2017

Employee Selection Strategies in Casual Dining Restaurants

Tim Racey
Walden University

Walden University

College of Management and Technology

This is to certify that the doctoral study by

Tim Racey

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Charlotte Carlstrom, Committee Chairperson, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Dr. Jon Corey, Committee Member, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Dr. Neil Mathur, University Reviewer, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2017

Abstract

Employee Selection Strategies in Casual Dining Restaurants

by

Timothy J. Racey

MS, Saint Joseph’s University, 2013

BA, Argosy University, 2011

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

January 2017

Abstract

Annual turnover for hourly employees in the hospitality industry averages 102%. The costs associated with hiring and training new employees are estimated at 150% of an employee's salary for businesses with more than 30 employees. The purpose of this case study was to examine the personnel selection strategies used in the casual dining sector. The sample for this study was 6 casual dining restaurant managers in the central Georgia area. Three of the participants used online selection strategies and 3 participants used intuition-based strategies. The objective of this study was to compare the similarities and differences between each respective personnel selection strategy. The conceptual framework employed is a resource-based view of the firm. Data were collected through semi structured face-to-face interviews. Data analysis occurred through coding and theming and revealed common themes between both groups. These themes were related to assessment of the application, applicant experience, applicant skills, traits, and abilities (online), and interviewing of the applicant. By implementing the recommendations from this study, managers in casual dining restaurants could affect social change whereby selecting employees who fit the restaurant environment and would demonstrate a higher self-efficacy and a better work-life balance. Promoting traits of self-efficacy and work-life balance would also create retention among hourly employees, saving restaurant organizations millions of dollars.

Employee Selection Strategies in Casual Dining Restaurants

by

Timothy J. Racey

MS, Saint Joseph’s University, 2013

BA, Argosy University, 2011

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

January 2017

Dedication

Since the dedication has become somewhat clichéd, perhaps romantically so, to praise the wife and family for their support, I am dedicating this effort to myself. Do not take me wrong, I am indebted to my wonderful wife and family for allowing me to sit solitary and undisturbed while I pound away at this keyboard for hours upon hours a day. However, it is through my sheer, at times obstinate, will and persistence that this writing exists. So, I iconoclastically dedicate this achievement to myself. Through my dreams of being a better person and pursuing my Doctorate, I have created a legacy of debt financially and emotionally, neither of which I will live long enough to fully satisfy. My hope is that from this dedication to myself, my dreams, and my visions of happier times, I can use my education to create a wondrous and worry-free life for my family and those I associate with.

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge the contribution by Dr. Charlotte Carlstrom to this study. Dr. Carlstrom provided keen, specific, and valuable insights that has helped make this study better than when I first began. She has been understanding and encouraging the entire way, while also helping several others on their journeys. Thank you Dr. Carlstrom for being an exemplary example of true educator.

Table of Contents

Section 1: Foundation of the Study..1

Background of the Problem 1

Problem Statement..3

Purpose Statement..3

Nature of the Study 4

Research Question 6

Interview Questions 6

Conceptual Framework..6

Operational Definitions..8

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations..8

Assumptions.. 8

Limitations 9

Delimitations.. 9

Significance of the Study..10

Contributions to Business 10

Contributions to Social Change 10

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature..11

Resource-Based View of the Firm.. 12

Personnel Selection.. 13

Intuition-Based Selection.. 14

Online Personnel Selection Assessments.. 15

Cognitive Assessments 17
The Big Five 18
Faking and Response Distortion in Online Assessments 21
Person-Environment Fit 22
Face-to-Face Interviewing 25
Video Interviewing 27
The Impact of Social Media on Personnel Selection 29
Transition 33
Section 2: The Project 35
Purpose Statement 35
Role of the Researcher 36
Participants 36
Research Method and Design 37
Research Method 37
Research Design 39
Population and Sampling 40
Ethical Research 41
Data Collection Instruments 43
Data Collection Technique 44
Data Organization Technique 45
Data Analysis 46
Reliability and Validity 49

Reliability....................49

Validity....................50

Transition and Summary....................53

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change....................54

Introduction....................54

Presentation of the Findings....................54

Pre-employment Documents....................56

Employee Screening....................59

Method....................59

Interviewing....................65

Applications to Professional Practice....................69

Implications for Social Change....................71

Recommendations for Action....................72

Recommendations for Further Research....................74

Reflections....................76

References....................79

Appendix A: Interview Questions....................102

Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Casual dining restaurants and the hospitality industry in general rely on human capital, perhaps more than other industries. Human beings are inseparable from the products of customer service, customer satisfaction, and brand building (AlBattat, Mat Som, & Helalat, 2013). Human capital provides market differentiation and a sustained competitive advantage across industries. To select the best personnel that will make a positive impact on the firm, casual dining restaurant managers use a variety of strategies. These can include the use of intuition, online personality assessments, a combination of both, or whatever strategy has worked best in the past. Failure to select the best personnel can result in poor customer service and a deterioration of the firm's financial performance due to costs associated with turnover, recruiting, personnel selection, and training, in addition to lost business (Stone, Lukaszewski, Stone-Romero, & Johnson, 2013). Investigating strategies used by restaurant managers will illuminate both effective and ineffective personnel selection strategies.

Background of the Problem

Organizations rely on human capital resources to meet changing economies, respond to customer demands, and sustain a competitive advantage (Bailly & Léné 2012; Campbell, Coff, & Kryscynski, 2012; Stahl et al., 2012). Competition for capable employees can be intense. To gain a competitive advantage, human resource managers (HRM) employ electronic-based (e-based) personnel selection assessments to find the best talent available (König, Merz, & Trauffer, 2012). Seventy-four percent of large organizations use e-based personnel selection assessments to choose the right employees reducing costs related to staffing, training, and turnover (Stone et. al., 2013). However, personnel selection assessment's predictive ability has gone unchanged for nearly 100 years (Ryan & Polyhart, 2014).

Hospitality organizations allocate vast resources to recruit suitable personnel who will fit the rigorous challenges of jobs in the hospitality industry. Personnel selection is of high importance to hospitality organizations since there is a significant tangible cost associated with turnover. High turnover is a hallmark of the hospitality industry, however. With an average annual turnover rate of 102% for employees and 33% for managers, training costs can be significant, and companies can incur extensive costs related to recruiting and replacing employees, which in turn affects performance and productivity. These factors can contribute to a loss of revenue for the organization (Dawson, 2014).

Selection research and assessment instruments have not adapted to social and demographic changes over time (Ryan & Polyhart, 2014). Researchers have argued that personnel selection assessments that are context-based and weigh person-environment fit predict future work performance more accurately than personality assessments alone (Ahmad & Veerapandian, 2012; Blickle et al., 2012; Chien Farh, Myeong-Gu, & Tesluk, 2012; Dalal, Bhave, & Fiset, 2014). Personnel selection assessments that help determine person-environment fit have become invaluable for organizations to help them to select the best individual for the job. Using the appropriate personnel selection instrument to hire for the right job can ultimately add money to an organization's bottom line (Vasquez, 2014).

Problem Statement

With human capital seen as a source of competitive advantage, personnel selection assessments are in use by 74% of large companies (Stone et al., 2013). In 2015, the restaurant industry employed 14.4 million people (Nation's Restaurant News, 2015). The general business problem for this study is that personnel selection processes affect costs associated with turnover, retention, training, and financial performance. The specific business problem is that some restaurant owners and managers lack effective personnel selection strategies.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore the selection strategies that restaurant managers use to select personnel. Turnover in the restaurant industry rose to 72.1% in 2015 (Ruggles, 2016). Not only does turnover equate to millions of dollars lost to organizations, but it also affects customer satisfaction in a negative way by influencing the morale and job satisfaction within the industry. The targeted population for this study consisted of six casual dining restaurant managers in the central Georgia area. An exploration of personnel selection strategies in casual dining restaurants could provide an opportunity for casual dining managers to understand and improve their personnel selection processes and strategies. Recommendations from this study may help restaurant managers select personnel who better fit into the restaurant environment and industry culture. These recommendations may improve job satisfaction among employees and could increase productivity, efficiency, retention, and financial performance for the establishments. Employees could have a positive outlook on the work that they do. The company's community footprint would grow in a positive way, allowing the organization to better integrate into the community consciousness.

Nature of the Study

I found that a qualitative approach to this study helped me better explore the strategies used by casual dining restaurant managers when selecting personnel. A qualitative method allows the researcher to view phenomena from the participant's perspective and to explore the experiences of the participants (Suri, 2011). I focused this study on an examination of personnel selection strategies from the viewpoint of restaurant managers, making a qualitative method suitable for this study (Graebner, Martin, & Roundy, 2012). By comparison, quantitative studies begin with known variables or a hypothesis of the relationship among the variables (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). A quantitative approach seeks to reduce the complexities of the variables into a measurable dataset (Allwood, 2012). Since the variables of the strategies managers use in personnel selection were unknown at the onset of this study, a quantitative approach was not appropriate (Chenail, 2011).

A multiple case study design was the most fitting for this study. A multiple case study focuses on two or more cases (Yin, 2014) and allows the researcher to examine a broader range of information than other methods (Yin, 2012). I selected a multiple case study rather than a single case studies because it produces stronger and more conclusive results (Yin, 2012). Multiple case studies provide the flexibility the researcher requires to explore the complexities that directly influence the participant's practice in a real world setting (Yin, 2014). A multiple case study allows the researcher to explore the commonalities or differences among cases (Yin, 2014). A multiple case study also allows for conclusions that are more powerful and easier to replicate than in single case studies (Yin, 2014).

I considered other qualitative designs such as phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and narrative. The focus of phenomenology is to explore firsthand a phenomenon from the people experiencing it (Galvin & Todres, 2011), which was not the intent of this study. The overall goal of this study was to explore the use of strategies in selecting personnel for the casual dining restaurant industry. Grounded theory's focus is in examining the collected data to develop a theory, which was not the primary goal of this study (Kolb, 2012). An ethnographic design was not appropriate for this study because the primary focus of ethnography is to examine and understand the meaning and experiences of a particular culture (Hanson, Balmer, & Giardino, 2011). Narrative research compiles the participant's description of events into a cohesive narrative (Hays & Wood, 2011). A narrative approach was not appropriate for this study because the study compared two diverse groups of restaurant managers, those who, used assessments to screen potential employees and those who used intuitive hiring practices. The narrative approach would only allow for two different narratives and plotlines to be established (Hays & Wood, 2011). Due to the scope of personnel selection strategies used by restaurant managers, I found phenomenological, grounded theory, ethnographic, and narrative approaches to be too limiting, and they were therefore excluded from the design of this study (Arendt et al., 2012).

Research Question

What strategies do casual dining restaurant managers use to select personnel?

Interview Questions

1. What is the process of personnel selection for your company?
2. What is the personnel selection tool you use in personnel selection?
3. Why do you use this instrument?
4. What are the strengths of this instrument?
5. What are the weaknesses of this instrument?
6. What other instruments or methods have you used in selecting personnel?
7. How does this selection instrument meet your needs?
8. What traits, behaviors, or characteristics are necessary to be successful in the restaurant industry?
9. How do you measure an applicant's traits, behaviors, or characteristics?
10. How do you know if a new hire is a good fit for the job?

Conceptual Framework

The strategic human resource management (SHRM) resource-based view (RBV) theory of the firm helped me explore and explain why personnel selection strategies are of great importance to hospitality organizations (Wright & McMahan, 1992). RBV was first developed by Schumpeter (1939), who defined it as the resources the firm needs for economic growth. Penrose (1959) expanded Schumpeter's theory by defining competitive advantage and sustained competitive advantage as links to the resources within the firm. RBV is the link integrating human capital and organizational strategy

(Schuler, 1992). RBV does not focus on the products or services that firms produce, but rather the resources used in producing those products or services (Wernerfelt, 1984). Penrose (1959) explained that only through a shared, tacit knowledge of strengths, weaknesses, and idiosyncrasies of team members could teamwork exist. It is through this tacit knowledge that the group can capitalize on opportunities within the environment and successfully execute the firm's strategy (Kor & Mahoney, 2004). Although human capital is but one piece of the strategic management puzzle, firms that retain and leverage their human resources position themselves to continuously benefit from homogenous, immobile assets (Wright & McMahan, 1992). Through collective knowledge and experience gained by a continuity among its human capital, firms gain a competitive advantage against competing firms that have high turnover and would lack a tacit and collective knowledge base (Kor & Mahoney, 2004).

Selecting the right personnel is the cornerstone of any organization (Van Dyke & Strick, 1990). RBV is a strategy designed to help organizations not only capitalize on the resources they already have, but it enables them to add resources that will further enhance and expand on their current competitive capabilities (Wright & McMahan, 1992). Organizations that can capitalize on a human capital-based competitive advantage can generate greater economic value through the utilization and retention of the knowledge, skills, and abilities of their employees (Coff & Kryscynski, 2011). RBV is a way to create a sustainable human resource-based competitive advantage is by attracting, retaining, and motivating employees (Coff & Kryscynski, 2011). True differentiation and barriers to entry are only achievable with a highly successful human resource-based strategy.

Operational Definitions

Competitive Advantage: Competitive advantage market superiority by organizations that have matched their core resources to their opportunities (Sangeetha, 2010).

Hiring Manager: The hiring manager evaluates a candidate's criteria to see if the candidate is a fit for the job (Sangeetha, 2010).

Human Capital: Human capital is the collective knowledge, skills, and abilities of the employees within an organization used to produce economic value (Bressler, 2014).

Personnel Selection: Personnel selection is the process of recruiting, selecting, hiring, and promoting employees with the intention of choosing the right individual who will make the most valuable contribution to the organization (Zhang & Liu, 2011).

Utility Analysis: Utility analysis is a set of methods and procedures to help organizations determine the value of adopting a new process, procedure, or intervention (Cabrera & Ranju, 2001).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Assumptions are issues or matters assumed to be true that may influence the findings of a study (Bernard, 2012). I assumed that the participants were forthcoming and honest in discussing their perceptions and experiences with personnel selection strategies used by their organizations. To enable participants to contribute wholly and truthfully, I offered confidentiality and anonymity. I also assumed that the instruments used in personnel selection are valid and are reliable.

Limitations

Limitations are the weak characteristics of the study that may influence the interpretation of the findings over which the researcher has no control (Kirkwood & Price, 2013). The main limitation of this study was that the casual dining segment of the restaurant industry may not be representative of all of the other types of restaurant operations. Although other segments of the restaurant industry such as fast food, fast casual, and quick service may also use various types of e-based personnel selection tools, to research each segment in depth would require time and resources beyond my means.

Delimitations

Delimitations are elements that limit the scope and define the boundaries of the research question that the researcher has control over (Bernard, 2012). The first delimitation was that casual dining restaurants in the Central Georgia area may not be representative of all restaurants in the United States. Another delimitation of this study regarded the scope. The purpose of this study was to investigate personnel selection strategies used by casual dining restaurant managers; it does not take into account the culture or the training, nor is there a follow up to track how new hires are performing within the environment. To extend research in these directions was not feasible and would have increased the scope and size of the study.

Significance of the Study

Contributions to Business

The insights gained from this study will encourage restaurant owners and managers to improve their personnel selection processes. Understanding the differences in personnel selection processes used by restaurant managers will illuminate the financial benefit of current personnel selection processes (Holling, 1998). The observations from this study will help owners and operators to close the gap between accepted hiring and staffing practices and desired hiring and staffing practices. The information provided by this study can act as a blueprint for designing and implementing industry specific screening, selecting, and hiring processes and systems.

