

ANTECEDENTS OF AN INTERVIEWER'S FIT PERCEPTIONS OF AN
APPLICANT: THE ROLE OF ACTUAL AND PERCEIVED SIMILARITY

A Dissertation

by

MARIA FERNANDA GARCIA

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

August 2004

Major Subject: Management

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ABSTRACT

Antecedents of an Interviewer's Fit Perceptions of an Applicant:

The Role of Actual and Perceived Similarity. (August 2004)

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In this dissertation I will present and test a model linking actual applicant-interviewer demographic, human capital, and cultural capital similarity to an interviewer's recommendation to hire. Actual similarity is proposed to influence an interviewer's perceptions of similarity with an applicant. These perceptions, in turn, lead to the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's Person-Organization (PO) fit and the applicant's Person-Job (PJ) fit. Two main mechanisms are proposed to mediate the relationship between an interviewer's perceptions of similarity and an interviewer's perceptions of an applicant's fit: liking and negative behavioral expectations. Lastly, both an interviewer's PO and PJ fit perceptions of an applicant are posited to influence the interviewer's recommendation to hire. A total of 118 interviewer-applicant dyads contacted through the Career Center Office at a University located in the southwestern United States participated in the study. Results partially support the model. An interviewer's perceptions of similarity with an applicant are positively related to an interviewer's fit evaluations. An interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant mediate this relationship. Furthermore, perceived similarity is positively

related to an interviewer's liking of an applicant. In turn, liking is positively related to an interviewer's PO fit perceptions. However, liking does not function as a mediator between perceived similarity and fit evaluations. Finally, fit evaluations are positively related to hiring recommendations. I discuss the main implications of the study as well as strengths, limitations, and future research.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother, Margot Novelli de García, my daughter, Fay Marie Wagstaff, and my husband, Jerry Wagstaff.

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Many people helped me to finish this dissertation. Over 200 recruiters and over 700 students agreed to participate in different studies that ended up being different sections of this dissertation. This information was confidential and for this reason I cannot name each and every one of them. I am grateful for their cooperation. Enormous help in contacting recruiters was generously provided by the executive director of the Career Center, Dr. Leigh Turner. She unconditionally supported my study and gave me important feedback and contacts to improve the response rate of my surveys. I could not have collected data without her support. Daniel Orozco helped me with the handling of recruiters' information. Celia Jeter, Janice Matthews, Beverly Driskell, and Martha Sields helped me immensely to contact recruiters while they were on campus interviewing candidates. Mr. James Haverland piloted two of the three field surveys. His insight was very important to improving my data collection.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

It is almost taken for granted in prescriptive accounts of selection that an interviewer's person-job (PJ) fit perceptions, defined as an interviewer's perceptions of fit between the characteristics of the job and the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) of an applicant, are a significant predictor of the interviewer's hiring recommendations. More recently, an interviewer's person-organization (PO) fit perceptions, defined as the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's and the organization's attributes, have also been found to be a predictor of the interviewer's hiring recommendations (Kristof, 1996). In fact, prescriptive models of selection focus most heavily on human capital theory: the idea that a candidate's investments in his/her education, training and other capacity-related characteristics should predict productivity on the job, so therefore employers would naturally hire on the basis of differences in human capital.

Much of the PJ / PO fit literature has concluded that employers do, in fact, benefit from hiring employees who experience high levels of PJ and PO fit (Chatman, 1991; Kristof, 1996). The selection literature suggests that interviewers do actively try to assess PJ and PO fit to use in their hiring decisions.

Less is known about those criteria that interviewers use to assess PJ and PO fit, particularly PO fit. The present study falls within those studies that focus on

understanding the antecedents of fit perceptions. An interviewer has to fill in a lot of blanks about a candidate's fit, particularly in the first part of the selection process (*e.g.*, an on-campus interview). It is highly likely that an interviewer's perceptions of similarity with an applicant, or an interviewer's discovery and recognition of the similitude between the characteristics of an applicant and his/her own characteristics (Duck & Barnes, 1992), drive fit perceptions. An interviewer may use himself/herself as a standard for the organization's values when assessing PO fit (Adkins, Russell, & Werbel, 1994; Judge & Ferris, 1992). If he/she is hiring for a job that he/she has himself/herself filled, then he/she is equally likely to use his/her human capital as an effective standard with regard to PJ fit. Therefore, similarity between the self and the applicant may be a strong evidence of PJ fit. However, because of the limited research conducted on this topic, these issues are largely empirical.

Also of importance is the relationship between perceived similarity and actual similarity. Research has shown that perceptions of similarity are related to actual similarity (Graves & Powell, 1995; Judge & Cable, 1997), defined as the match between an interviewer's and an applicant's characteristics. In particular, research has shown the effects of actual demographic similarity on perceptions of similarity (Graves & Powell, 1995; Wayne & Liden, 1995). But researchers in the organizational domain have largely overlooked key variables suggested by sociological theory that lead to similarity perceptions. Although many forms of similarity may prove relevant to hiring recommendations, current organizational research has emphasized only demographic similarity. Organizational researchers have not examined the potential direct effects of

both human capital and cultural capital –defined as cultural signals used for cultural and social distinctions (Bourdieu, 1984; Katsillis & Rubinson, 1990; Lamont & Lareau, 1988)—on an interviewer’s perceptions of similarity with an applicant as well as indirect effects on an interviewer’s assessments of PJ fit, PO fit, or other judgments that affect his/her hiring recommendations.

This dissertation proposes and tests a fully-articulated model of the judgments that an interviewer makes during the selection interview, in particular, an interviewer’s perceptions of similarity with an applicant, which ultimately may explain both assessments of PJ and PO fit and hiring recommendations (see Figure 1, Appendix 1). In elucidating how an interviewer’s perceptions of similarity with an applicant are formed, I draw upon theories of relational demography, human capital, and cultural capital to link an interviewer’s perceptions of similarity to an applicant to measures of his/her actual demographic characteristics, human capital and cultural capital. In explaining how an interviewer’s PJ and PO fit perceptions of an applicant are formed, I draw from the stereotyping, liking, and expectations literature.

Two main research questions are explored in this study: a) whether an interviewer first judges an applicant’s similarity to himself/herself, and that the interviewer’s perception of similarity with the applicant drives other fit perceptions, and in turn, the hiring recommendation, and b) what is the impact of the actual interviewer-applicant similarity on demographics, human capital, and cultural capital on an interviewer’s assessment of an applicant?

To answer these research questions, in Chapter II, I will begin reviewing the literature ending with the contribution of my dissertation to the field of human resources. In Chapter III, I will present the theoretical model of the dissertation (see Figure 1, Appendix 1). In Chapters IV and V, I will present the characteristics of the sample, procedures, measures, and results. Finally, in Chapter VI, I will review the main findings, implications, strengths and limitations of this dissertation, and future research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this dissertation I ultimately want to explain hiring recommendations. Because PO and PJ fit perceptions have been empirically demonstrated to predict hiring recommendations (Cable & Judge, 1997; Kristof-Brown, 2000), I will focus on explaining the antecedents of an interviewer's PO and PJ fit perceptions, since PJ / PO fit are expected to mediate the relationship between other judgments and perceptions and an interviewer's hiring decisions.

I will first review the literature about the relationship between hiring recommendations and direct effects that are of interest in this dissertation (*i.e.*, demographics, human capital, and cultural capital). I will then review the literature addressing how an interviewer constructs his/her judgments of a candidate's PJ / PO fit. In reviewing the PJ literature, I will necessarily cover the relationship between judgments of a candidate's human capital and fit, because the candidate's KSAs (*i.e.*, human capital) are central to fit. Similarly, in reviewing PO fit, I will note research on values where values have been previously implicated in judgments of fit. Next, I will discuss the relationship between actual applicant-interviewer similarity and an interviewer's perceived similarity. I will conclude the literature review indicating the contributions of this dissertation to the field of human resources.

The Relationship between Demographics, Human Capital, and Cultural Capital and Hiring Recommendations

For this section, I reviewed articles where authors studied the effects of demographics, human capital, or cultural capital on hiring recommendations. These papers were cited in the following review articles: Arvey (1979), Arvey and Campion (1982), Graves (1999), Harris (1989), Judge et al. (2000), Olian, Schwab, and Haberfeld (1988), Posthuma, Morgeson, and Campion (2002), Schmitt (1976), and Tosi and Einbender (1985). I also looked for “hiring recommendations,” “interview ratings,” “interview outcomes,” suitability for hire/ing,” “likelihood to hire,” “likelihood of hiring,” “interview score,” “likelihood of being selected,” “invitation for a second interview,” “employability,” “job suitability,” and “willingness to hire” for the last 14 years in *PsycLit*, *ABI/Inform*, and *JSTOR*. I considered published articles that involved actual interviews, simulated interviews, or transcripts of interviews whenever the interviews involved selecting candidates for hiring. The twenty-nine articles that met these characteristics are presented in Table 1 (Appendix 1). I omitted articles related to résumés and applications blanks.

Demographics

In the majority of the articles, researchers studied the impact of demographics, particularly sex, on hiring recommendations. Taking experimental studies into consideration, leads to mixed results. Some studies concluded that sex is not related to the decision to invite for an interview, to hire, or to the suitability for the job (Cargile, 2000; Dipboye & Wiley, 1977, 1978). However, in an earlier study it was found that an

applicant's sex and a subject's (simulated recruiter) sex seems to favorably influence ratings (Ferris & Gilmore, 1977). The rest of the experimental studies found that sex is only related to interview outcomes (*e.g.*, hiring recommendations) when it interacts with other variables. These experiments indicate that influence tactics (Buttner & McEnally, 1996), the position for which the applicant is applying (Cohen & Bunker, 1975), being overweight (Pingitore, Dugoni, Tindale, & Spring, 1994), and authoritarianism (Simas & McCarrey, 1979) interact with sex to have an impact on hiring recommendations.

Results regarding the relationship between sex and hiring recommendations in field studies have been mixed. Sex is not related to interview outcomes in several studies (Graves & Powell, 1988, 1995, 1996; Kacmar & Hochwarter, 1995; Kinicki & Lockwood, 1985; Sacco, Scheu, Ryan, & Schmitt, 2003). However, Cable and Judge (1997) found that an applicant's sex is significantly related to an interviewer's hiring recommendations.

There are several alternative explanations for these mixed results. One of them is that the interview ratings are a function of the interviewer's sex. Raza and Carpenter (1987) and more recently Chapman and Rowe (2001) found that female interviewers are more likely to make a positive hiring recommendation than males. Chapman and Rowe (2001) also found that these ratings interact with interview structure. Finally, Sacco et al. (2003) found that the type of analysis used (*i.e.*, *HLM*, *ANOVA*, or *D Scores*) impacts on results.

Four experimental studies analyzed the impact of age on hiring recommendations with mixed findings. In one study it was found that an interviewer's age is not related to

the likelihood to hire an applicant (Connor, Walsh, Litzelman, & Alvarez, 1978). On the contrary, in two other studies it was found that both the interviewer's age and the applicant's age is significantly related to hiring recommendations (Avolio & Barret, 1987; Gordon, Rozelle, & Baxter, 1988). However, Singer and Sewell (1989) found that age-related information interacts with age to affect hiring recommendations.

There is agreement regarding the relationship between age and hiring recommendations in field studies. In the only two studies available, age was unrelated to interview ratings (Lin, Dobbins, & Farh, 1992; Raza & Carpenter, 1987).

In two experimental studies available for race, the authors (Rand & Wexley, 1975; Ming S. Singer & Eder, 1989) found no relationship between race and interview ratings. In three field studies researchers analyzed the relationship between race and hiring recommendations and arrived at different conclusions. Lin et al. (1992) found that the interviewer-interviewee race similarity has a small but significant effect on interview ratings. However, this bias is reduced when mixed-race panels were involved in the interviews. Cable and Judge (1997) and Sacco et al. (2003) found no relationship between applicant race and hiring recommendations. Again, Sacco et al. (2003) found that the type of analysis performed (i.e., *HLM*, *ANOVA*, or D scores) has an impact on results.

In summary, although demographic characteristics seem to be related to hiring recommendations, empirical inconsistency in the direction of effects and evidence of interaction effects suggests that relationships are complex. Experimental studies indicated that sex alone is less predictive of hiring recommendations than sex interacting

with other variables. On the other hand, the results of field studies are mixed. Age presents mixed findings in experimental studies; however, in two field studies, the relationship between age and hiring recommendation is not significant. Finally, three field studies revealed mixed findings regarding the relationship between race and hiring recommendations.

As Sacco *et al.* pointed out, the issue is not to answer whether demographic variables influence outcomes at work, but to understand what the main boundary conditions are. I suggest that beyond the boundary conditions already noted – such as interviewer’s sex, interview structure, type of analysis developed, influence tactics, position, overweight, authoritarianism, and age related information—the presence of mixed findings may be due to the fact that for certain demographic characteristics, such as age or race/ethnicity, what is perceived is different from reality. For instance, a Hispanic applicant (actual race/ethnicity) may pass as White (perceived race) to the interviewer and older applicants may be perceived as significantly younger than they actually are.

Human and Cultural Capital

Three studies considered the role of academic qualification and work experience as predictors of hiring recommendations with mixed results. Cable and Judge (1997) found that an applicant’s work experience is related to an interviewer’s hiring recommendations; however, the applicant’s GPA is not significant. In contrast, Kinicki and Lockwood (1985) found that neither academic achievement nor relevant work experience are related to suitability for hire. In an experimental study, Singer and Bruhns

(1991) found that the relationship between both work experience and academic qualifications and interview ratings are moderated by the person doing the rating (*i.e.*, managers vs. students).

All the studies that analyze the relationship between applicants' communication skills and interviewers' ratings of the applicant concurred that they are significantly related (Chacko, Olson, & Shrader, 1999; Hollandsworth, Kazelskis, Stevens, & Dressel, 1979; Kinicki & Lockwood, 1985; Wright & Multon, 1995). The study by Kinicki and Lockwood (1985), however, included ability to express ideas, job knowledge, appearance, and level of personal drive in one factor called "interview impression."

In summary, much less is known about the relationship between human capital and hiring recommendations than the relationship between demographics and hiring recommendations. This difference may be due to the fact that everybody considers human capital as the basis for hiring candidates. But this literature could be expanded to answer questions included but not limited to the role of the different dimensions of human capital (or differential weight on these dimensions) in hiring recommendations or the interaction of these dimensions with applicants' attitudes or demographics in understanding this type of evaluations. Unlike demographics, cultural capital does not have any empirical evidence of its relationship to hiring recommendations, but the theory behind it suggests that this relationship should be positive.

The role of cultural capital, defined as behaviors, habits, and attitudes used for cultural and social distinctions (Bourdieu, 1984), has been studied in different dimensions (*e.g.*, terminations) in the work environment (see Bourgois, 1999; Erickson,

1996), but it has not been studied in relation to interview outcomes. However, researchers in sociology have suggested that cultural capital is positively related to the likelihood of being hired, the quality of the job obtained, and interview impressions (Bourdieu, 1984; Brubaker, 1985; Erickson, 1996). Unfortunately, empirical evidence testing these ideas is lacking.

How an Interviewer Constructs His/Her Judgments of a Candidate's PJ / PO Fit

In a study examining interviewers' assessments of job applicants, Rynes and Gerhart (1990) found that an interviewer's assessments of firm-specific employability (*i.e.*, fit) differ somewhat from evaluations of general employability. The authors found that evaluations of applicants are based on firm-specific characteristics. In terms of applicants' characteristics, they found that objective qualifications have little explanatory value on applicants' evaluations. Instead, several subjectively assessed factors influence fit assessments controlling for general employability, such as interpersonal skills, future goal orientation, and personal appearance.

Drawing from Schmitt (1976), Judge and Ferris (1992) pointed out that perceived similarity between an interviewer and an applicant may be one way to construct fit. However, Judge and Ferris (1992) excluded perceived similarity from their model. Instead, the authors proposed that actual similarity instead of perceived similarity leads to outcomes. Drawing from the similarity-attraction paradigm, Judge and Ferris hypothesized that actual similarity between the goals and values of the candidate and those of the decision maker leads the decision-maker to like the candidate. In turn, this

liking of the candidate leads to higher evaluations of the candidate's suitability for the job. In summary, instead of considering perceived similarity, the authors proposed that it was actual similarity between an applicant and an interviewer that lead to outcomes similar to PJ fit perceptions. This model remains to be tested.

In an empirical study of how organizational recruiters assess applicants' fit, Bretz et al. (1993) concluded that there are idiosyncratic patterns in recruiters' evaluations beyond agreed-upon dimensions and job-specific fit. In this study, some recruiters focus on particular aspects of fit, excluding other aspects, whereas other recruiters seem to look for almost everything. Examining values as antecedents of recruiters' judgments of applicants' fit with the organization, Adkins et al. (1994) found a significant relationship in value congruence between the applicants and the recruiters and between the applicants and an ideal applicant (universal fit). Moreover, they concluded that recruiter-applicant work value congruence, in addition to the congruence between the applicants and the ideal applicant significantly contribute to recruiters' predictions of an applicant's employability and PO fit ratings, controlling for demographic and academic predictors. *Post hoc* analysis confirmed that recruiter-applicant value congruence and applicant-universal value congruence together are significant predictors of employability and PO fit.

Kristof-Brown (2000) considered KSAs, values, and personality traits as antecedents of the recruiters' perceptions of the applicants' PJ and PO fit. Kristof-Brown found that recruiters use the applicants' KSAs more frequently to evaluate the applicants' PJ fit than their PO fit. In addition, recruiters more frequently use applicants' values and

personality traits to evaluate PO fit rather than PJ fit. Similarly, Cable and Judge (1997) found that actual applicant-organization value congruence is positively related to an interviewer's person-organization fit evaluations mediated by the interviewer's perceived applicant-organization value congruence. Other variables have also been related to an interviewer's PO fit perceptions beyond values. Cable and Judge (1997) found that an applicant's GPA, an interviewer's liking of the applicant, and the applicant's physical attractiveness are related to the interviewer's PO fit perceptions. Conversely, the authors found no significant results for work experience.

Interestingly, Kristof-Brown (2000) found in exploratory analyses that recruiters rarely agree on the specific indicators of a good fit, either PO or PJ. Instead, the recruiters' perceptions are dominated by idiosyncratic ideas of what is a good PJ or PO fit during the evaluations of the applicants. Kristof-Brown's results matches Adkins' et al. (1994) finding, of a significant relationship in value congruence between the applicants and the recruiters and between the applicants and the ideal applicant. These results are also congruent with the work reported by Bretz et al (1993) as well as Judge, Higgins, and Cable (2000), where the authors reported that there are still concerns as to what specifically is being measured in structured interviews. There seem to be individual differences in interviewer validity. These findings are key to this dissertation. They lead one to ask how we can know that these idiosyncratic ideas are not adversely affecting the quality of an interviewer's fit judgments. Kristof-Brown suggested two possible explanations for poor quality fit judgments. First, participants received a limited amount of interview training. Second, in agreement with Judge and Ferris (1992), the recruiters

may use themselves as standards or individualized benchmarks to judge both PO and PJ fit.

Kristof-Brown, Barrick, and Franke (2002) studied the antecedents of the recruiters' PJ fit perceptions. The authors analyzed how applicants' characteristics influence the use of impression management tactics in interviews, and how these behaviors impact the interviewer's perceptions of PJ fit. The authors proposed that the applicants who use high levels of self-focused impression management tactics during interviews are judged as having a better PJ fit than those who use low levels. Self-focused impression management tactics are defined as maintaining attention on the candidate and allowing the candidate to focus the direction of the conversation on topics which allow him/her to excel. This link was not supported. Similarly, the relationship between an applicant's GPA and a recruiter's PJ fit perceptions, as well as the relationship between an applicant's non-verbal behavior and a recruiter's PJ fit perceptions were not significant. However, the relationship between an applicant's self-promotion and a recruiter's PJ fit perceptions was positively related.

In summary, the review of the antecedents of fit evaluations indicates that an interviewer's idiosyncratic ideas can influence fit perceptions. Bretz et al. (1993), Adkins et al. (1994), and Kristof-Brown (2000) have made explicit statements about this issue. However, there has been no attempt to consider these idiosyncratic ideas in a more systematic way. These idiosyncratic ideas strongly suggest the value of taking a perceived similarity approach. Unfortunately, an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant has been mentioned to be an important antecedent of fit perceptions, however

neither empirical evidence nor a theoretical rationale of its importance is offered in the existing literature. In addition, as indicated by Rynes and Gerhart (1990), there is some indication that beyond human capital, cultural capital characteristics may be important in the construction of the interviewer's fit perceptions.

Finally, little is known about the processes that are involved in the relationship between distal variables, such as demographics or perceived similarity, and fit perceptions. There is considerable evidence that liking should mediate the relationship between perceived similarity and fit evaluations. Orpen (1984) showed that for the majority of interviewers both actual and perceived similarity with applicants is strongly positively related to attraction. In turn, attraction is positively related to an interviewer's evaluations. Graves and Powell (1988, 1995) found that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is directly related to the interviewer's subjective qualifications of the applicant. The authors also found that perceived similarity is related to subjective qualifications mediated by interpersonal attraction. In an experimental study, Howard and Ferris (1996) arrived at the same conclusion. The authors found that an interviewer's perceived similarity with an applicant impacts the applicant's job suitability mediated by the interviewer's affect toward the candidate.

While not directly testing liking as a mediator between perceived similarity and fit evaluations, other research has found support for separate links. Baskett (1973), Peters and Terborgs (1975), and Rand and Wexley (1975) indicated that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant leads to the interviewer liking the applicant. In turn, Cable and Judge (1997) found that liking is positively related to an interviewer's PO fit

evaluations of an applicant. Keenan (1977) found that interpersonal attraction is positively related to an interviewer's perceptions of an applicant's qualifications.

It is interesting to note that researchers have not tested liking as a mediator of the relationship between perceived similarity and PO and PJ fit perceptions. It is also noteworthy that other mechanisms have not been explored. In particular, theory suggests that performance expectations should mediate the relationship between perceived similarity and an interviewer's PO and PJ perceptions (D. L. Hamilton & Trolier, 1986; Jussim, 1993; Ryan & Bogart, 1997; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). However, there is neither theory nor empirical evidence of these relationships. Instead, Heilman (1983) proposed that performance expectations should follow fit evaluations. Unfortunately, I have not found any empirical evidence favoring one causal relationship against the other.

The Relationship between Actual and Perceived Similarity

There are several studies that found that actual similarity on certain dimensions is related to perceived similarity in those dimensions. Curry and Kenny (1974), Duck and Craig (1978) and Lea and Duck (1982) studied values and personalities; Wayne and Liden (1995) analyzed the role of demographics. These authors concluded that actual similarity is positively related to perceived similarity. Riordan (1997, cited in Riordan, 2000) found that the relationship between actual and perceived similarity for visible characteristics such as age, sex, and race had small but significant correlations. However, for non-visible characteristics, such as education and tenure, there was no correlation between actual and perceived similarity. The author also found that race and sex

similarity were significantly correlated with perceptions of education similarity. Thus, the author concluded that individuals make judgments of similarity in characteristics that are non-visible based on visible characteristics.

In the interview literature there are only two articles that consider the relationship between actual interviewer-applicant similarity and an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant. Orpen (1984) showed that actual attitude similarity between an interviewer and an applicant is correlated with the interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant. Graves and Powell (1995) found that sex similarity between an applicant and an interviewer is related to the interviewer's perceived similarity in attitudes and values with the applicant. Other characteristics, such as race, age, education, or work experience remain to be studied.

In summary, this review indicates the need to distinguish between actual and perceived similarity (Riordan, 2000). Second, the only two studies available in the interview literature (Graves & Powell, 1995; Orpen, 1984) show that there is much more to be done in this area. Perceived similarity can be constructed from other demographic variables beyond sex. In addition, there is also a need to understand the effect of demographics, taken as a whole, on perceived similarity (Riordan, 2000).

Summary and Contribution of This Dissertation

Based on this literature review, several points stand out. First, the literature suggests that distal variables, such as demographics or human capital are important antecedents in interviewers' evaluations of applicants. However, relationships are

complex, indicating that boundary conditions and processes variables are involved in these evaluations.

Second, the empirical evidence shows that sex similarity is related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant. However, nothing is known about the effects of both actual age and race/ethnicity similarity on perceived similarity, nor about the effect of actual demographic similarity (as a whole composed of sex, race/ethnicity, and age) on perceived similarity. Moreover, the current literature does not address the effect of either human capital similarity or cultural capital similarity on perceived similarity. Most importantly, there is lack of empirical evidence showing that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is an antecedent of the interviewer's fit perceptions of the applicant.

The contribution of this dissertation will be to offer theoretical reasons as well as empirical testing of the idea that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is of critical importance in understanding the interviewer's construction of fit perceptions. In doing so, I will research processes that may help to explain the relationship between perceived similarity and fit evaluations. I will also contribute to the interview and fit literatures in studying the relationship between actual and perceived similarity, not only on demographics but also on human capital, and cultural capital. I will also add to the human resource literature by discussing the potentially important role of cultural capital in fit assessments.

CHAPTER III

THEORY DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESES

Overview of the Model

The theoretical model guiding this dissertation is shown in Figure 1. In this dissertation I seek to explain interviewers' recommendations to hire. The antecedent variables that I consider in this model are three types of actual (or objective) similarity between an interviewer and an applicant: demographic, human capital, and cultural capital similarity. Interviewer-applicant demographic similarity is defined as actual similarity in age, sex, and race/ethnicity. Interviewer-applicant human capital similarity is defined as actual similarity in investments (primarily educational) that affect human capabilities to do productive work (Schultz, 1961). Finally, interviewer-applicant cultural capital similarity is defined as actual similarity in widely shared cultural attributes expressed through behaviors, habits, and attitudes, that are used for social and cultural distinctions (Bourdieu, 1984; Katsillis & Rubinson, 1990; Lamont & Lareau, 1988). These three measures of actual similarity are predicted to positively relate to an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant, understood as an overall perception of similarity. In turn, an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is expected to be positively related to liking of the applicant and negatively related to the interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of the applicant. Liking is expected to be positively related to an interviewer's perceptions of both an applicant's PO and PJ fit. Conversely,

an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations are negatively related to the interviewer's perceptions of an applicant's fit measures. Finally, an interviewer's perceptions of both an applicant's PO fit and an applicant's PJ fit is posited to positively relate to the interviewer's recommendation to hire.

Importance of Perceived Similarity

As indicated above, one of the main goals of this dissertation is to explore the antecedents of fit perceptions. As a main antecedent, I examine the interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant, defined as an interviewer's discovery and recognition of the similitude between the characteristics of an applicant and his/her own characteristics (Duck & Barnes, 1992). The interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant is important in the hiring domain for several reasons. The self is the central point of the perceptual field and is the frame of reference in terms of which all other perceptions gain their meaning (Combs & Snygg, 1959; Markus, Smith, & Moreland, 1985). Perceived similarity is an important organizing principle to categorize other people and ourselves (Simon, Pantaleo, & Mummendey, 1995). It is also an organizing principle through which stimuli and concepts are formed (Simon et al., 1995). Perceived similarity has been also shown to affect interviewers' reactions to applicants (Graves & Powell, 1988, 1995). Finally, perceived similarity may have important adverse consequences for organizations in that it can lead to suboptimal hiring and be the source of negative effects. In particular, an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant has been related to bias (Frank & Hackman, 1975; Rand & Wexley, 1975).

Given the importance of perceived similarity in my model, I will start the theory development analyzing the direct effects of actual similarity on perceived similarity. Researchers have found that perceived similarity is related to actual similarity in several domains. In an interview context, this relationship has also been found (e.g., Graves & Powell, 1995). In this dissertation, I will expand the research to domains that have been unexplored. But before starting with the theory development it is necessary to disentangle a common misunderstanding between similarity and attraction.

It is important to mention that similarity is not equal to attraction. There is a misrepresentation in the literature based on the idea that similarity always leads to attraction (Duck, 1998; Duck & Barnes, 1992). For Byrne, similarity causes attraction only when it is reinforcing (Byrne, 1969). Attraction toward a person is a positive linear function of the proportion of positive reinforcements received from that person. In terms of conceptualization, similarity is seen either as an objective match between two persons in a certain domain or as the recognition of similarity (Duck & Barnes, 1992). A problem in the early similarity studies is that the difference between actual and perceived similarity is not clear. For instance, Byrne does not distinguish between actual and perceived similarity (Duck & Barnes, 1992). On the other hand, attraction is seen either as a synonym for “liking,” the way it is used in this dissertation, or as an affective reaction to strangers (Duck, 1977). Conceptually and empirically, similarity and attraction are also different. In particular, Byrne’s typical way of measuring similarity and attraction was as follows: subjects filled out an attitude questionnaire and then they were given the same scale filled out by a stranger (hypothetical person). Byrne measured

subjects' thoughts related to the stranger. As a measure of attraction, Byrne used the Interpersonal Judgment Scale (IJS). Subjects rated others on six 7-point rating scales. Only two of these six items measured how much they would like to work with the other and how much they liked him/her. These two items are used to compute the index of attraction (Byrne, 1971; Duck, 1977).

