

## **Effectiveness of an Interview Process on Employees Performance in Kenyan Public Universities**

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### **Abstract**

The main objective of this research was to establish the effectiveness of an interview process on employees' performance of Kenyan public Universities. The study adopted a descriptive case study research design. The target population for this study was the 625 employees working in Meru University of Science and Technology in Kenya. The sample size of the study was 387 employees calculated based on probability randomly picked. The study adopted structured questionnaire as the main data collection instrument with the following major attributes; purpose of interview, resume analysis, job profiling and use of effective interview tools. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics more especially central tendencies; mean and standard deviation. The study used Pearson Correlation to establish the relationship between the independent variables and dependent variables. In order to establish the independent variables that affected the performance most, Regression Analysis was used. The study found out that market purpose of the interview and use of effective interview tool positively influenced employees performance when they were ultimately employed.

**Key Words:** Interview, employment interview, selection interview

## **1.0 Introduction**

Employment interviews are a popular selection technique from many viewpoints. In organizations around the world, employment interviews continue to be one of the most frequently used methods to assess candidates for employment (Ryan, McFarland, Baron, & Page, 1999; Wilk & Cappelli, 2003). Moreover, applicants perceive interviews as fair as compared to other selection procedures (e.g., Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004) and applicants expect interviews as part of a selection process (e.g., Lievens, De Corte, & Brysse, 2003). In fact, from an applicant's perspective, obtaining a job interview is fundamental to job search success (Saks, 2006).

According to Robert (2005) interviews are the most frequently used selection technique and it is very unusual for candidates to be appointed without interviews. Interviews may either be structured or unstructured. The unstructured interview generally takes the form of a free-ranging discussion, sometimes with the interviewer using a set of favourite questions but giving the interviewee free rein to answer in a general way. In an unstructured interview, the interviewer uses his or her own judgment about the overall performance of the candidate in deciding whether or not they match the role. The unstructured interview is the most commonly used interview. It is frequently used by professional and selection agencies that are confident in their ability to assess the candidates without the constraints of a structured interview. Research suggests that the unstructured interview is only half as effective as a structured interview.

## **2.0 Literature**

### *2.1 Interview Process*

The structured interview is focused on a set number of clearly defined criteria, usually competencies. The questions are carefully structured to obtain specific information about the criteria and the answers are scored against a consistent scoring range. The structured interview may be a situational or behavioural interview. In situational interviewing candidates are presented with a future hypothetical situation and asked to explain how they would deal with it. The answers are assessed for evidence of relevant ability. In

behavioural/experience interviews, the questions are aimed at drawing out past examples of behaviours, linked to specific competencies (Robert 2005:221).

The interviewer compares the answers to positive and negative descriptions of the behaviours, scores each of the competencies and makes judgments based on the scores. Recent research shows that behavioural/experience interviews are a more effective form of structured interview (Robert 2005). Although interviewing is one of the best established selection techniques, it suffers from a number of problems. It is difficult for the interviewer to sustain attention throughout the interview, with interviewers sometimes able to remember only the opening and closing stages of the interview. Judgement of interviews can sometimes be clouded by prejudices or influenced unduly by stereotyping the candidate with for example, others in his or her institution, or mirroring situations in which the interviewer looks more favourably on candidates matching the interviewer's own profile. Perhaps the most common failing of interviews is the lack of preparation on the part of the interviewer. Regardless of its problems the interview remains one of the most popular selection techniques. Whatever its technical value in the selection process, it is of great perceived value to selectors and a very important aspect of the interviewer.

In the studies reviewed, there was much variability among researchers in what they meant when they indicated their interview was structured. Researchers sometimes classified interviews dichotomously as being "unstructured" or "structured," although the components of the interview that led to such determination varied. Other general labels used to describe structured interviews included: "situational", "behavioral", "conventional structured", and "structured situational." Some researchers highlighted specific components of structure to provide justification for their determination of structure. Still others used Huffcutt and Arthur's (1994) nomenclature to refer to their interviews as corresponding to one of four levels of interview structure (e.g., Level 3 or Level 4). Such variation in labels and inconsistency in reporting can result in misleading interpretations of findings and slow our progress in understanding interview structure and its effects. Correct categorization of interviews in meta-analyses may be hampered, and subsequently identification of moderators may be limited. In short, much valuable information is lost. For research to advance, it is important that a common definition be embraced by researchers and practitioners regarding

