RECRUITMENT: A REVIEW OF RESEARCH AND EMERGING DIRECTIONS

Brian R. Dineen and Scott M. Soltis

As the first decade of the 21st century comes to a close, companies are challenged as never before to attain the necessary human and social capital to develop, maintain, and increase their competitive advantage. Although organizations continue to wage the "war for talent," as it has popularly been phrased (e.g., Lavelle, 2003), this contest has increased both in scope and complexity, with recruiters claiming difficulty in finding good workers and acquiring talent (see Ployhart, 2006). The result is a fascinating yet multiplex environment that holds great research potential. For example, the poaching of employees has become a more public phenomenon, especially in the technology sector, as start-ups frequently court employees at established firms such as Google and Microsoft (Delaney, 2007; see also Gardner, 2005). Even more apparent is the recent boom of social networking sites designed for domestic and international job seekers such as linkedin.com and doostang.com (McConnon, 2007). Recruiters interested in poaching passive job candidates might use these sites by first developing relationships with candidates before luring them away from competitors (Cappelli, 2001; Lievens & Harris, 2003). Thus Web technology and the increased pace of recruitment activities have leveled the information playing field and have gained importance recently as intriguing research topics.

This chapter is devoted to reviewing the research that might inform this challenging landscape and also proposes new areas of research spawned by new developments and related anecdotal reports (e.g., Billsberry, 2007). Specifically, our goals are to (a) present a detailed model of the recruitment process; (b) provide a selective review of recent research pertaining to the context, strategies, and processes associated with the stages depicted; and (c) suggest several future avenues for recruitment research. We view recruitment as a process (Rynes, 1991; Rynes & Cable, 2003) and thus define it as the actions organizations take to generate applicant pools, maintain viable applicants, and encourage desired candidates to join those organizations.

This chapter is intended to complement reviews of the recruitment literature, both previous (Barber, 1998; Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005; Rynes & Cable, 2003) and recent (Breaugh, 2008; Breaugh, Macan, & Grambow, 2008). A general theme of these reviews has been to recommend a more comprehensive examination of recruitment. Specifically, Barber (1998) and Rynes and Cable (2003) called for more integration of the context in which recruitment occurs. Breaugh et al. downplayed contextual issues and suggested exploring recruitment stages integratively, while also calling for more nuanced approaches to the study of certain topics. Viewing these excellent reviews as a foundation, we add our unique insights, cover additional studies, and call attention to new or expanded research areas. We focus mainly on research that has occurred since Rynes and Cable's review and present their conclusions in Exhibit 2.1 as a means of placing our review in the context of previous research findings. As will become evident, these previous findings are organized thematically in

---

Exhibit 2.1
Summary of Findings Reported by Rynes and Cable (2003)

Environmental and Contextual Considerations
Firm
- Location, size, and organizational image are important factors in job seekers' application decisions.
- Organizational reputation or image is highly correlated with organizational familiarity and moderately correlated with profitability and industry.
- The most likely routes to improving organizational image are to improve familiarity and to increase the amount of information available to applicants.
- Organizational image appears to be important to applicant decisions both because it sends signals about more specific job attributes and because it influences expected pride from membership (i.e., social identity).
- Other organizational-level characteristics, particularly size and industry, are used to make inferences about more specific vacancy characteristics.
- Some of the main determinants of perceived person–organization fit are the same as factors influencing perceived organizational image.
- Applicants' preinterview beliefs about organizations affect their interview performance and impressions. Applicants with positive preinterview exhibit more positive impression management behaviors, ask more positive confirmatory questions, and perceive recruiter behaviors more positively.
- In general, affirmative action policies are perceived positively by those who might benefit from them and negatively by white males.
- Negative reactions to affirmative action can be minimized by placing a strong emphasis on merit (e.g., affirmative action as tiebreaker policies) and explaining the reasons behind the policy.
- Although there are some organizational characteristics that are widely favored by most job seekers (e.g., fairness, high pay), the strength—and sometimes direction—of preferences varies according to individual differences in values, personality, or beliefs.

Vacancy
- Pay and benefits are of at least moderate importance in job choice. However, importance varies across individuals and market characteristics.
- In general, college students prefer high pay levels, pay raises based on individual rather than team performance, fixed rather than variable pay, and flexible rather than fixed benefits.
- Job challenge and interesting work appear to be particularly important to students who have exhibited high academic and social achievement.
- High pay levels, strong promotion opportunities, and performance-based pay are relatively more important to students with high levels of social achievement (e.g., extracurricular activity, offices).
- High academic achievers (i.e., those with high GPA and test scores) are more attracted by commitment-based employment philosophies than are high social achievers.
- Organizations appear to modify vacancy characteristics in reactive rather than strategic fashion, thus limiting potential recruitment effectiveness.

Labor Market
- High-quality applicants (i.e., as assessed by grades and number of job offers) generally appear to be more critical of recruiting practices (e.g., recruiters, recruiting delays). However, those with greater work experience may be slightly more forgiving.

Generating Viable Candidates
Targeting Strategies
- White males still have better access than other groups to informal sources of referral.
- Social referrals are still unequal by race and gender, and they have effects on employment outcomes.
- Job seekers' social networks explain variance in job choices over and above general preferences and specific academic preparation.

Messaging Strategies
- Results regarding recruitment source effects are inconsistent across studies. Even the strongest conclusion from research conducted before 1991—that informal sources are superior to formal ones in terms of posthire outcomes—appears to be open to question.
- Sources differ in terms of the types of applicants they produce and the amount of information they appear to provide. However, the precise nature of these differences varies across studies.

Exhibit 2.1 (*Continued*)

- Individuals often use more than one source in locating and applying for jobs. The typical practice of coding only one source is problematic and can have a substantial effect on study results.
- The same source (e.g., the Internet) can be used in different ways by different employers. Thus, the types of applicants attracted and the amount of information associated with the same source can also vary dramatically across employers.
- Realistic job previews (RJPs) are associated with consistent, but small, increases in employee retention.
- RJPs do not appear to cause greater applicant self-selection out of the applicant process. The issue of whether different types of employees self-select as a result of RJPs remains unexamined.
- Applicants appear to go through two phases of job search, as follows: (a) a broad, exploratory phase in which general information is sought mostly through formal sources and (b) a more focused stage in which informal sources are increasingly used to gain detailed information about a small subset of identified alternatives.

Maintaining Status of Viable Applicants
Screening Considerations
- Applicant reactions to selection procedures can be explained largely in terms of perceived fairness or justice.
- In general, applicants appear to accept the use of cognitive ability tests in selection.
- Although there are sometimes differences in perceived test fairness across demographic groups, there is little evidence that the use of testing causes job seekers to drop out of applicant pools.
- In campus recruiting contexts, delays between recruitment phases can cause significant dropout from applicant pools. Dropout will probably be most severe among applicants with the most opportunities.
- In other types of labor markets, dropout due to delays may be heaviest among those who need immediate employment.

Interactions With Organizational Agents
- Recruiters can make a difference to applicants' job choices, particularly at the extremes of recruiter effectiveness. However, recruiter effects are typically overshadowed by job and organizational attributes.
- Line recruiters and representatives met on site visits are more influential (in either direction) than staff recruiters and representatives met on campus.
- Applicants regard trained recruiters as somewhat more effective than untrained ones, although the effects on job choices are probably not large.
- Trained recruiters are more likely to follow a standardized protocol in interviews and to ask more screening-related questions. Thus, they are probably likely to produce more valid selection decisions.
- Although applicants like recruiters who spend more time recruiting than selecting, attraction to the job itself may suffer if recruitment is overemphasized relative to selection.
- Recruiter characteristics are often used to make inferences about organizational and job characteristics and likelihood of receiving an offer.
- Recruiters and other organizational representatives are often mentioned as sources of applicant beliefs about person–organization fit.
- Recruiter behaviors (particularly warmth) have a clear effect on applicant interview performance. Applicant behaviors have much less effect on recruiter behaviors, suggesting that recruiters have much more control over interview processes and outcomes than do applicants.

Note. From *Handbook of Psychology: Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (Vol. 12, p. 69), by W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, and R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), 2003, Hoboken, NJ: Wiley. Copyright 2003 by Wiley. Adapted with permission.

Exhibit 2.1 according to the recruitment process framework we introduce next.

FRAMEWORK OF THE RECRUITMENT PROCESS

Keeping previous conclusions in mind, we present the framework shown in Figure 2.1 as a guide to the current review. Figure 2.1 integrates Barber's (1998) and Breaugh et al.'s (2008) sequential stage models and also integrates Rynes and Cable's (2003) more explicit consideration of environmental and contextual issues as well as key process issues. Specifically, Figure 2.1 illustrates three primary recruitment stages: generating viable candidates, maintaining the status of viable candidates, and achieving closure in terms of encouraging desired candidates to accept job offers and join the organization. Two key decision points demarcate
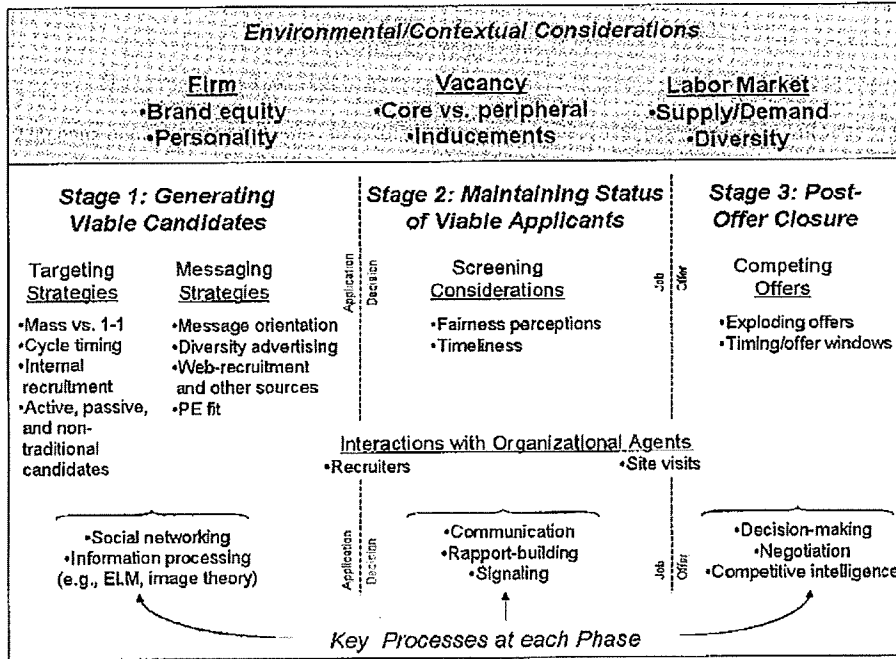
FIGURE 2.1.   Framework of the recruitment process. PE = person–environment;
ELM = elaboration likelihood model.

these three stages: the job seeker's decision to formally enter the selection process (i.e., application decision) and the organization's decision to formally invite the applicant to join the company (i.e., job offer).

