An Experimental Study of the Relationship of Personal Liking Bias with Values, Personality and Cognitive Style of Interviewers

by

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This is to certify that I have examined this copy of a master's thesis by

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STATEMENT OF AUTHORSHIP

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the present study was to investigate the relationship of personal liking bias with values, personality characteristics and cognitive style of the interviewers in employee selection decisions. In the present study, personal liking bias was defined as the bias that the interviewer is subject to in such a way that the final selection decision of the interviewer is made predominantly based on the personal liking/disliking of the interviewer towards the applicant rather than the technical competencies of the candidate and his potential performance. An experimental method was used and 176 undergraduate students from different departments taking psychology and sociology classes at Koç University were used as the sample. Results showed partial associations between personal liking bias and low performance-orientation, high collectivism, high extraversion, low rational thinking style. The current study attempts to inform the decision-makers in organizations about the characteristics of the interviewers who have the potential to make biased selection decisions and to contribute to the human resources management literature of decision-making based on technical vs. interpersonal competencies.

Keywords: Personal liking bias, decision-making based on technical vs. interpersonal competencies, interviewer personality, interviewer values.

ÖZET

Bu çalışmadaki amaç, görüşmecilerin değerleri, kişilik özellikleri ve bilişsel tarzları ile işe alım değerlendirmelerindeki kişisel beğeni yanlılığı arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır. Bu çalışmada kişisel beğeni yanlılığı, görüşmecinin aday hakkındaki işe alım kararını baskın olarak, adayın teknik özellikleri ve potansiyel performansı yerine görüşmecinin kişisel beğenisine ya da beğenmemesine dayalı olarak vermesi şeklinde tanımlanmıştır. Farklı bölümlerde okuyan, psikoloji ve sosyoloji dersi alan 176 Koç Üniversitesi lisans öğrencisi bu deneysel çalışmaya katılmışlardır. Bulgular, düşük performans odaklılık, yüksek toplulukçuluk, yüksek dışadönüklük ve düşük ussal düşünme stili ile kişisel beğeni yanlılığı arasında kısmi ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu çalışma, kurumlardaki karar vericileri, yanlı işe alım gerçekleştirme potansiyeli olan görüşmecilerin özellikleri hakkında bilgilendirmeyi ve insan kaynakları yönetimi literatürünün, teknik/kişilerarası yetkinlikler odaklı karar verme konusuna katkıda bulunmayı hedeflemektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Kişisel beğeni yanlılığı, teknik/kişilerarası yetkinlikler odaklı karar verme, görüşmeci kişiliği, görüşmeci değerleri.

DEDICATION

To my mother

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

There is probably no need to underline the critical role of staffing for organizations. In order to meet the demands of today's work life, organizations are looking for "super-employees" (Graves & Karren, 1996). A commonly used technique for selecting the right individuals to the organizations is the interview (Graves & Karren, 1996). Although structured interviews are highly reliable and valid (Terpstra & Rozell, 1993) many organizations still use unstructured interviews (Graves & Karren, 1996). Motowidlo et al. (1992) defined structure as "the consistent application of predetermined rules" thus "reduced discretion in decision-making" (p. 571). There are different reasons for using unstructured interviews. Lievens and De Paepe (2004) found that the recruiters who want to have more discretion over the interview questions and who want to establish an informal contact with the candidates prefer using unstructured interviews. Unfortunately, unstructured interviews might lead to idiosyncratic selection decisions (Graves & Karren, 1996). Graves and Karren (1996) summarize the causes of the idiosyncratic selection decisions under four headings; "interviewers' views of the ideal applicant (differences in beliefs about the characteristics of the ideal applicant), interviewers' information processing skills (differences in the ability to recall information about applicants and to utilize and combine information about multiple criteria in the decision process), similarity bias

and interviewers' behaviors (differences in social competence and general approach to interview and interviewer biases)" (p. 166).

Those who are in the position of making a decision about a person, and especially when the task involves complex, uncertain elements, usually make the decision process simpler by relying on heuristics and biases about the person (Payne, 1976). However, "relying on cognitive biases, heuristics, and inadequate information may lead to the use of job-irrelevant variables in a selection decision. Heuristics and cognitive biases cause a person to attend selectively to particular positive or negative attributes and thereby distort the decision by inflating the importance of certain attributes" (Motowidlo, 1986, p. 54; cited in Hitt & Barr, 1989).

