ELSEVIER

# The influence of ethnic identity on perceptions of organizational recruitment

## Sandra S. Kim and Michele J. Gelfand*

*Department of Psychology, University of Maryland at College Park, College Park, MD 20742, USA*

Received 3 May 2001

## Abstract

This study adapts an information processing perspective and incorporates the construct of ethnic identity (Phinney, 1990) into research on perceptions of one method of organizational recruitment, the use of recruitment brochures. Based on theory in developmental and cross-cultural psychology, we posited ethnic identity moderates the impact of recruitment brochures on recruitment outcomes (i.e., inferences about the organization and job pursuit intentions). Quantitative and qualitative data provided moderate support for this proposition. Regardless of race, individuals with higher levels of ethnic identity made more positive socio-emotional inferences about the nature of work life in an organization (i.e., the organization's treatment of employees and the relationships among employees) and had greater job pursuit intentions when recruited with a brochure that contained a diversity initiative than when recruited with a brochure without a diversity initiative.
© 2003 Elsevier Science (USA). All rights reserved.

## 1. Introduction

Given the increasing diversity of the labor force, attracting and retaining excellent employees from different ethnic groups is an ''inevitability-of-diversity'' issue (Cox & Blake, 1991). As Thomas (1990) argued, any organization that is able to ''achieve the same productivity, commitment, quality, and profit from the new heterogeneous work force as from the old homogeneous one… without creating artificial standards, without compromising competence, and without demanding conformity will be able

---

* Corresponding author. Fax: 1-301-314-9566.
*E-mail addresses:* skim@psyc.umd.edu (S.S. Kim), mgelfand@psyc.umd.edu (M.J. Gelfand).

to make its business more competitive in the marketplace'' (p. 112). Thus, in addition to legal and ethical responsibilities of organizations to recruit an ethnically diverse workforce, recruiting for diversity is, in fact, a good business strategy for organizations that are able to recognize it as such (Hall & Parker, 1993).

Yet despite the need for understanding the role of race and ethnicity in recruiting and retaining employees, the knowledge base for these issues is limited (Cox, 1990). As Cox and Nkomo (1990) asserted, ''the amount of total research on race in organizations has been small relative to the importance of the topic'' (p. 419). Furthermore, research that does exist often treats race as a categorical variable, failing to illuminate how and why issues related to race or ethnicity affect organizations (Helms & Piper, 1994). In other words, research often mistakenly treats *all* racial and ethnic group members as similar (i.e., as part of the same category) when there can be great variation in the degree to which individuals use such categories in their self-definition (Phinney, 1990). Not surprisingly, research on race has been plagued with inconclusive results; some research illustrates that race is a significant predictor of attitudes and performance in organizations (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989), and other research has found just the opposite (Kirchmeyer, 1995; Lovelace & Rosen, 1996). Indeed, in recent reviews, scholars have argued that despite its obvious importance, research on ethnicity and race in organizations lacks both good theory and good data, necessitating new theoretical perspectives to make progress in this area (O'Reilly, Williams, & Barsade, 1998; see also Nkomo, 1992).

In this paper, we argue that the construct of ethnic identity (Phinney, 1992) offers a viable alternative to prior categorical conceptualizations of ethnicity. Ethnic identity is an important factor in explaining the psychological impact of ethnicity for individuals, and although it has received only limited attention in the study of organizational processes (Ferdman, 1995), we contend that it has much theoretical and practical relevance to the study of ethnicity and race in organizations in general, and in recruitment research in particular.

## 2. Ethnic identity

Ethnic identity (EI) has been defined as part of an individual's self-concept that derives from his or her knowledge of membership in an ethnic group, together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership (Phinney, 1992). As opposed to treating ethnicity as a categorical variable, research in this tradition rests on the assumption that ethnicity is a meaningful psychological variable only to the extent to which it is a salient and central part of the self (Phinney, 1996). As discussed by Phinney and others (Brookins, Anyabwile, & Nacoste, 1996; Parham & Helms, 1985; Phinney & Onwughalu, 1996), ethnic identity is a developmental process that begins with an unexamined ethnic identity, followed by a period of exploration of one's identity, and ultimately may culminate in an achieved, secure commitment to one's ethnic identity (Phinney & Alipuria, 1980). Thus, there is wide variability within ethnic groups on ethnic identity. Some individuals strongly define themselves in terms of their ethnicity and have a commitment to the activities and

traditions of their group; others do not identify themselves with their ethnic group, or they have confusion or conflict over their ethnic group identity (Phinney, 1996).

Importantly, research has illustrated that ethnic identity is related to a host of psychological processes (see Phinney, 1990, for a review). As part of the self-system, ethnic identity is like other cognitive structures in that it organizes and directs information processing (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). People higher on ethnic identity are much more likely to process information in the environment that has implications for their ethnicity, as compared to those lower on ethnic identity (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Ethnic identity also is related to a number of emotional and motivational processes. Higher ethnic identity has been found to be associated positively with self-esteem, optimism, a sense of mastery, as well as self-actualizing tendencies (Cross, 1978; Parham & Helms, 1985; Phinney, 1989; Phinney, 1991; Phinney & Alipuria, 1990; Phinney & Chavira, 1992; Roberts et al., 1999), and negatively to feelings of inferiority, anxiety, and depression (Parham & Helms, 1985; Roberts et al., 1999). Finally, ethnic identity is related to the way in which individuals interact with others. Individuals higher on ethnic identity have greater psychological closeness to their ethnic group (Brookins et al., 1996), hold more positive but realistic views of their group (Phinney, 1996), and enjoy interacting with other group members (Mitchell & Dell, 1992; Taylor & Howard-Hamilton, 1995).

In sum, research suggests that ethnic identity is a useful construct for understanding the impact of ethnicity on individuals. Research consistently has linked differences in ethnic identity to cognitive, motivational, and affective processes. In the present initiative, a primary contention is that the construct of ethnic identity provides a psychological approach to understanding issues of ethnicity relevant to organizations. In particular, ethnic identity is suggested to be helpful in explaining individuals' perceptions and intentions during the recruitment process.

## 3. Diversity and recruitment brochures

Recruitment has been defined as the ''practices and activities carried on by the organization with the primary purpose of identifying and attracting potential employees'' (Barber, 1998, p. 5). Although the importance of effective human resource management in general and recruitment in particular has been documented (Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995; Rynes, 1991; Welbourne & Andrews, 1996), research specific to the role of race and ethnicity in recruitment has been sparse, and when it exists, it has been largely devoid of theory (Rynes, 1991). Given the changing demographics of the workforce (Cox & Blake, 1991), this omission seems important to remedy. We offer that the construct of ethnic identity may shed some light on the processes through which individuals are attracted and willing to pursue jobs in organizations.