Contributions to Social Change

Turnover in the restaurant industry rose to 72.1% in 2015 (Ruggles, 2016). Not only does turnover equate to millions of dollars lost to organizations, but it also affects customer satisfaction in a negative way by influencing the morale and job satisfaction and unemployment within the industry and the community. Restaurants that incur costs associated with turnover will inevitably have to raise prices to compensate financially. Personnel selection strategies could potentially influence job satisfaction, work-life balance, and productivity, and could positively influence an organization's profitability by increasing customer satisfaction while reducing costs related to turnover, recruiting, and training. These cost reductions could allow organizations to reinvest in the communities where they operate.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to identify personnel selection strategies used by casual dining restaurant managers. I conducted research using a case study approach intent on capturing the process by which casual dining restaurant managers select employees. The study consisted of interviewing three casual dining restaurant managers in the Central Georgia area who use some pre-employment assessment, online or pencil and paper, to aid in their hiring decisions, and three managers who use intuition-based hiring alone. The following research question guided the research: What strategies do restaurant managers use to select personnel?

The literature on personnel selection is immense and spans over 100 years of academic research, study, and writing. I conducted a review of the literature on personnel selection, which included peer-reviewed articles, journals, websites, government reports, and books. The specific focus was on *personnel selection,* which included *intuition-based personnel selection, online assessments, person-environment fit, predictive analytics of the Big Five, answer distortion on online assessments, face-to-face interviewing, video interviewing*, and *adverse impact*. Primary research libraries and databases used included Walden University Library, ProQuest, Google Scholar, SAGE, and EBSCO. Of the 143 references, 123 (86.01%) were peer reviewed and 126 (88.11%) were published in the last five years.

The review of the literature began with an explanation of RBV, which is the primary component in a strategic human resources-based view of the firm. Penrose's (1959) theory of RBV provided a conceptual framework for this study on the importance of personnel selection strategies in the casual dining restaurant segment. After the description of RBV, the following sections address what personnel selection is and the various strategies available.

Resource-Based View of the Firm

The theories of RBV in an SHRM perspective are vertical and horizontal relationships to the firm's incumbent resources (Wright & McMahan, 1992). Vertically, RBV links strategic management practices with the strategic management operations within the firm (Wright & McMahan, 1992). Horizontally, it links strategic management practices with planned action (Wright & McMahan, 1992). This link to planned action is occupied with the composition of the firm's human capital, the requirements of HRM to retain their human capital, and how effective the policies, philosophies, programs, processes, and practices align to create a sustained competitive advantage (Schuler, 1992).

For RBV to provide a sustained competitive advantage, four criteria must be met. These are (a) the resource must add positive value, (b) the resource must be unique, (c) the resource must be inimitable, and (d) the resource cannot be substituted by competing firms (Wright & McMahan, 1992). The resource-based view of the firm takes into account how SHRM can be used to provide a sustained competitive advantage. For SHRM to function as a competitive advantage, it must adhere to the four criteria. First, it has to provide value. There must exist a demand for various types of employees to fill different roles and diverse skill set among employees. Second, the resource has to be rare. Finding employees with high skill sets and knowledge is rare. Organizations use selection programs with the mindset that they are capturing those rare employees who will differentiate them from their competitors. Third, the resource has to be inimitable. Internal operating procedures and policies that help shape the culture and interpersonal relationships among its employees create an inimitable resource. Fourth, the resource cannot be substituted. The resource is irreplaceable by technological advances (Wright & McMahan, 1992). Using RBV theory for the casual dining restaurant sector shows how human capital can provide a sustained competitive advantage with not only their current personnel but also by embellishing their advantage through a rigorous personnel selection protocol.

Personnel Selection

Personnel selection is an intrinsic part of any organization's performance; this is especially true of the service industry (Tews, Stafford, & Tracey , 2011). Service industry employees are in constant, direct contact with guests, and their behaviors fuel the guests' perception of service quality and satisfaction. The success or failure of service companies relies solely on their frontline employees. However, the service industry faces challenges in building a sustained competitive advantage through the recruitment of qualified frontline employees due to the industry's high turnover rates and low wages (Daskin & Tezer, 2012). Because of this, personnel managers face the dilemma of hiring the right employees who will make a positive contribution to the organization's bottom line. Bad hiring decisions not only have a negative effect on a company financially but also on employee morale, which, in turn, could lead to more bad personnel selection decisions. Choosing an effective personnel selection strategy for organizations is dependent on the alignment of the corporate strategy, human resources strategy, and the legality of the selection and hiring process.

Intuition-Based Selection

There are reasons why some hiring managers eschew the use of online assessments or even pencil and paper assessments for intuition-based personnel selection. These range from the lack of understanding of how the assessment functions or lack of training on the assessment tool itself to the organization's determination of the economic contribution of the assessment versus not using an assessment (Drogan & Yancey, 2011; Lodato, Highhouse, & Brooks, 2011). Instead of a structured approach to personnel selection, hiring managers rely on their intuition or "gut feelings" about potential candidates (Miles & Sadler-Smith, 2014). These "gut feelings" develop through years of observation and experience in the environment. Hiring managers come to rely on these "gut feelings" so much that they resist change and become convinced that hiring the right employee boils down to intuition and experience.

Miles and Sadler-Smith (2014) posit that despite cognitive efforts to the contrary, there are always contextual intuitions at play when interacting face-to-face with candidates. These include expert intuition, creative intuition, moral intuition, and social intuition (Miles & Sadler-Smith, 2014). Social intuition, used most in the personnel selection process, is prone to distortion through interview illusion. Interview illusion is the result of an unstructured, intuition-based interview where the interviewer focuses more on an applicant's stated intentions as a predictor of future performance. These stated intentions are less reliable in predicting future behavior than trends in the candidate's past performance or behavior. Using stated intentions rather than past behavior will only yield results after the hiring decision, at which point the impact will resonate, negatively or positively, throughout the organization. Hiring managers who are overconfident in their reliance on intuition-based decision-making justify their hiring decisions through hindsight bias and an overemphasis of intuitive hits during the interview process. Therefore, their confidence in the validity of their self-perception is confirmed and intuitive hiring continues. Either too stubborn to change or too ignorant of the fact that an assessment-based approach is more effective than an intuition-based approach, these hiring managers firmly believe that they can intuitively predict a potential employee's future behavior based on intuition, experience, and observation (Lodato et al., 2011). Freyd (1925) proffered that relying on personal interpretation rather than objective measures during the selection process allowed personal prejudice to reduce the well-being of the worker and placed the focus of the selection process more on the employer. With pressure placed on HR departments to reduce costs related to recruiting and selecting employees, more organizations are moving toward a comprehensive and integrated personnel selection system and away from intuitive decision-making (Sears, Zhang, Wiesner, Hackett, & Yuan, 2013).

Online Personnel Selection Assessments

To help ensure that hiring managers are selecting the best personnel, 74% of large corporations use online employee assessments to aid in personnel selection (Beaty et al., 2011; Stone et al., 2013). Online assessments or e-based assessments help reduce errors associated with employee selection, errors that could have long-term negative financial effects for an organization. Other advantages of using online personnel selection assessments include larger applicant pools, reduced administrative time screening applicants for job qualifications, and reduced costs (Hendrick & Raspiller, 2011), As well as more efficient application and information storage, hiring employees who are more qualified, and controlling the flow of new employees into the organization (Stone et al., 2013).

Opponents of online assessments decry them as too focused on efficiency and cost reduction, which detracts from hiring truly qualified applicants (Stone et al., 2013). Another criticism is that online assessments are more prone to cheating or faking than traditional selection methods and create an adverse impact on protected groups (Stone et al., 2013). Online assessments also have the potential to invade an applicant's privacy and, in turn, create a negative association between applicant and organization (Stone et al., 2013). Despite these criticisms leveled at assessments, 100% of Fortune 500 companies use an online application process and 74% incorporate testing into their selection process (Beaty et al., 2011; Stone et al., 2013).

Personnel selection assessments include general competency and technical competency based assessments guided by a rigorous job analysis (U.S. Office of Personnel Management [USOPM], 2007). Job analysis requires a holistic approach toward measuring specific competencies necessary to perform a certain job. General competencies include cognitive and social abilities, such as problem solving, and interpersonal skills required across a broad spectrum of occupations, whereas technical competencies focus more on the specific knowledge and skills required for a specific job.

Job analysis helps organizations determine qualifications for any given job. Subject matter experts (SME), usually a supervisor or manager, proffer insights into job-specific criteria when performing a job analysis. These job analyses and job specific definitions support human resource strategies in conducting a utility analysis of personnel selection strategies that align with the organization's personnel policies (Van Hoye & Turban, 2015).

Cognitive Assessments

Cognitive assessments are prevalent throughout all aspects of our society. In the job market, applicants test through General Aptitude Test Battery or Wonderlic (Berry, Clark, & McClure, 2011). To join the military, applicants take the Armed Service Aptitude Test Battery, and in the realm of education, students applying to colleges take the SAT, the ACT, or the GRE (Berry, Clark, & McClure, 2011). These tests, while thematically different, all attempt to measure one’s cognitive ability. Cognitive ability correlates with one’s ability to learn, solve problems, follow complex instructions, and understand words and numbers.

Even though there are some detractors from the use of cognitive ability tests to predict future performance, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) mainly, there is voluminous empirical evidence that proves otherwise (Schmidt, 2012). The main argument against the use of cognitive ability tests is that cognitive processes are mental processes and, as such, are not observable. This argument suggests that how a person knows what they know and applies that knowledge is not a measurable process. However, the real measure of one’s cognitive ability is not their epistemology, but the effect or outcome of their applied cognitive processes. In light of these arguments against the validity of and legal rulings against the use of cognitive assessments in employee selection, personnel selection has come to rely more on personality traits to predict work performance.

The Big Five

In the past, work roles found their definition in tasks performed by an individual and performance was the skill with which the individual performed specific job tasks (Neal, Yeo, Koy, & Xiao, 2012). However, working conditions and work role requirements have changed, requiring employees to be more adaptable and flexible to an ever-changing work environment. Within the past two decades, there has been increased interest in identifying personality traits that may predict differences in proactivity and adaptability in the workplace (Vecchione, Alessandri, & Barbaranelli, 2011). The Big Five personality scale, first developed by Allport and Odbert (1936), and later refined by Tupes and Christal (1958) defines the five most common personality traits of human beings (Chang, Connelly, & Geeza, 2011). These are Openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism (Neal, Yeo, Koy, & Xiao, 2012).

Openness to Experience. Individuals scoring high in openness to experience display a natural intellectual curiosity and have a strong desire to learn (Komarraju, Karau, Schmeck, & Avdic, 2011). They also tend to be imaginative, adventurous, and unconventional. Individuals with high openness to experience display a higher tolerance for ambiguity and prefer complexity to simplicity (Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang, 2012).

Conscientiousness. Individuals scoring high in conscientiousness tend to be hardworking, self-disciplined, and persevering. Conscientiousness illustrates that individuals scoring high on this trait have a strong sense of responsibility to match their actions to their personal beliefs. Conscientious people tend to think before they act, plan, prioritize, and follow procedures. Employees are more likely to take initiative, be responsible for, and put forth a sustained effort in completing their tasks. Of all the Big Five traits, conscientiousness, research has proven, has the strongest quantitative relationship to performance (Wang, Begley, Hui, & Lee, 2012).

Extraversion. Extraversion displays an individuals' proclivity toward optimism. They seek out opportunities for growth, reward, and have a focus on promotion. Individuals scoring high on extraversion are more likely to perceive themselves and their work environments in a more positive way. They can maintain their performance through a positive perception of their job, the challenge of the work, job satisfaction, and the personal satisfaction of accomplishing the task. High extraversion correlates with lower turnover, which plays an important role in personnel selection (Zimmerman, Boswell, Shipp, Dunford, & Boudreau, 2012).

Agreeableness. Agreeableness is one's disposition toward working as part of a team and working collectively with the group or team toward a common goal (Lounsbury et al., 2012). Individuals scoring high in agreeableness are better able to exchange information and resources, collaborate and process appropriate responses to the team's needs (Farh, Seo, & Tesluk, 2012).

Neuroticism. Neuroticism is the trait most associated with experiencing and dealing with negative emotions, such as fearfulness, social anxiety, poor control over impulses, and helplessness. Individuals scoring high in neuroticism correlate negatively to displaying proactive behaviors, such as voicing opinions or suggestions and proactively seeking feedback on their performance. Individuals scoring low in neuroticism would exhibit positive behaviors when dealing with distressing situations. They would be prone to a heightened sense of proactivity and seek out ways to help others as well as accepting help (Wu, Parker, & Bindl, 2013).

Personality influences work performance through a goal-oriented pursuit of job-related goals (Penney, David, & Witt, 2011). As employees reach their work-related goals, they are motivated to achieve still higher performance and, in turn, their expectation goal increases. By incorporating the Big Five into a personnel selection, organizations hope to identify those employees that will be flexible, adaptable, and motivated to set and achieve work-related goals (Risavy & Hausdorf, 2011). The Big Five personality scales have successfully predicted performance in some employment settings. The predictive ability of the Big Five increases significantly, when the personality characteristics of the applicant match the specific job demands (Lanyon, Goodstein, & Wershba, 2014).

One of the drawbacks to the Big Five is that there is a propensity to view the scales individually and not collectively. Viewing scales individually makes it difficult to know exactly which personality trait being measured correlates with the job analysis or how it implies overall performance (Davison, Maraist, Hamilton, & Bing, 2011). For untrained personnel managers, this would compound the problem and could cause them to make uninformed or uneducated guesses about selecting the right personnel. Another problem with using the Big Five in personnel selection is the applicant's ability to fake on self-report, un-proctored tests (Landers & Sackett, 2012). It is human nature to represent oneself in the best light possible, especially when landing a job is on the line (Tett & Simonet, 2011). The overriding desire to get the job allows for intentional response distortion on the assessment. It creates a total lack of reliability in the personnel selection tool, the selection process, and can promote bad hiring practices, which in turn can have devastating effects on an organization's financial performance (Tett, Freund, Christiansen, Fox, & Coaster, 2012). Online selection processes such as online applications and pre-employment assessments or job screening are becoming more and more the norm (Alessandri et al., 2012). More and more applicants are prone to faking or response distortion on online pre-employment assessments (Jensen et al., 2012).

Faking and Response Distortion in Online Assessments

One of the main problems facing the use of online assessments is that applicants are prone to distort their answers to online assessments to appear to be the perfect candidate for the position. Faking or response distortion occurs in 30 to 50% of job applications (O'Neill et al., 2013). Response distortion occurs when an applicant knowingly answers personality questions inaccurately in the hopes of increasing the likelihood of achieving a favorable hiring decision (Schneider & Goffin, 2012). Basing personnel selections on response-distorted assessments not only cost organizations but also reduces the validity of the instrument.

Some researchers have argued that adding questions that test for the applicant's level of faking motivation will strengthen the outcome of the instrument (Lanyon, Goodstein, & Wershba, 2014; Le et al., 2011; Schneider & Goffin, 2012). Still other researchers call for the removal of personality questions altogether, since they force a selected number of personality traits to conform to a set list of predictive job outcomes (Loehlin & Goldberg, 2014). Personality assessments are also not multi-cultural nor do they test for faking. Adding questions to assessments that measure an applicant's capacity to fake their responses will not only increase reliability in the instrument and the assessment process. It will also reveal an applicant's tendency for deviance, which can impact an organization's morale, performance, and financial success (Lanyon, Goodstein, & Wershba, 2014). A huge contribution to the success of both employee and organization is how well the person fits the environment of the workplace (Badri, Mohaidat, Ferrandino, & El Mourad, 2013).

Person-Environment Fit

Pervin (1968) defined person-environment (PE) fit as the positive interaction among specific characteristics and personality traits of the employee and the environment, which promote higher job satisfaction, better performance, less work related stress, and can predict turnover intention. Some people work simply for survival while others find meaning in their relationships with co-workers, autonomy, and reward (Duffy, Austin, & Bott, 2015).

Person-environment fit has four variables of fit associated with it (Chuang, Shen, & Judge, 2014). These are person-job fit, person-organization fit, person-group fit, and person-supervisor fit. Previous research has focused on individual elements of PE fit, but employees interact with their co-workers, supervisors, and organization on a daily basis (Tak, 2011). This interaction among all facets of PE fit provides insight into an employee's behavior in the workplace.