Having reviewed the literature it can be stated that there are basically four sources of bias that will be thoroughly explained in the next section: interviewer related biases, applicant related biases, biases stemming from the job type and from the temporal placement of the information about the applicant. Interviewer related biases include the effects of the demographic and other characteristics of the interviewers creating similar-to-me effect or conservative bias. Another interviewer related bias is the mood of the interviewer which can also affect the selection decision. Applicant related biases include the effects of the demographic and other characteristics of the applicants creating similar-to-me effect, halo effect, attractiveness bias, personal liking bias, conservative bias, prototype bias, pre-interview impressions/application blanks bias. Biases stemming from the job type

include information about the type of the job such as female/male-sex-type jobs, high/low complexity jobs or young/old type jobs that may distort the hiring decisions of the interviewers. Finally, temporal placement of the information about the applicant may lead to primacy-recency effect, order effect and contrast effect. The current study focused only on the personal liking bias, however a review of the literature about different biases is essential because the control variables in the study were determined after having reviewed different biases.

The personal liking bias was first tested in real-life interviews by Frank & Hackman (1975). The personal liking bias was conceptualized by Frank & Hackman (1975) as the general liking of the interviewer of a candidate that leads to bias as a result of the perceived similarity between him/her and the candidate. This term was generated as a product of the similarity attraction paradigm introduced by Byrne (1971). However, the present researcher's definition of personal liking bias suggests that this bias does not necessarily stem from the similarity between the interviewer and the candidate. The current study conceptualized **personal liking bias** as the bias that the interviewer is subject to in such a way that the final selection decision of the interviewer is made predominantly based on the personal liking of the interviewer towards the applicant in face to face contact, rather than the technical competencies of the applicant and his performance potential. In fact, the subjective evaluation of liking is inevitable and could be useful, but it should not carry a higher weight than the weight assigned to the objective information regarding the candidate's performance

potential (e.g. work experience, GPA, type of school s/he graduated from). Graves & Karren (1992) attempted to find the differences in strategies of effective and ineffective interviewers. They concluded that the main difference although not significant was that effective interviewers gave more weight on the job-relevant characteristics; however ineffective interviewers gave equal weight on job-relevant and more general characteristics of the applicants.

The reason of focus on this particular type of bias is its relevance for the Turkish culture. Aycan & Kanungo (2001) drew attention to the critical role culture plays on human resources practices and contended that researchers should pay attention to cross-cultural differences in practice. Turkish culture is characterized by strong in-group collectivism (House et al., 2004). Therefore especially in Turkey, it was expected that personal liking towards the candidate would be given more weight than the technical competencies and performance potential of the candidate when making a hiring decision. In the present study it was suggested that there are three factors that predict the likelihood of being biased by the personal liking. The first factor is values that are affected by culture, the second one is the personality characteristics and the last one is the cognitive style.

The aim of the present study was to investigate the relationship of the values, personality characteristics and cognitive style of the interviewers with the likelihood of falling into personal liking bias. The independent variables were the values, personality attributes and cognitive style of the interviewer. The dependent variable

was the likelihood of making a selection decision affected by the personal liking bias. Personal liking bias was measured by the hiring decision that was irrespective of technical competencies. Participants were provided two different sets of information about two candidates. As the first information, the participant evaluated the job-related technical competencies and credentials of the candidates through the CVs. The second information was delivered through video tapes of the interviews with the candidates. However, the interviews of the candidates that were shown to the participant attempted to evoke either positive or negative feelings, -but it wasn't job-relevant- in the participant depending on the information provided by the CV. The interview situation attempted to create a juxtaposition of information about each candidate. It was attempted to build personal disliking for the candidate whose technical competency and knowledge was very positive and to build personal liking for the candidate whose technical competency and knowledge was average. Having received two different sets of information about each candidate, the participant was asked to make a hiring decision and to state which of the information was more influential in making the hiring decision. In the current study, personal liking bias occurred when the participant decided to hire the candidate whose technical competencies were average and not to hire the candidate whose technical competencies were good.