We focus in particular on the role that ethnic identity has on perceptions of recruitment brochures, which are important devices used to attract individuals during the early stages of the recruitment process (Herriot & Rothwell, 1981). Job seekers frequently scan such materials before making the decision to apply (Barber, 1998), and doing so can influence initial perceptions of the organization (Saks, Leck, &

Saunders, 1995), job pursuit intentions, and acceptance of job offers (Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman, & Stoffey, 1993). With the increasing diversity of the workplace, some organizations elect to include a well-defined diversity statement (as opposed to a brief and compulsory EEOC statement) in their brochures. Such statements advertise the importance that organizations place on creating an organization inclusive of all peoples and which values the diverse heritage and practices of all its employees (Williams & Bauer, 1994).

There are a number of reasons why the inclusion of diversity initiatives in recruitment brochures are likely to affect recruitment outcomes as a function individuals' ethnic identity levels. First, based on the theory discussed previously, because individuals higher on ethnic identity are schematic for ethnicity and find it central to their self-definition, they are more likely to notice and encode information about diversity initiatives in recruitment brochures since it has more relevance for their ethnicity as compared to individuals lower on ethnic identity. Second, since one's ethnic group membership is a fundamental aspect of the self, and individuals higher on ethnic identity are more highly involved in their group's customs, traditions, and practices, they are likely to find especially attractive those organizations wherein they *can express their ethnicity freely* (i.e., be authentic) and be valued for their ethnicity. Conversely, individuals with higher ethnic identity who do not perceive an organization to be inclusive and to allow for the authentic expression of their identity are likely to view the organization as less attractive. Indeed, Cox (1993) speculated that the anticipated loss of identity and cost of acting unnaturally in organizations is agonizing for highly identified ethnic group members. Therefore, organizations that send a signal that they value all ethnic groups—through a diversity initiative in their brochures—are likely to be perceived more positively by individuals higher on ethnic identity. For these reasons, we propose that individuals higher on EI are likely to perceive organizations more positively when they emphasize diversity initiatives as compared to individuals lower on EI.

## 3.1. The current study

Based on the stated literature, we examined whether ethnic identity moderates individuals' reactions to the inclusion of text on diversity initiatives in a recruitment brochure. Two outcomes were of interest in this study: individuals' inferences about unknown organizational attributes and their job pursuit intentions. First, one important aspect of the recruitment process concerns the inferences individuals make about an organization from a brochure. Signaling theory suggests that when decision-makers are faced with uncertainty and incomplete information, they use what information they have as the basis for inferences about missing information (Spence, 1973). Consistent with this perspective, Rynes (1991) suggested that recruitment activities serve as signals to applicants about unknown organizational attributes. Previous research suggests that applicants may interpret a signal positively or negatively and generalize this assessment to other aspects of the organization, in what can be thought of as a "halo" effect (Breagh, 1992; Goltz & Giannantonio, 1995; Rynes & Barber, 1990; Thorsteinson, McFarland, & Ryan, 1998).

We reasoned, therefore, that individuals higher on ethnic identity who are recruited with a brochure that includes information on the organization's diversity initiatives would be more positive about the organization, and as such, would make a number of positive inferences about the organization, including inferences not discussed in the actual brochure. Although there are innumerable inferences that could be studied, the inferences most commonly investigated in the past have included those that are *socio-emotional* (i.e., regarding the relationships among people in the organization) and those that are *task-related* (i.e., regarding the nature of the work in the organization) (Barber & Roehling, 1993; Goltz & Giannantonio, 1995; Thorsteinson et al., 1998). We reasoned that an organization with a stated diversity initiative in its brochure would appear more harmonious and inclusive, and as a result, individuals with higher ethnic identity levels would make more positive socio-emotional inferences about it. Similarly, we reasoned these individuals would make more favorable inferences about task-related issues as part of an overall halo effect. Consequently, we predicted that:

**Hypothesis 1.** Individuals' ethnic identity level moderates the effect of a brochure's diversity initiative statement (or lack thereof) on positive inferences made about the organization. Specifically, individuals with a higher level of ethnic identity make more positive inferences when recruited with a brochure that describes a diversity initiative than when recruited with a brochure without such a descriptive statement. Individuals with a lower level of ethnic identity show less of a preference.

Second, we expected that people higher on ethnic identity also would be more likely to desire to work in organizations that highlight diversity initiatives in their brochures. As discussed above, individuals higher on ethnic identity are likely to be more cognizant of ethnicity information and are likely to be attracted to work in organizations that are inclusive. Indeed, research has indicated that the degree to which individuals perceive a match between their personal values and the values of organization is an important aspect of job choice decisions (Cable & Judge, 1994; Judge & Cable, 1997). Likewise, Tom (1971) suggested that individuals choose to pursue jobs in organizations based on the similarity between the organization's image and the individual's self-concept. Accordingly, we predicted that:

**Hypothesis 2.** Individuals' ethnic identity level moderates the effect of a brochure's diversity initiative statement (or lack thereof) on intention to accept a job offer with the organization. Specifically, when recruited with a brochure that describes a diversity initiative, individuals with a higher level of ethnic identity have greater intentions to accept a job, as compared to when recruited with a brochure without such a statement. Individuals with a lower level of ethnic identity show less of a preference.

In testing the prior two hypotheses, we also examined the relation of race, defined as a purely categorical variable (i.e., Caucasians and non-Caucasian), to recruitment outcomes. Past research on diversity typically has examined either race or ethnic

identity, but not both simultaneously. The current study examined both to determine the value of ethnic identity *over and above* that of race, a pure nominal variable. Specifically, in addition to examining the interaction of ethnic identity and diversity initiatives, we examined whether race moderates the effect of a diversity initiative (or lack thereof) on recruitment outcomes. Although some research has suggested that Whites (as a whole) are less supportive of diversity initiatives than are non-Whites (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992), other research has found no difference among Whites and non-Whites in terms of acceptance of diversity initiatives (London-Vargas, 1998; Martinez, 1997; Williams & Bauer, 1994). We believe it is difficult to make predictions about the reactions of Caucasians as if it was a homogeneous entity. Caucasians have much within-group ethnic variation in the United States (e.g., Irish, Jewish, Italian, Greek, Polish), and the degree to which individuals identify with such ethnic categories is also highly variable in this group. Thus, we did not expect that race interacts with the manipulation of diversity initiatives to predict recruitment outcomes.