Person-job fit. Person-job fit is the relationship between an employee's abilities and the demands of the job. Person-job fit not only measures one's compatibility with the job, but it also reveals the type of personality that best matches the needs of the job. To be satisfied with a job, an employee's knowledge, skills, ability, and other characteristics should be a positive match.

Person-organization fit. Person-organization fit is the conformity between the goals and values of both the organization and employee. Applicants attract to organizations with whom they share attributes and values that match. However, when the attraction has worn off, and the goals and values of the employee and organization diverge, the employee is motivated to leave the company (Hardin & Donaldson, 2014).

Person-group fit. Person-group fit is the compatibility between an employee and their immediate work group. This dimension of PE fit predicts the attraction of the employee to others similar to them in their social work environment. Researchers have found that similarity can predict group behavior and that similar personalities among employees foster communication and social integration.

Person-supervisor fit. Person-supervisor fit is the match between the employee and their supervisor in the work environment. In person-supervisor fit, individuals are attracted to each other through mutual interests of life goals, personality, values, and beliefs (Abrhiem, 2012). Person-supervisor fit plays a role in job performance, job satisfaction, and turnover intention.

A high level of PE fit is a key component of turnover reduction and developing tenure among employees (Gardner, Reithel, Cogliser, & Walumbwa, 2012). Shifting workforce demographics makes it hard for organizations to recruit and acquire the right mix of employees to meet the organization's strategic agenda. High turnover costs motivate organizations to find new ways to select personnel. Selection processes that seek to achieve higher levels of PE fit between new hires and the organization rely on effective communication. PE fit is harder to measure for since Woods and Bandura (1989) explain that we are both producers and products of our environments.

Organizations communicate through various social media sites and the internet; each relays information on the organization’s culture to prospective employees. These organizational communications use logos, pictures, and music to communicate their values and beliefs to both internal and external audiences. It is through these communications that a prospective candidate measures the fit between their values and those of the organization. Another organizational strategy is to include accurate job descriptions via organizational communications outlining both positive and negative aspects of the job; the intention is to have applicants that feel themselves a poor fit for the job opt out before starting an application.

Another strategy is for organizations to develop instruments that measure for an applicant’s values, personality, and job preferences to help predict PE fit and job satisfaction. Instruments that measure for PE fit also screen for how well an applicant matches the job applied for and if they will fit into the culture of the organization. Research by Breaugh (2008), found that early communication from the organization about job requirements, compensation, benefits, development opportunities, and the culture correlate with the applicant's sense of fit within the organization and translates to their satisfaction once hired. Once the hiring manager selects an applicant, the next step in the selection process is the face-to-face interview.

Face-to-Face Interviewing

Regardless of an organization's strategy or approach to personnel selection, the face-to-face interview remains one of the most commonly used recruitment tools (Farago, Zide, & Shahani-Denning, 2013). Lost in the activity of the interview itself is the fact that the interview is an interaction between two people. Each is giving and receiving information as the interview unfolds. Interviewers must be aware of the impression they give to potential applicants. Not only are interviews used to help select the best applicant, but the interviewer also has to be aware of the fact that applicants are collecting information about the organization. This information will help inform their decision to accept the job or not.

Organizations employ a battery of interview types to help mitigate personnel decisions. These are structured interviews, semi-structured interviews, and unstructured interviews (Barrick et al., 2012). Structured interviews focus on job-relevant information; which research has shown to provide more accurate results than semi-structured or unstructured interviews. Interviewers, however, prefer to use unstructured interview formats to methods that improve selection decisions, since they view the interview as a social interaction. There is a limit to the amount of structure one can impose on the interview process before it becomes cold, mechanical, and impersonal. At the onset of the interview, unstructured communication can help put the interviewee at ease and build rapport. Using unstructured communication to put the interviewee at ease and build rapport heavily influences hiring decisions (Levashina, Hartwell, Morgeson, & Campion, 2014).

Interview self-presentation is a set of behaviors used by individuals to communicate an identity to an audience. Self-presentation consists of two major tactics that enhance the actor's influence during the interview. The two most prominent impression influences during interviews are self-promotion and integration (Paulhus, Westlake, Calvez, & Harris, 2013).

Self-promotion. Self-promotion impresses an audience with one's accomplishments through self-enhancement and self-praise (Proost, Germeys, & Schreurs, 2012). Self-promoters highlight their positive attributes and continuously refer to their talents (Swider, Barrick, Harris, & Stoverink, 2011). They embellish their competencies and take credit for other's accomplishments (Hogue, Levashina, & Hang, 2013). Self-promotion favorably improves interviewer perceptions, whereas failure to self-promote has a negative influence on interviewer perception of the applicant (Cuddy, Wilmuth, & Yap, 2015). Highlighting one's skill and ability during an interview increases the likelihood of success getting the job (Mast, Frauendorfer, & Popovic, 2011). Self-promotion, however, generates a general dislike in the interviewer (Paulhus et al., 2013). There are other tactics skilled self-promoters can use to offset the dislike generated by self-promotion (Roulin, Bangerter, & Levashina, 2012).

Integration. By using conformity, flattery, and humor, the actor initiates integration, which evokes acceptance from an audience (Huffcutt, Van Iddekinge, & Roth, 2011). Tactical-modesty enhances integration, whereby the applicant employs tactical-modesty downplaying their accomplishments and competencies when the interviewer has a positive perception of the applicant (Cable & Kay, 2012). Tactical-modesty is an alternative approach by the interviewee as a way to decrease the dislike generated by self-promotion or an advanced highly positive impression. With face-to-face interviewing an inevitable step in the selection process, employers should develop interviewing techniques that guard against the first impressions gained while building rapport and impression management techniques employed by skilled applicants (Reinhard, Scharmach, & Müller, 2013).

Video Interviewing

As technology advances, more and more organizations feel the pressure to reduce costs and improve efficiency in their HR approach to recruiting application collection and management, and preliminary screening via online assessments (Sears et al., 2013). Considering these demands, some organizations are moving away from traditional face-to-face interviews and toward video conferencing (VC) interviews (Sears et al., 2013). VC allows organizations to expand their applicant base by eliminating geographical boundaries, increases the applicant pool, and cuts recruiter/applicant travel costs. The ability to increase the applicant pool by reducing geographical restrictions, time zone coordination for telephone interviews and travel expenses with conducting face-to-face interviews increases an organization's ability to find the right employee (Guchait, Ruetzler, Taylor, & Toldi, 2014).

There have emerged two types of VC, each with distinct attributes and advantages. These are live VC or VC on demand (Guchait, Ruetzler, Taylor, & Toldi, 2014; Sears et al., 2013; Toldi N. L., 2011). Leveraging new technology, such as live VC or VC on demand to build a sustained competitive advantage through human capital should become a focused HR strategy.

Live Video Conferencing. Live video conferencing (LVC) happens in real time with video and audio streamed to and from two different locations simultaneously creating a "live" interview (Toldi, 2011). LVC allows two parties to meet in a mock face-to-face environment; however, there can be a delay of audio and video due to compression. LVC can lead to a less fluid conversation where each participant has to take turns to ask or answer questions. It also increases the amount of time any given participant speaks at one time. One of the main differences between LVC and face-to-face interviewing is the loss of non-verbal cues such as body language, eye contact, and handshaking. Another difference is that only the upper torso of both participants is visible in VC. A restricted view of the participants reduces the perception of body language and can influence the decision-making process. Furthermore, live VC interviewing reduces the clarity and immediacy of interpersonal exchanges, it reduces one's ability to express or interpret nonverbal cues, and it limits the image size of the participants. LVCs severely shift participant's perceptions of one another and the interview process as well.

Video Conferencing on Demand. VC on demand differs from live VC in the fact that the interviewer is absent. The applicant records their answers to pre-recorded questions via webcam. VC on demand gives personnel selection managers the freedom to view the interview whenever they want to create an on-demand platform. The interviews can be fast-forwarded, paused, replayed, or skipped altogether once the applicant disqualifies. Managers can share interviews and can compare answers among different applicants to make the best hiring decision possible. Managers can review interviews more than once allowing them to discover information they missed the first time.

Any organization moving away from traditional face-to-face interviewing and toward VC interviewing should go to great lengths to explain why to potential applicants. Although Toldi (2011) found VC interviewing to be favored by applicants, many people were unfamiliar with webcams and their operation. Organizations should continue to use and develop VC technology, but as Sears et al. (2013) caution, VC interviewing should only be used in the early stages of the selection process. Along with online assessments and video interviewing, some organizations peruse the social media sites of their applicants to capture a more holistic view of them.

The Impact of Social Media on Personnel Selection

Social networking sites such as Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn have grown in popularity over the past few years. Research conducted by Withiam, (2011) found that

90% of respondents among the ages of 18-24 had a Facebook account. Individuals often share pictures, videos, music, blogs, personal interests, and demographic information such as marital status, sexual preference, religion, age, and ethnicity. Since personal information is so readily available, employers have begun using social media websites to gain extra insight into their applicants (Madera, 2012).

In a survey of 2,600 hiring managers, 45% reported that they used social media to learn more about their applicants to either offer them a job or reject them as candidates (Brown & Vaughn, 2011). Some of the reasons hiring managers use social media outlets to screen applicants are because the content is personal and not written for landing a job as a resume, cover letter, or curriculum vitae are (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). Hiring managers feel the content on social media sites in a more honest representation of a prospective candidate. An applicant's social media site is not as customizable as a resume. Whereas a candidate could have some different resumes for different jobs, they usually only have one social site, which more accurately reflects the real person. Another reason hiring managers use social media sites to screen applicants is that they are efficient and highly cost effective. For example, a tremendous amount of information about an applicant can be found through a casual perusal of one's personal social media site.

More organizations are using the Internet to conduct preliminary background checks (Chauhan, Buckley, & Harvey, 2013). Once an applicant has progressed in the hiring process, HR managers can simply type the name of the applicant into search engines such as Google or Yahoo to collect additional information about the applicant.

According to Chauhan, Buckley, and Harvey (2013), conducting Internet searches on applicants is not only becoming a cost-effective way to investigate an applicant's background, but Internet searches on applicants are required in some municipalities as part of organization's due diligence during the hiring process. Applicant Internet searches have become a simplistic way to avoid negligent hiring issues. By searching for an applicant on the Internet, HR managers can find out if the applicant has any unreported criminal activity and, more importantly, if the applicant would pose a risk to themselves or others in the workplace. Personnel selection researchers and practitioners are encouraged to look beyond traditional means of applicant data collection. Since there is a large and significant amount of data that falls outside of the functions of personnel selection available on social network sites, HR managers should use this information to their advantage and help make the best hiring decision possible. The legality of using social networking sites to gather additional information is still up for debate, however. What is not up for debate is how adverse impact influences the hiring practices of organizations in the United States.

Adverse Impact

The purpose behind Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act was to eliminate employment discrimination (McDaniel, Kepes, & Banks, 2011). Stemming from this legislation, the Federal Government developed the Uniform Guidelines of Employee Selection Procedures (UGESP) in 1978 to help organizations comply with using non-discriminatory tests and other selection procedures. Discrimination through employee selection practices creates an adverse impact to among minority and ethnic groups

(Arthur, Doverspike, Barrett, & Miguel, 2013). Adverse impact occurs when there is a significant difference in the hiring, promotion, or other employment decisions that put members of a particular race, sex, age, religion, or ethnic group at a disadvantage (Saad, Carter, Rothenberg, & Israelson, 1999). The burden of ensuring that employee selection processes and instruments (pre-employment assessments) are valid and reduce or eliminate adverse impact falls to the organization (Arthur et al., 2013). These 33-year-old guidelines continue to have substantial influence over how employers, assessment developers, and other practitioners perform their work (McDaniel, Kepes, & Banks, 2011).

The EEOC defines employment tests as cognitive tests, physical ability tests, sample job tasks, medical exams, personality tests, criminal background checks, credit checks, performance appraisals, and English proficiency tests (EEOC, 2015). There have been some lawsuits against organizations both large and small for employing unethical hiring practices, violating Title VII (see EEOC website). Although, the focus of Title VII and the adverse impact rule are to reduce or eliminate employment discrimination, there is growing research calling for UGESP to be modified or rescinded (McDaniel, Kepes, & Banks, 2011).

The main argument is that the UGESP is not scientifically accurate (McDaniel, Kepes, & Banks, 2011). Although Title VII forced assessment researchers to explore and create tests that were socially conscious and valid, there is no real way to eliminate adverse impact altogether. Another argument is that the UGESP is a Western-centric device, whereas the world today is more multi-culturally integrated (Polyhart, Van

Iddekinge, & Mackenzie, 2011). However, political efforts to change the UGESP have proven fruitless (see Daniel, 2001). Despite other Federal regulations that are updated, changed, or revoked on a regular basis, the UGESP has continued in its current iteration for over three decades (McDaniel, Kepes, & Banks, 2011). There is a growing consensus among the scientific community that the Uniform Guidelines, in light of socio-political and technological changes, are proving a disservice in employee selection (McDaniel, Kepes, & Banks, 2011).

Transition

Section 1 of this study provided an extensive description of personnel selection in casual dining restaurants and why it is important. The background of the problem laid the foundation for the significance of the problem statement. The purpose statement and the nature of the study outlined the details of the study, including both the research method and design. The research question, participants, and methodology lent guidance for the study. Next, an assessment of the assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of the study was followed by the significance of the study. The literature review represents an extensive review of existing literature on personnel selection in the casual dining restaurant industry allowing me to fully understand all facets of existing research and how it relates to the study topic. The literature review outlined past, present, and future approaches to personnel selection in the restaurant industry and how the industry continues to struggle with turnover. Section 2 delineates the plan for how field research was conducted. Section 3 presents the findings after receiving approval of the proposal of the study. The results of this study offer a number of keen insights around personnel selection to managers of casual dining restaurants. Managers should understand that the entire hiring process is a reflection on the organization and candidate's apply for jobs based on how closely the organization's values and beliefs align with their own. With a shift in the approach to personnel selection, restaurants would be able to select individuals that fit the environment, boost a new employee's self-efficacy, and provide a better work-life balance. Moving to a person-environment fit could also reduce costs related to recruiting, selecting, training, and retaining employees, saving restaurants millions of dollars annually.

Section 2: The Project

The focus of this qualitative case study was to examine the personnel selection strategies used by casual dining restaurant managers. I collected data from personnel selection managers in the casual dining sector using semi structured interviews. I also collected data from company websites and company documents such as applications, screening assessments, and human resource policies on personnel selection strategies. Understanding the personnel selection strategies used in the casual dining restaurant industry may help develop a unique process or instrument that will help select employees who will create a sustainable competitive advantage.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore the selection strategies restaurant managers use to select personnel. Turnover in the restaurant industry rose to 72.1% in 2015 (Ruggles, 2016). Not only does turnover equate to millions of dollars lost to organizations, but it also affects customer satisfaction in a negative way by undermining morale and job satisfaction in the industry. The targeted population consisted of six casual dining restaurant managers in the central Georgia area. Exploring personnel selection strategies in casual dining restaurants will provide an opportunity for casual dining managers to understand and improve their personnel selection processes and strategies. Recommendations from this study could help restaurant managers select personnel who better fit the restaurant environment and industry culture. These recommendations could not only improve job satisfaction among employees, but increase productivity, efficiency, and financial performance. Employees might have a more positive outlook on the work that they do, and the company's community footprint would grow in a positive way allowing the organization to integrate into the community consciousness.

Role of the Researcher

As a researcher, I was directly responsible for recruiting participants, collecting and coding data through semi structured interviews using open-ended questions designed to reveal the lived experiences and observations of the participants (Chenail, 2011). With 15 years of experience in the casual dining sector, I interviewed managers from other restaurant concepts and chains whom I did not know and with whom I had never worked in order to avoid researcher bias (Chenail, 2011). Although I have lived in the Central Georgia area for four years, I have only worked for one organization. Interviews were recorded once the participants understood and agreed to the terms of the informed consent. All participants received ethical treatment as outlined in the Belmont Report (Office for Human Research Protections, 2015). The Belmont Report provides guidance for researchers on how to be fair to all participants, how to do no harm, and how to maintain justice while conducting the research. The Belmont Report details basic ethical principles that assist in resolving ethical problems during research with human subjects (Office for Human Research Protections, 2015).

