

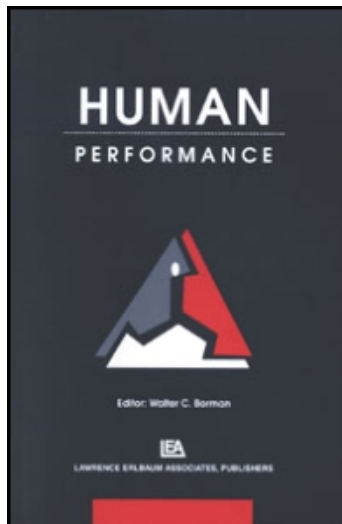
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### Recruiting Highly Educated Graduates: A Study on the Relationship Between Recruitment Information Sources, the Theory of Planned Behavior, and Actual Job Pursuit

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# Recruiting Highly Educated Graduates: A Study on the Relationship Between Recruitment Information Sources, the Theory of Planned Behavior, and Actual Job Pursuit

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Using the theory of planned behavior, we examined the effects of different recruitment-related information sources on the job pursuit of highly educated graduates. The study was conducted using a real-life longitudinal design. Participants reported on potential employers they were interested in. We used hierarchical linear modeling to analyze within-participant relationships of different information sources with the theory of planned behavior variables, job pursuit behavior, and actual job choice. The theory of planned behavior relationships was supported. Recruitment advertising and positive word of mouth related positively to job pursuit intention and behavior. Negative publicity and word of mouth partly related to job pursuit behavior, indicating their role in the recruitment process. On-campus presence related negatively to job pursuit intention and behavior, suggesting that recruiters should convey parsimonious and realistic job-related information.

Highly educated graduates are often exposed to recruitment practices of many different organizations and have multiple job pursuit options (Barber, 1998). As a consequence, most of them get several job offers and can choose their preferred employer. To improve the recruitment strategies toward them, recruiters need to better understand their job pursuit and choice processes. The present study therefore aimed to analyze the role of recruitment practices in the job pursuit and choice processes of highly educated graduates.

In the last few years several reviews of recruitment research have been published (Breaugh & Starke, 2000; Cable & Turban, 2001; Rynes & Cable, 2003; Chapman, Uggerslev, Caroll,

Piasentin, & Jones, 2005; Saks, 2005). Much of the research has focused on posthire outcomes such as the performance of new entrants or their satisfaction at work. Relatively little is known about the factors that may influence organizational attractiveness (Barber, 1998; Rynes, 1991), when in fact understanding what drives potential applicants to apply for an organization is crucial for recruiters. Therefore, recruitment researchers have called for more research on organizational attraction, especially in the first recruitment stage (Barber, 1998; Breugh & Starke, 2000; Collins & Han, 2004; Collins & Stevens, 2002; Rynes, 1991; Saks, 2005). Among the factors that might influence organizational attraction, recruitment information sources play a key role. However, most studies have focused on their effects on posthire outcomes (Barber, 1998; Breugh & Starke, 2000; Rynes, 1991; Rynes & Cable, 2003; Zottoli & Wanous, 2000). In addition, external information sources, such as publicity or word of mouth, have largely been ignored by previous research (Cable & Turban, 2001; Collins & Stevens, 2002). Addressing these calls for research, the present study examined the role of both internal and external recruitment information sources on prehire outcomes.

In line with Highhouse, Thornbury, and Little (2007), we focused on applicants' perceptions toward potential employers, more specifically, the perceptions regarding different recruitment-related information sources. Our study builds on previous research, which investigated the influence of multiple information sources on the quantity and quality of the organization's applicant pools (Collins & Han, 2004), on job seekers' organizational perceptions (Cable, Aiman-Smith, Mulvey, & Edwards, 2000; Cable & Yu, 2006), and on organizational attraction (Collins, 2007; Collins & Stevens, 2002; Van Hove & Lievens, 2005, 2009). However, these studies have focused either on one single information source, whether positive or negative about the organization, or on multiple but only positive information sources. Because in reality job seekers likely use multiple information sources (Cable & Turban, 2001; Collins & Han, 2004; Collins & Stevens, 2002; Van Hove & Lievens, 2005), both positive and negative, our study examines the influence on the job pursuit and choice processes of multiple positive and negative information sources in concert.

Furthermore, as highly educated graduates likely evaluate multiple job alternatives simultaneously (Barber, 1998), the present study adds to the literature by incorporating this complexity through the use of a within-participants rather than between-participants design (Collins & Stevens, 2002). We investigate the role of job seekers' exposure to recruitment-related information sources across multiple organizations (cf. Collins, 2007; Collins & Stevens, 2002), as related to job pursuit and choice decisions to each of these organizations.

Finally, the present study extends previous research on sources of information by investigating their impact on the total job pursuit process. Previous studies on applicant attraction and job pursuit mostly focused on recruitment outcomes referring to attitudes or intentions, such as organizational attractiveness or job pursuit and acceptance *intentions* (Chapman et al., 2005). Relatively little studies, however, have examined *behavioral* outcomes such as actual job pursuit behavior and actual job choice (see for exceptions, Boswell, Roehling, LePine, & Moynihan, 2003; Cable & Judge, 1996; Taylor & Bergmann, 1987; Turban, Campion, & Eyring, 1995). The present study adds to the literature by following the total applicant decision-making process, from attitudes to actual choices. The pursuit process was conceptualized using Ajzen's (1991) theory of planned behavior, which is a well-supported theory (Armitage & Conner, 2001) that has been recommended to model job pursuit (Chapman et al., 2005). Extending the theory of planned behavior to the area of job pursuit, we examined whether the influence of recruitment-related sources of information on job pursuit can be described and explained by the theory of planned behavior.

