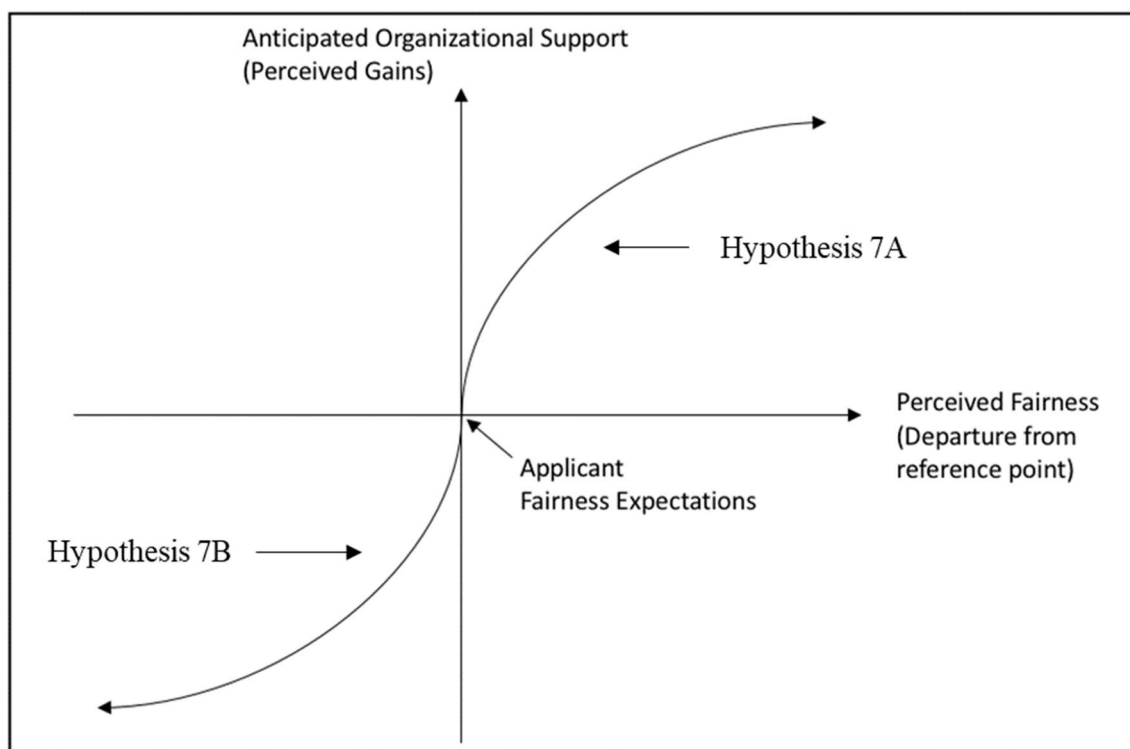
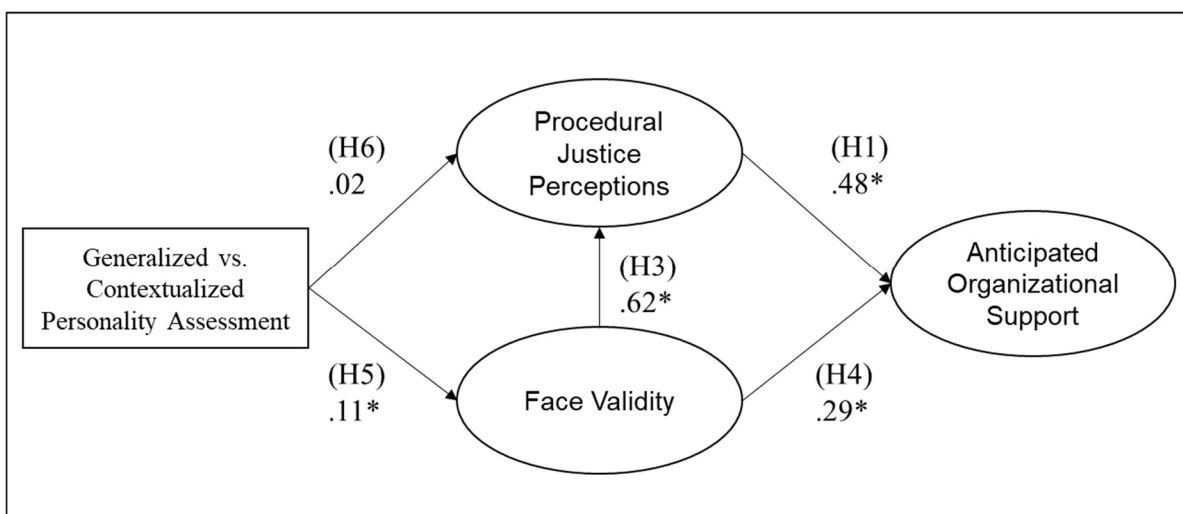


