

# Applicants' Perceptions of Selection Procedures and Decisions: A Critical Review and Agenda for the Future

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This review critically examines the literature from 1985 to 1999 on applicant perceptions of selection procedures. We organize our review around several key questions: What perceptions have been studied? What are determinants of perceptions? What are the consequences or outcomes associated with perceptions applicants hold? What theoretical frameworks are most useful in examining these perceptions? For each of these questions, we provide suggestions for key research directions. We conclude with a discussion of the practical implications of this line of research for those who design and administer selection processes. © 2000 Elsevier Science Inc. All rights reserved.

Over the past decade, there has been a surge of interest in studying how job applicants view the employee selection process. This research interest has been sparked by a number of forces. First, the greater competition for employees due to low unemployment rates (Nassar, 1999) has led organizational decision makers to think about how various components of selection processes might influence the attractiveness of the organization. Second, leading recruiting researchers, such as Rynes (1991, 1993), have called for better research on applicant perspectives. Third, researchers in the area of organizational justice have suggested and begun to explore the applicability of social justice theory concepts to applicant perceptions of selection methods (e.g., Gilliland, 1993). Fourth, the increasing diversity of the workforce (Cox, 1993; Jackson & Associates, 1992) has led employers to be concerned that certain procedures might make an organization less attractive to qualified minority group members. In addition to examining racial differences in perceptions of selection processes, researchers interested in lessening the adverse impact of selection procedures have been interested in whether attitudes about

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tests might account for some of the performance differences observed between minority and majority group members on certain selection methods.

The basic premise of research on applicant perceptions of selection processes and procedures has been that these perceptions affect how the applicant views the organization (i.e., the process sends a signal; Rynes, 1993), his or her decision to join the organization, and subsequent behaviors (e.g., future product/service purchases, recommendations to others). Thus, understanding when and why applicants have more or less favorable impressions of a selection process might increase the ability to influence those perceptions and related applicant attitudes and behavior.

In this paper, we provide a review of the research on applicant perceptions of selection processes. We use the terms perceptions and selection processes broadly so as to provide a comprehensive review. That is, we discuss literature related to any attitudes, affect, or cognitions an individual might have about the hiring process, with several exceptions. First, there is a great deal of research on the effects of affirmative action and specifically on preferential selection (e.g., Heilman & Herlihy, 1984; Heilman, Lucas, & Kaplow, 1990; Heilman, Simon, & Repper, 1987). This research is relevant because it examines applicant perceptions of a particular characteristic of a selection process. However, as this is reviewed comprehensively elsewhere (Kravitz et al., 1997; Turner & Pratkanis, 1994), we do not review this area but simply note its relevance to the study of applicant perceptions of selection procedures. Second, elsewhere in this issue, a review is provided of the research on recruiter effects on applicant perceptions (Breaugh, 2000). Thus, we do not discuss how recruiter characteristics and recruitment materials affect applicant perceptions, although we do discuss perceptions of interviews as a selection procedure in contrast to other selection methods. Third, there is research on attitudes toward drug testing of current employees; we exclude this from our review and focus only on drug testing in selection contexts.

We have organized the review in the following manner. First, we provide a brief overview to orient the reader. We then present a tabular summary of the published empirical work in this area. There have also been numerous unpublished conference papers related to this topic and we discuss these in the text where relevant. We limit this review to the last 15 years for the sake of parsimony, but also because most work has occurred since that time. We discuss the table's contents and theoretical work in the area in terms of the following questions:

- What applicant perceptions have been studied? What should be studied?
- What are the determinants of applicant perceptions?
- What are the consequences of holding more positive or negative perceptions (i.e., to what outcomes have they been linked)? What moderates these relations?
- What theoretical frameworks have been presented? How well have they been applied? What other theoretical viewpoints need consideration?

In each section, we include what we see as key research needs on the topic of applicant perceptions. We end with suggestions for new research directions and some practical implications.

### Overview of the Research Area

Researchers have mentioned applicant perceptions of selection procedures as an avenue of inquiry for quite some time (e.g., Mosier, 1947). In the late 1980s and early 1990s, a number of book chapters and theoretical pieces appeared that suggested there was not enough attention being paid by researchers to the fact that selection involves two parties: the organization selects employees, but applicants also select—where they will apply and where they will work (e.g., Herriot, 1989; Rynes, 1991, 1993; Schuler, 1993). Although the recruiting research literature was certainly addressing what drives applicant decisions, it was not focused on the selection process as an element in those decisions. In particular, Rynes (1993) pointed out some key research needs in studying applicant perceptions that spurred other research.

Schmitt and Gilliland (1992) and Gilliland (1993) developed a model of how and why situational factors in the selection process influence perceptions of the fairness of the process and how these perceptions influence applicant attitudes and behaviors. Gilliland proposed that situational characteristics (e.g., test type, organization human resource policy, the behavior of human resource personnel) influence applicant perceptions of the procedural justice of the selection system. He noted that perceptions of the extent to which specific procedural rules (e.g., job relatedness, consistency of administration, priority of questions) are satisfied or violated are combined to form an overall evaluation of the fairness of the selection process. He also noted that an applicant's prior experiences with a selection process would influence this evaluation. Gilliland proposed that perceptions of distributive fairness (i.e., the fairness of either the test outcome or the hiring decision) are influenced by the distributive justice rules of equity, equality, and need, which in turn are influenced by such things as performance expectations and the salience of discrimination. Consistent with the justice literature, his model proposes an interaction of procedural and distributive rules in forming fairness perceptions of the process and of the outcome. Gilliland indicated that fairness perceptions should relate to outcomes such as job application decisions, test motivation, self-esteem, self-efficacy, endorsement of the company's products, job acceptance decisions, job satisfaction, and performance, among others. We refer the reader to his article for a comprehensive discussion of this model. Gilliland's conceptualization has served as the basis for a large number of the studies in the applicant perceptions literature.

Two other influential pieces that did not derive from Gilliland's conceptualization but can be seen as focusing on "justice-related" perceptions are Arvey and Sackett (1993) and Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman, and Stoffey (1993). Arvey and Sackett (1993) proposed a slightly different set of factors as influencing perceptions of fairness, some of which remain unexamined to date. Smither et al. (1993) looked specifically at job-relatedness, which is one of the justice rules

in Gilliland's model, and developed a two-factor measure of it—face validity and perceived predictive validity—that has been widely used in subsequent research.

A second stream of applicant perceptions research comes from attempts to understand what drives performance on cognitive ability tests. Although research on this topic has led in many directions (e.g., understanding the nature of intelligence, examining effects of methods of testing and question variants), some has been directed specifically at how the perceptions of the test taker affect test performance. Although this was not the primary force behind its development, Arvey, Strickland, Drauden, and Martin's measure of test attitudes for use in selection contexts (Arvey, Strickland, Drauden, & Martin, 1990) serves as a seminal piece in the applicant perceptions literature that follows this research trend. The factor accounting for the most variance in their measure was test-taker motivation, and they noted that motivational differences might account for some portion of racial differences in cognitive ability test scores. Subsequent researchers have used Arvey et al.'s measure to further examine this question (e.g., studies by Chan and colleagues).

Thus, there have been two major thrusts to the applicant perceptions literature: a focus on fairness and other characteristics of the selection methods as potential influences on applicant attraction to an organization (referencing Gilliland, 1993; Smither et al., 1993), and a focus on test-taker attitudes as an influence on how applicants perform in the selection process (referencing Arvey et al., 1990). Note that the former focuses on perceptions of procedures and decisions, while the latter focuses more on perceptions of one's own cognitions and behaviors while experiencing those procedures and decisions. We feel both streams of research are important for understanding what an applicant might think, feel, and do based on having participated in a selection process.

Table 1 provides a summary of published empirical studies on applicant perceptions conducted since 1985. We chose to point out particular features of studies that relate to some key concerns in this research area. The second column—types of perceptions—addresses the question of what phenomena are being studied. The next three columns—procedures studied, timing of measurement, and type of sample—all focus on the generalizability of this area of research. We then chose to highlight "determinants" and "outcomes" of perceptions because the critical research questions are: 1) What leads to perceptions? and 2) Do these perceptions lead to any attitudes or behaviors of importance? Note that characterizing variables as "determinants" was somewhat finessed, as some authors clearly labeled non-manipulated variables as simply correlates, others manipulated such variables to indicate they were determinants, and in other cases causality was assumed. We mention variables studied that we feel deserve further consideration as potential determinants of reactions. Also, we note that some authors were interested in the perceptions or reactions of applicants as the dependent variable of interest, whereas others were interested in how these perceptions influenced other outcomes. We label perceptions of the job and organization as outcomes, although many researchers refer to these as "applicant reactions." In the table, we also note one or two key findings from each study, recognizing that this provides only a limited picture of the research. We urge the