Specifically, Figure 2.1 shows that before job seekers decide to apply, organizations work to generate viable job candidates (Stage 1). Figure 2.1 suggests various targeting strategies related to timing and types of candidates to target, as well as messaging strategies such as diversity advertising and use of various recruitment sources such as the Web. Exhibit 2.1 shows research that had occurred within this stage as of the Rynes and Cable (2003) review, including limited work on targeting and messaging strategies that yielded little in the way of consistent results.

Once job seekers actually apply, organizations must then focus on maintaining the status of the most viable applicants (Stage 2). At this stage, timeliness and perceived fairness of the selection process become important considerations, as do interactions with organizational agents such as recruiters (which can also occur before the job seeker applies, as indicated in Figure 2.1) and site visits (which can also occur after the job offer). Here, previous research

(Exhibit 2.1) indicates notable progress in assessing recruiter effects and somewhat limited progress in terms of the recruitment effects related to applicant screening processes.

After organizations formally offer positions, they must persuade candidates to join the organization (Stage 3). For example, timing issues again become important in terms of windows of opportunity for persuading job seekers who have competing offers. Virtually no work had occurred within this stage at the time of Rynes and Cable's (2003) review, as reflected in Exhibit 2.1.

The bottom of Figure 2.1 also portrays key process variables that are particularly relevant at each stage. For example, at Stage 1, recruiters' social networking might help identify viable candidates to target, and job seekers' information processing determines how well various messaging strategies might work. At Stage 2, communication and signaling become more important as job seekers learn more details about the position. At Stage 3, processes such as job choice decision making and negotiation are likely to be key.

Finally, overlaid across the entire recruitment process are environmental and contextual consider-

ations, as illustrated at the top of Figure 2.1. Specifically, we view certain firm-level characteristics as well as vacancy and labor market characteristics as potentially influencing core considerations at any of the three stages. For example, the labor market, firm brand equity, or the nature of the vacancy (e.g., whether an organization considers it to be core or peripheral to their mission) may drive the use of targeting or messaging strategies or exploding offers (i.e., job offers that are rescinded if not accepted within a predetermined time period). A fair amount of work had occurred in the area of environmental and contextual characteristics at the time of Rynes and Cable's (2003) review (Exhibit 2.1), especially in terms of firm and specific vacancy characteristics. However, these scholars indicated the need for continued work along these lines.

We recognize that not all of the categories in Figure 2.1 have necessarily received sufficient research attention either prior to or during the time covered in our review to draw definitive conclusions. In those cases we discuss the issue (e.g., recruiting older candidates) and discuss directions in which we would like to see the research move. In other areas that have received more attention (e.g., firm reputation, recruiter interactions), we selectively review pertinent findings to update the literature. We begin by reviewing the literature pertaining to key environmental and contextual considerations that potentially affect all three recruitment stages.

ENVIRONMENTAL AND CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATIONS

Nearly 20 years ago, Rynes and Barber (1990) called for more focus on contingencies in the recruitment process, but progress has only recently been evident. As Figure 2.1 shows, we posit that recruitment activities are contingent on characteristics of the recruiting firm, the specific vacancy, and the prevailing labor market. Each potentially plays an important role throughout the stages of recruitment, and we discuss them in turn.

Firm Characteristics
Following earlier work attempting to link the recruitment and marketing literatures (Maurer, Howe, &

Lee, 1992), studies in recent years have increasingly examined firm characteristics in the context of recruitment. Specifically, characteristics receiving attention have been brand image (Collins & Stevens, 2002), organizational image (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005), reputation (Turban & Cable, 2003), firm personality (Slaughter, Zickar, Highhouse, & Mohr, 2004), and firm knowledge (Cable & Turban, 2001). Although earlier work reflected in Exhibit 2.1 also examined some of these characteristics, researchers have begun to take a more nuanced perspective on these topics by integrating marketing concepts to a greater degree.

For example, Turban and Cable (2003), after controlling for industry, number of recruiters available to interview, and interview date, found links between firm reputation and applicant pool outcomes including increased numbers of applicants generated ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, a 5% increase above control variables) and higher-quality applicants and interviewees produced (in terms of grade point average; $\Delta R^2 = .03$, a 14% increase for applicants; and $\Delta R^2 = .06$, a 30% increase for interviewees). Cable and Turban (2003) found that job seekers recalled significantly more information about familiar firms ($\beta = .20$). They also found that applicants' perceptions that a company had a favorable reputation increased the pride they anticipated from joining the organization ($\beta = .28$), which translated into lower salary requirements to work for higher-reputation firms ($\beta = -.19$). Collins and Stevens (2002) found applicant pool size and quality to be influenced by brand equity generated through sponsorships, word-of-mouth, publicity, and general recruitment advertising (and combinations thereof). Collins and Han (2004) found that all but sponsorship influenced brand image via general attitudes toward a company or perceived job attributes. More specifically, Collins and Han focused on differences in effects of low-involvement recruitment strategies (i.e., requiring little or no search and processing effort; e.g., visual stimuli, sponsorships of sporting events) versus high-involvement strategies (i.e., greater cognitive processing effort; e.g., detailed description of job-organization characteristics). They found that low-involvement strategies are beneficial primarily in terms of applicant pool size and quality when a firm

has not already invested in corporate advertising or does not already have a good reputation. Conversely, a firm that uses high-involvement practices must have already established awareness in the minds of job seekers, either through a priori advertising or reputation-building efforts (Δ adjusted R^2 interaction effects ranged from .09 to .13 for advertising and reputation, representing increases of between 24% and 37% over main effects and industry and company size control variables).

Complementing these studies and once again moving beyond previous findings in Exhibit 2.1, Collins (2007) found that product awareness moderates the influence of high- or low-involvement recruitment practices, such that low-involvement practices enhance application intentions and actual application decisions but are more effective when product awareness is low. When product awareness is high, high-involvement practices are more effective in influencing these outcomes (ΔR^2 for the block of interactions = .22 for application intentions, representing a 76% increase over main effects and control variables; Δ Cox and Snell R^2 = .12 for application decisions, representing a 55% increase).

Vacancy Characteristics

The nature of the vacancy itself also continues to be an important contextual factor (Rynes & Barber, 1990). Chapman et al. (2005) provided meta-analytic evidence that job-organizational factors were among the stronger predictors of recruitment outcomes, including particularly strong effects of type of work on pursuit intentions ($\rho = .53$). They also noted that pay ($\rho = .15$) and the combination of compensation and advancement ($\rho = .14$) predict pursuit intentions to a much lesser degree than many other vacancy characteristics. However, earlier work (Williams & Dreher, 1992) suggested that although pay does not influence the number of applicants, it could influence job acceptance rates. This importance is underscored by the increased effect pay has on acceptance intentions ($\rho = .28$; Chapman et al., 2005).

Studies also have begun to consider the role of specific non-pay inducements such as work–life benefits, flexible work, and career paths on job pursuit intentions and perceptions of the organization.

Casper and Buffardi (2004) examined work–life benefits and flexible work schedules using a wide sample of job seekers and new hires recently starting a job. The authors found that flexible work schedules and dependent care assistance influenced both job pursuit intentions ($\beta = .27$, $\beta = .21$) and perceived organizational support ($\beta = .28$, $\beta = .43$). Carless and Wintle (2007) found that flexible ($M = 4.07$) or dual career paths ($M = 3.69$) were significantly more attractive than traditional career paths ($M = 2.83$, all on a 5-point scale). Rau and Hyland (2002) drew on boundary theory (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000) and found that individuals with higher role conflict found flexible work schedules relatively more attractive, likely because they reduce the cost of role transitions and thus ease role conflict. However, those with lower role conflict found telecommuting relatively more attractive, likely because it increases boundary flexibility and reduces transition costs across role boundaries, whereas those experiencing greater role conflict found such blurring of roles to be unattractive. These findings challenge the assumption that job seekers universally desire telecommuting and flexible work arrangements.

Several studies span the firm and vacancy contextual categories identified in Figure 2.1. Lievens and Highhouse (2003) and Slaughter et al. (2004) compared traditional *instrumental* factors related to the vacancy (e.g., pay, benefits) with *symbolic* characteristics (e.g., "personality") of firms. In studies of students and bank employees, Lievens and Highhouse found that organization trait inferences predicted attraction above job-organizational factors ($\Delta R^2 = .09$, a 22% increase, and $\Delta R^2 = .18$, a 53% increase, in these respective samples). They also found more differentiation among organizations based on trait inferences (i.e., vs. job-organizational attributes), suggesting room for competitive advantage based on symbolic factors such as brand image. Slaughter et al. validated a five-dimensional measure of organizational personality (e.g., style, thrift, boy scout, dominance, innovativeness), finding all but the dominance factor to relate to attraction ($R^2 = .32$ with thrift negatively related) when modeled simultaneously.

That organizations are better able to distinguish themselves in terms of symbolic factors compared

with more instrumental vacancy-based factors makes sense considering the increased transparency of instrumental factors such as pay via sources such as the Web (e.g., http://www.salary.com). Indeed, researchers have suggested that the Web levels the playing field for job seekers and lowers costs of searching for comparative information about instrumental vacancy characteristics (Lievens & Harris, 2003; Rynes & Cable, 2003). In general, the tension between symbolic and instrumental factors highlights that recruitment research should incorporate multiple predictors as a way of gaining a more realistic picture of the overall process.

In terms of specifically examining the impact of symbolic factors, considerable work remains. For example, much research has focused on comparing firms that have positive images with firms that have no discernable images but has failed to account for temporal effects related to image. Thus, research is needed that examines the short- and long-term effects of a negative image or reputation or the mechanisms that might explain changes in image or reputation perceptions over time. As an exception, Brooks, Highhouse, Russell, and Mohr (2003) showed that familiar companies engender more polarized reactions (in either positive or negative directions) than do unfamiliar companies, thus calling into question the overall relationship between familiarity and reputation or attraction past work has suggested (Barber, 1998).