Figure 3

Visualization of Structural Equation Model Testing Hypotheses 1-6



Note. *Indicates $p < .05$; Coefficients are standardized.

Figure 4

Visualization of Interaction Between Procedural Justice Expectations and Procedural Justice Reactions Predicting Anticipated Organizational Support

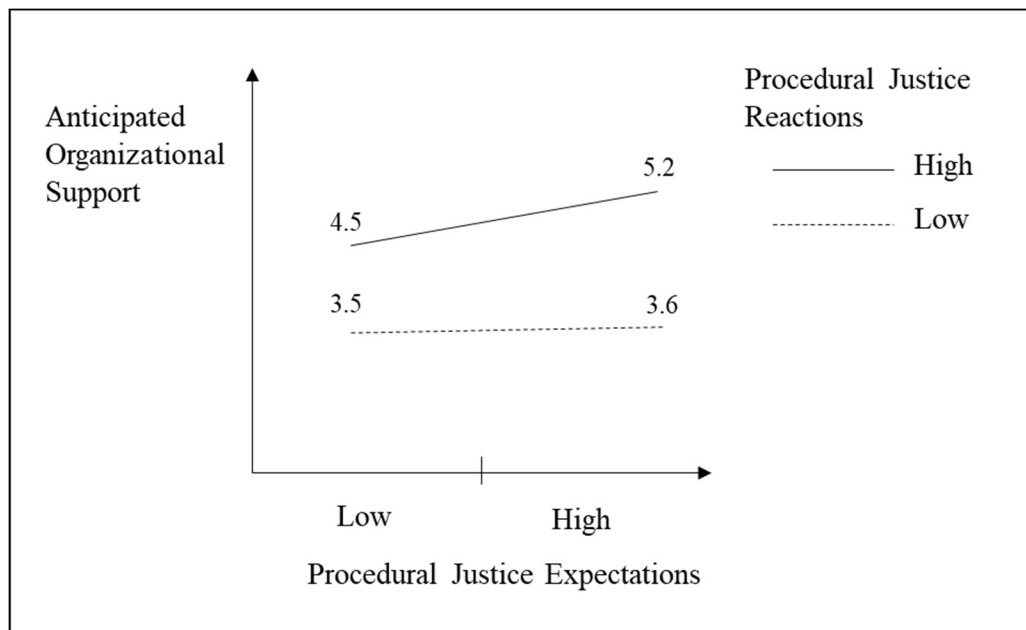
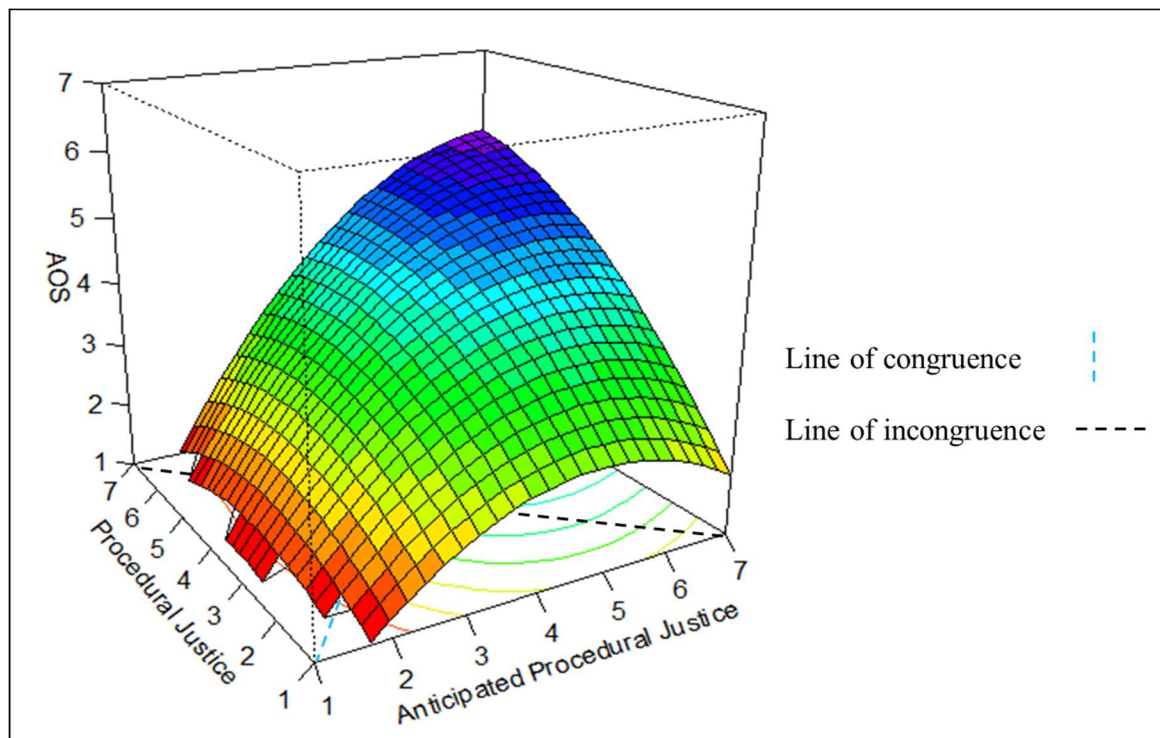