Table 1 Summary of Research

Arvey, N Strickland, o Drauden, b	Perceptions	Procedure	Measurement	Type of Participant	Determinants Examined	Outcomes Examined	Key Findings
and, en,							,
T	Motivation, lack	Mechanical and	Post-test	Applications	Gender, age, &	Test performance;	<ul> <li>Applicants reported more</li> </ul>
	of concentration,	math tests (1)	(1&2)	& incumbents	race	job performance	positive attitudes than
	belief in tests,	Comparison,		for highway			incumbents
& Martin c	comparative	math and work	Pre-test and	maintenance			<ul> <li>Attitudes are related to</li> </ul>
(1990) a	anxiety, test	sample test (2)	post-test (3)	worker (1)			test performance
9	ease, external	Test, not		Applicants for			<ul> <li>Racial differences in test</li> </ul>
а	attribution,	described (3)		county			scores may be due to test
0.0	general need			financial			attitudes
В	achievement,			worker (2)			<ul> <li>Limited findings on</li> </ul>
g g	future effects,			Applicants for			whether motivation
D	preparation			financial			moderates test validity
				planner (3)			
Bauer, P	Procedural	Cognitive	Pre-test;	Entry-level	Pass/fail status	Organizational	<ul> <li>Procedural justice</li> </ul>
Maertz, jı	justice:	aptitude and	post-test;	job applicants	on test;	attractiveness,	perceptions had some
Dolen, & in	information,	knowledge test	post	in accounting	perceptions at	intentions toward	incremental value beyond
Campion c	chance to		feedback		earlier points in	the organization,	outcome favorability in
(1998) p	perform,				process	general attitude	determining general
t)	treatment at test					toward test	attitudes, test fairness, and
S	site, consistency					fairness, test	test-taking self-efficacy
0	of test					taking self-	but not organizational
а	administration,					efficacy	attractiveness or intentions
j	job-relatedness						toward the organization
Burke, C	General	12 computer-	Post-test	Clerical	Education level,	Test performance	<ul> <li>Word-processing</li> </ul>
Normand, a	acceptance of	administered		employees	computer-related		experience and verbal
& Raju c	computer-	tests (10			experience, work		ability have small effects
(1987) a	administered	clerical ability,			processing		on attitudes toward
t t	testing; ease of	personality and			experience		computerized testing
	testing	verbal ability)					

differences in cognitive ability performance

explained by racial

Table 1 Continued

Study	Perceptions	Selection Procedure	Timing of Measurement	Type of Participant	Determinants Examined	Outcomes Examined	Key Findings
Chan (1997)	Perceived predictive validity	Personality and cognitive ability	Post-test	Students	Race, test performance	Test performance	Blacks had lower predictive validity perceptions for cognitive tests, but no race differences were found for
							<ul> <li>Perceptions</li> <li>Perceptions of the cognitive ability test related to test</li> </ul>
Chan &	Face validity	Situational	Post-test	Students	Race, Test	Test performance	performance  • Higher face validity ratings
(1997)					or paper-and-		paper-and-pencil   Black-white difference in
					1 :		perceptions was greater for paper-and-pencil than video
							<ul> <li>race validity perceptions accounted for a portion of the race × method</li> </ul>
Chan	Face validity	Coonitive	Post one	Students	Race	Test performance	interaction on performance  Test-taking motivation
Schmitt, DeShon,	test-taking motivation	ability test battery	form of test, pre parallel				affects test performance after controlling for effects of race
Clause, & Delbridge (1997)			form				and prior test performance  • Face validity affects performance indirectly
							<ul> <li>through motivation</li> <li>Racial differences in face</li> </ul>
							validity perceptions may be

(Continued on next page)

<ul> <li>Applicant perceptions of fairness and job relevance are influenced by perceived performance</li> </ul>	• Pre-test and post-test perceptions of cognitive ability tests have different determinants; pre-test are function of general beliefs	in tests and post-test are partly a function of test performance. These relations are not found for personality tests.	<ul> <li>Presence of drug testing and giving an explanation affected attitudes toward company and intentions to apply</li> <li>Subjects had less positive attitudes toward a company that did testing if subjective norms indicated less approval</li> </ul>	• Those not recommended were more likely to believe they could outguess the test and played down test importance
1	Test performance		Attitude toward company, intention to apply	Hire recommendation
Perceived performance, actual performance	Race		Explanation of need for testing, subjective drug testing	
State trooper applicants	Students		Students	Applicants various positions
Post-test	Pre-test and post-test		ı	Post-test
Reading comprehension test, video-based procedures test	Cognitive ability battery, personality test		Drug testing scenarios	Integrity test
Job-relatedness, test fairness	Belief in tests, face validity, predictive validity, fairness			Outguessing, test minimization
Chan, Schmitt, Jennings, Clause, & Delbridge (1998)	Chan, Schmitt, Sacco, & Deshon (1998)		Crant & Bateman (1990)	Cunningham (1989)

D

Table 1 Continued

		Selection	Timing of	Type of	Determinants	Outcomes	
Study	Perceptions	Procedure	Measurement	Participant	Examined	Examined	Key Findings
Gilliland	Procedural	Work sample,	Post-feed-	Student; paid	Hiring status;	Performance on	Expectations for being hired
(1994)	fairness;	cognitive	back	gof	explanation provided:	Job;	were positively related to
	fairness	infeority			hiring	intentions: self-	applicants and negatively
		(magnin)			expectations:	efficacy	related for rejected applicants
					job-relatedness	,	<ul> <li>Job-relatedness affects</li> </ul>
							distributive justice most for
							those rejected
							<ul> <li>Rejected applicants were</li> </ul>
							more likely to recommend
							project when given
							explanation; explanation did
							not relate to fairness and had
							a negative effect on
							performance quality
							<ul> <li>Fair procedures result in</li> </ul>
							higher self-efficacy for those
							hired and lower self-efficacy
							for those rejected
Gilliland	Fair and unfair	Generated		Recent		1	<ul> <li>More unfair than fair</li> </ul>
(1995)	treatment	critical		college grads;			incidents were recalled for
		incidents		factory			justice rules of fakability,
				worker			dishonesty, and question
				applicants			propriety
							<ul> <li>Some rules were more</li> </ul>
							salient in their violation
							while others were more
							salient in their satisfaction

• Fairness among accepted applicants arises from different procedural rules

than unfairness among	rejected applicants	<ul> <li>Biodata was viewed most</li> </ul>	favorably; conclude this is	due to less cognitive	effort (i.e., seen as less	difficult)	<ul> <li>Perceptions varied by test</li> </ul>	type							<ul> <li>Those reading</li> </ul>	unstructured interviews	viewed the organization	and interviewer more	favorably and saw the	interview as more fair.
		Mood, coping,	anticipated job	performance,	intentions to take	test again,	organization	perceptions,	attributions for	failure, attributed	locus of failure				Perceptions of the	organizations				
		Self-assessed	test	performance											Demographics,	Big 5	personality	characteristics,	self-esteem	
		Students													Students					
		Post-failure	feedback (1)	Pre-feedback	and post-	feedback (2)									1					
		Computerized	biodata,	computerized	cognitive	ability,	computerized	trainability test,	computerized	work sample					Transcripts of	structured and	unstructured	interviews (1);	interview	scenarios (2)
		Fairness,	difficulty,	fakability,	usefulness of	feedback,	improvability of	performance (1)	Control,	involvement,	intrusion,	relevance,	cognitive	interference (2)	Interview	fairness,	perceptions of	the interviewer		
		Kluger &	Rothstein	(1993)											Kohn &	Dipboye	(1998)			

(Continued on next page)

Standarization has more

there is more applicant

voice.

negative effects when

Table 1 Continued

Study	Perceptions	Selection Procedure	Timing of Measurement	Type of Participant	Determinants Examined	Outcomes Examined	Key Findings
Latham & Finnegan	Perceptions of interview format	Descriptions of patterned,	ſ	Managers, applicants,	ī	1	<ul> <li>Managers and attorneys viewed the situational</li> </ul>
(1993)		situational, and		attorneys			interview as most practical.
		unstructured					<ul> <li>Student applicants preferred</li> </ul>
		interviews					the unstructured interview
Lounsbury,	General attitude	Tests in general	N/a (1)	Random	Sex, age, race,	1	<ul> <li>No demographic differences</li> </ul>
Bobrow,	toward			sample	occupation,		in study 1; in study 2, more
& Jensen	employment		post-	telephone	education level,		favorable attitudes for
(1989)	testing		feedback (2)	directory (1)	experience with		Hispanics and younger
				Sewing	testing		<ul> <li>Having received information</li> </ul>
				mechanic or			on how the test is related to
				marker maker			the job and feedback on
				applicants (2)			performance were related to
							more favorable attitudes
							<ul> <li>Those hired and those who</li> </ul>
							had not yet heard a decision
							had more positive attitudes
							than those rejected
Macan,	Face validity,	Cognitive	Post-test	Applicants	Self-assessed	Acceptance	<ul> <li>Perceptions are related to</li> </ul>
Avedon,	fairness, control,	ability,			performance,	intention,	job acceptance intentions
Paese, &	overall	assessment			job liking,	purchase	but job and organization
Smith	satisfaction with	center			organizational	intention, test	impressions are key
(1994)	process				attractiveness,	performance	predictors
					sex, race,		<ul> <li>Test scores were unrelated</li> </ul>
					employment		to perceptions
					status		<ul> <li>Buying intentions were</li> </ul>
							only weakly related to
							perceptions

• Those interviewed for a high-status job by computer or paper and pencil expressed greater resentment than those interviewed face-to-face	<ul> <li>PAQ factors accounted for variance in ratings of acceptability of drug testing across jobs</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Drug testing viewed as more appropriate for jobs with responsibility for safety of others or dangerous activities</li> <li>Considerable variability in attitudes; attitudes only weakly related to qualifications</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Procedures perceived as fair produced more favorable intentions and self-assessed performance, and this increased as outcome fairness increased</li> <li>Self-efficacy was lowest for those who were selected and perceived unfair procedures</li> <li>Applicants engaged in self-serving attributions only with fair procedures</li> </ul>	,
Socially desirable responding	I .		Recommendation, application, acceptance, and reapplication intentions; self-efficacy, self-esteem, self-assessed performance	
Job status	Students; mail PAQ and DOT survey of rating adults	Background characteristics, job type, testing circumstances	Admission status, attributions for decision	
Students	Students; mail survey of adults	Students	n, Graduate school applicants	
Post- interview		N/A	Preapplication, Graduate post-offer school applicant	
Computerized interview, paper-and-pencil interview form, face-to-face interview in warm or cold manner	Drug testing	Various drug testing procedures	GRE, GPA, research and work experiences, research interests, letters of recommendation, personal statement	
Affective reaction to interview	Acceptability of procedure	Acceptability of procedure	Process fairness, outcome fairness	
artin & Nagao (1989)	(urphy, Thornton, & Prue (1991)	(1990)	oyhart & Ryan (1997)	