Participants

I randomly recruited six restaurant managers in the Macon and Warner Robins, Georgia, area. Three participants were from organizations that used personnel selection instruments, such as e-based applications and assessments, and three were from organizations that used intuition-based selection procedures. I contacted all participants in person or by telephone, and all interviews were conducted in public settings. I explained the nature and structure of the study to the participants, along with the informed consent. The participants and I agreed to a date, time, and location for the interview. The participant size was set at six to ensure adequate data to analyze and synthesize and to achieve data saturation (Suri, 2011). Although the sample size was fairly small, Houghton, Casey, Shaw, & Murphy (2013) and Yin (2014) both recommend a small sample size in order to obtain rich and vivid insights into the thoughts, opinions, and lived experiences of the participants. I obtained permission from the Walden Institutional Review Board (IRB) to ensure the ethical treatment and protection of the participants (IRB no. 06-07-16-0477108). I provided all six participants with a consent form for them to sign before interviewing.

Research Method and Design

Research Method

Since the focus of this study was to explore what types of personnel selection strategies restaurant managers use, a qualitative method was appropriate. The qualitative methodology allowed me to observe, examine, explore, and investigate the phenomena under study in the natural setting without disrupting operations (Hanson et al., 2011). Unlike other methodologies, qualitative research is comprehensive, systematic, and yet flexible enough to incorporate my intuition and creativity (Dierckx de Casterle, Gastmans, Bryon, & Denier, 2012). The qualitative methodology allowed me to collect contextual material obtained from the participant's speech and observations in an attempt to gain an understanding of the phenomena (Wisdom, Cavaleri, Onwuegbuzie, & Green, 2012).

A qualitative approach allowed a more flexible exploration of other factors that influence personnel selection decisions. Qualitative research also allowed for a comprehensive understanding of the participants' perceptions of their environments, the effect their decisions have on their environments, how they learned from the personnel decisions they made, and how they applied that learning to the continuous process of personnel selection (Hanson et al., 2011). A qualitative approach is very adaptable. Qualitative research works by offering a chance to examine context, perception, and motivation, and allows the researcher to observe the interaction among participant and phenomena under study (Branthwaite & Patterson, 2011).

Quantitative research primarily focuses on describing a relationship among variables (Maher, Markey, & Ebert-May, 2013). Quantitative research is the investigation of the statistical significance among variables without fully considering the relationship among said variables. Since the primary goal of this study was to examine the personnel selection strategies used by restaurant managers, which included a more subjective approach when screening applicants, a quantitative method would not reveal the phenomena in its true form. Although a quantitative approach could prove useful in understanding the relationship of the costs of training and turnover in an organization to personnel selection styles, a qualitative method allows the researcher to explore the process and criteria used during the selection process. There is more to personnel selection strategies than simply a statistical significance; variables of emotion, bias, and discrimination all play roles in the personnel selection strategies in use. A qualitative approach allowed these to rise to the surface for examination.

Research Design

The focus of this multiple case study was to understand the personnel selection strategies used by restaurant managers. Using a multiple case study design allowed me to examine how the participants understood the meaning of the investigated phenomena in a real world setting (Petty, Thompson, & Stew, 2011). Through the collection of descriptive data, the researcher can apply analysis to uncover the essence of the phenomena (Petty et al., 2011). By collecting data using open-ended questions, commonalities and incongruences among the disparate threads of each manager's strategy emerged and wove into a holistically contextual fabric that revealed the personnel selection strategies used in restaurants (Galvin & Todres, 2011).

Before deciding on applying a multiple case study design to the research, I evaluated other designs, such as phenomenology, grounded theory, narrative, and ethnography. I compared theses designs against their ability to elucidate the problem, the research, and the project. A phenomenological approach was not appropriate since it focuses on how individuals experience a particular phenomenon and how it influences their lived experiences; this approach is not effective in exploring a personnel selection strategies singular event or group (Hanson et al., 2011). With this study, I examined the strategies, external and internal, used by a diverse group, each with differing organizational goals. Grounded theory aims to generate a theory based on the data collected from the participants who experienced the phenomena (Petty et al., 2011).

Personnel selection is a known phenomenon. Organizations have to hire employees. I sought to explore the strategies used by restaurant managers and why they employed those strategies. A narrative approach would only provide data from participants who experienced a single event (Petty et al., 2011). Personnel selection is a continuous process where diverse variables interact, creating a phenomenon that will resonate throughout the environment. Ethnography focuses on the shared patterns of behavior, beliefs, and language in a cultural group (Petty et al., 2011). Although restaurant managers are a distinct group, it was precisely the differences between their beliefs and behaviors regarding their use or non-use of personnel selection strategies that I wished to understand.

Population and Sampling

The sample for this study consisted of casual dining managers directly involved in the selection of employees for their business. Sample sizes for qualitative research must be practical in the sense that the sample size is both accessible and addressed the research question (Robinson, 2014). For this study, I randomly selected six managers of casual dining restaurants responsible for the screening, interviewing, and hiring of personnel. Purposeful sampling of six experienced personnel managers contributed to a deeper understanding of the phenomenon (Petty et al., 2011).

Data saturation in qualitative research, which employs interviews as the primary data collection source, is the point at which a redundancy of information occurs and nothing new is added to the research (Marshall, Cardon, Poddar, & Fontenot, 2013). There are no rules in qualitative research that equate sample size with saturation

(Marshall et al., 2013). In qualitative research, the sample size requires a depth of information, not frequency (O'Reilly & Parker, 2012). The aim of this research was not merely to collect information from six casual dining restaurant managers but to gather a sufficient depth of information that would fully capture the lived experiences of personnel managers (O'Reilly & Parker, 2012). My industry experience provided the baseline for data saturation. I was able to determine when the incoming data had become repetitive and static. I believe that six casual dining restaurant managers, three who used e-based strategies and three who used intuition-based strategies, provided data saturation for this study.

My experience of working 15 years in casual dining restaurants influenced participant selection. Due to my experience, I was able to identify and access restaurant personnel managers, gain their trust by demonstrating my understanding of restaurant operations and staffing, and elicit their uninhibited participation. Interviewing participants of similar backgrounds, three who use some pre-employment assessment and three who do not, combined with my experience with both processes, enabled me to identify a saturation point for each group (Petty et al., 2011). To ensure confidentiality and encourage open and honest responses, the participant chose the time and place for the interview. Each interview session lasted between 30 and 45 minutes.

Ethical Research

Before conducting the study, I received written permission from the Walden IRB to conduct the research indicating the research would adhere to ethical guidelines. Since the research consisted of different participants each working for different organizations, no names, trade names, logos, trademark, and service mark used by any of the companies or affiliated companies were used in order to maintain anonymity for the organizations. After receiving Walden IRB approval (IRB no. 06-07-16-0477108), I contacted prospective participants face-to-face explaining the scope of the study and requesting that they sign a consent form if they wished to participate. Data gathering did not commence until the participants signed the consent form. All participants received ethical treatment as outlined in the Belmont Report (Office for Human Research Protections, 2015)

I then informed the participants verbally and via the consent form that participation was voluntary and that there was no incentive or compensation for their participation. It was important to establish purpose, consent, and confidentiality early on in the research process to put participants at ease and encourage their full engagement in the interview (Rabionet, 2011). Establishing a mutual trust that incorporated each participant's understanding of the research precluded any problems from developing during the data collection stage (Qu & Dumay, 2011). Since their participation was voluntary, they could withdraw from the interview either by contacting me through my personal e-mail, cell phone, or anytime during the interview itself. I included all my personal contact information on each correspondence with the participants.

There was no possibility of the participants encountering harm from their participation in the study. The study focused on personnel selection strategies in the restaurant industry, and the participants did not express personal or professional uneasiness regarding the subject matter. To maintain complete confidentiality, I am the only one with knowledge of the participants and their responses. The participants remained anonymous throughout the data collection, writing, and presentation of the findings. To keep the participant's personal details confidential, I employed generic names for them such as manager 1 (M1), manager 2 (M2) and so on (Qu & Dumay, 2011). All electronic media or documentation gathered or created in the process of conducting the research remains in a locked location and will be destroyed after five years.

Data Collection Instruments

Data collection for this study was through semistructured, face-to-face interviews conducted with managers of casual dining restaurants. Interview questions are in Appendix A. The interview has become the main data collection tool for qualitative research (Englander, 2012). Using open-ended questions allows the participants a chance to reflect on their lived experiences and provide detailed responses. A semi-structured interview framework fits with the research design allowing for an investigation with follow-up questions, which provided a deeper understanding of the diverse, lived experiences of casual restaurant managers and their strategies for personnel selection (Englander, 2012). By using face-to-face interviews, I was able to capture and record the nuance of participant body language.

To ensure accuracy, I recorded the interviews, transcribed them using MAXQDA software, and then sent them to the respective participants for validation of the accuracy of the interview (Hanson et al., 2011). To prevent bias and preconceptions from distorting the research, I used bracketing techniques to mitigate these effects and enhance my reflection of the overall project (Tufford & Newman, 2012). To ensure internal and external validity, I used triangulation and transcript review (Hanson et al., 2011).

Data Collection Technique

I collected all the data required for this research. Data collection came from face-to-face semi-structured interviews with casual dining restaurant managers. It is important during the interview to establish a rapport with the participant, creating a safe space where they can truthfully share their experiences, observations, and stories (Rabionet, 2011). I scheduled the interviews for a date, time, and location that work for both the participant and me. The interviews took place in public locations of the participants choosing. The interviews lasted approximately 30-45 minutes. After receiving approval by the Walden University IRB, the interviews began. The interview questions are in Appendix A.

In addition to the semi-structured interviews, I enhanced the interview data with company records on recruiting paraphernalia such as company websites, recruiting pamphlets, and any literature given to prospective applicants. A main principal of case study design is to collect data from two or more sources, which confirm the data collected and the findings (Yin, 2014). During the interview, I used open-ended questions. Open-ended questions are flexible enough to allow the participant fully to express their experiences (Rabionet, 2011). The participants in this study are personnel managers directly responsible for the selection and hiring of restaurant employees.

During the interviews, I noted the participant’s body language, nonverbal expressions, and noted the main opinions or experiences of the participant. Along with note taking, I recorded the interviews. Before the interview, I ensured the recording device was working properly. Some things can affect the interview, the quality of the recording equipment, the setting regarding background noise and comfort, interviewee gender, and the familiarity among interviewer and interviewee (Rabionet, 2011).

Once I received approval from the Walden University IRB, I gathered contact information from potential participants. I provided the participants with an overview of the research and explained the informed consent form to them. Once the participants returned the signed informed consent form signaling their voluntary participation, I scheduled a place and time for the interview. At the beginning of the interview, I reiterated the informed consent and that the participant can opt-out of the research at any time. Once I collected the data, I imported into MAXQDA. However, after initially conducting an analysis of the data, I returned the analyzed interviews to the participants for member checking as recommended by Mero-Jaffe (2011). By returning the transcripts to the interviewees will not only help validate the transcript, but allow for discussions and further data collection around the clarity of issues, themes, or specific comments (Mero-Jaffe, 2011).

Data Organization Technique

To maintain confidentiality and anonymity of participants, I assigned generic codes for each (Gibson, Benson, & Brand, 2012). For this study, I used alphanumeric codes to conceal the identities of the participants. Through informed consent, I ensured that the participants knew that I would be recording the interviews. I assigned each participant a number starting at one preceded by the letter M for the manager. I then transcribed, verbatim, the interviews into a Word document. I kept each transcribed interview and any field notes in folders assigned to each participant (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). I used MAXQDA software to input and store interview data for coding and identifying emerging themes while maintaining confidentiality and anonymity for the participants.

According to Fein and Kuilk (2011), a way to safeguard confidentiality is to limit access to the data. In that regard, all computer data including transcribed interviews, notes, codes, and themes are stored on a password protected flash drive and secured in a locked container, along with any handwritten field notes or observations, for five years. After the five-year period, I will destroy the data by shredding hand written notes and erasing the flash drive.

Data Analysis

Qualitative research allows the researcher to use open-ended questions to gather data, identify themes, and explore the meaning of themes within the structure of the study (Rabionet, 2011). By developing an interview protocol, I ensured that the interview and questions focus on gathering data about the process being studied (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). To that end, I asked each participant the questions in Appendix A.

To support the data collected through face-to-face interviews, I triangulated the data using company documents, websites, and any other brochures or flyers given to prospective applicants (Kwok, 2012). The purpose of my data analysis was to expose themes related to my research question. In qualitative research, the most important step is analyzing the data (Yin, 2012). For this study, the data analysis outlined a framework to help define and understand the personnel selection strategies used by casual dining restaurant managers.

Once I collected the data, I analyzed the data using cross-case synthesis techniques suggested by Yin (2012). Since this study dealt with the analysis of two disparate strategies, the use of assessment in personnel selection versus the use of intuition in personnel selection, cross-case synthesis allows the researcher to treat each case as a separate study (Yin, 2014). I collected data based on the use of screening assessments and intuition in selecting personnel for employment in the casual dining restaurant sector. As is the standard in multiple-case cross-synthesis, I created word tables displaying the data from the two individual cases and look for patterns across them (Yin, 2012). To validate the data, I used data triangulation. Data triangulation is the collection data from multiple sources to support the consistency of findings (Yin, 2014). However, the true classifications grew out of the data collected and the themes that were exposed. To analyze the data, I used Yin's (2011) five-step model. Yin's (2011) model includes compiling the data, disassembling the data, reassembling the data, interpreting the meaning of the data, and concluding the data.

I imported the interview transcripts into MAXQDA from Microsoft Word. After this step, I used the data to compile and organize word tables from each case study. Once this step was complete, I disassembled the data coding the word tables searching for cross-commonalities among each case. If no themes or cross-commonalities emerged, the analysis of the contrasting results still contributed to the research question. To find common words, I used the auto-coding feature in MAXQDA. This feature allowed me to develop word tables more easily and helped me determine if the individual case studies are similar or contrasting.

After disassembling and coding the data, I reassembled the data. In multiple-case, cross-synthesis design, the reassembling of the data will reveal if the cases predict similar results or predict contrasting results (Yin, 2014). The next step in data analysis is data interpretation (Yin 2011). Interpreting the data requires the researcher to check for biases or pre-conceived conclusions about the collected data and move the data away from a centered approach and toward contextual richness (Jackson & Mazzei, 2012). Data interpretation also includes checking the data against key assumptions made while defining the research question (Yin, 2012). The data interpretation focused on answering the research question to obtain the meaning or the data collected (Yin, 2012). The final step of concluding the data includes having a firm grasp of the meanings and interpretations drawn from the data collected (Yin, 2011). Identifying concluding themes and patterns, that link to the research question are fundamental to understanding the qualitative study.

To help interpret the data in this multiple case study, I used a theoretical replication model as presented by Yin (2012). Theoretical replication uses a cross-case synthesis of data to address the findings from a set of multiple experiments to see if they support broader conclusions or are different from one another. With theoretical replication, the predicted results of each case will produce contrasting results (Yin, 2012). However, this does not imply bias; this merely suggests that the two differing approaches to personnel selection, the use of assessments versus the use of intuition, will reveal data that falls along predisposed lines of contrasting relationships.

Reliability and Validity

Reliability

Reliability in qualitative research takes place when another researcher can follow the design and methodology of the initial research and arrive at the same outcome or conclusion (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). Reliability is the ability to transfer the research process and findings from one group to another (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). One strategy to develop reliability is to provide detailed descriptions of the sample size including demographic information and setting to include geographic information (Hanson, Balmer, & Giardino, 2011). This detailed information on the participants and setting will allow future researchers to examine the parameters of their research and see if they align with the original research (Hanson, Balmer, & Giardino, 2011).