Figure 5

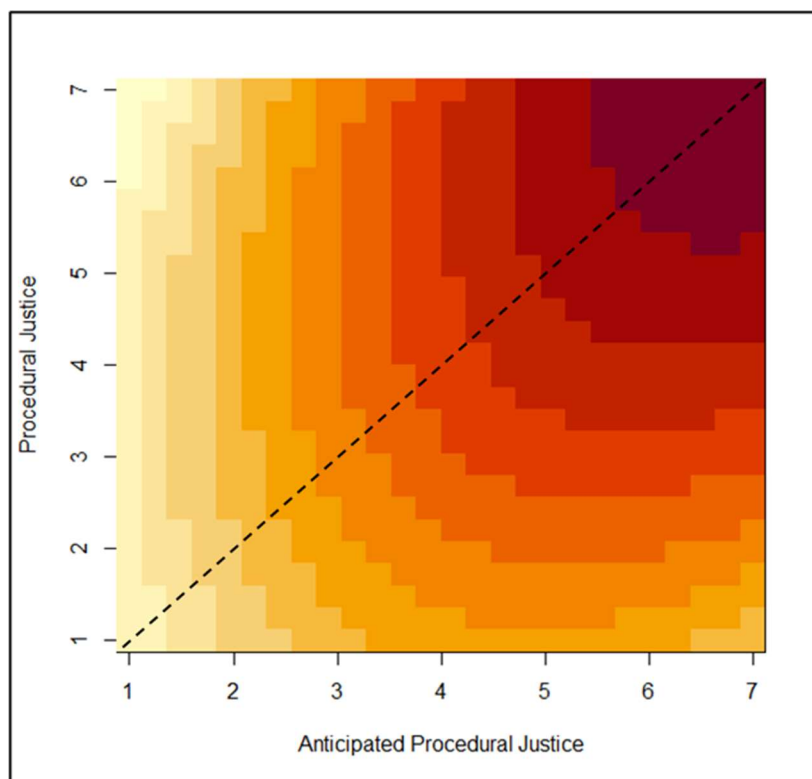
Response Surface Plot of Polynomial Regression Model Predicting Anticipated Organizational Support



Colors indicate predicted level of AOS (Red = 1, purple = 7)