interview structure. Following the lead of Chapman and Zweig (2005), a measure of interview structure should be a continuous and multi-faceted construct, used by all parties as a common metric to describe the degree of structure in employment interviews. We have a strong foundation on which to build a common taxonomy and measure of interview structure. Huffcutt and Arthur (1994) and Campion, Palmer and Campion (1997) studied methods of enhancing interview structure and identified two germane categories, those components that relate to the interview's content and those that relate to evaluation. Conway et al. (1995) provided a framework in which interviews can be coded according to five progressively higher levels of question standardization and three progressively higher levels of standardization of response evaluation. These components are usually combined into three overall levels (low, medium and high) (Huffcutt, Roth, & McDaniel, 1996). Perhaps more categories of structure and finer distinctions can be investigated to advance this existing framework. In particular, Dipboye, Wooten and Halverson (2004) propose a three-dimensional model of interview structure that corresponds to the life cycle or process of an interview; that is, from developing the interview, to conducting it and then using the information gathered. In short, the three factors are: (a) jobrelatedness of the interview, (b) standardization of the process, and (c) structured use of the data to evaluate the candidate, with key elements under each. They also provide a theoretical discussion of how adding structural elements to the interview process may lead to higher levels of interviewer reliability and validity judgments. This three-dimensional conceptualization that involves adding structure to the "interview process" may provide a meaningful way to view interview structure and should be further examined.

Behaviorally-anchored rating scales or scoring guides is a key element of the interview structure is establishing a standard process of evaluation (Campion et al., 1997). A number of studies in the past six years have documented the importance of this aspect of interview structure across various interview formats and criteria. Maurer (2002) examined the use of behaviorally anchored rating scales (vs. conventional scales with evaluative anchors) and the use of job experts as interviewers (vs. students) using situational interview questions. He found evidence showing that both job content experts and students rated videotaped interviews with greater accuracy when using behaviorally anchored scales than when using

the conventional format. No difference was found for job expertise. The necessity of a scoring guide for behavioral interviews has been demonstrated (Taylor & Small, 2002; Klehe & Latham, 2006). Situational and behavioral description interviews designed to assess team-playing behavior correlated with peers' teamwork behavior scores when behavioral scoring guides were used (Klehe & Latham, 2005). Both situational and behavioral description interviews also predicted interviewees' GPA when scoring guides were provided (Day & Carroll, 2003). Further, telephone interviews in which the interviewer used descriptively-anchored rating scales for both situational and past behavior questions revealed high criterion-related validities with supervisors' performance ratings (and no moderating effect of interviewee prior work experience) (Gibb & Taylor, 2003). Finally, Honer, Wright and Sablynski (2007) showed that structuring the rating process by using anchored rating scales for "puzzle" interview questions resulted in acceptable inter-rater reliabilities. Based on these findings, the use of scoring guides with behavioral benchmarks appears to be beneficial for interview reliability and validity.

2.3.2. Note-taking Another component of structuring the interview process that has been investigated in the last six years is interviewer note taking. The extent to which interviewers take notes or are instructed to do so during an interview is uncertain. Only occasionally will researchers mention whether interviewers in their study took notes (e.g., Klehe & Latham, 2005). Middendorf and Macan (2002) found that note-taking may be important for memory and legal reasons, but not necessarily for improving the accuracy of interviewer judgments. While note-taking itself can increase the cognitive demand placed on interviewers, these findings have not yet been generalized to situations in which interviewers actually conduct the interview (which may further tax the interviewer cognitively); for example, in Middendorf and Macan (2002) interviewers watched videotaped interviews. In addition, examining the effect of note-taking in conjunction with other means of structuring the interview process on interviewer reliability and validity would advance our understanding of this practice.