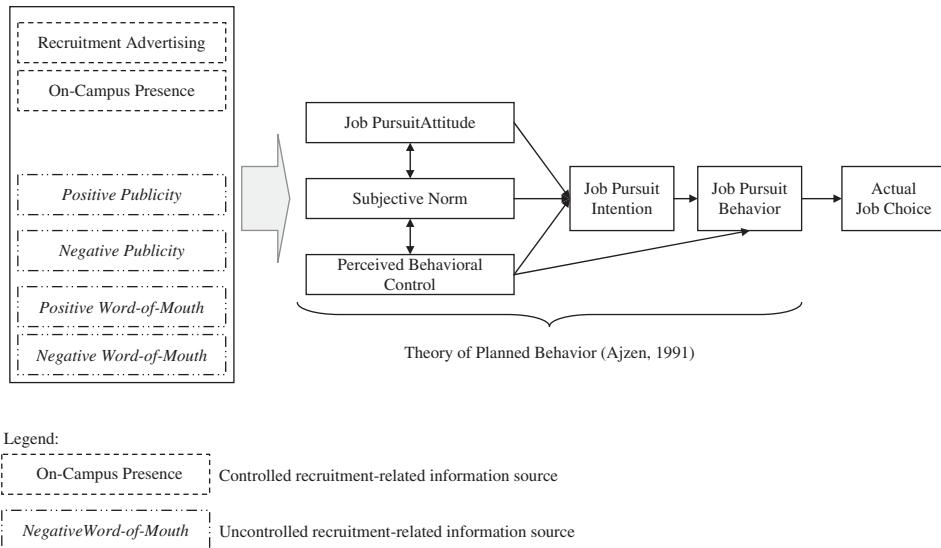


FIGURE 1 Overview of the research model.

Specifically, we studied the relationship of information sources with job seekers' attitudes and perceptions about applying, their job pursuit intentions, application behavior, and ultimate job choice decisions (see Figure 1).

## JOB PURSUIT AND THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR

According to Barber (1998), applicant attraction and job pursuit encompass three stages. From the job seeker's perspective, the first stage consists of extensive search and screening, gathering of rudimentary information about multiple job opportunities, and little or no personal contact between the parties involved. Second, job seekers turn into applicants, meeting potential employers through interviews and getting job offers (or rejections). The third stage concerns making a final job choice (i.e., accepting a job offer or not). Based on these stages, we can distinguish between three subsequent job pursuit outcomes: (a) job pursuit intention, described as the "person's desire to submit an application, attend a site visit or second interview, or otherwise indicate a willingness to enter or stay in the applicant pool without committing to a job choice" (Chapman et al., 2005, p. 929); (b) job pursuit behavior, which corresponds to *actually* submitting a job application, attending a site visit, and so on, to the organization in question (Van Hooft, Jones, & Born, 2005); and (c) job choice, which refers to the actual acceptance of a job offer involving a real job (Chapman et al., 2005).

Using the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), the proximal antecedents of the job pursuit intention—job pursuit behavior—actual job choice sequence can be modeled. The theory of planned behavior explains how attitudes and perceptions guide human behavior. Translated to the context of job pursuit (see Figure 1), this theory states that the primary antecedent of job pursuit behavior is the intention to pursue the job in question. Job pursuit intention is in turn predicted

by (a) the extent to which people have a positive or negative evaluation of pursuing the targeted job (i.e., job pursuit attitude), (b) the perception of social pressure to apply for a job in the targeted organization (i.e., subjective norm), and (c) the perceived difficulty or perceived control over internal and external resources to get a job offer in that organization (i.e., perceived behavioral control). To the extent that people are realistic in their evaluation of a behavior's difficulty, perceived behavioral control is also an immediate antecedent of behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Thus, controlling for people's intentions, the performance of a behavior is more likely when people have high control over necessary resources. Previous research has found support for the theory of planned behavior in predicting different types of behaviors, such as exercising, choosing a career, or deciding to resign (e.g., Ajzen, 1991; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Sutton, 1998). Also, some studies have found support for (elements of) the theory of planned behavior in predicting job pursuit intentions (i.e., Allen, Van Scotter & Otondo, 2004; Arnold et al., 2006; Schreurs, Deros, Van Hooft, Proost, & De Witte, 2009; Van Hooft, Born, Taris, & Van Der Flier, 2006), but no study examined the job pursuit process all the way to actual job choice. However, based on the predictions as outlined by the theory of planned behavior we expect:

- H1: (a) Job pursuit attitude, (b) subjective norm, and (c) perceived behavioral control relate positively to job pursuit intention.
- H2: (a) Job pursuit intention and (b) perceived behavioral control relate positively to job pursuit behavior.
- H3: Job pursuit intention (a) completely mediates the relation of job pursuit attitude and subjective norm with job pursuit behavior and (b) partially mediates the relation of perceived behavioral control with job pursuit behavior.

### JOB PURSUIT AND ACTUAL JOB CHOICE

The most obvious goal of applicants' job pursuit behavior is trying to attain the targeted job. From the organization's perspective the applicant's acceptance of a job offer is a crucial recruitment outcome, as it determines how effectively and efficiently organizations can get their positions filled (Barber, 1998). Despite this importance, relatively few studies have examined the predictors of actual job choice (Chapman et al., 2005). We propose that job pursuit behavior is an important antecedent of subsequent job choice. That is, we expect that individuals are more likely to choose the job that they have invested the most time and effort in pursuing as, based on the theory of planned behavior, this likely is the job about which they have the most positive attitude. Therefore,

- H4: Job pursuit behavior relates positively to actual job choice.

### RECRUITMENT-RELATED INFORMATION SOURCES ABOUT POTENTIAL EMPLOYERS

As stated by the theory of planned behavior, the influence of other variables, external to the theory, on behavior should be mediated by the theory of planned behavior variables, attitude,

subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and intention (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Conner & Armitage, 1998). The effects of different recruitment-related information sources on job pursuit intention and job pursuit behavior were therefore expected to be mediated by the theory of planned behavior.

A wide range of information sources exists to communicate with potential applicants. Research has extensively studied their effects on applicants' vocational decisions. However, the studies have been focusing more on posthire outcomes such as job survival rates, turnover, job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, or met expectations, for instance (e.g., Moser, 2005; Wanous, 1992; Williams, Labig, & Stone, 1993; Zottoli & Wanous, 2000). Prehire outcomes such as applicants' job pursuit and choice decisions have been less studied (Barber, 1998; Rynes & Cable, 2003). Among the few exceptions is a study by Collins and Stevens (2002), who analyzed the relationships of four recruitment-related activities (i.e., recruitment advertising, sponsorship activities, positive publicity, and positive word of mouth) with job pursuit intention and behavior (i.e., decision to apply). They showed that these information sources related indirectly to job pursuit intention and decision to apply through general attitudes toward the company and perceived job attributes. Similarly, Van Hove and Lievens (2005) studied the negative effects of negative publicity on organizational attractiveness and whether these negative effects can be mitigated by recruitment advertising and positive word of mouth. Both recruitment advertising and positive word of mouth were shown to improve organizational attractiveness.