Figure 6

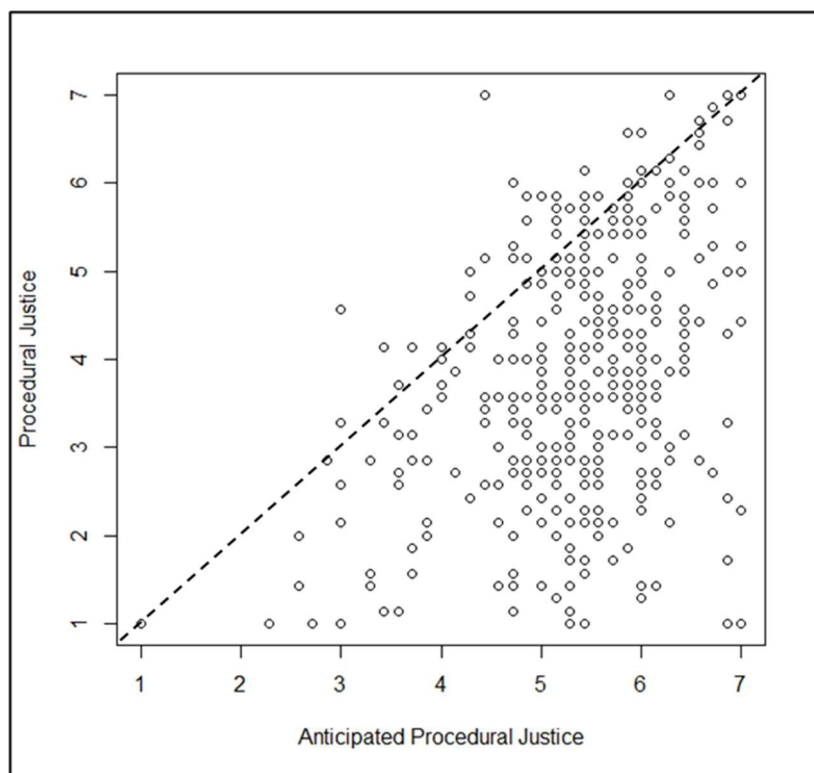
2-Dimensional View of Response Surface.



Note: Darker shades correspond to higher anticipated organizational support, and dashed line represents the line of congruence between anticipated procedural justice and procedural justice reactions.

Figure 7

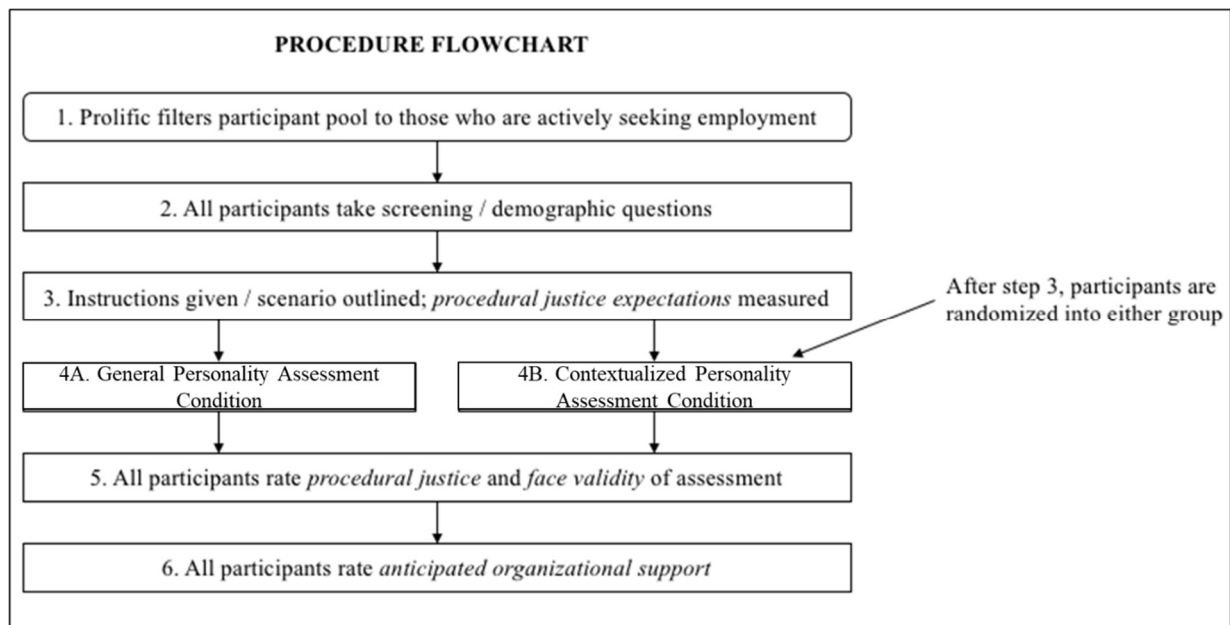
Scatterplot of Anticipated Procedural Justice and Procedural Justice Responses



Note: Dashed line represents the line of congruence between anticipated procedural justice and procedural justice reactions.