Antecedents of an Interviewer's Perceived Similarity to an Applicant

Going beyond Human Capital

Most prescriptive models of hiring focus on human capital as the primary selection criterion to be used, and on fit assessment in particular. But, several lines of research have indicated that during the selection stage there is more than human capital that affects fit assessments, and ultimately, an interviewer's recommendation to hire. An important antecedent of fit judgments and hiring recommendations is values (*e.g.*, Cable & Judge, 1997; Kristof-Brown, 2000). Other factors, such as impression management tactics (Kristof-Brown et al., 2002), personality (Kristof, 1996, 2000), perceived interviewer-applicant similarity (Kristof-Brown et al., 2002), and demographics (Cable & Judge, 1997) have been studied but with less emphasis.

Other factors that may impact on a recommendation to hire have also been observed, particularly in those fit studies that have focused on interviews. Some of these factors are related to both cultural signals and life styles. According to Rynes and Gerhart (1990), some traits commonly associated with fit include values, hobbies, attire, use of leisure time, and even eating habits. These factors become particularly important

once the screening processes identify candidates who meet minimal job requirements. Thus, these factors may be critical in determining which applicants receive job offers.

The interview literature also suggests that there is more than human capital to take into consideration. Huffcutt, Conway, Roth, and Stone (2001) found that characteristics associated with demographics such as physical attributes are also taken into consideration. Other relevant characteristics are associated with cultural capital, such as interests and preferences.

There is a significant amount of research developed by sociologists on the effect of cultural capital on education (Aschaffenburg & Maas, 1997; De Graaf, De Graaf, & Kraaykamp, 2000; DiMaggio & Mohr, 1985; Farkas, 1996; Farkas, Grobe, Sheehan, & Shuan, 1990; Katsillis & Rubinson, 1990; Sullivan, 2001; Teachman, 1987). Cultural capital has also been used to understand behavior in organizations and job choice (Bourgois, 1999; Erickson, 1996; Willis, 1977). However little to nothing has been done in the area of selection. The introduction of this dimension in this dissertation opens several questions such as:

- What exactly is the difference between human capital and cultural capital?;
- What does cultural capital measure?; and
- What are the implications of differences in cultural capital in organizational research (*e.g.*, performance, organizational citizenship behavior, etc) and in the human resource literature in particular (*e.g.*, selection, fit assessments)?

In this dissertation I will explore some of these questions.

Differences between Human Capital and Cultural Capital

The literature about the differences between human capital and cultural capital is mixed with respect to their limits. Bourdieu (1986) and Anheier, Gerhards, and Romo (1995) considered human capital as a subdimension of cultural capital. Bourdieu (1986) stated that cultural capital can exist in three forms: in the embodied state as long-lasting dispositions of the mind and body; in the objectified state as cultural goods (*e.g.*, paintings); and in the institutionalized state as is the case of educational qualifications. This last state is the one that would be similar to human capital. Anheier, *et al.* (1995) considered two types of cultural capital: “incorporated” in the form of education and knowledge (what would be called human capital by other researchers), and “symbolic,” or the capacity to define and legitimize cultural, moral, and artistic values, standards, and styles.

Conversely, other researchers have considered human capital as separate from cultural capital. The dimensions of human capital and cultural capital are not only different but they also represent different theoretical backgrounds. As reviewed by Farkas (1996), human capital theory explains increased productivity and earnings as a result of human capital investments. This perspective emphasizes the individual-level of analysis with little attention to the group structure of society. The main proponents of this perspective are Schultz (1960; 1981) and Becker (1964). Instead, cultural capital theory explains education, productivity, and earnings through group membership and the shared understandings that constitute group culture. The main proponents of this theory

are Collins (1971; 1979) and DiMaggio (1982). In terms of operationalization of variables, cultural capital is also different from human capital. For instance, DiMaggio and Mohr (1985) separate cultural capital from general ability or graduate training, which is considered human capital by Schultz (1961).

In this dissertation, I apply these two different theories of employment outcomes—human capital and cultural capital—to study the relationship of an interviewer's and a candidate's objective human capital, cultural capital, perceived similarity, fit assessments, and the interviewer's recommendations to hire. Specifically, drawing from Schultz (1961), human capital has three distinctive characteristics. First, it implies an investment. Second, the investment affects human capacities to do productive work. Third, it implies an economic consequence or a return on the investment. Thus, KSAs, work experience, level of education, and academic major are commonly treated as dimensions of human capital. Drawing from Bourdieu (1984), Lamont and Lareau (1988), and Katsillis and Rubinson (1990), I consider cultural capital as behaviors, habits, and attitudes used for social and cultural distinctions. As stated, I consider cultural capital in the embodied state following Bourdieu (1986), mainly because differences in cultural capital have been demonstrated more in non-material culture than in material culture (Gartman, 1991). Thus, for example, manners, the reading of specific authors, listening to specific music, or going to certain forms of live performances are considered dimensions of cultural capital that have greater opportunity to emerge than owning certain goods, clothing, or furniture.

Implications of Differences in Cultural Capital

What exactly are the implications of differences in cultural capital in fit studies? Bourdieu (1977) sees differences in cultural capital as differences of class symbols. As such, if cultural capital can be used as a proxy for class, and cultural capital is shown to affect fit perceptions, then hiring recommendations may be partially explained by class. However, Bourdieu (1984) argues that there is not an immediate link between economic structure and cultural practices, although there is a strong correlation. First, this link is metaphorically explained through “trajectories” and statistical relationships. For Bourdieu (1984: 111), to say that the members of a class initially possessing a certain economic and cultural capital are destined, with a given probability, to an educational and social trajectory leading to a given position means that a fraction of the class will deviate from the trajectory most common for the class as a whole and follow the (higher or lower) trajectory which was most probably for members of another class. These trajectories are the result of two factors, the education, as provided by the family, and the social rise or decline of disposition and opinions. Second, but not less important, this link is also explained through the concept of time. People change economic conditions; some become rich, other go down in the economic structure. For Bourdieu (1984), cultural capital can only be acquired throughout time, by means of time. So, one person may change their economic status, but it will take time to learn the dispositions associated with that position.

A related argument is whether or not class matters, especially in the case of the U.S. For cultural capital researchers such as Gartman (1991) and Katz-Guerro (1999),

differences in cultural capital among classes continue to matter. Thus, through the study of cultural capital, researchers can study class differences through lifestyles that are markers of social and cultural distinctions (Katz-Guerro, 1999; Bourdieu, 1984). These distinctions may have human resource consequences, such as differences in fit evaluations and as a consequence, in interviewers' recommendations to hire.

Thus, in this dissertation I propose to analyze how fit assessments are made, not only through actual human capital similarity between the interviewer and the applicant, but also through actual cultural capital similarity. I add the actual similarity on demographic factors of gender, race, and sex as the most basic factors upon which distinctions are made as a third dimension because of the wealth of relational demography research which suggests its importance.

The Role of Actual Similarity in Fit Assessments

As relational demography has proposed, the level of an individual's similarity in demographic characteristics (*e.g.*, with a supervisor) affects the individual's work perceptions, attitudes, and work outcomes (Riordan & Shore, 1997; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). However, only a few fit studies included an actual similarity measure (Adkins et al., 1994; Cable & Judge, 1996; Judge & Ferris, 1992; Kristof-Brown et al. 2002), and none of these studies explained recommendation to hire. The lack of emphasis on actual or objective similarity is unfortunate given the strong theoretical rationale offer by relational demography researchers. Furthermore, a consistent finding in the literature is that positive evaluations of job applicants are related to the degree of similarity of the applicant to the rater (Orpen, 1984).

Putting the Puzzle Together

On the left side, Table 2 (Appendix 1) shows those characteristics that either have been shown to affect or have been suggested to affect fit evaluations and recommendations to hire. To the right of Table 2, I have grouped some of these factors on the basis of whether they fit into the category of human capital, cultural capital, and demographics. KSAs, GPA, and work experience are components of human capital. Race, sex, and physical characteristics are demographics. Hobbies, attire, use of leisure time, eating habits, interests, and preferences are components of cultural capital.

Some other characteristics are problematic to classify. For instance, articulateness and general communication skills are typically considered human capital components. However, they can also be considered cultural capital components if we take into consideration how people articulate and communicate (*e.g.*, pronunciation) (Bourdieu, 1986). Depending upon the type of job, some values can be grouped as cultural capital – *e.g.*, self-direction, conformity to external authority (Kohn, 1977)—whereas other values cannot –*e.g.* fairness. Non-verbal behavior as well as verbal and non-verbal cues can be problematic as well. Smiling is an example of a non-verbal behavior that is not related to cultural capital. Instead, dressing in a sophisticated way is. Some verbal cues can be grouped as cultural capital (*e.g.*, using grammatically correct English most of the time), whereas other verbal cues cannot (*e.g.*, cheering on your favorite football team). Physical attractiveness is an individual difference (*e.g.*, I like thin more than robust men), however what is considered attractive is also cultural (*e.g.*, the most attractive women in the 90s for North America were very thin). Appearance, especially apparel, can be related to

cultural capital; however, posture cannot be. Interpersonal skills and applied social skills are related to cultural capital; however, they can also be classified as human capital. Finally, personality is an individual difference, although some personality traits are culturally defined (see McLeod, 1995: 117, 186). Interestingly, there has not been a systematic study of all these factors in fit studies, nor have they been studied in conjunction with each other. In this dissertation, I propose to study these three similarity dimensions, demographics, human capital, and cultural capital, simultaneously.

Link between Actual Interviewer-Applicant Similarity and an Interviewer's Perceived Similarity to an Applicant

The first set of hypotheses of this study state that actual demographic, human capital, and cultural capital similarity is positively related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant. Perceived similarity is considered as an overall perception of similarity. So, actual demographic, human capital, and cultural capital similarity leads to an overall perception of similarity regardless of the importance of each component (*e.g.*, regardless whether human capital is more important than demographics).

In the process of establishing a dyadic relationship (*e.g.*, interviewer-applicant), there is a shared meaning or knowing that one is similar to the other (Duck & Barnes, 1992). In this sense, actual similarity is related to perceived similarity because of this shared meaning or acknowledgment that, for instance, educational background are similar to one another. The important point is not the existence of actual similarity but the recognition of it by the persons involved. Actual similarity then leads to the realization

of a shared reality (Duck & Barnes, 1992), such as both persons realize that either have the same sex or that have the same work experience. Ferris and Judge (1991) suggested that one reason that perceptions of fit predict outcomes better than actual fit is because people react on the bases of perceptions of reality and not reality per se.

Relational demography stresses that demographic similarity is a determinant of perceptions of similarity (Riordan, 2000). According to Tsui, Porter, and Egan (2002), individuals similar in demographic characteristics emphasize the positive attributes of each other and derive a positive social identity. They tend to view and treat each other more favorably than demographically dissimilar people. Following this line of research, categorizing people into in-groups and out-groups leads to perceptions of both their similarities with their in-group and their differences from their out-group. Thus, demographic similarity is one way to construct perceived similarity.

The social comparison literature indicates that people compare with others that are similar (Festinger, 1954). In turn, the social comparison of abilities literature indicates that ability or general competence is a crucial factor upon which people compare themselves (Jellison & Arkin, 1977). Thus, this literature suggests that actual similarity in either abilities or general competence (Festinger, 1950, 1954; Jellison & Arkin, 1977) is another frame of reference of perceptions of similarity. Other researchers, instead, consider actual similarity in values, attitudes, opinions, and/or behaviors as antecedents of perceptions of similarity. People with similar attitudes or values recognize that they treat aspects of the world as having similar meaning. People

with similar behaviors discover the meaning of the behavior of others and incorporate it into their own constructive meaning universe (Burnes & Duck, 1992).

There is empirical support for the relationship between actual and perceived similarity. In particular, Cable and Judge (1997) supported the hypothesis that actual applicant-organization value congruence positively affects perceived applicant-organization value congruence. Judge and Cable (1997) found that applicant-organization objective PO fit is positively related to applicants' subjective (perceived) PO fit with the organization. Wayne and Liden (1995) found that demographic similarity between a supervisor and a subordinate is positively related to the supervisor's perceptions of his or her similarity to the subordinate. Orpen (1984) found that interviewer-applicant attitude similarity was correlated to an interviewer's perceived attitude similarity with the applicant.

Thus, based on both theory and empirical evidence I propose that:

Hypothesis 1a: Actual interviewer-applicant demographic similarity is positively related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant.

Hypothesis 1b: Actual interviewer-applicant human capital similarity is positively related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant.

Hypothesis 1c: Actual interviewer-applicant cultural capital similarity is positively related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant.

Consequences of an Interviewer's Perceived Similarity to an Applicant

Link between an Interviewer's Perceived Similarity to an Applicant and the Interviewer's

Perceptions of the Applicant's PO and PJ Fit

The next set of hypotheses states that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is an antecedent of both the interviewer's PO fit perceptions and PJ fit perceptions of the applicant. Thus, an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is a mediator between actual similarity and the interviewer's PO and PJ fit perceptions of the applicant. From a similarity-attraction paradigm view (Byrne, 1971), perceived similarity may lead an interviewer to perceive an applicant both as more qualified to do the job and as a better match for the organization, because the interviewer will feel more attracted to those similar to himself/herself.

As mentioned before, the social psychology literature indicates that perceived similarity is an important organizing principle through which stimuli and concepts are formed (Simon et al., 1995). One such concept is an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant. Ferris and Judge (1991) suggested that interviewers may consider themselves to be organizational models and may assume that their personal attributes are good standards for evaluating PO fit. Scheneider (1987) indicated that those applicants selected would be similar to those already in the organization. Thus, an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is positively related to the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PO fit. On the other hand, Jellison and Arkin (1977) stated that ability or general competence is the crucial factor on which people compare themselves. Thus,

an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant will drive not only PO fit perceptions but also PJ fit perceptions.

Thus, actual similarity affects both perceived PO and PJ fit mediated by perceptions of similarity. In other words, I suggest that actual demographic, human capital, and cultural capital similarity may not have direct effects on either perceived PO/PJ fit or hiring recommendations. Rather, actual similarity must generate perceptions of similarity. In this sense, the effects of actual similarity are indirect.

Few fit studies link similarity with other fit measures. In a study of the work values of recruiters, their organizations, and job applicants in actual job interviews, Adkins et al. (1994) found that recruiters' judgments of employability and PO fit are driven by either a 'similar-to-me bias,' also called idiosyncratic fit or a 'similar-to-an-ideal bias,' also called universal fit. Cable and Judge (1996) found no support for the hypothesis according to which actual demographic similarity between job seekers and organizational recruiters positively affects job seekers' perceived PO fit. Probably, the lack of support of this hypothesis is due to the fact that it is perceived similarity, not actual similarity, that leads to job seekers' perceived PO fit.

Studies of similarity also support the idea that an interviewer's perceptions of similarity with an applicant are related to the interviewer's PJ and PO fit perceptions of the applicant. Baskett (1973), Peters and Terborg (1975), and Rand and Wexley (1975) found that when a recruiter sees applicants as similar to himself or herself in both attitudes and background, the recruiter views the candidate as more qualified for the job. Graves and Powell (1988, 1995) found that perceived similarity is an antecedent of

subjective qualifications, a measure closely related to that of PO and PJ fit perceptions.

In summary, from both theory and empirical evidence I propose that:

Hypothesis 2a: An interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is positively related to the interviewer's PO perceptions of the applicant.

Hypothesis 2b: An interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is positively related to the interviewer's PJ perceptions of the applicant.

Mediators

Next, I explore two mechanisms that mediate the relationship between an interviewer's perceptions of similarity with an applicant and the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PJ and PO fit: liking and negative behavioral expectations. As indicated in the literature review, there is a gap in the literature regarding processes that mediate the relationship between perceived similarity and fit evaluations. There is considerable evidence to suggest that one such process is an interviewer's liking of an applicant. There is also theory that suggests that behavioral expectations may function as another important mediator. In addition, these mechanisms are in line with the suggestion offered by Tsui et al. (2002), that researchers explore perceived similarity/attraction and expectations as mediators that link demographic similarity-dissimilarity to outcomes.

Liking as a Mediator

I propose that liking, defined as an affective reaction that results in an interviewer's positive or negative affect toward an applicant, is a mediator between the interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant and PO and PJ fit perceptions. The social psychology and organizational literature show a strong association between perceived similarity, attraction, and liking (as the attraction's main mechanism (Moreland & Zajonc, 1982; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Drawing from social identity and social categorization theory, relational demography researchers (Tsui et al., 2002) have indicated that through social categorization individuals perceive others either as members of the same category (in-group) or a different category (out-group). To establish a positive social identity, individuals tend to see in-group members as more attractive than outgroup members. Thus, drawing from relational demography literature, it can be suggested that interviewers will tend to like applicants who are similar to themselves –if categorized as members of the in-group. The similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971) suggests that perceived similarity between individuals leads to liking because it validates their views and opinions (Kristof-Brown et al., 2002).

However, interviewers may not consider applicants as part of the in-group because they are outsiders to the interviewer's organization. The cross-categorization model (Brewer & Brown, 1998) states that when two or more categories cut across one another, any differentiation made in terms of the original categories will be attenuated because of the simultaneous interplay of the between-category and within-category effects. The differentiation and assimilation process should cancel each other out, and

the differentiation in terms of the original category (*i.e.*, member of the organization/not a member of the organization) should be lessened. Thus, given that all applicants are outsiders to the interviewers' organization, an applicant that is perceived as more similar than another applicant will be more liked.

There is strong empirical evidence that perceived similarity is related to liking. In a study of the effects of impression management on performance ratings, Wayne and Liden (1995) found that a supervisor's perceptions of similarity to a subordinate are positively related to the supervisor's liking of the subordinate. Within a leader-member exchange perspective, Engle and Lord (1997) found support for the hypothesis that perceived attitudinal similarity between supervisors and subordinates is positively related to liking as evaluated by both supervisors and subordinates. Baskett (1973), Peters and Terbors (1975), and Rand and Wexley (1975) indicated that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant leads the interviewer to like the candidate. Riordan (2000) reported that both educational and gender similarity is related to liking.

Although the evidence supporting the suggested link and the theoretical rationale are strong, other alternative explanations are possible. In college and job-applicant studies, Frank and Hackman (1975) found individual differences in the effects of perceived similarity on liking (*i.e.*, for one interviewer the relationship is significant, for the other two interviewers the relationship is not significant). These results should be viewed with caution given that they may be a function of either the sample size or the statistical technique used: only three staff admission officers interviewed 29 candidates each and the statistical technique used was only correlational. A second alternative

explanation is that liking is an antecedent of perceived similarity, as well as an effect (Moreland & Zajonc, 1982; Wayne & Liden, 1995). This second alternative does not negate that perceived similarity leads to liking, but expands this relationship.

Thus, based on theory and empirical evidence I propose that:

Hypothesis 3: An interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is positively related to the interviewer's liking of the applicant.

In turn, liking is expected to impact an interviewer's PO and PJ fit perceptions of an applicant. Isen and collaborators (Isen, Johnson, Mertz, & Robinson, 1985; Isen, Niedenthal, & Cantor, 1992; Isen, Shalke, Clark, & Karp, 1978; Johnson, Erez, Kiker, & Motowidlo, 2002) demonstrated that positive affect cues positive material in memory. Thus, interviewers who like applicants will tend to positively evaluate those candidates.

Schneider (Schneider, 1987) and Schneider and Goldstein (1995) state in the Attraction-Selection-Attrition model that people who are similar to each other will be attracted to one another and eventually will be selected. In the long term, organizations will consist of people similar to each other. Thus, this model suggests that people who are similar are attracted to each other and as a consequence, there will be a match between certain characteristics of a person and certain characteristics of the organization. Thus, liking will be positively related to PO fit perceptions.

Similarly, positive PJ fit perceptions are also likely. Turban and Jones (1988) empirically showed that perceived similarity is an antecedent of performance evaluations.

People in a positive affective state are more willing to see relationships among ideas resulting in a broader categorization (Isen et al., 1985; Johnson et al., 2002). For instance, candidates that represent a weak example of the KSAs required for the job and are liked will be perceived as a better match for the job than candidates with the same KSAs that are not liked.

Empirical evidence also is available for the link between liking and PO and PJ fit perceptions. Keenan (1977) found that interpersonal attraction is positively related to perceptions of selected applicants' qualification. In addition, Cable and Judge (1997) found that liking predicts perceived value congruence. Howard and Ferris (1996) found in an experimental study that an interviewer's affect toward an applicant is positively related to perceived job suitability of the applicant.

Thus, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 4a: An interviewer's liking towards an applicant is positively related to the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PO fit.

Hypothesis 4b: An interviewer's liking toward an applicant is positively related to the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PJ fit.

Thus, liking functions as a mediator between perceived similarity and PO and PJ fit perceptions. Relational demography researchers have proposed that perceptions of similarity will lead to attraction and liking, which in turn will lead to different

perceptions and attitudes (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Researchers working under a leader-member exchange framework suggest that affective reactions may mediate the effects of perceived attitudinal similarity on social judgments (Engle & Lord, 1997).

There is also evidence in support of liking as a mediator between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and PO and PJ fit perceptions. In an interview context, Orpen (1984) showed that for the majority of the interviewers both actual and perceived similarity to applicants is strongly related to attraction. In turn, attraction is positively related to positive interviewer evaluations. Finally, Graves and Powell (1988, 1995) found that perceived similarity of an applicant to an interviewer has a positive effect on interpersonal attraction felt by the interviewer toward the applicant. In turn, the authors found that interpersonal attraction has a positive effect on an applicant's subjective qualifications and interview outcomes.

Thus, following theory and empirical evidence, I propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5a: Liking mediates the relationship between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PO fit.

Hypothesis 5b: Liking mediates the relationship between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PJ fit.

Negative Behavioral Expectations as a Mediator

An interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant are defined as the interviewer's negative predictions of the applicant's future performance. The main reason for including *negative* behavioral expectations is because according to the interview literature, negative information is more diagnostic than positive information. Rowe (1989) argued that unfavorable information has greater information value and is more important to an interviewer than favorable information. In turn, interviewers assimilate this information to form expectations (Jones, 1986; Jussim, 1993). More likely, the interviewer will use this negative information—more than the positive information—to generate expectations regarding the future performance of this applicant.

I hypothesize that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is related to the interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of the applicant. The rationale for this hypothesis is based on the following premises. First, through social categorization, individuals perceive others either similar to themselves (as part of the in-group) or dissimilar (as part of the out-group) (Brewer, 1979; Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Second, out-group members will be more likely to be stereotyped than in-group members. Third, these out-group stereotypes will generally be negative and extreme. Finally, some of those stereotypes will be related to behavioral expectations. Thus, it follows that out-groups or dissimilar people are more likely to be the target of negative behavioral expectations than in-groups.

Several authors have concluded that out-groups are more likely to be stereotyped. For instance, Haslam, Oakes, Turner, and McGarty (1996) stated that people apply

stereotypes more to out-groups than to in-groups. Koomen and Dijker (1997) have argued that when processing in-group information, people encode stereotype-inconsistent information as compared to stereotype-consistent information. The reverse pattern occurs when people process out-group information. According to Ryan and Bogart (1997), the in-group is perceived to be less stereotypical and more variable than the out-group. However, evidence also exists demonstrating in-group homogeneity on desirable attributes on which their social identity is founded has been found (Simon, 1992a, 1992b).

Second, these out-group stereotypes are generally both extreme and negative. In a study developed by Vonk (2002), it was found that, in an out-group condition compared to an in-group condition, the difference between stereotypical and counter-stereotypical members was overestimated. The authors' interpretation of this result was that participants perceiving out-group members tend to categorize members as either 'black' or 'white,' while shades of gray are assigned to in-group members, except on typical in-group attributes where perceived in-group homogeneity should exceed perceived out-group homogeneity (Simon, 1992b). Ryan, Park, and Judd (1996) showed that stereotypes of out-groups exaggerate stereotypic attributes (*i.e.*, clearer prototype in out-groups), underestimate counter-stereotypic attributes, and underestimate the dispersion of group members. For both Brewer (1988) and Hamilton and Troler (1986) judgments about in-groups members were less evaluatively extreme than judgments about members of out-groups.

In addition, this in-group/out-group distinction will lead to more negative evaluations of out-groups than in-groups (Hamilton & Trolie, 1986). Positive behaviors of in-group members will be more likely attributed to internal causes whereas in the case of out-group members positive behaviors will be attributed to external causes (Hamilton & Trolie, 1986). In a series of experiments where in-group/out-group distinctions were established, Howard and Rothbart (1980) demonstrated that this differentiation led to favorable expectations regarding in-group members and unfavorable expectations regarding out-group members. This last study is consistent with the idea that one of the functions of stereotypes is that they are the basis for behavioral expectations regarding the stereotyped group (D. L. Hamilton, Sherman, & Ruvolo, 1990; W. S. Stephan & Stephan, 2000). In fact, Hamilton and Trolie (1986: 133) defined a stereotype as a cognitive structure that contains the perceiver's knowledge, beliefs, and expectancies about some human group (*i.e.*, a mental model). According to Stephan (1985), many stereotype-based expectancies are negative, except those associated with the in-group.

In summary, it can be concluded that if dissimilarity implies out-group membership, an applicant will be more stereotyped, the stereotypes will be both more extreme and negative, and they will involve or be the basis for negative behavioral expectations. Then, it is more likely that the out-group member will be subjected to more negative behavioral expectations than the in-group member.

Thus, I propose that:

Hypothesis 6: The less an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant, the more negative his/her behavioral expectations of the applicant.

To the degree an interviewer holds negative behavioral expectations of an applicant, he/she will judge the applicant's PJ fit and PO fit to be worse than that of applicants for whom he/she does not possess such negative behavioral expectations. Expectations may produce self-fulfilling prophecies, in particular one special case of self-fulfilling prophecy called the Pygmalion effect (Eden, 1984; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). In this case, raising manager's expectations in relation to worker performance increases that performance (Eden, 1984). Thus, there is a positive relationship between expectations and outcomes. If the expectations are positive, outcomes will be positive; otherwise if the expectations are negative, outcomes will be negative. Expectations may also lead to perceptions. In the reflection-construction model, Jussim (1993) states that perceivers' expectations about targets may influence perceivers' impressions and judgments regarding those targets. In other words, behavioral expectations can affect subsequent perceptions.

Specifically, these behavioral expectations will lead to perceptions related to both PJ and PO fit. Above, I defined behavioral expectations as an interviewer's predictions of an applicant's future performance. Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez (1998) showed that there are five dimensions associated with performance: the job, the organization, the career, the team, and the innovator role. Four out of these five dimensions are relevant for the purpose of this study. Following Welbourne et al. (1998), the jobholder role is

associated with the traditional view of employee performance, the organizational member role is associated with organizational citizenship behaviors, the team member role reflects teamwork, and the innovator role calls not only for creativity at the job level but also for creativity on behalf of the entire organization. Clearly, jobholders' behavioral expectations will be associated with the KSAs of the target. Thus, an interviewer's predictions of an applicant's future performance will be associated with the interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of the applicant. The more negative the predictions, the less positive the interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of the applicant. The organizational member, teamwork, and innovator dimensions are associated with how an interviewer sees an applicant as being integrated into the organization as a whole. Therefore, it can be expected that the more negative an interviewer's behavioral expectations of an applicant regarding his/her role as an organizational member, team member, and innovator, the less the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PO fit.

There is some evidence of the link between negative behavioral expectations and an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant. In particular, Heilman (2001) stated that the effect of negative performance expectations have been demonstrated when women seek entry into organizations. These expectations create a predisposition toward negativity that impacts on perceptions and judgments (*e.g.*, skills and ability).

Thus, I propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 7a: To the degree an interviewer holds negative behavioral expectations of an applicant, he/she will judge the applicant's PO fit to be worse than that of applicants for whom he/she does not possess such negative behavioral expectations.

Hypothesis 7b: To the degree an interviewer holds negative behavioral expectations of an applicant, he/she will judge the applicant's PJ fit to be worse than that of applicants for whom he/she does not possess such negative behavioral expectations.

In addition, I propose that an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations mediate the relationship between the interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and both the interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of the applicant and the interviewer's PO fit perceptions of the applicant. According to Stephan (1985), category-based expectations affect the perception of social information that is presented. Thus, Stephan suggests that expectations based on perceptions of group differences (*i.e.*, in-group/out-group) may affect PJ or PO perceptions of applicants. Thus, I propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 8a: An interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant mediates the relationship between the interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant and the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PO fit.

Hypothesis 8b: An interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant mediate the relationship between the interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant and the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PJ fit.

Consequences of an Interviewer's Perceptions of an Applicant's PO and PJ Fit

The last set of hypotheses of this study state that an interviewer's perceptions of an applicant's PJ and PO fit are positively related to hiring recommendations. Drawing from a rational model of staffing decisions (Judge & Ferris, 1992), a recommendation to hire would be based on a comparison of an applicant's KSAs versus the demands of the job. From that point of view, an interviewer's perceptions of an applicant's PJ fit would prevail on recommendations to hire. However, from the attraction-selection-attrition model (Schneider, 1987), an interviewer would be more likely to recommend those applicants perceived as more similar to people already in the organization and to himself/herself in terms of values, goals, or personality, which would be equal to hiring based on PO fit. Thus, both constructs are theoretically related to the interviewer's hiring recommendations.

Empirically, Cable and Judge (1997) found that an interviewer's subjective evaluations of an applicant's PO fit are positively related to hiring recommendations. In a more recent article, Kristof-Brown (2000) demonstrated that both PO fit and PJ fit explain unique variances in an interviewer's hiring recommendations. The author also found that PJ fit explained more variance than PO fit.