A pragmatic reason for researchers to focus on firms with low images or reputations is that such firms have greater need for prescriptive recruitment advice, whereas high-reputation firms often enjoy a steady stream of candidates, making selection rather than recruitment key to overall staffing utility. In general, research is needed regarding how to affect or leverage a firm's reputation or image. For example, the research presented earlier might have implications for small firms' recruitment strategies (Williamson, Cable, & Aldrich, 2002). A useful starting point might be Cable and Turban's (2001) flow diagram for leveraging various levels of image, familiarity, and reputation. The diagram prescribes actions (e.g., maintain low profile, modify or correct employer image using experiential information sources) based on firm familiarity, reputation, and accuracy of understanding of employer image.

Overall, progress is evident over the past few years in examining vacancy characteristics and characteristics that span firm and vacancy categories, compared with the prior piecemeal conclusions shown in Exhibit 2.1. The Chapman et al. (2005) meta-analysis provided a much-needed synthesis of prior findings in these areas, and the recent consideration of flexible work and holistic examinations of symbolic and instrumental characteristics are encouraging yet still leave open the need for continued research attention.

Labor Market Characteristics

Consistent with Rynes and Barber (1990), we believe the literature would benefit if researchers more extensively embraced labor market characteristics as a key contextual aspect of recruitment (Billsberry, 2007) that is likely to affect relationships across stages. Cappelli (2005) concluded that businesses cannot know whether a labor shortage is likely someday, but they certainly cannot expect a labor surplus in the foreseeable future. However, this prediction, combined with recent unemployment levels and fluctuations in the global job market, implies the need to reconsider and better customize general recruitment strategies to match labor's current supply and demand. For example, levels of internal demand and external supply of candidates might dramatically alter recruitment strategies; job seekers who perceive that they have more or fewer choices are likely to react differently to recruitment stimuli. Also, the nature of the labor market has shifted toward what has been termed a *free agent* market (Rynes & Cable, 2003). This raises the interesting question of just how much effort people put into their job search when they expect that their tenure may be short. Finally, labor supply diversity has the potential to dramatically alter recruitment strategies and approaches in the United States (e.g., an aging workforce, more Hispanic workers). As was the case at the time of Rynes and Cable's review (Exhibit 2.1), there continues to be gaps in our understanding in this area.

Keeping these critical firm, vacancy, and labor market contextual factors in mind, we turn to a discussion of the three primary recruitment stages. We present key processes and outcomes that we believe

are most relevant to each stage while acknowledging that these processes and outcomes are not necessarily exhaustive or bound solely to a particular stage.

GENERATING VIABLE CANDIDATES

The generation of viable job candidates (Stage 1 in Figure 2.1) greatly determines the potential utility of the remainder of the staffing process (Barber, 1998). As will be seen as the remainder of our review unfolds, this stage of the recruitment process has received the greatest research attention. In accordance with Figure 2.1, we explore general targeting strategies (i.e., whom and when to target) and the messages embedded in recruitment (i.e., where and how to target). Key processes within this stage include social networking between recruiters and potential applicants and the type of information processing in which job seekers engage. Important outcomes at this stage should include high-quality and/or diverse applicant pools (Carlson, Connerley, & Mecham, 2002), along with building relationships with potential candidates. Thus, the ratio of viable candidates to total applicants is critical, as are other yield ratios (e.g., number of candidates ultimately hired to number of applicants).

However, much previous and current research has focused on attraction as the key mechanism for generating an applicant pool. For example, Chapman et al. (2005) identified six antecedent categories that have been related to attraction in varying degrees (job and organizational attributes, $\rho = .39$; recruiter characteristics, $\rho = .29$; perceptions of the recruitment process, $\rho = .42$; perceived fit, $\rho = .45$; perceived alternatives, $\rho = .16$; and hiring expectancies, $\rho = .33$). Although this key outcome has not changed dramatically, research into what makes an organization attractive has begun to reflect contemporary trends by examining antecedents such as organizational ecological reputation (Aiman-Smith, Bauer, & Cable, 2001) and work–life benefits (Carless & Wintle, 2007). As discussed earlier, Carless and Wintle found a significant link between various work–life benefits and organizational attraction. Aiman-Smith et al. found that ecological rating more strongly affected attractiveness ($\beta = .34$) than did pay ($\beta = .28$), promotion opportunity ($\beta = .23$), or layoff policy ($\beta = .29$).

An outcome closely aligned yet distinct from attraction, job pursuit intentions captures the extent to which an individual will actively strive to join the organization. For the job seeker, attraction is more passive, but pursuit intentions indicate a more active mind-set with regard to vying for a position. Job seekers might be attracted to a company but may perceive that they are underqualified for the advertised position and decide not to pursue it. The Chapman et al. (2005) meta-analysis also suggested that most of the antecedents of attraction have received various levels of research attention and are also important for affecting job pursuit intentions (job and organizational attributes, $\rho = .38$; recruiter characteristics, $\rho = .36$; perceptions of the recruitment process, $\rho = .27$; perceived fit, $\rho = .55$; and hiring expectancies, $\rho = .33$). The previously cited studies of ecological reputation (Aiman-Smith et al., 2001) and work–life benefits (Casper & Buffardi, 2004) found significant (though generally weaker) effects on pursuit intentions in addition to attraction. In terms of the importance of diversity in organizations, Brown, Cober, Keeping, and Levy (2006) found that participants who were high in racial tolerance were more likely to pursue employment at organizations that emphasize diversity values ($\Delta R^2 = .08$, or a 40% increase over racial tolerance and diversity values condition main effects).

Targeting Strategies

After organizations identify their desired outcomes but before they craft recruitment communications or choose a medium to disseminate messages, they must identify target audiences they wish to recruit. The potential is great for interplay between contextual considerations and targeting strategies identified in Figure 2.1. For example, whether the company considers the vacancy to be a core or peripheral position may drive their targeting or messaging strategies. Also, the number of vacancies for a given position relative to forecasted labor supply might affect the relative importance of applicant pool quality versus quantity outcomes, which in turn may influence strategies. Despite prior work in this area, research is lacking on many fronts.

Broader targeting decisions. Previous work has focused on the targeting of various demographic

groups. For example, Rynes, Orlitzky, and Bretz (1997) found that experienced hires were evaluated more highly than new graduates on several skill-based characteristics, although new graduates were rated more highly on open-mindedness and willingness to learn. Use of experienced hires was also related to organizational growth but less dynamic business environments. However, companies also make broader decisions about their overall targeting strategies. Efforts might consist of person-to-person (i.e., one-to-one) communication, whereby a recruiter initiates contact with specifically qualified people, or an employee refers friends or acquaintances. Relational approaches might include maintaining contact with groups of former employees. The *boomerang effect,* typical of companies such as P&G (e.g., Horovitz, 2003), describes the recruitment of former employees. A more traditional approach is to recruit en masse by disseminating messages with broad appeal that do not target any single individual.

Companies with exemplary reputations may choose not to recruit but rather to allow candidates to proactively approach them. Social identity theory suggests that organizational membership partly shapes self-concept (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Thus, to enhance self-esteem and personal prominence, job seekers are likely to be attracted to firms that enjoy favorable reputations. Such firms may expect larger applicant pools (Turban & Cable, 2003).

Scholars have recently raised the related issue of the firm as celebrity. It takes longer for a firm to build contextual factors such as reputation, brand image, or product awareness, but certain system shocks might bring windfalls to organizations in terms of recruitment. Rindova, Pollock, and Hayward (2006) described this as the *celebrity effect,* manifested when the mass media dramatizes an event related to a firm, and suddenly the general public views that firm as more attractive, regardless of actual performance metrics or longer-term proof of quality. For example, the *Flutie effect* is the "phenomenon of having a successful college sports team increase the exposure and prominence of a university" ("Flutie Effect," 2008) and refers to Boston College's 16% spike in applications for undergraduate admissions the year after the school's quarterback, Doug Flutie, beat an archrival opponent with a miraculous touch-

down pass in the final seconds of a key football game. Although the duration of such an effect is unknown, the finding is generally consistent with Rindova, Williamson, Petkova, and Sever's (2005) finding that the prominence dimension of reputation, and not the perceived product quality dimension, predicted price premiums organizations enjoyed. From a recruitment perspective, firms might try to capitalize on this phenomenon by strategically using the mass media to publicize their programs or accomplishments. Of course, as with firm reputation, a negative system shock might work against a firm. Also, the long-term sustainability of this approach is open to investigation.

Timing issues. Another key targeting decision identified in Figure 2.1 involves when an organization should engage in recruitment activities (Rynes & Cable, 2003). For example, some job seekers (e.g., college graduates) and some jobs (e.g., holiday retail) operate in distinct cycles. When companies consider these cycles, questions arise: When in our particular recruitment cycle should we move? Can we be too early? Should we try to preempt the market? For example, the authors' university basketball program recently made the national news when its former head coach offered a scholarship to an eighth grader. Soelberg's (1967) implicit favorite model suggests possible benefits to firms that enter the recruitment market early. However, given that the practice is salient, unfortunately little research has been done in cycle timing since Rynes (1991) addressed it in her review.

Internal recruitment. Also largely falling outside the realm of prior research and prior recruitment reviews (e.g., Breaugh et al., 2008; Taylor & Collins, 2000) is *internal recruitment.* We view this as a vital missing link (see also Billsberry, 2007). First, global staffing and expatriate assignments are receiving more attention, given the globalization of business in general. Gong (2003b) presented a model of the mix of parent-country nationals, host-country nationals, and third-country nationals optimal for global staffing purposes. This model informs the recruitment strategy of parent companies when trying to fill positions in foreign subsidiaries. Gong (2003a) found that when cultural distance is greater

and companies use parent-company expatriates for staffing top management jobs, they increase their subsidiary labor productivity.

Second, internal recruitment processes potentially produce turf wars over valued human capital. For example, Ling and Dineen (2005) used agency and stewardship theories to suggest that managers may either hinder or encourage efforts of valued employees to transfer internally. Specifically, agency theory predicts that managers will act in self-interest and tend to hinder transfers of valued employees. Stewardship theory predicts that managers will maximize firm and employee interests by encouraging deserving employees to transfer internally, even if such transfers will be detrimental to the manager. The authors suggested that success of these efforts depends on managers' levels of social capital within the firm. Discovering ways to hinder managers' hoarding behavior and encourage career building of valued employees (e.g., through incentives or other governance mechanisms) therefore seems important if companies are to use internal recruitment (see also SHRM, 2008). Somaya, Williamson, and Lorinkova (2008) recently offered a related and intriguing perspective: "letting go" of valued human capital, although seemingly detrimental, may actually be beneficial from the standpoint of creating social network ties to new areas of the business where transferees move (or in Somaya et al.'s case, to competitors). Finally, Ostroff and Clark (2001) found that various antecedent demographics (e.g., education, gender, children under the age of 15), job-related variables (e.g., information, attitudes, future employment), and community- and family-related variables predicted various internal mobility opportunities (e.g., lateral promotions, with or without relocation). Among the myriad of results this study offered was that lateral moves involving a career change were less appealing to those with smaller children, ostensibly because moving involved a greater potential disruption in family dynamics. Conversely, only moving concerns were related to willingness to accept promotions without corresponding career changes.