Based on Cable and Turban's (2001) classification of recruitment sources, we distinguished between two categories of recruitment-related information sources. First, we focused on perceived on-campus presence and recruitment advertising as two *internal information sources*. These sources are controlled by the organization they concern and hence convey only (or mostly) positive information. Second, we examined publicity and word of mouth as two *external information sources*. These sources are not controlled by the organization they concern and may be either favorable or unfavorable to the organization's image. Taking into account the recommendations of Collins and Stevens (2002; see also Van Hove & Lievens, 2009), we investigated the role of both positive and negative external sources in the job pursuit process, as perceived by graduating students. That is, we focused on perceptions rather than on actual recruitment-related activities because it is the job seekers' perceptions that affect their pursuit behavior. Put differently, recruitment-related activities that are not noticed by the job seekers will not have any impact on their decision-making.

## Internal Information Sources

### *Recruitment Advertising*

Recruitment advertising refers to any paid form of promotion of an organization as an employer conducted by the organization (Kotler, 2000). This source can be directly managed by an organization to convey a positive message to prospective applicants. It is the most frequently used internal recruitment source (Barber, 1998), and it has yielded a considerable amount of research. For example, Barber and Roehling (1993) showed that exposure to recruitment brochures affects the beliefs and general attitudes toward job openings. Collins and Stevens (2002) and Van Hove and Lievens (2009) demonstrated that exposure to advertising is positively

related to perceived job attributes, organizational attitudes, and decisions to apply. Van Hoyer and Lievens (2005) pointed out that exposure to recruitment advertising as a second information source after negative publicity can improve organizational attractiveness. Therefore,

- H5: Exposure to organization's recruitment advertising is (a) positively related to job pursuit intention, and (b) this relation is mediated by the theory of planned behavior-variables.

### *Perceived On-Campus Presence*

Perceived on-campus presence refers to all opportunities for organizations to present their name and activities to the students on a campus (e.g., sponsoring of campus events, design of specific case studies, job presentations made on-campus by employees), as they are perceived by the students. On-campus presence is a low-information recruitment practice (Collins, 2007) that provides general positive signals about a company as an employer (Collins & Han, 2004). According to marketing research, "mere" exposure to a company enhances consumers' attraction to it (Mitchell & Olson, 1981). Using signal theory, Aaker (1996) suggested that awareness created through advertising leads individuals to ascribe positive features to brands that they have been exposed to. Similarly, recruitment research has shown that job seekers are more attracted to firms that they are familiar with (Gatewood, Gowan, & Lautenschlager, 1993). Therefore,

- H6: Perceived on-campus presence is (a) positively related to job pursuit intention, and (b) this relation is mediated by the theory of planned behavior-variables.

## External Information Sources

### *Publicity*

Publicity refers to any information about a product or a service communicated through editorial media that is not paid by the organization (Cameron, 1994). Barber (1998) suggested that publicity may have spillover effects on a company's recruitment efforts, thereby affecting potential applicants. However, little research has studied the effects of publicity on recruitment-related outcomes. Among the few exceptions is the study by Collins and Stevens (2002), who found that exposure to positive publicity related positively to attitudes about the organization and subsequent intentions to apply with the organization. However, they did not study negative publicity, which may have pervasive negative effects on job pursuit and choice decisions of potential applicants (Van Hoyer & Lievens, 2005). Therefore, we explicitly distinguish between exposure to positive and negative publicity. Building on Collins and Stevens (2002), exposure to positive publicity about a company is expected to relate positively to intentions to pursue a job with that company. Conversely, extending suggestions in the marketing literature (e.g., Aaker, 1996), we expect that exposure to negative publicity relates negatively to job pursuit intentions.

- H7: Exposure to publicity is (a) positively related to job pursuit intention when positive and (b) negatively related to job pursuit intention when negative, and (c) these relations are mediated by the theory of planned behavior variables.



### *Word of Mouth*

Word of mouth is commonly defined as interpersonal communication about an organization or its products, independent from its marketing activities (Bone, 1995). Applied to the recruitment context, word of mouth can be defined as interpersonal communication about an organization as an employer or about specific jobs, independent from the organization's recruitment activities (Cable et al., 2000; Collins & Stevens, 2002; Van Hoya & Lievens, 2005). Word of mouth may be conveyed through conversations with friends or through the advice of independent experts. Marketing research has found that word of mouth has a large influence on consumers' attitudes and behaviors, with both positive and negative word of mouth affecting consumers' attraction to products (Bone, 1995; Herr, Kardes, & Kim, 1991; Smith & Vogt, 1995). In the recruitment literature, Kilduff (1990) showed that MBA students leaned toward organizations preferred by their peers. Van Hoya and Lievens (2005) found that positive word of mouth contributes to enhancing organizational attractiveness despite an exposure of applicants to negative publicity. Fischer, Ilgen, and Hoyer (1979) demonstrated that graduating students found information obtained through word of mouth more reliable than information obtained through a company's official communication channels. Negative word of mouth has received less research attention in the recruitment literature (see for exceptions, Van Hoya & Lievens, 2007, 2009). Based on the marketing literature (e.g., Bone, 1995) and previous lab research (Van Hoya & Lievens, 2007), exposure to negative word of mouth about a company is expected to negatively influence intentions to apply with that company. Hence our hypothesis:

- H8: Exposure to word of mouth is (a) positively related to job pursuit intention when positive and (b) negatively related to job pursuit intention when negative, and (c) these relations are mediated by theory of planned behavior variables.

## METHOD

### Participants, Design, and Procedures

The target population consisted of the graduating master's students of a major European business school, historically based in France. This population fitted the needs of our study as (a) the students of this school have multiple information sources about potential employers, whether positive or negative, and (b) they mostly have the choice of their first employer after graduation, as this business school is one of the most reputed in France in the field of management studies (immediately after graduation, 98% of the students were employed in 2007). For the purpose of our first data collection, in January, the administration of the school provided us with a list of all master's students in the final year (1,462 students). These students were contacted by e-mail in January 2007 (Time 1), right after the school's annual job fair and 6 months before graduation. Contacted students were invited to participate in the study and were referred to the study Web site where they could log in with a personal code. Students who logged in were told that the questionnaire was aimed at students who would graduate at the end of the academic year and that only those who were to graduate in the next 6 months were eligible for the study. We used this procedure because, of the students in the final year, not all would graduate in the ongoing academic



year because of the multiple academic paths that students could still take before graduation (e.g., taking an additional internship, going abroad to a partner university). In total, 221 of the 1,462 contacted students were eligible and participated at Time 1 (T1). Of the 1,462 contacted students, 593 students actually graduated. Using the 593 students as target population, our response rate at T1 was 37.3%.