Thus, theoretical and empirical evidence lead to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 9a: An interviewer's perceptions of an applicant's PO fit will be positively related to the interviewer's recommendation to hire.

Hypothesis 9b: An interviewer's perceptions of an applicant's PJ fit will be positively related to the interviewer's recommendation to hire.

In summary, in this dissertation I specify and test a model linking actual applicant-interviewer demographic, human capital, and cultural capital similarity to an interviewer's recommendation to hire. Actual similarity is proposed to influence an interviewer's perceptions of similarity to an applicant. These perceptions, in turn, lead to the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PO fit and the applicant's PJ fit. Two main mechanisms are proposed to mediate the relationship between an interviewer's perceptions of similarity and an interviewer's perceptions of an applicant's fit: liking and negative behavioral expectations. Lastly, both an interviewer's PO and PJ fit perceptions of an applicant are posited to influence the interviewer's recommendation to hire.

CHAPTER IV

THE SCALE OF CULTURAL CAPITAL AND ITS VALIDATION

One of the main constructs of this dissertation is cultural capital. This construct has been developed in the sociological arena both theoretically and empirically (Bourdieu, 1984, DiMaggio, 1982), however, it has not been operationalized in a hiring context. Cultural capital could add to understanding human resource outcomes (*e.g.*, hiring recommendations). However, to my knowledge, there has been no attempt to link cultural capital to the human resource literature. In this dissertation, I proposed that cultural capital similarity between an interviewer and an applicant would predict an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant. Before testing this hypothesis and any of the other hypotheses of the model presented in Chapter III, I needed to develop a cultural capital scale relevant to this context. Unfortunately, the cultural capital scales available in the sociological literature (DiMaggio, 1982) do not include items that are relevant in the human resource field (*e.g.*, style of dress, verbal communication), particularly in an interview setting. Thus, I needed to develop and validate a scale of cultural capital.

In this chapter I describe three pilot studies conducted to develop and validate a cultural capital scale. In the first pilot study I generated the items of the cultural capital scale and develop the scale using factor analysis. In the second pilot study, I examined

the discriminant validity of the cultural capital scale. Finally, in the third pilot study I validated the measure of cultural capital in the laboratory.

Pilot Study 1

The objective of this study was to select the items of the cultural capital scale. With this goal, I created over 40 items representing different dimensions of cultural capital. Below, I explain in detail how these items were developed. Then, I collected data on both undergraduate and graduate students. Finally, I factor analyzed the data to get the factor/s that best represent the cultural capital construct.

Sample

Participants in the study were 419 undergraduate and graduate students from a large university located in the southwestern United States. The scale was administered in the last 15 minutes of two different summer classes taught the same day. Females represented 56.1% of the sample. The majority of the students were White (83.1%), followed by Asian Americans (5.5%), Hispanics (4.8%), Other (3.3%), and Native American (0.2%). The majority of the students were between 20 and 21 years old (73%), with the minimum age being 19 and the maximum age falling between 24 and 30 years old.

Procedure

In order to create the scale of cultural capital I selected dimensions that were relevant in the sociological and human resource literatures. In particular, I researched the cultural capital literature from sociology and both the fit and the interview literatures

from human resources. As a result of this research, I selected nine dimensions: reading, listening to music, interpersonal relations, attending performances (*e.g.*, theater, opera), visiting museums or galleries, manners, style of dress, verbal communication, and watching TV. Researchers from both sociology and human resources have indicated the importance of these dimensions in understanding assessment of applicants (*e.g.*, Rynes & Gerhart, 1990) and assessment of cultural capital (*e.g.*, DiMaggio, 1982).

I developed a questionnaire with 42 items (see Appendix 2). Seven items were related to reading, and their scope went from reading best sellers to reading prize-winning authors. Six items were related to listening to music, with their scope going from listening to rock music to listening to classical music. Three items were related to interpersonal relations, and their scope went from interacting with people from many diverse social, cultural, and class backgrounds to only interacting with people that are similar to oneself. Five items were related to attending performances, ranging from going to live ballet performances to watching films. Four items were related to museums or galleries; they involved behaviors such as visiting natural history museums or art galleries. Five items were related to manners, such as whether someone paid attention to etiquette. Two items were related to style of dress (*i.e.*, sophisticated vs. bohemian). Five items were related to verbal communication, with their scope going from using slang to using grammatically correct English most of the time. Finally, five items were related to watching TV and involved behaviors such as watching PBS or watching sitcoms.

All the items were framed as actions (*e.g.*, I read, I visit). Students answered these items in a Likert format according to the following options: 1 (never), 2 (almost

never), 3 (sometimes), 4 (almost always), 5 (always), and 10 (unsure). Two of the items (“I dress in a way that people think is sophisticated” and “I behave with decorum”) had a large number of “unsure” responses and so were removed from further consideration, resulting in the 40 items.

Analysis

I ran a principal components extraction factor analysis with varimax rotation in an exploratory mode to estimate the number of factors. I obtained a total of 14 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. The scree plot indicated the presence of thirteen factors. Even though I proposed nine dimensions, I expected only eight factors because after deleting the two items mentioned above, the dimension called “dress” contained only one item. Thus, in the next step I ran a factor analysis forcing eight factors, using principal components extraction and varimax rotation (see Table 3, Appendix 1). The eight factors explained 46.03% of the variance, but the first three factors had eigenvalues above two and the rest of the six factors had eigenvalues between one and two indicating that there were probably eight factors.

I used a .5 cut off to select items for the scale so that at least 25% of the variance could be accounted for by the factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Items 1-6 formed the first factor. The internal reliability of these items using Cronbach’s α . was .76, which is acceptable (Hair, Babin, Money, & Samouel, 2003; Sekaran, 2000). These items were related to high culture (*e.g.*, “I go to live ballet performances). Thus, I called this factor “High culture.” Items 7 and 8 formed the second factor. These items were related to low levels of reading (*e.g.*, “I do not read best-sellers”). The internal reliability of these items

was $\alpha = .55$, which is considered low (Sekaran, 2000). Items 9-12 formed the third factor. The items were related to news, foreign films, and watching educational TV programs. The internal reliability for this factor was also .55. The fourth factor consisted of items 13-15 with an internal reliability of .47. These items were related to dress, verbal communication, and manners. Items 16 and 17, which were related to reading winning authors, formed the fifth factor. The reliability of these items was .85, which is quite acceptable. The sixth factor contained items 18 and 19, which were related to using slang and watching sitcoms on TV. The internal reliability of these items was $\alpha = .38$, which is very low to be acceptable (Sekaran, 2000). Items 20 and 21 form the seventh factor. These items were related to interpersonal relations. The internal reliability was .64, which is acceptable (Sekaran, 2000). The last factor contained only one item related to verbal communication.

I used only the first factor –High Culture—as the measure of cultural capital. I decided to use only this factor for two reasons. First and most important, the explained variance dropped from 15.68% in factor one to 5.68% in factor two. The second criterion is that the reliability dropped from .76 (for the first factor) to .55 for the second factor. The remainder of the factors did not have acceptable reliabilities either, except for the fifth factor that had an internal reliability of $\alpha = .85$. In this case, I did not consider adding this factor because the change in variance explained from the fourth to the fifth factor was only .3% (eigenvalues for the fourth factor = 1.9; eigenvalues for the fifth factor = 1.6).

Discussion

The scale to measure cultural capital consisted, therefore, of items related to “high culture” (*e.g.*, listen to classical music, go to live ballet performances). I was expecting a multidimensional construct, but I faced several limitations that may explain these results. First, Study 1 was the first time I both collected data and analyzed this scale. As such, I did not have any prior information regarding either item structure or reliability. Second, the variance of the majority of the responses to the items of the scale was low. In particular, the variance of 28 items, out of the 40 items of the scale, was very low –below 1. The variance of the remaining 12 items was between 1 and 3.41. The range of the variance of the items went from .49 to 3.41. The third limitation was that the sample size was too low to run an adequate factor analysis with 40 items. The ideal sample size would have been 1000 observations, although 500 would have been good (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2001). The sample size was only 419, much lower than 500 observations. These limitations may account for the fact that the cultural capital scale at this point showed one factor.

Pilot Study 2

The main question I attempted to answer in this study was the following: Does cultural capital really exist as a meaningful, distinct construct? In order to answer this question, the objective of Pilot Study 2 was to construct and validate the cultural capital scale. In order to construct and validate the scale I analyzed both the convergent and the discriminant validity of the cultural capital measure using correlation coefficients (Cook

& Campbell, 1979; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The five factor model (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Goldberg, 1990, 1992) provides a comprehensive framework from which to examine personality and its relationship to cultural capital.

The first hypothesis of this pilot study was that openness to experience (“openness”) and cultural capital were positively correlated. Individuals who score high in openness are open-minded and tolerant and have divergent thinking and creativity. They also are intelligent, perceptive, imaginative, cultured, inquisitive, curious, and are more likely to adapt to others’ perspectives (Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). These qualities all suggest that openness should be positively related to cultural capital, because high cultural capital reflects open-mindedness. According to Bourdieu (1984), what distinguishes people with high cultural capital from those with low cultural capital is, for instance, the aptitude for taking an aesthetic point of view on objects already constituted aesthetically, for taking the rare capacity to constitute aesthetically objects that are ordinary or even common, or to apply the principles of a “pure” aesthetic in the most everyday choices of everyday life, such as cooking, dress, or decoration. These examples indicate open-mindedness. Thus, it was posited that openness was positively correlated to cultural capital.

On the other hand, there was no reason to expect that cultural capital was correlated to agreeableness. Those who score high in agreeableness are concerned about the well-being of others. Agreeable people are helpful, friendly, warm, trusting, and tolerant (Barrick, Neubert, Mount, & Stewart, 1998), as well as selfless and flexible

(Barrick & Mount, 1993). A primary motivation of agreeable people is altruism (Judge & Bono, 2000). Jensen-Campbell and Graziano (2001) state that compared to the other personality dimensions, agreeableness is related to motives for maintaining positive interpersonal relations. Agreeable people may minimize the negative impact of conflicts and negotiate outcomes that capitalize on the advantages of group situation.

Agreeableness is also linked to temperamental bases of effortful control, specifically the regulation of anger, possibly because agreeable people are motivated to maintain positive relations with other people. This motivation induces agreeable people to generate positive perceptions and attributions to what would otherwise be considered negative, provocative behavior.

A positive, altruistic, emotionally regulated person can have either high or low cultural capital because there are many factors, regardless of agreeableness that affect the cultural capital of a person, such as socioeconomic background, parents' cultural capital, parents' level of education, and so on. Thus, it was proposed that agreeableness is not correlated to cultural capital

Sample and Procedure

Participants and the procedure of the study were the same of those indicated in Pilot Study 1.

Measures

Both openness and agreeableness were measured with the NEO five-factor inventory (Costa & McCrae, 1991). The internal reliability of openness using Cronbach's α was .45 and that of agreeableness was .61. These reliabilities were quite

low compared to the typical reliabilities obtained with this scale. For openness, the internal consistency reliabilities reported by Leong & Dollinger (1990) ranged from .85 to .93. For agreeableness, the internal consistency reliability reported was .76.

Unfortunately, the low reliabilities obtained in my study imply problems with validity because the primary condition for validating a construct is to have high reliabilities (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Cultural capital was measured

with the factor obtained in Pilot Study 1, with an internal reliability of α .76.

Results

I used bivariate correlations to look at the relationships of the two Big Five dimensions with cultural capital. The correlation between cultural capital and openness was $r = .18, p = .00$ (1-tailed test). As predicted, cultural capital was positively correlated with openness. The correlation between cultural capital and agreeableness was $r = .06, p = .22$ (2-tailed test). As predicted, agreeableness was not correlated to cultural capital.

Discussion

Cultural capital was positively related to openness, but the correlation was low enough to indicate that both constructs are different from each other. Even a correlation of .60 is low enough to consider the construct as valid (Kerlinger & Lee, 2001). Also, cultural capital was not related to agreeableness. As a whole, these results suggested that cultural capital was different from agreeableness and openness, yet related to openness.

Pilot Study 3

The main question that I attempted to answer in this validation study was: Can people observe cultural capital in others? To answer this question, I analyzed in the laboratory the convergent and divergent validity of cultural capital.

A secondary question was: What variables of the model presented in Chapter III were related to cultural capital? It is possible that liking, defined as an affective reaction that results in a participant's positive or negative affect toward an applicant, was positively related to participants' perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital. Cultural capital is recognized as a legitimate competency and yields "profits of distinctions" for its owners (Bourdieu, 1986). The cultural capital of any person is also recognized institutionally (Bourdieu, 1986). In other words, high cultural capital is a sign of distinction that is respected, recognized, and valued by those who possess that cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1984, 1989). In turn, Brooks and Watkins (1989) found that judgment recognition is related to liking. Thus, I proposed that there is a positive relationship between the participants' perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital and the participants liking of the applicant.

Next, I asked: What variables of the model presented in Chapter III were negatively related to cultural capital? Cultural capital is associated with greater academic success (Bourdieu, 1977), and academic success as measured by GPA is a predictor of job performance (Roth, BeVier, Switzer, & Schippmann, 1996). In turn, interviewers infer performance expectations based on GPA. It follows that the less negative the participants' performance expectations, the higher participants' perceptions of the

applicant's cultural capital. Thus, I proposed that there would be a negative relationship between participants' perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital and participants' negative behavioral expectations of the applicant.

Finally, the last question was: What variables of the model presented in Chapter III were not related to cultural capital? There should be no relationship between participants' perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital and the participants' years of full-time work experience, because there are many situational and individual factors that affect participants' years of full-time work experience (*e.g.*, socioeconomic status, self-esteem) regardless of the participants' perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital. Thus, I proposed that participants' perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital would not be related to the participants' years of full-time work experience.

Sample

Participants in the study were 164 undergraduate students from a large university located in the southwestern United States. The survey (see Appendix 4) and a video-tape of an interview were administered in the last 30 minutes of four spring 2004 classes (four different sections of the same class) taught the same day (see Appendix 3 for the script of the video-tape). Females represented 37 % of the sample. The majority of the students were White (86.7%), followed by Hispanics (6.7 %), Asian/Asian American (4.2%), and African American (0.6%) and Other (0.6%). The average age of the students was 21.79 with a minimum of 20 and a maximum of 43.

Procedure

I conducted a between-subject study where cultural capital was varied. One female actor played the role of an applicant in two employment interviews. In one interview, the actor played the role of an applicant with high cultural capital and in the other interview the same actor played the role of an applicant with low cultural capital. In particular, in one interview the applicant expressed her interest in high culture. Responding to an interviewer's question regarding the willingness to do community service, the applicant (role-played by the actor) said: "I would be another member of the group organizing the event related to classical music, theater, and art galleries because I really think that it is important for the community!" In the second interview the applicant expressed the importance of recycling: "I'd help with the recycling because I really think that it is important for the community!" I manipulated only the cultural capital of the applicant, not the interviewer (see script of the interview in Appendix 3). These interviews were taped. They were about 5 minutes each.

Participants watched either the interview where the applicant had high cultural capital or the interview where the applicant had low cultural capital. After the interview was over, participants answered questions related to the participant's liking of the applicants, the participant's negative behavioral expectations of the applicant, participant's years of full time work experience, as well as control variables such as participant's perceived similarity to the applicant (the actor), and the participant's perceived physical attractiveness of the applicant. Participants received extra credit for participating in the study.

Measures

Dependent Variables

Participants' years of full-time work experience. This measure was in number of years and is a continuous variable.

Participants' liking of the applicant. This measure was based on scales by Wayne and Ferris (1990) and Wayne and Liden (1995). Participants answered two items: a) "I like the applicant very much as a person" and b) "I think the applicant would make a good friend." Each item was scaled from (1) strongly disagree, to (7) strongly agree. I obtained the average of the ratings of the two items to create the measure. The internal reliability of the items was .84.

Participant's negative behavioral expectations of the applicant. I adapted five items from Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez (1998). Two items measured the innovator dimension: a) "How likely is it that this applicant will be creative?" b) "How likely is it that this applicant will work to implement new ideas?" Two items measured the team dimension: c) "How likely is it that this applicant will work well as part of a team or work group?" and d) "How likely is it that this applicant will respond to the needs of others in his/her work/group?" I measured the organizational dimension with one item: e) "How likely is it that this applicant will work for the overall good of the company?" Finally, I adapted one item from Liden, et al. (1993) that measured the job dimension: "How likely is it that this applicant will be a poor performer?" The response format for the six items was in a Likert-type scale, from (1) Not at all likely to (5) Extremely likely.

I computed the average of the six items to obtain the participant's negative behavioral expectations' measure. The internal reliability of these items was α .84.

Independent Variable

Participant's perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital. I used the scale obtained in Study 1 (Chapter IV). Participants answered six items: 1) "The applicant listens to classical music recordings or radio programs," 2) "The applicant goes to live ballet performances," 3) "The applicant goes to live classical music performances," 4) "The applicant goes to live theater," 5) "The applicant listens to opera recordings or radio programs," and 6) "When she has free time, she visits art galleries." The response format for these items was in a Likert-type format, from (1) Never to (5) Always, (10) was given as an option if they were unsure. The internal reliability of these items using Cronbach's α was .94.

Control variables

As control variables, I included participant's sex because researchers have found sex effects on interview ratings (Ferris & Gilmore, 1977). I also controlled for participants' perceived similarity to the applicant because perceived similarity is related to liking (Moreland & Zajonc, 1982; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Finally, I controlled for participants' perceptions of the applicant's physical attractiveness because it is also related to liking (Curran & Lippold, 1975). I used four items to measure the interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant. I adapted three items from Turban and Jones (1988): a) "The applicant and I are similar in terms of our outlook, perspective, and values," b) "The applicant and I see things in much the same way," and c) "The

applicant and I are alike in a number of areas.” A last item was based on Kristof-Brown et al. (2002): “This applicant reminds me of myself.” Responses to these four items ranged from (1) Strongly disagree to (7) Strongly agree. I obtained the average of the ratings on the four items to create the participant’s “perceived similarity to the applicant” measure. The internal reliability of these items was .93. Finally, I also included as a control variable participants’ perceptions of the applicant’s physical attractiveness. Two items measured the physical attractiveness of the applicant (Farnsworth, 1993): 1) “How physically attractive do you think this person is?” and 2) “Compared to other people, do you think this person is more attractive or less attractive than most people?” Participants answered in a Likert type format from (1) very unattractive to (7) very attractive. The internal reliability of these items was .82.

Analysis

First, I ran a *t* test to analyze whether the high cultural capital condition (*i.e.*, the interview where the applicant had high cultural capital) was perceived by the participants of the study as significantly different from the low cultural capital condition. Results indicated that the two conditions were significantly different from each other, $t(136) = 9.50, p = .000$. This finding indicates that participants noticed differences in cultural capital.

Next, I ran a between-subject analysis using hierarchical multiple regression to test the hypotheses regarding convergent and divergent validity. In the first step, I regressed the dependent variable on the control variables. In the second step I regressed

the dependent variable on both the independent variable and on the control variables. I ran three regressions, one for each dependent variable: participants' liking of the applicant, participants' negative behavioral expectations of the applicant, and participants' years of full-time work experience.

Table 4 (Appendix 1) shows correlations, means, and standard deviations for all the variables in the study, including the control variables. Above I expected a positive relationship between the participants' perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital and the participants' liking of the applicant. After adding the controls in step 1, in step 2 the model is significant, $F(3, 150) = 33.25, p = .000$, although the $\Delta F(3, 150) = .76, p = .38$, is not significant. Participants' perceived similarity to the applicant, $b = .45, t(150) = 7.79, p = .000$, and participants' perceptions of the applicant's physical attractiveness, $b = .34, t(150) = 3.55, p = .001$, are positively related to participants' liking of the applicant. However, participants' perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital are not related to liking, $b = .08, t(150) = .87, p = .38$. Table 5 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (b), the adjusted R^2 , the R^2 , and the F . So, my expectations are partially confirmed. The bivariate correlation shows (see Table 4, Appendix 1) that participants' perceptions of the applicant cultural capital is significantly correlated to liking ($r = .23$); however, participants' perceptions of the applicant cultural capital are not significantly related to the participant's liking of the applicant, controlling for perceived similarity, attraction, and participant's sex.

I also posited that there would be a negative relationship between the participants' perceptions of the applicant cultural capital and participants' negative behavioral

expectations of the applicant. Table 6 (Appendix 1) shows that in step 2 the model is significant, $\Delta F(3, 149) = 31.13, p = .000$. Participants' perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital are negatively related to participants' negative behavioral expectations of the applicant, $b = -.28, t(149) = -5.58, p = .000$. In addition, participants' perceptions of similarity with the applicant are also significant, $b = -.28, t(149) = -9.28, p = .000$. Thus, my expectation is confirmed, participants' perceptions of the applicant cultural capital are significantly related to participants' negative behavioral expectations of the applicant.

Finally, I proposed that participants' perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital would not be related to the participants' years of full-time work experience. As predicted, Table 7 shows that in step 2 of the hierarchical regression participants' perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital does not explain unique variance on participants' years of full-time work experience $\Delta F(3, 149) = .00, p = .971$. Thus, my expectations are confirmed.

Discussion

Participants of the study noticed differences between the high and the low cultural capital conditions. However, I found partial support for the convergent validity of the cultural capital scale. As predicted participants' negative behavioral expectations were negatively related to participants' perceptions of the applicant cultural capital, even controlling for perceived similarity, attraction, and participant's sex. In addition, as predicted participants' years of full-time work experience were not related to participants' perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital. I also proposed that participants' liking of the applicant would be related to participants' perceptions of the

applicant's cultural capital. The zero order correlation between cultural capital and liking was significant. In fact, cultural capital accounted for 7.8% of the variance in liking. However, the relationship between cultural capital and liking was not significant when perceived similarity, attraction, and participant's sex was controlled. It is possible that perceptions of high cultural capital in others may drive antagonistic feelings or resentment instead of positive affectivity or liking, as it is suggested by theories of relative deprivation (Crosby, 1984; Fiske, 1998). This may be the case because high cultural capital is associated with high socioeconomic status (Bourdieu, 1984) and theories of relative deprivation suggest that lower status groups will be discontent with the resources and valuation they possess if faced with evidence of others' greater resources (Crosby, 1984, Fiske, 1998). This discontent may be a source of resentment that in turn may lead to negative affectivity toward those who have those resources or are both valued and respected.

In conclusion, I develop a scale of cultural capital with high internal reliability ($\alpha_{S1} = .76$, $\alpha_{S3} = .94$), acceptable construct validity as evidenced in convergent and discriminant validity patterns, and it was susceptible to experimental manipulation. My model, which is tested in the next section, proposes that it is the match on cultural capital between the interviewer and the applicant that is important, not the absolute levels as it was tested here.

CHAPTER V

INTERVIEWER-APPLICANT FIELD STUDY: MODEL TESTING

Main Study

The objective of this study was to test the theoretical model developed in Chapter III.

Sample

Participants in the study were interviewer-applicant dyads contacted through the Career Center Office at a large state university located in the southwestern United States. A total of 196 interviewers answered a preliminary survey out of 427 invited to participate (46% response rate), but only 118 participated in a follow-up survey (60% response rate). The mortality was due to several factors: twenty-four interviewers were unable to conduct interviews, twenty interviewers were unavailable the day assigned to interview on campus, and three interviewers did not want to pursue the follow-up survey. I collected data on the applicants who interviewed with the final set of interviewers (*i.e.*, those interviewers who answered the follow-up survey). Of 130 applicants invited to answer one survey, 118 accepted to answer it (91% response rate).

I obtained a total of 118 interviewer-applicant dyad's surveys. The interviewers sample consisted of 66.1% males, with most interviewers being White (90.6%), 5.9%

* The scale used on page 72-73 is reprinted with permission from The role-based performance scale: Validity analysis of a theory-based measure by Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez (1998). *Academy of Management Journal* 41: 540-555. Copyright © 1998 by Theresa Welbourne.

being Hispanic, and 3.4% being African American. The mean age was 38.

Organizational positions were as follow: manager (46.6%) and staff (28%) were followed by “other” (10.2%), vice-president (7.6%), director (6.8%), and partner (.8%) in relative frequency. Applicants were 68.6 % males. The majority of the applicants were White (80.5%), followed by Asian American (7.6%), African American (5.1%), Hispanic (5.1%), and “other” (1.7%). The average age was 23 years old.

Procedure

Interviewers answered two surveys at two different points in times (see Figure 2, Appendix 1 for a timeline). At Time 1, approximately one month before their set of interviews took place on campus (during the month of September 2003), interviewers answered questions related to demographics, human capital, cultural capital, and a set of control variables (see Appendix 5). Interviewers expected to interview on campus were contacted either through the mail or through face-to-face contact during five campus career fairs. The mail survey was sent to a total of 224 interviewers corresponding to 211 organizations. A total of 32 surveys were received, representing a response rate of 14.29% of interviewers. Ten days after sending the survey, a reminder letter was sent to those interviewers who did not answer the survey. A total of 30 surveys were received, representing 15.63% of the remaining sample of interviewers. Overall, the interviewer response rate of the mail survey was 28%. For Salant and Dillman (1994) this figure is considered low. The rest of the surveys (134) were obtained through face-to-face contact.

Time 2 data collection occurred when the interviewers were on campus interviewing applicants (during October and first two weeks of November 2003). Interviewers were requested to answer only one survey about one of their interviewees chosen at random. Except for three cases, the survey was answered immediately after the interview was completed. In this survey (Appendix 6), the interviewer responded to questions related to the interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant, the interviewers' liking of the applicant, the interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of the applicant, the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PJ fit, the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PO fit, the interviewer's hiring recommendations, and several control variables. Three interviewers sent the follow-up survey through the mail approximately one week after the interviews took place.

Job applicants were contacted immediately after the interview took place (Time 2, see Figure 2, Appendix 1). Applicants answered questions regarding demographics, human capital, cultural capital, the applicant's perceived similarity to the interviewer's liking of the interviewer, the applicant's expectations of the interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of the applicant (or meta-expectations), the applicant's perceptions of his/her PJ fit, the applicant's perceptions of his/her PO fit, and control variables (see Appendix 7). Applicants received a gift certificate worth \$5 for a meal for participating in the study. Four weeks after the interview (Time 3), applicants were contacted (through mail or telephone) to determine whether or not they had received an invitation for a second interview, this variable was taken to have an alternative measure of hiring recommendations. The survey questionnaires I described for both interviewers

and applicants were reviewed and authorized by both TAMU IRB and the Career Center director.

Measures

Independent Variables

Actual demographic, human capital and cultural capital similarity. Because these measures are complex, I first explain how I measured actual similarity per se, regardless of its content. Then I explain how I measure demographic, human capital, and cultural capital similarity between the interviewer and the applicant.

The three actual similarity measures were all composites (Riordan, 2000). There are unique issues associated with composite measures. Each characteristic that is associated with a composite was treated with equal importance in computing the score, because it has been found that weighting has little effect on results (Ree, Carretta, & Earles, 1998). In addition, unit weights are not influenced by outliers in the data and the loss of predictive efficacy is very small (Ree et al., 1998). To form the composite, I used an adaptation of Blau's (1977) index of heterogeneity for categorical variables. For continuous variables, I obtained the difference between the score of the interviewer and the score of the applicant, and then I divided this figure by the largest absolute difference.

The score obtained for continuous variables was the most parsimonious for the purpose of this study. There are different ways of obtaining this score. The relational demography score most commonly used in the literature (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989) is appropriate for groups, not for dyads. Instead, for studying dyadic relationships, Tsui et

al. (2002) used a square difference score. I decided not to square the difference score because it assumes an exponential function (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). I decided to keep the difference score without squaring it because I did not propose an exponential function.

To obtain the measure of actual demographic similarity, I considered three demographic measures: sex, race/ethnic background, and age. I coded sex 1 if female, 0 if male. I coded race 1 if African American, 2 if Asian/Asian American, 3 if Hispanic, 4 if Native American, 5 if White, and 6 if Other. I collected age as a continuous variable. To form the composite of demographics, I coded sex 1 if the sex of the interviewer and the applicant were the same and 0 if different. Similarly, I coded race 1 if the race of the interviewer and the applicant were the same and 0 if different. For age, I obtained the difference between the interviewer's age and the applicant's age and then I divided this figure by the largest absolute difference to standardize the sample values. I obtained the actual demographic similarity between the interviewer and the applicant summing age, race, and sex. This figure, then, represents the actual similarity in demographics. The range of values was 0 to 3.

To obtain the human capital measure I collected data related to years of education, academic major, years of work experience (full and part-time), and GPA. I coded academic major as 1 if the interviewer and the applicant had similar academic majors and 0 if different. Years of education, years of work experience, and GPA were continuous variables. Thus, I obtained the difference between the interviewer and the applicant on each of these variables, and then I divided this figure by the largest absolute difference. I

obtained the actual human capital between the interviewer and the applicant by summing the scores of academic major, years of education, years of work experience, and GPA.

The range of this variable was -.27 to 3.96.