Recruiting passive job candidates. One of the more interesting issues covered over the last few years

has been the recruiting of *passive* job candidates—employed individuals not actively searching for jobs but willing to consider outside opportunities. Termed *poaching* or *talent raiding*, this targeting strategy has become increasingly prevalent (Cappelli, 1999). For example, Rao and Drazin (2002) found that young or poorly connected mutual fund firms were more likely to recruit from competitors to increase innovation. In general, newer or less connected firms use poaching to gain entry into product markets when resources are more highly constrained. Poaching also allows newer firms to integrate more quickly to industry norms and avoid the mistakes that experienced employees of older firms have already learned. By contrast, well-connected firms do not appear to gain as much from poaching, possibly because they gain only redundant talent exposure and may even be constrained by their level of connectedness.

Of course, an unresolved issue is the threshold at which a valued employee will submit to poaching overtures and move to a lesser-connected, newer firm, and thus higher-risk career position. Related to this question is where firms should go to try to recruit passive job seekers. Dunford, Boudreau, and Boswell (2005) found that executives were more apt to search for jobs when their stock options had a market value below their exercise price ($\beta = .13$), a situation called *underwater*. Dunford, Oler, and Boudreau (2008) found that executives—especially CEOs—were more likely to turn over when faced with underwater options. This suggests a potential strategy of targeting employees of poorly performing firms; thus, the labor market generally seems to have direct implications for poaching strategies. The extensive job search literature also might offer recruiters insight into who might be more likely to be searching for new jobs (e.g., Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001).

Yet another factor associated with poaching is the competitive responses that poached firms might use. Gardner (2005) examined this issue among software industry competitors. He posited that poached firms may ignore the poaching or they may respond defensively (e.g., raising their inducement levels, requiring remaining employees to sign non-compete agreements) or retaliatorily/defensively (e.g., poaching talent from the firm that initiated the

poaching, severing business relationships). As the value of poached human capital increases, retaliatory/defensive responses become more likely in comparison with purely defensive responses, and this effect is further enhanced as transferability of human capital increases. In general, these results suggest that firms losing human capital through poaching will retaliate if they see that the poaching is damaging their interests or heightening the competitiveness of the poaching firm. Finally, poaching may be a network-driven phenomenon. Williamson and Cable (2003), for example, found that firms were more likely to hire top management team members from organizations with which they had board of director interlocks ($\beta = .59$, $SE = .23$).

Targeting nontraditional candidates. Rynes and Barber (1990) claimed that firms should increase their focus on nontraditional applicants to redress projected labor shortages. Very little work has considered the recruitment strategies that might be optimal for older workers, although it has been well documented that the working population is aging and a large percentage of older workers expect to continue working past retirement age (cf. Adams & Rau, 2004). Indeed, with some sources claiming considerable differences in work preferences of "Generation Y" versus baby-boomer generation workers (Armour, 2005) and some suggesting far fewer differences (e.g., Deal, 2007), rigorous research is needed in this area.

Some work has begun to address predictors of bridge employment among older workers (i.e., employment between retirement from a full-time position and full retirement; e.g., Adams & Rau, 2004; Davis, 2003), and this may be a fruitful area in which to begin. Davis identified several key factors that lead retirees to participate in bridge employment (e.g., career pull opportunities, entrepreneurial orientations) or to avoid such employment (e.g., age, organizational tenure, clear retirement plans). Adams and Rau also found traditional constraints (e.g., inadequate transportation, poor health) to relate negatively to job seeking (incident rate ratio = .77, where the incident rate ratio refers to an increase [if the value is greater than one] or decrease [if less than one] in the rate of job seeking activity expected

with a one-unit change in a predictor). Surprisingly, older-worker constraints (e.g., perceived stereotypes against older workers) related positively to older-worker job search behavior (incident rate ratio = 1.41), although the authors surmised that older-worker constraint perceptions could be heightened because of job search experiences or experiences with rejection. To the extent that recruitment efforts can alleviate concerns over these constraints (e.g., Walmart's image as an age-friendly workplace), companies may gain an advantage in attracting older workers.

To recruit older workers, firms might also look to factors that engage older employees. Avery, McKay, and Wilson (2007) found that older workers are more engaged when they are satisfied with both younger and older coworkers ($\Delta R^2 = .07$, or a 39% increase over several other demographic controls). Thus, communications aimed at recruiting older workers might highlight how well potential older workers will likely fit with coworkers (i.e., person–group fit) rather than focusing solely on how well their abilities will fit the job demands or how their values will match the organization's values. Rau and Adams (2005) also discovered that targeted equal employment opportunity statements, in combination with the opportunity to transfer knowledge through mentoring and flexible schedules, had more influence than any of these policies alone (partial $\eta^2 = .04$). Beyond targeting older workers, other nontraditional applicant populations deserve research attention, and we review work related to diversity advertising in the following section.

Thus, targeting strategy research progress has been less in terms of building on prior findings (which, as shown in Exhibit 2.1, were already limited) but more in terms of beginning to explore newer critical areas such as internal recruitment, poaching, and the recruitment of older workers. Although encouraging, researching a greater breadth of targeting strategies will need to be matched by attempts to provide richer, more in-depth investigations in these areas.

Messaging Strategies

Figure 2.1 indicates that once a company determines its targeting strategy, it must develop and disseminate

recruitment messages. Although potential messaging strategies have great breadth, we selectively review research related to message orientation and diversity messaging and some recent sourcing research. We further recognize that messages designed to influence person–environment fit are another crucial element of the applicant generation stage and we refer readers to Volume 3, chapter 1, this handbook, and Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson (2005) for detailed overviews of that literature.

Message orientation. A key consideration in crafting a recruitment message is the message orientation (Frase-Blunt, 2003). Here, work has addressed the use of screening, recruiting, or dual-purpose orientations. For example, Williamson, Lepak, and King (2003) found that recruiting-oriented Web sites (i.e., those that try to "sell" the company to a recruit) influenced content usefulness perceptions to a greater extent than screening-oriented Web sites (i.e., those that provide information to allow job seekers to withdraw if they are a poor fit; $\beta = .20$). Usefulness perceptions then led to attraction ($\beta = .41$). Dual-purpose orientations exhibited a slightly lower but nonsignificant difference from recruiting orientation in terms of attraction. However, as noted more than 20 years ago (Rynes & Boudreau, 1986), we know little about how these strategic recruitment decisions are made. Dineen and Williamson (2008) provided preliminary evidence suggesting that recruiter compensation characteristics (i.e., whether a recruiter was compensated based on applicant pool quality rather than quantity; $\gamma = .34$) and higher firm reputation ($\gamma = .22$) influenced recruiter use of a screening orientation and that a screening orientation was linked to applicant pool quality ($\beta = .19$). Another key unresolved issue is when in the recruitment process an organization should provide recruitment-oriented messages and when it should provide screening-oriented messages.

Considering once again contextual factors such as firms with negative reputations or particularly undesirable job features, it is interesting to consider messaging strategies that these firms might use. Ashforth, Kreiner, Clark, and Fugate (2007) provided a framework of approaches to avoid negative employee reactions to "dirty work" (i.e., undesirable work offered to sanitation workers or tobacco company employees). Using an exploratory, semistructured interview format, these authors found that such companies used tactics such as the formation of occupational ideologies (e.g., "This work is valuable to society despite its negatives") or social buffers (e.g., a pest-exterminator company might include exterminators' testimonials about the satisfaction they have given their customers). Other possibilities are the use of humor and defensive tactics such as social comparison with others who are relatively worse off (e.g., one tobacco company comparing itself with another that has a worse public relations record). It would be interesting to see how these approaches could be applied to a recruitment context.

Finally, we recognize that screening- versus recruiting-oriented approaches build on the well-documented realistic job preview (RJP) tradition (e.g., Phillips, 1998; Wanous, 1992). Although we do not replicate Breaugh's (2008) recent extensive review of the RJP literature, we reiterate a key point from that review in response to concerns about potential adverse self-selection effects (e.g., Bretz & Judge, 1998). That is, even if negative information leads highly qualified job seekers to drop out of a selection process, that result still seems better than having them become disillusioned after the recruitment process and quit soon after starting the job.

Diversity advertising. Recent attention has been given to the way recruitment communications portray diversity. For example, it is increasingly recognized that to recruit minorities and women, firms must impress on these groups that the company values diversity (Avery & McKay, 2006) by signaling fairness and inclusion. Avery and McKay presented a framework of impression management techniques organizations can use to convey diversity images to potential minority applicants. They posited that firms could use *ingratiation* by portraying highly diverse ads, recruiting at traditional minority institutions, or placing recruiting ads in targeted media (e.g., traditional women's magazines). An organization might also use *promotion* by presenting evidence of successful diversity management or *exemplification* by sponsoring minority events. Such efforts are thought to depend in part on (a) an organization's

broader reputation for diversity (e.g., a defensive strategy might be optimal for a poor-reputation firm, whereas an assertive strategy might benefit a high-reputation firm) and (b) the available pool of diverse applicants. These ideas should also be studied in the context of other diverse populations such as older or disabled workers and should be directly compared with other factors (e.g., what happens when a less-diverse-friendly firm offers superior inducements).

Given this general backdrop, two means of promoting a diversity image have been studied: the demographics of recruiters (not shown to have as much impact; $\rho = -.05$ to .03; Chapman et al., 2005) and recruitment advertisement diversity. In general, advertisements depicting diversity and Equal Employment Opportunity statements tend to be more attractive. For example, Avery, Hernandez, and Hebl (2004) found that Black and Hispanic participants were more attracted to companies when their recruitment advertisements used a Black or Hispanic representative instead of a Caucasian representative ($d = 1.07$ for Black participants, $d = .78$ for Hispanics). It is worth noting that the representative's race did not affect Caucasian participants. The authors concluded that Black and Hispanic applicants were attracted because of a similarity mechanism, not because they perceived that the organization valued diversity. Cropanzano, Slaughter, and Bachiochi (2005) found that job seekers generally found preferential treatment plans to be unappealing, which suggests that minority applicants want to be perceived as having been treated fairly and not as receiving preferential treatment.