2.3.3. Panel interviews Panel interviews, also referred to as board interviews or team interviews, consist of two or more interviewers who together interview one candidate and combine their ratings into an overall score. Human resource professionals typically have favorable perceptions of panel interviews, especially those who have had prior experience conducting them (Camp, Schulz, Vielhaber, & Wagner-Marsh, 2004). In addition, panel interviews are another means of adding structure and are expected to result in increased rater reliability and validity (Campion et al., 1997). However, Dixon,

Wang, Calvin, Dineen, and Tomlinson (2002) reviewed past research conducted exclusively on panel interviews and found that prior findings are conflicting and inconclusive. Reasons for this confusion include a lack of consistency in performance criteria used to evaluate the predictive validity of panel interviews. Research continues to examine a variety of issues related to panel interviews. Some studies have focused on the relational demography of the interview panel with regard to race and its effects on interview scores. Two separate studies found that the racial composition of the interview panel affected judgments in ways consistent with similarity-attraction and social identity theories (McFarland, Ryan, Sacco, & Krista, 2004; Buckley, Jackson, Bolino, Veres & Field, 2007). In general, interviewer ratings showed a same-race bias and difference between panels dependent upon the racial composition of the panel, but the size of the effects were small (Buckley et al., 2007). With this caveat, it appears important to consider not only the interviewer and applicant race, but also the race of other interview panel members. Consistent with prior studies showing differential interviewer validity (Posthuma et al., 2002), Van Iddekinge, Sager, Burnfield and Heffner (2006) observed that criterion-related validities varied considerably across both interview panels and across individual interviewers for all criteria. Their meta-analytical findings suggest that most or all of the variance for many of the validities may be due to statistical artifacts. Examining the individual differences among raters within panel interviews can serve as a useful mechanism for better understanding panel interview reliability and validity (Dipboye, Gaugler, Hayes, & Parker, 2001; 206 T. Macan / Human Resource Management Review 19 (2009) 203–218 Van Iddekinge et al., 2006). The manner in which the ratings of panel interviewers are combined (e.g., consensus, statistical) may also be an important consideration. Findings to date suggest that panel interviews might not necessarily provide the psychometric benefits expected, but could be important for reasons related to perceived fairness. Future research could explore the social dynamic and group decision-making processes that potentially operate in panel interviews. For example, Bozionelos (2005) suggests that some members of an interview panel may engage in political games and power struggles, which affect the decisions they make.

Why don't interviewers typically use structured interviews? Despite the evidence showing that interviews containing high levels of structure can be valid predictors, surveys show that

managers, HR professionals, and organizations infrequently use them (Klehe, 2004; Lievens & De Paepe, 2004; Simola, Taggar, & Smith, 2007; van der Zee, Bakker, & Bakker, 2002). Conceptualizing interview structure as a continuous variable with various levels along two dimensions, most HR professionals reported using interviews with a moderate degree of structure (Lievens & De Paepe, 2004). Interviewers typically engaged in interviews in which they had identified the topics beforehand (i.e., moderate level of question standardization) and rated candidates on multiple established criteria (i.e., moderate level of response scoring). One has to wonder to what extent research studies conducted to date that have denoted using “structured interviews” more closely resemble these moderately structured interviews. A number of mechanisms might be affecting the use of structural elements in employment interviews. For example, Lievens and De Paepe (2004) found that interviewers' concerns about (a) having discretion in how the interview is conducted, (b) losing the informal, personal contact with the applicant, and (c) the time demands in developing structured interviews were all related to interviewers' use of less structured interviews. Interviewer individual differences, such as cognitive style and need for power also play a role (Chen, Tsai, & Hu, 2008). Finally there is the tendency for operational and HR personnel to use ‘satisfying’ versus maximizing selection practices. Consequently, organizational factors (e.g., organizational climate) as well as interviewer factors (e.g., knowledge of structure, motivation) need to be addressed in future assessment of interview validity and content (see Dipboye, 1994; 1997 for a conceptual model of factors affecting interviewers' use of high structure interviews). Another strategy that may encourage interviewer use of structured interviews stems from a research conducted by Brtek and Motowidlo (2002) on interviewer accountability. Interviewers held accountable for the procedures they followed – procedure accountability – made judgments about videotaped interviewees that correlated more strongly with supervisory ratings of performance than if they were held accountable for the outcome or accuracy of their judgments – outcome accountability. Perhaps requiring interviewers to justify the procedures they followed in making their ratings may not only result in increased interviewer use of structured interview procedures, but also better judgments.