Reliability relies on the existence of a descriptive trail of information regarding the specific reason for the study, participant selection, data collection techniques, data analysis, data interpretation, and the communication of the results (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). For this study, reliability came from the detailed description of the purpose of this study and through the documentation detailing the research process. To achieve reliability, I employed several strategies suggested by Hanson et al. (2011). These strategies included member checking by providing transcripts to the participants to ensure the accuracy of the interview. Also, to discuss insights from the analysis to see if said insights make sense and if the insights express the meaning the participants were trying to convey during the interview (Hanson et al., 2011).

Validity

To achieve validity, the research must remain reflective with a sense of awareness and openness to the study and the results (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). I left copious records of my research procedures, analysis, and interpretations. Hanson et al. (2011) suggest that to maintain a reflective approach to the study the research should record personal feelings, biases, and insights after conducting face-to-face interviews or focus groups. The researcher should be cognizant of following the interviews rather than leading it by asking clarifying or follow-up questions (Hanson et al., 2011).

Validity allows others to identify with the experiences in the study based on the interpretation of the participant's experiences (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). There are several strategies to achieve validity these include triangulation, gathering more than one source of data, relaying the fact that I have a firm understanding of the topic, prolonged observation, and conducting skillful interviews with participants (Hanson et al., 2011). Research is credible when it expresses an experience that others who share the same experience can identify with (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011).

Dependability. Member checking and transcript review were used to ensure study dependability (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Member checking is a prominent method to ensure dependability since it allows participants an opportunity to confirm the researcher's interpretation of what participants said (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Member checking occurred by reviewing a copy of the transcript of the face-to-face interviews and my interpretations with each of the participants. This ensured all questions were covered, that the participant's answers had been correctly interpreted and they had nothing more to offer. My personal experience and knowledge of personnel selection provide the necessary step of member checking. This allowed the participants to review my interpretation of their responses for accuracy.

Credibility. Denzin (2012) established that researchers can ensure the integrity of their research by implementing measures for credibility. I employed the following methods to preserve the credibility of the research: (a) bracketing, (b) triangulation, and (c) data saturation. According to Yin (2014) a researcher's beliefs, values, or prior knowledge of the phenomena being studied could unintentionally color their research. My bias was due to my familiarity of the phenomena. I have used both types of personnel selection systems during my tenure in the restaurant industry and consider myself a subject matter expert. Therefore, I had to maintain a self-vigilance during the face-to-face interviews. I would have to bracket out my desire to prompt the interviewee if they were stuck searching for a word. I had to remain cognizant of my emotional reaction when information was presented that ran congruent to my understanding of the selection process.

Denzin (2012) stated that by using data triangulation, the researcher adds complexity and depth to their research. For this study, I gathered data from company pre-employment documents such as job descriptions, applications, brochures that outlined company mission and vision statements as well as the benefits offered, and company websites. These sources allowed me triangulate the data gathered during the face-to-face interviews to develop a sense of the organization's culture and how it delineated to the frontline employees.

The final step in building research credibility was saturation. Saturation, according to O'Reilly and Parker (2012), does not deal with counting opinions; rather it is about sampling and exploring the range of opinions and different perceptions of phenomena. Saturation should be about the richness of the information, not the sample size. The number of participants required for saturation relies on the research topic and resources available (O'Reilly & Parker, 2012).

Transferability. Thomas and Magilvy (2011) define transferability as how the findings of one study apply to other contexts or participants. A strategy to achieve transferability is to provide a rich, dense description of the population under study. These descriptions include demographic descriptions and geographic descriptions (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). According to Thomas and Magilvy (2011), Thomas and Usher (2009) were able to transfer their findings from one group to another group by using the same criteria for recruitment and inclusion. A key element of transferability is the researcher's ability to provide detailed descriptions of not only the participants, but the rationale behind recruiting these specific participants.

Confirmability. Confirmability refers to the how the findings reflect the research and not the researchers bias (Petty et al., 2011). How the researcher arrived at their implications, interpretations, and conclusions is exposed through an audit trail (Petty et al., 2011). Per Petty et al. (2011), reflexively exposing the researchers prior experience, subjectivity, and interpretations creates confirmability. Collecting data that offers a variation in perspective not only builds confirmability, but reduces researcher bias (Petty, Thompson, & Stew, 2011).

Transition and Summary

The purpose of this multiple case qualitative study was to examine the personnel selection strategies used by casual dining restaurant managers. In section two, I detailed the research protocol that would allow the research to be transferred by other researchers to verify the design in different settings. A resource-based view offers a framework for establishing the importance and influence that employees have on an organization. The focus of this research was to understand the personnel selection strategies used by casual dining restaurant managers. In section three, I detail a presentation of the findings, how the findings apply to the business world, how the findings influence social change, recommendations for action, and future research. I conclude section three with a summary and conclusions.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore the selection strategies used by casual dining restaurant managers. All participants were directly involved in the screening, interviewing, and hiring of personnel. Three managers worked for large, corporate restaurant chains and used an online selection process. The other three managers worked for privately owned restaurants or franchises and used an intuition-based selection process. One manager working for a privately owned restaurant explained that his district manager did all of the interviewing and hiring. I found this to be significant since it gave an alternative and unexpected view of the selection and hiring process. Each of the participants saw the personnel selection process as continual and essential for the successful operation of their restaurant. However, none of the participants expressed how employee selection affected their operation strategically or how the selection process aligned with the organization's strategy. The participants viewed the employee selection process as a means to an end. Their restaurants needed to be staffed in order to function, so the hiring decisions made by both online and intuition-based processes were a quantity over quality approach.

Presentation of the Findings

I conducted semistructured interviews with casual dining restaurant managers in the central Georgia area in order to collect data to answer the following research question: What strategies do casual dining restaurant managers use to select personnel? The interviews took place in an environment where participants would feel free to answer questions in as detailed a manner as possible. Each respondent was asked ten interview questions (Appendix A) that were designed to examine the type of personnel selection strategies used by the manager and their respective organizations.

Following the Yin 5 step model (Yin, 2011), I transcribed the interviews and then imported the interview data in MAXQDA for coding. After analyzing the data and company documents, eight common themes emerged. Four themes were related to the screening process, and four were related to the interview process. These themes showed the personnel selection strategies in use by local area casual dining restaurant managers that answered the research question. The four themes related to screening are (a) experience, (b) an assessment of skills, traits, and abilities, (c) questions asked during the face-to-face interview, (d) complexity of the hiring process. The four themes related to interviewing strategies are (a) initial assessment of the applicant, (b) inquiring about an applicant's past work experience to include gaps in employment or a job-hopping pattern, (c) interviewing skills, (d) subjective decision making.

In addition to the semistructured interviews, I used company documents, which consisted of job descriptions, paper applications, or simply a business card for a web address where a candidate would begin the application process, I also used member checking to triangulate the data. I used semistructured interviews to examine what type of selection strategies were in use and why the managers chose to use these strategies. I interviewed three managers who used online application and assessments and three managers who used intuitive-based strategies. The interviews took place at a location and time chosen by the participant and lasted no longer than 30 minutes.

Following the collection and analysis of the data, which consisted of interviews and a review of company documents, eight common themes emerged. Four were related to the selection method used, whether it was online or intuition-based, and four related to the strategy used by the manager during the screening process. These themes, although employed at different stages of the selection process, correlated to one another.

The conceptual framework for this study was a resource-based view of the firm (RBV). This framework details the importance of a firm's resources, which were human capital for this study, and how they relate to the executing the overarching operational strategy of an organization (Coff & Kryscynski, 2011). Responses revealed that subjectivity played a major role in personnel selection even when objective methods such as online screening were used.

Pre-employment Documents

I collected company pre-employment documents from the managers who participated in the interviews. In follow-up questions, I asked the participants to describe the hierarchy of the application, screening, and selection process they used. The first step in both cases was the delivery of pre-employment documentation. These documents consisted of paper applications, job descriptions, and business cards with web addresses to start the application process. Although different selection methods were employed, online or intuition-based, the documents were very similar in detail and scope.

Online documentation. Online documentation has one aspect superior to that of paper documentation: It is centrally located and cannot be lost or misplaced. For online personnel selection companies, the websites were very similar in design. The visitor is brought to a main “welcome” page that has either a mission statement or vision statement for the organization. From there, the visitor is asked to choose a position. The choices ranged from hourly to manager and sometimes include a link to apply for home office or corporate headquarter jobs. Not all online websites offer this, however. The reasons for the inclusion or exclusion of home office links was not readily discernable. Follow up questions with the participants were inconclusive as well. Four of the six participants had no idea what was on the company website, and two of the six participants did not know if there was a company website. The two managers who knew what was on the company website gave general descriptions, vague enough to be all-inclusive.

The company websites were navigated easily enough to be able to apply for a job. The jobs within the restaurant were broken down into front-of-house positions or heart-of-house positions. Front-of-house positions included server, host, bartender, and busser. The heart-of-house positions included cook (grill, line, or sauté), expediter, production, and dishwasher. Each position had a brief job description, which gave a general outline of some of the duties and responsibilities required to perform the job.

Paper documentation. Paper documentation was used by companies that employed an intuition-based personnel selection strategy. When an applicant enters the restaurant, they are given a paper application and sometimes a job description. The delivery of a job description relied on whether it could be found or if the application process was known by the person handing out the application. In some instances, a host or server would be the person to give an applicant a paper application depending on the availability of the manager. Often, the application was simply handed to the applicant, and they were instructed to take it home and bring it back when completed. Upon their return, they would be able to talk with a manager.

In both cases, paper and online documentation, the job descriptions were very general. None of the job descriptions that I managed to collect or view online described the behaviors, traits, or characteristics required to be successful to perform the job. In all cases, the physical requirements were explained, but none of the soft skills were mentioned. The organizational strategy was prevalent with the inclusion of brand ambassador or brand representative embedded in the job descriptions.

Employment benefits. Employment benefits were more organized and detailed in the online documentation. An applicant could easily comprehend what benefits were offered. In the online documentation, there were links to a whole set of web pages dedicated to detailing employee benefits including medical, dental, vision, and tuition reimbursement. A frequently asked questions section outlined how long an applicant would have to wait to receive benefits (if there was a wait), and how many work hours they would have to average per week to qualify for benefits. Overall, the online process flowed much more smoothly from one step of the application process to the next.

The paper documentation was less structured than its online counterpart. Job descriptions were usually delivered in a three ring binder, if at all. The job description pages were worn or missing, a few were torn and fell out of the binder. The job descriptions were similar in scope to their online counterparts. There was a glaring absence of benefits information, including how an employee would qualify for them and even what types of benefits were offered. When asked about this, it was explained that all the details would be disseminated at the orientation should they get the position. Providing details about company benefits at the orientation was done to save time. With the intuition-based companies, the application, job description, and any benefit flyers were usually distributed by other employees.

These two approaches tie into Hardin and Donaldson's (2014) explanation of person-environment fit, where an applicant is attracted to an organization based on how well the organization aligns with the applicant's values and beliefs. In this regard, the online method did a better job of projecting an overall positive perception of the organization, whereas intuition-based organizations seemed more disorganized in their approach of creating a positive impression.

Employee Screening

Method

From the semistructured interviews and data analysis, it became evident that the personnel selection strategies used by both online and intuition-based companies were more common in thematic structure than not. Each manager used similar strategies when employing their chosen selection method. The overall impression related to me was that neither process was well understood. The intuition-based companies used their process to "get a feel" for the applicants either when they first come in to apply or when they come in for the interview.

The online method produced three categories of employee. These were (a) not recommended or red, (b) recommended or yellow, and (c) strongly recommended or Green. None of the managers using the online system could explain what segregated the applicants into these categories. They simply used the program's recommendations to narrow down whom they should bring in for an interview. Of the three managers using the online selection method, only one manager (33%) would ever consider interviewing a not recommended or red applicant. This decision to override the selection program's recommendations was based on the applicant's experience and the understanding by the manager that not everyone performs well on assessment tests.

Experience. All of the six managers interviewed felt that an applicant's experience played a major factor in regard to hiring. They felt that if an applicant already had experience working in a casual dining restaurant or any restaurant, the restaurant would have a better chance at retaining that employee. One of the six felt that their restaurant was vastly different from other concepts and that while an applicant's experience was important, the individual would have to relearn the job, any job, if hired. They felt that a bedrock of restaurant experience would better prepare the prospective employee for learning and understanding their style of restaurant operation. All of the managers using intuition-based selection said they would make the decision to interview a candidate based on experience alone. Two of the three managers using online selection said they based their decision to interview or not on the program's recommendation, which was based on the results of the personality assessment. The one manager who would override the program's recommendation would consider interviewing based on experience alone if the experience was lengthy and covered various areas within the restaurant.

Skills, traits, and abilities. Skills, traits, and abilities played a crucial role in the selection process for all six managers. However, how they went about measuring them proved different. Although different in their approach to determining an applicant's skills, traits, and abilities, in the end, each group had the same common goal: selecting the best candidate.

Online selection. Managers using online selection methods believe that the personality assessment portion of the application process excludes any applicant who does not demonstrate through their answers on the assessment the skills, traits, and abilities needed to work in the casual dining restaurant industry. Two of the three managers using an online selection process rely solely on the program's recommendation to continue the screening process. Ryan and Polyhart (2014) argued that the predictive analytics of personality assessment have not changed in over 100 years. From the interviews, the general attitude of managers using online selection and personality assessments was one of an overreliance and unfounded trust in the process. They have no understanding of why a candidate is assigned the particular results (red, yellow, green). They take it as a matter of faith that the program has a better understanding of the hiring process than they do. These managers put no thought into selecting which applicants to screen other than determining what color code is assigned a candidate.

Intuition selection. Managers using intuition-based selection felt they had a better "read" on an applicant's skills, traits, and abilities just by looking at the applicant and application. All three managers using intuition selection believed they could determine an applicant's skill level through their experience and education. Two of the three managers used a combination of both experience and education as a basis for their decision to continue the screening process, and one manager used experience alone. Although the process is more streamlined for managers using intuition-based selection strategies, the data supported the same overreliance on their ability to personally screen applicants rather than rely on a computer program. Managers using intuition alone felt they had more of an interpersonal contact with the applicant than managers using online selection methods. They believed that since they dealt with the applicant right at the beginning of the application process, they had a better feel for the type of employee the applicant would be. One manager went so far as to explain that the hiring decision was made following the initial contact with the applicant. The irony is that all three managers using intuition methods felt that their selection process was an inconvenience. All three managers responded negatively to applicants who came in to apply during peak hours. They would either tell them to come back at a different time, delegate the initial screening to a subordinate, or keep them waiting so long that the applicant would leave without an application or talking to anyone.

Questions during interview. Both groups of managers used a structured interview format. The managers using an online approach were able to print the questions while the managers using intuition had a book with job descriptions and interview questions. The questions were very similar in wording and scope. Each set of questions explained to the interviewer what the questions were testing for and gave some general examples of responses.

Two of the three managers used assessment programs that not only let them print the structured interview questions, but also assessed specific score questions. For example, if a candidate scored low on teamwork, the program would generate follow-up questions to ask the candidate specific questions designed to reveal if the candidate would fit in an environment of teamwork. The one manager using the online system was only unable to do this due to the computer software used by their organization. This manager would have to develop the follow-up questions when necessary.

Managers using intuition had no such help with follow up questions. Their interviews followed the structured interview guideline, but follow up questions were at the interviewer's discretion. All the managers using the intuition selection method felt they had enough experience in and understanding of the industry, knowledge of the interview process, and trust in their ability to read candidates to be able to ask follow-up questions on the fly.

No matter the method used by the managers, all participants felt they were susceptible to candidates who were accomplished at self-promotion (Proost et al., 2012) and integration (Huffcutt et al., 2011). Each manager stressed how important the prescreening activities were, such as examining the candidate's application and checking references when possible. From my personal experience, checking each candidate's references is a lofty ideal, , but the work environment of a restaurant is so demanding that if there is not one person dedicated to checking references, it usually goes undone.