Regarding the shaping of perceptions of organizational diversity, Kim and Gelfand (2003) examined the role that race and ethnic identity play in forming organizational inferences from diversity initiatives that are included in recruitment brochures. Ethnic identity and diversity initiative significantly affect socioemotional inferences, such as treatment of employees and relationships among employees. A recruitment brochure that included a diversity initiative also increased the likelihood that those who were high in ethnic identity would take the job offer, although this effect was small ($\Delta R^2 = .01$). Race did not exhibit a significant main effect on inferences or job offer acceptance. Martins and

Parsons (2007) corroborated this finding by demonstrating that individuals' attitudes and beliefs about gender-related issues (e.g., gender identity, attitudes toward affirmative action) moderated the impact of gender diversity initiatives in recruitment literature on attraction. Finally, Avery (2003) found that openness to racial diversity moderated the effectiveness of diversity portrayals in recruitment advertisements and that such portrayals were useful only for supervisory positions. This further suggests that restricting diversity portrayals to lower-level employees may do more harm than good by raising cynicism among minority job seekers. Taken together, it seems important for firms to try to understand the mindset of their target audience and to use diversity material carefully.

Recent recruitment source research. Companies must somehow disseminate the messaging strategies described earlier. In Figure 2.1 we note that Web recruitment and other sources play a crucial role in executing messaging strategies. We review the recruitment source literature and the critiques associated with it in less depth, given previous efforts (see Exhibit 2.1 and Breaugh, 2008). We do, however, note recent developments in three areas: social networks, word-of-mouth, and Web-based recruitment.

First, studies have long implied that social networks have a role in recruitment either as conduits to job information (Granovetter, 1973) or as resources that shape individual decisions (Kilduff, 1990). More recently, Leung (2003) explicitly examined the use of social and business networks in the staffing of entrepreneurial ventures. This exploratory study suggested that social ties were used heavily to fill human resource needs in the start-up phase of a company with a shift toward business network ties in the growth phase. In addition, in a finding somewhat contrary to Granovetter's famous strength of weak ties argument, Leung provided preliminary evidence that companies used strong, direct ties in both the start-up and growth phases when selecting new employees. Although this finding may be an artifact of the nature of the sample (i.e., entrepreneurial ventures often lack legitimacy and thus require a great deal of trust on behalf of new employees) and sample size (i.e., four

organizations), it is important nonetheless in helping understand the role of networks as a recruiting source. The previously discussed work by Williamson and Cable (2003) also took a networks approach in examining the role of board interlocks in hiring decisions (see also Somaya et al., 2008).

Recent work has also examined word-of-mouth communication that takes place within informal networks. For example, Van Hoye and Lievens (2007a) found that word-of-mouth (i.e., informal Web-based communication about companies) was viewed as more credible (partial $\eta^2 = .19$) and associated with higher organizational attractiveness (partial $\eta^2 = .08$) than Web-based testimonials. Van Hoye and Lievens (2007b) further discovered that negative word-of-mouth information could interfere with the effect of recruitment advertising. In general, nonrecruitment-related word-of-mouth communications might be perceived as more credible and lead to more accurate culture perceptions (Cable, Aiman-Smith, Mulvey, & Edwards, 2000) than recruitment-related communications (Kanar, Collins, & Bell, 2006), probably because, being from an external source, it is not perceived as trying to sell the organization (Fisher, Ilgen, & Hoyer, 1979). This is consistent with other work that has found that social network contacts influence job seekers (Kilduff, 1990). Word-of-mouth information from potential coworkers may be viewed as more credible because they are expected to have heightened expertise (Cable & Turban, 2001).

Another recruitment source that has, not surprisingly, seen tremendous growth over the last decade is the World Wide Web; Ployhart (2006) described this growth as "nothing short of radical" (p. 875). Research has suggested that the Web is a powerful tool for sending messages to potential applicants, and scholars have suggested that the Web makes it easier for job seekers to find information about companies and apply for jobs (Lievens & Harris, 2003). However, the popular press has reported that the Web has increased extraneous application traffic from unqualified job seekers (Frase-Blunt, 2003; "Internet misuse," 2003).

Cober, Brown, Keeping, and Levy (2004) presented a model of the relationships between organizational Web sites and recruitment outcomes. In general, they proposed that Web site façade relates to job seekers' reactions but less strongly when job seekers have favorable prior attitudes toward the organization. These attitudes then influence job seekers' perceptions of usability, Web site attitude, and actual search behavior, which in turn influence image, familiarity, and applicant attraction. One of Cober et al.'s more interesting propositions suggested that simply browsing a company's Web site could alter organizational image.

Building on Cober et al.'s (2004) work, Allen, Mahto, and Otondo (2007) examined objective factors (e.g., job-organization attributes), subjective factors (e.g., brand image and fit), and critical contact factors (e.g., nature of Web-site medium) on applicant attraction. Using a large sample mostly comprising job seekers browsing actual job ads, Allen et al. found that organizational image, but not mere familiarity, related to attitudes toward the organization ($\beta = .32$). They suggested that media richness perceptions also affected credibility and satisfaction, which related to attitudes toward the organization. Cable and Yu (2006) also found that, in general, richer and more credible mediums enhanced the correspondence between pre- and postviewing organizational image beliefs, even if such beliefs were already overestimated. Job seekers tended to hold underestimated perceptions of organizational images prior to exposure to career fair or Web-based sources (i.e., a Web page or electronic bulletin board).

The aforementioned research further suggested that smaller or unfamiliar firms might be able to overcome barriers related to being unknown if they can first direct job seekers to their Web site. This renders the process of driving job seekers to a company Web site an important and overlooked research topic. Returning to the work of Collins and colleagues (e.g., Collins & Han, 2004), once a viewer is on a Web site, high- versus low-involvement recruitment strategies might be optimal depending on a firm's brand image or reputation.

Whereas Web-based recruitment research thus far has tended to be recruitment-oriented (i.e., attracting a maximum number of job seekers as the goal), some research has also examined the quality of applicants that might be generated by using features such as interactivity that are mostly available only

on the Web. Dineen and colleagues (Dineen, Ash, & Noe, 2002: Dineen, Ling, Ash, & DelVecchio, 2007; Dineen, & Noe, 2009) have shown that providing job seekers with customized information might encourage them to consider the information more carefully by making it more experiential or personally relevant (Cable & Turban, 2001), which might lead to better outcomes (e.g., well-fitting job seekers may be more attracted; poorly fitting job seekers might be less attracted). Specifically, Dineen and Noe found that customization is better at encouraging poorly fitting job seekers to eliminate themselves than at encouraging well-fitting job seekers to apply (odds ratios = 1.64 for person–organization fit and 2.13 for demands–abilities fit). Such a finding is consistent with image (Ordonez, Benson, & Beach, 1999) and prospect (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979) theories, which suggest that job seekers tend to screen-out poor options more than they screen-in good options. Furthermore, when a company narrows the initial pool of applicants, it decreases its legal liabilities because it must later reject fewer applicants. Related to Cober et al. (2004) and Allen et al. (2007), good aesthetic features may be necessary to trigger the benefits of customization (Dineen et al., 2007) and may be even more important for firms that have low familiarity (Collins & Han, 2004), such as the fictitious companies used in Dineen and colleagues' research.

Foundational to these findings is the notion of job seeker processing motivation (Breaugh & Starke, 2000). Specifically, it is likely that applicant pool quality is tied at least partly to the degree to which job seekers are willing and able to carefully scrutinize recruitment information. Recent work has begun to draw on the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) to address these issues (e.g., Cable & Turban, 2001; Dineen & Noe, 2009; Jones, Schultz, & Chapman, 2006; Roberson, Collins, & Oreg, 2005). Developed by Petty and Cacioppo (1986), the ELM suggests that people can be persuaded through a central route of high elaboration where information is given careful attention or through a more peripheral route where information is more passively processed without careful thought. For example, Jones et al. found that those exposed to a condition that encouraged peripheral processing of information chose ads con-

taining non-job-related features such as attractive fonts rather than those containing higher-quality arguments. In general, understanding prior job seeker cognitions and how they influence recruitment information processing at different recruitment stages is important in understanding this information's impact on job seeker decision making.

Finally, limited work has differentiated between various subsources in Web-based recruitment. For example, Jattuso and Sinar (2003) found that generalized job boards such as monster.com or careerbuilder.com attracted lower-quality applicants (in terms of educational qualifications, $d = .67$; and skills, $d = .13$) and applicants with a lesser degree of fit ($d = 1.68$) than industry/position specific job boards such as tvjobs.com or salesjobs.com. A replication of this study may be useful given that many of the more general job boards now have specialized subcomponents (e.g., engineering.careerbuilder.com). Future Web-based recruitment research should continue to address job seeker reactions to these different subsources in terms of usefulness and privacy concerns (Lievens & Harris, 2003). Investigations might also address the types of Web-based recruitment information that are used at different recruitment stages (e.g., job board information in the applicant generation phase, electronic bulletin boards that offer neutral testimonials about company culture in the post-offer stage), and the use of third-party recruitment firms as intermediaries between companies and job seekers.

Even though considerable work remains, progress has been evident in the area of messaging strategies, relative to the prior work outlined in Exhibit 2.1. We are encouraged by the move away from attempts to examine general source effects to more nuanced investigations of specific sources such as the Web or word-of-mouth communications. Also, recent work has continued to draw on the RJP tradition but has expanded that concept to look at overall firm characteristics (e.g., negative reputations) and message frames (e.g., screening, dual-purpose). Finally, diversity advertising has received attention that has previously been largely absent.

Organizations experience relative levels of success in generating viable candidates for their vacancies. Once an applicant pool is generated, organizations

must turn their attention to maintaining the status of their most viable applicants.

MAINTAINING THE STATUS OF VIABLE APPLICANTS

The second stage of the recruitment process comprises organizational efforts to ensure that viable, higher-quality applicants maintain interest in being considered for vacancies. As organizations form applicant pools or court candidates individually, screening considerations often take center stage in terms of workforce planning, but they also likely transfer to recruitment considerations, as shown in Figure 2.1. Indeed, often overlooked is the continuing need for effective, ongoing recruitment of candidates at this stage to maintain their status as potential employees until the company can tender job offers. As indicated in Figure 2.1, several processes are vital to this stage, including communication and rapport building as job applicants continue to interact with organization agents. Specifically, it is primarily at this stage that recruiters and those involved in site visits build rapport with applicants and signal organizational intentions. Indeed, as shown in Figure 2.1, interactions with organizational agents take place across all three stages, but are most prominent during applicant maintenance. Key outcomes at this stage include remaining competitive with other firms seeking similar job candidates and tendering offers in a timely manner to maximize the chances of employing valued applicants. Thus a parallel topic in this stage is the way in which applicants screen out companies and withdraw from the pool.