Finally, to obtain the measure of cultural capital I obtained the average of the items selected in the factor analysis presented in Study 1 (Chapter 4). These items were: 1) “I listen to classical music recordings or radio programs,” 2) “I go to live ballet performances,” 3) “I go to live classical music performances,” 4) “I go to live theater,” 5) “I listen to opera recordings or radio programs,” 6) “When I have free time, I visit art galleries.” The internal reliability of the items using Cronbach’s α was .75. To obtain the actual similarity in cultural capital between the interviewer and the applicant I subtracted the score of the interviewer from the score of the applicant. Then, I divided this figure by the largest absolute difference. The range of values of this variable was -.75 to 1.

Independent and Dependent Variables

An interviewers’ perceived similarity to the applicant, an interviewer’s liking of the applicant, an interviewer’s negative behavioral expectations of the applicant, an interviewer’s PJ fit perceptions of the applicant, and an interviewer’s PO fit perceptions of the applicant all function as both independent and dependent variables and are discussed next.

An interviewer’s perceived similarity to an applicant. I used four items to measure the interviewer’s perceived similarity to an applicant. I adapted three items from Turban and Jones (1988): a) “The applicant and I are similar in terms of our outlook,

perspective, and values,” b) “The applicant and I see things in much the same way,” and c) “The applicant and I are alike in a number of areas.” A last item was based on Kristof-Brown et al. (2002): “This applicant reminds me of myself.” Responses to these four items ranged from (1) Strongly disagree to (7) Strongly agree. I obtained the average of the ratings on the four items to create the participant’s “perceived similarity to the applicant” measure. The internal reliability of these items was .83.

An interviewer’s liking of the applicant. This measure was based on scales by Wayne and Ferris (1990) and Wyne and Liden (1995). Interviewers answered two items: a) “I like the applicant very much as a person” and b) “I think the applicant would make a good friend.” Each item was scaled from (1) strongly disagree, to (7) strongly agree. I obtained the average of the ratings of the two items to create the measure. The internal reliability of the items was .82, slightly above that reported by Wayne and Liden (1995) with a reliability of .79.

Interviewer’s negative behavioral expectations of the applicant. I adapted five items from Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez (1998). Two items measured the innovator dimension: a) “How likely is it that this applicant will be creative?” b) “How likely is it that this applicant will work to implement new ideas?” Two items measured the team dimension: c) “How likely is it that this applicant will work well as part of a team or work group?” and d) How likely is it that this applicant will respond to the needs of others in his/her work/group?” I measured the organizational dimension with one item: e) “How likely is it that this applicant will work for the overall good of the company?” Finally, I adapted one item from Liden, et al. (1993) that measured the job dimension:

“How likely is it that this applicant will be a poor performer?” The response format for the six items was in a Likert-type scale, from (1) Not at all likely to (5) Extremely likely. I computed the average of the six items to obtain the interviewer’s negative behavioral expectations’ measure. The internal reliability of these items was .81.

Interviewer’s perceptions of an applicant’s PJ fit. I used Kristof-Brown’s (2000) scale, which consists of three items: a) “To what extent does this applicant fit the demands of the job?” b) “To what extent will other employees think this candidate is qualified to do this job?” and c) “How confident are you that this applicant is qualified to do this job?” Responses ranged from (1) Not at all to (5) Completely. I obtained the average of these items to obtain the PJ fit scale values. The internal reliability of these items was $\alpha = .79$, slightly lower than Kristof-Brown’s (2000) of .94.

Interviewer’s perceptions of an applicant’s PO fit. I again used the factor-analyzed scale by Kristof-Brown (2000). Four items were used: a) “To what degree does this applicant fit within your organization?” b) “To what extent is this applicant similar to other employees of your organization?” c) “To what extent will other employees think this candidate fit well in your organization?” and d) “How confident are you that this applicant would be compatible with your organization?” Responses were answered in a Likert-type format from (1) Not at all to (5) Completely. An average of the items was obtained to get the PO fit value. The internal reliability of these items was .93, which is very close to the figure of .96 reported by Kristof-Brown (2000).

Dependent Variable

Hiring recommendations. I used a four-item scale, with three of the items being based on Cable and Judge (1997). The first item was : a) “What is the likelihood that you would recommend the applicant for hiring by your organization?,” which was measured by a Likert-type scale from (1) Very unlikely to (5) Very likely. b) “Please give your overall evaluation of this candidate for this job,” c) “More generally, please give your overall evaluation of this candidate for a job in your organization.” Responses to these two items were answered in a Likert-type format from (1) Very negative to (5) Very positive. I developed the fourth item: d) “Please rate the applicant according to the following scale: Hired – Strongly considered for hire – Considered for hire – Didn’t consider hiring”. I obtained an average of the four items. The internal reliability of these items was $\alpha = .95$. To get the hiring recommendation’s score I sum the average of the hiring recommendation to the invitation to a second interview, coded 1 if the applicant received an invitation for a second interview and 0 if not.

Control Variables

I used only three control variables because of the reduced sample size: sex of the interviewer, sex of the applicant, and interviewer’s age. Both the sex of the interviewer and the sex of the applicant have been shown to affect interview ratings (Ferris & Gilmore, 1977) and hiring decisions (Raza & Carpenter, 1987). Age of the interviewer has also been found to affect hiring recommendations (Gordon et al., 1988). Race, which has been found to affect interview scores (Lin et al., 1992), was not controlled for because there was not enough racial diversity in the sample.

Results

Table 8 (Appendix 1) shows correlations, means, and standard deviations for all the variables presented in the model as well as control variables. To test the hypotheses of the model, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. In step 1 of the first equation, the dependent variable was regressed on all three control variables. In step 2, the independent variable(s) were added into the equation.

Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c predicted that actual similarity in each of demographics, human capital, and cultural capital between an interviewer and an applicant would be positively related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant. Descriptive statistics indicated that the dependent variable was normal (Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic = .07, $p = .200$). In addition, the error variance was constant. However, when plotting an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and actual similarity in demographics, human capital, and cultural capital between the interviewer and the applicant, the graphs indicated that these variables were not linear. The graph did not show an oval shape between these variables, an indication of a linear relationship according to Tabachnick and Fidel (2001). Failure of linearity does not invalidate an analysis so much as weaken it (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2001). I did not find any outlier or influential observations.

Table 9 (Appendix 1) displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (b), the adjusted R^2 , and relevant R^2 and F values. As the table shows, after the control variables are included in step 1, actual demographic, human capital, and cultural capital similarity between the interviewer and the applicant do not collectively explain a significant portion

of the variance in the interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant, $F(3,113) = .899$, $p = .444$, indicating no relationship between the constructs. Thus, none of the individual actual similarity measures can legitimately be examined for statistical significance. Nonetheless, it can be seen in Table 9 (Appendix 1) that none of them are significant.

Hypotheses 2a and 2b predicted that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is positively related to the interviewer's PO and PJ fit perceptions of the applicant. Descriptive statistics indicated that the dependent variables were normal (Kolmogorov $_{Pofit} = .055$ $p = .200$; Kolmogorov $_{Pjfit} = .041$ $p = .200$). Although the relevant relationships appeared to be linear, the error variance was not constant ($\chi^2 = 8.16 > 3.84$). To fix this problem, I examined a weighted least squares approach, but the analysis indicated that the weight should be 1. Thus, the lack of constant error variance did not prevent me from using OLS regression.

In step 1 (Table 10, Appendix 1), an interviewer's perceived PO fit perceptions of an applicant was regressed on the control variables. In step 2, an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant was added as the independent variable. Similarly, for PJ fit perceptions, in step 1 (Table 11, Appendix 1), an interviewer's perceived PJ fit perceptions of an applicant were regressed on the control variables. In step 2, an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant was added as the independent variable.

As Table 10 shows, after demographic variables are controlled for in step 1, an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant explains unique variance in the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant PO fit, $\Delta F(1,112) = 65.98$, $p = .000$, and is a significant predictor, $b = .47$, $t(112) = 8.12$, $p = .000$. Given that this regression had four

predictors (three control variables and the independent variable), the significance level should properly be adjusted from $p = .05$ to $p = .0125$ ($.05/4$) using the Bonferroni method (Neter, Kutner, Nachtsheim, & Wasserman, 1996). Even after considering this adjustment, Hypothesis 2a is supported.

Similarly, after demographic variables are controlled for in step 1, an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant explains unique variance in an interviewer's perceptions of an applicant's PJ fit, $\Delta F(1,112) = 54.28$, $p = .000$, indicating that perceived similarity is a significant predictor, even after Bonferroni adjustment, $b = .43$, $t(113) = 7.37$, $p = .000$. Thus, Hypothesis 2b is supported (see Table 11, Appendix 1).

Hypothesis 3 predicted that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant would positively predict the interviewer's liking of the applicant. Descriptive statistics indicated that the dependent variable was not normal (Kolmogorov = .08 $p = .03$) and the error variance was not constant. To try to resolve this problem, I ran a Box Cox transformation. Following the Box Cox analysis, I transformed the variable "an interviewer's liking of the applicant" to its natural log, but the dependent variable was still not normal and the error variance was still not constant. Although the relevant relationships appeared to be linear and there were neither outliers nor influential observations, the lack of normality may invalidate results (*e.g.*, t and F tests) and increase sample-to-sample variation of estimates (L. C. Hamilton, 1992). However, it is important to notice that residuals may appear not to be normal because the error variance is not constant (Neter et al., 1996).

After including the controls in step 1 (Table 12, Appendix 1), an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant explains unique variance in an interviewer's liking of an applicant, $\Delta F(1,112) = 23.95, p = .000$. As predicted, an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is positively related to an interviewer's liking of the applicant, even after performing a Bonferroni adjustment, $b = .44, t(113) = 4.89, p = .000$. Thus, Hypothesis 3 is supported.

Hypothesis 4a predicted that an interviewer's liking of an applicant was positively related to the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PO fit. Descriptive statistics indicated that the dependent variable was not normal (Kolmogorov = .099, $p = .006$), but that a linear relationship between these variables existed. The error variance was constant and there were neither influential observations nor outliers. To resolve the problem of non-normality, I transformed an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant to .8, according to the Box Cox indication. There was no difference in the descriptive statistic. Thus, I decided to keep the variable without transformation. In summary, results may be invalid because of the lack of normality of the dependent variable (L. C. Hamilton, 1992).

After including the control variables in step 1 (Table 13, Appendix 1), the addition of liking as a predictor of PO fit perceptions is significant, $\Delta F(1,112) = 18.02, p = .000$. Thus, an interviewer's liking of the applicant is significant, $b = .27, t(112) = 4.24, p = .000$, supporting Hypothesis 4a.

Hypothesis 4b predicted that an interviewer's liking of an applicant was positively related to the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PJ fit. Descriptive statistics indicated that the dependent variable was not normal (Kolmogorov = .089, $p = .024$). Once

again, I tried to resolve the problem with a Box Cox transformation, but normality could not be achieved. There were no outliers or influential observations and the error variance was constant.

As indicated in Table 14 (Appendix 1), the inclusion of liking as a predictor in step 2 is significant, $\Delta F(1,112) = 4.95, p = .028$. However, liking is not positively related to an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions, $b = .19, t(113) = 2.22, p = .028$, after performing a Bonferroni adjustment that requires a p -value of less than .0125 for significance. Thus, Hypothesis 4b is not supported.

Hypothesis 5a predicted that an interviewer's liking of an applicant mediates the relationship between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PO fit. Baron and Kenny (1986)'s procedure was used to check for mediation. First, the mediator (an interviewer's liking of an applicant) is regressed on the independent variable (an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant). This relationship was supported (Hypothesis 3). Second, the dependent variable (an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant) was regressed on the independent variable (an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant). This relationship was also supported (Hypothesis 2a). Finally, the dependent variable was regressed on both the independent variable and on the mediator. The results of this analysis are depicted in Table 15 (Appendix 1). In step 2, Table 15 shows that, the regression of an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant on an interviewer's liking of an applicant as well as an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant is significant, $\Delta F(2,111) = 35.07, p = .000$. An interviewer's perceived similarity to the

applicant is significant, $b = .42$, $t(113) = 6.71$, $p = .000$, however an interviewer's liking of an applicant is not significant, $b = .10$, $t(113) = 1.73$, $p = .086$. Thus, mediation is not supported (Hypothesis 5a) because an interviewer's liking of an applicant is not significantly related to an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of the applicant.

Hypothesis 5b predicted that an interviewer's liking of an applicant mediates the relationship between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and the interviewer's perceptions of the applicant's PJ fit. Table 16 (Appendix 1), step 2 shows that, the regression of an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant on an interviewer's liking of an applicant as well as an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant is significant, $\Delta F(2,111) = 27.07$, $p = .000$. An interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is significant, $b = .45$, $t = 6.86$, $p = .000$; however an interviewer's liking of an applicant is not significant, $b = -.02$, $t(113) = -.48$, $p = .63$. Again, mediation was not supported because an interviewer's liking of an applicant is not significantly related to an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of the applicant. Thus, Hypothesis 5b is rejected.

Hypothesis 6 predicts that lower values of the interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant are related to more negative behavioral expectations of the applicant. Descriptive statistics indicated that the dependent variable was normal (Kolmogorov = .074, $p = .171$). The error variance was constant and there were no influential observations or outliers.

As can be seen in step 2 (Table 17, Appendix 1), an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant explains unique variance in an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant, $\Delta F(1, 112) = 57.84$, $p = .000$. As predicted, an

interviewer's perceived similarity is negatively related to an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant, even after performing a Bonferroni adjustment, $b = -.33$, $t(113) = -7.61$, $p = .000$. Thus, Hypothesis 6 is supported.

Hypothesis 7a predicted that, an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant's should be related to judgments of poor PO fit. Descriptive statistics indicated normality for the dependent variable (Kolmogorov = .055, $p = .200$), but the error variance was not constant. To resolve this problem I considered a weighted least square regression, but the suggested weight was 1, indicating the appropriateness of OLS regression.

After the control variables were placed into the equation (Table 18, Appendix 1), an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant explain unique variance of an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant, $\Delta F(1,113) = 119.64$, $p = .000$. An interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant is significant, $b = -.99$, $t(114) = -10.94$, $p = .000$, even after performing a Bonferroni adjustment, supporting Hypothesis 7a.

Hypothesis 7b is also supported. This hypothesis stated that to the degree an interviewer holds negative behavioral expectations of an applicant, he/she will judge the applicant's PJ fit to be worse than that of applicants for whom he/she does not possess such negative behavioral expectations. As in the previous equation, descriptive statistics indicated normality (Kolmogorov = .041, $p = .200$) and there was constant error variance.

As shown in Table 19 (Appendix 1), the model is significant, $\Delta F(1,113) = 107.47$, $p = .000$. An interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant are negatively

related to an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant, even after performing a Bonferroni adjustment, $b = -.94$, $t(114) = -10.37$, $p = .000$. Thus, Hypothesis 7b is supported.

Hypothesis 8a predicted that the relationship between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant should be mediated by an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant. Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure for testing mediation indicates that mediation was supported. First, an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant was positively related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant (Hypothesis 2a). Second, an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant is positively related to an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of the applicant (Hypotheses 6).

In the last required test, an interviewer's PO perceptions of the applicant (dependent variable) was regressed on both an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant (independent variable) and an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant (the mediator). Table 20 (Appendix 1) shows that the model is significant, $\Delta F(2,111) = 70.44$, $p = .000$. An interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant are significant, $b = -.74$, $t(113) = -6.89$, $p = .000$, and an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is also significant, $b = .23$, $t(113) = 3.82$, $p = .000$.

Because both an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant are significantly related to an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant, partial mediation, instead of a full mediation occurs. Sobel's test confirmed this result. This test provides a significance

test for the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable via the mediator (Baron & Kenny, 1986) based on a t test. It takes into account the path from the independent variable to the mediator and its standard error, and the path from the mediator to the dependent variable and its standard error. With a p -value equal to .05 with one degree of freedom, Sobel's test is significant ($S_{\text{Pofit}} = .052 < 6.314$). Thus, Hypothesis 8a is supported.

Hypothesis 8b predicted that the relationship between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant is mediated by an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant. As already noted, an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of the applicant is positively related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant (Hypothesis 2b). In addition, an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of the applicant is significantly related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant (Hypothesis 6). Table 21 (Appendix 1) shows the results for the last test of the mediation according to Baron and Kenny (1986). When adding an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations and an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant in step 2, the model is significant, $\Delta F(2,111) = 60.81, p = .000$. An interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant is significant, $b = -.74, t(113) = -6.76, p = .000$. Similarly, an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is also significant, $b = .19, t(113) = 3.13, p = .002$. Because both an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant are significant, a partial mediation

effect, instead of a full mediation effect occurs. Sobel's test confirms this result ($S_{pjfit} = .0517 < 6.314$). Thus, Hypothesis 8b is also supported.

Hypothesis 9a predicted that an interviewer's perceptions of an applicant's PO fit would be positively related to the interviewer's recommendation to hire. Descriptive statistics indicated that the dependent variable was not normal (Kolmogorov = .095, $p = .011$) and the error variance was not constant. There were neither outliers nor influential observations. To resolve the problem of non-normality I ran a Box Cox transformation, but normality could not be achieved.

As shown in Table 22 (Appendix 1), after including the controls in the equation as well as an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant, an interviewer's liking of an applicant, and an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of the applicant, an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant explains unique variance in hiring recommendations ($\Delta F(4,97) = 43.69, p = .000$). An interviewer's PO fit perceptions are positively related to an interviewer's hiring recommendations even after performing a Bonferroni adjustment ($.05/6 = .008$) ($b = 1.02, t(97) = 6.38, p = .000$). Thus, Hypothesis 9a is supported.

Hypothesis 9b predicted that an interviewer's perceptions of an applicant's PJ fit would be positively related to the interviewer's recommendation to hire. Descriptive statistics indicated normality (Kolmogorov = .072, $p = .194$), but the error variance was not constant. To resolve the problem of constant error variance I ran a Box Cox transformation, but I still could not resolve this problem. Once again, this problem does not invalidate the analysis so much as weaken it (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

As shown in Table 23 (Appendix 1), after including the controls as well as an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant, an interviewer's liking of an applicant, and an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant, an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant explains unique variance in hiring recommendations, $\Delta F(4,97) = 44.37, p = .000$. An interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant are positively related to hiring recommendations after performing a Bonferroni adjustment, $b = .94, t(97) = 6.49, p = .000$. Thus, Hypothesis 9b is also supported.

In summary, the model developed in Chapter III (see Figure 1) was partially supported. An interviewer's perceptions of similarity with an applicant are positively related to an interviewer's fit evaluations. This relationship is mediated by an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant. Furthermore, perceived similarity is positively related to an interviewer's liking of an applicant. In turn, liking is positively related to an interviewer's PO fit perceptions. Finally, fit evaluations are positively related to hiring recommendations. Unfortunately, I could not find support for the relationship between actual and perceived similarity. I also find lack of support for the relationship between liking and PJ fit perceptions of the applicant as well as liking as a mediator between perceived similarity and fit evaluations.

In the next section I will further analyze the data to explore the relationship between actual and perceived similarity, given the lack of significant results. I will also analyze the relationship between perceived similarity and hiring recommendations mediated by fit perceptions given the importance of these variables in my model.

Post-Hoc Analyses

The Relationship between Actual and Perceived Similarity

Results of the field study showed that the posited relationships between actual similarity in demographics and capital measures between the interviewer and the applicant and the interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant could not be supported. The interview and performance appraisal literatures have found support for the relationship between actual demographic similarity and perceived similarity (see Graves & Powell, 1995; Wayne & Liden, 1995) and between actual attitude similarity and perceived attitude similarity (Orpen, 1984). However, regarding demographic similarity, Riordan (2000) and Posthuma *et al.* (2002) has noted that perceptual and actual measures have significant correlations with small effect sizes.

I ran several *post-hoc* analyses to find explanations for my results. First, I obtained descriptive statistics for an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant. The mean was 4.27 on a scale of 1 to 7; the range was equal to 4.75; the standard error of the mean was .101; and the variance was 1.19. These figures indicate that the measure "interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant" may have low variability. In other words, these figures may explain the lack of significant results in the relationship between actual and perceived similarity. Thus, this low variability and the expected low correlations between perceptual and actual measures (at least in demographic variables; Riordan, 2000) may partially explain the lack of results.

As a second *post-hoc* analysis, I considered the role of being an *alumni*. I posited that an *alumni* interviewer would perceive the applicant as more similar to himself/herself

than an interviewer that was not an *alumni*. In the data collection, I included this categorical variable as a control. A *t* test to look at differences in the ratings for the two groups indicated that there was no significant difference in the ratings.

I also explored whether the degree of structure of the interview had any effect on an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant. I also included this variable as a control during my data collection (see Appendix 6, item 6). I performed a second *t* test to analyze whether interviews that were completely structured, where the interviewers asked the same questions to all the applicants (45 out of 118 interviews), compared to those that were mixed (66 interviews), where the interviewers asked the same questions to all the applicants as well as different questions for every applicant, had any effect on the rating. There were no significant differences for interview type. I did not compare structured to unstructured interviews, because there were too few unstructured interviews.

I also explored the effect of an interviewer's sex on an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant because the social psychological literature indicates that sex differences can affect the way in which the information is processed (Cross & Markus, 1993). Bivariate correlations between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and the actual similarity in demographics, human capital, and cultural capital between an interviewer and an applicant revealed no significant relationship for men. For women interviewers, however, human capital similarity was significantly correlated with an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant ($r = .51$), a moderate positive correlation according to L.C. Hamilton (1992). Thus, for women interviewers, an

interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is significantly related to actual human capital similarity.

Based on these results, I re-tested the model presented in Chapter III taking into account the interviewer's sex. I ran a hierarchical multiple linear regression for women, and separately, a hierarchical multiple linear regression for men for the purposes of comparing the results. Unlike the results of the regression for men interviewers, $\Delta F(3,71) = .05, p = .98$, the results of the regression for women interviewers showed after adding the controls, $\Delta F(3,34) = 6.44, p = .001$, that both the actual similarity in demographics, $b = .99, t(34) = 2.78, p = .009$, and human capital, $b = -.52, t(34) = -3.53, p = .001$, between the interviewer and the applicant are positively related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant (see Table 24, Appendix 1).

I further regressed an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant on the actual similarity between the interviewer and the applicant on age, sex, and race only for the women interviewers' sample. The overall model was not significant. I continued analyzing the women interviewers' sample and I also regressed an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant on actual similarity between the interviewer and the applicant on years of education, GPA, undergraduate major, graduate major, and years of work experience. In this case, the model was significant ($\Delta F(5,32) = 4.12, p = .005$).

The results indicated that for the women interviewers' sample, actual GPA similarity between the interviewer and the applicant was positively related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant, $b = -3.08, t(32) = -3.40, p = .002$, even after performing a Bonferroni adjustment (see Table 25, Appendix 1).

I further tested the entire model proposed in Chapter III for both men and women separately. Results are provided in Table 24 (Appendix 1). There are several additional significant differences between men and women. First, the association between the interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant and the interviewer's liking of the applicant is significant for men but not for women. Second, the relationship between the interviewer's liking of the applicant and the interviewer's PO fit perceptions of the applicant is again significant for men but not for women. Third, the relationship between negative behavioral expectations and perceived similarity is significant for women but not for men. Lastly, the relationship between perceived similarity and PJ fit perceptions is significant for women but not for men. In other words, men interviewers (but not women) relied on perceived similarity to assess both affective reactions and PO fit perceptions. Instead, women interviewers relied on perceived similarity to assess negative behavioral expectations and PJ fit perceptions.

For each relationship that was different between men and women interviewers, I run a hierarchical regression. For instance the relationship between actual and perceived similarity was different for men and women interviewers. So, in step 1, I regressed perceived similarity on an interviewer's sex, actual demographic similarity between the interviewer and the applicant, and actual human capital similarity between the interviewer and the applicant. In step 2, I added the interactions sex by demographic similarity and sex by human capital similarity. I ran similar regressions for the other four differences between women interviewers and men interviewers shown in Table 24 (Appendix 1).

In the second step of the first hierarchical regression out of the five I ran, the interaction sex by demographic similarity and sex by human capital similarity is not significant $\Delta F(2, 116) = 2.42, p = .093$ in explaining perceived similarity. In the second step of the second hierarchical regression, the interaction of perceived similarity by sex explains unique variance in an interviewer's liking of an applicant $\Delta F(3, 116) = 7.22, p = .008$. The interaction perceived similarity by sex is negatively related to an interviewer's liking of an applicant, $b = -.45, t(3) = -2.69, p = .008$. An interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is also significantly related to liking, $b = .40, t(3) = 4.42, p = .000$. However, sex is not significantly related, adjusting for Bonferroni, $b = .75, t(3) = -2.31, p = .023$. Results are provided in Table 26 (Appendix 1).

In the second step of the third hierarchical regression, the model is significant in predicting negative behavioral expectations, however the interaction effect of perceived similarity by sex does not add significant variance $\Delta F(3, 116) = .29, p = .59$. Similarly, in the second step of the fourth hierarchical regression, the model formed by perceived similarity, sex, and its interaction is significant in explaining an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant. However, the interaction does not add significant variance, $\Delta F(3, 116) = .84, p = .36$. As in the previous two regressions, the interaction of perceived similarity by sex does not add enough variance in explaining an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant, $\Delta F(3, 116) = .19, p = .66$.

In summary, these results indicate that the interaction of perceived similarity by sex predicts liking. Men interviewers, more than women interviewers based their liking

evaluations on perceived similarity. The other interaction effects are not significant. I will interpret these results in Chapter VI.

Perceived Similarity as an Antecedent of Fit Perceptions

One of the central ideas of this dissertation is that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant precedes an interviewer's PO and PJ fit perceptions of an applicant. Results presented in Chapter V are congruent with the previous statement. Beyond these results, I conducted additional analyses to explore whether the findings were robust. I regressed an interviewer's hiring recommendations on all the predictor variables in my study. Results (Table 27, Appendix 1) indicate that an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant ($b = .64, t(99) = 3.46, p = .001$) and an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant ($b = .61, t(99) = 3.62, p = .000$) significantly predict the hiring decision. An interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is not significant ($b = .13, t(99) = 1.22, p = .224$).

A more appropriate analysis of an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant as an antecedent of an interviewer's fit perceptions of the applicant is a mediation test. The model presented in Chapter III suggests that an interviewer's fit perceptions of an applicant mediate the relationship between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and an interviewer's hiring recommendations (see Figure 1, Appendix 1), although this hypothesis was not formally written. So, before testing this mediation I will offer a brief rationale.

In the theory development presented in Chapter III, I suggested that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is positively related to an interviewer's

fit perceptions of the applicant. From a similarity-attraction point of view, perceived similarity may lead an interviewer to perceive an applicant both as more qualified to do the job and as a better match for the organization, because the interviewer will feel more attracted to those similar to himself/herself. I also suggested that an interviewer's fit perceptions of the applicant are positively related to hiring recommendations. Based on a rational model for staffing decisions (Judge & Ferris, 1992), a recommendation to hire would be based on a comparison of an applicant's KSAs versus the demands of the job. Thus, an interviewer's perceptions of an applicant's PJ fit would prevail on recommendations to hire. However, from the attraction-selection-attrition model (Schneider, 1987), an interviewer would be more likely to recommend those applicants perceived as more similar to people already in the organization and to himself/herself in terms of values, goals, or personality, which would be equal to hiring based on PO fit. Thus, I suggest that an interviewer's PO fit perception of an applicant is a mediator between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and hiring recommendations.

Drawing from Baron and Kenny (1986), the analysis indicates that the mediation is supported. An interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is positively related to an interviewer's fit perceptions of the applicant (see Pilot Study 2, Chapter V). Second, an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant predicts unique variance on hiring recommendations, $\Delta F(1,100) = 66.43, p = .000$. An interviewer's perceived similarity is positively related to an interviewer's hiring recommendations, $b = .80, t(100) = 8.15, p = .000$ (Table 28, Appendix 1). Finally, I regressed an interviewer's hiring

recommendations on an interviewer's perceived similarity, an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant, and an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant. The model was significant, $\Delta F(3,98) = 70.06, p = .000$. An interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is not significant, $b = .16, t(98) = 2.04, p = .10$. However, an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant, $b = .69, t(98) = 3.95, p = .000$, as well as an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant, $b = .58, t(98) = 3.74, p = .000$, are positively related to an interviewer's hiring recommendations (Table 29, Appendix 1). These results support the idea that an interviewer's fit perceptions mediate the relationship between an interviewer's perceived similarity and hiring recommendations.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Main Findings

The model presented in Chapter III was generally supported. An interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant drives an interviewer's fit perceptions of the applicant. An interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of the applicant function as a mediator between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and an interviewer's fit perceptions of an applicant, as expected.

However, actual similarity in demographics, human capital, and cultural capital was not significantly related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant. In addition, the relationship between an interviewer's liking of an applicant and an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant was not supported. Also, I could not find support for an interviewer's liking of an applicant as a mediator between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and an interviewer's fit perceptions of an applicant. Lastly, the validation of the cultural capital scale presented problems. In the next sections I will offer explanations for these results as well as interpretations of the *post hoc* analyses.