Finally, we examined whether the interaction of ethnic identity and recruitment condition is invariant across racial groups (i.e., the three-way interaction of ethnic identity, brochure condition, and race). We posited that the same basic psychological processes that are expected for higher ethnic identity non-Caucasians could also apply to higher ethnic identity Caucasians. In other words, we expected that higher ethnic identity individuals, regardless of race, are more attracted to organizations that highlight that they are inclusive of all ethnic groups. Indeed, in indirect support of this, Martinez (1997) did not find any interaction between ethnic identity, race and acceptance of diversity. Thus, we predicted:

**Hypothesis 3.** Race, as a categorical variable, does not moderate the effect of diversity recruitment condition on recruitment outcomes, nor does it interact with ethnic identity and diversity recruitment conditions to predict recruitment outcomes.

## 4. Method

### 4.1. Participants

Two hundred and thirty-eight students from a large Eastern university participated in this research. The participants included students from both Psychology and Business Management classes. There was no relation between major and any of the variables described below. We used college students given that colleges are a key source of managerial and professional talent for organizations (Powell & Goulet, 1996). It is estimated that approximately half of all managers and professionals with less than three years of work experience are hired through college recruitment (Rynes & Boudreau, 1986).

Of the 238 participants, 110 were men and 128 were woman. The average age of the participants was 20.1 years. There were 139 White (Caucasian) group members (with 70 in the diversity condition and 69 in the non-diversity condition) and 99

non-Caucasian members (i.e., including primarily Black, Asian, and Latinos, with a total of 49 in the diversity condition and 50 in the non-diversity condition). Given that we had small sub-samples of each racial group in the non-Caucasian grouping, we combined them to distinguish among racial groups that were Caucasian and non-Caucasians for analyses described below (see Williams & Bauer, 1994; Kossek & Zonia, 1993).

## 4.2. Experimental design and procedure

The present study used a between-subjects experimental design wherein participants were assigned randomly to one of two recruitment brochure conditions: diversity initiative or no diversity initiative. In order to enhance the realism of this study, participants were told that a local consulting firm, Hewson Evans (HE), was interested in obtaining feedback on their recruitment brochure (in actuality, HE was a fictional organization). Participants were instructed to assume that they were prospective applicants seeking employment in a management consulting firm and that they had the necessary qualifications. Having participants make such assumptions is consistent with other laboratory research on recruitment (e.g., Goltz & Giannantonio, 1995; Herriot & Rothwell, 1981; Mason & Belt, 1986; Rynes & Miller, 1983). After obtaining informed consent and giving general instructions, participants were asked to examine the Hewson Evans brochure and then were asked to fill out a questionnaire containing both quantitative and qualitative questions. After the participants completed these questions, they were told that they were done with the study and were thanked for their participation.

They then were instructed that there was one more study for them to be involved in that was unrelated to the first study. After a 5-min interval, participants were given a separate measure to assess ethnic identity. Participants were told that this was a separate study in order to avoid cueing their responses and to preclude the possibility of their learning the true nature of the study (Smith, 2000). None of the participants appeared to be suspicious about the relation between the two studies.

### 4.2.1. Recruitment brochures

The text of the brochure was constructed after an extensive review of the typical content of actual recruitment materials from management consulting firms. A brochure itself was then developed to be representative of an actual consulting firm. The brochure was written at a general level to avoid confusing participants who may not have been familiar with the management consulting industry. Moreover, since one of the purposes of this study was to assess individuals' inferences about an organization, the brochure was carefully worded in general rather than specific terms, thus permitting the development of inferences that were not explicitly addressed in the brochures.

To further enhance realism, the brochures were designed using a professional desktop publishing software program and were printed at a professional print shop. The brochure was also pilot-tested among a small sample to verify its perceived authenticity. Participants were asked if the brochure seemed similar to other brochures

of actual consulting firms. They were also asked if the content of the brochure was adequate for recruitment purposes or if more information was needed. In addition, participants were asked for feedback on the diversity initiative with regard to its content, clarity, and length. Results of the qualitative pilot study indicated that the final brochure was realistic in both content and design. Indeed, after the experiment, many participants inquired about potential employment opportunities for themselves at Hewson Evans further supporting the realism of the brochure. For example, some students asked if the researchers could arrange an internship for them at Hewson Evans. Other students asked similar questions pertaining to employment opportunities, thus indicating that many participants believed that HE was indeed an actual consulting firm.

Similar to Williams and Bauer (1994), all brochures were identical in design and text except for the diversity initiative manipulation. All brochures included sections on "About Hewson Evans," "Career Opportunities," and "Our Commitment to Clients." However, brochures in the experimental condition included a section on "Our Commitment to Diversity" that stated:

> In addition to our commitment to our clients, Hewson Evans is also deeply committed to the diversity of our workforce. To that end, we have moved aggressively to seek creative ways to ensure diversity by recruiting, promoting, and developing careers for women and ethnic group members. We value the contributions of a multi-ethnic workforce, and we have implemented programs that help teach all employees to recognize the strengths that individuals from diverse backgrounds can bring to our company. At Hewson Evans, we believe that diversity is the cornerstone of our future.

Brochures in the control condition did not include this section and instead contained a logo and the more typical statement, "Hewson Evans is an equal opportunity employer."

### 4.3. Measures

#### 4.3.1. Inferences about unknown organizational characteristics

This 16-item questionnaire assessed both socio-emotional inferences about the organization and task-related inferences about the organization. For the former, we assessed inferences regarding the *relationship between employees* (i.e., "Employees in this organization get along well with each other," "There is not much conflict in this organization," "People in this organization respect each other," and "Employees here do not work well with each other" (reverse-scored), $\alpha = .75$) as well as inferences regarding the *organization's treatment of employees* (i.e., "This organization offers many opportunities for advancement," "This company does not care about its employees" (reverse-scored), and "This company helps new employees adjust" $\alpha = .70$). For the latter, we assessed inferences regarding *the challenge of working in the organization* (i.e., "This organization is a very challenging place to work," "This organization requires employees to put forth a lot of effort," "This organization conducts meaningful work," and "The work at this organization is interesting," $\alpha = .65$) as well as inferences regarding *the organization's reputation* (i.e., "This is not a prestigious organization" (reverse-scored), "This is a reputable company," "This seems

like an honest company," "This company is a high-status organization," and "This is a secure company" $\alpha = .71$). All items were rated on scales from 1, strongly disagree to 5, strongly agree, and items were averaged for the analyses. The inclusion of these particular dimensions was based on research on commonly investigated inferences, as studied by Barber and Roehling (1993), Goltz and Giannantonio (1995), and Thorsteinson et al. (1998). Consistent with expectations, a factor analysis (principal components, varimax rotation) of these inference items revealed four factors, which accounted for 55% of the variance. As none of these dimensions were discussed explicitly in the brochure, any responses that participants made with respect to the dimensions were indeed inferences about unknown organizational characteristics.