APPENDIX A: PROCEDURE MATERIALS

Study Procedure



Vignette Instructions and Job Advertisement

Instructions: For the remainder of this survey, you will be asked to take on the role of a job applicant who has applied to the position described in the job posting below. You will be presented with a variety of questions about your experience as a candidate and will complete a short job assessment.

Scenario: Please imagine that you have applied to the job described below. You have been invited to complete a job assessment questionnaire that will evaluate your potential for the role and determine whether you will advance to the next stage of the selection process.

Job Posting R44329: Project Manager, Customer Technology

About AJJA:

AJJA is a multinational technology corporation specializing in technology solutions that touch thousands of energy service providers across electric, natural gas, and green energy infrastructures. In our mission to transform the energy industry with innovative technology, we value learning, collaboration, and a customer-first mindset in our employees.

Job Description:

AJJA is looking for an entry-level Project Manager to join our customer technology solutions team. This role will be responsible for managing day-to-day project activities around the creation and delivery of new technology solutions. Key responsibilities may include:

- Determine customer needs and communicate requirements to the development team
- Lead client meetings and presentations
- Develop project planning materials including roadmaps and timelines at the beginning of projects
- Oversee timely project execution
- Manage several projects at a time with minimal supervision
- Other duties as assigned

Requirements:

- Excellent written and verbal communication skills
- Good presentation skills; ability to persuade and motivate senior leaders in the organization
- Problem-solving and critical-thinking
- Ability to pick things up quickly
- Project management knowledge

As an equal opportunity employer, AJJA creates an environment that supports and encourages the abilities of all persons regardless of race, color, gender, age, sexual orientation, citizenship, or disability



AJJA SOLUTIONS, LLC.

Please confirm that you have read the instructions/scenario in order to proceed.

Experimental Conditions

PERSONALITY (NEO-PI-R Domain, 10-items per domain version)

Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Normal personality assessment in clinical practice: The NEO Personality Inventory. *Psychological assessment*, 4(1), 5.

Response Scale:

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = Neither agree nor disagree; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly Agree

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements. The quality of your responses will be scored and averaged to create an overall score on the assessment.

Item	Key	Factor	Item - General	Item - Contextualized
1	+ keyed	Conscientiousness	Am always prepared.	Am always prepared at work.
2	+ keyed	Conscientiousness	Pay attention to details.	Pay attention to details at work.
3	+ keyed	Conscientiousness	Carry out my plans.	Carry out my plans at work.
4	+ keyed	Conscientiousness	Make plans and stick to them.	Make plans and stick to them at work.
5	– keyed	Conscientiousness	Waste my time.	Waste my time at work.
6	– keyed	Conscientiousness	Don't see things through.	Don't see things through at work.
7	– keyed	Conscientiousness	Shirk my duties.	Shirk my duties at work.
8	+ keyed	Extraversion	Feel comfortable around people.	Feel comfortable around people at work.
9	+ keyed	Extraversion	Make friends easily.	Make friends easily at work.
10	+ keyed	Extraversion	Am skilled in handling social situations.	Am skilled in handling social situations at work.
11	+ keyed	Extraversion	Am the life of the party.	At work, I am the life of the party.
12	+ keyed	Extraversion	Know how to captivate people.	Know how to captivate people at work.
13	– keyed	Extraversion	Have little to say.	Have little to say at work.
14	– keyed	Extraversion	Keep in the background.	Keep in the background at work.
15	– keyed	Extraversion	Would describe my experiences as somewhat dull.	Would describe my experiences as somewhat dull at work.
16	– keyed	Extraversion	Don't like to draw attention to myself.	Don't like to draw attention to myself at work.
17	– keyed	Extraversion	Don't talk a lot.	Don't talk a lot at work.
18	+ keyed	Neuroticism	Often feel blue.	Often feel blue at work.
19	+ keyed	Neuroticism	Dislike myself.	Dislike myself at work.
20	+ keyed	Neuroticism	Am often down in the dumps.	Am often down in the dumps at work.
21	+ keyed	Neuroticism	Have frequent mood swings.	Have frequent mood swings at work.
22	+ keyed	Neuroticism	Panic easily.	Panic easily at work.
23	– keyed	Neuroticism	Seldom feel blue.	Seldom feel blue at work.