Validation of the Cultural Capital Scale

Unfortunately, I could not obtain a measure of cultural capital with high validity. In addition, I was expecting a multidimensional measure, but the factor analysis (Pilot

Study 1) indicated that I have only one factor related to high culture. The variance explained of the remaining factors did not add significantly to the first factor. In addition, the majority of these factors have low reliabilities. In summary, the measure of cultural capital may be deficient. The measure I used only tapped a dimension related to high culture. Other dimensions, not measure here may be important.

The validity studies also revealed problems. In Pilot Study 2 (Chapter IV), I asked the question: does cultural capital exist as a meaningful distinct construct? I suggested that agreeableness was not related to cultural capital. As expected, results indicated that there was not relationship between cultural capital and agreeableness. I also found that openness was significantly related to cultural capital, as expected. Unfortunately, the discriminant validity result related to openness is spurious because the reliability was low.

Despite the limitations observed, I still suggest that cultural capital is of outmost importance in explaining interview outcomes. In future studies, I should contemplate collecting data with an alternative measure of the Big Five, such as Goldberg (1990; 1992), to try to obtain better reliabilities. I should also try to validate the measure of cultural capital with other dependent variables. For instance, Bourdieu (1984) suggest that there is a positive relationship between cultural capital and hiring recommendations.

The Relationship between Actual and Perceived Similarity

Even though theory indicates that actual demographic, human capital, and cultural capital similarity between an interviewer and an applicant should be positively related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant (see Burnes & Duck, 1992; Festinger

1950, 1954; Graves & Powell, 1995, Jellison & Arkin, 1977; Orpen, 1984; Riordan, 2000, Tsui et al., 2002; Wayne & Liden, 1995), empirically I faced several problems. The question is why was I unable to find support for the relationship between actual similarity and perceived similarity? There are several reasons that may explain the lack of results: characteristics of the design of the study, characteristics of the sample, and salience of variables in an interview context. In the next pages, I will explain the main reasons for the lack of results, followed by an interpretation of findings in the *post-hoc* analyses section.

Characteristics of the Design and the Sample of the Study

First, the sample collected lacked enough variability in the measures to obtain significant results. In particular, as indicated in Chapter V, the variance of an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant's measure was very low. In addition, the variance of the actual similarity measures was also low. The majority of both interviewers and applicants were White. The variance of the applicants' age was also low. This was not the case for the interviewer's age. However, even though this figure was high, it is likely that the interviewers' perception of the similarity between his/her age and the applicant's age may have been similar because all the applicants have similar ages. In fact, the variance for actual age similarity was only .05. A similar problem happened with the cultural capital measure, the variance of the items was also low, for both interviewers and applicants. Thus, the characteristics of the sample (*e.g.*, low variance in the measures) may be an alternative explanation of the results.

The variance of many of these measures would have been different if I had collected the sample from either a University in which diversity (at least of students) is higher than the university from which I collected the data or from different educational backgrounds (*i.e.*, starting from high-school) regardless of a specific university.

Alternatively, this lack of variance may be related to restriction of range. It is highly probable that applicants were already selected based on both actual similarity and perceived similarity during the career fair. This explanation may be relevant for those cases where the applicant contacted the organization through the career fair, and the recruiter in that career fair also had the role of interviewer. Thus, variation in actual and perceived similarity could have been screened out at that moment. It would have been of high value to measure demographics, human capital, and cultural capital of all the applicants that turned in applications during the career fair. It would also have been of value to measure the interviewer's perceived similarity to all these applicants at that moment in time. Unfortunately, time constraints posed a limit in the quantity of control variables that I could add in the survey instruments and the quantity of surveys I could administer.

Another alternative explanation for the lack of results is the design of the field study. As indicated by the director of the career center, I could only survey each organization twice (*i.e.*, before on-campus interviews and immediately after the interview). The strength of this type of design is that I am more likely to have independent observations. However, the weakness is that I do not have variability in the interviewer's scores because the interviewer only evaluates one applicant. Should each

interviewer have answered surveys from several applicants, I could have obtained more variability per interviewer in all the variables of the model. Again, this limitation was posed at the beginning of the study.

Saliency

It is also possible as it was pointed out by Curran and Lipold (1975), specially in the case of cultural capital, that in brief encounters between strangers, cultural capital similarity may have never be revealed, as was suggested by the *post-hoc* analyses. In fact, the dimension of cultural capital that I measured –high culture—was not salient during the interviews, but some of the dimensions that I eliminated were. In other words, only observable aspects of cultural capital seemed to be salient in the interview context.

In addition, it is highly probable that in an interview context, in particular first interviews, cultural capital is not as salient as in other contexts (*e.g.*, promotion from one job to another). In a supervisor-employee relationship there are more chances for the employee's cultural capital to emerge, and on the side of the supervisor, to perceive the employee's cultural capital. Moreover, high status positions, such as CEO or top executive positions may offer more situations for cultural capital to emerge (*e.g.*, more face-to-face meetings where manners or other cultural capital dimensions may be salient). Consistent with this idea, Useem and Karabel (1986) found that both educational and class background affect the likelihood of promotions within the ranks of senior managers. For Useem and Karabel (1986) one main implication of this finding is that cultural capital is one of the forms of capital that can serve as a fruitful theoretical framework to understand these results. Similarly, Erickson (1996) pointed out that high culture has

some value at the top of the organizations, given that supports for the arts improves a company's standing in the eyes of major stakeholders.

Another alternative explanation for the lack of results for cultural capital similarity is that cultural capital is not relevant in an interview context, regardless of the scale used. According to Erickson (1996), high culture is defined as a "waste of time" and actively excluded for the workplace. For Erickson (1996), high culture is more observable and more important away from work. However, the author recognized that high culture plays a greater role in organizations outside the competitive private sector, such as government bureaucracies and universities.

Interpretation of Post-hoc Analyses' Findings

In *post-hoc* analyses, I found that actual similarity in human capital between an interviewer and an applicant is significantly related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant for female but not for male interviewers. In a review of gender differences, Cross and Markus (1993) offered important clues to understand these findings. Primarily, the information processing capabilities between women and men differ. In particular, Josephs, Markus, and Tafarodi (1992) and Markus and Oyserman (1989) indicated that men and women differ in patterns of social interaction and interpersonal experience. Women are more likely than men to have a connected schema in which relations with other people are important, and thus others are represented as part of the self. Conversely, men are more likely to develop an individualist, independent, or autonomous schema for the self. For men, others are not represented as part of the self, but as distinct from it. Josephs *et al.* (1992) further pointed out that for women, feeling

good about one's self is in part related to being sensitive to, attuned to, connected to, and interdependent with others. For men, feeling good about one's self is derived, in part, from being independent, autonomous, separate, and better than others. Importantly, Markus and Oyserman pointed out that the self-concept governs one's perceptions of reality.

This idea of "connection" versus "separation" may explain the reasons that the relationship between actual and perceived similarity was significant for female interviewers but not for male interviewers. Cross and Markus (1993) argued that this idea of connectedness is related to the paying attention to and monitoring of others, which in turn is basic for the elaboration and understanding of the relationships between others and the self. Moreover, the authors suggested that important others may be represented as part of the self. As such, these individuals may be sensitive to stimuli from these other persons. Josephs et al. (1992) further indicated that women should have access to a relatively greater store of knowledge about others and that this information could be used to encode the target information. From the point of view of the similarity literature, this rationale makes sense. In order for someone to perceive similarity, that person needs to discover and recognize similarity (Duck & Burns, 1992). Following Cross and Markus (1993) the information processing capabilities of women interviewers may make this discovery and recognition of the similarity to the applicant significantly different from those of men through a better encoding of information about others (Josephs et al., 1992).

Beyond this rationale, two alternative explanations may explain the relationship between GPA similarity and an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant. One possibility is that GPA is one of the most salient characteristics upon which to both discover and recognize similarity. Another alternative is that GPA is seen as the most valid measure (*i.e.*, predictor of job performance) compared to the other measures of human capital.

The Problem with an Interviewer's Liking of an Applicant

Also, I could not find support for two of the five hypotheses related to an interviewer's liking of an applicant. In Chapter III, I suggested that people in positive affective states are more willing to see relationships among ideas resulting in a broader categorization (Isen et al., 1985). Thus, I argued that candidates that represent a weak example of the KSAs required for the job and are liked will be perceived as a better match for the job than candidates with the same KSAs that are not liked. In fact, Isen, Shalcker, Clark, and Karp (1978) pointed out that people in positive affective states should see the brighter side of things, and in general, they should be more optimistic in their evaluations, adding to the rationale regarding the positive relationship between an interviewer's liking of the applicant and an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of the applicant.

The lack of support of this hypothesis may be due to the fact that Isen and collaborators (1985) referred to positive affective states which may include but not be limited to liking and happiness. In fact, liking is different from happiness (Cardy & Dobbins, 1986). In addition, even if positive affective states refer specifically to liking,

the types of evaluations produced in such a positive affective state may not be specific (*i.e.* PJ fit perceptions), but of a more general nature (*i.e.*, hiring recommendations). In addition, liking may further influence information processing and evaluations only if interviewers ignore other important factors (*e.g.*, anti-discriminatory laws). It is possible that interviewers were trained in anti-discriminatory practices in interviews.

Unfortunately, I do not have information regarding interviewers training to test this alternative explanation.

A related issue is the lack of support for an interviewer's liking of an applicant as a mediator between an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant and an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of the applicant. The lack of support for the relationship between an interviewer's liking of an applicant and an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant, in addition to the reasons offered in the above paragraph, explains this lack of results.

Another issue is the rejection of the hypothesis of an interviewer's liking of an applicant as a mediator between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of the applicant. In Chapter V, I showed that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is positively related to an interviewer's liking of an applicant. In turn, an interviewer's liking of an applicant is positively related to an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of the applicant. But one of the tests of the mediation, according to Baron and Kenny (1986) failed because an interviewer's liking of an applicant was not significantly related to PO fit perceptions while controlling for an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant. The rationale offered to propose these

mediations was that perceived similarity was related to different perceptions and attitudes (Tsui et al., 1989) and social judgments (Engle et al. 1997) mediated by liking. It is probable that the types of social judgments and perceptions, as suggested by Tsui et al (1989) and Engle et al. (1997) do not include fit perceptions, but more general evaluations. As the results presented in Chapter V suggest, an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant explains all the variance in fit perceptions.

It is even more difficult to understand the reasons behind the findings that the relationship between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and an interviewer's liking of an applicant is significant for male interviewers but not for female interviewers. This result was further supported in an analysis where I regressed liking on the interaction perceived similarity by sex. In an experimental study, Josephs et al. (1992) found that men with high self-esteem perceived themselves as possessing uniquely superior abilities (social, athletic, academic, and creative) compared to men with low self-esteem. This difference was not observed between high and low self-esteem women. In other words, men with high self-esteem perceived that few others shared their abilities. Apparently, the need to possess high ability is especially important for men (Josephs et al. 1992). So, men more than women would seek to distinguish those who do not have those abilities from those who do. It follows that compared to women, men would like those applicants who are perceived as similar to themselves more than women would because they seem to be special. In turn, this liking may lead to perceived PO fit. Unfortunately, I did not collect personality measures to test this alternative explanation.

Additional Post Hoc Analyses

In additional *post hoc* analyses I found that the relationship between perceived similarity and negative behavioral expectations as well as the relationship between perceived similarity and PJ fit perceptions is significant for female interviewers but not for male interviewers. I also found that the relationship between perceived similarity and PO fit perceptions as well as the relationship between perceived similarity and liking is significant for male interviewers but not for female interviewers.

In summary, taking into consideration the results obtained for female versus male interviewers for the relationship between actual and perceived similarity as well as the relationship between perceived similarity and liking, and in turn, liking and fit perceptions, there are striking differences. Figure 3 (Appendix 1) shows that for female interviewers actual human capital similarity drives an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant. In turn, perceived similarity drives an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant and an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions. For male interviewer's perceived similarity drives an interviewer's liking of an applicant and an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant.

These results inform how perceived similarity is formed for female interviewers but not for male interviewers. These results also seem to indicate that perceived similarity is related to cognitive characteristics in female interviewers but to affective reactions in male interviewers. This is interesting because typical female stereotypes are that they are driven by emotions whereas typical male stereotypes are that men are more competent (Fiske, 1998). A note of caution is, however, necessary. Except for the results

regarding the relationship between perceived similarity and liking, the reminding results should be taken with caution because in additional analyses where I formed interaction terms I could not find significant results.

Strengths

One of the main strengths of this dissertation is that I proposed a theoretical rationale for why an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is related to an interviewer's fit judgments. The inclusion of Duck's theoretical developments (*e.g.* Duck & Barnes, 1992) contribute to the management literature in understanding how perceived similarity works beyond the well-known literature of Byrne (*e.g.*, 1971). Empirically, I showed that an interviewer's fit perceptions of an applicant mediate the relationship between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and an interviewer's hiring recommendations.

Previous studies have proposed the importance of an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant in an interviewer's fit assessments (Judge & Ferris, 1992) and have tested an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant on an interviewer's evaluations of the applicant (Howard & Ferris, 1996). They have not however examine an interviewer's fit assessments of an applicant. In this study, I showed that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is negatively related to the interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of the applicant. In turn, negative behavioral expectations of an applicant are negatively related to an interviewer's PO and PJ fit perceptions of an applicant. I also showed that an interviewer's negative behavioral

expectations of an applicant mediate the relationship between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and the interviewer's PO and PJ fit perceptions of the applicant. Overall, these results suggest that interview outcomes, such as fit evaluations, are based on the discovery and recognition of similarity (Duck & Burnes, 1992) between the interviewer and the applicant. Unfortunately, the causality of this relationship could not be assessed given the cross-sectional nature of the research design.

Another related strength is that only a few interview studies consider both PJ and PO fit perceptions simultaneously. This is unfortunate because Kristof-Brown (2000) showed that both types of fit perceptions are related to an interviewer's hiring recommendations. In this study both fit perceptions were measured.

As for the characteristics of the data collection, unlike many interview studies that use students as subjects to evaluate applicants, in this study real interviewers evaluated real applicants for real jobs. In addition, the interviewer's follow-up survey was done immediately after the interview was finished, avoiding retrospective measures.

Limitations

There are several limitations in this study that involve model specification, characteristics of the data collection, characteristics of the sample, and measures. I have previously presented the problems related to the characteristics of the sample. In the following paragraphs I will present the main limitations related to model specification, data collection, and measures.

As for model specification, it is highly probable that a more fully articulated model would have affected the results. In particular, previous studies have shown that values and personality (Cable & Judge, 1997; Kristof-Brown, 2000) are related to an interviewer's fit perceptions of an applicant. Thus, these variables should have been controlled. However, time constraints precluded me from collecting these control variables.

During the data collection I faced several limitations. As previously mentioned, I was constrained to collect independent instead of repeated observations. I was also limited in the length of the survey instrument and in the number of times I could contact the same interviewer. Regarding the first limitation, Bretz et al. (1993) proposed to analyze one positive and one negative candidate when data collection was related to interviews. Again, because of data collection constraints, I was only able to collect one survey per organization.

A related limitation is the brevity of the follow up-survey administered to interviewers immediately after the interview. The busy schedule of recruiters made this constraint unavoidable. In addition, one of the conditions imposed on me by the director of the Career Center was to prepare an instrument that could be filled out by an interviewer in less than ten minutes.

Another main limitation related to data collection is common method variance. In particular, of special concern is the problem of predictor-criterion bias (Schmitt, Pulakos, Nason, & Whitney, 1996). As indicated by other scholars (Graves & Powell, 1995, 1996), this problem is unavoidable in conducting a field study of these characteristics. In

addition, the response rate obtained would have been significantly reduced should I have requested that interviewers answer the survey that was administered immediately after the interview at two different times.

I applied procedures to control common method bias. In particular, I used different scale endpoints for the predictor and criterion measures (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) in the survey instruments (see Appendix 6). I also reduced the acquiescence bias by avoiding the use of bipolar numerical scale values (*e.g.*, -3 to +3) and providing labels for the midpoints of scales (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

I also assessed the severity of common method variance through a confirmatory factor analysis on competing models that increase in complexity (Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2003). If method variance is a significant problem, more simple models, such as a single factor model, should fit the data as well as a more complex model, such as a six-factor model (*i.e.*, an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant, an interviewer's liking of an applicant, an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of the applicant, an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant, an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant, and hiring recommendations). I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis on all measured variables for six models of increasing complexity. The hypothesized model, containing the six factors mentioned above, yielded a better fit of the data than any of the simpler models. In addition, the improved fit of the six-factor model over all simpler models was statistically significant. For example, the difference in the chi-square statistic between the single factor model and the five-factor model was significant (the change in $\chi^2 = 340.83$, the change in $df = 15$). These results do not

eliminate the threat of common method variance, but they provide evidence that inter-item correlations are not driven purely by method bias (Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995).

Additionally, I obtained independent observations from applicants (see Figure 2, Appendix 1) of the same variables study in my model. Interestingly some of those measures significantly correlate with the interviewer's measures. For instance, an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant correlate with an applicant's PJ fit self-perceptions ($r = .29$). An interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant correlate with an applicant meta-expectations ($r = .23$). An invitation to a second interview correlate with all the variables of the model measured in interviewers at Time 2. The bivariate correlation of an invitation to a second interview with hiring recommendations is $r = .57$, with an interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant is $r = .45$, with an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions is $r = .46$, with an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations is $r = -.40$, with an interviewer's liking of an applicant is $r = .31$, and with an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant is $r = .38$. Overall, these results lessen the severity of the common method variance problem.

As mentioned before, the causality of the hypotheses is also a problem when all the variables are collected simultaneously. An alternative would have been to develop a longitudinal study, something that I was unable to do.

A final limitation of this dissertation is related to measures. The algebraic difference scores obtained in the actual similarity measures have been related to problems in interpreting results. They seem to represent equal contributions of each component, however this is only true when component measures have the same variance (Edwards,

1994). Difference scores do not inform about direction, since they treat positive and negative scores the same (Edwards, 1994). Algebraic difference scores also confound the effects of their components, hiding their relative contribution to the relationship between the score and the outcome (Edwards, 1994). They also have been related to explained variance beyond that associated with their components (Edwards, 1994). Beyond these limitations, my decision of using difference scores was based on statistical simplicity and easy of interpretation (Tsui et al., 2002). Beyond the problem of lack of enough power in the sample, should I have used interactions instead of difference scores, the results would have been extremely difficult to interpret given that I was analyzing compounds (*e.g.*, demographic similarity formed by sex, age, and race) not in individual variables.

Implications and Future Research

There are several implications in this dissertation. In Chapter V, I found that an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant is positively related to an interviewer's fit perceptions of the applicant. Thus, I empirically showed that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is one way to construct fit assessments (Judge & Ferris, 1992). These results may imply a similarity bias. In other words, interviewers are still making judgments that can be sources of discrimination cases. A way to resolve this problem is to train the interviewer before he or she conducts on-campus interviews regarding both how to interview applicants and the potential sources of bias while interviewing. I am aware that some of the organizations included in the sample had as a policy to train the interviewer before on campus interviews. Unfortunately, I could not

add this control variable in the survey instrument because of time constraints. A related issue is whether or not the training was effective. Thus, one main interpretation of these results is similarity bias.

However, there is an alternative and opposite interpretation of these results. It can also be proposed that perceived similarity may reduce an interviewer's uncertainties regarding the future job performance of the applicant (Turban & Jones, 1988). If interviewers' performance evaluations are at stake, they may reduce the uncertainty produced in a first-round of interviews basing their judgments on perceptions of similarity. Unfortunately, I cannot disentangle which alternative explanation best explains my results. The lack of variance in the sample collected may have precluded me from obtaining significant results regarding the relationship between actual and perceived similarity between the interviewer and the applicant. If actual demographic similarity between the interviewer and the applicant would have been significantly related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant, then the basis upon which an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant is formed would have been biased. But, are there reasons to claim discrimination if human capital similarity between the interviewer and the applicant is positively related to an interviewer's perceived similarity to the applicant? Future research should address how different dimensions of human capital similarity (*e.g.*, GPA, years of work experience, major) affect perceptions of discrimination in applicants.

The second main implication of this dissertation is related to the finding that an interviewer's liking of an applicant is not related to an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of

the applicant. Should have I obtained significant results, they would have been a clear indication of bias. Results imply that bias is not an issue when affective reactions such as an interviewer's liking of an applicant are taken into consideration while evaluating an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant.

The third main implication of this study is related to the finding according to which an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant mediate the relationship between an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant and an interviewer's fit perceptions of an applicant. In 1983, Heilman proposed that performance expectations would be a consequence of PJ fit. In this dissertation, I empirically showed that an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations are another way to construct fit evaluations. A longitudinal study is needed to properly test the causality of this relationship.

Another main implication of this research is that interviewers distinguish between PO and PJ fit and base their hiring recommendations on these evaluations (Kristof-Brown, 2000). Future research should examine how an applicant's perceptions, such as an applicant's PO or PJ fit perceptions, impact on an interviewer's evaluations. Finally, female interviewers' assessments of applicants are apparently different from male interviewers' assessments. Raza and Carpenter (1987) and more recently Chapman and Rowe (2001) found that female interviewers are more likely to make a positive hiring recommendation than males. In this dissertation, I found that female and male interviewers differ in the mechanisms they used to evaluate applicants. It seems that female interviewers rely more on cognitive processes than male interviewers.

Conversely, male interviewers base some of their evaluations on affective reactions. Future research should consider developing a study with cognitive and affective components in the evaluation of applicant.

Beyond these implications, the lack of results of this dissertation opens several avenues for future research. Future research should generate more and different items for every dimension proposed to form the construct of cultural capital. This step will be necessary to improve the internal consistency of the items of the scale. Alternatively, researchers should explore a reduced number of dimensions. This alternative probably will ease the generation of the cultural capital scale, given its complexity. Another option is to target only one of the dimensions (*e.g.*, manners) and find the item structure that best represent this facet. As for the validation of the cultural capital scale, it would be interesting to analyze other variables beyond liking and negative behavioral expectations. In particular, hiring recommendations or invitation to a second interview could be variables that could be explored because the cultural capital literature suggest that those with high cultural capital are better evaluated by those who make decisions in job-related contexts (Bourdieu, 1984; Bourgois, 1999).

In addition, future studies should contemplate collecting data in a more diverse setting in order to obtain greater variance in the items. It should also consider repeated measures instead of independent observations. It will be helpful for both testing the relationship between actual and perceived similarity and for obtaining a better sample to validate the cultural capital scale. In future research, scholars should also strive to obtain

a bigger sample than the one I obtained in this study so that more complex statistics could be computed (*e.g.*, structural equation modeling).

To study the relationship between actual and perceived similarity between the interviewer and the applicant, future research should collect data before on-campus interviews take place. It would be important to develop the data collection during career fairs. Future studies should explore whether this is the stage at which actual similarity between the interviewer (although during the career fair interviewers are better called recruiters) and the applicant as well as the recruiter's perceived similarity to the applicant are screened out by the recruiter. In other words, given the lack of results in the field study, and the strong theory behind the relationship between actual and perceived similarity, I expect recruiters to select applicants based on actual similarity during career fairs.

The lack of results between an interviewer's liking of an applicant and an interviewer's PJ fit perceptions of an applicant, and the presence of significant results between an interviewer's liking of an applicant and interviewer's PO fit perceptions of an applicant opens another avenue for future research. It is possible that evaluations produced in positive affective states (*i.e.*, liking) are more related to general types of evaluations, such as PO fit perceptions, than more specific evaluations, such as PJ fit perceptions. Future research should explore this idea in a laboratory.

I also have several additional avenues for future research irrespective of lack of findings. Following the line of research proposed by Turban and Jones (1988), an interesting idea for future research would be to explore the impact of perceptual

congruence, understood as the similarity of perceptions held by interviewers and applicants (*e.g.*, in liking, negative behavioral expectations, perceive similarity, PO fit perceptions, and PJ fit perceptions). Turban and Jones studied perceptual congruence in the area of performance evaluations. In the interview literature, however, the study of perceptual congruence has been set aside. Instead, there is a great deal of research of the effect of applicants' impression management on interviewers' evaluations of applicants. The study of perceptual congruence between the interviewer and the applicant is important because in dyadic perception processes, projection can be understood as a reasonable heuristic to explain interviewers' evaluations of applicants (Neyer, Banse, & Asendorpf, 1999).

Another area of possible future research is related to PO and PJ fit perceptions. Kristof-Brown (2000) and Kristof-Brown et al. (2002) made important contributions explaining how interviewers construct PO and PJ fit perceptions based on characteristics of applicants such as KSAs, values, personality, and impression management tactics. Interestingly, applicants' own evaluations of the organization, such as applicants' organizational attraction, have not been considered as a factor in interviewers' fit perceptions. Organizational attraction is important to take into consideration because the attraction-selection-attraction model (Schneider & Goldstein, 1995) suggests that if people are attracted to an organization, interviewers' fit perceptions should follow.

A final area for possible future research is to evaluate when an interviewer's PO fit perceptions emerge. Parsons, Cable, and Liden (1999) suggested that PO fit perceptions are initiated during the first interview. However, during the resume

evaluation, recruiters may also judge an applicant's PO fit because the resume may also be a source of information about the applicant's values or personality. Future research should conduct a laboratory study to explore if PO fit perceptions are possibly formed during resume evaluations.

Conclusions

In this dissertation I answered the first research question presenting evidence that suggests that an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant is a way to construct an interviewer's fit perceptions of the applicant. I also showed that an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant are the main mechanisms that explain this relationship. Answering to the second research question, I found lack of significant results in the relationship between actual interviewer-applicant similarity on demographics, human capital, and cultural capital and an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant. However, the characteristics of both the sample and the research design leave open several alternatives explanations.

Even though in this dissertation I have gained knowledge regarding how interviewers construct fit perceptions, there is still much more that can be explored in future research. The relationship between actual interviewer-applicant similarity and an interviewer's perceived similarity is one main area that requires further exploration. Other processes explaining the relationship between actual or perceived similarity and fit perceptions would also be of value.

The main practical implication of this dissertation is that interviewers should be trained before they actually develop on –campus interviews. This training would facilitate bias-free judgments on the part of the interviewer, reducing the chances of discrimination against applicants. In addition, interviewer’s sex may affect evaluations of applicants, which suggest that panels of interviewers formed of the opposite sex would facilitate the applicant’s assessment (Lin et al., 1992; Sacco et al., 2003).

Ferris and Judge (1992) suggested that perceived similarity is a way to construct fit evaluations. In this dissertation I offered a theoretical rationale as well as evidence that suggests that this is the case. However, a longitudinal study is required to more fully test this relationship. Human resource researchers still have a great deal to discover regarding how and under what circumstances interviewers construct fit judgments.