### 4.3.2. Likelihood of accepting a job offer

In order to measure likelihood of accepting a job offer, participants were asked two questions ("I would accept a job with this company if offered one," "I would not accept a job offer from this company (reverse-scored)," on scales from 1, strongly disagree to 5, strongly agree. Responses were relatively highly correlated ($\alpha = .75$) and the two items were averaged for the analysis.

### 4.3.3. Brochure manipulation

Four items pertaining to perceptions of the organization's diversity were included at the end of the questionnaire as manipulation checks. These items included "This organization really values ethnic diversity," "The workforce at this company is diverse," "Diversity is an important issue to this organization," and "This organization cares about the diversity of its workforce," all of which were based on 1–5 scales (1, strongly disagree and 5, strongly agree). All items were intercorrelated highly ($\alpha = .95$) and thus were averaged. As expected, an ANOVA indicated significant effects of diversity condition on perceptions of how much the organization valued diversity ($F(1, 233) = 203.7$, $p < .0001$; $M_{\text{Div}} = 4.3$ versus $M_{\text{Non-Div}} = 3.0$).

### 4.3.4. Open-ended questions

In addition to the quantitative measures described previously, supplemental qualitative data were also collected via open-ended questions. The questions included: What do you think of this organization? Would you like to work here? Why or why not? What further information about Hewson Evans would you want to know?

### 4.3.5. Ethnic identity

To assess ethnic identity (EI), we used Phinney's (1992) Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM). Phinney's measurement is notable in that it has been validated empirically and has been developed for use across many diverse groups (Phinney, 1992; Phinney & Chavira, 1992). The scale has been found to be reliable (see Phinney, 1992; Roberts et al., 1999), as well as to have validity in predicting self-esteem, coping, optimism, and depression (see Phinney & Alipuria, 1990; Phinney & Chavira, 1992; Roberts et al., 1999).

This measure includes an open-ended question asking respondents to indicate the ethnic or racial group with which they identify. It also includes 12 items that assess two components. The first is ethnic identity search (i.e., "I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions and customs," "I am active in organizations or social groups that include members of my own ethnic group," "I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership," "In order to learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic group," and "I participate in cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs.") The second component concerns affirmation, belonging, and commitment to one's ethnic group (i.e., "I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means for me," "I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to," "I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group," "I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me," "I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group," "I feel a strong sense of attachment towards my own ethnic group," and "I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background.") All items were rated on scales from 1, strongly disagree to 5, strongly agree. This scale represents a continuum, ranging from a low or weak identity to a high, strong, ethnic identity (Roberts et al., 1999). A factor analysis (principal components, varimax rotation) of this measure yielded two factors—ethnic identity search, as well as affirmation, belonging, and commitment to one's ethnic group—which accounted for 57% of the variance. Since the two dimensions were highly correlated ($r = .72$) and it was not of theoretical interest to investigate these dimensions separately, all of the items were averaged into one overall EI measure for the analysis ($\alpha = .72$).

## 5. Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations of all variables are in Table 1. In order to test the hypotheses, hierarchical moderated regressions were conducted to utilize the full range of the ethnic identity scale. As noted previously, we posited that ethnic identity interacts with diversity recruitment condition to impact recruitment outcomes. We expected no interaction of race and diversity recruitment condition, nor did we expect that the interaction between ethnic identity and diversity condition would be moderated by race.

In order to test these hypotheses, all main effects of—recruitment condition, race, and ethnic identity—were first examined for their separate impact on recruitment outcomes. Both categorical variables, diversity recruitment condition and race, were dummy coded (1,−1) for the regression analyses. To examine the main effects, recruitment condition was entered first in the regression analysis, race was entered next, and ethnic identity was entered last. This was done to give race, rather than ethnic identity, the best chance of predicting outcomes, although as discussed, we did not expect that race would account for recruitment outcomes. Next, we examined the two-way interactions of race and recruitment condition, and race and ethnic identity, followed by the interaction of ethnic identity and recruitment condition, on

Table 1
Descriptive statistics and correlations

|  | Mean | *SD* | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Inferences about organization's treatment of employees | 3.58 | .48 | .70 | .44 | .31 | .65 | .33 | .19 | .52 | .01 |
| 2. Inferences about organization's reputation | 3.45 | .54 |  | .71 | .54 | .42 | .44 | .08 | .74 | −.07 |
| 3. Inferences about challenge of work in the organization | 3.70 | .58 |  |  | .65 | .26 | .42 | −.03 | .62 | −.02 |
| 4. Inferences about relationships between employees | 3.38 | .50 |  |  |  | .75 | .27 | .17 | .46 | .06 |
| 5. Likelihood of accepting a job offer | 3.66 | .70 |  |  |  |  | .75 | .04 | .52 | .14 |
| 6. Recruitment condition | N/A | N/A |  |  |  |  |  | N/A | .14 | −.00 |
| 7. Ethnic identity | 3.42 | .38 |  |  |  |  |  |  | .72 | .03 |
| 8. Race | N/A | N/A |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | N/A |

*Note.* α's are found on the diagonal. Scores ranged from 1 to 5, with higher scores indicating more positive inferences or greater job pursuit intentions. Race was coded as 1 (non-Caucasian) and −1 (Caucasian). Recruitment condition was coded as 1 (diversity initiative) and −1 (no diversity initiative).

recruitment outcomes. Again, as a strong test, we gave the interaction of race with other variables the best chance of capturing variance in recruitment outcomes; yet as noted previously, we expected that only the interaction of ethnic identity and recruitment condition would be significant. Finally, in the last step, we examined the three-way interaction between race, ethnic identity, and recruitment condition on recruitment outcomes.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that individuals with a higher level of ethnic identity make more positive inferences about an organization with a diversity initiative than about an organization without such an initiative, as compared to individuals with a lower level of ethnic identity. Table 2 illustrates that for inferences regarding the treatment of employees, there was a main effect for recruitment condition ($\beta = .19$, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p < .01$) as well as EI ($\beta = .51$, $\Delta R^2 = .25$, $p < .01$). As predicted, these effects were qualified by a significant interaction between recruitment condition and EI ($\beta = 1.32$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .01$). Likewise, for inferences regarding the relationships among employees, there was a main effect for recruitment condition ($\beta = .17$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .01$) as well as EI ($\beta = .45$, $\Delta R^2 = .20$, $p < .01$), and these were qualified by a significant interaction between recruitment condition and EI ($\beta = 1.62$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .01$). Although both interactions explain a relatively modest amount of variance, they nevertheless provide partial support for Hypothesis 1. As can be seen in Table 2, race did not interact with recruitment condition (i.e., there were no significant two-way interactions involving race), nor did it interact