The current study aimed at contributing to the development of the selection practices by underlining the typical errors that the interviewers with certain values,

personality attributes and cognitive style make. Since the errors made by the recruiters decrease the predictive validity of the selection interviews, these interviews turn out to be unsuccessful and costly to the organizations. One of the expected scientific contributions of the study is the new personal liking bias definition generated by the researcher. The second one is its input to the selection decisions literature. In cross cultural human resources management literature, decision-making based on soft and hard criteria (decision making based on technical vs. interpersonal skills) is a highly debated issue (Aycan, 2005). The present study aimed at providing empirical evidence for this debate. The recommendations that are provided at the end of this study will call attention to the critical role values, personality factors and cognitive style play in selection of interviewers.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the current study, it is claimed that there are three factors that lead to selection decisions affected by the personal liking bias. These are culturally ingrained values, personality and cognitive style. The first section focuses on values, and the second one focuses on personality and the last one focuses on cognitive style of the interviewers. Lastly, because a literature review of the common biases in selection interviews could be helpful in understanding the types and sources of the biases, the area of selection biases that were thought to affect and distort the decisions of the recruiters was also be tapped.

2.1 Value-Orientation as a Predictor of Personal Liking Bias

In the current study, performance orientation and collectivism/individualism were studied as the cultural values.

Performance orientation is highly relevant for the context of recruitment and selection practices (Aycan, 2005). Performance orientation is defined as the extent to which an organization or society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence (House et al., 2004). According to the GLOBE Study by House et al. (2004) Turkey scores below average on performance orientation. Aycan (2005) contended that in cultures high on performance orientation,

recruitment and selection are based on hard criteria such as job related knowledge and technical competencies, however in cultures low on performance orientation, recruitment and selection are based on soft criteria such as social and interpersonal skills, social class and age. Furthermore, in cultures low on performance orientation, social and relational aspects such as harmony in interpersonal relations, loyalty, trustworthiness, and respectful attitude are given more weight when evaluating employees (Aycan, 2005).

Another value dimension included in the present study is collectivism/individualism. Turkish culture is characterized by strong in-group collectivism (House et al., 2004). Collectivism/individualism is a commonly used cultural dimension. “Collectivist cultures assume that individuals—through birth and possibly later events—belong to one or more close "in-groups," from which they cannot detach themselves. The in-group (whether extended family, clan, or organization) protects the interest of its members, but in turn expects their permanent loyalty. A collectivist society is tightly integrated; an individualist society is loosely integrated” (Hofstede, 1984, p. 390). Compared to individualistic cultures, collectivistic cultures agree more on the norms of behavior, display more obedience to these norms and they receive incentives or punishment for obedience or disobedience (Chatman et al., 1998). These actually prevent dissimilarity to maintain a high quality of interaction (Chatman et al., 1998).

Although I-C dimension is a widely used dimension in cultural research, Voronov & Singer (2002) argued that I-C dimension is not conceptually clear and that there is no systematic data about this dimension. They critically reviewed many studies that showed that many famously collectivistic or individualistic societies are not actually that collectivistic or individualistic. The constructs of individualism and collectivism have received great attention from the researchers at different levels (Gelfand et al., 2004). Many scholars have found that there are intracultural differences in terms of collectivism and individualism (Gelfand et al., 2004). Voronov & Singer (2002) furthermore contended that because Hofstede (1980) obtained a strong correlation between national income and individualism, researchers came to the conclusion that Western individualistic values lead to prosperity. Although there is still an ongoing debate about whether there is a positive correlation between individualism and wealth or not, researchers seem to focus on collectivism/individualism dimension in relation with performance (House et al., 2004). It is found in the GLOBE study that performance orientation dimension is negatively but not significantly correlated with in-group collectivism at the practice (as opposed to value) level (House et al, 2004).

Levine and Norenzayan (1999) suggested that in cultures characterized by individualism, which are more achievement oriented unlike the collectivistic cultures that value affiliation, pace of life is faster than that is in collectivistic cultures. On the other hand, Yu & Yang (1994) suggested that what differs in cultures in terms of achievement orientation is the source of it. They stated that the achievement

motivation of East Asian people is socially oriented whereas North American and European people's achievement orientation is individually oriented.

Aycan & Kanungo (2001) proposed that in the cultures high on individualism and performance value orientation, selection criteria are based on job-related competencies and written test format and objective methods are preferred. The same pattern was expected to be valid at the individual level. Individuals high on collectivism and low on performance orientation would prefer selection criteria based on interpersonal competence. These individuals who value more relational aspects such as harmony in interpersonal relations, loyalty, trustworthiness, and respectful attitude would give more weight to soft criteria when evaluating employees (Aycan, 2005). Therefore, it was suggested that when relational, job irrelevant information about a candidate is provided, individuals high on collectivism and/or low on performance orientation would take this information into consideration more than individuals high on individualism and/or performance orientation. Based on this argument, the first and second hypotheses were generated as follow:

Hypothesis 1: Personal liking bias is associated with low performance-orientation of the interviewers.