Within-participants designs are advocated as being the best technique to evaluate decision-making processes in which individuals are faced with multiple choices (Olian, 1986). As noted by Collins and Stevens (2002), between-participants designs, in which each individual only evaluates a single organization, fail to capture the larger context in which job pursuit decisions are made. Further, as firms may vary in the extent to which they use recruitment-related information sources, using a single organization may not adequately sample the range of recruitment information to which graduating students are exposed. Last, with a between-participants design it is not possible to remove individual effects, which are the natural covariation in an individual's responses across companies resulting from the respondent answering the same questions across the three companies in the same survey. Therefore, consistent with the purpose of the present study to examine the job pursuit of highly educated students who have multiple options, and following recommendations in the literature (Collins, 2007; Collins & Stevens, 2002; Olian, 1986), we used a within-participants design to examine the job pursuit process. Specifically, in the T1 questionnaire participants were asked to mention three organizations that they were potentially interested in as a first employer after graduation. Participants completed measures for their exposure and perceptions of recruitment-information sources of the organization and the theory of planned behavior variables (e.g., job pursuit attitude toward that organization) for each organization they mentioned. Thus for each individual we collected measures of all variables for each of the three organizations separately.

Consistent with our conceptualization of job pursuit as a process (cf. Barber, 1998) consisting of an information-gathering stage leading to job pursuit intentions, and a behavioral stage when potential jobs are pursued, leading to a final job choice, we used a longitudinal design. Whereas the first measurement aimed to capture the information gathering and intentions stage, the second measurement occurred 6 months later (T2) and aimed to capture the students' job pursuit behavior for each of the three organizations mentioned at T1, and their actual job choice. Of the T1 participants, 146 also participated at T2 (response rate = 66.1%). Because job choice refers to the acceptance/decline of a job offer, for the analyses regarding job choice only those respondents could be used who had received a job offer from one or more of the organizations they mentioned at T1 (i.e.,  $n = 55$ ).

Of the 146 final participants, 54.9% were female, 66.2% were French, and the average age was 24.4 years ( $SD = 1.60$ ). To check for response bias, T2 respondents ( $n = 146$ ) were compared to the nonrespondents ( $n = 75$ ). No significant differences were found in terms of age,  $t(217) = 0.70$ ,  $p = .48$ , and gender,  $t(218) = 1.02$ ,  $p = .31$ . However, T2 respondents were more often French (66% as compared to 48%),  $t(148) = -2.50$ ,  $p = .01$ .

## Measures

When possible, we used existing measures validated by previous research. Our scales were in French and English. Unless indicated otherwise, items used a 5-point Likert scale ranging 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Cronbach's alpha reliabilities are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1  
Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability Scores and Correlations Among All Variables for Time 1 and Time 2

Variables	M	Variance		$\alpha^a$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
		Between- Individuals	Within- Individuals												
Time 1															
1 On-campus presence	2.66	0.48	0.64	.73											
2 Advertising	3.23	0.67	0.40	.78	0.52**										
3 Positive publicity	3.39	0.30	0.35	.61	0.25**	0.14**									
4 Negative publicity	2.18	0.24	0.39	.77	0.14**	0.07*	-0.02								
5 Positive word-of-mouth	3.50	0.49	0.41	.76	0.40**	0.39**	0.30**	0.02							
6 Negative word-of-mouth	2.16	0.29	0.25	.68	0.14**	0.10**	0.04	0.37**	-0.12**						
7 Job pursuit attitude	4.13	0.21	0.20	.82	-0.04	0.05	0.03	-0.09*	0.20**	-0.18**					
8 Subjective norm	3.44	0.48	0.28	.60	0.07	0.10**	0.16**	0.07	0.27**	-0.03	0.44**				
9 Perceived behavioral control	3.74	0.23	0.19	.76	0.03	0.07*	0.13**	-0.08*	0.18**	-0.13**	0.27**	0.17**			
10 Job pursuit intention	4.17	0.32	0.25	.87	0.02	0.13**	0.04	-0.02	0.18**	-0.08 <sup>†</sup>	0.59**	0.33**	0.19**		
Time 2															
11 Job pursuit behavior	3.12	0.89	1.11	.92	0.04	0.09*	0.03	-0.16**	0.19**	-0.11*	0.30**	0.22**	0.28**	0.37**	
12 Actual job choice	0.60			0.09	0.09	-0.09	-0.25*	-0.05	0.03	0.05	0.06	-0.03	-0.04	0.04	0.34**

Note. *N* = 221 participants (660 observations) for Time 1 variables, *N* = 146 participants (420 observations) for correlations with Time 2 job pursuit behavior, and *N* = 55 (73 observations) for correlations with Time 2 actual job choice.

<sup>a</sup>Cronbach's alpha reliabilities were calculated using the data for the first organization that the participants mentioned.

<sup>†</sup>*p* < .10. \**p* < .05. \*\**p* < .01.

### *Recruitment-Related Information Sources*

The measures for the internal and external information sources were based on Collins and Stevens (2002), adapted to our study context. Perceived on-campus presence and recruitment advertising were both measured with four items (e.g., “I have seen this organization at the annual job fair” and “I have seen advertising for jobs at this organization in the school,” respectively). Publicity and word of mouth were both measured with three positive items (e.g., “I have seen positive stories about this organization on TV” and “I have heard positive stories about this company from alumni,” respectively) and three corresponding negative items.

### *The Theory of Planned Behavior Variables*

Based on Vinokur and Caplan (1987), job pursuit attitude was measured with three items, asking the respondents to indicate the extent to which they would regard it sensible, wise, and useful to search for their first job in one of the three companies they had mentioned as being potential employers for them. We assessed subjective norm with two items asking the respondents the extent to which their significant others, on one hand, and most people who are important to them, on the other hand, would think they should apply for a job in each of the three mentioned organizations (cf. Vinokur & Caplan, 1987). Perceived behavioral control is composed of two related components (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Terry & O’Leary, 1995): self-efficacy and controllability. Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982) refers to the person’s perceived control over internal resources to perform the behavior, such as skills and abilities. Controllability corresponds to the person’s perception of control over external resources to perform the behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Terry & O’Leary, 1995). Consistent with this conceptualization, perceived behavioral control was assessed with six items reflecting both the self-efficacy and the controllability components, based on Van Hooft, Born, Taris, Van der Flier, and Blonk (2005) and Schreurs et al. (2009).