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APPENDIX 1

FIGURES AND TABLES

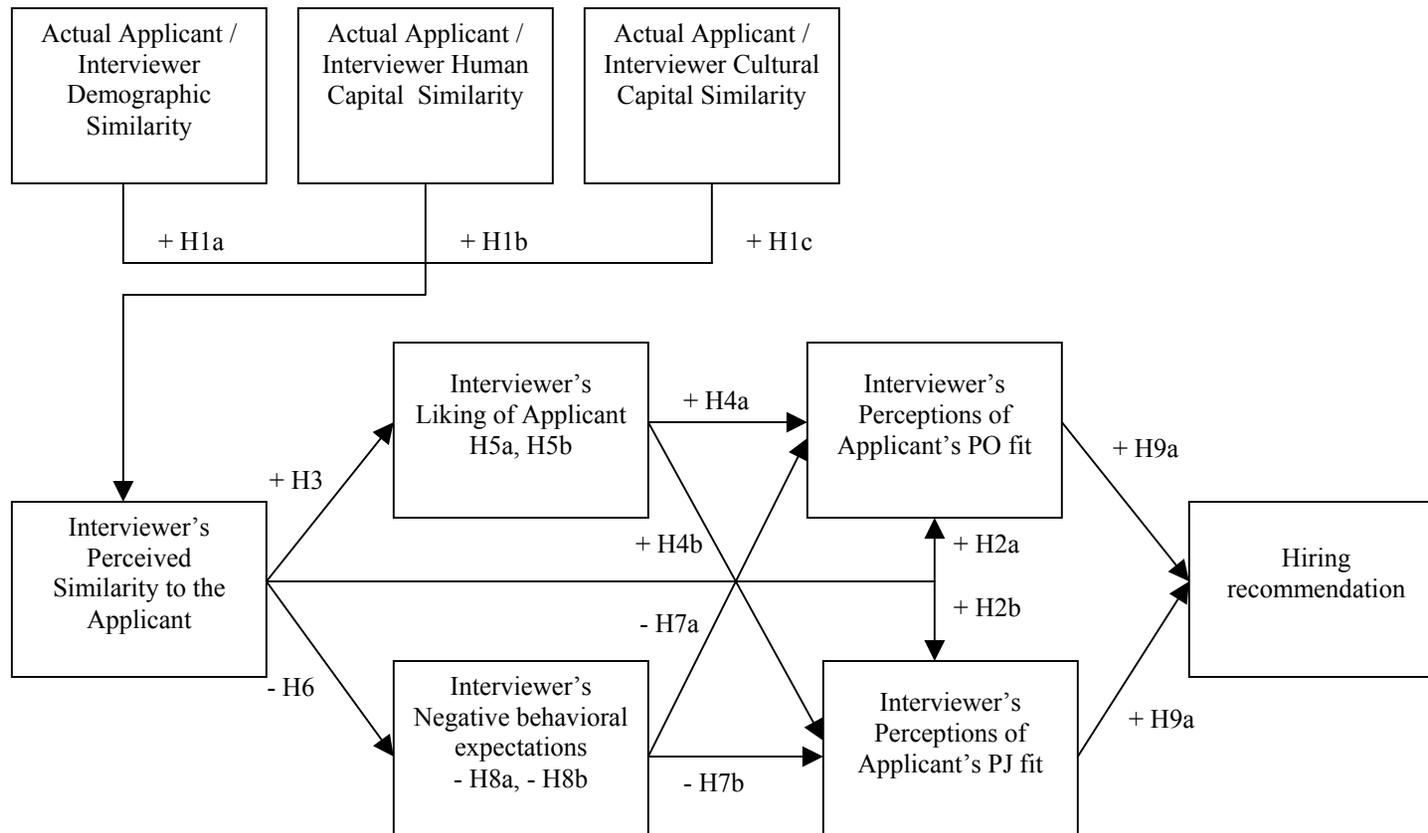


Figure 1: Theoretical model of the dissertation

Interviewers			
	Four weeks prior to interview Time 1	Interview Time 2	Four weeks post interview Time 3
	Demographics Human capital Cultural capital Control variables	Perceived similarity Liking Negative behavioral expectations PJ and PO fit Hiring recommendation Control variables	-
Applicants			
	-	Demographics Human capital Cultural capital Perceived similarity Liking Negative behavioral expectations PJ and PO fit Control variables	Invitation to 2 nd interview

Figure 2: Timeline of the data collection of the field study

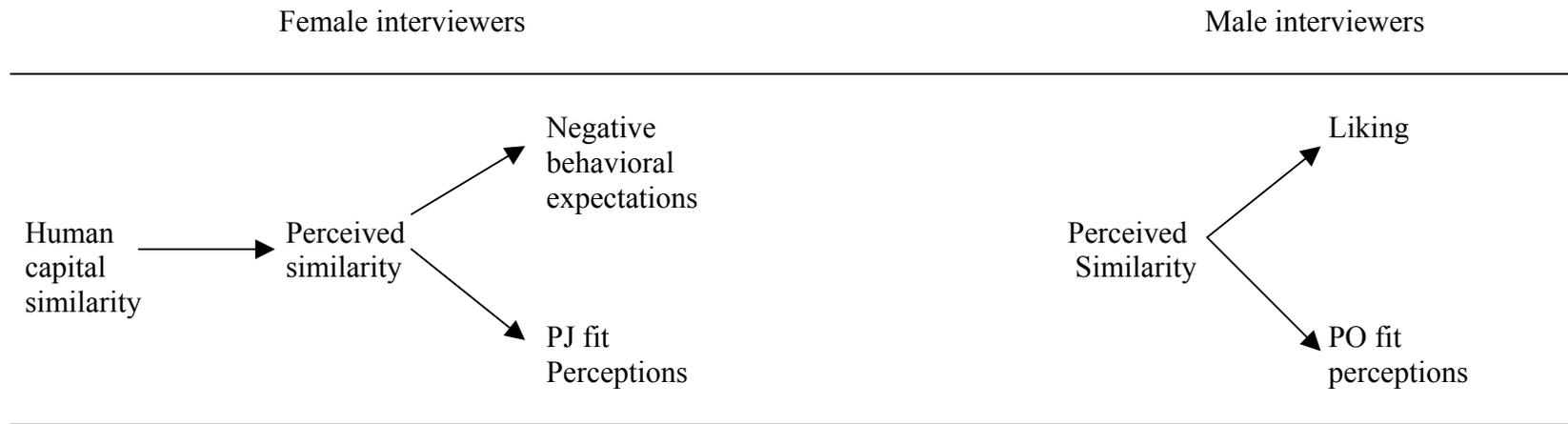


Figure 3: Differences in assessments between female and male interviewers

Table 1

The Effects of Demographics, Human Capital, and Cultural Capital on Hiring Recommendations

Author	Type of study	IV	DV	Type of sample
Avolio and Barret (1987)	Simulated auditory interview	Age, performance-relevant information	Interviewee's future potential and overall interview performance	Students
Buttner and McEnally (1996)	Simulated job interview script	Influence tactic, sex, and job type	Likelihood that managers would recommend hiring	Managers
Cable and Judge (1997)	Interviews	Applicant sex, applicant race, applicant work experience, applicant GPA	Hiring recommendations	Recruiters and applicants
Cargile (2000)	Experiment	Applicants' accent, applicants' sex, and jour types of jobs	Suitability for this job	Students
Chacko, Olson, & Shrader (1999)	Interviewes	Communication skills, human relations skills, time management skills, problem solving skills, leadership skills, computer skills, growth potential, motivation, social skills, ethical values, analytical skills, and research and investigative skills. Job grouping: accounting, computer and information systems, engineering, management, & sales.	Job offer or invitation to a second interview	Recruiters
Chapman & Rowe (2001)	Interviews	Interview medium, interviewers' demographics, interview structure.	Interview ratings	Interviewers & applicants
Cohen & Bunker (1975)	Job description, application blank, an interview transcript, a performance evaluation form, and adjective rating scale.	Sex and position	Hiring recommendations	Recruiters
Connor et al. 1978	Transcript of a job interview	Age Success or failure in obtaining the job	Likelihood to hire the applicant	Students

Table 1 continued

Dipboye and Wiley (1977)	Videotape	Self-presentation style and se	Willingness to hire	Recruiters
Dipboye and Wiley (1978)	Job description, resume, and transcript of an interview	Self-presentation style, sex, type of job, job description	Willingness to invite for a second interview and hire	Students
Ferris & Gilmore (1977)	Resume, videotaped interview, audiotaped interview.	Sex	Over-all favorability rating of the applicant	Students
Gifford et al. (1985)	Videotaped interviews	Work motivation, social skills, time spent talking, facial regard, smiling, gesturing, trunk recline, self-manipulation, object-manipulation, age, sex, formality of dress, and physical attractiveness.	Applicant's hirability	Judges with training and several years of experience in interviewing
Gordon et al. (1988)	Videotaped interview	Age, sex, the position for which they were being considered (assistant director or director), and accountability	Hiring recommendations	Students
Graves & Powell (1988)	Interview	Sex	Interview outcomes	Recruiters
Graves & Powell (1995)	Interview	Applicant's sex, recruiter's sex, and sex similarity	Interview outcomes	Recruiters
Graves & Powell (1996)	Interview	Sex similarity	Interview outcomes	Recruiters
Hollandsworth et al. 1979	On-campus interviews	Eye contact, loudness of voice, body posture, fluency of speech, appropriateness of content, personal appearance, composure.	Would you hire this candidate?	Recruiters

Table 1 continued

Kacmar & Hochwarter (1995)	On-campus interviews	Applicants' race and sex. Communication patterns: dominance, structuring, equivalence, deference, or submission.	Overall rating of the applicant and invitation for a second interview	Applicants & Interviewers
Kinicki & Lockwood (1985)	On-campus interviews	Occupational knowledge, level of personal drive, ability to express ideas, appearance, attraction, gender similarity, GPA, work history, extracurricular activities, professional objective, number of honors or academic scholarships, number of memberships in social fraternities or sororities, amount of volunteer experience, frequency of participation in college athletics, number of memberships in organizations, number of offices held in organizations, similarity of work experience and type of firm, similarity of work experience and academic training, similarity of work experience ³ and professional objective, similarity of professional objective and academic training.	Suitability for hire	Recruiters
Lin et al. (1992)	Interview	Age and race similarity between interviewer and interviewee	Overall interview score	Interviewer / Interviewee
Pingitore et al. (1994)	Mock employment interview (videotape of a job interview)	Weight, sex	Would hire the job applicant	Students
Rand & Wexley (1975)	Simulated interview	Race, biographical similarity, affiliation, prejudice	Hiring recommendation	Students
Raza & Carpenter (1987)	Actual employment interviews	Age and sex	Degree of recommendation for hiring.	Interviewers and Interviewees
Sacco et al. (2003)	Field interviews	Race and sex similarity	Interview ratings	Interviewers and applicants
Singer & Bruhns (1991)	Videotapes of simulated interviews	Work experience, academic qualifications	Hire, answered as yes or no.	Managers & students

Table 1 continued

Singer & Eder (1989)	Videotapes of simulated interviews	Ethnicity, accent (English/no English), job status (low/high)	Suitability, fit-in, competence, starting salary, job satisfaction, likability and self-assurance	Students
Singer & Sewell (1989)	Videotape of a simulated selection interview	Age and age-related information	For the hire decisions from “most likely to hire” to “least likely to hire”.	Managers & students
Simas & McCarrey (1979)	Videotaped simulated interviews	Authoritarianism and sex	A ranking form was provided on which subjects were requested to indicate the order in which they would hire four applicants.	Volunteers
Tessler & Sushelsky (1978)	Simulated employment interview	Eye contact , social status, position (blue & white collar)	Suitability for the job demanding self-confidence.	Students
Wright & Multon (1995)	Transcripts and videotapes of interviews	Perceptions of achievement striving, self-consciousness, self-discipline, intelligence, and communication skills.	Perceived employability	Students with disabilities & interviewers

Table 2

Characteristics Affecting Interviewer's Recommendation to Hire

Characteristics	Classification
KSAs (Kristof-Brown, 2000; Huffcutt et al., 2001)	Human Capital
GPA (Cable & Judge, 1997; Kristof-Brown, 2000)	Human Capital
Work experience (Cable & Judge, 1997)	Human Capital
Race (Cable & Judge, 1997)	Demographic
Sex (Cable & Judge, 1997)	Demographic
Physical characteristics (Rynes & Gerhart, 1990; Huffcutt et al., 2001)	Demographic
Hobbies (Rynes & Gerhart, 1990)	Cultural Capital
Use of leisure time (Rynes & Gerhart, 1990)	Cultural Capital
Interest and preferences (Huffcutt et al., 2001)	Cultural Capital
Eating habits (Rynes & Gerhart, 1990)	Cultural Capital
Attire (Rynes & Gerhart, 1990)	Cultural Capital
Applied social skills (Huffcutt et al., 2001)	----
Interpersonal skills (Werbel & Gilliland, 1999)	----
Articulateness (Bretz et al., 1993)	----
General communication skills (Bretz et al., 1993)	----
Values (Cable & Judge, 1997; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990)	----
Physical attractiveness (Cable & Judge, 1997)	----
Appearance (Bretz et al., 1993)	----
Personality (Rynes & Gerhart, 1990; Huffcutt et al. 2001)	----
Non-verbal behavior (Kristof-Brown et al. 2002b)	----
Verbal and non-verbal cues (Werbel & Gilliland, 1999)	----

Table 3

Results of the 8-Factor Structure of the Cultural Capital Scale

Item	Factor							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. I listen to classical music recordings or radio programs	.51	-.14	.27	.12	.14	.07	.04	-.01
2. I go to live ballet performances	.69	-.07	-.04	.13	-.09	-.06	.03	-.00
3. I go to live classical music performances	.65	-.13	.12	.02	-.05	-.01	-.02	-.05
4. I go to live theater	.72	-.15	.03	.07	-.05	-.20	.10	.08
5. I listen to opera recordings or radio programs	.60	-.05	.17	-.13	.14	.12	.09	.05
6. When I have free time, I visit art galleries	.56	-.03	.26	.15	.01	-.01	.11	.17
7. I do not read best sellers	-.09	.64	-.05	-.07	.02	-.09	-.02	.10
8. I do not read anything if I am not obligated to read it	-.09	.69	-.04	-.09	-.09	.02	-.25	-.13
9. When I watched TV, I tend to watch PBS	.20	-.01	.54	-.01	.17	.04	-.01	-.12
10. I watch CNN	-.05	-.30	.52	.08	-.16	-.15	-.03	.13
11. I watch foreign films	.33	-.01	.53	-.12	-.10	-.13	.24	.12
12. I read the <i>New York Times</i>	.14	-.12	.57	.03	.07	-.04	.10	-.04
13. I dress in a way that people think is sophisticated	.27	.10	.28	.56	-.02	.19	-.13	.03
14. I use grammatically correct English most of the time	.11	.03	-.10	.54	.12	-.20	.15	.29
15. I pay a lot of attention to manners	.06	.07	.06	.71	-.05	-.04	-.09	.00
16. I read Nobel-Prize winning authors	.06	-.06	.06	.07	.85	-.05	.05	-.00
17. I read Pulitzer-prize winning authors	.10	-.11	.03	.04	.83	.02	.05	.01
18. I use slang	-.06	.02	-.15	-.21	-.02	.57	-.03	.05
19. I watch sitcoms on TV	-.02	.02	-.02	.08	.01	.65	.03	-.17
20. I interact with people from very diverse social, cultural, and class backgrounds	.20	-.01	.22	.06	.09	.11	.67	.00
21. I only interact with people that are similar to me	-.10	.11	-.10	.04	-.03	.12	-.78	-.02
22. People comment on the precision and extent of my vocabulary	.14	-.05	-.02	.30	.23	-.07	.09	.58

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations – Laboratory Validation Study

Variables	Means	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. CC	2.33	.81	$\alpha = .94$						
2. Liking	4.22	1.17	.23**	$\alpha = .84$					
3. NBE	2.61	.70	-.50**	-.48**	$\alpha = .84$				
4. YFTWE	3.25	1.65	.02	-.01	-.07	-			
5. PS	3.28	1.36	.30**	.59**	-.66**	.06	$\alpha = .93$		
6. Attraction	3.57	.82	.07	.33**	-.16	-.02	.19*	$\alpha = .82$	
7. Sex P.	.63	.48	-.03	-.12	.05	-.10	.02	.06	-

Note. ** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed). CC= Participant's perceptions of the applicant's cultural capital, PS= participant's perceived similarity to the applicant, NBE= participant's negative behavioral expectations of the applicant, YFTWE= participant's years of full-time work experience, Sex P= participant's sex. Cronbach α are in diagonal.

Table 5

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Participant's Liking of the Applicant (N = 164). Laboratory Validation

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex participant	-.29	.16	-.12	-1.84
Perceived similarity	.47	.05	.54	8.42***
Physical attractiveness	.34	.09	.23	3.58***
Step 2				
Sex participant	-.28	.16	-.11	-1.81
Perceived similarity	.45	.06	.52	7.79***
Physical attractiveness	.34	.09	.23	3.55**
Cultural capital	.08	.10	.06	.87

Note. $R^2 = .40$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .00$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .39$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .39$ for Step 2. $F = 33.25$ *** for Step 1; $\Delta F = .76$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 6

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Participant's Negative Behavioral Expectations of the Applicant (N = 164). Laboratory Validation

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex participant	.06	.09	.04	.68
Perceived similarity	-.34***	.03	-.66	-10.52
Physical attractiveness	-.00	.05	-.01	-.17
Step 2				
Sex participant	.05	.08	.04	.67
Perceived similarity	-.28***	.03	-.55	-9.28
Physical attractiveness	-.00	.05	.00	-.00
Cultural capital	-.28***	.05	-.33	-5.58

Note. $R^2 = .45$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .10$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .42$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .52$ for Step 2. $F = 38.36$ *** for Step 1; $\Delta F = 31.13$ *** for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 7

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Participant's Years of Full-Time Work Experience (N = 164). Laboratory Validation

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex participant	-.45	.27	-.13	-1.63
Perceived Similarity	.08	.10	.07	.84
Physical attractiveness	-.13	.17	-.06	-.75
Step 2				
Sex participant	-.45	.28	-.13	-1.62
Perceived similarity	.08	.10	.07	.79
Physical attractiveness	-.13	.17	-.06	-.75
Cultural capital	.00	.17	.00	.04

Note. $R^2 = .03$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .00$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .01$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .00$ for Step 2. $F = 1.31$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = .00$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 8

Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations – Theoretical Model

Variables	Means	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. DMS	1.65	.72	-											
2. HCS	1.66	.97	-.02	-										
3. CCS	.07	.32	.23*	.12	-									
4. PS	4.27	1.09	.133	-.15	.08	$\alpha = .83$								
5. Liking	4.84	1.14	-.05	-.20*	.01	.43**	$\alpha = .79$							
6. NBE	2.16	.61	-.03	.12	.06	-.59**	-.40**	$\alpha = .81$						
7. PJ Fit	3.60	.82	.09	-.16	.03	.57**	.21*	-.70**	$\alpha = .94$					
8. PO Fit	3.44	.85	.08	-.11	.04	.61**	.38**	-.72**	.80**	$\alpha = .93$				
9. Hiring	3.75	.98	.04	-.15	-.01	.62**	.31**	-.64**	.77**	.80**	$\alpha = .95$			
10. Sex I	.34	.47	-.28**	-.07	.09	-.12	-.03	.01	.04	.03	.12	-		
11. Age I	37.92	10.73	.43**	-.13	.16	.16	.14	-.14	.04	.10	.04	-	-	
12. Sex A	.31	.46	-.26**	.06	-.20*	-.10	-.03	.11	-.14	-.17	-.04	.09	-.06	-

Note. ** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed). DMS= demographic similarity, HCS= human capital similarity, CCS= cultural capital similarity, PS= an interviewer's perceived similarity to an applicant, NBE= an interviewer's negative behavioral expectations of an applicant, Sex I= interviewer's sex, Sex A= applicant's sex, Age I= interviewer's age. Cronbach α are in diagonals

Table 9

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting an Interviewer's Perceived Similarity to an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	-.14	.23	-.06	-.63
Age Interviewer	.01	.01	.13	1.36
Sex Applicant	-.21	.22	-.09	-.97
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	-.21	.24	-.09	-.90
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.09	.70
Sex Applicant	-.14	.23	-.06	-.60
H1a Demographic Similarity	.05	.16	.04	.35
H1b Human Capital Similarity	-.16	.11	-.15	-1.54
H1c Cultural Capital Similarity	.22	.34	.06	.65

Note. $R^2 = .04$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .02$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = -.01$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .01$ for Step 2. $F = 1.51$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = .89$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 10

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Perceived Similarity as a Predictor of an Interviewer's PO Fit Perceptions of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.14	.17	.08	.83
Age Interviewer	.01	.00	.13	1.31
Sex Applicant	-.33*	.16	-.19	-2.02
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.21	.14	.12	1.53
Age Interviewer	.00	.00	.05	.61
Sex Applicant	-.24	.13	-.13	-1.79
H2a Perceived Similarity	.47***	.06	.60	8.12

Note. $R^2 = .05$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .35$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .02$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .38$ for Step 2. $F = 2.00$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 65.98^{***}$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 11

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Perceived Similarity as a Predictor of an Interviewer's PJ Fit Perceptions of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.13	.17	.07	.73
Age Interviewer	.00	.00	.06	.59
Sex Applicant	-.27	.16	-.15	-1.66
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.19	.14	.11	1.32
Age Interviewer	-.00	.00	-.02	-.22
Sex Applicant	-.18	.14	-.10	-1.34
H2b Perceived Similarity	.43***	.06	.57	7.37

Note. $R^2 = .03$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .32$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .00$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .32$ for Step 2. $F = 1.11$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 54.28^{***}$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 12

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Perceived Similarity as a Predictor an Interviewer's Liking of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.06	.24	.03	.29
Age Interviewer	.02	.01	.15	1.47
Sex Applicant	-.07	.23	-.03	-.31
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.13	.22	.06	.61
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.09	.98
Sex Applicant	.02	.21	.00	.11
H3 Perceived Similarity	.44***	.09	.42	4.89

Note. $R^2 = .02$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .17$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = -.00$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .16$ for Step 2. $F = .79$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 23.95$ *** for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 13

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Liking as a Predictor of an Interviewer's PO Fit Perceptions of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.14	.17	.08	.83
Age Interviewer	.01	.01	.13	1.31
Sex Applicant	-.34*	.17	-.19	-2.02
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.13	.16	.07	.79
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.07	.81
Sex Applicant	-.32*	.15	-.18	-2.04
H4a Liking	.27***	.06	.37	4.24

Note. $R^2 = .05$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .13$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .02$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .15$ for Step 2. $F = 2.00$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 18.02^{***}$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 14

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Liking as a Predictor of an Interviewer's PJ Fit Perceptions of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.13	.17	.07	.73
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.06	.59
Sex Applicant	-.27	.16	-.15	-1.66
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.12	.17	.07	.68
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.03	.29
Sex Applicant	-.26	.16	-.15	-1.63
H4b Liking	.15*	.07	.21	2.23

Note. $R^2 = .03$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .04$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .00$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .04$ for Step 2. $F = 1.11$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 4.95^*$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 15

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting an Interviewer's PO Fit Perceptions of an Applicant via Its Effects on an Interviewer's Liking of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.16	.17	.08	.83
Age Interviewer	.01	.01	.13	1.31
Sex Applicant	-.34*	.17	-.19	-2.02
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.20	.14	.11	1.44
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.03	.45
Sex Applicant	-.24	.13	-.13	-1.82
Perceived Similarity	.42***	.06	.55	6.71
H5a Liking	.10	.06	.14	1.73

Note. $R^2 = .05$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .37$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .03$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .39$ for Step 2. $F = 2.00$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 35.08$ *** for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 16

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting an Interviewer's PJ Fit Perceptions of an Applicant via Its Effects on an Interviewer's Liking of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.13	.17	.07	.73
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.06	.59
Sex Applicant	-.27	.16	-.15	-1.66
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.19	.14	.11	1.35
Age Interviewer	-.01	.01	-.02	-.18
Sex Applicant	-.18	.14	-.10	-1.33
Perceived Similarity	.45***	.06	.59	6.87
H5b Liking	-.02	.06	-.04	-.48

Note. $R^2 = .17$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .32$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .00$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .32$ for Step 2. $F = 1.11$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 27.07^{***}$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 17

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting an Interviewer's Negative Behavioral Expectations of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.05	.13	-.04	-.44
Age Interviewer	-.00	.01	-.15	-1.55
Sex Applicant	.15	.12	.11	1.21
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	-.10	.10	-.08	-.99
Age Interviewer	-.00	.00	-.07	-.92
Sex Applicant	.07	.10	.06	.79
H6 Perceived Similarity	-.33***	.04	-.58	-7.61

Note. $R^2 = .03$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .33$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .01$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .34$ for Step 2. $F = 1.34$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 57.85^{***}$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 18

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Negative Behavioral Expectations as a Predictor of an Interviewer's PO Fit Perceptions of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.16	.18	.09	.93
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.12	1.25
Sex Applicant	-.31	.17	-.17	-1.87
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.09	.12	.05	.79
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.02	.25
Sex Applicant	-.18	.12	-.10	-1.53
H7a Negative Behavioral Expectations	-.99***	.09	-.71	-10.94

Note. $R^2 = .04$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .49$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .02$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .52$ for Step 2. $F = 1.77$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 119.64$ *** for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 19

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Negative Behavioral Expectations as a Predictor of an Interviewer's PJ Fit Perceptions of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.14	.17	.08	.79
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.06	.57
Sex Applicant	-.26	.16	-.15	-1.59
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.07	.12	.04	.59
Age Interviewer	-.00	.01	-.05	-.66
Sex Applicant	-.13	.12	-.08	-1.14
H7b Negative Behavioral Expectations	-.94***	.09	-.70	-10.37

Note. $R^2 = .03$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .47$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .00$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .48$ for Step 2. $F = 1.05$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 107.47***$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 20

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting an Interviewer's PO Fit Perceptions of an Applicant via Its Effects on an Interviewer's Negative Behavioral Expectations of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.14	.17	.08	.83
Age Interviewer	.01	.01	.13	1.31
Sex Applicant	-.34*	.17	-.19	-2.02
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.14	.12	.08	1.17
Age Interviewer	.00	.00	.01	.12
Sex Applicant	-.18	.11	-.10	-1.61
Perceived Similarity	.23***	.06	.29	3.82
H8a Negative Behavioral Expectations	-.74***	.11	-.53	-6.89

Note. $R^2 = .05$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .53$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .02$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .56$ for Step 2. $F = 2.00$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 70.44***$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 21

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting an Interviewer's PJ Fit Perceptions of an Applicant via Its Effects on an Interviewer's Negative Behavioral Expectations of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.13	.17	.07	.73
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.06	.59
Sex Applicant	-.27	.16	-.15	-1.66
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.11	.12	.06	.93
Age Interviewer	-.00	.00	-.06	-.85
Sex Applicant	-.12	.11	-.07	-1.08
Perceived Similarity	.19**	.06	.25	3.13
H8b Negative Behavioral Expectations	-.74***	.11	-.56	-6.76

Note. $R^2 = .03$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .51$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .00$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .52$ for Step 2. $F = 1.11$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 60.81***$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 22

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Perceived Similarity, Liking, Negative Behavioral Expectations, and PO Fit Perceptions as Predictors of an Interviewer's Hiring Recommendations (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.39	.29	.14	1.37
Age Interviewer	.01	.01	.09	.88
Sex Applicant	-.15	.29	-.05	-.54
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.11	.18	.04	.63
Age Interviewer	-.00	.00	-.05	-.73
Sex Applicant	.13	.17	.05	.77
Perceived Similarity	.18	.11	.14	1.60
Negative Behavioral Expectations	-.25	.19	-.11	-1.29
Liking	.01	.08	.01	.18
H9a PO Fit Perceptions	1.02***	.16	.61	6.38

Note. $R^2 = .02$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .63$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .00$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .63$ for Step 2. $F = .78$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 43.69$ *** for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 23

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Perceived Similarity, Liking, Negative Behavioral Expectations, and PJ Fit Perceptions as Predictors of an Interviewer's Hiring Recommendations (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.39	.29	.14	1.37
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.09	.88
Sex Applicant	-.15	.28	-.05	-.54
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.21	.18	.07	1.15
Age Interviewer	-.00	.00	-.02	-.31
Sex Applicant	.13	.17	.04	.75
Perceived Similarity	.23*	.11	.18	2.11
Negative Behavioral Expectations	-.14	.20	-.07	-.73
Liking	.13	.08	.12	1.69
H9b PJ Fit Perceptions	.94***	.14	.59	6.49

Note. $R^2 = .02$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .63$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .00$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .63$ for Step 2. $F = .78$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 44.37^{***}$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 24

Results of the Model Developed in Chapter III for both Women and Men Interviewers

Dependent variable	Independent variable	Women's sample		Men's sample	
		B	t	B	t
Perceived similarity	Demographic similarity	.99	2.78**	-.01	-.05
	Human capital similarity	-.52	-3.53***	.05	.36
	Cultural capital similarity	.68	1.31	-.05	-.13
PO fit perceptions	Perceived similarity	.41	3.23**	.48	7.93***
PJ fit perceptions	Perceived similarity	.46	4.39**	.40	5.50***
Liking	Perceived similarity	.35	1.79	.46	4.74***
PO fit perceptions	Liking	.25	2.39**	.25	2.99**
PJ fit perceptions	Liking	.17	1.71	.08	.89
PJ fit perceptions	Perceived similarity	.43	3.95***	.47	5.80***
	Liking	.07	.42	-.16	-1.87
PO fit perceptions	Perceived similarity	.34	2.69**	.48	6.88***
	Liking	.17	1.71	.00	.01
Negative Behavioral Expectations	Perceived similarity	-.28	-3.36**	-.34	-6.75
PO fit perceptions	Negative behavioral expectations	-1.02	-5.58***	-.95	-8.87***
PJ fit perceptions	Negative behavioral expectations	-.96	-5.96***	-.92	-7.92***
PJ fit perceptions	Perceived similarity	.25	2.56**	.15	1.88
PO fit perceptions	Negative Behavioral Expectations	-.74	-4.33***	-.74	-4.97***
	Perceived similarity	.16	1.34	.28	4.13***
Hiring recommendations	Negative Behavioral Expectations	-.88	-4.27***	-.59	-4.77***
	PJ fit	1.10	11.28***	.94	10.90***
Hiring recommendations	PO fit	.95	9.77***	1.03	13.08***

Note. ** < .05, *** < .001

Table 25

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting an Interviewer's Perceived Similarity to an Applicant – Female Sample (N = 40)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Age Interviewer	-.01	.02	-.14	-.84
Sex Applicant	-.35	.35	-.16	-.10
Step 2				
Age Interviewer	-.01	.02	-.12	-.78
Sex Applicant	-.46	.30	-.21	-1.49
Years of Education Similarity	-.27	.41	-.10	-.66
Undergraduate Similarity	-.39	.32	-.18	-1.21
Graduate Similarity	-.39	.35	-.16	-1.12
GPA Similarity	-3.08**	.90	-.50	-3.40
Years Work Experience Similarity	.31	.67	.07	.46

Note. $R^2 = .04$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .37$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = -.01$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .29$ for Step 2. $F = .81$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 4.12^{**}$ for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 26

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting an Interviewer's Liking of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Perceived Similarity	.45***	.09	.43	5.10
Sex Interviewer	.06	.20	.02	.30
Step 2				
Perceived Similarity	.40***	.09	.38	4.42
Sex Interviewer	.75*	.32	.31	2.31
Perceived Similarity x Sex	-.45**	.17	-.37	-2.69

Note. $R^2 = .19$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .05$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .17$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .21$ for Step 2. $F = 13.03$ *** for Step 1; $\Delta F = 7.22$ ** for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 27

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Perceived Similarity, Liking, Negative Behavioral Expectations, PO Fit Perceptions, and PJ Fit Perceptions as Predictors of an Interviewer's Hiring Recommendations (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.39	.29	.14	1.37
Age Interviewer	.01	.01	.09	.88
Sex Applicant	-.15	.28	-.05	-.54
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.11	.17	.04	.62
Age Interviewer	-.00	.00	-.04	-.59
Sex Applicant	.17	.16	.06	1.02
Perceived Similarity	.13	.11	.10	1.22
Liking	.07	.08	.07	1.03
Negative Behavioral Expectations	-.02	.19	-.01	-.15
PO Fit Perceptions	.64**	.18	.38	3.46
PJ Fit Perceptions	.61***	.17	.38	3.62

Note. $R^2 = .02$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .67$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .00$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .67$ for Step 2. $F = .78$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 41.93$ *** for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 28

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Perceived Similarity as a Predictor of an Interviewer's Hiring Recommendations (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.39	.29	.14	1.37
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.09	.88
Sex Applicant	-.15	.29	-.05	-.54
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.51*	.22	.18	2.28
Age Interviewer	.00	.01	.00	.03
Sex Applicant	-.01	.22	-.00	-.08
Perceived Similarity	.80***	.10	.64	8.15

Note. $R^2 = .02$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .39$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .00$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .39$ for Step 2. $F = .78$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 66.43$ *** for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 29

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting an Interviewer's Hiring Recommendations via Its Effects on an Interviewer's PO and PJ Fit Perceptions of an Applicant (N = 118)

Variable	B	SE B	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1				
Sex Interviewer	.39	.29	.14	1.37
Age Interviewer	.01	.01	.09	.88
Sex Applicant	-.15	.29	-.05	-.54
Step 2				
Sex Interviewer	.11	.17	.04	.64
Age Interviewer	-.00	.00	-.04	-.57
Sex Applicant	.17	.16	.06	1.07
Perceived Similarity	.16*	.10	.13	1.64
PO Fit Perceptions	.69***	.17	.42	3.95
PJ Fit Perceptions	.58***	.16	.36	3.74

Note. $R^2 = .02$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .67$ for Step 2. Adjusted $R^2 = .00$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .67$ for Step 2. $F = .78$ for Step 1; $\Delta F = 70.06$ *** for Step 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

APPENDIX 2

SURVEY

Form number: _____

PART 1

The statements presented below are descriptions of actions. I would like you to think about the frequency that they occurred during the last year. Please, take into consideration the following scale:

Never 1	Almost never 2	Sometimes 3	Almost always 4	Always 5
Unsure 10				

1. I read Nobel-prize winning authors.
2. I interact with people from very diverse social, cultural, and class backgrounds.
3. I listen to classical music recordings or radio programs.
4. I go to live ballet performances.
5. I dress in a way that people think is sophisticated.
6. I use slang.
7. I do not visit art museums or galleries.
8. When I watch TV, I tend to watch PBS.
9. People tell me I'm a polite person.
10. I read Pulitzer-prize winning authors.
11. I only interact with people that are similar to me.
12. I do not listen to Jazz recordings or radio programs.
13. I go to live classical music performances.
14. I read poetry.