Hypothesis 2: Personal liking bias is associated with high collectivism of the interviewers.

2.2 Personality as a Predictor of Personal Liking Bias

In this section, extraversion and self-monitoring were tapped as the personality attributes.

Besides values, personality differences may explain the way people act in different situations. It was found that the better the congruence between the personality of the jobholder and the type of job/career, the higher were the job holder's productivity and satisfaction (Rowe & Waters, 1992). This finding leads us to conclude that the recruiters with certain personality traits may be more biased in selection interviews. In fact, Abbott et al. (2004) found that interviewer success and satisfaction were affected by the interviewer's personality type. They used The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator in their study. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator measures the preferences of the subjects on four bipolar preferences (McCaulley, 1990).The four preferences are extraversion or introversion attitude, sensing or intuitive perception, thinking or feeling judgment, judgment or perception (McCaulley, 1990).The researchers concluded that extraverted interviewers performed better than introverted interviewers and sensing interviewers performed better than intuitive interviewers. Abbott et al. (2004) measured performance by calculating refusals per complete, completes per hour, refusals per hour, and calls initiated per hour ratios. In addition to that, extraverted and sensing interviewers were more satisfied with their jobs (Abbott et al., 2004). Although Abbott et al. (2004) found that extraverted persons performed better, it does not necessarily mean that

they were less prone to the decision biases because the performance of the interviewers were not measured whether they were less biased when making the hiring decisions or in terms of the performance of the employees.

Another study by Lazar et al. (2004) looked at the moderating effect of interviewer extraversion on the relation between interview ratings and candidate self-monitoring and social anxiety. They found that the relation between interview ratings and candidate self-monitoring was negative when the interviewer was low on extraversion, and that this relation was positive when the interviewer was high on extraversion. Additionally, the relation between interview ratings and candidate social anxiety was negative, and interviewer extraversion moderated it in such a way that this relation was more negative for interviewers low on extraversion (Lazar et al., 2004). These findings are interpreted by Lazar et al. (2004) as interviewers high on extraversion were more susceptible to the impression management (IM) tactics and affected by the IM tactics, interviewers gave better rating to those candidates. However interviewers low on extraversion perceive self-monitoring as a self-management tactic and this affects their decisions negatively. Similarly, interviewers high on extraversion were negatively affected by the candidates' social anxiety to a lesser extent (Lazar et al., 2004). Therefore, interviewers low on extraversion are much more negatively affected by the cues that the candidates provide, be it a self-management tactic or a sign of social anxiety. With a similar logic, interviewers high on extraversion would be influenced more by the interview situation which provides more social cues about the candidate. However, interviewers low on extraversion

would not pay much attention to the interview information that is especially job-irrelevant. Based on the findings, the third hypothesis was generated as the following:

> *Hypothesis 3:* Personal liking bias is associated with high extraversion of interviewers.

Another personality characteristic that is relevant for the current study is self-monitoring. Snyder et al. (1988) conducted two studies to see how self-monitoring of the interviewers affects the selection process. They found that interviewers high in self-monitoring placed greater importance on the attractiveness of the candidates than their personality when making a hiring recommendation. In the second study, they found that high self-monitors placed more importance to have a suitable appearance for the job than being attractive or having suitable personality. More recently, Jawahar & Mattsson (2005) also found that the interviewers high in self-monitoring were more prone to the biases resulting from the gender and attractiveness of the candidate when the job was a sex-type one. Snyder & Gangestad (1986) had explained this phenomenon by stating that individuals high in self-monitoring paid attention to the social cues in the environment and that they regulated their behaviors according to the demands of the environments. On the contrary, people low in self-monitoring are thought to lack this motivation or ability. For this reason, interviewers high in self-monitoring place great weight on the physical characteristics of the candidates when making a selection decision. They are very much concerned that the candidate fits the stereotypic image of the role for which the candidate is considered

(Snyder et al., 1988). It is inferred from this finding that interviewers high in self-monitoring are more attentive to the information coming from the environment (i.e. cues in the interview). Knowing that low self-monitors are not affected by the impression-management tactics, low self-monitors may actually be more capable of focusing on the job relevant characteristics rather than job irrelevant characteristics. It was expected that, high self-monitors would focus more on the interview, however low self-monitors would focus more on the application blank information. The fifth hypothesis was generated as follows:

> *Hypothesis 4:* Personal liking bias is associated with high self-monitoring of interviewers.