(Continued on next page)

organizational outcomes

Table 1 Continued

Study	Perceptions	Selection Procedure	Timing of Measurement	Type of Participant	Determinants Examined	Outcomes Examined	Key Findings
Ployhart &	Process fairness,	Cognitive	Pre-test,	Students	Consistency of	Performance	<ul> <li>Positive inconsistency does</li> </ul>
Ryan	outcome	ability test	post-test,		administration,	expectations, job	not result in different
(1998)	fairness		-tsod		hiring status	acceptance	perceptions of fairness than
			feedback	y		intentions, future	consistency
						experiment	<ul> <li>Most unfavorable reactions</li> </ul>
						intentions,	occurred with an unfair
						reapplication	process and positive
						intentions,	outcome
						recommendation	<ul> <li>Prior intentions and</li> </ul>
						intentions,	outcome key influences in
						withdrawal	reactions
Ployhart,	Process fairness,	Scenarios:		Students (1);	Explanation for	Self-perceptions,	<ul> <li>Perceptions of process</li> </ul>
Ryan, &	explanation	Cognitive ability		Recent	selection	organizational	fairness are enhanced by
Bennett	adequacy	and job		graduate	decision—	perceptions	providing personal or
(1999)		knowledge test		program	information		procedural information
		(1); GRE, GPA,		applicants (2)	and sensitivity		<ul> <li>Self-perceptions of</li> </ul>
		research interests,			features; hiring		rejected are damaged by
		personal			status		personal information and
		statement,					enhanced by diversity
		research					justification; opposite is
		experience, work					true for accepted
		experience, letter					<ul> <li>Different types of</li> </ul>
		Jo					procedural information in
		recommendation					an explanation for a
		(2)					decision produce different
							effects on fairness, self-
							perceptions and
							the state of the s

Robertson,	Beliefs about	Biodata,	Post-	Assessees	Pass/fail status	Withdrawal	<ul> <li>Candidates perceived</li> </ul>
Iles,	adequacy of	situational	feedback, at	within a		cognitions,	negative decisions as having
Gratton, &	Gratton, & selection	interview,	various	management		organizational	negative impact on their
Sharpley	procedures,	assessment	points in	development		commitment,	careers
(1991)	perceived	center	program	program		psychological	<ul> <li>Psychological health was</li> </ul>
	career impact					health	unrelated to decisions
							<ul> <li>Beliefs about adequacy were</li> </ul>
							higher for assessment center
							than situational interview
							<ul> <li>Those who passed saw</li> </ul>
							procedures as more adequate
							and exhibited higher
							organizational commitment
Rosse,	Privacy	Interview or	Post-test	Applicants for	Î		<ul> <li>Reactions were generally</li> </ul>
Miller, &	protection and	personality test		seasonal jobs			positive but were more
Stecher	appropriateness	and interview or					negative if personality
(1994)		personality and					inventory was required
		ability tests and					<ul> <li>Considerable variance in</li> </ul>
		interview					reactions was found
Ryan &	Procedural	Multiple choice	Post-test and	Psychology	Test score, pass/	1	<ul> <li>Test score is positively</li> </ul>
Chan	fairness,	knowledge	post	licensure	fail status,		related to perceptions, but
(1999a)	information,	exam	feedback	candidates	background		many high scorers had
	interpersonal				information,		negative perceptions of
	treatment,				cognitive		job relatedness
	consistency of				interference,		
	administration,				self-assessed		
	face validity,				performance		
	predictive						
	validity,						

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Table 1 Continued

Study	Perceptions	Selection Procedure	Timing of Measurement	Type of Participant	Determinants Examined	Outcomes Examined	Kev Findings
	motivation, anxiety, belief in						
	tests, outcome						
	satisfaction,						
Ryan &	Response	1	1	Applicants at	Race	J	• No preference for a
Greguras	format			employment			particular format
(1998)	preference, test			services			<ul> <li>Minorities indicated less</li> </ul>
	fairness						positive perceptions of
							multiple-choice tests
Ryan,	Job-relatedness,	Descriptions of	1	Firefighters	Experience,	1	<ul> <li>Self-efficacy and</li> </ul>
Greguras,	fairness,	various			current fitness		experience related to job-
& Ployhart	consistency,	physical ability			level,		relatedness perceptions
(9661)	improvement	tests (PATs)			department		<ul> <li>Maximal performance tests</li> </ul>
	beliefs, practice				fitness climate,		are seen as less job related
	effects, typical v.				self-efficacy		than typical performance
	maximal						tests
	performance,						<ul> <li>Test order is seen as</li> </ul>
	timing of tests,						affecting performance
	order, rest periods						<ul> <li>Fairness perceptions related</li> </ul>
	between tests,						to job-relatedness and
	scoring options,						consistency perceptions
	training programs						

(Continued on next page)

more negative perceptions

• Few of those interviewed mentioned the process as a reason for withdrawing

 Motivation, anxiety, test     self-efficacy related to test	performance	<ul> <li>Greater anxiety associated</li> </ul>	with lower stress	tolerance, lower school	success, and being	African-American	<ul> <li>African-Americans</li> </ul>	reported lower motivation	<ul> <li>Program attendance</li> </ul>	unrelated to attitudes	<ul> <li>Perceptions were</li> </ul>	generally unrelated to	withdrawing from the	selection process	<ul> <li>Perceptions were most</li> </ul>	positive for those	subsequently selected by	the organization and least	positive for those who	failed the paper-and-	pencil test	<ul> <li>African-Americans had</li> </ul>
Test performance											Test performance,	withdrawal from	selection process									
Test-taking self-efficacy	(1), personality	measures, test	preparation	program	attendance						Perceptions of	organization,	doj	commitment,	doj	expectations,	employment	status, need to	relocate, social	influence		
Firefighter	armord du										Questionnaire Police officer	applicants										
Pre-test (1)	(=) 1001 100										Questionnaire	at time of	application;	interview	with those	withdrawing						
Ability exam											Cognitive	ability/biodata	test; writing	sample; panel	interview							
Motivation (2),	(2) fraccin										Predictive	validity,	fairness,	selection	information,	interpersonal	treatment,	perceptions of	interview,	perceptions of	cognitive ability	
Ryan, Plovhart	Greguras,	& Schmit	(1998)								Ryan, Sacco, Predictive	McFarland,	& Kriska	(2000)								

Table 1 Continued

Study	Perceptions	Selection Procedure	Timing of Measurement	Type of Participant	Determinants Examined	Outcomes Examined	Key Findings
Ryan &	Perceptions of	Overt integrity	Post-test	Students	Test	Organization	• Test was seen as an
Sackett (1987)	integrity tests	test			performance,	ımage	appropriate management
(10(1)					180		No evidence of negative
							impressions of
							organizations using
							integrity tests
Rynes &	General	Scenarios:	Post-scenario Students	Students	Job search self-	1	<ul> <li>Reacted more positively</li> </ul>
Connerley	reaction, beliefs	Generic			efficacy,		to simulation-based
(1993)	about	interview,			background		interviews, written
	employer's	cognitive			variables		simulation and business-
	ability to	ability,					related test
	accurately	psychological					<ul> <li>Most important attitude</li> </ul>
	interpret, beliefs	assessment,					differentiater was belief in
	about whether	reference					system accuracy
	employer needs	checks,					<ul> <li>Attitudes did not vary by</li> </ul>
	information,	simulation-					background characteristics
	beliefs about	based					
	performance	interview,					
		handwriting					
		sample, written					
		simulation,					
		drug test, overt					
		integrity test,					
		business-related					
		test, personality					
		inventory					

(Continued on next page)

motivation, less anxiety, and believed more in the efficacy of tests

Those who completed an application blank with	discriminatory questions reacted less favorably						<ul> <li>Criterion-related validity was</li> </ul>	moderated by test-taking	attitudes such that ability test	validity was lower and	personality test validity was	higher for those with less	positive test-taking attitudes	<ul> <li>Negative feedback and</li> </ul>	retesting was associated with	decreased motivation	<ul> <li>Highly motivated and</li> </ul>	more anxious individuals	were less likely to	withdraw from the	selection process	<ul> <li>Caucasians had higher</li> </ul>	
Organization attractiveness,	likelihood of success, motivation	to pursue job, job	acceptance	of employees,	organization	recommendation	GPA										Test performance,	withdrawal form	the selection	process			
Inclusion of discriminatory	duestions						Negative	outcome									Race						
Students							Students										Police officer	applicants					
Post- procedure							Post-test;	post second	testing and	negative	feedback						Pre-test						
Application blank							Cognitive	ability and	personality test								Ability	examination					
Ī							Test-taking	attitude survey									Motivation,	anxiety, belief	in tests				
Saks, Leck,	Saunders (1995)						Schmit &	Ryan	(1992)								Schmit &	Ryan	(1997)				

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Table 1 Continued

Study	Perceptions	Selection Procedure	Timing of Measurement	Type of Participant	Determinants Examined	Outcomes Examined	Key Findings
Singer (1990)	Self-generated statements, 21 fairness determinants	Selection in general scenario	N/A	Undergraduates and professionals		1	• Identified the following as key determinants of fairness: consistency in following rules, two-way communication, ethicality, bias avoidance, information soliciting (voice)
Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman,	Predictive validity, face validity, perceived	Descriptions of cognitive ability battery (took 5 of 8	Post 5 tests for entry managers (1); post-test	Newly hired entry-level managers, recruiting	GPA, test performance, provision of construct	Recommendation intentions	<ul> <li>Manipulating the face validity of items did not enhance perceptions of validity</li> </ul>
& Stoffey (1993)	knowledge of results, likelihood of improvement, affect.	described) personality test, in-basket, leaderless	and post- feedback (2)	managers (1); Civil Service applicants (2)	definition, face validity of sample items (1) organizational		<ul> <li>Perceived validity did not necessarily correspond with actual validity</li> <li>Reactions are positively related to organizational</li> </ul>
	procedural justice, distributive	discussion, biodata, unstructured			attractiveness (2)		attractiveness and to recommendation intentions
	justice	interview, structured interview (had been through both kinds of interviews; 1)					High-ability applicants are not less likely to see procedures as job related