Table 2
Hierarchical moderated regression analyses

| Step | Socio-emotional inferences | | | | | | Organizational inferences | | | | | | Job pursuit intentions | | |
| | Treatment of employees | | | Relationships among employees | | | Working conditions | | | Reputation | | | Likelihood of taking an offer | | |
| | $\Delta R^2$ | $\Delta F$ | $\beta$ | $\Delta R^2$ | $\Delta F$ | $\beta$ | $\Delta R^2$ | $\Delta F$ | $\beta$ | $\Delta R^2$ | $\Delta F$ | $\beta$ | $\Delta R^2$ | $\Delta F$ | $\beta$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Condition | .04** | 8.72** | .19** | .03** | 6.91** | .17** | .01 | 1.8 | .09 | .00 | .31 | −.04 | .00 | .45 | .04 |
| 2. Race | .00 | .09 | .01 | .00 | .79 | .06 | .01 | 1.2 | −.07 | .00 | .14 | −.02 | .02* | 4.3 | .14* |
| 3. Ethnic identity | .25** | 81.69** | .51** | .20** | 59.4** | .45** | .55** | 289.5** | .75** | .41** | 157.6** | .64** | .27** | 87.2** | .52** |
| 4. Race × condition | .00 | .46 | .04 | .00 | .32 | .03 | .00 | .08 | −.01 | .00 | .60 | −.04 | .00 | .93 | −.06 |
| 5. Race × EI | .00 | .02 | .07 | .00 | .19 | .25 | .00 | .19 | −.19 | .00 | .74 | .42 | .00 | .08 | −.16 |
| 6. EI × condition | .02** | 6.57** | 1.32** | .03** | 9.23** | 1.62** | .00 | .03 | .07 | .00 | 1.4 | .56 | .01* | 3.81 | 1.01* |
| 7. EI × condition × race | .00 | 1.46 | −.67 | .00 | .11 | .191 | .00 | .63 | −.35 | .00 | .00 | .004 | .01 | 3.2 | −1.00 |

*Note.* Values for $\beta$ are for each step in the regression.
* $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.

with ethnic identity and recruitment condition (i.e., there were no significant three-way interactions with race); this provides support for Hypothesis 3.

   Figs. 1 and 2 illustrate the nature of these interactions with regression plots. Fig. 1 illustrates that those with a higher level of EI reported more positive inferences about the organization's treatment of employees in the diversity condition than in the non-diversity condition. By contrast, inferences among individuals with a lower level of EI did not vary as much between the two recruitment conditions. Similarly, Fig. 2 illustrates that those with a higher level of EI reported more positive inferences about the relationships between employees in the organization in the diversity condition as opposed to the non-diversity condition, whereas there was less of a difference between the inferences of people with lower levels of EI in the two conditions.
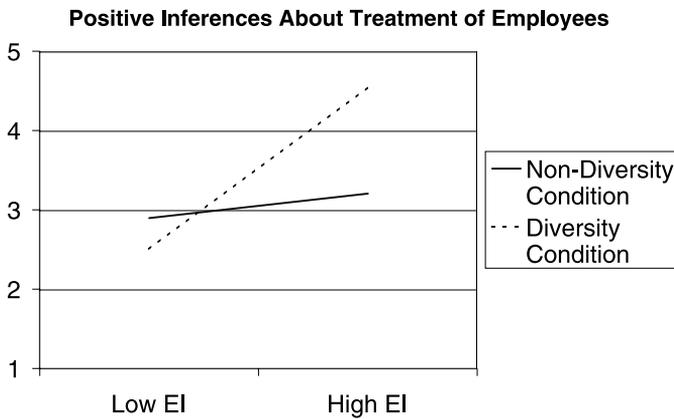


Fig. 1. The interaction of ethnic identity and recruitment condition on inferences regarding the treatment of employees in the organization.
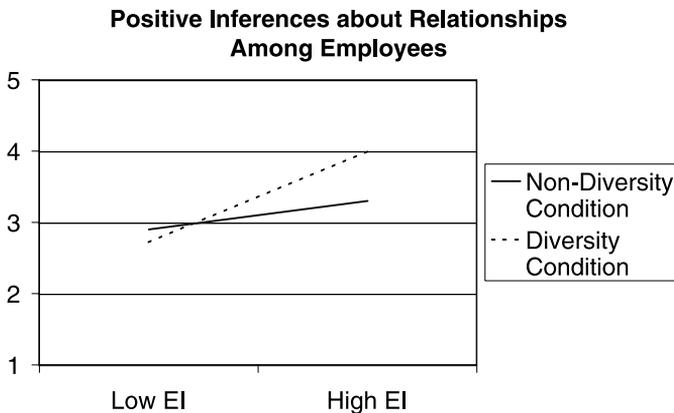


Fig. 2. The interaction of ethnic identity and recruitment condition on inferences regarding the relationships between co-workers in the organization.

Interestingly, as can be seen in Table 2, there were no significant interactions between recruitment condition and EI on inferences about the work itself or about the external environment. This is perhaps not surprising given that diversity relates to social psychological aspects of organizations, and thus activates cognitions most directly related to such aspects of organizational functioning (i.e., relationships among employees, the organization's treatment of employees). On the other hand, the analyses did illustrate that there were main effects of EI on inferences of the challenge of the work ($\beta = .75$, $\Delta R^2 = .55$, $p < .01$) and the status of the company ($\beta = .64$, $\Delta R^2 = .41$, $p < .01$). Individuals higher on EI made more positive inferences on these attributes, regardless of recruitment condition, a finding that is discussed more below.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that ethnic identity moderates the impact of a recruitment brochure on individuals' job pursuit intentions. As illustrated in Table 2, there was a main effect for ethnic identity on likelihood of accepting an offer ($\beta = .52$, $\Delta R^2 = .27$, $p < .01$), and a main effect for race ($\beta = .14$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .05$), which indicated that non-Caucasians had higher job pursuit intentions than did Caucasians. As expected, there was a significant interaction between recruitment condition and EI on likelihood of accepting a job offer ($\beta = 1.01$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .05$). Although this interaction accounts for a modest amount of variance, it provides support for the hypothesis. Consistent with expectations, Fig. 3 illustrates that individuals higher on EI had greater intentions to accept a job offer in the diversity versus non-diversity conditions, whereas job pursuit intentions of individuals lower on EI did not vary as much as a function of recruitment condition. Also as expected, these results were not moderated by race, which provides support for Hypothesis 3. Thus, the present results indicate that ethnic identity and its interaction with the recruitment brochure conditions, rather than the demographic variable of race, is the more effective explanatory variable in the study of recruitment processes.