2.3 Cognitive Style as a Predictor of Personal Liking Bias

Rational thinking style was studied as the cognitive style.

Epstein et al. (1996) contend that people process information through two different systems; rational and experiential systems. The cognitive-experiential self theory (CEST) suggests that the rational system is intentional and analytic whereas the experiential system is automatic and preconscious (Epstein et al., 1996). In order to obtain relevant information for the construct validity of their theory and develop a self report measure, Epstein et al. (1996) investigated the measures on this topic. They came across two self-report measures, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI; Briggs & Myers, 1976) and the Need for Cognition (NFC) scale (Cacioppo & Petty,

1982). They utilized items from NFC scale for the rational component and created their own items for the experiential component of the scale and constructed the rational experiential inventory. This inventory was used to measure this personality dimension.

There are numerous studies showing that need for cognition is relevant in the context of biases. Perlini & Hansen (2001) demonstrated that individuals scoring low on need for cognition were more affected by the attractiveness bias than individuals high on need for cognition. Individuals low on need for cognition rated the photographs of attractive people as more socially desirable than less attractive ones. Individuals with low need for cognition choose for the mental shortcuts so that they spend minimal effort on cognition (Perlini & Hansen, 2001). Cohen et al. (1955) defined need for cognition as "the individual's tendency to organize his experience meaningfully, a need to structure relevant situations in meaningful, integrated ways, to understand and make reasonable the experiential world." (p. 291). Need for cognition may be considered as a similar construct to the bipolar thinking versus feeling tendency provided in the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. It is suggested that individuals who prefer thinking judgment rationally decide through a process of logical analysis of causes and effects. Therefore, it can be suggested that they enjoy the logical thinking process, whereas individuals who prefer feeling judgment rationally decide by weighing the relative importance or value of competing alternatives (McCaulley, 1990). It can be inferred that individuals high on rational and low on experiential thinking system will be more alert to the objective

information rather than their feelings whilst individuals high on experiential and low on rational thinking system will be relying on what they feel rather than judging the causes and effects. Therefore, the fourth hypothesis is generated as follows:

> *Hypothesis 5:* Personal liking bias is associated with low rational thinking style of the interviewers.

2.4 Other Biases and Sources of Biases as the Control Variables

Many researchers have focused on the issue of biased judgments of the interviewers especially in the selection processes. Different types of biases were mentioned such as the halo effect (e.g. Nieva et al., 1980), contrast effect (e.g. Wexley et al., 1972), primacy-recency effect (e.g. Belec & Rowe, 1983), order effect (e.g. Hakel et al., 1970), similar-to-me effect (Byrne, 1971; cited in Graves & Powell, 1995), personal liking bias (e.g. Keenan, 1977), prototype bias (e.g. Anderson & Shackleton, 1990), conservative bias (e.g. Motowidlo, 1986; cited in Jagacinski, 1991) attractiveness bias (e.g. Dipboye et al., 1975), pre-interview impressions/application blanks bias (e.g. Dipboye, 1984). There are basically four types of biases in the literature: interviewer related biases, applicant related biases, biases stemming from the job type and from the temporal placement of the information about the applicant.

The current study controlled the effects of three types of biases: applicant related biases, biases stemming from the job type and from the temporal placement of the information about the applicant.

Most of the biases seem to stem from the influence of the demographic characteristics of the applicants and the interaction of these with the interviewers' characteristics. Biases related to the demographic characteristics of the candidates (especially age, gender and race) probably constitute the most commonly studied area since equal employment opportunities are major issues in the United States (Miceli et al., 2001). The most common explanation for the effect of the candidates' demographic information on the selection decisions of the interviewers is the perceived similarity between the interviewer and the interviewee. According to the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971) a demographic similarity between the selector and the candidate may lead to perceived similarity in attitudes and behaviors; this, in turn, may lead to the interpersonal attraction between the selector and the candidate (Byrne, 1971; cited in Graves & Powell, 1995).