Complexity. The data revealed that each participant felt there was enough complexity built into personnel selection as to make the personnel selection process a negative task. One of the six managers replied that the District Manager (DM) did the entire hiring process. The only involvement they had with the applicant was to collect the application and notify the DM they had someone to be interviewed. The DM would conduct the interview offsite and notify the restaurant of their decision. This selection process was done for the DM's entire region, which consisted of six restaurants. From this manager's responses and body language, it was evident that they were dissatisfied with this method. They felt they had no control over the culture being built in the restaurant. They explained that there was a certain rapport that could develop between an applicant and the manager during the interview that could translate into the workplace upon hiring. Having worked sixteen years in the restaurant industry, I have never heard of a DM doing all the hiring for six restaurants. The manager explained that the DM felt that they had enough to do running the restaurant and did not want them to lose perspective by taking the time to interview all of the applicants that came into their restaurant to apply. It is true that there is enough to do in a restaurant to keep the managers engaged, but a sense of distrust pervaded the manager's explanation of the DM's decision to handle the hiring process this way.

The managers felt that the complexity of the process fed negatively into the overall selection process. Intuition-based managers disliked the untimely drop in applicants. They felt that if the applicant came in to apply during a peak period, they had no experience within the restaurant industry. They also felt that if the materials used for screening, job description or interview questions, couldn't be found that this frustration carried over into the initial greeting of the applicant or the interview and impacted the process negatively. The managers felt that the company would absorb this negative impact since the manager would become apathetic to the whole process and just hire the candidate as a way of not having to deal with them anymore.

For managers using online selection, the complexity stemmed from the computer program in use. Even though they had been provided training on the program, the learning curve was very steep. It took them an inordinate amount of time to learn the basic functions of the program such as how to contact the applicant, how to print the interview questions, and how to delete an applicant if they were not interested in interviewing them. All participants using online programs reported that the program was too sophisticated for their needs. It offered capabilities they would never use at the restaurant level. Of the functionality offered by the selection program, the participants using online selection responded that there were only four basic functions they used on a weekly basis. They felt the other functions only convoluted the selection process. Another problem using online selection is that if there are problems with internet connectivity, there is no backup for interviewing applicants. The applicants would have to be rescheduled, which could reflect negatively on the applicant's perception of person-organization fit (Hardin & Donaldson, 2014).

Interviewing

Although the two groups, intuition and online, used different methods of selecting which candidates they would interview. The hiring process ultimately relied on the face-to-face interview. This reliance on face-to-face interviewing coincides with research conducted by Farago, Zide, & Shahani-Denning, (2013), where they found that face-to-face interviewing was still the most popular tool for employee selection in use today. Based on the participant's responses, these common themes to face-to-face interviewing emerged.

Assessment. All six managers who participated in this study agreed that their initial assessment of a candidate played a major part in their decision to continue or discontinue the hiring process. All six managers were influenced by the way a candidate dressed, the manner of speech, the way they shook hands, and if the candidate met the manager's eyes when introducing themselves. Two of the six managers discontinued the applicant before interviewing based on the way they looked. Rather than tell the candidate why they were not going to interview or potentially hire them, however, the manager would tell them that they did not have the time to sit down with the candidate and that they would call them to reschedule the appointment. The managers would never call the candidate back to reschedule and would just leave the applicant in limbo until the candidate figured out that they were not going to be hired.

Experience. During the application screening, the manager would gauge the candidate's experience in the restaurant industry. A candidate would not be disqualified for the position if they had no experience, but the prior experience would determine if the candidate was interviewed for the position applied. For example, if a candidate applied to be a server, all of the participants wanted to see either serving experience at other casual dining restaurants or some customer service experience. If these two criteria were not met, 4 of the six managers would discontinue the applicant. The other two managers would want to interview the candidate for a position they had not applied for such as host or busser.

Once the candidate was brought in for a face-to-face interview, the manager would question them about their experience. The questions were unstructured and open-ended. If the candidate provided a resume, the manager would review it with the applicant inquiring about where they worked previously, job duties, how long they worked there, and why they left. If there were gaps in employment, the manager would inquire about this too. Five of the six participants in this study said they would discontinue a candidate based on gaps in their experience. They felt that the candidate was a "job hopper" and would only stay with their organization until a better job came along.

During the face-to-face interview, all managers used structured interviews. These structured interviews consisted of behavioral questions. For example, the interviewer would ask "Tell me about a time when you disagreed with someone at work, what did you do?" The applicant would then have to provide an example and how they resolved it. All six of the structured interviews asked similar questions. The only difference was in the phrasing of those questions.

Half of the participants in this study used unscripted follow-up questions depending on their interest in the candidate. These questions would stem from previous answers or things they had mentioned about their previous jobs or supervisors. The other half of participants used the structured interview provided by the selection software (online selection) or by the organization (intuition selection).

Interviewing. All of the participants believed they had superlative interviewing skills. Each believed that in his or her way, they made positive contributions to the organization through his or her ability to successfully screen, through face-to-face interviewing, an applicant. None of the participants mentioned the dyadic and reciprocal nature of face-to-face interviewing. All six of the participants believed that their interviewing skills were sufficient to determine the overall eligibility of a candidate, if they would fit in the work environment, and if they would be successful within their organization.

All six of the participants agreed that the tools used for face-to-face interviewing, in this case, the structured interview, were sufficient to select the best possible candidate for the job and their company. When asked if there was anything they would add or subtract from their current process, all of them said they would not change anything. Each had different reasons for this. Two participants felt they had achieved a level of comfort and reliability with the interview instrument used. One participant responded that it was efficient, and they did not have to spend much time interviewing the candidate to make a hiring decision. Two other participants did not feel comfortable deviating from what the company's human resource department wanted them to use. They did not feel skilled enough to add to or subtract from the structured interview provided. The final participant explained that they had developed a set of structured follow-up questions to ask along with the provided structured interview questions. This participant admitted that using this process had become rote but would not change it due to their familiarity with the system in use.

Subjective Decision Making. Ultimately, it did not matter if an organization used an online-based selection method or an intuition-based one; all final hiring decisions became subjective. After the initial screening and selecting which candidates to interview, all participants said that their hiring decisions were subjective despite the objective instruments used to help them arrive at their decisions.

All six participants agreed that the face-to-face interview was the influencing factor when making their hiring decisions. They felt that they could get a good "read" on a candidate from meeting them face-to-face. The rest of the process was inconsequential, structured interview or a candidate's responses, but it was the ability of the candidate to integrate themselves with the interviewer (Huffcutt et al., 2011). The ability of a candidate to integrate came from the data analysis where the participants all responded that their decisions were based on how they felt about a candidate. From personal experience, the interview process becomes more about a candidate's ability to interview rather than the candidate's ability to perform the job.

Applications to Professional Practice

From personal experience in the casual dining industry and the research done for the literature review, the selection process seen as secondary. With an average annual turnover rate of 102% (Dawson, 2014) one can see that the industry's focus is elsewhere. Casual dining organizations look to employee retention as a control for employee turnover. Retention efforts include training, benefits, and competitive wages.

However, strategies built around retention have become outdated. Employees stay with organizations they feel they fit in with (Chang, Connelly, & Geeza, 2011).

Employee fit can be measured by how an employee feels the company represents itself to society, and their individual beliefs, ideals, and morals (Cable & Kay, 2012).

Costs related to turnover in the casual dining industry have been calculated as high as 150% of an employee's annual salary (Kumar, Ramendran, & Yacob, 2012). The fact that high turnover is seen as inevitable within the restaurant industry speaks directly to the lack of emphasis placed on personnel selection. Personnel selection has become a catch-22 within the restaurant industry. It is necessary to keep the restaurant staffed and operational. However, turnover has become so high within the industry that it can be argued the hiring process itself has become the cause of high turnover. All six managers reported that they are looking to hire at least two candidates a week. To find two acceptable candidates within any given week takes a considerable amount of time and effort. Personnel selection has become an act of attrition within the industry. If the managers have had a long, stressful week and go into a face-to-face interview, they could make a potentially devastating decision simply because they are too tired and want to get the task of hiring completed as soon as possible.

The findings in this study could help alleviate industry turnover and costs associated with turnover if more emphasis were placed on the selection process. Currently, turnover is represented as a percentage of employee separations versus an average number of employees. There is no cost associated with this percentage and no cost associated with training dollars spent on new hires. If the selection process screened more for person-environment fit, turnover could be reduced. It has become evident to this researcher, based on my findings and experience, that the only reason for an organization to continue to use intuition-based personnel selection methods is directly related to costs. If the organizations using intuition-based methods performed a utility analysis on the costs associated with turnover and those associated with using a person-environment fit process, they may find that it would be more cost effective to move away from an intuition-based methodology.

Implications for Social Change

Not only helping casual dining restaurants improve their personnel selection, the results of this study will play an import role in social change. Data from semi-structured interviews, company pre-employment information and personal experience indicates that the casual dining restaurant sector does an insufficient job of aligning local hiring practices with organizational strategies. Personnel selection in casual dining restaurants has reduced the profession to one of transience. The restaurant industry is usually the first place anyone needing a job looks since they believe the bar for entry is set very low. This perception has been propagated by selection practices designed to fill a need as quickly and often as possible. Also, aiding the development of this perception is mismanagement that leads to a wholly alien operating culture that increases the turnover, especially with new hires in their first job. The casual dining industry has become a placeholder job either for college students that need employment during summer break or for employees who need a job, but are looking for a better one. I believe that with more emphasis placed on the selection process this perception of transience can be changed.

With a focus on changing employee selection strategies within the casual dining industry, the perception of transience could change. Communities would look upon the restaurants in their area as a reputable place of employment. By raising awareness and heightening qualifications and selection criteria around personnel selection, employees would be forced to acquire a more apropos skill set to find employment in the casual dining sector. Restaurants would be able to pay better wages since they are selecting a candidate that is not only qualified for the job but also can fit and function successfully within the environment.

Many restaurants offer a competitive benefits package. Although, corporate restaurant chains offer a more extensive and comprehensive benefits package than do independently owned and operated restaurants. Benefits exhibit organizational commitment, which greatly influences employee self-efficacy (Cherian & Jacob, 2013). Self-efficacy plays an important role in one's positive perception of upward mobility. Increased wages could improve discretionary spending within the community where everyone would reap the benefits. An improved approach to personnel selection in casual dining would not only reduce costs related to turnover and training for the company, but these savings would allow them to offer better wages and improve bottom line performance while allowing their employees a better quality of life through self-efficacy and discretionary spending.

Recommendations for Action

The findings in this study have helped develop four recommendations to help managers improve their casual dining personnel selection strategies. First, a utility analysis should be performed for the strategy used, and those results should be compared to the current cost of the process in use, intuition or online, versus the cost to switch their strategies to be more in line with the overarching strategy of the organization. The utility analysis allows human resource departments to compare the costs of their current operations against the costs of switching to a new process. In this case, the current selection process and the costs associated with turnover and training would be evaluated against adopting a new personnel selection procedure. My recommendation is for casual dining restaurants to move away from the Big Five to a more person-environment fit approach, where the abilities of an individual are measured in the work environment.

Second, casual dining restaurants should move to two or three specific days where they accept screen applications and do face-to-face interviewing. Monday thru Wednesday are traditionally slower days for most restaurants. Having specific days to do interviewing would change the approach that managers take for interviewing. The interviews would be scheduled well in advance. The manager would have the dedicated mental focus to be able to evaluate fully candidates fit into the casual dining environment. Performing interviews on slower days would allow for fewer distractions and more focus on the task at hand.

Third, one or two managers should conduct face-to-face interviews. Using specific managers would allow a pattern to develop among the managers doing the interviewing. A manager conducts the face-to-face interview and, if the candidate is deemed a fit, a second interview with the general manager is set up. Having one or two managers conduct the face-to-face interviews would allow a level of trust to develop among the managers and general manager. The general manager would get better candidates to choose from, rather than the scattered, everyone interviews, effect employed today.

Finally, there should be some kinetic test of a candidate's abilities to perform the job. This test could be done online or in person before the face-to-face interview commences. A kinetic test would allow the selection process to expose the candidate to the same stressors the candidate would find if working in the restaurant. In this way, both the manager and candidate would be able to evaluate their performance within the environment and make a more informed decision about the potential success they would find. Candidates may find that they are not suited to the environment before they are hired, trained, and are dismissed or quit due to their incompatibility.

The results and recommendations of this study should be presented to casual dining industry leaders for consideration and review. Casual dining industry leaders would be able to evaluate these findings and use the recommendations to employ personnel selection strategies designed to reduce costs associated with turnover and training.

Recommendations for Further Research

Although the results of this study have revealed valuable data and recommendations for the casual dining restaurant industry, there are several areas where the study could be improved in future research. First, addressing the main limitation of this study, future research could expand to include fast food restaurants and quick service restaurants. Although these segments have a different operation and business models, personnel selection plays a significant role in their costs directly associated with turnover and training. The inclusion of these sectors would also expose the selection strategies at play and how they influence the transient nature of employment prevalent throughout the industry.

Second, the study could include new hires and candidates who have been considered but rejected. Including this group could be accomplished through a survey developed to gain the insights of the individual's understanding of how the hiring process helped to shape their understanding of the organization. A survey could also help organizations can change aspects of their personnel selection process to align better with their strategy and perception surrounding the selection process.

Third, future research should investigate the causality of an organization's personnel selection process and turnover. This approach will help inform organizations if their current selection strategy is meeting the needs of the organization by decreasing their turnover or increasing turnover. Future research in this direction would illuminate places where organizations could be saving millions of dollars annually.

Last, future research should include a mixed methods approach to include a statistical analysis of the type of selection strategy in use and related turnover. Researchers could investigate publicly traded companies, conduct interviews, use surveys, and examine company documents related to turnover. The results of this type of analysis could help industry leaders close the gap among the personnel selection strategy being used and how well it serves the organization.

Reflections

The completion of my Doctorate is the culmination of my eight years of perseverance and my desire to learn. I started this journey eight years ago and found each step of the process challenging, but personally rewarding too. I had never felt that earning any of my degrees would be easy, yet I found them more fulfilling the higher I climbed. After each step, I craved more knowledge. Now with the completion of Doctorate upon me, I have come to realize that the whole process of achieving my Doctorate at Walden was not only to educate me, but prepare me to be a lifelong learner and how to use my learning to help others.

I have found that earning my degree at Walden has introduced me to the most wonderful and helpful staff. Along this journey, I have been exposed to the most encouraging, illuminating, and resourceful individuals. From my experiences and interactions with fellow students to the staff, both have helped me understand what an honor it is to achieve this terminal degree. Although it is terminal, it does not mean the end of my learning and sharing and helping others to want to learn. Walden University has helped me become the very person I have always imagined myself being. For that, I say thank you.

Summary and Study Conclusions

The high and acceptable rate of turnover within the casual dining industry suggests that employee selection has been taken for granted and become more of a task driven process than about contributing to the success of the restaurant and organization. The managers that participated in this study have become too predictable and reliant on their approaches. The managers using online assessments trust their instrument implicitly using the color-coded scales as their que to interview the candidate or not. This reliance on an instrument that relies on outdated personality measurements helps the manager to only perpetuate their hit or miss hiring practices. Chalking their bad decisions up to some higher authority, rather than taking responsibility for their own destructive hiring practices. A common theme at manager meetings, when discussing poor performing employees, is to ask “who hired them?” Acquiescing that the existence of poor performing employees within their organization is pre-ordained.

Likewise, managers using intuition-based hiring are over reliant on their ability to read people. Their strategy is hit or miss too, except that when they hit on a good candidate, through sheer luck, it feeds their hubris and convinces them that they are better at understanding people than their counterparts are. Essentially, on the surface, it appears that the hiring process is more about how it makes the hiring managers feel about themselves rather than finding the right applicants for the organization.