### *Outcome Variables*

Job pursuit intention was assessed with a four-item scale (e.g., “I will try to get my first job in this company”) adapted from previous research (Aiman-Smith, Bauer, & Cable, 2001; Turban & Keon, 1993). Actual job pursuit behavior was assessed at T2 by asking whether the respondents had tried to get a job in the organizations mentioned at T1, using the same four items as for job pursuit intention, only referring to actual behavior instead of intended activities (e.g., “I have tried to get my first job in this company”). Actual job choice was assessed by asking whether participants had received a job offer from the company in question, and if so, whether they had accepted the job offer (0 = *no*, 1 = *yes*).

## ANALYSES AND RESULTS

The data set has a two-level structure with repeated measures for each of the three organizations (Level 1) nested within individuals (Level 2). Multilevel regression analysis or hierarchical linear modeling (HLM; Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992) with SAS PROC MIXED was used to model this

nested structure and test the within-individual relationships among T1 sources of information, theory of planned behavior, variables, and job pursuit intention, and T2 job pursuit behavior and actual job choice. Before proceeding with the tests of the hypotheses, we investigated whether systematic within- and between-individual variance existed in the dependent variables. To do so, we estimated null models for each dependent variable, including only the intercept. These intercept-only models for each of the dependent variables demonstrated that slightly less than half of the total variance in job pursuit attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, job pursuit intention, and job pursuit behavior was within individuals (i.e., 49%, 37%, 45%, 44%, and 45%, respectively). Thus, slightly more than half of the variance was between individuals (i.e., 51%, 63%, 55%, 56%, and 55%, respectively), demonstrating the dependence between the measures within individuals. More specifically, the between-individual variance indicates that, for example, 51% of the variance in the scores on job pursuit attitude resides at the level of the participant. Thus, participants who have high scores on pursuit attitudes toward the one organization likely have high scores on pursuit attitudes toward the other two organizations as well (i.e., scores on job pursuit attitudes within participants about the three organizations are correlated .51 on average). Because our purpose was to investigate why individuals prefer the one organization over the other, and how exposure to organizational recruitment-related information affects these decisions, we are interested in the within-individual rather than the between-individual variance. Using HLM allows to partial out the between-individual variance, focusing exclusively on the within-individual variance. The finding that 37–49% of the variance in the pursuit outcomes is at the within-individual level highlights the importance of using a within-participants design. It further indicated the amount of variance that can be explained by within-individuals variables such as the recruitment-related sources of information.

Table 1 presents the descriptives, between- and within-individuals variance, reliabilities, and the within-individuals correlations among the variables. The within-individuals correlations between each pair of variables were computed by first standardizing all variables and then performing separate multilevel models (without intercept) for each pair of variables, with the one variable as predictor and the other as dependent. The results indicate that, consistent with the theory of planned behavior, job pursuit attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control correlated positively with job pursuit intention and behavior. Furthermore, job pursuit behavior correlated positively with job choice.

To test H1 and H2, we performed two multilevel regression analyses using standardized variables (see Table 2). Job pursuit attitude and subjective norm explained unique variance in job pursuit intention, supporting H1a and H1b. Although perceived behavioral control was significantly positively correlated to job pursuit intention, it failed to explain unique variance in intention (H1c not supported). In support of H2, both job pursuit intention and perceived behavioral control predicted a unique proportion of the variance in T2 job pursuit behavior.

To test if job pursuit intention mediated the relationship between the independent variables job pursuit attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control, on one hand, and the dependent variable job pursuit behavior, on the other hand (H3), we followed the three-step procedure described by Baron and Kenny (1986). Table 1 shows that job pursuit attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control significantly correlated with job pursuit intention and behavior and that job pursuit intention significantly correlated with job pursuit behavior. However, only attitude and subjective norm explained unique variance in intention (see Table 2). The first two criteria of the Baron and Kenny procedure were thus supported for attitude and subjective norm

TABLE 2  
Multilevel Regression Analysis of Job Pursuit Intention on Job Pursuit Attitude, Subjective Norm, and Perceived Behavioral Control, and of Job Pursuit Behavior on Perceived Behavioral Control and Job Pursuit Intention

Predictor	Job Pursuit Intention			Job Pursuit Behavior		
	Estimate (b)	SE	t	Estimate (b)	SE	t
Job pursuit attitude	0.51	.035	14.71**			
Subjective norm	0.12	.035	3.50**			
Perceived behavioral control	−0.00	.031	−0.06	0.18	.043	4.73**
Job pursuit intention				0.40	.047	8.43**

Note.  $N = 660$  observations for the analysis of job pursuit intention and  $N = 420$  observations for the analysis of job pursuit behavior.

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

TABLE 3  
Multilevel Regression Analysis of Job Pursuit Behavior on Job Pursuit Attitude, Subjective Norm, Perceived Behavioral Control, and Job Pursuit Intention

Predictor	Job Pursuit Behavior					
	Step 1			Step 2		
	Estimate (b)	SE	t	Estimate (b)	SE	t
Step 1: TPB variables						
Job pursuit attitude	.21	.053	4.03**	.05	.058	0.94
Subjective norm	.14	.055	2.53*	.08	.055	1.39
Perceived behavioral control	.17	.046	3.61**	.17	.045	3.75**
Step 2: Mediator						
Job pursuit intention				.34	.057	5.93**

Note.  $N = 420$  observations. TPB = theory of planned behavior.

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

but not for perceived behavioral control. Table 3 demonstrates that the regression coefficients of attitude and subjective norm were no longer significant when job pursuit intention was added to the equation (see Step 2), with the mediation effects being significant,  $z = 5.50$ ,  $p < .001$ , and  $z = 3.01$ ,  $p < .01$ , respectively. These findings support H3a, suggesting that intention fully mediates the relationship of attitude and subjective norm with behavior. However, Table 3 also shows that H3b was not supported, as the introduction of job pursuit intention to the equation did not decrease the regression coefficient of perceived behavioral control ( $z = -0.06$ ,  $p = .95$ ). Thus, the relationship between perceived behavioral control and job pursuit behavior seems to be direct rather than (partially) mediated by job pursuit intention.

H4 was tested based on 55 respondents who had received a job offer at T2 from one (or more) of the three organizations that they mentioned at the beginning of the study. In total these 55 respondents together received 73 job offers, so the analysis was run on 73 observations. Table 1 shows that, in support of H4, job pursuit behavior related positively to actual job choice, suggesting that participants who had higher scores on job pursuit behavior toward a specific

organization were more likely to accept a job offer from that organization. Thus, when participants had multiple offers, they were more likely to accept the offer from the organization they had spent most effort on pursuing.