Raza & Carpenter (1987) claimed that it would be inevitable for the recruiters to rely on the demographic characteristics of the applicants. They proposed a model of hiring decisions and asserted that the demographic characteristics of interviewers and applicants such as age and sex and as well as the job type were not very important in selection decisions, because these characteristics affected perceived attractiveness, likability, intelligence and skill ratings (Raza & Carpenter, 1987).

In order to better understand the sources of the most common biases, a literature review about the demographic characteristics of the applicant and interviewer is presented here.

2.4.1 Age Bias

The literature suggests that although there are different explanations for the age bias, it does exist and it can distort the selection decisions of the interviewers. In the current study the effect of age was controlled.

Singer & Sewell (1989) showed in their experimental study that even managers with hiring experience were subject to age biased decisions. This finding is relevant to the current study as the experimental method was used and students with no hiring experience constituted the sample.

Finkelstein et al. (1995) demonstrated in their meta-analysis that the age biases can be categorized under the in-group favoritism biases. Although they did not successfully find support for their hypothesis that the aged interviewers favored the aged candidates, they asserted that young interviewers favored the young applicants in selection interviews. Lee and Clemons (1985) showed that the aged workers were preferred when there was information indicating that both aged and young workers performed equally well. However, an early study by Haefner (1977) also showed that younger applicants were preferred over the aged ones.

2.4.2 Gender Bias

Another commonly encountered bias in the selection interviews is the gender bias. Recruiters may favor a specific gender for a specific job or they may always favor a gender for all jobs (e.g. Graves & Powell, 1995). Although the literature suggests that there is no consensus about when and how the gender bias occur, the current study controlled the effect of gender.

Nieva et al. (1980) found that male interviewers mainly favored male candidates. Contrary to their expectations, Graves & Powell (1995) found that sex similarity had a significant negative effect on the decision processes of the female recruiters. Female recruiters found male candidates more similar to themselves and this created a biased judgment. The authors explained this counterintuitive result by the social identity theory. According to the social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979 cited in Ashforth & Mayer, 1989), people have social identities based on some classifications such as occupation, gender, age so on. When a classification that the person belongs to is perceived to be of lower status, the person may try to distance him/herself from the people belonging to this class (Ashforth & Mayer, 1989). Because men in work life continue to outnumber women and the effect of glass ceiling does not disappear, many women may feel like a member of a lower social group, and this, in turn, may create such a reaction by female recruiters. Another explanation for gender biased decisions is attributed to the schemas of the people. The schemas are established through life experiences (Perry et al. 1994). Perry et al.

(1994) proposed that if a job or an applicant pool primarily includes one gender, recruiters will more likely use their gender-associated schemas and make biased decisions. Many studies suggest that gender bias affect selection decisions. But there are also some studies showing that under some circumstances, gender bias may not appear. A recent study by Sacco et al. (2003) showed that gender and race similarities did not play significant role in the decisions made in the structured interviews. Graves & Powell (1988) also demonstrated that evaluators were not subject to gender bias in on-campus interviews. Another study carried out in a real-life setting with real candidates showed that female candidates were given higher ratings than male candidates for intelligence, attractiveness, and skills. In spite of the ratings, the outcomes showed that the hirability of female and male applicants did not significantly differ from each other (Raza & Carpenter, 1987). An early qualitative review by Tosi & Einbender (1985) focused on the interaction between the amount of information about the candidate and the candidate's gender. They concluded that recruiters usually made gender biased decisions favoring the male candidates when there was not enough information about the female candidates. Conversely, Hitt & Barr (1989) found that even when the selectors were given job-relevant information, gender bias occurred in the managerial selections: the selectors rated women lower than men.

2.4.3 Attractiveness Bias

There are many studies supporting that experienced professionals are susceptible to attractiveness bias as much as college students in the selection decisions (e.g. Dipboye et al., 1975; Hosoda et al., 2003; Jawahar & Mattsson, 2005; Marlowe et al., 1996). The effect of attractiveness was controlled in the current study by using the same actor for each candidate. Shannon & Stark (2003) found that although interviewers were affected by the attractiveness of the applicants in their evaluations, it did not affect their final decisions. They also tested the effect of beardedness on the selection decisions and found no significant effect on the final selection decision (Shannon & Stark, 2003). Luxen & Van DeVijver (2006) studied the effect of facial attractiveness on the selection decisions. Even with the experienced HR personnel, they found that the selectors rated attractive opposite-sex candidates higher than less attractive candidates especially in situations where they would have a high contact with the candidate.