Steiner &	Process	Descriptions of	Ī	Students	Country	1	<ul> <li>Those from both countries</li> </ul>
Gilliland	favorability,	10 procedures:			(France or		gave similar evaluations of
(1996)	scientific	interviews,			U.S.)		method favorability
	evidence, face	resumes, work					<ul> <li>Face validity was strongest</li> </ul>
	validity,	sample, biodata,					correlate of process
	opportunity to	written ability					favorability in both countries
	perform,	tests, personal					<ul> <li>Procedural dimensions less</li> </ul>
	employer's	references,					predictive of fairness
	right, widely	personality tests,					reactions among French than
	used,	honesty tests,					American students
	interpersonal	personal					
	warmth,	contacts,					
	respectful of	graphology					
	privacy						
Thorsteinson	Procedural	Cognitive	Post-test and	Students	Selection ratio,	GPA—college	<ul> <li>Selection ratio had little</li> </ul>
& Ryan	fairness,	ability,	post-		hiring status,	and high school	effect on perceptions of
(1997)	distributive	personality test,	feedback		perceived		fairness
	fairness	biodata			chance of		<ul> <li>Perceptions of the fairness of</li> </ul>
		inventory			snccess		the cognitive ability test
							moderated its validity
Truxillo &	Outcome	Multiple-choice	Post some	Police entry	Race, gender,	Į	<ul> <li>Reactions to banding were</li> </ul>
Bauer	fairness, process	and writing	tests, pre	level	organizational		a function of race and
(1999)	fairness,	sample tests,	other hurdles	applicants	attractiveness,		banding's association with
	perceptions of	video test,	(1); post-test	(1,2)	test experience,		affirmative action (i.e.,
	banding	physical ability	(2); pre-test	Promotion (3)	education		those who thought it was
		test (1)	(3)				in their self-interest
		multiple-choice					viewed it more positively)
		test (2)					<ul> <li>Positive reactions to</li> </ul>
							banding were associated
							with belief that banding
							aids score interpretation
							and the procedure is
							understandable

(1), (2), and (3) refer to multiple studies within one publication.

interested reader to refer to the primary work and to consider the table in light of its purpose: to provide a very broad summary. We now turn to discussing some specific questions that are addressed via the table

# What Applicant Perceptions Have Been Studied? What Should be Studied?

The most commonly studied perceptions of applicants are perceptions of the validity or job-relatedness of the selection process, perceptions of the fairness of various aspects of the process and of the outcome of the process, and test-taking motivation. Not surprisingly, these derive directly from the seminal articles we mentioned earlier: Smither et al. (1993), Gilliland (1993), and Arvey et al. (1990). An examination of column 2 of Table 1 provides some examples of other perceptions studied. Rather than discussing each study, we offer the following general suggestions:

## Improve Perception Measurement

One major concern with the research to date on applicant perceptions is the imprecision with which the constructs assessed are defined and the variability with which they are operationalized. This concern makes summarizing research difficult, as one cannot be certain if differences in findings are due to inadequate measurement or the assessment of truly different constructs. Insufficient work has been done on the reliability and validity of measures of applicant perceptions. We state this as researchers who are guilty ourselves of "using the scale most commonly used," rather than working toward improvement. For example, the factor structure of the Test Attitude Survey (Arvey et al., 1990) may not be what the developers proposed (Schmit & Ryan, 1992). Another example would be the clarity and consistency of the referents in measures. Some items/scales are clearly related to a specific procedure or aspect of the selection process (Thorsteinson & Ryan, 1997), while other items/scales relate to the entire process (Gilliland, 1994; Ployhart, Ryan, & Bennett, 1999). Some items/scales refer to one's own outcome (Gilliland, 1994), while others refer to the fairness of outcomes in general (Truxillo & Bauer, 1999). Across studies, process or procedural fairness has been assessed with different measures (e.g., Gilliland, 1994; Macan, Avedon, Paese, & Smith, 1994; Truxillo & Bauer, 1999). Although there has been some work on scale development (e.g., Gilliland & Honig, 1994), more is needed. However, first construct definitions must be clarified. For example, interpersonal treatment sometimes refers to the personal or impersonal nature of the process whereas other times it refers to the behavior of administrators.

# Clarify How Test-Taking Attitudes Relate to Fairness Perceptions by Conducting Studies that Integrate the Two Streams of Research

A better integration of the research on test attitudes and on fairness is needed to advance understanding. Although the work of Chan and colleagues (Chan, Schmitt, Sacco, & DeShon, 1998) does some linking, this research has focused on only one or two concepts from each line of research. Thus, we do not really know

if those who are more anxious view procedures as more unfair, if those who are highly motivated have different perceptions of the fairness of a rejection decision than those with low motivation, or if general beliefs about testing are a greater determinant of perceptions of the fairness of a procedure than characteristics of the procedure and selection situation itself. Note that many test-taking attitude measures are perceptions of oneself in the selection situation (i.e., are you motivated, anxious) whereas justice related perceptions are typically about the procedure or process (i.e., is this test a fair method of hiring). One would expect these two types of perceptions to relate. Indeed, Chan et al. (1997) demonstrated that the effects of face validity (a procedural justice perception) on test performance are fully mediated by motivation. However, Ryan and Chan (1999a) did not find attitudes of licensure candidates (e.g., motivation, anxiety) to add to the prediction of post-feedback process fairness above and beyond pre-feedback process fairness and justice rules.

In general, applicant perceptions research lacks a nominological net—we do not have theoretical or empirical work that provides a broad enough picture of how these various types of perceptions might be expected to relate. (This does not imply there is no theory; as we noted earlier, the expected relations between justice related perceptions have been explicated by Gilliland, 1993.)

## Consider Measuring other Perceptions

Although understanding how an applicant's motivation or perceptions of fairness influences his or her attitudes and behavior is important, researchers may be ignoring other perceptions with important outcomes. For example, Cunningham (1989) measured "outguessing." For many noncognitive measures, issues like perceived fakability may affect applicant behavior. Perceived ease or difficulty of a selection process has been suggested as having effects (e.g., Kluger & Rothstein, 1993) but is not routinely incorporated in this line of research. Another suggestion is "procedural pain" (Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1993) or the extent to which a negative state such as embarrassment, humiliation, or stress is caused by a procedure, with the privacy of the process and outcome being important determinants of procedural pain. In selection settings where an applicant is relatively anonymous to other applicants, this may not be much of an issue; however, it may be much more important in promotion contexts or very public selection processes (e.g., civil service jobs, university administrators). Other perceptions that may have relevance are the order of testing, whether procedures are timed, the methods of scoring, and other administrative issues (Ryan, Greguras, & Ployhart, 1996).

Ryan and Greguras (1998) noted that one limitation of a focus on fairness perceptions is that it ignores the fact that preference is a different concept from fairness. That is, there is research in the educational arena to show that individuals often prefer methods such as multiple choice testing while indicating they are less valid and less fair than other methods (e.g., essay, recall) (Bridgeman, 1992; Nield & Wintre, 1986; Zeidner, 1987). To fully understand how an applicant reacts to a selection process, we need to consider perceptions other than just fairness as possible influences on behavior.

# What are the Determinants of Applicant Perceptions?

Of particular interest is what researchers have seen as the causes and correlates of various applicant perceptions. One difficulty in summarizing this portion of Table 1 is that while some studies treat certain variables as correlates or potential antecedents of perceptions of selection processes (e.g., organizational attractiveness, self-efficacy; Macan et al., 1994; Ryan, Ployhart, Greguras, & Schmit, 1998; Truxillo & Bauer, 1999), others see these same variables as potential outcomes of perceptions (e.g., Bauer, Maertz, Dolen, & Campion, 1998; Ployhart, Ryan, & Bennett, 1999). Such inferences may be appropriate when you have measurement at multiple points in time (as in Bauer et al., 1998); however, the current state of the literature indicates a lack of a clear consensus on what causes or is caused by perceptions. Also, only about half of the studies listed in Table 1 examined determinant-perception links—many researchers have not focused on what determines perceptions.

What are the key determinants of applicant perceptions? Table 1 indicates that perceptions of procedures (e.g., fairness, job-relatedness) appear to be influenced by type of procedure (both the construct assessed (i.e., cognitive ability, personality) and the method of assessment (video, paper and pencil)), self-assessed performance, type of job, information provided about the procedure, and, in some cases for some procedures, race of the applicant. A number of studies have suggested that perceptions of the fulfillment of justice rules (e.g., consistency of administration) determine perceptions of the fairness of the process, in keeping with Gilliland's model. We are reluctant to consider these as strongly supported relations in the selection context, despite their solid theoretical grounding in social justice theory, simply because few studies have actually manipulated these justice rules to see if they influence (rather than just correlate with) perceptions of the fairness of selection procedures (exceptions would be Ployhart & Ryan, 1998, which manipulated consistency of administration, and Smither et al., 1993, which manipulated face validity).

We noted earlier that there are two streams of research, and the preceding paragraph speaks only to what determines perceptions of selection procedures. Prior performance history and race (for cognitive ability tests) appear to influence test-taking attitudes. Less research has focused on determinants of test-taking attitudes, most likely because extensive literature on topics like cognitive interference with test performance (Sarason, Pierce, & Sarason, 1996) and recent work on stereotype threat (Steele & Aronson, 1995) is seen as addressing determinants.