Whetton and Cameron (2002) cite a six-step process of conducting an interview, what they named as PEOPLE-oriented selection interview process. Here the word ‘PEOPLE’ clearly

explains the interview process: P = prepare, E = Establish rapport, O = Obtain information, P = Provide information, L = lead to close, and E = evaluate. Several contradictions arise among the scholars regarding effective interview techniques such as what type of questions will be asked? What kind of interview will be applied i.e. individual or panel? Will it be the traditional or behavioral interviewing?

Behavioral interview is more effective than 'trait interview' in a sense that the trait approach, permits stereotyping candidates based on first impression rather than predicating a candidate's future behavior based on his /her life history experiences (Green, 1991). Research indicates that behavioral interviews are nearly eight times more effective for predicting successful job performance (Merritt, 2003). Stress interviews are becoming more common place in today's business (Poundstone, 2003). In this case interviewers observe how a candidate will react under pressure as well as his or her values and ethics in stressful conditions.

Interviews should always be planned properly, meaning that interviewers must prepare for the interview (Dickel, 2008). Undoubtedly interview is a two-way process. It is an interviewer's best interest to find good prospects, hire them, and have them stay in the organization. Therefore, the interviewee should be provided sufficient information about the job and organization. Buda (2003) suggested realistic job preview (RJP) to achieve this goal. It allows job candidates to know favorable as well as unfavorable information about the job (Ganzach, Pazy & Brainin, 2002).

The task of HR managers does not complete just after the interview session. The post-interview activities are vital for them. Atleast they should verify the background investigation of the potential employee before finally offering the job. Background investigations, or reference checks, are intended to verify that information on the application form is correct and accurate and application. Organizations need to be aware of negligent hiring liability. It

occurs when an employer has failed to properly investigate an employee's background and that employee is later involved in wrongful conduct (Le & Kleiner, 2000).

- I. State the purpose of the interview. HR managers should concretely state the type of information that is hoped to get by the end of the interview.
- II. Analyze the résumés. HR managers should review the application forms, résumé, test scores (if any) and any correspondence that would be useful in understanding the applicant's background. The résumé is a tool only to be used as an attention-getter and a means for allowing to get his /her foot into the door. It can be considered as a reflection of the candidate's true person, but the interview should be the real test. Hackney and Kleiner (1994) provided the following list of factors to consider when analyzing a résumé or application. - Be aware of 'functional' résumé - very general, no duties of employment (Hackney and Kleiner, 1994). -Notice sloppiness – misspelled words, a copy of the résumé (not an original) (Half, 1987). -Be careful with an employee that distributes an overly long resume (Davison, 1985). -Look for a willingness to work hard (Half, 1987). -Review the reason for leaving the last job (Black, 1982). -Weigh candidate's educational backgrounds (Black, 1982). -Do not pass final judgment in advance (Black, 1982).
- III. Develop a job Profile. HR manager should identify the exact job requirements for the job that will be needed, including needed skills, experience and expertise. This is more than a job description and should reflect actual needs for the job (Humphrey, 2006). This profile should answer the question, 'What will this person really do in this position?' IV. Consider the team mix. This is the critical task for HR managers. In deciding the team mix, consider the nature of the job. There is no hard and fast rule regarding the number of company personnel to be involved in applicant interviews (Hackney and Kleiner, 1994). Don't forget to keep the immediate supervisor of the potential employee in the interview session. HR professionals must answer the question, 'What sort of person will fit best with the existing team of employees?'
- IV. Train the interviewers. Once the interviewers are selected, the next step is to prepare them for the interview session. HR managers must ensure that the interviewers hold adequate skills for the interview. Whetton and Cameron (2002) identified the following key skills for interviewers. -Ability to create effective questions with the aim of eliciting the information required. -Ability to create an appropriate climate for

information sharing. -Ability to control the flow of interview session. -Ability to use and interpret non-verbal cues (body language). - Ability to probe and challenge when necessary.