Several chapters in this handbook address issues related to screening and selection and are not covered here (see in particular chap. 13, this volume). For an overview of one key recruitment consideration—selection process fairness perceptions—we refer the reader to chapter 12 of this volume. Another key consideration is selection process timeliness. Yet, since Rynes, Bretz, and Gerhart (1991) found that delays in the selection process can lead to attrition from that process, especially among more qualified applicants, little has been accomplished from a research perspective to build on these findings. Thus, for purposes of our review, we specifically

address two primary issues: recruiter interactions and site visits. As will become apparent by the shorter length of this section (and the next) in relation to previous sections of this chapter, opportunities for research are plentiful.

Although, as with other topics, researchers have recently reviewed recruiter interactions (Breaugh, 2008), we address some key issues. Chapman et al. (2005) concluded that recruiter personableness exhibits a fairly strong relationship with pursuit intentions ($\rho = .50$). However, its effects are weaker for more distal outcomes such as job choice, and it is likely that applicants rely less on recruiter signals as more information about job and organizational characteristics becomes salient. Alternatively, recruitment initiatives such as recruiter behaviors likely signal job-organizational characteristics, and research has generally shown that job-organization factors mediate the effects of attraction on recruitment (Turban, 2001). Indeed, it appears that later in the process when job seekers decide whether to accept the job, they focus more on what their work environment will be like rather than on particular aspects of the recruitment process such as recruiter interactions, and earlier longitudinal work showed this to be true from the application phase through the job choice decision stage (Taylor & Bergmann, 1987).

Some researchers have attempted to ground the role of recruiters in psychological theory. For example, Larsen and Phillips (2002) laid out a series of propositions regarding the propensity for recruiters to influence applicants based on the ELM. Specifically, they proposed that recruiter demographics and friendliness exert less influence on job applicant attraction when those applicants engage in central processing of organizational and job attributes. Job applicants' use of central processing is more likely, for example, when they possess lower stress levels, or greater job and company knowledge, interview experience, financial need, or self-esteem. Alternatively, Chapman and Webster (2006) used expectancy theory and concepts of procedural justice and signaling to unpack the mechanisms underlying recruiter-applicant interactions. The authors found that recruiter friendliness was related to applicant perceptions of procedural justice of the process, post-interview organizational attractiveness, and expectancy of

receiving an offer (βs = .60, .21, and .26, respectively). Rynes et al. (1991) found, however, that signaling more greatly affected less-experienced job seekers. Despite these recent studies, progress has generally been limited in the area of recruiter interactions since the Rynes and Cable (2003) review (Exhibit 2.1). However, rather than indicating a need for additional work, we do not view recruiter interactions as having as high of a priority going forward as other topics covered in this review.

Conversely, as reviewed by Breaugh et al. (2008) and indicated in Exhibit 6.1, researchers have generally neglected on-site visits, although job applicants often decide about organizations during those times. Previous work has shown that site-visit perceptions relate to job choice (R^2 = .05; Turban, Campion, & Eyring, 1995). More recently, McKay and Avery (2006) provided a comprehensive model of the site-visit process in terms of racioethnic issues. They suggest that minority site visitors perceive a stronger link between organizational/ community diversity, vertical integration, and diversity climate perceptions, as well as between quality of site-visit/community interactions and diversity climate perceptions. Diversity climate relates to acceptance intentions and even more so when job opportunities are perceived to be high. This model, if verified, might have important implications for firms looking to move diverse candidates from job application to job choice. It seems especially important given that site visits likely provide a truer picture of a company's diversity climate than applicants might glean from initial recruiting communications and failure to uphold those first communications might not only lead minority candidates to drop out but might also lead them to translate these misunderstood communications to other minority job seekers. Future research should address this issue as well as extend McKay and Avery's propositions to older job seekers or other nontraditional populations.

After organizations complete their selection processes, and assuming they have successfully retained viable applicants, they typically extend job offers to chosen candidates. From here, organizations must use closure processes to ensure that the candidates accept the offers. We now turn to this stage.

POSTOFFER CLOSURE

After firms tender job offers to desired candidates, much work remains from a recruitment standpoint. Indeed, *postoffer closure* is often overlooked but can be a vital tipping point between a valued job applicant accepting an offer or going elsewhere, often to a competitor. Key processes likely to occur at this stage include the applicant's decision making, offer negotiation, and the organization's ability to recognize competitors' overtures toward the candidate in terms of inducements and offer timing.

Job choice continues to receive attention as a critical outcome at this stage. For example, in terms of the postoffer/prehire time period, Breaugh, Greising, Taggart, and Chen (2003) studied the effects of recruiting sources on the propensity to hire, finding that direct applicants (8.1%) and employee referrals (12.4%) were hired at greater rates than those recruited through newspapers (1.1%), colleges (1.3%), or job fairs (4.8%). Boswell, Roehling, LePine, and Moynihan (2003) longitudinally examined over several recruitment phases how 14 job and organization factors related to offer acceptance or rejection. They found that the most-mentioned factors influencing acceptance decisions were nature of work (37.6%), location (37.6%), company culture (36.5%), and advancement opportunities (25.8%). As shown in Figure 6.1, ongoing interactions with firm agents likely carry over in terms of importance in this final stage. In the study conducted by Boswell et al. (2003), respondents indicated that meeting with multiple constituents while on a site visit positively affected job choice decisions as did follow-up contacts from the company.

The aforementioned studies represent the most proximal postoffer outcomes (e.g., hiring rate, acceptance intentions), yet continued attention is needed to additional distal outcomes such as turnover, performance, and satisfaction of new hires (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Meglino, Ravlin, & DeNisi, 2000). More subtle outcomes might include negotiated changes in salary level (i.e., How much does a company need to concede to secure the employment of a job candidate?) or maintenance of internal equity among job incumbents. The issue of external competitiveness (Milkovich & Newman,

2008) suggests that companies are pressured to extend lucrative offers. However, they risk upsetting the balance or equity perceptions of current employees who hold similar positions within the organization. Although studied extensively under the umbrella of *wage compression* in the labor and economics literatures (e.g., Heyman, 2008), little research has been done regarding how potential wage compression issues might affect an organization's approach to postoffer recruitment.

Among the recruitment issues relevant at this stage, investigations of multiple and/or competing offers seem critical. The most valued recruits are also the most likely to have several job offers. This makes processes such as negotiation vital to recruitment all the way to the point of job acceptance. Furthermore, the issues of job choice timing and exploding offers seem crucial (Rynes & Cable, 2003; Schwab, Rynes, & Aldag, 1987). Yet, little research has been done on job choice timing, and the scant research that has been conducted on exploding offers has found no significant effects on job choice outcomes (Boswell et al., 2003). Schwab et al. addressed the issue of multiple offers using marginal utilities (i.e., by assessing the marginal utility of continuing to pursue additional offers vs. taking the current offer without knowing the value of potential offers). They also addressed simultaneous versus sequential evaluation of alternatives, which returns to the need for research investigations to include multiple jobs to enhance external validity. Horvath and Millard (2008) recently provided preliminary evidence suggesting that attraction–intention relationships varied in a nonlinear fashion across recruitment stages (e.g., pre/postoffer) but also as a function of other vacancies simultaneously being considered. For example, the relationship between attraction and applicant intentions partially depended on where the candidate was with other companies (e.g., postoffer). However, it is important to note that the Chapman et al. (2005) meta-analysis did not find very strong effects for perceived alternatives on acceptance intentions ($\rho = -.06$) or actual job choice ($\rho = .07$), suggesting that simultaneous offers might be less important than at first glance. Chapman et al. speculated that quality rather than quantity of competing offers may be influential.

Other interesting issues might surface at this stage and deserve research attention. Given demographic shifts in nontraditional family arrangements (e.g., Conlin, 2003), work and family issues such as transferability to a new location and care for an elderly parent often occur on a case-by-case basis, making job offer and subsequent negotiation processes more challenging and complex. Another interesting issue is whether prior contextual characteristics such as brand equity and vacancy characteristics matter as much at this stage. Finally, a key process at this stage might be a firm's engagement in *competitive intelligence*, or knowledge of competitors' actions or likely actions. For example, knowing the window of opportunity competing offers have given job seekers would be valuable during salary negotiations, as would knowledge of specific packages competitors have offered. Network ties within an industry might help firms gain advantage here. In general, given the dearth of prior work in the postoffer closure area (as reflected in Exhibit 2.1), we view this is a new area ripe for fresh perspectives and rigorous work.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS AND CONCLUSION

With this review of the recruitment literature come recommendations for future research. In closing, we suggest several areas beyond those mentioned. First, we have identified several studies that examined key outcomes within specific phases. However, researchers have tried to build on earlier studies (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1996; Taylor & Bergmann, 1987) through longitudinal research capturing multiple phases. For example, Carless (2005) studied the effects of perceived person–job and person–organization fit over time on attraction and likelihood of accepting a job offer. Chapman and Webster (2006) collected data at multiple times to observe recruiter effects on placement, attraction, job choice, and job choice intentions.

Chapman et al.'s (2005) meta-analytic evidence highlighted the importance of continuing to study recruitment relationships over multiple stages by suggesting that attraction is not directly related to job choice but rather is at least partially mediated by pursuit and acceptance intentions. It is also important to note that at later recruitment stages restriction in

range on predictors may be at issue. Chapman et al. noted that person–environment fit and job choice relationships might be restricted because poorly fitting individuals have already eliminated themselves at earlier stages (see Cable & Judge, 1996, for a discussion of this issue). Indeed, in Chapman et al., job choice was the weakest predicted outcome.

Second, although little work has addressed unit- or firm-level outcomes, it is incumbent on researchers to approach investigations in this way (e.g., firm-level financial outcomes, unit-level turnover; e.g., Ployhart, 2006; Rynes & Cable, 2003; Taylor & Collins, 2000). This may require cross-level research designs spanning several companies. Ployhart provided a diagram outlining a process of linking micro and macro levels of analysis. Taylor and Collins encouraged researchers to assess recruitment issues within the purview of the resource-based view of the firm (Barney, 1991). Specifically, they encouraged researchers and recruitment specialists to evaluate recruitment efforts according to how valuable, rare, and/or inimitable they are, and thus assess their potential to provide a source of sustainable competitive advantage. Also important are continued assessments of applicant pool size and quality. It is encouraging that these are starting to receive attention from scholars (e.g., Collins & Han, 2004) and practitioners (e.g., Cascio & Boudreau, 2008; http://www.staffing.org, 2005), although quality remains ill defined and likely differs according to firm objectives (e.g., diversity, cognitive ability).