We also note that many of these determinants may also be moderators of the link between other determinants and perceptions or between perceptions and behavior (e.g., perceptions relate to applicant behavior for unattractive but not for highly attractive organizations). For example, Gilliland (1994) found that hiring expectations influenced the relation between hiring status and fairness perceptions. Because of the lack of clarity in empirical work on the exact role of these variables and inattention to the timing of measurement, we currently have little beyond some interesting correlational findings for many variables.

Based on the findings of studies summarized in the table, we offer the following observations:

1: Whether applicants are accepted or rejected clearly influences perceptions; studies that examine perceptions absent feedback on the selection decision cannot be interpreted similarly to those measuring perceptions post-decision.

The most researched "cause" of perceptions is the outcome of the process itself. That is, whether or not one receives a favorable outcome (hired or not) is seen as a major influence. It is clear that the outcome received by an applicant can influence perceptions (e.g., Arvey et al., 1990; Bauer et al., 1998; Chan, 1997; Chan et al., 1998b; Cunningham, 1989; Ployhart & Ryan, 1997, 1998; Robertson, Iles, Gratton, & Sharpley, 1991; Ryan & Chan, 1999a; Ryan et al., 1998; Ryan, Sacco, McFarland, & Kriska, 2000), and this is consistent with basic research on justice issues (e.g., Greenberg, 1987). Yet many studies have examined reactions post-test, absent feedback. Simply studying how test scores relate to perceptions assessed pre feedback is not sufficient, as in many cases individuals do not self-assess performance well. Indeed, test scores have not always been found to relate to perceptions (e.g., Macan et al., 1994; Whitney, Diaz, Minneghino, & Powers, 1998).

Studies of post-test perceptions may be helpful—these perceptions may relate to behaviors exhibited by applicants during later stages of the process prior to the organization's decision (e.g., withdrawal behavior). However, these behaviors may not be the focal ones of interest. As Greenberg (1986) noted in discussing performance appraisal research, "researchers and theorists should not allow distributive factors to get lost in the shadow of the recent attention paid to procedural determinants of fairness." (p. 342). It seems that this has occurred to some extent in the applicant perceptions literature.

2: All procedures of the same "type" (e.g., personality tests) are not the same, nor are procedures of different types viewed consistently.

Initial research comparing perceptions of different types of procedures (e.g., Kluger & Rothstein, 1993; Kravitz, Stinson, & Chavez, 1994; Rynes & Connerley, 1993) has indicated that mean differences exist between perceptions of different types of tests (e.g., the job-relatedness of biodata and cognitive ability), but there is considerable variability in perceptions. As Ryan and Greguras (1998) noted, the face validity and fairness of specific procedures are not universally shared perceptions. Researchers have also found that although applicants may have general perceptions of a category of procedures (e.g., interviews), they also make distinctions within category. For example, Ryan, Greguras, and Ployhart (1996) noted considerable variability in reactions to different types of physical ability tests for the same job that assess the same abilities. Chan and Schmitt (1997) found differences in face validity perceptions for video and paper-and-pencil versions of the same situational judgment test. Whitney et al. (1998) found differences in some perceptions of overt versus personality based integrity tests.

In studying perceptions of different procedures, there is a need to clarify what procedure characteristics give rise to perceptions (Brutus & Ryan, 1998).

For example, how does the method of assessing a construct affect perceptions (Chan & Schmitt, 1997; Ryan & Greguras, 1998; Shotland & Alliger, 1999)? Does the transparency of an assessed construct affect perceptions? Does the ease with which one can self-assess performance affect perceptions (Fredriksen & Collins, 1989)? Does the ability (or perceived ability) to prepare for a procedure affect perceptions (Ryan & Chan, 1999b)? Do physical features (e.g., how "slick" materials look, test length, room in which an interview is conducted) affect perceptions? Does the level of structure in an interview affect perceptions (e.g., Gilliland & Steiner, 1999)? Educational researchers interested in examinee perceptions (e.g., Nevo, 1992, 1995) have examined such features as the convenience of the answer sheet and the test's physical attractiveness. All of these distinctions remain to be researched in the selection context. We caution against a piecemeal approach to a study of procedure characteristics, and we advocate the development of models of antecedents that clarify expected relations. At the conclusion of this paper, we propose a heuristic model to aid in that effort.

3: Perceptions of procedures and decisions should not be studied devoid of context. In field research, context should be well described. In lab research, context should be controlled for or manipulated. We note several context variables that research indicates must be considered.

3a: The type of job for which applicants are applying, and job and organization attractiveness, appear to be influences on perceptions. The type of job has been shown to influence how a particular procedure is viewed (e.g., Kravitz et al., 1994), although this is under-researched. One would expect that judgments of job-relatedness would be influenced by the job. For example, research has shown that the acceptability of drug testing as a selection tool is influenced by job characteristics (Murphy, Thornton, & Prue, 1991; Murphy, Thornton, & Reynolds, 1990). In developing models of antecedents of perceptions, we need to specify what specific job characteristics are expected to influence perceptions. For example, does the degree of social interaction required in a job affect perceptions regarding the use of personality tests? Does the technology level of the job influence perceptions of computerized testing?

Although there has been little research on attractiveness as an antecedent or correlate of reactions, it seems that one might see a more attractive organization as having better selection processes. For example, McCulloch and Turban (1997) found that those who had concerns about a life insurance sales job viewed integrity tests more negatively than those without such concerns. It may be that cognitive dissonance leads one to alter procedure perceptions to be in line with job desirability perceptions (i.e., this is a high paying job so their procedures are "thorough" rather than "invasive"). Similarly, an acceptable reason for not pursuing a job would be "their process turned me off," rather than acknowledging a lack of qualifications. Alternatively, individuals may actually view the content of selection procedures for jobs they desire more positively. Attractive organizations may be ones that have the most attractive methods of hiring.

3b: Information provided to applicants regarding a procedure (e.g., constructs assessed, reasons for use) and/or decision (e.g., explanations for rejec-

tion) can make a difference in perceptions; such information should be detailed in study descriptions. Ployhart et al. (1999) found that providing information on why an individual was accepted or rejected (e.g., due to what particular procedure in the process) influenced perceptions of process fairness. This is consistent with the literature on social accounts (Bies, 1987; Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Greenberg, 1990, 1994). However, Gilliland (1994) did not find providing an explanation to relate to fairness perceptions. In field studies, we typically are not provided with much information on how applicants were informed of the decision. Research is needed on what applicants are told and how this is perceived.

In addition to how decisions are explained, researchers should attend to what information is provided about the procedure itself. For example, are applicants told what construct is to be assessed? Have applicants been given a reason why a test is used? Horvath, Ryan, and Stierwalt (in press) found that explanations for why a procedure was used affected fairness perceptions. Crant and Bateman (1990) found that giving an explanation for why drug testing was used affected attitudes toward a company and intentions to apply. Without knowing what applicants are told about a procedure, it is difficult to assess what is driving perceptions. For example, simply being told that a measure is job related may enhance job-relatedness perceptions.

3c: Procedures may be viewed differently depending upon what else is part of the process. Rosse, Miller, and Stecher (1994) demonstrated that perceptions of a personality test were influenced by what other selection procedures were used in the hiring process. Ryan et al. (1996) found opinions on the order of test administration to relate to fairness perceptions. They also suggested that applicants might prefer compensatory selection processes, where they participate in all selection procedures, to multiple hurdle processes, where individuals are excluded at each step. Unless organizations are using a procedure in isolation, studying it in isolation does not make sense. If a procedure is hardly ever used as an initial screening hurdle, treating it as such in a research study is inappropriate. It is important that we consider how inclusion/exclusion of procedures, order of procedures, and the compensatory/noncompensatory nature of the process might influence applicant perceptions.

3d: Organizational context may influence perceptions. Arvey and Sackett (1993) noted that context will influence applicant reactions, yet this has not been systematically examined in the literature. For example, they suggest that organizational history, selection ratio, and organizational resources may influence fairness perceptions. However, Thorsteinson and Ryan (1997) did not find selection ratio to relate to fairness perceptions. Researchers using civil service samples (e.g., Ryan et al., 1998; Ryan et al., 2000; Schmit & Ryan, 1997; Truxillo & Bauer, 1999) note that the public nature of testing, presence of strong affirmative action efforts, and histories of discrimination appear to influence perceptions of selection processes. Given that studies of applicant perceptions have not been multiorganizational, it may take an accumulation of research in different contexts before any conclusions regarding organizational context influence can be made.

However, ignoring the role of these variables in discussions of perceptions is misleading.

3e: Reactions to promotion processes and decisions may be very different from those for organizational entry positions. Research has indicated that identification with the organization may play a key role in how one interprets the fairness of a process (Brockner, Tyler, & Cooper-Schneider, 1992; Huo, Smith, Tyler, & Lind, 1996; Tyler & Degoey, 1995). Reactions to promotional procedures deal with individuals who are members of the organization. Thus, we might expect different mechanisms underlying attitude formation. Truxillo and Bauer (1999) found racial differences in perceptions of banding in a promotion sample, but not among entry-level applicants. They suggest that individuals within the organization may be in possession of different information regarding procedures and procedure use.

A few studies have examined perceptions of incumbents in comparison to those of applicants and have found differences, with applicants typically exhibiting more positive perceptions (e.g., Arvey et al., 1990; Brutus & Ryan, 1998). One concern this highlights is that regardless of anonymity assurances, applicant reports of perceptions may be influenced by socially desirable responding. Alternatively, because applicants often possess little information about the job (Barber, 1998), their judgments of job-relatedness and fairness may differ from those of incumbents who have intimate knowledge of the job. Interestingly, Smither et al. (1993) found more experienced managers to have more positive perceptions than new hires of the job-relatedness of only 2 of 14 selection procedures. Finally, applicants may, indeed, simply feel more positively. For example, studies assessing the test-taking motivation of applicants (Schmit & Ryan, 1997; Ryan et al., 1998, 2000) typically find a high mean and restricted range. This raises concerns about how studies of test-taking motivation with nonapplicant samples (e.g., Chan et al., 1997) might generalize to highly motivated applicant samples.