- V. Develop job-related questions and answers. At this stage, HR professionals should determine what questions to ask during the interview. When developing the list of questions, it is better to go back and review the qualifications list. Questions should vary depending on the hiring position. It is better to avoid 'closed questions' that require 'yes' or 'no' answer. Open-ended questions are useful in getting adequate information about the applicant. Again it is also important to avoid the use of 'leading question' (Koen, 2004). This tempts the applicant to slant answers to suit the interviewers. After the list of interview questions are developed, it is a good idea to write under each question the response expected from the applicant.
- VI. Develop an evaluation sheet to keep score of each applicant. There are numerous scoring systems which can be devised. The evaluation check list should be tied somehow to the original qualifications sheet. Again the evaluation sheet should correlate with desired tangible and intangible qualities (Hackney and Kleiner, 1994).
- VII. Determine how to record information- audio tape or notes—and make sure that the appropriate equipment or materials are available before the interview.
- VIII. Prepare suitable physical arrangements. The interview process should be efficiently run to make a favorable impression on the candidates and to avoid unnecessary stress. The interview room should be free from distraction and interruption.
- IX. Develop a method for observing the pre-and-post behavior of the candidate. This will help the interviewers to rightly judge the personality and self-confidence of the candidate.

2.2 Conceptualization

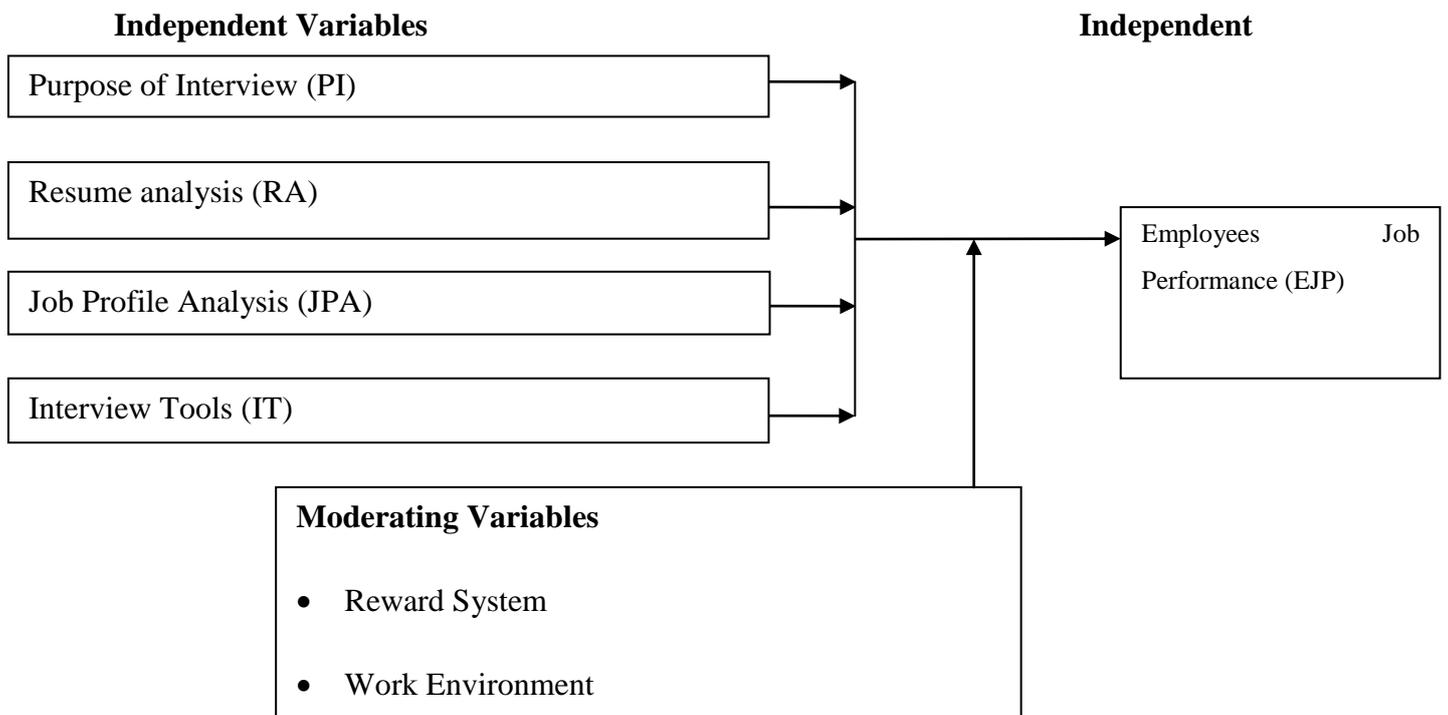


Figure 1: Effect of Interview on Employees performance

3.0 Hypothesis and Methods

3.1 Research Design

The study adopted a descriptive case study research design. The target population for this study was the 316 employees working in Meru University.

A systematic random sampling technique was used to select the respondents (Kotrlík et al., 2002). To determine the sample size the following formula was used:

$$s = \frac{(z)^2(p)(q)}{(d)^2}$$

S= Sample size

Z= Value of selected alpha level. In this study 0.25 in each tail = 1.96

d= acceptable margin of error for proportion being estimated = 0.05.

(p) (q)= estimate of variance = 0.25 maximum possible proportion (0.5) (1-0.5). This produces maximum possible sample size.

$$s = \frac{(1.96)^2(0.5)(0.5)}{(0.05)^2} = 384$$

Cochran's correction formula is used to calculate the final sample size.

$$s_1 = \frac{S}{1 + \frac{S}{n}}$$

Where  $S_1$  = Required Sample size

$S$  = uncorrected sample

$n$  = Total target population

$$s = \frac{384}{1 + \frac{384}{316}} = 186$$

Thus, 387 employees working in Meru University formed the sample for the study.