To test H5 to H8 we first checked whether the different sources of information significantly correlated with job pursuit intention (see Table 1). Recruitment advertising and positive word of mouth showed a positive and significant correlation with job pursuit intention. Negative word of mouth was marginally negatively correlated to job pursuit intention. On-campus presence, positive publicity, and negative publicity were not significantly correlated to intention. To account for intercorrelations between the different sources, and to examine the unique impact of each source, we performed a multilevel regression analysis. Table 4 shows that recruitment advertising, on-campus presence, and positive word of mouth explained unique variance in job pursuit intention, such that recruitment advertising and positive word of mouth were positively, and on-campus presence negatively related to job pursuit intention. This pattern of findings demonstrated strong support for H5a and H8a; some support for H8b; and no support for H6a, H7a, and H7b.

H5b, H6b, H7c, and H8c stated that the relationship of information sources with job pursuit intention should be mediated by the theory of planned behavior variables. Table 4 presents the results of the multilevel regression analysis testing these hypotheses, demonstrating that the relationships of on-campus presence and positive word of mouth with intention were fully mediated by the theory of planned behavior variables and that the relationship of recruitment advertising with intention was partially mediated by the theory of planned behavior variables. Mediation was not supported for the other sources of information. Subsequent regression analyses of intention on the sources of information plus each of the three theory of planned behavior variables separately demonstrated that the mediation of on-campus presence, positive word of mouth, and recruitment advertising was largely due to job pursuit attitude.

TABLE 4  
Multilevel Regression Analysis of Job Pursuit Intention on Sources  
of Information and the TPB Variables

Predictor	Job Pursuit Intention					
	Step 1			Step 2		
	Estimate (b)	SE	t	Estimate (b)	SE	t
Step 1: Sources of information						
Recruitment advertising	.16	0.042	3.85**	.13	0.036	3.54**
On-campus presence	-.11	0.039	-2.84**	-.04	0.033	-1.15
Positive publicity	-.00	0.034	-0.06	.00	0.029	0.02
Negative publicity	.00	0.034	0.02	-.01	0.029	-0.48
Positive word of mouth	.14	0.039	3.58**	.03	0.034	0.73
Negative word of mouth	-.06	0.039	-1.52	.02	0.033	0.69
Step 2: TPB variables						
Job pursuit attitude				.50	0.035	14.42**
Subjective norm				.11	0.035	3.00**
Perceived behavioral control				-.01	0.032	-0.43

Note. *N* = 660 observations. TPB = theory of planned behavior.

\**p* < .05. \*\**p* < .01.

TABLE 5  
Multilevel Regression Analysis of Job Pursuit Behavior on Sources of Information and the TPB Variables

Predictor	Job Pursuit Behavior								
	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	Estimate (b)	SE	t	Estimate (b)	SE	t	Estimate (b)	SE	t
Step 1: Sources of information									
Recruitment advertising	.14	0.056	2.44*	.12	0.054	2.15*	.07	0.053	1.33
On-campus presence	-.07	0.051	-1.37	-.05	0.049	-0.94	-.05	0.048	-0.95
Positive publicity	-.00	0.046	-0.01	-.02	0.045	-0.49	-.02	0.043	-0.52
Negative publicity	-.11	0.046	-2.32*	-.10	0.043	-2.33*	-.11	0.042	-2.52*
Positive word-of-mouth	.16	0.054	3.04**	.08	0.053	1.42	.09	0.052	1.69
Negative word-of-mouth	-.05	0.053	-1.01	-.01	0.050	-0.14	-.02	0.049	-0.35
Step 2: TPB variables 1									
Job pursuit attitude				.19	0.054	3.43**	.02	0.059	0.40
Subjective norm				.13	0.056	2.34*	.07	0.055	1.29
Perceived behavioral control				.14	0.043	3.12**	.15	0.045	3.27**
Step 3: TPB variables 2									
Job pursuit intention							.33	0.057	5.85**

Note.  $N = 420$  observations. TPB = theory of planned behavior.

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

In addition to the relationships of sources of information with T1 job pursuit intention, we examined the relationships of sources of information with T2 job pursuit behavior. Multilevel regression analyses as presented in Table 5 demonstrated that recruitment advertising, negative publicity, and positive word of mouth explained unique variance in job pursuit behavior. The relationship of recruitment advertising with job pursuit behavior was fully mediated by job pursuit intention, and the relationship of positive word of mouth was fully mediated by the theory of planned behavior variables and intention. The relationship between negative publicity and job pursuit behavior was direct, rather than mediated by the theory of planned behavior variables. As a summary, Table 6 gives an overview of the results for our eight hypotheses.

## DISCUSSION

Through our study, we investigated the role of several internal and external recruitment-related information sources in the job pursuit process of highly educated graduates. As such, we furthered the work of Collins and Stevens (2002) by demonstrating the importance of both internal and external and both positive and negative information sources in the job pursuit process. We also



TABLE 6  
Overview of the Hypotheses and the Empirical Support

	<i>Hypothesis Statement</i>	<i>Results</i>
H1	(a) Job pursuit attitude, (b) subjective norm, and (c) PBC relate positively to job pursuit intention.	H1a and H1b supported. H1c not supported.
H2	(a) Job pursuit intention and (b) PBC relate positively to job pursuit behavior.	H2a and H2b supported.
H3	Job pursuit intention (a) completely mediates the relation of job pursuit attitude and subjective norm with job pursuit behavior and (b) partially mediates the relation of PBC with job pursuit behavior.	H3a supported. H3b not supported.
H4	Job pursuit behavior relates positively to actual job choice.	H4 supported.
H5	Exposure to organization's recruitment advertising is (a) positively related to job pursuit intention, and (b) this relation is mediated by TPB variables.	H5a supported. H5b partially supported.
H6	Exposure to companies' on-campus presence is (a) positively related to job pursuit intention, and (b) this relation is mediated by TPB variables.	H6a not supported. H6b supported.
H7	Exposure to publicity is (a) positively related to job pursuit intention when positive, and (b) negatively related to job pursuit intention when negative, and (c) these relations are mediated by TPB variables.	H7a and H7b not supported. H7c not supported. However, negative publicity was found to have a direct negative relationship with job pursuit behavior.
H8	Exposure to word of mouth is (a) positively related to job pursuit intention when positive, and (b) negatively related to job pursuit intention when negative, and (c) these relations are mediated by TPB variables.	H8a supported. H8b partially supported. H8c supported.