2.4.4 Bias against the Overweight

Pingitore et al. (1994) found that in a simulated employment interview, recruiters favored the normal weight applicants over the overweight applicants and gave them higher ratings. Among the obese, the recruiters rated male overweight applicants higher than female overweight applicants. In the current study, we did not use a candidate who was overweight.

2.4.5 Bias against the Disabled and Who Has Received a Special Treatment

Some researchers investigated whether disabled people were treated equally in selection interviews. They found that even when structured interviews were used, selectors tended not to use the inputs from the interviews for their last decisions about the disabled candidates (Miceli et al., 2001). Reilly et al. (2006) also showed that selectors tended not to favor the disabled candidates. They also demonstrated that prior cancer treatment was more acceptable than prior substance abuse or depression treatment. For the current study, we did not have a disabled candidate.

2.4.6 Race Bias

Another commonly studied area about the selection biases that the recruiters are subject to is pertinent to the race of the candidate. This type of bias does not seem to be as relevant for the Turkish culture as it is for less homogenous cultures. Although the effect of race was not taken into account for the current study, the literature on race bias is reviewed here as it is popular in more heterogeneous cultures.

Although many studies failed to show that minority applicants are discriminated against in selection interviews, studies continue to show that interviewers cannot avoid stereotyping attitudes. Haefner (1977) could not

demonstrate that race bias affected interviewers' hiring decisions. Lin et al. (1992) reported that race similarity bias was observed in black and Hispanic interviewers' decisions in conventional structured interviews but not in white interviewers' decisions. Prewett-Livingston et al. (1996) also found that interviewers rated the candidates of their race higher during panel interviews. Frazer & Wiersma (2001) showed in their experimental study that interviewers did not discriminate against minority applicants when giving hiring decisions but when they were asked to recall the answers of the applicants, the interviewers interestingly described black applicants' responses to be less intelligent, which clearly showed a stereotyping attitude.

De Meijer et al. (2007) investigated the amount of information the interviewers used when they were to rate applicants of different ethnic backgrounds. They demonstrated that ethnic majority selectors used as much as or more information when judging the ethnic minority applicants. Furthermore these selectors used more irrelevant information than they used for the ethnic majority applicants. Interestingly, selectors were found to be more cautious about giving a final decision regarding the ethnic minority applicants, thus they relied more on others' judgments than their own (De Meijer et al., 2007).

2.4.7 Clothing Bias

Although this bias is not very common, the effect of clothing was controlled in the current study by using the same actor with the same clothing for each candidate. The clothing of the applicant may also bias the decision of the selector. Forsythe et al. (1985) found in their study that women who had more masculine clothing were more preferred for managerial positions over women who had somewhat more feminine clothing.

2.4.8 Application Blank Bias

Information provided by the applicants on the application blanks may also create biases on the interviewer. A rating error that the recruiters fall into is relying too much on the paper credentials of the applicant and rating this person's interview performance based on his/her qualifications on the application blank not on his/her actual performance (Dipboye et al., 1984). Despite this finding, it is suggested in the current study that interviewers' interpersonal impression may override the information on the application blank. Dipboye (1982) argued that it might be hard for the recruiters to avoid forming an initial impression about the candidate in the beginning of the interview. Dipboye (1982) further asserted that forming an early impression might cause a self-fulfilling prophecy effect thus a biased judgment. In fact, Judice & Neuberg (1998) found that interviewers formed a goal before the interview as a result of the impression they received from the pre-interview

information about the candidate. The goals of the interviewers greatly affected their attitudes during the interview and their decisions about the candidates (Judice & Neuberg, 1998). They found that accuracy-motivated interviewers asked more questions to the negative expectation candidates and the confirmation-goal interviewers asked few questions to the same candidates during the interview. Norsdtrom (1996) also found that interviewers' pre-interview ratings that were based on the paper credentials were highly correlated with their post-interview ratings. Contrary to her expectations, the participants who were told to maintain a high-self regulation by acting like the interviewer were less able to change their first impressions and use the information from the interview than the participants who were told to maintain a low-self regulation by acting like the observer (Norsdtrom, 1996). It is interesting to note that, experienced recruiters were as biased as the inexperienced students in terms of being influenced by the pre-interview impressions they formed (Macan & Dipboye, 1990).