The study adopted structured questionnaire as the main data collection instrument with the following major attributes; purpose of the interview, resume analysis, job profile analysis and interview tools. The specific questions in the questionnaire were scaled using Likert Scale (1=SD-Strongly Disagree, 2=D-Disagree, 3=NS-Not Sure, 4=A-Agree and 5=SA-Strongly Agree) in measuring respondents level of agreement on each item of the questionnaire. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics more especially central tendencies; mean and standard deviation. The study used Pearson Correlation to establish the relationship between

the independent variables and dependent variables. In order to establish the independent variables that affected the sales performance most, Regression Analysis was used. The results are therefore as analyzed, presented and discussed below.

### 3.2 Hypotheses of the Study

We set the following hypotheses of the study for purposes of employing statistical calculation to affirm our conclusions and recommendations

HO<sub>1</sub> There is no statistical evidence that purpose of the interview during recruitment affected their job performance.

HO<sub>2</sub> There is no statistical evidence that resume analysis by the university affected employees job performance.

HO<sub>3</sub> There is no statistical evidence that job profiling affected employees job performance.

HO<sub>4</sub> There is no statistical evidence that interview tools used during interview affected employees job performance.

HO<sub>5</sub> There is no significant relationship between the combined effect of purpose of interview, resume analysis, job profiling and availability of interviewing tools on employees' job performance.

## 4.0 Results

### 4.1 Descriptive Statistics on Store branding factors

**Table 1: Store Branding Factors**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
<i>Purpose of Interview</i>			
The interview was purpose driven	186	4.2	0.91
The purpose was declared in job analysis	186	3.9	0.87
The purpose was declared in job description	186	4.7	0.96
The interviewee understood the purpose of interview	186	2.3	1.05

<i>Resume Analysis</i>	186		
All employees submitted their resume	186	4.5	0.92
Resume was analyzed by the respective department	186	4.1	0.9
Result of the analysis was objective	186	4.7	0.96
Results were made public	186	4.3	0.92
<i>Job profiling</i>	186		
There task functions and responsibilities	186	4.0	0.9
Job performance standards were expressed	186	3.9	0.89
Job scope and authority well spelt	186	4.1	0.9
Management expectation well expressed	186	4.6	0.97
<i>Interview Tools</i>	186		
There was effective tool	186	4.8	0.98
The tool was objective	186	4.2	0.91
The tool was applied on all applicants	186	2.0	1.09
The content of the tool was declared to candidates	186	1.7	1.11

The specific questions concerning store branding were scaled using Likert Scale (1=SD-Strongly Disagree, 2=D-Disagree, 3=NS-Not Sure, 4=A-Agree and 5=SA-Strongly Agree) in measuring respondents level of agreement on each item of the questionnaire.