4: Individual differences as potential antecedents of perceptions remain largely unexplored.

Arvey et al. (1990) noted the need to assess whether test taker attitudes are more determined by individual differences or situational characteristics. They note that if the former is true, organizational interventions to affect attitudes may not have large effects. Yet, few studies have looked at individual difference correlates. Indeed, few studies have looked at subjects across multiple types of procedures. Fewer still have looked at subjects longitudinally, either across one selection process or across different job search cycles. We need such research to determine how malleable applicant perceptions are.

Applicants are likely to be drawing on their own past experiences and personal characteristics in making evaluations. Research has shown previous experience with a procedure to influence perceptions (Kravitz et al., 1994; Ryan et al., 1996). Brutus and Ryan (1998) found perceptions of the job-relatedness of various selection procedures to be related to individual differences in preferences and personality that would lead to good performance on those instruments. For example, those who preferred to work alone or had conflictual relations with

positive perceptions of distributive justice, potentially because they have been socialized to be more accommodative (Boldizar, Perry, & Perry, 1988; Major & Deaux, 1982). Yet, potential gender differences in distributive justice perceptions in selection contexts remain unexplored.

6: Social information has been neglected as an influence on perceptions.

Research suggests that individuals rely on cues from others when making fairness assessments (Ambrose, Harland, & Kulik, 1991; Lind & Tyler, 1988). However, the applicant perceptions literature has not really examined how the opinions of others influence perceptions of an organization's selection process (one exception is Bazerman, Schroth, Shah, Diekmann, & Tenbrunsel, 1994). Such comparisons have been the basis of much equity theory research on outcome fairness. It may be that applicants change perceptions once they have a chance to gather some comparison information from friends and family about whether the procedure they experienced was fair or unfair in the eyes of others.

# What are the Consequences of Perceptions (i.e., To What Outcomes Have They Been Linked)? What Moderates These Relations?

Column 7 of Table 1 indicates the major dependent variables in applicant perceptions research. Perceptions have been linked to test performance in that studies have shown that test-taking attitudes both influence and are influenced by test performance. Thus, in a given situation an applicant's motivation is likely linked to previous outcomes on similar devices and also influences how he or she performs in the current situation (Chan et al., 1997). Perceptions of procedures may influence organizational attractiveness (e.g., Bauer et al., 1998). Research has also shown correlations between perceptions of procedures (e.g., job-relatedness, fairness) and intentions to accept a job and recommend an organization.

Researchers have demonstrated that perceptions of a procedure influence self-perceptions after a selection or rejection decision. Ployhart and Ryan (1997) indicated that there are process × outcome interactions, such that a combination of fair procedures and positive outcomes can have positive effects on self-perceptions. However, being hired under unfair procedures can actually have negative effects on self-perceptions. A different effect occurs for rejected applicants. There is some evidence that being rejected by a fair procedure leads to lowered self-perceptions.

In terms of links between perceptions and applicant behavior, Ryan et al. (2000) showed no connection between perceptions of the process and applicant decisions to drop out of the process. No studies have examined the links between perceptions and actual offer acceptance. Gilliland (1994) showed that job-relatedness perceptions influenced subsequent job performance.

Some key themes emerge after examining this research question:

7: Aside from test performance, few studies assess actual behavior. Researchers have not demonstrated that applicant perceptions "matter."

Because most studies do not assess actual behaviors of applicants (such as do they accept offers, do they self-select out), we may be overestimating the influ-

others did not see an interpersonal skills test as job-related. Researchers have suggested that those with high negative affectivity might have lower perceptions of process and outcome fairness (Ball et al., 1993). However, Greguras and Ryan (1997) did not find perceptions of tests to be related to negative affectivity. We would also suggest openness to experience might affect perceptions of more novel procedures and processes. Three decades ago (Fiske, 1967), it was noted that personality might be a source of variance in reactions to tests: it is time to better explore that possibility in organizational contexts. At the very least, the role of one's evaluative history (i.e., how well one has done on similar procedures in the past ) should be assessed.

5: Racial differences in perceptions are sometimes found; appropriate descriptions of context are needed to develop a greater understanding of when they will occur.

The work of Chan and colleagues (Chan et al., 1997, 1998a, 1998b) clearly indicates that racial differences in perceptions of cognitive ability tests may explain and/or be explained by race differences in test performance. However, race differences have not been found in perceptions of personality tests (Chan, 1997) and have been found to be less for certain methods of testing (Chan & Schmitt, 1997). Thus, test type and test format appear to interact with race in the formation of perceptions. Ryan and Greguras (1998) noted that although there is an implicit assumption that minority applicants view performance assessments more favorably than multiple-choice testing, there has not been much research on this point that avoids a confound of test content and format. Because the research on test characteristics that influence perceptions is limited as we noted above, we feel that interactions of test characteristics and race would be a fruitful area of investigation.

Further, whether racial differences in perceptions are present in real-world settings is likely highly influenced by context. In several studies (Ryan, Ployhart, Greguras, & Schmit, 1997; Schmit & Ryan, 1997), African-Americans had more favorable views than whites of the fairness of an ability test in contexts where there were strong affirmative action programs and minorities in visible leadership positions within the organization. In a law enforcement organization with poor relations with the minority community, Ryan et al. (2000) found that African-Americans had more negative perceptions of all aspects of the process (written test, oral boards), although effects were quite small. Similarly, Lemons and Danehower (1997), in a study of perceptions of promotion decisions, found that perceptions of distributive justice increased as the number of female role models in the organization increased, and decreased as departmental segregation increased.

We noted in our opening paragraph that concerns about racial differences in perceptions and the potential effects of these on minority recruiting are a driving force behind applicant perceptions research. At the same time, we find a need for considerably more research if we are to understand when and why these differences might occur. We also note that gender differences have not been systematically examined. There is some research that indicates women tend to have more

ence of applicant perceptions. Granted, many studies do assess intentions, but potential moderators of intention-behavior links are not considered. Also, Macan et al. (1994) pointed out that job and organizational attractiveness had stronger influences on behavior than applicant perceptions of the selection process. Studies that do not measure and consider these correlates of perceptions might inappropriately infer that perceptions of procedures have a larger influence on behavior than they do.

One problem with the behavioral variable most assessed, test performance, is that studies assume a causal order that is seldom demonstrated. That is, do perceptions influence performance or does previous test performance (which would be correlated with current test performance) influence perceptions? Chan et al. (1997) demonstrated that test-taking motivation did affect performance after controlling for prior performance. However, this issue remains unexamined with other types of applicant perceptions (e.g., fairness) and procedures other than cognitive ability tests.

Applicant self-selection out of a hiring process has not been found to be linked to perceptions of the process (Ryan et al., 2000; Ryan & McFarland, 1997a; Ryan et al., 1997; Schmit & Ryan, 1997), despite the suggestion of a relation by many researchers. Schmit and Ryan (1997) suggested that process unfairness may lead to withdrawal behavior for only a small percentage of applicants (i.e., less than 10%); studies examining retrospective reasons for withdrawal gathered via interviews have supported that contention (Ryan & McFarland, 1997a; Ryan et al., 1997; Ryan et al., 2000). Rather than assuming strong perception-behavior relations, we should pursue why some individuals act on negative perceptions but many do not. Also, we need to examine whether these individuals are ones the organization considers desirable applicants.

Given the lack of attention to actual behavior, one may question the value of any of the research we have reviewed. We feel this research does contribute to our understanding of what influences perceptions, how perceptions change over the course of the selection process, and whether justice theory propositions are applicable to the selection context. However, unless greater attention is given to behavioral outcomes, we feel the research will be dismissed as practically irrelevant.

8: Only about 10% of studies include pre-test measures. Some "outcome" variables may also serve as antecedents (e.g., general attitudes toward test fairness, test-taking self-efficacy (Bauer et al., 1998)).

Without assessing attitudinal measures (e.g., organizational attractiveness) and intentions prior to participating in the selection process, one is hard pressed to be able to definitively attribute a causal order. That is, applicant perceptions of the selection procedure may cause intentions and attitudes, or these intentions and attitudes may lead one to hold certain perceptions of the procedure. For example, as we noted earlier, one may view an organization as attractive and this can cause one to see the selection process in a more favorable light. Powell (1991) noted that research on self-fulfilling prophecies in applicants' decisions about jobs is necessary. Rynes (1991) stated that applicant perceptions and behavior are likely to

be influenced by different determinants at different points in the process; thus, time of measurement is an important concern. Researchers need to move away from post-test designs to designs that incorporate pre- and post-measures when possible.

9: Self-perceptions appear to be influenced by perceptions of selection procedures (Gilliland, 1994; Ployhart & Ryan, 1997; Ployhart et al., 1999), but may also influence them.

The literature on preferential selection provides some insights regarding effects of selection processes on self-perceptions. Being hired preferentially leads to lowered self-perceptions of competence and lowered task performance (Heilman et al., 1987, 1990; Heilman, Rivero, & Brett, 1991), but such effects seem to occur for women and not for men. The implication is that benefiting from an "unfair procedure" is viewed differently by different groups. Heilman proposes that this is due to initial self-perceptions being more negative for women. The implication for applicant perceptions research in general is that an applicant's initial self-view may affect perceptions and perception-outcome links. Thus, it is important to understand the role of self-perceptions as an antecedent and not just a consequence of applicant perceptions of procedures.

10: There is some suggestion that perceptions may moderate the validity of selection procedures.

Arvey et al. (1990) suggested that test-taking attitudes might affect the validity of a test and there has been some support for this in lab (e.g., Schmit & Ryan, 1992; Thorsteinson & Ryan, 1997) and field studies (Barbera, Ryan, Desmarais & Dyer, 1995; Ryan & McFarland, 1997b). Individuals who perceive a selection tool as low in predictive validity or unfair may know that they "test poorly" and that the test is not predictive for them. These studies have generally found small effects; however, small changes in validity can be practically meaningful.