*Qualitative data.* One advantage of qualitative data is that it yields richer and more detailed information than quantitative data (Ely, 1995). Following Ely
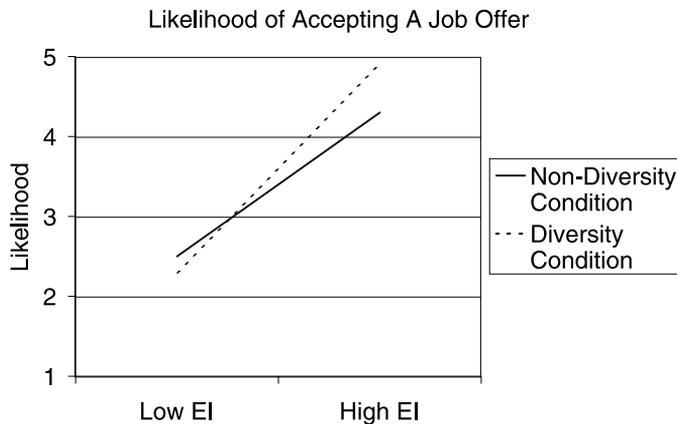


Fig. 3. The interaction of ethnic identity and recruitment condition on job pursuit intentions.

(1995), we provide a few specific quotes from individuals. As with any qualitative research, however, caution is warranted when considering these selected quotes, and they should be viewed as supplemental to the quantitative findings presented previously.

Comments pertaining to the organization's diversity initiative were particularly illuminating. Notably, similar to the previous quantitative analysis, racial categories did not seem to interact with the results. More specifically, both Caucasians and non-Caucasians who were higher on EI seemed to react positively to the diversity condition. One Caucasian high on EI in the diversity condition said "I would be very interested to work for a consulting firm that believes in diversity." Another non-Caucasian high on EI wrote "I think that this is a good, small company that values ethnic diversity and hard workers in their organization. I would work here because I would fit in here well." Likewise, another respondent high on EI in the diversity condition said "I would like to work here because of many reasons. One reason that is appealing is that I'm a minority, and this would be a good job environment for me since they stress diversity." A number of other individuals higher on EI reported similar sentiments, suggesting that individuals higher on EI reacted positively to the diversity initiative, across different racial groups.

On the other hand, there were also some other people who reacted negatively to the diversity initiative. As one Caucasian respondent who was lower on EI said, "I would not like to work at this organization. I neither like the way that they judge whether people should be involved in a company or not, nor do I agree with token jobs being given to minorities to create diversity." Similarly, a non-Caucasian lower on EI commented: "People want to work for a strong company that only hires the best. No one wants to think that they only got the job because they're a minority." Thus, while respondents higher on EI reacted favorably to the diversity initiative, some respondents lower on EI did not. However, it should be noted that the majority of respondents lower on EI did not offer any comments, positive or negative, on the diversity initiative, suggesting the issue was perhaps not as salient to them.

## 6. Discussion

The purpose of this study was to integrate the construct of ethnic identity into the study of individuals' perceptions of organizational recruitment. In particular, this study examined the moderating effect of ethnic identity on the relation between recruitment brochures and individuals' inferences about unknown organizational characteristics and job pursuit intentions. Qualitative and quantitative data provided moderate support for the notion that diversity initiatives have differential impact on prospective employees depending on their level of ethnic identity.

Specifically, individuals higher on ethnic identity made more positive inferences about the organization's treatment of employees and the relationships among employees, and had higher job pursuit intentions, when given a recruitment brochure with a clearly stated diversity initiative as compared to a brochure with no diversity initiative. Thus, organizations that are explicit that they value diversity in their

brochures are likely to be better able to attract individuals higher on ethnic identity—individuals for whom the authentic expression of their ethnicity in organizations is important. Diversity initiatives may serve not only as signals to such individuals about other positive aspects of organizational functioning, but they also impact intentions to work in the organization. Conversely, individuals lower on ethnic identity did not tend to make such disparate judgments across recruitment conditions. As such, these results suggest that as compared to individuals higher on ethnic identity, individuals lower on ethnic identity are not as likely to notice or encode diversity initiatives. In sum, these results illustrate that ethnic identity is a meaningful psychological variable with promise to predict certain recruitment outcomes.

Importantly, race, as a categorical variable, did not interact with recruitment condition or ethnic identity to affect recruitment outcomes. Those higher on ethnic identity—Caucasians and non-Caucasians—reacted similarly to the diversity initiative stated in the brochure. This debunks a common perception that Caucasians have negative attitudes toward diversity. Rather, by examining ethnic identity within this group, we find that there are individuals who have positive attitudes toward organizations that value diversity. In other words, this research suggests that Caucasians higher on ethnic identity are similar to non-Caucasians higher on ethnic identity—at least in terms of their reaction to a diversity initiative in recruitment brochures. We would note, however, that because of statistical power considerations, we examined only two groups in this research (i.e., Caucasians and non-Caucasians). Although certainly pragmatic, our definition of this construct is clearly an oversimplification. Future research should examine specific racial categories along with ethnic identity in on vocational behavior research.

## 6.1. Theoretical implications

Diversity issues in organizations are becoming more important to scholars and practitioners alike. Yet the literature on race and ethnicity in recruitment, as well as in the larger vocational behavior literature, is often fraught with conflicting results, and the vast majority of studies treat these constructs as simple demographic variables. Although many have called for alternative conceptualizations and recognize the inherent atheoretical and problematic nature of such categorical variables in diversity research, there have been few organizational studies that offer alternatives. As such, the present research makes a contribution by providing empirical evidence for a more psychological approach to the study of ethnicity in organizations in general, and recruitment in particular. The current research illustrates that ''unpacking'' ethnicity in terms of its dimensions (such as identity), rather than examining simple demographic categories, can offer much to understanding recruitment, and perhaps other organizational processes.

Theoretically speaking, an ethnic identity perspective raises new questions on race and ethnicity for vocational behavior research. For example, although we focused on the role of ethnic identity and recruitment brochures, it would be interesting to examine how individuals' ethnic identity interacts with recruiter characteristics (e.g., ethnicity) as well as recruiter behavior in predicting recruitment outcomes. Perhaps

applicants higher on ethnic identity would be even more likely to prefer recruiters whose ethnic identity levels are similar to their own, an effect that has been termed the similarity bias (Rynes, 1991). Going beyond questions about recruitment, rather than examining the impact of demographic similarity within organizations, it would be interesting to examine the impact of ethnic identity congruence (e.g., between mentors and mentees, service providers, and customers) on organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Likewise, future research may benefit from examining how ethnic identity influences the dynamics of social interaction within teams or between leaders and subordinates in organizations. Additionally, such research may help to clarify results from previous research on race and ethnicity in organizations. For example, ethnic identity may help explain incongruous findings in the organizational demography literature.