Never	Almost never	Sometimes	Almost always	Always
1	2	3	4	5
Unsure				
10				

15. I use grammatically correct English most of the time.
16. I visit historic parks or historic monuments.
17. I watch CNN.
18. I pay a lot of attention to manners.
19. I go to the movies instead of going to live theater.
20. I read non-fiction.
21. I do not interact with very sophisticated people.
22. I listen to Country music recordings or radio programs.
23. I watch foreign films.
24. I do not dress like a bohemian.
25. I develop my language skills in my spare time.
26. I do not read best sellers.
27. I go to natural history museums.
28. I watch sitcoms on TV.
29. I do not pay attention to etiquette.
30. I read the *New York Times*.
31. I spend my free time with well-educated people.
32. I listen to rock music recordings or radio programs.
33. I go to live theater.

Never **Almost never** **Sometimes** **Almost always** **Always**
1 **2** **3** **4** **5**

Unsure
10

34. People comment on the precision and extent of my vocabulary.
35. I do not watch TV.
36. I do not read anything if I am not obligated to read it.
37. I listen to opera recordings or radio programs.
38. I play video games in my free time.
39. I do not use sophisticated words even in front of sophisticated people.
40. When I have free time, I visit art galleries.
41. I behave with decorum.
42. I read in my free time.

PART 2

43. Gender

1. Female
2. Male

44. Primary Race/Ethnic identity

1. African American
2. Asian American
3. Hispanic/Latino/Latina
4. Native American
5. White
6. Other. Please, specify: _____

45. Secondary Race/Ethnic identity

1. African American
2. Asian American
3. Hispanic/Latino/Latina
4. Native American
5. White
6. Other. Please specify: _____
7. I do not have a secondary Racial/Ethnic identity

46. Age

1. 17 years
2. 18 years
3. 19 years
4. 20 years
5. 21 years
6. 22 years
7. 23 years
8. 24 – 30 years
9. 31 – 35 years
10. 36 – 40 years
- 1.2. 41 – 45 years (if this is the option you chose, please bubble in both 1 and 2)
- 1.3. 46 – 50 years (if this is the option you chose, please bubble in both 1 and 3)
- 1.4. 51 – 55 years (if this is the option you chose, please bubble in both 1 and 4)
- 1.5. 56 – 60 years (if this is the option you chose, please bubble in both 1 and 5)
- 1.6. > than 60 years. Please, specify: _____

47. How many months/years of full-time work experience (35 hours or more per week) do you have?

1. None
2. Less than 6 months
3. Between 6 months and less than 1 year
4. Between 1 and less than 2 years
5. Between 2 and less than 3 years
6. Between 3 and less than 6 years
7. Between 6 and less than 10 years
8. Between 10 and less 15 years
9. Between 15 and less than 20 years
10. More than 20 years. Please, specify: _____

48. How many months/years of part-time work experience (less than 35 hours per week) do you have?

1. None
2. Less than 6 months
3. Between 6 months and less than 1 year
4. Between 1 and less than 2 years
5. Between 2 and less than 3 years
6. Between 3 and less than 6 years
7. Between 6 and less than 10 years
8. Between 10 and less 15 years
9. Between 15 and less than 20 years
10. More than 20 years: Please, specify: _____

49. For financial support I depend on:

1. My own earnings
2. Spouse/partner's earnings
3. Myself and spouse/partner's earnings
4. Myself and parents' earnings
5. My parents' earnings
6. Other. Please, specify: _____

50. My own earnings (Please, estimate your own earnings anyway if you are unsure)

1. < \$ 10,000 per year
2. Between \$ 10,000 and \$ 15,000 per year
3. Between \$ 15,001 and \$ 20,000 per year
4. Between \$ 20,001 and \$ 25,000 per year
5. Between \$ 25,001 and \$ 30,000 per year
6. Between \$ 30,001 and \$ 40,000 per year
7. Between \$ 40,001 and \$ 50,000 per year
8. Between \$ 50,001 and \$ 60,000 per year
9. Between \$ 60,001 and \$ 80,000 per year
10. Between \$ 80,001 and \$ 100,000 per year
- 1.2. Between \$ 100,001 and \$ 150,000 per year (if this is the option you chose, please bubble in both 1 and 2)
- 1.3. Between \$ 150,001 and \$ 200,000 per year (if this is the option you chose, please bubble in both 1 and 3)
- 1.4. Between \$ 200,001 and \$ 250,000 per year (if this is the option you chose, please bubble in both 1 and 4)
- 1.5. > than \$ 250,000 (if this is the option you chose, please bubble in both 1 and 5)
- 1.6. I do not have any earnings of my own (if this is the option you chose, please bubble in both 1 and 5)

51. My parents' earnings (Please, estimate your parents' joint earnings anyway if you are unsure).

1. < \$ 10,000 per year
2. Between \$ 10,000 and \$ 15,000 per year
3. Between \$ 15,001 and \$ 20,000 per year
4. Between \$ 20,001 and \$ 25,000 per year
5. Between \$ 25,001 and \$ 30,000 per year
6. Between \$ 30,001 and \$ 40,000 per year
7. Between \$ 40,001 and \$ 50,000 per year
8. Between \$ 50,001 and \$ 60,000 per year
9. Between \$ 60,001 and \$ 80,000 per year
10. Between \$ 80,001 and \$ 100,000 per year
- 1.2. Between \$100,001 and \$150,000 per year (if this is the option you chose, bubble in both 1 & 2)
- 1.3. Between \$150,001 and \$200,000 per year (if this is the option you chose, bubble in both 1 & 3)
- 1.4. Between \$200,001 and \$250,000 per year (if this is the option you chose, bubble in both 1 & 4)
- 1.5. > than \$250,000 (if this is the option you chose, please bubble in both 1 and 5)
- 1.6. No earnings (if this is the option you chose, please bubble in both 1 and 6)

52. Mother's educational attainment

- a. Some high school or less
- b. Completed high school
- c. Other professional training/degree. Please, specify _____
- d. Associates degree
- e. Some college
- f. Bachelor's degree
- g. Master's degree
- h. Doctoral level (*e.g.*, PhD, MD, JD)

53. Father's educational attainment

1. Some high school or less
2. Completed high school
3. Other professional training/degree. Please, specify _____
4. Associates degree
5. Some college
6. Bachelor's Degree
7. Master's Degree
8. Doctoral level (*e.g.*, PhD, MD, JD)

54. Father's primary occupational group

1. Professional and technical
2. Business managers, officials, and proprietors
3. Clerical and sales workers
4. Craftsmen and foremen
5. Operators
6. Unskilled, service, and domestic workers
7. Unemployed
8. Unsure
9. Retired
10. Not applicable
- 1.2. Other. Please, specify: _____

Please specify father's job title (if applicable): _____

55. Mother's primary occupational group

1. Professional and technical
2. Business managers, officials, and proprietors
3. Clerical and sales workers
4. Craftsmen and foremen
5. Operators
6. Unskilled, service, and domestic workers
7. Unemployed
8. Unsure
9. Retired
10. Not applicable
- 1.2. Other. Please, specify: _____

Please specify mother's job title (if applicable): _____

56. My primary occupational group

1. Professional and technical
2. Business managers, officials, and proprietors
3. Clerical and sales workers
4. Craftsmen and foremen
5. Operators
6. Unskilled, service, and domestic workers
7. Unemployed
8. Unsure
9. Retired
10. Not applicable
- 1.2. Other. Please, specify: _____

Please specify your job title (if applicable): _____

APPENDIX 3

Script (high cultural capital)

The applicant will be formally dressed with a suit.

Interviewer: Please come on in, I am Laura!

Applicant: I am Sarah.

Interviewer: How are you today?

Applicant: I am very well, thank you for asking.

Interviewer: Please sit down, be comfortable. The first round of interviews is typically short. If you get selected to participate in the second round of interviews, you will notice that they take considerably more time.

Interviewer: Why do you want to fly with our company?

Applicant: I'm attracted to Ace Airlines because it's a stable carrier with an excellent reputation in the industry. Of all the small airlines operating out of the Midwest, Ace offers the best safety record as well as superb customer service—even in coach—all with great ticket prices. I'd like to be a member of that winning team.

Interviewer: Aside from company benefits and travel advantages, what makes the flight-attendant position attractive to you?

Applicant: I have a lot of qualities that are important in flight attending, such as maturity and responsibility. I also have a high need for achievement. I understand that a career with the airline demands some sacrifice, but I like to think of it as high adventure and a great opportunity.

Interviewer: Tell me about your educational background.

Applicant: I have a high-school diploma as well as two and a half years of college work. Though I enjoyed college, I had to put off getting my degree for financial reasons. I hope to return and get my bachelor's degree in business someday.

Interviewer: What are your future career plans?

Applicant: My goal is eventually to work in management, but I understand that I'll need to spend some time first working my way up the ranks.

Interviewer: Have you ever had a problem dealing with a fellow employee or boss?

Applicant: I'd say that I'm pretty easygoing and can get along with most people. However, in my last position there was one co-worker I found difficult to work with. He'd often arrive late and leave early and was constantly behind in his work because he used to say that for his job he had to be up-to-date with the current news, so he used to spend hours reading the *New York Times*. Because of this the rest of our group had to

work that much harder to make up for lost time. Besides that, this particular individual tended to be belligerent, and not a team player. I tried to steer clear of him when I could, and tried to be patient when I had to interact with him. Eventually, the company recognized the problem and fired him.

Interviewer: Now, tell me about a time when you had to deal with an irate customer or fellow employee. How did you handle the situation?

Applicant: My customer service position at the telephone company involved dealing occasionally with irate customers. When that happened, I'd try to talk in a calm, even voice, in order to get the person to respond in a businesslike manner and focus on trying to resolve the problem. Most times I was able to rectify the problem and pacify the customer, but I remember one incident in which the caller became verbally abusive. I tried to remain calm and professional, and not to let my feelings show. I didn't respond to the abuse, I just made a note of it and continued to help the customer as best I could. When the abuse persisted, however, I politely asked him to call back and ask for my manager because at that point I knew I couldn't resolve the problem.

Interviewer: Now, I would like to ask you a different question: How many days were you absent from work last year? Why?

Applicant: I was absent four days last year, three because I came down with the flu and one due to the death of a family member.

Interviewer: What would your friends tell me about you?

Applicant: Probably that I am mature, responsible, hard worker, and that I pay a lot of attention to manners. They may also say that I like to read important American writers, such as those who win prizes!

Interviewer: The company believes that employees should give time back to the community. For instance, there are some employees that like to listen to classical music, enjoy going to live theater, and go to art galleries, so they decided to organize an event for the community incorporating all those elements. Other employees are more sport related, so they organized a marathon. How do you feel about given time back to the community?

Applicant: I would love to do it, and I would be another member of the group organizing the event related to classical music, theater, and art galleries because I really think that it is important for the community!

Interviewer: Would you mind moving?

Applicant: Not at all. I moved here a year ago for a job and have no family or other significant connections to this area. Also, I don't own a home, so I'm pretty mobile.

Interviewer: When would you be able to start training?

Applicant: I'd have to give my current employer two weeks' notice, but I'd be available immediately thereafter.

Interviewer: Why should I hire you?

Applicant: I'm responsible, loyal, and eager to learn. I would love to work here.

Interviewer: Well, those were all the questions I had for you today. We expect to get back to you in three or four weeks. It takes a lot of time to process the information of all the applicants. Is that ok with you?

Applicant: Oh ... yes! Of course! I am looking forward to hearing from you.

Interviewer: Good luck!

Applicant: Thank you very much! Good bye!

Script (low cultural capital)

The applicant will be informally dressed with a suit.

Interviewer: Please come on in, I am Laura!

Applicant: Hi.

Interviewer: How are you today?

Applicant: Fine.

Interviewer: Please sit down, be comfortable. The first round of interviews is typically short. If you get selected to participate in the second round of interviews, you will notice that they take considerably more time.

Interviewer: Why do you want to fly with our company?

Applicant: I like Ace Airlines because it's a stable company with a excellent reputation in the industry. Of all the small airlines operating out of the Midwest, Ace has the best safety record as well as **cool** customer service—even in coach—all with great ticket prices. I'd like to be a member of that winning team.

Interviewer: Aside from company benefits and travel advantages, what makes the flight-attendant position attractive to you?

Applicant: I have a lot of qualities that are important in flight attending, such as maturity and responsibility. I also have a high need for achievement. I understand that a career with the airline demands some sacrifice, but I like to think of it as high adventure and a great opportunity.

Interviewer: Tell me about your educational background.

Applicant: I finished high school and two and a half years of college. Though I liked college, I stopped school 'cause of money problems. I want to go back and get my bachelor's degree in business someday.

Interviewer: What are your future career plans as a flight attendant?

Applicant: I wanna work in management, but I understand that I'll need to spend some time first working my way up the ranks.

Interviewer: Have you ever had a problem dealing with a fellow employee or boss?

Applicant: I'd say that I'm pretty mellow but many people are hard to get along with. In my last position there was one guy I found to be a pain in the neck to work with. He'd often show up late and leave early and was constantly behind in his work because he used to say that for his job he had to be up-to-date with the current news, so he used to spend hours reading the *New York Times*. Because of this the rest of our group had to work that much harder to make up for lost time. Besides that, this guy was hard to get along with, and not a team player. I tried to steer clear of him when I could, and tried to be patient when I had to deal with him. Finally, the company recognized the problem and canned him.

Interviewer: Now, tell me about a time when you had to deal with an irate customer or fellow employee. How did you handle the situation?

Applicant: My customer service position at the telephone company involved dealing occasionally with angry customers. When that happened, I'd try to stay cool, in order to get the person to respond in a businesslike manner and focus on trying to resolve the problem. Most times I was able to fix the problem and chill the customer, but I remember one time in which the guy blew up. I tried to stay cool and professional, and not to let my feelings show. I didn't respond to the abuse, I just made a note of it and continued to help the guy as best I could. When he wouldn't let it go, I told him to call back and ask for my manager because at that point I knew I couldn't deal with it.

Interviewer: Now, I would like to ask you a different question: How many days were you absent from work last year? Why?

Applicant: Four. Three cuz I got sick + one cuz my dad died.

Interviewer: What would your friends tell me about you?

Applicant: Probably that I am mature, responsible, hard worker, and that sometimes I do not pay a lot of attention to manners. They may also say that I like to read comics!

Interviewer: The company believes that employees should give time back to the community. For instance, there are some employees that like to listen to classical music, enjoy going to live theater, and go to art galleries, so they decided to organize an event for the community incorporating all those elements. Other employees are more focused on the environment, so they collect cans and bottles for recycling. How do you feel about giving time back to the community?

Applicant: I'd love it, and I'd help with the recycling because I really think that it is important for the community!

Interviewer: Would you mind moving?

Applicant: No. I moved here a year ago for a job and have no family or other significant connections to this area. Also, I don't own a home, so I'm pretty mobile.

Interviewer: When would you be able to start training?

Applicant: I'd have to give my current employer two weeks' notice, but I'd be available immediately thereafter.

Interviewer: Why should I hire you?

Applicant: I'm responsible, loyal, and eager to learn. I would love to work here.

Interviewer: Well, those were all the questions I had for you today. We expect to get back to you in three or four weeks. It takes a lot of time to process the information of all the applicants. Is that ok with you?

Applicant: Cool!

Interviewer: Good luck!

Applicant: Thanks!

APPENDIX 4

PART 1

DO NOT START ANSWERING THE QUESTIONS UNTIL YOU ARE INSTRUCTED TO DO SO. THANK YOU.

Please indicate how much you like the applicant taking into consideration the scale provided below. Fill in the answer in the scantron provided.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree

- 1. I like the applicant very much as a person.**
- 2. I think the applicant would make a good friend.**

Please indicate your expectations regarding the future performance of the applicant taking into consideration the scale provided below. Fill in the answer in the scantron provided.

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all likely		Somewhat likely		Extremely likely

- 3. How likely is it that this applicant will be a poor performer?**
- 4. How likely is it that this applicant will be creative?**
- 5. How likely is it that this applicant will work to implement new ideas?**
- 6. How likely is it that this applicant will work as part of a team or work group?**
- 7. How likely is it that this applicant will respond to the needs of others in his/her work/group?**
- 8. How likely is it that the applicant will work for the overall good of the company?**

Please indicate how similar you think the applicant is to you according to the scale provided below. Fill in the answer in the scantron provided.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree

9. The applicant and I are similar in terms of our outlook, perspective, and values.

10. The applicant and I see things in much the same way.

11. The applicant and I are alike in a number of areas.

12. This applicant reminds me of myself.

The statements presented below are description of actions. Based on the scenario you just watched, I would like you to estimate the frequency that these actions occurred in the applicant's life during the last year. Please fill in the answer in scantron provided according to the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	10
Never	Almost never	Sometimes	Almost always	Always	Unsure

13. Read Nobel-prize winning authors.

14. Interact with people from very diverse social, cultural, and class backgrounds.

15. Listen to classical music recordings or radio programs.

16. Go to live ballet performances.

17. Use slang.

18. Read Pulitzer-prize winning authors.

19. Only interact with people that are similar to her.

20. Go to live classical music performances.

1	2	3	4	5	10
Never	Almost never	Sometimes	Almost always	Always	Unsure

21. Use grammatically correct English most of the time.
22. Pay a lot of attention to manners.
23. Go to live theater.
24. People comment on the precision and extent of her vocabulary.
25. Listen to opera recordings or radio programs.
26. When she has free time, she visits art galleries.

The next questions are related to the physical attractiveness of the applicant. Fill in the answer in the scantron provided. Please use the following scale:

Very Unattractive							Very attractive
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

27. How physically attractive do you think this person is?
28. Compared to other people, do you think this person is more attractive or less attractive than most people?

The last set of questions is about your recommendations for hiring this applicant. Please fill in the answer in the scantron provided (not in this sheet) taking into consideration the following scales:

- | | | | | | |
|--|------------------|----------|--------------------|----------|----------------|
| 29. What is the likelihood that you would recommend the applicant for hiring by your organization? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | Very
unlikely | | Somewhat
likely | | Very
likely |
-
- | | | | | | |
|---|------------------|----------|--|----------|------------------|
| 30. Please give your overall evaluation of this candidate for this job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | Very
negative | | Neither
positive
nor
negative | | Very
positive |

31. More generally, please give your overall evaluation of this candidate for a job in your organization.

1
Very
negative

2

3
Neither
positive
nor
negative

4

5
Very
positive

32. Please rate the applicant according to the following scale:

1
Will not
consider
hiring

2
Will
Consider
for hire

3
Will
Strongly
consider
for hire

4
Expect to
Hire

PART 2

**DO NOT START THIS TASK UNTIL YOU ARE INSTRUCTED TO DO SO.
THANK YOU.**

In the space provided below, form as many words as you can using the letters contained in the word “interview,” “liking,” and “attractiveness.”

Example 1: you can take one “t” and one “a” from attractiveness, the “l” from liking, and an “e” from interview and form the word “tale.”

Example 2: you can take the “r,” the “e,” the “a,” the “c,” and the “t” from attractiveness and form the word “react.”

You have two minutes to complete this task.

PART 3

DO NOT START ANSWERING THE QUESTIONS UNTIL YOU ARE INSTRUCTED TO DO SO. THANK YOU.

Please indicate how much you like the applicant taking into consideration the scale provided below. Fill in the answer in the scantron provided.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree

33. I like the applicant very much as a person.

34. I think the applicant would make a good friend.

Please indicate your expectations regarding the future performance of the applicant taking into consideration the scale provided below. Fill in the answer in the scantron provided.

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all likely		Somewhat likely		Extremely likely

35. How likely is it that this applicant will be a poor performer?

36. How likely is it that this applicant will be creative?

37. How likely is it that this applicant will work to implement new ideas?

38. How likely is it that this applicant will work as part of a team or work group?

39. How likely is it that this applicant will respond to the needs of others in his/her work/group?

40. How likely is it that the applicant will work for the overall good of the company?

Please indicate how similar you think the applicant is to you according to the scale provided below. Fill in the answer in the scantron provided.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree

- 41. The applicant and I are similar in terms of our outlook, perspective, and values.**
- 42. The applicant and I see things in much the same way.**
- 43. The applicant and I are alike in a number of areas.**
- 44. This applicant reminds me of myself.**

The statements presented below are description of actions. Based on the scenario you just watched, I would like you to estimate the frequency that these actions occurred in the applicant's life during the last year. Please fill in the answer in scantron provided according to the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	10
Never	Almost never	Sometimes	Almost always	Always	Unsure

- 45. Read Nobel-prize winning authors.**
- 46. Interact with people from very diverse social, cultural, and class backgrounds.**
- 47. Listen to classical music recordings or radio programs.**
- 48. Go to live ballet performances.**
- 49. Use slang.**
- 50. Read Pulitzer-prize winning authors.**
- 51. Only interact with people that are similar to her.**
- 52. Go to live classical music performances.**
- 53. Use grammatically correct English most of the time.**

1	2	3	4	5	10
Never	Almost never	Sometimes	Almost always	Always	Unsure

54. Pay a lot of attention to manners.

55. Go to live theater.

56. People comment on the precision and extent of her vocabulary.

57. Listen to opera recordings or radio programs.

58. When she has free time, she visits art galleries.

The next questions are related to the physical attractiveness of the applicant. Fill in the answer in the scantron provided. Please use the following scale:

Very Unattractive							Very attractive
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

59. How physically attractive do you think this person is?

60. Compared to other people, do you think this person is more attractive or less attractive than most people?

The last set of questions is about your recommendations for hiring this applicant. Please fill in the answer in the scantron provided (not in this sheet) taking into consideration the following scales:

61. What is the likelihood that you would recommend the applicant for hiring by your organization?

1	2	3	4	5
Very unlikely		Somewhat likely		Very likely

62. Please give your overall evaluation of this candidate for this job.

1	2	3	4	5
Very negative		Neither positive nor negative		Very positive

63 More generally, please give your overall evaluation of this candidate for a job in your organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Very negative		Neither positive nor negative		Very positive

**64. Please rate the applicant
according to the following scale:**

1
Will not
consider
hiring

2
Will
Consider
for hire

3
Will
Strongly
consider
for hire

4
Expect to
Hire

PART 4

DO NOT START ANSWERING THE QUESTIONS UNTIL YOU ARE INSTRUCTED TO DO SO. THANK YOU.

The next set of questions is related to demographics and human capital. Please fill in the answer in the scantron provided.

65. Sex

- a) FEMALE
- b) MALE

66. Primary Racial/Ethnic identity

- a) AFRICAN AMERICAN / BLACK
- b) ASIAN / ASIAN AMERICAN
- c) HISPANIC
- d) NATIVE AMERICAN
- e) WHITE
- f) OTHER. PLEASE SPECIFY: _____

67. How many years of education do you have?

- a) LESS THAN 15 YEARS
- b) FROM 15 TO LESS THAN 17 YEARS
- c) FROM 17 TO LESS THAN 19 YEARS
- d) FROM 19 TO LESS THAN 21 YEARS
- e) FROM 21 TO 23 YEARS
- f) MORE THAN 23 YEARS. PLEASE SPECIFY: _____

68. How many months/years of full time work experience (35 hours or more per week) do you have?

- a) NONE
- b) LESS THAN 6 MONTHS
- c) FROM 6 MONTHS TO LESS THAN 1 YEAR
- d) FROM 1 TO LESS THAN 2 YEARS
- e) FROM 2 TO LESS THAN 3 YEARS
- f) FROM 3 TO LESS THAN 6 YEARS
- g) FROM 6 TO LESS THAN 10 YEARS
- h) FROM 10 TO LESS THAN 15 YEARS
- i) FROM 15 TO 20 YEARS
- j) MORE THAN 20 YEARS. PLEASE, SPECIFY: _____

The next questions are related to your parents (or guardians) and yourself. Please fill in the answer in the scantron provided.

69. Mother's educational attainment

- a) SOME HIGH SCHOOL OR LESS
- b) COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL
- c) ADDITIONAL PROFESSIONAL TRAINING/DEGREE BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL. PLEASE, SPECIFY _____
- d) ASSOCIATES' DEGREE
- e) SOME COLLEGE
- f) BACHELOR'S DEGREE
- g) MASTER'S DEGREE
- h) DOCTORAL LEVEL (*E.G.*, PHD, MD, JD)

70. Father's educational attainment

- a) SOME HIGH SCHOOL OR LESS
- b) COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL
- c) ADDITIONAL PROFESSIONAL TRAINING/DEGREE BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL. PLEASE, SPECIFY _____
- d) ASSOCIATES' DEGREE
- e) SOME COLLEGE
- f) BACHELOR'S DEGREE
- g) MASTER'S DEGREE
- h) DOCTORAL LEVEL (*E.G.*, PHD, MD, JD)

71. When you were growing up (up until about you were 17 years old), what group was the most representative of you?

- a) LOWER CLASS
- b) LOWER MIDDLE CLASS
- c) MIDDLE MIDDLE CLASS
- d) UPPER MIDDLE CLASS
- e) HIGHER CLASS

The statements presented below are description of actions. I would like you to think about the frequency that these actions occurred (to you) during the last year. Please fill in the answer in the scantron provided according to the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	10
Never	Almost never	Sometimes	Almost always	Always	Unsure

72. I read Nobel-prize winning authors.

73. I interact with people from very diverse social, cultural, and class backgrounds.

74. I listen to classical music recordings or radio programs.

75. I go to live ballet performances.

76. I use slang.

77. I read Pulitzer-prize winning authors.

78. I only interact with people that are similar to me.

79. I go to live classical music performances.

80. I use grammatically correct English most of the time.

81. I pay a lot of attention to manners.

82. I go to live theater.

83. People comment on the precision and extent of my vocabulary.

84. I listen to opera recordings or radio programs.

85. When I have free time, I visit art galleries.

The final set of questions should not be fill in. Please write down the answer in the space provided below.

86. Please specify your father's job (if applicable): _____

87. Please specify your mother's job (if applicable): _____

88. Please specify your job (if applicable): _____

89. Overall undergraduate's GPA: _____

90. Age: _____

APPENDIX 5

RECRUITMENT SURVEY

Please return your completed questionnaire to:

**Fernanda Garcia, PhD Candidate
Department of Management
433F Wehner Building
4221 TAMU
College Station, TX 77843-4221.
Phone: (979) 845-8644
E-mail: fgarcia@cgsb.tamu.edu**

**The link between names and data will be destroyed
as soon as the data collection is finished.**

1. **Organization's name:** _____
2. **Recruiter's name:** _____

The first set of questions is related to demographics. Please either circle or write down the correct answer where is appropriate.