Third, we have discussed the importance of using different metrics at different stages of the recruitment process. There is thus a need for better understanding of when a given recruitment metric is more or less optimal and why and to define success at each stage commensurate with the importance of the prevailing outcome. For example, at the stage of generating viable candidates, it seems vital to generate a large enough pool of applicants of acceptable quality. Yet many recruitment studies continue to rely on attitudinal outcomes such as attraction as the ultimate criterion at this phase, overlooking issues such as the number of candidates a company must reject. Beyond defining recruitment success differently at different stages, Barber, Wesson, Roberson, and Taylor (1999) also suggested that small and large firms tend to define recruitment success differently (e.g., longer- and shorter-term focuses, respectively). Several online (e.g., staffing.org) and print (Cascio & Boudreau, 2008) sources exist to enable companies to assess the value of their recruiting function and practitioners should avail themselves of these (see also, Carlson et al., 2002).

Finally, our review reveals that much more effort is needed to examine recruitment strategies and processes that occur after a job seeker applies for a position. We would be mistaken to assume that recruitment could end once a job seeker has submitted an application, yet the unbalanced state of the recruitment literature seems to reflect this logic. We hope that future literature reviews will show more progress in analyzing the stages that follow candidate generation.

Recruitment continues to be critical to organizational functioning, and much research is needed to inform practitioners in the throes of the talent war. Compared with prior work reflected in Exhibit 6.1, we are encouraged by the increased breadth of topics more recently being addressed as well as the increased depth of studies in areas such as firm reputation and the integration of marketing and recruitment principles. Yet, we still see a need for richer, more in-depth examinations of other crucial areas such as site visits, the labor market, and recruitment timing. Although we have provided a selective rather than exhaustive review, we once again encourage researchers to follow recommendations of other recent reviews and to embrace the unique challenges and opportunities we have attempted to illustrate in this chapter. It is an exciting time for advanced inquiry in an area greatly needing scholarly input. We look forward to future literature reviews that will undoubtedly be needed to classify and describe this pending work.

References

Adams, G., & Rau, B. (2004). Job seeking among retirees seeking bridge employment. *Personnel Psychology, 57,* 719–744.

Aiman-Smith, L., Bauer, T., & Cable, D. (2001). Are you attracted? Do you intend to pursue? A recruiting policy-capturing study. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 16,* 219–237.

Allen, D. G., Mahto, R. V., & Otondo, R. F. (2007). Web-based recruitment: Effects of information, organizational brand, and attitudes toward a web site on applicant attraction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 1696–1708.

Armour, S. (2005, November 6). Generation Y: They've arrived at work with a new attitude. *USA Today*, p. B1.

Ashforth, B. E., Kreiner, G. E., Clark, M. A., & Fugate, M. (2007). Normalizing dirty work: Managerial tactics for countering occupational taint. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*, 149–174.

Ashforth, B. E., Kreiner, G. E., & Fugate, M. (2000). All in a day's work: Boundaries and micro role transitions. *Academy of Management Journal, 25*, 472–491.

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review, 14*, 20–39.

Avery, D. R. (2003). Reactions to diversity in recruitment advertising—Are differences black and white? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 672–679.

Avery, D. R., Hernandez, M., & Hebl, M. R. (2004). Who's watching the race? Racial salience in recruitment advertising. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 34*, 146–161.

Avery, D. R., & McKay, P. F. (2006). Target practice: An organizational impression management approach to attracting minority and female job applicants. *Personnel Psychology, 59*, 157–187.

Avery, D. R., McKay, P. F., & Wilson, D. C. (2007). Engaging the aging workforce: The relationship between perceived age similarity, satisfaction with coworkers, and employee engagement. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 1542–1556.

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

Barber, A. E., Wesson, M. J., Roberson, Q. M., & Taylor, M. S. (1999). A tale of two job markets: Organizational size and its effects on hiring practices and job search behavior. *Personnel Psychology, 52*, 841–868.

Barney, J. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of Management, 18*, 99–120.

Billsberry, J. (2007). *Experiencing recruitment and selection*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Borman, W. C., Ilgen, D. R., & Klimoski, R. J. (Eds.). (2003). *Handbook of psychology: Industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 12). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Boswell, W. R., Roehling, M. V., LePine, M. A., & Moynihan, L. M. (2003). Individual job-choice decisions and the impact of job attributes and recruitment practices: A longitudinal field study. *Human Resource Management, 42*, 23–37.

Breaugh, J. A. (2008). Employee recruitment: Current knowledge and important areas for future research. *Human Resource Management Review, 18*, 103–118.

Breaugh, J. A., Greising, L. A., Taggart, J. W., & Chen, H. (2003). The relationship of recruiting sources and pre-hire outcomes: Examination of yield ratios and applicant quality. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 33*, 2267–2287.

Breaugh, J. A., Macan, T. H., & Grambow, D. M. (2008). Employee recruitment: Current knowledge and directions for future research. In G. P. Hodgkinson & J. K. Ford (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 23, pp. 45–82). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Breaugh, J. A., & Starke, M. (2000). Research on employee recruitment: So many studies, so many remaining questions. *Journal of Management, 26*, 405–434.

Bretz, R. D., & Judge, T. A. (1998). Realistic job previews: A test of the adverse self-selection hypothesis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*, 330–337.

Brooks, M., Highhouse, S., Russell, S., & Mohr, D. (2003). Familiarity, ambivalence, and firm reputation: Is corporate fame a double-edged sword?. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 904–914.

Brown, D. J., Cober, R. T., Keeping, L. M., & Levy, P. E. (2006). Racial tolerance and reactions to diversity information in job advertisements. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36*, 2048–2071.

Cable, D., Aiman-Smith, L., Mulvey, P., & Edwards, J. (2000). The sources and accuracy of job applicants' beliefs about organizational culture. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*, 1076–1085.

Cable, D., & Judge, T. (1996). Person–organization fit, job choice decisions, and organizational entry. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 67*, 294–311.

Cable, D., & Turban, D. (2001). Establishing the dimensions, sources, and value of job seekers' employer knowledge during recruitment. In G. Ferris (Ed.), *Research in personnel and human resource management* (Vol. 20, pp. 115–163). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Cable, D., & Turban, D. (2003). The value of organizational reputation in the recruitment context: A brand equity perspective. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 33*, 2244–2266.

Cable, D., & Yu, K. (2006). Managing job seekers' organizational image beliefs: The role of media richness and media credibility. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 828–840.

Cappelli, P. (1999). *The new deal at work: Managing the market-driven workforce*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Cappelli, P. (2001). Making the most of on-line recruiting. *Harvard Business Review, 79*, 139–146.

Cappelli, P. (2005). Will there really be a labor shortage? *Human Resource Management, 44,* 143–149.

Carless, S. A. (2005). Person–job fit versus person–organization fit as predictors of organizational attraction and job acceptance intentions: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 78,* 411–429.

Carlson, K. D., Connerley, M. L., & Mecham, R. L., III (2002). Recruitment evaluation: The case for assessing the quality of applicants attracted. *Personnel Psychology, 55,* 461–490.

Carless, S. A., & Wintle, J. (2007). Applicant attraction: The role of recruiter function, work–life balance policies and career salience. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 15,* 394–404.

Cascio, W. F., & Boudreau, J. W. (2008). *Investing in people.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Casper, W. J., & Buffardi, L. C. (2004). Work–life benefits and job pursuit intentions: The role of anticipated organizational support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 65,* 391–410.

Chapman, D. S., Uggerslev, K. L., Carroll, S. A., Piasentin, K. A., & Jones, D. A. (2005). Applicant attraction to organizations and job choice: A meta-analytic review of the correlates of recruiting outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90,* 928–944.

Chapman, D. S., & Webster, J. (2006). Toward an integrated model of applicant reactions and job choice. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 17,* 1032–1057.

Cober, R. T., Brown, D. J., Keeping, L. M., & Levy, P. E. (2004). Recruitment on the net: How do organizational web site characteristics influence applicant attraction? *Journal of Management, 30,* 623–646.

Collins, C. J. (2007). The interactive effects of recruitment practices and product awareness in job seekers' employer knowledge and applicant behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92,* 180–190.

Collins, C. J., & Han, J. (2004). Exploring applicant pool quantity and quality: The effects of early recruitment practices, corporate advertising, and firm reputation. *Personnel Psychology, 57,* 685–717.

Collins, C. J., & Stevens, C. K. (2002). The relationship between early recruitment-related activities and the application decisions of new labor-market entrants: A brand equity approach to recruitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87,* 1121–1133.

Conlin, M. (2003, October 20). Unmarried America. *Business Week,* 106.

Cropanzano, R., Slaughter, J., & Bachiochi, P. (2005). Organizational justice and black applicants' reactions to affirmative action. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90,* 1168–1184.

Davis, M. A. (2003). Factors related to bridge employment participation among private sector early retirees. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 63,* 55–71.

Deal, J. (2007). *Retiring the generation gap.* San Francisco: Wiley.

Delaney, K. J. (2007, June 28). Start-ups make inroads with Google's work force. *Wall Street Journal,* B1.

Dineen, B. R., Ash, S. R., & Noe, R. A. (2002). A web of applicant attraction: Person–organization fit in the context of Web-based recruitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87,* 723–734.

Dineen, B. R., Ling, J., Ash, S. R., & DelVecchio, D. (2007). Aesthetic properties and message customization: Navigating the dark side of web recruitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92,* 356–372.

Dineen, B. R., & Noe, R. A. (2009). Effects of customization on application decisions and applicant pool characteristics in a Web-based recruitment context. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94,* 224–234.

Dineen, B. R., & Williamson, I. O. (2008). Effects of environmental and organizational attributes on recruitment message orientation. Paper presented at the meeting of the Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology, San Francisco.

Dunford, B., Boudreau, J., & Boswell, W. (2005). Out-of-the-money: The impact of underwater stock options on executive job search. *Personnel Psychology, 58,* 67–101.

Dunford, B., Oler, D., & Boudreau, J. (2008). Underwater stock options and voluntary executive turnover: A multidisciplinary perspective integrating behavioral and economic theories. *Personnel Psychology, 61,* 687–726.

Ehrhart, K. H., & Ziegert, J. C. (2005). Why are individuals attracted to organizations? *Journal of Management, 31,* 901–919.