11: Research on potential moderators of perception-outcome links has been limited.

Applicant perceptions research typically considers the direct effects of perceptions on various attitudes, intentions, self-perceptions, and behaviors. Given the complexity of real-world selection settings, it is likely that moderators exist. Further, theories such as justice theory and behavior intention models predict a number of such interactions. For example, Ployhart and Maynard (1999) found that complex interactions exist between job-relatedness, the hiring decision, job desirability, and selection ratio for predicting organizational attitudes and job choice. This suggests that the applicant perception—behavior link might be conditional on job desirability or the amount of competition for the job. For example, fairness—behavior relations might be stronger when the job is highly desirable (perhaps because of good pay, a desirable location, or excellent benefits), the applicant already has an acceptable job or lacks desirable alternatives, or the economy is strong. Indeed, Gilliland (1993) proposed the expectation of being hired to be a key moderator in his justice model.

Bazerman et al. (1994) suggested that the availability of alternative offers would affect the role procedural justice information plays in making a decision about offer acceptance. In a study of interviewer characteristics, Liden and Parsons (1986) found alternative opportunities moderated the relation between affective reactions and job acceptance intentions. Bazerman et al. (1994) noted that when people are questioned about their feelings concerning a single procedure they report being far more concerned about fairness than when asked about their choice among several procedures. Much of the research on applicant perceptions focuses on a single situation (i.e., the fairness of this process for this position). We need to examine the role of perceptions in determining behavior of applicants who have multiple options available.

Another potential moderator of the perception—outcome link is social support. Justice research on revenge indicates that social support plays a key role in allowing individuals to vent about an injustice and may lead to ruminating on the injustice to the point of taking action (Bies & Tripp, 1998; Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997). Whether applicants act on negative perceptions may be dependent upon the opinions and urgings of others.

In sum, there has not been a lot of exploration of potential perception—behavior moderators. Exploration of moderators needs to occur within true experimental designs. To adequately develop a framework of potential moderators, we suggest researchers do not "reinvent the wheel" by ignoring the large literature on recruitment and choice, which provides guidance on what influences applicant behavior.

# What Theoretical Frameworks Have Been Presented? How Well Have They Been Applied? What Other Theoretical Viewpoints Need Consideration?

The predominant theoretical framework that has been applied to studying applicant perceptions is a social justice framework. Although Gilliland's model (Gilliland, 1993) is well received by researchers, little empirical work has focused on specifically testing the propositions of the model (for exceptions see Bauer et al., 1998; Gilliland, 1994; Ployhart & Ryan, 1998; Ryan & Chan, 1999b). Many researchers do not measure or manipulate the procedural or distributive justice rules or their antecedents. For example, Gilliland (1993) presented specific propositions about which procedural justice rules should be influenced by test type, which will be influenced by human resource policy, and which will be influenced by the behavior of HR personnel. He also proposed that justice rule perceptions will explain most of the variance in perceptions of process fairness and provided several propositions regarding rule weighting and rule salience. Yet, these propositions remain largely untested. For example, Ryan and Chan (1999b) found only one rule—job-relatedness—had effects on fairness perceptions of a licensure examination, and it was the only one for which respondents had negative perceptions. Thus, in terms of "what leads to fairness perceptions," theory has largely been unapplied in applicant perceptions research.

The other side of Gilliland's model is the connection of fairness perceptions to individual and organizational outcomes. Here, we note a greater research focus (e.g., Ployhart & Ryan, 1997), but shortcomings as well (i.e., studies have not assessed actual behaviors subsequent to participating in the process itself). For example, Gilliland (1993) proposed that perceptions of underpayment inequity that result from not receiving a job when it is expected will result first in anger and, then, in organizational and self devaluing. No one has examined a sequential set of applicant reactions to a hiring decision. In sum, although justice theory is often invoked in this research arena, many of the propositions derived from justice theory remain untested.

Attribution theory has received some attention in the applicant perceptions literature (Arvey et al., 1990; Kluger & Rothstein, 1993; Ployhart & Ryan, 1997). In social psychology, causal attributions are considered to be a critical component of social perception (e.g., Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Weiner, 1986) and form the basis for a variety of expectations, intentions, and behaviors (Weiner, 1985, 1986). Thus, to what an applicant ascribes the cause of a selection or rejection decision is likely to be a very strong influence on his or her future behavior. Ployhart and Ryan (1997) found that individuals who were selected reported the selection decision to be caused by more internal, stable, and controllable factors (and those who were rejected reported external, unstable, and uncontrollable causes). This is consistent with social psychology's definition of the self-serving bias (e.g., Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Interestingly, the self-serving bias was only found when the procedures were also perceived as fair. The finding of applicants exhibiting a self-serving bias in selection contexts has been found in other studies, although it has typically been operationalized and measured in ways different from those described in the attribution theory literature (e.g., Chan et al., 1999; Ployhart & Ryan, 1998; Ryan & Chan, 1999b). What are perceived as fair are procedures and outcomes that are favorable for the applicant.

Research seems to support the existence of an applicant self-serving bias, but this is just one of a number of biases suggested by attribution theory. For example, the false-consensus effect occurs when individuals judge their own behavior as being typical, and that others would perform the same behaviors in the same circumstances (when in fact they would not) (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). In applicant perceptions research, one might see the false-consensus effect when applicants who refuse to buy products from a company that did not hire them believe this is a common behavior. In addition to various attribution biases, there are also a variety of alternative attribution theories that have not been explored in applicant reactions research. Fiske and Taylor (1991) provide a nice summary of these various approaches.

We suggest the following theoretical considerations in future research:

Better Testing of Gilliland's Model, and Social Justice Theory Propositions in General

We noted above the limited testing of Gilliland's model in that few studies have systematically manipulated justice rules. We also need to be concerned with how justice theory applies to a selection setting. A selection context differs from

other arenas of organizational justice that researchers have investigated because of the lack of a relation between the applicant and organization. Tyler and Dawes (1993) stated that in situations without strong social bonds, people will be egoistical. We noted above the self-serving bias finding in the applicant perceptions literature. Further, researchers have not found the types of process by outcome interactions found in other justice research. Brockner and Wiesenfeld (1996) indicated that procedures matter most when outcomes are unfair or undesirable, yet Ployhart and Ryan (1997) indicated that procedures matter most when outcomes are seen as fair. Ployhart and Ryan noted that this is partly a function of the types of intentions one examines and also perhaps a function of the fact that applicants often have alternative offers they can pursue when rejected. Rather than expecting findings similar to those in other organizational justice areas (e.g., performance appraisal, layoffs), basic social justice theory would predict potentially different findings in a selection context because of the nature of the applicant/organization relationship (i.e., one-shot, limited scope). Of course, those who are accepted by an organization and accept the offer do then commence an ongoing relationship. Justice theory might make different predictions about this group than about other applicant groups.

Also, some aspects of basic theory have been neglected in the applicant perceptions area. For example, Adams' equity theory formulation (Adams, 1965) predicts that the reaction to inequity will be proportional to the magnitude of the inequity, and research has supported this (e.g., Greenberg, 1988). In a selection setting, we need to think about what the likely reaction of an applicant would be if he or she were given an inequitable outcome (i.e., what is the magnitude of the inequity for the applicant). For example, perhaps the reaction is stronger if it is a highly desirable job (e.g., high-paying or high-status) than if one feels an unfair rejection occurred for a low level, generic job.

### Consider Other Theoretical Formulations and Models

Our understanding of the nature and consequences of applicant perceptions would be enhanced by looking outside the justice literature. As we noted in the section on types of perceptions that have been studied, fairness is but one type of perception an applicant might hold. Frameworks other than justice theory may prove valuable in exploring a wider range of applicant perceptions. However, we note that other existing frameworks (e.g., Arvey & Sackett, 1993) do not provide much understanding of the processes' underlying perception formation or perception—outcome links.

Basic research on attitude formation, measurement, and effects is particularly relevant to applicant perceptions research. As noted earlier, the second predominant stream of research focuses on test-taking attitudes and motivation (e.g., Arvey et al., 1990; work of Chan and colleagues). Research on test-taking attitudes has not been well-grounded theoretically (e.g., test-taking motivation is not well tied to leading theories of motivation such as expectancy theory; self-efficacy is not considered in light of research on how self-efficacy perceptions are formed (Gist & Mitchell, 1992)). Indeed, although this research is on test-taking attitudes, little connection is made to basic attitude research and theory.

One interesting concept is attitude strength. Krosnick and Petty (1995) reviewed the attitude strength literature and suggested it has two components: durability (or stability) and impactfulness (how much the attitude influences other processes). Thus, more durable and impactful attitudes have a stronger influence on behaviors than attitudes lacking these qualities. One can borrow the durability and impactfulness conceptualizations to examine fairness perceptions, test-taking attitudes, and a variety of other applicant perceptions. For example, if test-taking motivation is easily changed (i.e., lacks durability), it may not be strongly held and may not have a consistent relation with applicant behavior.

Another example of attitude research that may be relevant is that on behavioral intention models (e.g., Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen & Madden, 1986; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). This research suggests intentions are determined by beliefs, attitudes, subjective norms, and perceptions of control (e.g., Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Such intention models might also serve to supplement justice models or be more formally integrated with them to better understand how applicant perceptions connect to applicant behavior. As we noted earlier, social information (such as subjective norms) is not examined well in this research. Perceptions of control are also unexplored, yet they have been suggested as key influences on applicant views of the selection process (Schuler, 1993).