3. Sex

- a. FEMALE
- b. MALE

4. Primary Racial/Ethnic identity

- a. AFRICAN AMERICAN / BLACK
- b. ASIAN / ASIAN AMERICAN
- c. HISPANIC
- d. NATIVE AMERICAN
- e. WHITE
- f. OTHER. PLEASE SPECIFY: _____

5. Age: _____

The next questions are related to your education. Please either circle or write down the correct answer where is appropriate.

6. How many years of education do you have?

- a. LESS THAN 15 YEARS
- b. FROM 15 TO LESS THAN 17 YEARS
- c. FROM 17 TO LESS THAN 19 YEARS
- d. FROM 19 TO LESS THAN 21 YEARS
- e. FROM 21 TO 23 YEARS
- f. MORE THAN 23 YEARS. PLEASE SPECIFY: _____

7. What was your college major? _____

8. Overall undergraduate's GPA (Please estimate anyway if you are unsure): _____

j. MORE THAN 20 YEARS. PLEASE, SPECIFY: _____

16. Your position in your organization:

- a. STAFF
- b. MANAGER
- c. VICE-PRESIDENT
- d. DIRECTOR
- e. PARTNER
- f. OTHER. PLEASE, SPECIFY: _____

The statements presented below are description of actions. I would like you to think about the frequency that they occurred during the last year. Please circle the correct answer.

17. I read Nobel-prize winning authors.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
18. I interact with people from very diverse social, cultural, and class backgrounds.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
19. I listen to classical music recordings or radio programs.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
20. I go to live ballet performances.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
21. I dress in a way that people think is sophisticated.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
22. I use slang.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
23. When I watch TV, I tend to watch PBS.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
24. I read Pulitzer-prize winning authors.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure

25. I only interact with people that are similar to me.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
26. I go to live classical music performances.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
27. I use grammatically correct English most of the time.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
28. I watch CNN.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
29. I pay a lot of attention to manners.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
30. I watch foreign films.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
31. I read best sellers.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
32. I watch sitcoms on TV.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
33. I read the <i>New York Times</i>.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
34. I go to live theater.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
35. People comment on the precision and extent of my vocabulary.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
36. I do <u>not</u> read anything if I am not obligated to read it.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
37. I listen to opera recordings or radio programs.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure

- 38. When I have free time, I visit art galleries.**
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------|-----------------|-----------|------------------|----------|-----------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 10 |
| | Never | Almost
never | Sometimes | Almost
always | Always | Unsure |

The next questions are related to your parents (or guardians). Please either circle or write down the correct answer where is appropriate.

39. Mother's educational attainment

- i. SOME HIGH SCHOOL OR LESS
- j. COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL
- k. ADDITIONAL PROFESSIONAL TRAINING/DEGREE BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL. PLEASE, SPECIFY _____
- l. ASSOCIATES' DEGREE
- m. SOME COLLEGE
- n. BACHELOR'S DEGREE
- o. MASTER'S DEGREE
- p. DOCTORAL LEVEL (*E.G.*, PHD, MD, JD)

40. Father's educational attainment

- a. SOME HIGH SCHOOL OR LESS
- b. COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL
- c. ADDITIONAL PROFESSIONAL TRAINING/DEGREE BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL. PLEASE, SPECIFY _____
- d. ASSOCIATES' DEGREE
- e. SOME COLLEGE
- f. BACHELOR'S DEGREE
- g. MASTER'S DEGREE
- h. DOCTORAL LEVEL (*E.G.*, PHD, MD, JD)

41. Please specify your father's job (if applicable): _____

42. Please specify your mother's job (if applicable): _____

The last questions are about you. Please either circle or write down the correct answer where is appropriate.

43. Please specify your job: _____

44. When you were growing up (up until you were about 17 years old), what group did you represent:

- a. LOWER CLASS
- b. LOWER MIDDLE CLASS
- c. MIDDLE MIDDLE CLASS
- d. UPPER MIDDLE CLASS
- e. HIGHER CLASS

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!

Your comments will be appreciated, either here or in a separate envelope.



Please return your completed questionnaire to:

**Fernanda Garcia, PhD Candidate
Department of Management
433F Wehner Building
4221 TAMU
College Station, TX 77843-4221.
Phone: (979) 845-8644
E-mail: fgarcia@cgsb.tamu.edu**

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!

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E-mail: fgarcia@cgsb.tamu.edu**

APPENDIX 6

INTERVIEW SURVEY

Please return your completed questionnaire in the enclosed envelope to:

**Fernanda Garcia
Department of Management
433F Wehner Building
4221 TAMU
College Station, TX 77843-4221.
Phone: (979) 845-8644
E-mail: fgarcia@cgsb.tamu.edu**

**The link between names and data will be destroyed
as soon as the data collection is finished.**

1. Organization's name: _____
2. Recruiter's name: _____
3. Date: _____
4. Time of the interview: _____
5. Duration of the interview in minutes: _____
6. Type of interview:
 - a. THE SAME QUESTIONS FOR ALL THE APPLICANTS.
 - b. DIFFERENT QUESTIONS FOR EVERY APPLICANT.
 - c. A MIX OF BOTH A AND B.
7. (If you mark "c" in question 6, otherwise skip to question 8) What was the percentage of time invested with the type "a" interview? _____%. What was the percentage of time invested with the type "b" interview? _____%

The next questions are related to your opinions about both the applicant you just interviewed and yourself. Please circle the correct answer.

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|-----------------|-----------------|---|-----------------|-----------------|---------------------------------------|
| <p>8. Please rate the following sentence:
"I consider myself to be a model of what my company looks for."</p> | <p>1
I strongly disagree</p> | <p>2</p> | <p>3</p> | <p>4
Neither agree nor disagree</p> | <p>5</p> | <p>6</p> | <p>7
I strongly agree</p> |
| <p>9. Please rate the following sentence:
"The applicant pretty closely matches the ideal applicant."</p> | <p>1
I strongly disagree</p> | <p>2</p> | <p>3</p> | <p>4
Neither agree nor disagree</p> | <p>5</p> | <p>6</p> | <p>7
I strongly agree</p> |
| <p>10. How similar is the candidate to yourself on attitudes toward work?</p> | <p>1
No at all similar</p> | <p>2</p> | <p>3</p> | <p>4
Neither similar nor different</p> | <p>5</p> | <p>6</p> | <p>7
Extremely Similar</p> |
| <p>11. The applicant and I are similar</p> | <p>1</p> | <p>2</p> | <p>3</p> | <p>4</p> | <p>5</p> | <p>6</p> | <p>7</p> |

in terms of our outlook, perspective, and work values.	Strongly disagree			Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree
12. The applicant and I see things in much the same way.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4 Neither agree nor disagree	5	6	7 Strongly agree
13. The applicant and I are alike in a number of areas.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4 Neither agree nor disagree	5	6	7 Strongly agree
14. This applicant reminds me of myself.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4 Neither agree nor disagree	5	6	7 Strongly agree
15. Overall, the candidate and I are similar kinds of people.	1 No at all similar	2	3	4 Neither similar nor different	5	6	7 Extremely similar
16. I like the applicant very much as a person.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4 Neither agree nor disagree	5	6	7 Strongly agree
17. I think the applicant would make a good friend.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4 Neither agree nor disagree	5	6	7 Strongly agree
18. Please rate the overall level of attractiveness of this applicant's appearance.	1 Unattractive	2	3	Neither unattractive nor attractive	4	5	Very attractive
19. How likely is it that this applicant will be a poor performer?	1 Not at all likely	2	3	Somewhat likely	4	5	Extremely likely
20. How likely is it that this applicant will be creative?	1 Not at all likely	2	3	Somewhat likely	4	5	Extremely likely

21. How likely is it that this applicant will work to implement new ideas?	1 Not at all likely	2	3 Somewhat likely	4	5 Extremely likely
22. How likely is it that this applicant will work well as part of a team or work group?	1 Not at all likely	2	3 Somewhat likely	4	5 Extremely likely
23. How likely is it that this applicant will respond to the needs of others in his/her workgroup?	1 Not at all likely	2	3 Somewhat likely	4	5 Extremely likely
24. How likely is it that the applicant will work for the overall good of the company?	1 Not at all likely	2	3 Somewhat likely	4	5 Extremely likely
25. To what extent does this applicant fit the demands of the job?	1 Not at all	2	3 To some extent	4	5 Completely
26. To what extent will other employees think this candidate is unqualified to do this job?	1 Not at all	2	3 To some extent	4	5 Completely
27. How confident are you that this applicant is qualified for this job?	1 Not at all	2	3 To some extent	4	5 Completely
28. To what degree does this applicant fit with your organization?	1 Not at all	2	3 To some extent	4	5 Completely
29. To what extent is this applicant similar to other employees of your organization?	1 Not at all	2	3 To some extent	4	5 Completely
30. To what extent will other employees think this candidate fits well in your organization?	1 Not at all	2	3 To some extent	4	5 Completely

- | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|---|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 31. How confident are you that this applicant would be compatible with your organization? | 1
Not at all | 2 | 3
To some extent | 4 | 5
Completely |
| 32. What is the likelihood that this applicant will have a successful career in your organization? | 1
Very unlikely | 2 | 3
Somewhat likely | 4 | 5
Very likely |
| 33. What is the likelihood that you would recommend the applicant for hiring by your organization? | 1
Very unlikely | 2 | 3
Somewhat likely | 4 | 5
Very likely |
| 34. Please give your overall evaluation of this candidate for this job. | 1
Very negative | 2 | 3
Neither positive nor negative | 4 | 5
Very positive |
| 35. More generally, please give your overall evaluation of this candidate for a job in your organization. | 1
Very negative | 2 | 3
Neither positive nor negative | 4 | 5
Very positive |
| 36. Please rate the applicant according to the following scale: | 1
Will not consider hiring | 2
Will Consider for hire | 3
Will Strongly consider for hire | 4
Expect to Hire | |

The next questions are related to subjects either discussed or observed during the interview. Please circle the correct answer.

37. During the interview, did you or the applicant comment about any of the following (circle all that apply):

- a. READING (*E.G.*, POETRY, NOVEL-PRIZE WINNING AUTHORS)
- b. LISTENING TO MUSIC (*E.G.*, CLASSICAL, ROCK, COUNTRY)
- c. GOING TO PERFORMANCES (*E.G.*, LIVE THEATER, BALLET)
- d. VISITING MUSEUMS (*E.G.*, NATURAL SCIENCE)
- e. WATCHING TV (*E.G.*, SITCOMS, PBS, CNN)
- f. LANGUAGE (*E.G.*, USE OF SLANG, USE OF GRAMMATICALLY CORRECT ENGLISH)
- g. MANNERS (*E.G.*, PAY ATTENTION TO MANNERS OR ETIQUETTE)
- h. SOCIAL INTERACTION (*E.G.*, INTERACTION WITH SIMILAR OR DIVERSE PEOPLE)
- i. DRESS (*E.G.*, TO DRESS IN A SOPHISTICATED WAY)
- j. WE DID NOT COMMENT ABOUT ANY OF THESE ISSUES.

38. During the interview, did you observe or think about any of the following (circle all that apply):

- a. LANGUAGE OF THE APPLICANT (*E.G.*, USE OF SLANG, USE OF GRAMMATICALLY CORRECT ENGLISH)
- b. MANNERS OF THE APPLICANT
- c. SOCIAL INTERACTION OF THE APPLICANT
- d. DRESS OF THE APPLICANT
- e. I DID NOT OBSERVE OR THOUGHT ABOUT ANY OF THESE ISSUES

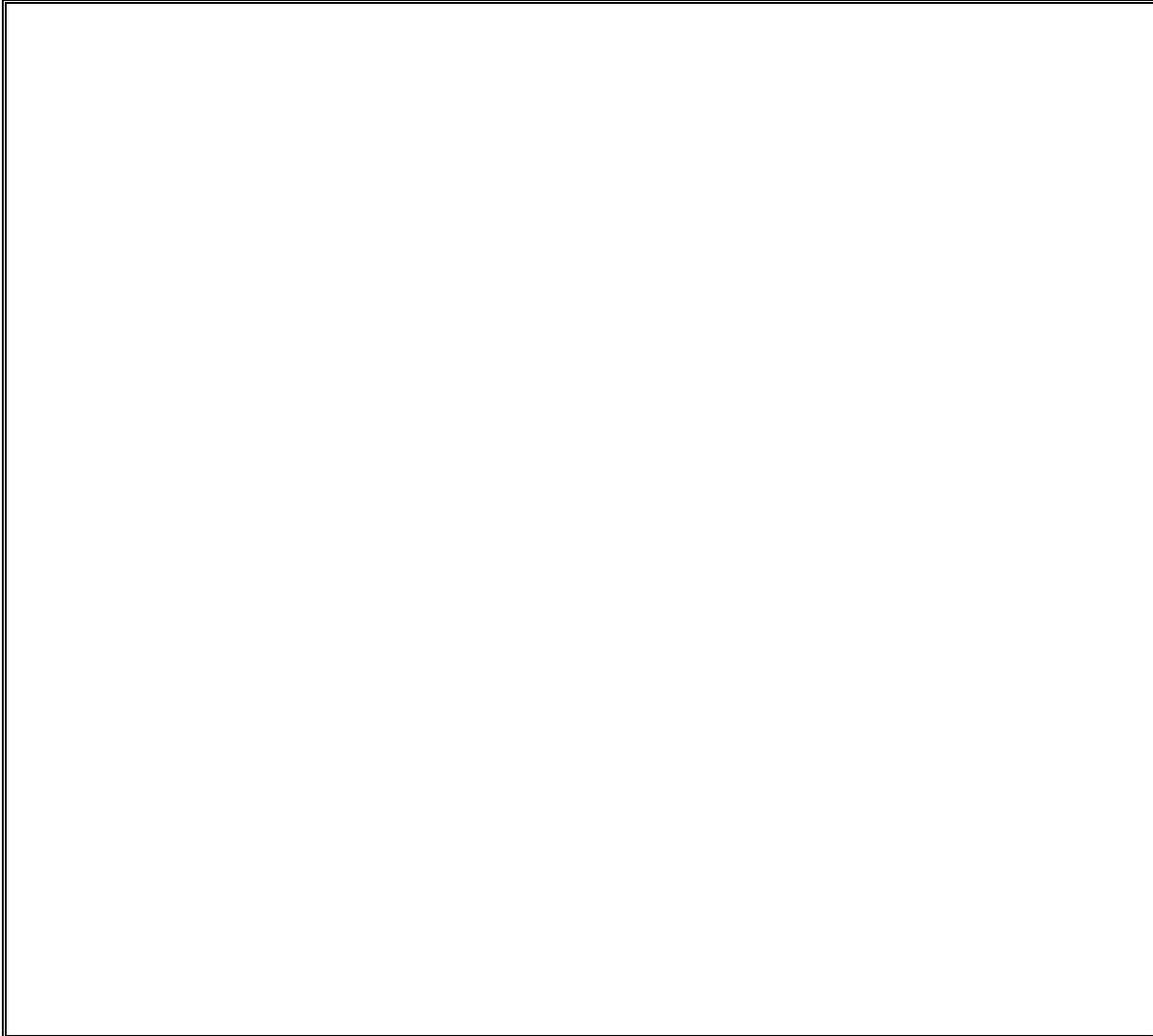
THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION
Your comments will be appreciated, either here or in a separate envelope.



Please return your completed questionnaire in the enclosed envelope to:

**Fernanda Garcia
Department of Management
433F Wehner Building
4221 TAMU
College Station, TX 77843-4221.
Phone: (979) 845-8644
E-mail: fgarcia@cgsb.tamu.edu**

Your comments will be appreciated, either here or in a separate envelope.



Please return your completed questionnaire in the enclosed envelope to:

**Fernanda Garcia
Department of Management
433F Wehner Building
4221 TAMU
College Station, TX 77843-4221.
Phone: (979) 845-8644
E-mail: fgarcia@cgsb.tamu.edu**

APPENDIX 7

SURVEY-STUDENT

Please return your completed questionnaire in the enclosed envelope to:

**Fernanda Garcia
Department of Management
433F Wehner Building
4221 TAMU
College Station, TX 77843-4221.
Phone: (979) 845-8644
E-mail: fgarcia@cgsb.tamu.edu**

1. **Date:** _____
2. **Time of the interview:** _____
3. **Duration of the interview in minutes:** _____

The first set of questions is related to demographics. Please either circle or write down the correct answer where is appropriate.

4. Sex

- a. FEMALE
- b. MALE

5. Primary Racial/Ethnic identity

- a. AFRICAN AMERICAN / BLACK
- b. ASIAN / ASIAN AMERICAN
- c. HISPANIC
- d. NATIVE AMERICAN
- e. WHITE
- f. OTHER. PLEASE SPECIFY: _____

6. Age: _____

The next questions are related to your education. Please either circle or write down the correct answer where is appropriate.

7. How many years of education do you have?

- a. LESS THAN 15 YEARS
- b. FROM 15 TO LESS THAN 17 YEARS
- c. FROM 17 TO LESS THAN 19 YEARS
- d. FROM 19 TO LESS THAN 21 YEARS
- e. FROM 21 TO 23 YEARS
- f. MORE THAN 23 YEARS. PLEASE SPECIFY: _____

8. What is your college major? _____

9. Overall undergraduate's GPA (Please estimate anyway if your are unsure): _____

10. Type of master's degree (if any)? _____

11. Overall master's GPA (Please estimate anyway if your are unsure): _____

12. Type of PhD (if any)? _____

13. Overall PhD's GPA (Please estimate anyway if your are unsure): _____

The next questions are work-related. Please circle the correct answer.

14. How many months/years of full time work experience (35 hours or more per week) do you have?

- a. NONE
- b. LESS THAN 6 MONTHS
- c. FROM 6 MONTHS TO LESS THAN 1 YEAR
- d. FROM 1 TO LESS THAN 2 YEARS
- e. FROM 2 TO LESS THAN 3 YEARS
- f. FROM 3 TO LESS THAN 6 YEARS
- g. FROM 6 TO LESS THAN 10 YEARS
- h. FROM 10 TO LESS THAN 15 YEARS
- i. FROM 15 TO 20 YEARS
- j. MORE THAN 20 YEARS. PLEASE, SPECIFY: _____

15. How many months/years of part time work experience (less than 35 hours per week) do you have?

- a. NONE
- b. LESS THAN 6 MONTHS
- c. FROM 6 MONTHS TO LESS THAN 1 YEAR
- d. FROM 1 TO LESS THAN 2 YEARS
- e. FROM 2 TO LESS THAN 3 YEARS
- f. FROM 3 TO LESS THAN 6 YEARS
- g. FROM 6 TO LESS THAN 10 YEARS
- h. FROM 10 TO LESS THAN 15 YEARS
- i. FROM 15 TO 20 YEARS
- j. MORE THAN 20 YEARS. PLEASE, SPECIFY: _____

The next questions are related to the interviewer, to yourself, and to the organization. Please either circle or write down the correct answer where is appropriate.

16. Type of job applied for?

- a. FULL-TIME
 - b. INTERNSHIP
 - c. OTHER. PLEASE SPECIFY:
-

17. What is your opinion of the job opportunities for you this season?

- a. VERY GOOD
- b. GOOD
- c. BAD
- d. VERY BAD

18. How similar is the interviewer to yourself on attitudes toward work?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all similar			Neither similar nor different			Extremely Similar

19. The interviewer and I are similar in terms of our outlook, perspective, and work values.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree

20. The interviewer and I see things in much the same way.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree

21. The interviewer and I are alike in a number of areas.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree

22. This interviewer reminds me of myself.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree

23. Overall, the interviewer and I are similar kinds of people.	1 Not at all similar	2	3	4 Neither similar nor different	5	6	7 Extremely similar
24. I like the interviewer very much as a person.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4 Neither agree nor disagree	5	6	7 Strongly agree
25. I think the interviewer would make a good friend.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4 Neither agree nor disagree	5	6	7 Strongly agree
26. How likely is it that the interviewer expects that you will be a poor performer?	1 Not at all likely	2	3 Somewhat likely	4	5 Extremely likely		
27. How likely is it that the interviewer expects that you will be creative?	1 Not at all likely	2	3 Somewhat likely	4	5 Extremely likely		
28. How likely is it that the interviewer expects that you will work to implement new ideas?	1 Not at all likely	2	3 Somewhat likely	4	5 Extremely likely		
29. How likely is it that the interviewer expects that you will work well as part of a team or work group?	1 Not at all likely	2	3 Somewhat likely	4	5 Extremely likely		
30. How likely is it that the interviewer expects that you will respond to the needs of others in his/her work/group?	1 Not at all likely	2	3 Somewhat likely	4	5 Extremely likely		
31. How likely is it that the interviewer expects that you will work for the overall good of the company?	1 Not at all likely	2	3 Somewhat likely	4	5 Extremely likely		

32. My abilities fit the demands of this job.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4	5 Strongly agree
33. I have the right skills and abilities for doing this job.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4	5 Strongly agree
34. There is a good match between the requirements of this job and my skills.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4	5 Strongly agree
35. My personality is a good match for this job.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4	5 Strongly agree
36. I am the right type of person for this type of work.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4	5 Strongly agree
37. The things that I value in life are very similar to the things this organization values.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4	5 Strongly agree
38. My personal values match this organization's culture.	1 Strongly disagree	2	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4	5 Strongly agree
39. Rate your overall attraction to this organization.	1 Not attracted	2	3 Somewhat attracted	4	5 Very attracted
40. Rate the likelihood that you would interview again with this organization, if they offered you a second interview.	1 Very unlikely	2	3 Neither likely nor unlikely	4	5 Very likely
41. Rate the likelihood that you would accept a job offer from this organization, if it were offered.	1 Very unlikely	2	3 Neither likely nor unlikely	4	5 Very likely

The statements presented below are descriptions of actions. I would like you to think about the frequency that they occurred during the last year. Please circle the correct answer.

42. I read Nobel-prize winning authors.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
43. I interact with people from very diverse social, cultural, and class backgrounds.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
44. I listen to classical music recordings or radio programs.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
45. I go to live ballet performances.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
46. I dress in a way that people think is sophisticated.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
47. I use slang.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
48. When I watch TV, I tend to watch PBS.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
49. I read Pulitzer-prize winning authors.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
50. I only interact with people that are similar to me.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
51. I go to live classical music performances.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
52. I use grammatically correct English most of the time.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure

53. I watch CNN.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
54. I pay a lot of attention to manners.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
55. I watch foreign films.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
56. I read best sellers.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
57. I watch sitcoms on TV.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
58. I read the <i>New York Times</i>.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
59. I go to live theater.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
60. People comment on the precision and extent of my vocabulary.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
61. I do <u>not</u> read anything if I am not obligated to read it.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
62. I listen to opera recordings or radio programs.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure
63. When I have free time, I visit art galleries.	1 Never	2 Almost never	3 Sometimes	4 Almost always	5 Always	10 Unsure

The next questions are related to your parents (or guardians). Please either circle or write down the correct answer where is appropriate.

64. Mother's educational attainment

- a. SOME HIGH SCHOOL OR LESS
- b. COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL
- c. ADDITIONAL PROFESSIONAL TRAINING/DEGREE BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL. PLEASE, SPECIFY _____
- d. ASSOCIATES' DEGREE
- e. SOME COLLEGE
- f. BACHELOR'S DEGREE
- g. MASTER'S DEGREE
- h. DOCTORAL LEVEL (E.G., PHD, MD, JD)

65. Father's educational attainment

- a. SOME HIGH SCHOOL OR LESS
- b. COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL
- c. ADDITIONAL PROFESSIONAL TRAINING/DEGREE BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL. PLEASE, SPECIFY _____
- d. ASSOCIATES' DEGREE
- e. SOME COLLEGE
- f. BACHELOR'S DEGREE
- g. MASTER'S DEGREE
- h. DOCTORAL LEVEL (E.G., PHD, MD, JD)

66. Please specify your father's job (if applicable): _____

67. Please specify your mother's job (if applicable): _____

The next question is about the interviewer. Please circle the correct answer.

68. Was the interviewer an aggie?

- a. YES
- b. NO
- c. UNSURE

The next questions are about you. Please either circle or write down where is appropriate.

69. Please specify your job (if applicable): _____

70. When you were growing up (up until about you were 17 years old), what group was the most representative of you?

- a. LOWER CLASS
- b. LOWER MIDDLE CLASS
- c. MIDDLE MIDDLE CLASS
- d. UPPER MIDDLE CLASS
- e. HIGHER CLASS

71. The results of this study depend on an affirmative answer to the following question. May I contact you one month from now to know whether you received an invitation for a second interview from the organization you just finished the interview?

- a. YES
- b. NO

72. (If yes) What is your name? _____

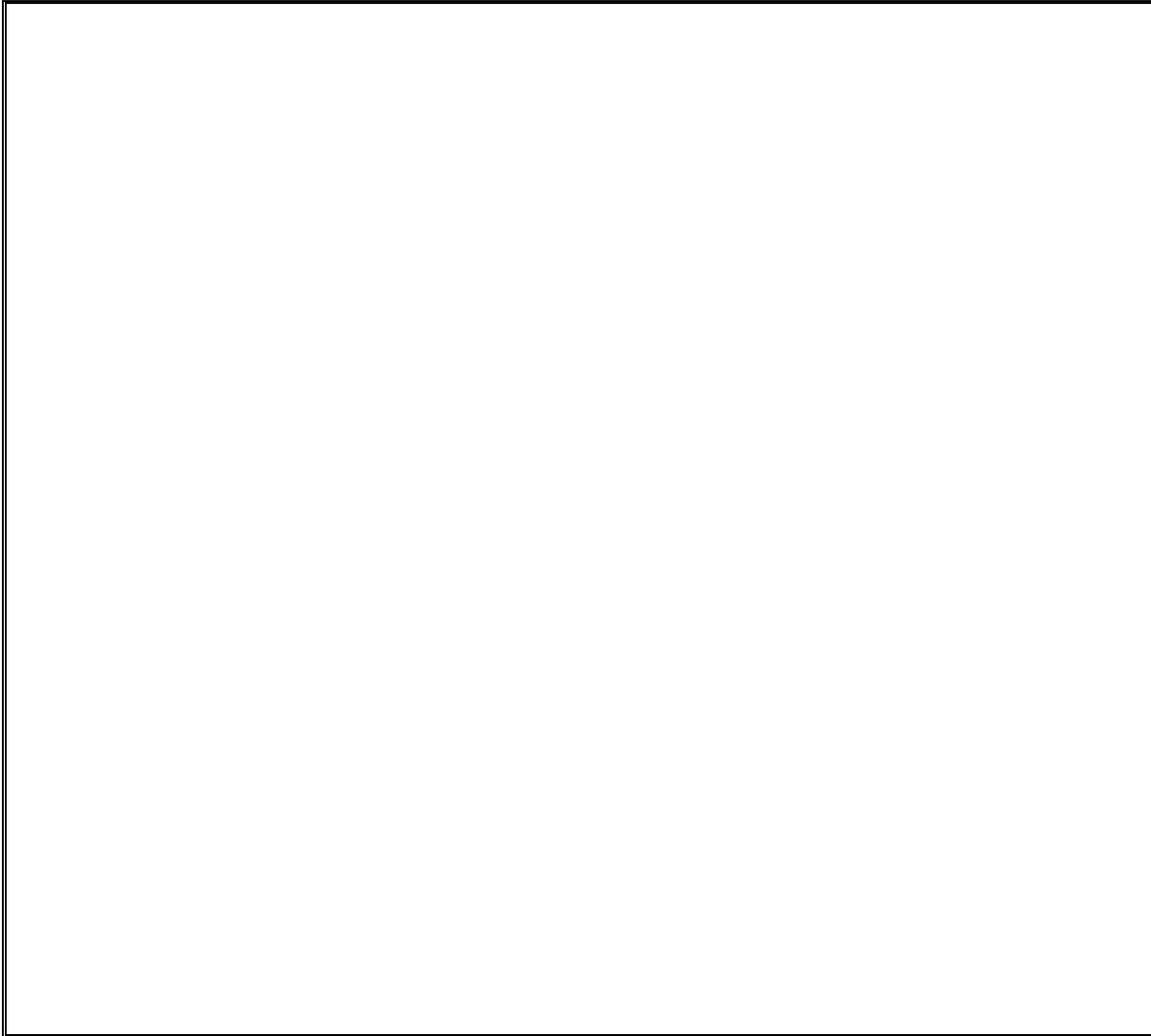
73. (If yes) How can I contact you?

- a. E-MAIL: _____
- b. PHONE: _____

In the space provided below you may write any comment regarding what you liked or you did not like of the interview you just finished:

THANK YOU

Your comments will be appreciated, either here or in a separate envelope.



Please return your completed questionnaire in the enclosed envelope to:

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EDUCATION

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RESEARCH INTERESTS

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TEACHING INTERESTS

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PUBLICATIONS

García, M.F., Paetzold, R., & Colella, A. (in press). The relationship between personality and peers' judgments of the appropriateness of accommodations for individuals with disabilities. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*.

García, M.F. Antecedent of an interviewer's fit perceptions of an applicant: The role of perceived similarity. In D.H. Nagao (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Sixty-third Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management (CD)*, ISSN 1543-8643.