*Note.* PBC = perceived behavioral control; TPB = theory of planned behavior.

examined the role of the recruitment-related information sources across multiple organizations and in a real-life setting. This adds to the literature because most recruitment studies have been implemented in laboratories (Chapman et al., 2005). Furthermore, to capture the real multiple-choice situation faced by the job seekers in our sample, we used a within-participants design, which is optimal to evaluate a decision-making process involving simultaneous evaluation of multiple options (Olian, 1986). Last, the present study adds to the literature by demonstrating that the influence of recruitment-related sources of information on job pursuit can be explained by the theory of planned behavior. These findings extend previous research on theory of planned behavior in the context of job pursuit and choice (e.g., Arnold et al., 2006; Schreurs et al., 2009) by increasing our understanding of the psychological mechanisms in the job pursuit process among graduating students.

### Recruitment Information Sources and the Job Pursuit Process

The results of the present study demonstrate that job seekers use various sources of information, both internal and external, to inform their decision making. First, our results show that recruitment advertising relates positively to job pursuit intention and behavior among graduating

students, in line with the results of Collins and Stevens (2002). Second, our results demonstrate a positive relationship of positive word of mouth with job pursuit intention and behavior. These findings suggest that job seekers are no individual decision makers, but they operate under the grasp of social influences (cf. Van Hoya & Lievens, 2007). Third, although negative publicity did not relate to job pursuit intention, it was found to negatively predict job pursuit behavior. This finding indicates that when job seekers read or see negative news of an organization in the press, it may not affect intentions, but it does undermine their pursuit behavior toward that organization. This suggests that negative sources of information may play more of a role in later stages of the recruitment process. Furthermore, these findings demonstrate the importance of studying both positive and negative sources of information. As such our findings extend the work of Van Hoya and Lievens (2005), which was directed at investigating the effects of negative publicity on organizational attractiveness in a lab setting. Future research should further examine the effects of negative information sources (also in interaction with positive information) on job pursuit at multiple points in time in a real-life setting.

Contrary to the expectations, perceived on-campus presence did not correlate with job pursuit intention and behavior and even negatively predicted job pursuit intention when controlling for the other sources. Apparently, exposure to on-campus presence is not experienced as positive by all students. On one hand, on-campus presence creates some familiarity with the recruiting organization and a positive feeling that may be explained by the fact that people appreciate things they are familiar with (Zajonc, 1968). On the other hand, an excessive exposure to a single stimulus might generate tiredness and even negative reactions (Solomon, 2004). For example, when a company is very present on-campus it may evoke a feeling of distrust and lowered credibility. Another potential explanation can be given, using signaling theory and the realistic job preview and person-environment fit angles. Signaling theory postulates that decision makers faced with incomplete information rely on the information they have to make inferences about missing information (Barber, 1998; Spence, 1973). This implies that students may use recruitment activities and especially on-campus presence as signals of job and organizational characteristics when they have not yet collected realistic information about potential employers. Only after they start going on job interviews later on in the job pursuit process do they get more realistic views of these employers, which affects their pursuit decisions. When there is on-campus presence, however, graduates are already confronted with more detailed information about an organization in an earlier phase of their job pursuit. Therefore on-campus presence may have negative effects because students get to evaluate their fit with an organization (which can be positive or negative) sooner. Although recruitment activities also serve to discourage nonfitting applicants, our findings nevertheless suggest that recruiters should handle their on-campus activities with care.

### Actual Job Choice

Apart from job pursuit behavior, there were little significant correlations between the study variables and actual job choice. This may be due to the relatively small sample for these analyses, a problem that is highly common for research on actual job choice. Alternatively, recruitment sources, pursuit attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and pursuit intentions may not be very important in predicting whether people actually accept a job offer. This finding may imply that in the very last stages of recruitment, other factors than the recruitment sources

we studied play a role (e.g., available alternatives, specific job characteristics). Similarly, in their meta-analysis Chapman et al. (2005) reported mostly small relationships between the predictor variables and actual job choice. The strongest relationship with job choice was that of perceptions of fit. In addition to fit, the social context in which decision-making graduates operate may also be an important factor influencing actual job choice. Students tend to accept the job offers from organizations that have been chosen by other students whom they consider personal friends or by other students who they perceive as similar to themselves (Kilduff, 1990). Future research should further investigate the predictors of actual job choice, as this is an important but largely understudied recruitment outcome.

### Job Pursuit and the Theory of Planned Behavior

Our study also aimed to examine whether the theory of planned behavior can explain the job pursuit and choice processes in a multiple-option context. The results of our within-participants analyses show that job pursuit intention related positively to job pursuit behavior assessed 6 months later. Furthermore, job pursuit attitude and subjective norm both predicted unique variance in job pursuit intention, and the relationship of job pursuit attitude and subjective norm with job pursuit behavior was completely mediated by job pursuit intention. Thus, our results largely support the theory of planned behavior, extending previous studies on job pursuit and the theory of planned behavior (Arnold et al., 2006; Schreurs et al., 2009; Van Hooft et al., 2006) to a real-life situation where job seekers are faced with multiple options. Results regarding perceived behavioral control were not entirely consistent with the theory of planned behavior. Specifically, although perceived behavioral control was positively correlated to both job pursuit intention and behavior, it only predicted unique variance in job pursuit behavior. As such, perceived behavioral control seems to affect job pursuit behavior more directly rather than via the formation of job pursuit intentions as predicted by the theory of planned behavior.

The theory of planned behavior is thought to be a complete theory of the proximal determinants of behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998). This assumption implies that the effects of other variables on behavior should be completely mediated by the theory of planned behavior variables. Our study tested this assumption with regard to recruitment-related sources of information. Only partial support was found for this assumption, as some sources of information related directly to job pursuit intention or behavior. Specifically, recruitment advertising directly predicted job pursuit intention and negative publicity directly predicted job pursuit behavior. The finding that the theory of planned behavior only partially mediates the effects of other variables aligns with previous research on the theory of planned behavior in the vocational domain. For example, Schreurs et al. (2009) found that time lag directly impacted job pursuit, rather than through the theory of planned behavior variables, and Van Hooft, Born, Taris, Van der Flier, and Blonk (2004) reported direct relationships of work valence and outcome expectancies with job search intention and behavior. Similarly, Arnold et al. (2006) found support for extensions of the theory of planned behavior with variables such as moral obligation and organizational identification. Thus, although the theory of planned behavior appears useful for modeling the job pursuit process, it does not seem to be a complete theory of pursuit behavior. Future research should thus incorporate other variables in addition to the theory of planned behavior variables to better predict job pursuit and choice.