24	– keyed	Neuroticism	Feel comfortable with myself.	Feel comfortable with myself at work.
25	– keyed	Neuroticism	Rarely get irritated.	Rarely get irritated at work.
26	– keyed	Neuroticism	Am not easily bothered by things.	Am not easily bothered by things at work.
27	– keyed	Neuroticism	Am very pleased with myself.	Am very pleased with myself at work.
28	+ keyed	Agreeableness	Have a good word for everyone.	Have a good word for everyone at work.
29	+ keyed	Agreeableness	Believe that others have good intentions.	Believe that others have good intentions at work.
30	+ keyed	Agreeableness	Respect others.	Respect others at work.
31	+ keyed	Agreeableness	Accept people as they are.	Accept people as they are at work.
32	+ keyed	Agreeableness	Make people feel at ease.	Make people feel at ease at work.
33	– keyed	Agreeableness	Have a sharp tongue.	Have a sharp tongue at work.
34	– keyed	Agreeableness	Cut others to pieces.	Cut others to pieces at work.
35	– keyed	Agreeableness	Suspect hidden motives in others.	Suspect hidden motives in others at work.
36	– keyed	Agreeableness	Get back at others.	Get back at others at work.
37	– keyed	Agreeableness	Insult people.	Insult people at work.
38	+ keyed	Openness	Have a vivid imagination.	Have a vivid imagination at work.
39	+ keyed	Openness	Carry the conversation to a higher level.	Carry the conversation to a higher level at work.
40	+ keyed	Openness	Enjoy hearing new ideas.	Enjoy hearing new ideas at work.
41	– keyed	Openness	Am not interested in abstract ideas.	Am not interested in abstract ideas at work.
42	– keyed	Openness	Avoid philosophical discussions.	Avoid philosophical discussions at work.

APPENDIX B: SCREENING AND DEMOGRAPHIC ITEMS

SCREENING QUESTIONS

1. Are you 18 years or older? [*required*]
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
2. Do you reside in the United States? [*required*]
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

3. What is your age in years? (fill in)
4. Please select the category that best describes your race/ethnicity (select only one response):
 - a. American Indian or Alaska Native
 - b. Asian
 - c. Black or African American
 - d. Hispanic or Latinx
 - e. Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
 - f. White or Caucasian
 - g. Multiple races
 - h. other (please specify)
5. What is your sex?
 - a. Female
 - b. Male
 - c. Not listed (please specify)
 - d. Prefer not to answer
6. For what type of occupation(s) are you seeking employment? (check all that apply)
 - a. Management Occupations
 - b. Business and Financial Operations Occupations
 - c. Computer and Mathematical Occupations
 - d. Architecture and Engineering Occupations
 - e. Life, Physical, and Social Science Occupations
 - f. Community and Social Service Occupations
 - g. Legal Occupations
 - h. Educational Instruction and Library Occupations
 - i. Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and Media Occupations
 - j. Healthcare Practitioners and Technical Occupations
 - k. Healthcare Support Occupations
 - l. Protective Service Occupations
 - m. Food Preparation and Serving Related Occupations
 - n. Building and Grounds Cleaning and Maintenance Occupations
 - o. Personal Care and Service Occupations
 - p. Sales and Related Occupations

- q. Office and Administrative Support Occupations
- r. Farming, Fishing, and Forestry Occupations
- s. Construction and Extraction Occupations
- t. Installation, Maintenance, and Repair Occupations
- u. Production Occupations
- v. Transportation and Material Moving Occupations
- w. Military Specific Occupations
- x. Other

OTHER QUESTIONS

(Attention check question) Please select “Disagree” for this question

- a. Strongly Disagree
- b. Disagree
- c. Somewhat Disagree
- d. Neutral
- e. Somewhat Agree
- f. Agree
- g. Strongly Agree

APPENDIX C: SURVEY ITEMS

PROCEDURAL JUSTICE EXPECTATIONS (Adapted from Propriety of Questions and Chance to Perform Subscales)

Bauer, T. N., Truxillo, D. M., Sanchez, R. J., Craig, J. M., Ferrara, P., & Campion, M. A. (2001). Applicant reactions to selection: Development of the selection procedural justice scale (SPJS). *Personnel psychology*, 54(2), 387-419.