#### *Discussion on Purpose of interview*

Based on Likert Scale where the mean represented respondents' level of agreement, our findings showed that interview was purpose driven (level of agreement mean of 4.2). The purpose of interview was declared in job analysis (mean of 3.9) based on the respondents agreement. The purpose of interview was declared in job description (mean of 4.7). The interviews understood the purpose of interview (mean of 2.3)

#### *Discussions on Resume Analysis*

The study established that all candidates submitted their resumes during their applications (mean of 4.5) meaning that the university was privy to candidates job experiences before recruiting them. Resumes were analyzed by respective departments (mean of 4.1) meaning that the results of the analysis was objective (mean of 4.7) and that such results were made public (mean of 4.1).

### *Discussion on Job Profiling*

The tasks functions and responsibilities were well profiled (mean of 4.0) meaning that the job performance standards were well expressed (mean of 3.9). and that the job scope and authority were well spelt (mean of 4.1) indicating that management expectations were well spelt out (mean of 4.6).

### *Discussion on Interview Tools*

Effective interview tool was used during interview (mean of 4.8) indicating that the tool was objective (mean of 4.2) and therefore was applied on all applicants (mean of 2.0) and also the content of the tool was declared to candidates (mean of 1.7).

### *4.2 Descriptive Statistics on Sales Performance*

**Table 2: Employees Performance**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
Performance standard were well declared	186	4.9	0.98
Performance measurement were well declared	186	4.1	0.9
Reward on performance was well declared	186	4.5	0.96
Performance <i>reinforcers</i> were well declared	186	3.9	0.87
Career growth on performance was well declared	186	4.2	0.91

The specific questions concerning employees performance were scaled using Likert Scale (1=SD-Strongly Disagree, 2=D-Disagree, 3=NS-Not Sure, 4=A-Agree and 5=SA-Strongly Agree) in measuring respondents level of agreement on each item of the questionnaire.

The study established that performance standards were well declared at (4.9) which according to Likert Scale represented strongly agree. The respondents agreed on the following aspects of employees' performance; well declared performance measurement (mean of 4.1), well declared reward on performance (mean of 4.5), well declared performance *reinforcers* (mean of 3.9) and well declared career growth on performance (mean of 4.2).

4.3 Inferential Statistics

**Table 3: Pearson Correlation between Interview variables and Employees Job Performance**

		PI	RA	JPA	IT	EJP
PI	Pearson Correlation	1	.522**	.505**	.634**	.675**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	255	255	255	255	255
RA	Pearson Correlation	.522**	1	.516**	.403**	.328**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.0620
	N	255	255	255	255	255
JPA	Pearson Correlation	.505**	.516**	1	.639**	.281**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.076
	N	255	255	255	255	255
IT	Pearson Correlation	.634**	.403**	.639**	1	.769**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	255	255	255	255	255
EJP	Pearson Correlation	.675**	.328**	.483**	.769**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	255	255	255	255	255

HO<sub>1</sub> There is no statistical evidence that purpose of the interview during recruitment affected their job performance.

The analysis to test HO<sub>1</sub> was conducted using Pearson's Correlation. The results are shown in Table 3. The study established a strong positive correlation ( $r=0.675$ ) and significant relationship ( $P=0.000\leq 0.05$ ) between purpose of interview and employees' job performance indicating that purpose of interview significantly affected employees job performance. Hence, the HO<sub>1</sub> was rejected. When the universities recognize and enhance purpose of interview during their recruitment process to the candidates, there will be a positive improvement in employees job performance when they are ultimately employed.

HO<sub>2</sub> There is no statistical evidence that resume analysis by the university affected employees job performance.

The study used Pearson's correlation to test HO<sub>2</sub>. As shown in Table 3, the study established a weak positive correlation ( $r=0.328$ ) and significant relationship ( $P=0.062>0.05$ ) between resume analysis and employees job performance indicating that employees perception on their resume analysis did not affect their job performance when they ultimately get employed. The hypothesis (HO<sub>2</sub>) was therefore accepted.