Restaurants are always looking for top line ways to reduce costs: labor and waste are usually the top two. In my experience working in the industry, there has never been any mention about the financial losses associated with recruiting and turnover. I can only attribute this to the fact that recruiting, selecting, and training employees is seen as a secondary function within casual dining restaurants. Problems within the industry will persist until organizations recognize that these problems are perpetuated or resolved by the people they employ. Only by using systems that are dedicated to the casual dining industry, that takes into account the hiring practices of restaurant managers, will the industry gradually begin to change.

References

Abrhiem, T. H. (2012). Ethical leadership: Keeping values in business cultures. *Business and Management Review, 2*, 11-19. Retrieved from http://www.businessjournalz.org/bmr

Ahmad, K. Z., & Veerapandian, K. (2012). The mediating effect of person-environment fit on the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction. *International Journal of Psychological Studies, 4*, 91-102. doi:10.5539/ijps.v4n1p91

AlBattat, A. R., Mat Som, A. P., & Helalat, A. S. (2013). Overcoming staff turnover in the hospitality industry using Mobley's model. *International Journal of Learning & Development, 3*, 64-71. doi:10.5296/ijld.v3i6.4844

Alessandri, G., Vecchione, M., Tisak, J., Deiana, G., Caria, S., & Caprara, G. V. (2012). The utility of positive orientation in predicting job performance and organisational citizenship behaviors. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 61*, 669-6987. doi:10.1111/j.1464-0597.2012.00511.x

Allport, G. W., & Odbert, H. S. (1936). *Trait-names: A psycho-lexical study.* Princeton, NJ: Psychological Review Company.

Allwood, C. M. (2012). The distinction between quantitative and qualitative research is problematic. *Quality and Quantity, 46*, 1417-1429. doi:10.1007/s11135-011-9455-8

Arendt, S. W., Roberts, K. R., Strohbehn, C., Ellis, J., Paez, P., & Myer, J. (2012). Use of qualitative research in foodservice organizations: A review of challenges, strategies, and applications. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 24*, 820-837. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09596111211247182

Arthur, W., Doverspike, D., Barrett, G. V., & Miguel, R. (2013). Chasing the title VII holy grail: The pitfalls of guaranteeing adverse impact elimination. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 28*, 473-485. doi:10.1007/s10869-013-9289-6

Badri, M. A., Mohaidat, J., Ferrandino, V., & El Mourad, T. (2013). The social cognitive model of job satisfaction among teachers: Testing and validation. *International Journal of Educational Research, 57*, 12-24. doi:10.1016/j.ijer.2012.10.007

Bailly, F., & Léné, A. (2012). The personification of the service labour process and the rise of soft skills: A French case study. *Employee Relations, 35*, 79 - 97. doi:10.1108/01425451311279429

Barrick, M. R., Dustin, S. L., Gulik, T. L., Stewart, G. L., Shaffer, J. A., & Swider, B. W. (2012). Candidate characteristics driving initial impressions impressions during rapport building: Implications for employment interview validity. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 85*, 330-352. doi:10.1111/j.2044-8325.2011.02036.x

Beaty, J. C., Nye, C. D., Borneman, M. J., Kantrowitz, T. M., Drasgow, F., & Grauer, E. (2011). Proctored versus unproctored internet tests: Are unproctored noncognitive tests as predictive of job performance? *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 19*, 1-10. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2389.2011.00529.x

Bernard, H. (2012). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Berry, C. M., Clark, M. A., & McClure, T. K. (2011). Racial/ethnic differences in the criterion-related validity of cognitive ability tests: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*, 881-906. doi:10.1037/a0023222

Biddle Consulting Group. (2015, June 12). *Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures*. Retrieved from Biddle Consulting Group website: http://www.uniformguidelines.com/uniformguidelines.html

Blee, K. M., & Currier, A. (2011). Ethics beyond the IRB: An introductory essay. *Qualitative Sociology, 34*, 401-413. doi:10.1007/s11133-011-9195-z

Blickle, G., Meurs, J. A., Wihler, A., Ewen, C., Plies, A., & Gunther, S. (2012). The interactive effects of conscientiousness, openness to experience, and political skill on job performance in complex jobs: The importance of context. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 34*, 1145-1164. doi:10.1002/job.1843

Branthwaite, A., & Patterson, S. (2011). The power of qualitative research in the era of social media. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal, 14*, 430-440. doi:10.1108/13522751111163245

Breaugh, J. (2008). Employee recruitment: Current knowledge and important areas for future research. *Human Resource Management Review, 18*, 103-118. doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2008.07.003

Bressler, M. S. (2014). Building the winning organization through high-impact hiring. *Journal of Management and Marketing Research, 15*, 1-9. Retrieved from www.aabri.com/manuscripts/141821.pdf

Brown, V. R., & Vaughn, E. D. (2011). The writing on the (Facebook) wall: The use of social networking sites in hiring decisions. *Journal of Business Psychology, 26*, 219-225. doi:10.1007/s10869-011-9221-x

Cable, D. M., & Kay, V. S. (2012). Striving for self-verification during organizational entry. *Academy of Management Journal, 55*, 360-380. doi:10.5465/amj.2010.0397

Cabrera, E. F., & Ranju, N. S. (2001). Utility analysis: Current trends and future directions. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 9*, 92-102. doi:10.1111/1468-2389.00166

Campbell, B. A., Coff, R., & Kryscynski, D. (2012). Rethinking sustained competitive advantage from human capital. *Academy of Management Review, 37*, 376-395. http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2518291

Chang, L., Connelly, B. S., & Geeza, A. A. (2011). Separating method factors and higher order traits of the Big Five: A meta-analytic multitrait–multimethod approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 102*, 408-426. doi:10.1037/a0025559

Chauhan, R. S., Buckley, M. R., & Harvey, M. G. (2013). Facebook and personnel selection: What's the big deal? *Organizational Dynamics, 42*, 126-134. doi:10.1016/j.orgdyn.2013.03.006

Chenail, R. J. (2011). Interviewing the investigator: Strategies for addressing instrumentation and researcher bias concerns in qualitative research. *Qualitative Report, 16*, 255-262. Retrieved from http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR16-1/interviewing.pdf

Cherian, J., & Jacob, J. (2013). Impact of self efficacy on motivation and performance of employees. *International Journal of Business and Management, 8*, 80-88. doi:10.5539/ijbm.v8n14p80

Chien Farh, C. I., Myeong-Gu, S., & Tesluk, P. E. (2012). Emotional intelligence, teamwork effectiveness and job performance: The moderating role of job context. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*, 890–900. doi:10.1037/a0027377

Chuang, A., Shen, C.-T., & Judge, T. A. (2014). Development of a multidimensional instrument of person-environment fit: The perceived person-environment fit scale (PPEFS). *Applied Psychology International Review*, *65*(1), 66-98. doi:10.1111/apps.12036

Coff, R., & Kryscynski, D. (2011). Drilling for micro-foundations of human capital-based competitive advantages. *Journal of Management, 37*, 1429-1443. doi:10.1177/0149206310397772

Colbert, A. E., Judge, T. A., Choi, D., & Wang, G. (2012). Assessing the trait theory of leadership using self and observer ratings of personality: The mediating role of contributions to group success. *Leadership Quarterly, 23*, 670-685. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.03.004

Cuddy, A. J., Wilmuth, C. A., & Yap, A. J. (2015). Preparatory power posing affects nonverbal presence and job interview performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(4), 1286-1295. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0038543

Dalal, R. S., Bhave, D. P., & Fiset, J. (2014). Within-person variability in job performance: A theoretical review and research agenda. *Journal of Management, 40*, 1396–1436. doi:10.1177/0149206314532691

Daniel, C. (2001). Separating law and professional practice from politics. *Review of Public Personnel Administration, 21*, 173-184. doi:10.1177/0734371X0102100301

Daskin, M., & Tezer, M. (2012). Organizational politics and turnover: An empirical research from hospitality industry. *Tourism, 60*, 273 - 291. Retrieved from http://hrcak.srce.hr/index.php?show=clanak&id_clanak_jezik=136903

Davidson, M. C., McPhail, R., & Barry, S. (2011). Hospitality HRM: past, present, and future. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 23*, 498-516. doi:10.1108/09596111111130001

Davison, K. H., Maraist, C. C., Hamilton, R. H., & Bing, M. N. (2011). To screen or not to screen? Using the internet for selection decisions. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 24*(1), 1-21. doi:10.1007/s10672-011-9178-y

Dawson, M. (2014). Preparing students to fit within the hospitality industry culture: Does the educational background make a difference? *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 14*, 53-68. doi:10.1080/15313220.2014.872900

Denzin, N. (2012). Triangulation 2.0. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 6*(2), 80-88. doi:10.1177/1558689812437186

Dierckx de Casterle, B., Gastmans, C., Bryon, E., & Denier, Y. (2012). QUAGOL: A guide for qualitative data analysis. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 49*, 360-371. doi:10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2011.09.012

Drogan, O., & Yancey, G. (2011). Financial utility of best employee selection practices at organizational level of performance. *Psychologist-Manager Journal, 14*, 52-69. doi:10.1080/10887156.2011.546194

Duffy, R. D., Austin, K. L., & Bott, E. M. (2015). Work volition and job satisfaction: Examining the role of work meaning and person-environment fit. *The Career Development Quarterly, 63*, 126-140. doi:10.1002/cdq.12009

Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. (2015, October 30). *Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964*. Retrieved from U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission website: http://www.eeoc.gov/laws/statutes/titlevii.cfm

Eley, D., Eley, R., Bertello, M., & Rogers-Clark, C. (2012). Why did I become a nurse? Personality traits and reasons for entering nursing. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 68*, 1546–1555. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2648.2012.05955.x

Englander, M. (2012). The interview: Data collection in descriptive phenomenological human scientific research. *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology, 43*, 13-35. doi:10.1163/156916212X632943

Farago, B., Zide, J. S., & Shahani-Denning, C. (2013). Selection interviews: Role of interviewer warmth, interview structure, and interview outcome in applicants' perceptions of organizations. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 65*, 224-239. doi:10.1037/a0034300

Farh, C. I., Seo, M.-G., & Tesluk, P. E. (2012). Emotional intelligence, team effectiveness, and job performance: The moderating role of job context. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*, 890-900. doi:10.1037/a0027377

Fein, E. C., & Kuilk, C. T. (2011). Safeguarding access and safeguarding meaning as strategies for achieving confidentiality. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 4*, 479-481. doi:10.1111/j.1754-9434.2011.01378.x

Freyd, M. (1926). The statistical viewpoint in vocational selection. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 9*, 349-356. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0074663

Gagić, S., Tešanović, D., & Jovičić, A. (2013). The vital components of restaurant quality that affect guest satisfaction. *Turizam, 4*, 166-176. Retrieved from http://www.dgt.uns.ac.rs/turizam/arhiva/vol_1704_3.pdf

Galvin, K. T., & Todres, L. (2011). Research based empathic knowledge for nursing: A translational strategy for disseminating phenomenological research findings to provide evidence for caring practice. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 48*, 522-530. doi:10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2010.08.009

Gardner, W. L., Reithel, B. J., Cogliser, C. C., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2012). Matching personality and organizational culture: Effects of recruitment strategy and the five factor model on subjective person-organization fit. *Management Communication Quarterly, 26*, 585-622. doi:10.1177/0893318912450663

Gibson, S., Benson, O., & Brand, S. L. (2012). Talking about suicide: Confidentiality and anonymity in qualitative research. *Nursing Ethics, 20*, 18-29. doi:10.1177/0969733012452684

Graebner, M. E., Martin, J. A., & Roundy, P. T. (2012). Qualatative data: Cooking without a recipe. *Strategic Organization, 10*, 276-284. doi:10.1177/1476127012452821

Guchait, P., Ruetzler, T., Taylor, J., & Toldi, N. (2014). Video interviewing: A potential selection tool for hospitality managers – A study to understand applicant perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 36*, 90-100. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.08.004

Hanson, J. L., Balmer, D. F., & Giardino, A. P. (2011). Qualitative research methods for medical educators. *Academic Pediatrics, 11*, 375-386. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.acap.2011.05.001

Hardin, E. E., & Donaldson, J. R. (2014). Predicitng job satisfaction: A new perspective on person-environment fit. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 61*, 634-640. doi:10.1037/cou0000039

Hays, D. G., & Wood, C. (2011). Infusing qualitative traditions in counseling research designs. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 89*, 288-295. doi:10.1002/j.1556-6678.2011.tb00091.x

Hendrick, R. Z., & Raspiller, E. E. (2011). Predicitng employee retention through preemployment assessment. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice, 35*(11), 895-908. doi: 10.1080/10668920802421561

Hogue, M., Levashina, J., & Hang, H. (2013). Will I fake it? The interplay of gender, machiavellianism, and self-monitoring on strategies for honesty in job interviews. *Journal of Business Ethics, 117*, 399-411. doi:10.1007/s10551-012-1525-x

Holling, H. (1998). Utility analysis of personnel selection an overview and emperical study based on objective performance measures. *Methods of Psychological Research Online, 3*, 5-24. Retrieved from http://www.pabst-publishers.de/mpr/

Houghton, C., Casey, D., Shaw, D., & Murphy, K. (2013). Rigour in qualitative case-study research. *Nurse Researcher, 20*(4), 12-17. Retrieved from http://sfxhosted.exlibrisgroup.com/waldenu?sid=google&auinit=CS&aulast=David+Shaw+PhD&atitle=Rigour+in+qualitative+case-study+research&id=doi:10.7748/nr2013.03.20.4.12.e326&title=Nurse+researcher&volume=20&issue=4&date=2013&spage=12&issn=1351-5578

Huffcutt, A. I., Van Iddekinge, C. H., & Roth, P. L. (2011). Understanding applicant behavior in employment interviews: A theoretical model of interviewee performance. *Human Resource Management Review, 21*, 353-367. doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2011.05.003

Jackson, A. Y., & Mazzei, L. A. (2012). *Thinking with Theory in Qualitative Research.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Jacob, S. A., & Furgerson, S. P. (2012). Writing interview protocols and conducting interviews: Tips for students new to the field of qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report, 17*, 1-10. Retrieved from http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR17/jacob.pdf

Jensen, A., Melchers, K. G., Lievens, F., Kleinmann, M., Brändli, M., Fraefel, L., & König, C. J. (2012). Situation assessment as an ignored factor in the behavioral consistency paradigm underlying the validity of personnel selection procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 326-341. doi:10.1037/a0031257

Kirkwood, A., & Price, L. (2013). Examining some assumptions and limitations of research on the effects of emerging technologies for teaching and learning in higher education. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 44*, 536-544. doi:10.1111/bjet.12049

Kolb, S. M. (2012). Grounded theory and the constant comparative method: Valid research strategies for educators. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies, 3*, 83-86. Retrieved from http://reference.sabinet.co.za/sa_epublication_article/sl_jeteraps_v3_n1_a14

Komarraju, M., Karau, S. J., Schmeck, R. R., & Avdic, A. (2011). The Big Five personality traits, learning styles, and academic achievement. *Personality and Individual Differences, 51*, 472-477. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2011.04.019

König, C. J., Merz, A.-S., & Trauffer, N. (2012). What is in applicants' minds when they fill out personality tests? Insights from a qualitive study. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 20*, 442–452. doi:10.1111/ijsa.12007

Kor, Y. K., & Mahoney, J. T. (2004). Edith Penrose’s (1959) contributions to the resource-based view of strategic management. *Journal of Management Studies, 41*, 183-191. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6486.2004.00427.x

Kumar, R., Ramendran, C., & Yacob, P. (2012). A study on turnover intention in fast food industry: Employees' fit to the organizational culture and the important of their commitment. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 2*, 9-42. Retrieved from http://www.hrmars.com/admin/pics/733.pdf

Kuncel, N. R., Klieger, D. M., Connelly, B. S., & Ones, D. S. (2013). Mechanical versus clinical data combination in selection and admissions decisions: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 98*, 1060-1072. doi:10.1037/a0034156