Moreover, in addition to highlighting the moderating effects of ethnic identity, this research illustrates that it is worthwhile to examine how ethnic identity directly affects recruitment and other organizational processes. In particular, this study illustrated that ethnic identity had a main effect on inferences participants made about the challenging nature of work and the reputation of the organization. Interestingly, individuals higher on EI were more positive about such attributes, as compared to individuals lower on EI. Although the reason for this effect must be examined in future research, one possible explanation for this finding could be that since ethnic identity is positively related to self-esteem and optimism (Phinney, 1989; Phinney & Alipuria, 1990; Phinney & Chavira, 1992), individuals higher in ethnic identity may hold not only more positive attitudes about themselves, but they also may have a more positive cognitive framework when evaluating other aspects of their lives. That is, such individuals may view their environment in more favorable ways as a whole, including developing positive inferences about their work environment. It is important to note, however, that the main effects of ethnic identity in this study also could reflect a response set, wherein individuals higher on EI endorse any item enthusiastically. Yet there is no evidence of such effects in the larger literature on ethnic identity, and furthermore, such response sets cannot account for our predicted interactions, wherein individuals higher on EI had less positive responses in nondiversity recruitment conditions.

Finally, the current perspective also has important implications for how we treat other demographic variables in the recruitment literature, such as gender, age, and even educational background. Rather than treating these variables as categorical in nature, it would be interesting to examine the degree to which people are chronically schematic for such categories, and the consequences of this for recruitment.

### 6.2. Practical implications

In addition to these theoretical contributions, this research illustrates that ethnic identity has meaningful practical consequences for organizations. Delineating the factors that predict applicant attraction is of great importance for organizations. In today's shrinking labor pool, organizations need to be able to attract people of all ethnicities and of varying degrees of ethnic identity. If a number of organizations

are relatively equal with respect to pay, job opportunities, etc., an organization that emphasizes diversity can distinguish itself from others and ultimately may have a competitive advantage when it comes to recruiting employees higher on EI. Specifically, this study suggests that including a clearly articulated diversity statement in a recruitment brochure can lead individuals higher on EI to make more positive inferences about an organization, and can increase the likelihood they will accept a job offer. At the same time, the qualitative results of the current study suggest that organizations may need to strike a delicate balance in these efforts so as not to inadvertently provide negative signals to those lower on ethnic identity. Individuals involved in such efforts may want to draw upon Ferdman's (1995) notion of emphasizing both individuals' uniqueness as well as the inclusion of different groups in organizations, which perhaps can satisfy those higher and lower on ethnic identity.

It is important to note that an organization's stated diversity mission be genuine and be actually implemented. As suggested by an anonymous reviewer, a diversity statement, such as the one included in this study, may sound appealing and ''politically correct'' to applicants at the outset of the recruitment process, but there is a risk for more negative distal outcomes if this initiative is not implemented in the organization's reality. Indeed, research on realistic job previews (Wanous, 1992) suggests that if there is a discrepancy between applicants' pre-hire expectations (created largely during the recruitment process) and their post-hire organizational experiences, negative attitudinal and behavioral outcomes will be the likely result, including lower job satisfaction, higher turnover, etc. Thus, although a stated diversity initiative may be an important tool in attracting certain employees, its effective implementation is an important consideration in their retention.

### 6.3. Limitations

Our study was conducted with college students who were engaged in a hypothetical recruitment process which raises questions about its generalizability. For a variety of reasons, however, we are hopeful that the nature of these results will generalize. First, college students are an important population of interest in recruitment research, as they constitute a large population of potential employees (Powell & Goulet, 1996). Second, the potential liabilities of the artificiality of the brochure were mitigated by the fact that it was modeled after real brochures of actual organizations and was professionally manufactured. Indeed, many participants believed that Hewson Evans was a real organization and inquired about potential job opportunities, suggesting that the artifice of the stimulus material is not a major cause for concern. Finally, theory which is well-grounded and supported in laboratory contexts is likely to translate to real world contexts (Anderson, Lindsay, & Bushman, 1999; Locke, 1986).

Nevertheless, future research will benefit from examining ethnic identity in recruitment using field studies and using actual applicants who have more information about organizations at their disposal. Although diversity initiatives were found to be important to individuals higher on ethnic identity in this study, future research must now examine them in conjunction with variations in financial incentives and job characteristics. In this study, we controlled for these characteristics by keeping them

constant. However, if there are major discrepancies between salaries of competing organizations, this factor may have more of an impact on recruitment decisions than diversity initiatives. On the other hand, when such factors are equalized, as they were in this study, diversity conditions are likely to loom large in recruitment decisions.

In conclusion, as researchers continue to grapple with issues of diversity, it will be incumbent for us to incorporate new, theoretically based constructs concerning ethnicity and race in our science. The construct of ethnic identity offers promise to this endeavor, having the potential to reframe old research questions and traditions as well as illuminate new avenues of research.

## Acknowledgments

## References

Anderson, C. A., Lindsay, J. J., & Bushman, B. J. (1999). Research in the psychological laboratory: Truth or triviality? *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 8*, 3–9.

Barber, A. E. (1998). *Recruiting employees: Individual and organizational perspectives*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Barber, A. E., & Roehling, M. V. (1993). Job postings and the decision to interview: A verbal protocol analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*, 845–856.

Breagh, J. A. (1992). *Recruitment: Science and practice*. Boston: PWS-Kent Publishing.

Brookins, C. C., Anyabwile, T. M., & Nacoste, R. (1996). Exploring the links between racial identity attitudes and psychological feelings of closeness in African American college students. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 26*, 243–264.

Cable, D. M., & Judge, T. A. (1994). Pay preferences and job search decisions: A person–organization fit perspective. *Personnel Psychology, 47*, 317–348.

Cox, T. (1990). Problems with research by organizational scholars on issues of race and ethnicity. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Sciences, 26*, 5–23.

Cox, T. (1993). *Cultural diversity in organizations: Theory, research, and practice*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Cox, T., & Blake, S. (1991). Managing cultural diversity: Implications for organizational competitiveness. *The Academy of Management Executive, 5*(3), 45–56.

Cox, T., & Nkomo, S. M. (1990). Invisible men and women: A status report on race as a variable in organization behavior research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 11*, 419–431.

Cross, W. (1978). The Thomas and Cross models of psychological nigrescence: A literature review. *Journal of Black Psychology, 4*, 13–31.

Ely, R. J. (1995). The power in demography: Women's social constructions of gender identity at work. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(3), 589–634.

Ferdman, B. (1995). Cultural identity and diversity in organizations: Bridging the gap between group differences and individual uniqueness. In M. Chemers, S. Oskamp, & M. A. Costanzo (Eds.), *Diversity in organizations: New perspectives for a changing workplace* (pp. 37–61).

Fiske, S. T., & Taylor, S. E. (1991). *Social cognition* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Goltz, S. M., & Giannantonio, C. M. (1995). Recruiter friendliness and attraction to the job: The mediating role of inferences about the organization. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 46*, 109–118.