Response Scale:

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = Neither agree nor disagree; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly Agree

Anticipated Propriety of Questions Items
1. I expect the content of the test to not be prejudiced.
2. I expect the test to not be too personal or private.
3. I anticipate the content of the test to be appropriate.

Anticipated Chance to Perform Items
1. I expect to be able to show my skills and abilities through this test.
2. This test will allow me to show what my job skills are.
3. This test will give me the opportunity to show what I can really do.
4. I will be able to show what I can do on this test.

PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Propriety of Questions and Chance to Perform Subscales)

Bauer, T. N., Truxillo, D. M., Sanchez, R. J., Craig, J. M., Ferrara, P., & Campion, M. A. (2001). Applicant reactions to selection: Development of the selection procedural justice scale (SPJS). *Personnel psychology*, 54(2), 387-419.

Response Scale:

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = Neither agree nor disagree; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly Agree

Propriety of Questions Items
1. The content of the test did not appear to be prejudiced.
2. The test itself did not seem too personal or private.
3. The content of the test seemed appropriate.

Chance to Perform Items
1. I could really show my skills and abilities through this test.
2. This test allowed me to show what my job skills are.
3. This test gives applicants the opportunity to show what they can really do.
4. I was able to show what I can do on this test.

(ALTERNATIVE OPTION)

PROCEDURAL JUSTICE EXPECTATIONS

Smither, J. W., Reilly, R. R., Millsap, R. E., AT&T, K. P., & Stoffey, R. W. (1993). Applicant reactions to selection procedures. *Personnel psychology*, 46(1), 49-76.

Response Scale:

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = Neither agree nor disagree; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly Agree

Procedural Justice Items
1. I expect that the testing process will be a fair way to select people for the job of project manager.
2. I think the test itself will be fair.
3. Overall, I expect the method of testing used to be fair.

PROCEDURAL JUSTICE

Smither, J. W., Reilly, R. R., Millsap, R. E., AT&T, K. P., & Stoffey, R. W. (1993). Applicant reactions to selection procedures. *Personnel psychology*, 46(1), 49-76.

Response Scale:

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = Neither agree nor disagree; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly Agree

Procedural Justice Items
4. I think that the testing process is a fair way to select people for the job of project manager.
5. I think that the test itself was fair.
6. Overall, the method of testing used was fair.

FACE VALIDITY (Job Relatedness)

Bauer, T. N., Truxillo, D. M., Sanchez, R. J., Craig, J. M., Ferrara, P., & Campion, M. A. (2001). Applicant reactions to selection: Development of the selection procedural justice scale (SPJS). *Personnel psychology*, 54(2), 387-419.

Response Scale:

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = Neither agree nor disagree; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly Agree

Face Validity Items
1. Doing well on this test means a person can do the project manager job well.
2. A person who scored well on this test will be a good project manager.
3. It would be clear to anyone that this test is related to the project manager job.
4. The content of the test was clearly related to the project manager job.

ANTICIPATED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT (Adapted and used by Casper & Buffardi, 2004)

Eisenberger, R., Cummings, J., Armeli, S., & Lynch, P. (1997). Perceived organizational support, discretionary treatment, and job satisfaction. *Journal of applied psychology*, 82(5), 812.

Response Scale:

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = Neither agree nor disagree; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly Agree

Anticipated Organizational Support Items
1. This organization would care about my opinions.
2. This organization would care about my well-being.
3. This organization would strongly consider my goals and values.
4. Help would be available from this organization when I have a problem.
5. This organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.
6. If given the opportunity, this organization would take advantage of me. (-)
7. This organization would show very little concern for me. (-)
8. This organization would be willing to help me if I needed a special favor.