HO<sub>3</sub> There is no statistical evidence that job profiling affected employees job performance.

The analysis to test HO<sub>3</sub> was conducted using Pearson's Correlation. The results are as shown in Table 3. The study established a weak correlation ( $r=0.281$ ) and a significant relationship ( $P=0.076>0.05$ ) between job profiling and employees job performance indicating that job profiling did not affect employees job performance at the university. The null hypothesis (HO<sub>3</sub>) was accepted.

HO<sub>4</sub> There is no statistical evidence that interview tools used during interview affected employees job performance.

Pearson's correlation was used in the analysis to test  $H_{O4}$ . The study established a strong positive correlation ( $r=0.769$ ) and a significant relationship ( $P=0.000 \leq 0.05$ ) between use of effective interview tools and employees job performance. The  $H_{O4}$  was, therefore, rejected. When the universities promote the use of effective interview tools it will lead to improved employees job performance.

$H_{O5}$  There is no significant relationship between the combined effect of purpose of interview, resume analysis, job profiling and availability of interviewing tools on employees' job performance.

**Table 4: Model Summary**

<b>R</b>	<b>R Square</b>	<b>Adjusted R Square</b>	<b>Std. Error of the Estimate</b>
0.81	0.62	0.64	0.33

The  $R^2$  value indicates how much of the dependent variable, "employees job performance", was explained by the independent variables, "purpose of interview, resume analysis, job profiling and effective interview tools ". In this case, the R Squared is 0.64 indicating that 64% of the variation in employees job performance is explained by the independent variable. The difference, that is, 33% of the variation in employees job performance is explained by factors that are not included in this study.

**Table 5: Full Regression Model**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig (p).
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.29	0.15		8.71	0.00
	PI	0.31	0.04	0.36	6.88	0.00
	RA.	-0.05	0.03	-0.08	-1.70	0.09
	JPA	-0.04	0.05	-0.04	-0.76	0.45
	IT	0.48	0.04	0.60	10.97	0.00

As indicated in Table 5, from the unstandardized coefficients, the following equation was developed:

$$y = 1.29 + 0.31x_1 - 0.05x_2 - 0.04x_3 + 0.48x_4 + \varepsilon$$

From the full regression model, the standardized coefficients indicated that purpose of interview and use of effective interview tools have a positive effect on employees job performance whereas perceived resume analysis and job profiling analysis have a negative influence on employees job performance. Further, the results indicate that use of effective interview tools has a greater effect on employees job performance (Beta=0.60) followed by purpose of interview (Beta=0.36), resume analysis (Beta=-0.08) and job profiling analysis (Beta=-0.04).

In conclusion, therefore, the hypothesis HO<sub>5</sub> that there is no significant relationship between the combined effect of purpose of interview, resume analysis, job analysis profiling and use of effective interview tools on employees job performance is rejected. This is because purpose of interview and use of effective interview tools have a positive effect on employees' job performance when they are ultimately employed.

## 5.0 Conclusions and Recommendations

The main aim of this study was to analyze the effectiveness of an Interview Process on Employees Performance of Kenyan Public Universities. The key independent variables analyzed in this study were elements of interview including purpose of interview, resume analysis, job profiling and use of effective interview tools. We statistically analyzed whether; purpose of interview, resume analysis, job profiling and use of effective interview tools had effect on employees job performance. The study statistically established that purpose of interview and use of effective interview tools positively influenced employees' job performance when they were ultimately hired.

The study therefore recommends that;

- 1) The study on interviewing process used to hire employees should be explored more especially in making sure that organizations hired the right human resource for the job vacancies in the organization.
- 2) Interview tools should be developed and streamlined for objectivity and application so that interview candidates are interviewed based on common rules and procedures for the desired objectivity.
- 3) Many organizations especially in developing countries still gallop with the challenges of using interview as a formality for validation of illegal hiring. There is a knowledge gap based on this unprofessional validation that researchers in organization development and human resource management should pursue by studying variability between using interview as an objective hiring process and using it to validate illegal hiring.

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