Hall, D. T., & Parker, V. A. (1993). The role of workplace flexibility in managing diversity. *Organizational Dynamics, 22*, 5–18.

Helms, J. E., & Piper, R. E. (1994). Implications of racial identity theory for vocational psychology. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 44*, 124–138.

Herriot, P., & Rothwell, C. (1981). Organizational choice and decision theory: Effects of employers' literature and selection interview. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 54*, 17–31.

Huselid, M. (1995). The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*, 635–672.

Judge, T. A., & Cable, D. M. (1997). Applicant personality, organizational culture, and organizational attraction. *Personnel Psychology, 50*, 359–394.

Kirchmeyer, C. (1995). Demographic similarity to the work group: A longitudinal study of managers at the early career stage. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16*, 67–83.

Kossek, E. E., & Zonia, S. C. (1993). Assessing diversity climate: A field study of reactions to employer efforts to promote diversity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14*, 61–81.

Locke, E. A. (1986). *Generalizing from laboratory to field settings*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

London-Vargas, N. (1998). A scenario based study of Black and White workers' perception of leaders' desirability as leaders and leaders' diversity acceptance: An application of Thomas' three levels of diversity implementation. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, California School of Professional Psychology.

Lovelace, K., & Rosen, B. (1996). Differences in achieving person–organization fit among diverse groups of managers. *Journal of Management, 22*(5), 703–722.

MacDuffie, J. (1995). Human resource bundles and manufacturing performance: Organizational logic and flexible production systems in the world auto industry. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 48*, 197–221.

Martinez, S. R. (1997). Contributing factors to backlash attitudes toward the outcomes diversity programs in the workplace. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, California School of Professional Psychology.

Mason, N. A., & Belt, J. A. (1986). Effectiveness of specificity in recruitment advertising. *Journal of Management, 12*, 425–432.

Mitchell, S. L., & Dell, D. M. (1992). The relationship between Black students' racial identity attitude and participation in campus organizations. *Journal of College Student Development, 33*, 39–43.

Nkomo, S. M. (1992). The emperor has no clothes: Rewriting 'Race in Organizations'. *Academy of Management Review, 17*(3), 487–513.

O'Reilly, C. A., Williams, M. L., & Barsade (1998). Group demography and innovation: Does diversity help? *Research on Managing Groups and Teams, 1*, 183–207.

Parham, T. A., & Helms, J. E. (1985). Relation of racial identity attitudes to self-actualization and affective states in Black students. *Journal of Counselling Psychology, 32*, 431–440.

Phinney, J. S. (1989). Stages of ethnic identity development in minority group adolescents. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 9*(1–2), 34–49.

Phinney, J. S. (1990). Ethnic identity in adolescents and adults: Review of research. *Psychological Bulletin, 108*, 499–514.

Phinney, J. S. (1991). Ethnic identity and self-esteem: A review and integration. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 13*(2), 193–208.

Phinney, J. S. (1992). The multigroup ethnic identity measure: A new scale for use with diverse groups. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 7*, 156–176.

Phinney, J. (1996). Understanding ethnic diversity: The role of ethnic identity. *American Behavioral Scientist, 40*(2), 143–152.

Phinney, J. S., & Alipuria, L. (1990). Ethnic identity in college students from four ethnic groups. *Journal of Adolescence, 13*, 171–183.

Phinney, J. S., & Chavira, V. (1992). Ethnic identity and self-esteem: An exploratory longitudinal study. *Journal of Adolescence, 15*, 271–281.

Phinney, J. S., & Onwughalu, M. (1996). Racial identity and perceptions of American ideals among African American and African students in the United States. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 20*(2), 127–140.

Powell, G. N., & Goulet, L. R. (1996). Recruiters' and applicants' reactions to campus interviews and employment decisions. *Academy of Management Journal, 39*(6), 1619–1640.

Roberts, R. E., Phinney, J. S., Masse, L. C., Chen, Y. R., Roberts, C. R., & Romero, A. (1999). The structure of ethnic identity of young adolescents from diverse ethnocultural groups. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 19*(3), 301–322.

Rynes, S. L. (1991). Recruitment, job choice, and post-hire consequences: A call for new research directions. In M. D. Dunnette, & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (second ed, pp. 399–444). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists' Press.

Rynes, S. L., & Barber, A. E. (1990). Applicant attraction strategies: An organizational perspective. *Academy of Management Review, 15*, 286–310.

Rynes, S. L., & Boudreau, J. W. (1986). College recruiting in large organizations: Practice, evaluation, and research implications. *Personnel Psychology, 39*, 729–757.

Rynes, S. L., & Miller, H. E. (1983). Recruiter and job influences on candidates for employment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68*, 147–154.

Saks, A. M., Leck, J. D., & Saunders, D. M. (1995). Effects of application blanks and employment equity on applicant reactions and job pursuit intentions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16*, 415–430.

Smith, E. R. (2000). Research Design. In H. T. Reis, & C. M. Judd (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods in social and personality psychology* (pp. 17–39). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Smither, J. W., Reilly, R. R., Millsap, R. E., Pearlman, K., & Stoffey, R. W. (1993). Applicant reactions to selection procedures. *Personnel Psychology, 46*, 49–76.

Spence, A. M. (1973). Job market signaling. *Quarterly Journal of Economics, 87*, 355–374.

Taylor, C. M., & Howard-Hamilton, M. F. (1995). Student involvement and racial identity attitudes among African American males. *Journal of College Student Development, 36*, 330–336.

Thorsteinson, T. J., McFarland, L. A., Ryan, A. M. (1998). Specificity in job advertisements as signals of unknown organizational characteristics. Poster presented at the 13th Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Dallas, TX.

Thomas, R. R., Jr. (1990). From affirmative action to affirming diversity. *Harvard Business Review, 68*, 479–492.

Tom, V. R. (1971). The role of personality and organizational images in the recruiting process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 6*, 573–592.

Tsui, A. S., Egan, T., & O'Reilly, C. (1992). Being different: Relational demography and organizational attachment. *Administrative Sciences Quarterly, 37*, 549–579.

Tsui, A. S., & O'Reilly, C. A. (1989). Beyond simple demographic effects: The importance of relational demography in superior–subordinate dyads. *Academy of Management Journal, 32*, 402–423.

Wanous, J. P. (1992). *Organizational entry: Recruitment, selection, and socialization*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Welbourne, T. M., & Andrews, A. O. (1996). Predicting performance of initial public offering firms. Should human resource management be in the equation? *Academy of Management Journal, 39*, 891–919.

Williams, M. L., & Bauer, T. N. (1994). The effect of a managing diversity policy on organizational attractiveness. *Group and Organization Management, 19*, 295–308.