Research on cognitive consistency theories (e.g., cognitive dissonance, balance theory) might also be used to understand reactions to selection decisions (see Abelson et al., 1968; Heider, 1958, for classic examples; and Fiske & Taylor, 1991, for a more recent treatment). Cognitive dissonance suggests that, when there are inconsistencies between a person's behavior and attitudes, the discrepancy will create dissonance and thus motivate the person to reduce the discrepancy. The most typical form of discrepancy reduction is to change one's attitudes to be aligned with the behavior (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). For example, if an applicant applies for a desirable job but then learns the organization uses a selection process he or she is unlikely to do well on, the individual may withdraw from the process and change his or her perceptions of the organization to less favorable ones. One very important feature of cognitive consistency theories is the notion of selective perception. Selective perception suggests that individuals will only attend to information that supports their existing attitudes. For example, if an applicant already holds negative attitudes toward a selection process (e.g., feels cognitive ability tests are unfair), he or she may be highly sensitive to minor justice rule violations (e.g., see a by-the-book test administrator as poor interpersonal treatment).

### **New Directions**

Figure 1 provides a heuristic model of what we see as the key antecedents, outcomes, and perceptions to be studied, as well as a number of suggested moderators. We borrow from Gilliland's justice model (Gilliland, 1993) and Brutus and Ryan's model of determinants of perceived job-relatedness (Brutus & Ryan, 1998). One contribution of this heuristic is the categorizing of types of applicant perceptions into perceptions of the procedure/process (e.g., justice rule

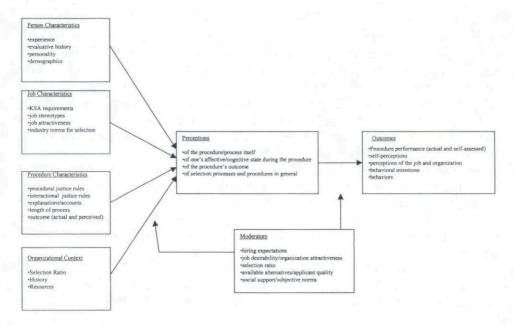


Figure 1. Heuristic Model

violations, fairness, ease), of one's affective and cognitive state during the procedure (e.g., motivation, anxiety), of the procedure's outcome (e.g., distributive fairness), and of selection processes and procedures in general (e.g., belief in tests, views on affirmative action, preferences for evaluation methods). We feel that more systematic research on the various determinants and outcomes in this model would move this area of research forward greatly.

In addition to the specific research ideas mentioned throughout the paper, there are several other issues applicant perceptions researchers need to address. First, we need to consider the stability of various perceptions across the course of a selection process. Researchers have noted changes in perceptions from pre- to post-test (e.g., Chan et al., 1998b) and from post-test to post-outcome (e.g., Ployhart & Ryan, 1998). More distal assessments (e.g., months post-outcome) may differ as well, as individuals "get on with their lives" or experience alternative procedures with other employers as part of their job search. We reiterate the importance of considering time of measurement in evaluating study generalizability, given what we know to be the natural sequence of events in employee selection.

Second, perhaps there are nonlinear relations between perceptions and behaviors. For example, applicants might not pursue legal action until there is some "breaking point" in terms of what they see as discriminatory behavior. Gilliland, Benson, and Schepers (1998) showed that when one has to make a *decision about taking action* based on considerations of fairness, if more than three justice rule violations have occurred, any non-violations are not considered. When making *judgments* of fairness, justice violations and nonviolations are equally important.

In a selection context for a decision about accepting a job offer, it may be that greater weight is given to what is wrong in the process (e.g., the receptionist was rude when she gave me the test) than to what is right. Further, Gilliland (1995) noted that some procedural justice rules are more salient in their violation while others are more salient in their satisfaction, suggesting potentially complex relations with behaviors. Future research directed at understanding how violations and nonviolations combine to influence decisions is needed.

Third, a multiple stakeholder perspective might be helpful. There are others besides applicants who are stakeholders in the selection process, and their perceptions may influence key organizational outcomes. For example, we know little about incumbent managers' perceptions of hiring processes (e.g., Smither et al., 1993). These perceptions might influence important outcomes, such as willingness to use a selection procedure (or to use it as intended) or views and acceptance of new hires. Another group of stakeholders are those in HR with responsibility for administering and evaluating procedures. For example, if a test administrator views a procedure negatively, he or she may adhere less strictly to protocol and be more willing to "assist" applicants on a procedure. Recruiters with negative perceptions of structured interview questions might skip what they see as irrelevant.

Fourth, prominent applicant perceptions researchers such as Chan and Ployhart have repeatedly called for more experimental research (Chan et al., 1998b; Ployhart & Ryan, 1998), even if such research is lab based with student populations. This may seem counter to a need to study actual applicants and actual behaviors. For example, college students are more experienced and comfortable with being tested than those with lower levels of education or who are long removed from the educational system (Ryan & Greguras, 1998). However, these researchers point out some major concerns. First, we cannot assess the effects of a particular justice rule (such as job-relatedness), what leads to a rule being seen as violated, how individual and situational characteristics affect rule salience, etc., unless we conduct research where that rule is systematically manipulated. Such manipulations are less likely to be possible in field settings, where treating one group of applicants differently from another can be seen as unethical or even illegal. Second, we cannot develop a good theoretical understanding of how and why perceptions have effects on personal and organizational outcomes unless we conduct experimental research that enables us to isolate mediators and moderators. Measuring or manipulating these is also less likely in a field setting.

Fifth, Rynes (1993) noted that to identify applicant likes and dislikes, intensive qualitative research should precede surveying. This has not been the case in the applicant perceptions research arena (exceptions include Gilliland, 1995; Ployhart, McFarland, & Ryan, 1998). Rynes noted that doing as she suggested would "avoid the opposing dangers of either prematurely settling on one potentially deficient model, such as justice or expectancy theory, or contribution to underlying process obfuscation via proliferation of seemingly different, but actually similar, constructs" (Rynes, 1993: 252). We feel it is not too late for researchers in this area to heed her warning and backtrack to do intensive

qualitative research (e.g., verbal protocol analysis) of applicant perceptions of procedures to formulate a more meaningful framework for this research.

### Conclusions

What should an organization do about its selection process based on this literature? We would not advocate that organizations remove valid procedures because of suspected negative reactions. At this stage, we do not have enough evidence that negative perceptions of applicants actually have negative effects (i.e., relate to turning down jobs, badmouthing the organization). Also, given the many potential determinants and moderators of perceptions, generalizations from reported research on a "similar" method may not be prudent. However, the literature on applicant perceptions, as well as the more basic literature on social justice, provides some clear "good ideas" that seem unlikely to harm and likely to help both organizations and individuals.

- 1. Recognize that Test-Taking Attitudes Influence Performance in the Selection Process. Chan and colleagues have demonstrated that test-taking motivation can influence performance. Employers may protest that it is not their role to motivate applicants and that they do not want to hire "unmotivated" employees. However, test-taking motivation is not necessarily an indicator of motivation to do a job—it may be influenced by an individual's experiences with a particular type of test. Employers can look at whether their particular selection process demotivates applicants (e.g., is it too lengthy) or unduly raises anxiety (e.g., nature of instructions).
- 2. Provide Explanations that Give Information and are Delivered in an Interpersonally Sensitive Manner (Greenberg, 1990, 1994). However, as noted by several researchers (e.g., Bies, 1987; Ployhart et al., 1999), using social accounts to "manage" a situation can lead to distortion of the truth or inappropriate rationalizations. For example, an organization could argue that a procedure with high adverse impact was necessary to maintain a competitive advantage. While this might be true, giving such an explanation does not address the issue of what an organization might do to reduce adverse impact. We note that the research on social accounts has typically focused on cases where there are ongoing relationships between the explanation provider and recipient (Bies, 1987; Bies & Sitkin, 1992). It is unclear how this then applies to a selection context, where the interaction between the applicant and the organization may be a single-time encounter, with no ongoing relationship. We also lack descriptive research on what types of explanations or accounts are currently used in selection contexts or what strategies organizations use in informing applicants of rejection. Our suspicion is that most organizations use a "there were many more qualified applicants than openings" boilerplate statement when explaining a rejection decision.
- 3. Regularly Monitor Applicant Perceptions. When approached about research, a number of organizational contacts have told us they do not want to ask about things like the fairness of their selection process for fear that it "will plant seeds in applicants' minds." The idea of a priming effect is not without scientific merit (Feldman & Lynch, 1988). However, asking incumbents or students for

their perceptions does not appear to be a sufficient surrogate for asking actual applicants. Regular monitoring of perceptions can alert an organization to shifts in the quality of selection process administration as well (e.g., pinpointing uninformative interviewers, noting delays in the process).

- 4. Assess Perception—Behavior Links. Laboratory research can only go so far in assessing the types of behavior of interest (e.g., job offer acceptance). Such links need to be examined in order for researchers to confidently assert that "applicant perceptions matter." In particular, we note that there is not as yet solid evidence that desirable applicants turn down job offers because of their views of the selection process.
- 5. Recognize that Selection Involves Evaluation. As Fiske (1967) noted, reactions to tests are not just reactions to the procedure itself, but are reactions to being evaluated. Regardless of what changes are made to tools used in decision-making, selection is an evaluative process. The real issue is not the total elimination of negative perceptions, but an understanding of whether those who hold negative perceptions are desirable applicants and, if so, how to make certain those perceptions do not affect important behaviors (e.g., accepting job offers). There is much organizations can do to improve applicant perceptions, but such undertakings must not supplant the use of reliable and valid predictors, nor can they erase the fact that, in selection, some people will be unhappy with the negative outcomes they receive.

Applicant perceptions of selection procedures have generated considerable research and applied interest. However, we come to a pessimistic conclusion regarding whether perceptions really matter, as there has been insufficient empirical demonstration of links to behaviors or distal attitudes and self-perceptions. We do feel that this remains an open question and hope that clearer demonstrations of value occur soon. As the area of research matures, a more theoretical and integrated approach is needed. We hope this review can serve as a starting point for that integration.

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