Fisher, C. D., Ilgen, D. R., & Hoyer, W. D. (1979). Source credibility, information favorability, and job offer acceptance. *Academy of Management Journal, 22,* 94–103.

Flutie effect. (2008). Retrieved August 2008 from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flutie_effect

Frase-Blunt, M. (2003, August). Candidate glut. *HR Magazine,* 89–93.

Gardner, T. M. (2005). Interfirm competition for human resources: Evidence from the software industry. *Academy of Management Journal, 48,* 237–256.

Gong, Y. (2003a). Subsidiary staffing in multinational enterprises: Agency, resources, and performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 46,* 728–739.

Gong, Y. (2003b). Toward a dynamic process model of staffing composition and subsidiary outcomes in

multinational enterprises. *Journal of Management, 29,* 259–280.

Granovetter, M. (1973). The strength of weak ties. *American Journal of Sociology, 78,* 1360–1380.

Heyman, F. (2008). How wage compression affects job turnover. *Journal of Labor Research, 29,* 11–26.

Hoffman, B. J., & Woehr, D. J. (2006). A quantitative review of the relationship between person–organization fit and behavioral outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68,* 389–399.

Horovitz, B. (2003, April 23). At P & G's historic reunion. *USA Today,* p. B1.

Horvath, M., & Millard, M. R. (2008). Recruitment stage, organizational attraction, and applicant intentions. Paper presented at the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology Meeting, San Francisco.

Internet misuse may contribute to long joblessness. (2003, February 18). *Silicon Valley/San Jose Business Journal.* Retrieved May 2005 from http://sanjose.bizjournals.com/sanjose/stories/2003/02/17/daily17.html

Jattuso, M. L., & Sinar, E. F. (2003). Source effects in Internet-based screening procedures. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 11,* 137–140.

Jones, D. A., Shultz, J. W., & Chapman, D. S. (2006). Recruiting through job advertisements: The effects of cognitive elaboration on decision making. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 11,* 167–179.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1979). Prospect theory: An analysis of decision under risk. *Econometrica, 47,* 263–293.

Kanar, A. M., Collins, C., & Bell, B. (2006). *Can an organization overcome a negative image? A longitudinal experimental examination of the effect.* Paper presented at the meeting of the Academy of Management, Atlanta, GA.

Kanfer, R., Wanberg, C. R., & Kantrowitz, T. M. (2001). Job search and employment: A personality-motivational analysis and meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86,* 837–855.

Kilduff, M. (1990). The interpersonal structure of decision making: A social comparison approach to organizational choice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 47,* 270–288.

Kim, S. S., & Gelfand, M. J. (2003). The influence of ethnic identity on perceptions of organizational recruitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 63,* 396–416.

Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: A meta-analysis of person–job, person–organization, person–group, and person–supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology, 58,* 281–342.

Larsen, D. A., & Phillips, J. I. (2002). Effect of recruiter on attraction to the firm: Implications of the elabora-

tion likelihood model. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 16,* 347–364.

Lavelle, L. (2003, September 29). After the jobless recovery, a war for talent. *BusinessWeek, 3851,* 92–92.

Leung, A. (2003). Different ties for different needs: Recruitment practices of entrepreneurial firms at different developmental phases. *Human Resource Management, 42,* 303–320.

Lievens, F., & Harris, M. M. (2003). Research on Internet recruitment and testing: Current status and future directions. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *The international review of industrial and organizational psychology,* (Vol. 18, 131–165). Chichester, England: Wiley.

Lievens, F., & Highhouse, S. (2003). The relation of instrumental and symbolic attributes to a company's attractiveness as an employer. *Personnel Psychology, 56,* 75–102.

Ling, J., & Dineen, B. R. (2005). *Internal transfers: A tale of human capital, social capital, and the manager as agent or steward.* Paper presented at the meeting of the Southern Management Association, Charleston, SC.

Martins, L. L., & Parsons, C. K. (2007). Effects of gender diversity management on perceptions of organizational attractiveness: The role of individual differences in attitudes and beliefs. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92,* 865–875.

Maurer, S., Howe, V., & Lee, T. (1992). Organizational recruiting as marketing management: An interdisciplinary study of engineering graduates. *Personnel Psychology, 45,* 807–833.

McConnon, A. (2007, September 10). Social networking is graduating—and hitting the job market: How do the online Rolodexes stack up? *Business Week, 4049,* 4.

McKay, P. F., & Avery, D. R. (2006). What has race got to do with it? Unraveling the role of racioethnicity in job seekers' reactions to site visits. *Personnel Psychology, 59,* 395–429.

Meglino, B. M., Ravlin, E. C., & DeNisi, A. S. (2000). A meta-analytic examination of realistic job preview effectiveness: A test of three counterintuitive propositions. *Human Resource Management Review, 10,* 407–434.

Milkovich, G. T., & Newman, J. M. (2008). *Compensation.* Boston: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Ordonez, L., Benson, L., III, & Beach, L. R. (1999). Testing the compatibility test: How instructions, accountability, and anticipated regret affect prechoice screening options. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 78,* 63–80.

Ostroff, C., & Clark, M. A. (2001). Maintaining an internal market: Antecedents of willingness to change jobs. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 59,* 425–453.

Petty, R. E., & Cacioppo, J. T. (1986). *Communication and persuasion: Central and peripheral routes to attitude change.* New York: Springer-Verlag.

Phillips, J. M. (1998). Effects of realistic job previews on multiple organizational outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Academy of Management Journal, 41,* 673–690.

Ployhart, R. E. (2006). Staffing in the 21st century: New challenges and strategic opportunities. *Journal of Management, 32,* 868–897.

Rao, H., & Drazin, R. (2002). Overcoming resource constraints on product innovation by recruiting talent from rivals: A study of the mutual fund industry, 1986–94. *Academy of Management Journal, 45,* 491–507.

Rau, B. L., & Adams, G. A. (2005). Attracting retirees to apply: Desired organizational characteristics of bridge employment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26,* 649–660.

Rau, B., & Hyland, M. (2002). Role conflict and flexible work arrangements: The effects on applicant attraction. *Personnel Psychology, 55,* 111–136.

Rindova, V., Pollock, T., & Hayward, M. (2006). Celebrity firms: The social construction of market popularity. *Academy of Management Review, 31,* 50–71.

Rindova, V. P., Williamson, I. O., Petkova, A. P., & Sever, J. M. (2005). Being good or being known: An empirical examination of the dimensions, antecedents, and consequences of organizational reputation. *Academy of Management Journal, 48,* 1033–1049.

Roberson, Q. M., Collins, C. J., & Oreg, S. (2005). The effects of recruitment message specificity on applicant attraction to organizations. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 19,* 319–339.

Rynes, S. (1991). Recruitment, job choice, and post-hire consequences: A call for new research directions. In M. Dunnette & L. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (2nd ed., Vol. 2, pp. 399–444). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

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

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

Rynes, S. L., Bretz, R. D., Jr., & Gerhart, B. (1991). The importance of recruitment in job choice: A different way of looking. *Personnel Psychology, 44,* 487–521.

Rynes, S. L., & Cable, D. M. (2003). Recruitment research in the 21st century. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology:*

Industrial and organizational psychology (Vol. 12, pp. 55–76). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Rynes, S. L., Orlitzky, M. O., & Bretz, R. D. (1997). Experienced hiring versus college recruiting: Practices and emerging trends. *Personnel Psychology, 50,* 487–521.

Schwab, D. P., Rynes, S. L., & Aldag, R. J. (1987). Theories and research on job search and choice. In K. M. Rowland & G. R. Ferris (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 5, pp. 129–166.) Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

SHRM. (Producer). (2008). *Seeing forward: Succession planning at 3M* [DVD]. (Available from http://www.shrm.org/about/foundation/products/Pages/SeeingForwardD VD.aspx)

Slaughter, J. E., Zickar, M. J., Highhouse, S., & Mohr, D. C. (2004). Personality trait inferences about organizations: Development of a measure and assessment of construct validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89,* 85–103.

Soelberg, P. (1967). Unprogrammed decision making. *Industrial Management Review, 8,* 19–29.

Somaya, D., Williamson, I. O., & Lorinkova, N. (2008). Gone but not lost: The different performance impacts of employee mobility between cooperators versus competitors. *Academy of Management Journal, 51,* 936–953.

Staffing.org. (2005, June 22). *How do you calculate the ROI of job boards?* Retrieved July 2005 from http://www.staffing.org/library_ViewArticle.asp?ArticleID=165

Taylor, M., & Bergmann, T. (1987). Organizational recruitment activities and applicants' reactions at different stages of the recruitment process. *Personnel Psychology, 40,* 261–285.

Taylor, M. S., & Collins, C. J. (2000). Organizational recruitment: Enhancing the intersection of theory and practice. In C. L. Cooper & E. A. Locke (Eds.), *Industrial and organizational psychology: Linking theory and practice* (pp. 304–334). Oxford, England: Basil Blackwell.

Turban, D. B. (2001). Organizational attractiveness as an employer on college campuses: An examination of the applicant population. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 58,* 293–312.

Turban, D. B., & Cable, D. M. (2003). Firm reputation and applicant pool characteristics. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24,* 733–751.

Turban, D. B., Campion, J. E., & Eyring, A. R. (1995). Factors related to job acceptance decisions of college recruits. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 47,* 193–213.

Van Hoye, G., & Lievens, F. (2007a). Investigating Web-based recruitment sources: Employee testimonials versus word-of-mouse. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 15,* 372–382.

Van Hoye, G., & Lievens, F. (2007b). Social influences on organizational attractiveness: Investigating if and when word of mouth matters. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 37,* 2024–2047.

Wanous, J. P. (1992). *Organizational entry: Recruitment, selection, orientation, and socialization of newcomers* (2nd ed.). Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.

Williams, M. L., & Dreher, G. F. (1992). Compensation system attributes and applicant pool characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal, 35,* 571–595.

Williamson, I. O., & Cable, D. M. (2003). Organizational hiring patterns, interfirm network ties, and interorganizational imitation. *Academy of Management Journal, 46,* 349–358.

Williamson, I. O., Cable, D. M., & Aldrich, H. (2002). Smaller but not necessarily weaker: How small businesses can overcome barriers to recruitment. In J. Katz & T. Welbourne (Eds.), *Advances in entrepreneurship, firm emergence, and firm growth* (Vol. 5, pp. 83–106). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Williamson, I. O., Lepak, D. P., & King, J. (2003). The effect of company recruitment web site orientation on individuals' perceptions of organizational attractiveness. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 63,* 242–263.