## Limitations and Avenues for Future Research

Limitations of the present research relate to the study design (causality, common method variance, repeated measures, range restriction), the sample type, and the data collection time. First, because of the use of a correlational design and self-report scales, causal conclusions cannot be drawn, and common method variance may be a threat to the validity of our conclusions. Regarding causality, especially for the relationships between the T1 variables, reverse causality may be an alternative explanation. For example, students may already have a positive job pursuit attitude toward a certain company, which makes them more likely to pay attention to the recruitment-related information of that company. Examining these causality issues would have needed a (quasi) experiment, which is not feasible in a real-life setting. Although we cannot completely rule out reverse causality, it seems unlikely as previous experimental studies already demonstrated the causal influences of recruitment sources on organizational attractiveness (Cable & Turban, 2001; Collins & Han, 2004; Collins & Stevens, 2002; Van Hove & Lievens, 2005). Furthermore, the relationships of the recruitment-related sources with intention were highly similar to the relationships with behavior. Because of the longitudinal design, separating the measurement of recruitment-related sources and job pursuit behavior by a 6-month interval, reverse causality could not be an alternative explanation for these findings. Regarding common method variance, the use of a within-participants design and HLM (which disregards shared variance between measures within participants) and the longitudinal design likely attenuate this concern. Another issue related to the use of self-report measures relates to the measurement recruitment-related information sources. It should be noted that we assessed the participants' perceptions of recruitment-related information rather than the actual reality. Future research could deepen the work done in this study by focusing for instance on actual on-campus presence and not only on the perception of it. This could be achieved by assessing on-campus presence of all the recruiting companies and then examining if students show higher levels of job pursuit intention and behavior for those on campus. Regarding the longitudinal design, we measured part of our model variables at T1 and the other part at T2, rather than measuring all variables at both T1 and T2. Although the design of our study aligned with our purpose to capture two different moments of the job pursuit process, as a consequence we were not able to assess changes in the study variables over time. An interesting idea for future research would be to use a longitudinal design to study whether, for example, word of mouth changes over time and if and how this change affects the pursuit process. As a consequence of the instruction to choose three companies that students had some interest in, range restriction may be an issue. However, it should be noted that using a within-individuals design with three companies actually enhances variance over using a between-individuals design with each respondent evaluating one company. Furthermore, using more than three companies would have led to an overly long questionnaire. Also, in reality job seekers are not likely to focus on a very large number of options in their pursuit process. Nevertheless, range restriction may possibly explain why some recruitment-related sources were not found to predict job pursuit.

Second, our respondents were primarily French, which may represent a limitation to our study. In contrast, it may also be considered a strength because most of the research on job pursuit is done on American samples. Our work shows that previous findings on the role of recruitment sources and on the theory of planned behavior model can be extended to other countries. The ability to generalize our findings is also challenged by the fact that we studied the case of a specific

type of student. Our respondents represent in fact quite a homogeneous population, stemming from the same educational program, which is actually an *élite* sample type that does not represent all graduates or all employees. However, this sample aligned with our study purposes, as we wanted to examine the job pursuit process among job seekers who are faced with multiple options. Future research should target other samples of student and nonstudent job seekers to examine the generalizability of our findings. Also future research may focus on cultural differences in the job pursuit process (e.g., does word of mouth have a stronger impact in collectivistic cultures?)

Third, our data were collected at a moment when the economy was flourishing, which may hinder the generalizability of our findings to other economic situations. New data should also be gathered in the current economic turmoil, to see if our results still hold in difficult economic times. For example, future research could examine if uncertainty about the chances of getting a job (which likely depends on the economic situation) impacts the effects of recruitment-related information sources on the job pursuit process.

In addition to the suggestions for future research just described, our study suggests that further attention should be paid to negative information sources, as our results show that they play a role in the later stages of the recruitment process. Perceptions of fit also deserve further research in understanding the relationship between job pursuit intention and actual job pursuit behavior. Furthermore, our results largely support the theory of planned behavior relationships and extended the relating literature to real-life situations with job seekers faced with multiple options at the same time. However, other variables, such as value congruence and perceptions of fit, should be integrated in future studies to better predict people's job pursuit and actual job choice.

### Implications for Practice

On a practical level, the negative relation of on-campus presence with job pursuit intention suggests that recruiting organizations should be careful with their on-campus activities as to avoid negative reactions among job-seeking students. Furthermore, our study shows the students' interest for external information sources such as word of mouth or publicity. Organizations should thus be aware of the fact that investments made in recruitment communication can be neutralized by negative publicity or word of mouth (Van Hove & Lievens, 2005). Furthermore, companies may try to influence word of mouth to enhance attractiveness towards the "right" potential applicants (i.e., the ones who are really wanted by the organization and who really want to work for it). For instance, organizations should ensure that internships provide students with a realistic view of organizational life, so that they may decide, based on this, if they really want to join the company. Furthermore, former interns and employees as well as current interns and employees of a company likely originate word-of-mouth communication about their experiences with the company. This leads potential applicants to adjust their expectations to organizational reality and avoid disappointment after hiring. This is in line with the realistic job-preview literature (Premack & Wanous, 1985), which states that realistic information about a job or an employer allows applicants to go for jobs or organizations that better fit their personal interests. This also relies on the literature on person-environment fit (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005) and value congruence (Judge & Bretz, 1992), which argue that potential applicants are more attracted to work environments with characteristics fitting their own characteristics. Furthermore, companies should maintain relationships with their former interns and employees, as they can openly testify

to their experience toward other potential applicants and allow the “right” applicants to apply for jobs that better fit their skills and interests (Zottoli & Wanous, 2000). Further research, however, is needed to test the effectiveness of such strategies aimed at influencing word of mouth.

## CONCLUDING REMARKS

In conclusion, this study demonstrates the importance of internal, positive external, and negative external recruitment information sources in the job pursuit process among graduating students facing multiple options. Information sources were found to affect application attitudes and perceptions toward the company, which in turn affected job pursuit intentions and job pursuit behavior. Including both positive and negative sources, and explaining the job pursuit process with the theory of planned behavior, extends previous theory and deepens our understanding of the decision-making process among job seekers.

However, depending on the stage of the recruitment process, different recruitment information sources seemed relevant. Positive information sources such as recruitment advertising and positive word of mouth were found to affect both job pursuit intention and job pursuit behavior. This means that these information sources play a role both when students still form their intention to apply in a company and when they actually send their applications to potential employers. In contrast, negative information sources such as negative publicity were found to affect only job pursuit behavior and did not play a role at the intentional level of the process. Such results demonstrate the importance of both positive and negative recruitment-related information sources, especially in the case of job seekers faced with multiple options, and suggest the importance for recruiting organizations to attempt to control such information sources.

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