Kwok, L. (2012). Exploratory-triangulation design in mixed methods studies: A case of examining graduating seniors who meet hospitality recruiters' selection criteria. *Tourism and Hospitality Research, 12*, 125-138. doi:10.1177/1467358412466669

Landers, R. N., & Sackett, P. R. (2012). Offsetting performance losses due to cheating in unproctored internet-based testing by increasing the applicant pool. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 20*, 220-228. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2389.2012.00594.x

Lanyon, R. I., Goodstein, L. D., & Wershba, R. (2014). 'Good impression' as a moderator in employment-related assessment. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 22*, 52-61. doi:10.1111/ijsa.12056

Le, H., Oh, I.-S., Robbins, S. B., Ilies, R., Holland, E., & Westrick, P. (2011). Too much of a good thing: Curvilinear relationships between personality traits and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*, 113-133. doi:10.1037/a0021016

Levashina, J., Hartwell, C. J., Morgeson, F. P., & Campion, M. A. (2014). The structured employment interview: Narrative and quantitative review of the research literature. *Personnel Psychology, 67*, 241-293. doi:10.1111/peps.12052

Lodato, M. A., Highhouse, S., & Brooks, M. E. (2011). Prediciting professional preferences for intuition-based hiring. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 26*, 352-365. doi:10.1108/02683941111138985

Loehlin, J. C., & Goldberg, L. R. (2014). Do personality traits conform to lists or hierarchies? *Personality and Individual Differences, 70*, 51-56. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2014.06.018

Lorenz, M. (2012, December 13). *What Bad Hires Really Cost Companies (Hint: It's More Than Just Morale)*. Retrieved from The Hiring Site Blog: http://thehiringsite.careerbuilder.com/2012/12/13/cost-of-a-bad-hire/

Lounsbury, J. W., Foster, N., Carmody, P. C., Kim, J. Y., Gibson, L. W., & Drost, A. W. (2012). Key personality traits and career satisfaction of customer service workers. *Managing Service Quality, 22*, 517-536. doi:10.1108/09604521211281404

Madera, J. M. (2012). Using social networking websites as a selection tool: The role of selection process fairness and job pursuit intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31*, 1276-1282. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.03.008

Maher, J. M., Markey, J. C., & Ebert-May, D. (2013). The other half of the story: Effect size analysis in quantitative research. *CBE—Life Sciences Education, 12*, 345-351. doi:10.1187/cbe.13-04-0082

Marshall, B., Cardon, P., Poddar, A., & Fontenot, R. (2013). Does sample size matter in qualitative research?: A review of of qualitative interviews in IS research. *Journal of Computer Information Systems, 54*, 11-22. Retrieved from www.iacis.org/jcis/jcis.php

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. (2011). *Designing Qualitative Research* (5 ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Mast, M. S., Frauendorfer, D., & Popovic, L. (2011). Self-promoting and modest job applicants in different cultures. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 10*, 70-77. doi:10.1027/1866-5888/a000034

McDaniel, M. A., Kepes, S., & Banks, G. C. (2011). The uniform guidelines are a detriment to the field of personnel selection. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 4*, 494–514. doi:10.1111/j.1754-9434.2011.01382.x

Mero-Jaffe, I. (2011). "Is that what I said?" interview transcript approval by participants: An aspect of ethics in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 10*, 231-247. Retrieved from https://ejournals.library.ualberta.ca/index.php/IJQM/article/viewFile/8449/9010

Miles, A., & Sadler-Smith, E. (2014). "With recruitment I always feel I need to listen to my gut": The role of intuition in employee selection. *Personnel Review, 43*, 606-627. doi:10.1108/PR-04-2013-0065

Neal, A., Yeo, G., Koy, A., & Xiao, T. (2012). Predicting the form and direction of work role performance from the Big 5 model of personality traits. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 33*, 175-192. doi:10.1002/job.742

NRA. (2015). *Facts at a Glance*. Retrieved from News & Research: http://www.restaurant.org/News-Research/Research/Facts-at-a-Glance

Office for Human Research Protections. (2015). *The Belmont Report*. Retrieved from Office for Human Research Protections: http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/regulations-and-policy/belmont-report/index.html

O'Neill, T. A., Lee, N. M., Radan, J., Law, S. J., Lewis, R. J., & Carswell, J. J. (2013). The impact of ‘‘non-targeted traits’’ on personality test faking, hiring, and workplace deviance. *Personality and Individual Differences, 55*, 162-168. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2013.02.027

O'Reilly, M., & Parker, N. (2012). 'Unsatisfactory saturation': A critical expolration of the notion of saturated sample sizes in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research, 13*, 190-197. doi:10.1177/1468794112446106

Paulhus, L. L., Westlake, B. G., Calvez, S. S., & Harris, P. D. (2013). Self-presentation style in job interviews: The role of personality and culture. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 43*, 2042-2059. doi:10.1111/jasp.12157

Penney, L. M., David, E., & Witt, L. (2011). A review of personality and performance: Identifying boundaries, contingencies, and future research directions. *Human Resource Management Review, 21*, 297–310. doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2010.10.005

Penrose, E. T. (1959). *The theory of the growth of the firm.* New York, NY: Wiley.

Pervin, L. (1968). Performance and satisfaction as a function of individual-environment fit. *Psychological Bulliten, 69*, 56-68. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0025271

Petty, N. J., Thompson, O. P., & Stew, G. (2011). Ready for a paradigm shift? Part 2: Introducing qualitative research methodologies and methods. *Manual Therapy, 17*, 378-384. doi:10.1016/j.math.2012.03.004

Polyhart, R. E., Van Iddekinge, C. H., & Mackenzie, W. I. (2011). Acquiring and developing human capital in service contexts: The interconnectnedess of human capital resources. *Academy of Management Journal, 54*, 353-368. doi:10.5465/AMJ.2011.60263097

Pringle, J., Drummond, J., McLafferty, E., & Hendry, C. (2011). Interpretative phenomenological analysis: a discussion and critique. *Nurse Researcher., 18*, 20-24. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.7748/nr2011.04.18.3.20.c8459

Proost, K., Germeys, F., & Schreurs, B. (2012). When does self-promotion work? The influence of temporal distance on interviewer evaluations. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 11*, 109-117. doi:10.1016/j.orgdyn.2013.03.006

Qu, S. Q., & Dumay, J. (2011). The qualitative research interview. *Qualitative Research in Accounting and Management, 8*, 238-264. doi:10.1108/11766091111162070

Rabionet, S. E. (2011). How I learned to design and conduct semi-structured interviews: An ongoing and continuous journey. *The Qualitative Report, 16*, 563-566. Retrieved from http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR16-2/rabionet.pdf

Reinhard, M.-A., Scharmach, M., & Müller, P. (2013). It's not what you are, it's what you know: Experience, beliefs, and the detection of deception in employment interviews. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 43*, 467-479. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2013.01011.x

Risavy, S. D., & Hausdorf, P. D. (2011). Personality testing in personnel selection: Adverse impact and differential hiring rates. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 19*, 18-30. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2389.2011.00531.x

Robinson, O. C. (2014). Sampling in interview-based qualitative research: A theoretical and practical guide. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 11*, 25-41. doi:10.1080/14780887.2013.801543

Roulin, N., Bangerter, A., & Levashina, J. (2012). Interviewers' perceptions of impression management in employment interviews. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 29*, 141-163. doi:10.1108/JMP-10-2012-0295

Ruggles, R. (2016, March 23). *Hospitality turnover rose to 72.1% in 2015*. Retrieved from Reporter's Notebook: http://www.restaurant.org/News-Research/News/Hospitality-employee-turnover-rose-in-2014

Ryan, A. M., & Polyhart, R. E. (2014). A century of selection. *Annual Review of Psychology, 65*, 693-717. doi:10.1146/annurev-psych-010213-115134

Saad, S., Carter, G. W., Rothenberg, M., & Israelson, E. (1999). *Testing and assessment: an employer's guide to good practices.* Washington, D.C.: US Department of Labor. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED447310.pdf

Sangeetha, K. (2010). Effective recruitment: A framework. *IUP Journal Of Business Strategy, 7*, 93-107. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/openview/c71bad4ccc326e34b26ea309260ce4dd/1?pq-origsite=gscholar

Schmitt, N. (2014). Personality and cognitive ability as predictors of effective performance at work. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 1*, 45-65. doi:10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091255

Schneider, T. J., & Goffin, R. D. (2012). Perceived ability to deceive and incremental prediction in pre-employment personality testing. *Personality and Individual Differences, 52*, 806-811. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2012.01.015

Schuler, R. S. (1992). Strategic human resources management: Linking the people with the strategic needs of the business . *Organizational Dynamics, 21*, 18-32. doi:10.1016/0090-2616(92)90083-Y

Schumpeter, J. A. (1939). *The theory of economic development: An inquiry into profits, capital, credit, interest, and the business cycle.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Scmidt, F. L. (2012). Cognitive tests used in selection can have content validity as well as criterion validity: A broader research review and implications for practice. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 20*, 1-20. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2389.2012.00573.x

Sears, G. J., Zhang, H., Wiesner, W. H., Hackett, R. D., & Yuan, Y. (2013). A comparative assessment of video conference and face-to-face employment interviews. *Management Decision, 51*, 1733-1752. doi:10.1108/MD-09-2012-0642

Slovensky, R., & Ross, W. H. (2012). Should human resource managers use social media to screen job applicants? Managerial and legal issues in the USA. *Info, 14*, 55-69. doi:10.1108/14636691211196941

Stahl, G. K., Björkman, I., Farndale, E., Morris, S. S., Paauwe, J., Stiles, P., . . . Wright, P. (2012). Six principles of effective global talent management. *MIT Sloan, 53*, 25-32. Retrieved from http://epub.wu.ac.at/3616/1/globaltalent.pdf

Stone, D. L., Lukaszewski, K. M., Stone-Romero, E. F., & Johnson, T. L. (2013). Factors affecting the effectiveness and acceptance of electronic selection systems. *Human Resource Management Review, 23*, 50-70. doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2012.06.006

Suri, H. (2011). Purposeful sampling in qualitative research synthesis. *Qualitative Research Journal, 11*, 63-75. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/10536/DRO/DU:30064369

Swider, B. W., Barrick, M. R., Harris, B., & Stoverink, A. C. (2011). Managing and creating an image in the interview: The role of interviewee initial impressions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*, 1275–1288. doi:10.1037/a0024005

Tak, J. (2011). Relationships between various person–environment fit types and employee withdrawal behavior: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 78*, 315-320. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2010.11.006

Terpstra, D. E., & Rozell, E. J. (1993). The relationship of staffing practices to organizational level measures of performance. *Personnel Psychology, 46*, 27-48. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.1993.tb00866.x

Tett, R. P., & Simonet, D. V. (2011). Faking in personality assessment: A "multisaturation" perspective on faking as performance. *Human Performance, 24*, 302-321. doi:10.1080/08959285.2011.597472

Tett, R. P., Freund, K. A., Christiansen, N. D., Fox, K. E., & Coaster, J. (2012). Faking on self-report emotional intelligence and personality tests: Effects of faking opportunity, cognitive ability, and job type. *Personality and Individual Differences, 52*, 195-201. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2011.10.017

Tews, M. J., Stafford, K., & Tracey, J. B. (2011). What matters most? The perceived importance of ability and personality for hiring decisions. *Human Resources Management, 52*, 94-101. doi:10.1177/1938965510363377

Thomas, E., & Magilvy, J. K. (2011). Qualitative rigor or research validity in qualitative research. *Journal for Specialists in Piediatric Nursing, 16*, 151-155. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6155.2011.00283.x

Toldi, N. L. (2011). Job applicants favor video interviewing in the candidate-selection process. *Employment Relations Today, 38*, 19-27. doi:10.1002/ert.20351

Tufford, L., & Newman, P. (2012). Bracketing in qualitative research. *Qualitative Social Work, 11*, 80-96. doi:10.1177/1473325010368316

Tupes, E. C., & Christal, R. C. (1958). *Stability of personality trait rating factors obtained under diverse conditions (No. WADC-TN-58-61).* USAF. Lackland: USAF. Retrieved from http://www.dtic.mil/cgi-bin/GetTRDoc?AD=AD0151041

U.S. Office of Personnel Management. (2007). *Assessment decision guide.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

Van Dyke, T., & Strick, S. (1990). Recruitment, selection and retention of managers in the hotel and restaurant industry. *Hospitality Review, 8*, 1-9. Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.fiu.edu/hospitalityreview/vol8/iss1/1

Van Hoye, G., & Turban, D. B. (2015). Applicant–employee fit in personality: Testing predictions from similarity-attraction theory and trait activation theory. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 23*, 210-223. doi:10.1111/ijsa.12109

Van Iddekinge, C. H., Roth, P. L., Raymark, P. H., & Odle-Dusseau, H. N. (2012). The criterion-related validity of integrity tests: An updated meta analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 3*, 499–530. doi:10.1037/a0021196

Vasquez, D. (2014). Employee retention for economic stabilization: A qualitative phenomenological study in the hospitality sector. *International Journal of Management, Economics and Social Sciences, 3*, 1-17. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/10419/93235

Vecchione, M., Alessandri, G., & Barbaranelli, C. (2011). The five factor model in personnel selection: Measurement equivalence between applicant and non-applicant groups. *Personality and Individual Differences, 52*, 503-508. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2011.11.014

Wang, H., Begley, T., Hui, C., & Lee, C. (2012). Are the effects of conscientiousness on contextual and innovative performance context specific? Organizational culture as a moderator. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 23*, 174-189. doi:10.1080/09585192.2011.561246

Wernerfelt, B. (1984). A Resource based view of the firm. *Strategic Management Journal, 5*, 171-180. doi:10.1002/smj.4250050207

Wisdom, J. P., Cavaleri, M. A., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Green, C. A. (2012). Methodological reporting in qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods health services research articles. *Health Research and Educational Trust, 47*, 721-745. doi:10.1111/j.1475-6773.2011.01344.x

Withiam, G. (2011). Social networking websites and the hospitality industry: Holding the tiger by the tail. *Cornell Hospitality Research Summit Proceedings. 3*, pp. 6-15. Cornell University. Retrieved from http://scholarship.sha.cornell.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1007&context=chrconf

Wood, R., & Bandura, A. (1989). Social cognitive theory of organizational management. *Academy of Management Review, 14*, 361-384. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/258173

Wright, P. M., & McMahan, G. C. (1992). Theoretical perspectives for strategic human resource management. *Journal of Management, 18*, 295-320. doi:10.1177/014920639201800205

Wu, C.-H., Parker, S. K., & Bindl, U. (2013). Who is proactive and why? Unpacking individual differences in employee proactivity. *Advances in Positive Organizational Psychology, 1*, 263-283. doi:10.1108/S2046-410X(2013)0000001014

Yin, R. K. (2011). *Qualitative research from start to finish.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Yin, R. K. (2012). *Applications of Case Study Research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case Study Research Design and Methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Zhang, S.-F., & Liu, S.-Y. (2011). A GRA-based intuitionistic fuzzy multi-criteria group decision making method for personnel selection. *Expert Systems with Applications, 38*, 11401-11045. doi:10.1016/j.eswa.2011.03.012

Zimmerman, R. D., Boswell, W. R., Shipp, A. J., Dunford, B. B., & Boudreau, J. W. (2012). Explaining the pathways between approach-avoidance personality traits and employees' job search behavior. *Journal of Management, 38*, 1450-1475. doi:10.1177/0149206310396376

Appendix A: Interview Questions

Interview Questions

Interview Questions

1. What is the process of personnel selection for your company?
2. What is the personnel selection tool you use in personnel selection?
3. Why do you use this instrument?
4. What are the strengths of this instrument?
5. What are the weaknesses of this instrument?
6. What other instruments or methods have you used in selecting personnel?
7. How does this selection instrument meet your needs?
8. What traits, behaviors, or characteristics are necessary to be successful in the restaurant industry?
9. How do you measure an applicant's traits, behaviors, or characteristics?
10. How do you know if a new hire is a good fit for the job?