Stone & Stone (1987) focused on the effect of the missing information about whether the applicant had been convicted on the application blank on the selection decision. They found that candidates who wanted to keep this information private were considered less suitable for the job.

Certain contexts may also trigger the emergence of biases.

2.4.9 Job Type

When applicants apply for job roles for which the conventional sex-orientation is incongruent with their gender, biases occur (Cohen & Bunker, 1975). The same incident may occur for jobs that are perceived to be more suitable for certain age groups. For this reason many researchers focused on the combination of different factors about the applicants and/or the selectors and the job type and/or the condition of the labor market. This third type of research generally combines the characteristics of the applicants and/or the job type and/or the conditions of the labor market and/or the personality of the selectors. The effect of job type was controlled in the current study.

An early research by Cohen & Bunker (1975) showed that women were favored for female-sex-type jobs and men were favored for male-sex-type jobs. McRae (1994) focused on the interaction between the sex of the applicant, sex of the selector and the job sex type. According to her research, black managers preferred black male candidates for management roles over black female candidates. They explained this finding by stating that because management positions were considered as male-typed jobs, males were preferred for these roles. For both male and female managers, women were more accepted in male-sex-typed jobs than men were accepted in female-sex-typed jobs (McRae, 1994). Jawahar & Mattsson (2005) researched the interaction between attractiveness and sex of the applicant, sex-type of the job and the self-monitor level of the selector. They reported that attractive

candidates were more preferred for the other sex-type job than the less attractive candidates (Jawahar & Mattsson, 2005).

Perry et al. (1996) found support that interviewers favored the younger applicants for young-typed jobs but they did not necessarily favor the older applicants for old-typed jobs.

Huffcutt & Roth (1998) found in their meta-analysis that interviewers were more prone to race biases when the job was a low-complexity one. Their explanation was based on the requirements of the high-complexity jobs and the low number of minority applicants for those roles. They also suggested that there were more group differences between the ratings given for the white and black applicants when the percent of a minority in the applicant pool was high. When there were not many minorities in an applicant pool, these applicants became important, and interviewers could be more cautious with them to avoid any legal complication or to avoid the pressures to keep a diverse working environment (Huffcutt & Roth, 1998).

2.4.10 Temporal Placement of the Information

This stream of research suggests that an interviewer's judgment may be influenced by the conditions under which the information about the applicant is provided as well as the order of the information independent of the characteristics of the interviewer and the applicant i.e. contrast effect, recency effect, order effect. (e.g.,

Hakel et al., 1970; Landy & Bates, 1973; London & Poplawski, 1976; Wexley et al., 1972).

However, there seem to be inconsistencies about whether primacy or recency effect is more likely to occur (Highhouse & Gallo, 1997). Actually in Hogarth & Einhorn's (1992) review of the order effects in different decision-making situations besides personnel decisions also showed that there is no consensus about which effect is more prevalent than the other one.

Belec & Rowe (1983) demonstrated that the order of the same information could affect the decisions of the interviewers. According to their research, interviewers made more internal attributions to the successes of the applicant and more external attributions to the failures of the applicant when the information was presented in the negative-positive sequence. These interviewers were more likely to hire the applicants when the information was provided in the negative-positive sequence showing a recency effect (Belec & Rowe, 1983). In the current study, a juxtaposition of information was provided to the sample and the negativity/positivity sequence changed randomly based on the candidate the participants evaluated.

The last stream of research focuses on the interviewer as a source of bias independent of the characteristics of the candidate. Although below mentioned factors were not controlled in the current study, commonly encountered interview related biases were reviewed.

2.4.11 Mood Bias

Graves (1993) argues that the mood of a recruiter may affect and bias his/her judgment. She further claims that interviewers with positive moods would rate the candidates more positively and interviewers with negative moods would rate the candidates more negatively. In fact, one study demonstrated that when the moods of the recruiters were experimentally provoked, their selection decisions were also affected (Baron, 1987). Baron (1987) showed that the interviewers who had a more positive mood, asked additional questions, whereas the interviewers who had more of a negative mood did not.

2.4.12 Conservative Bias

Motowidlo (1986; cited in Jagacinski, 1991) claimed that interviewers in general, tended to overemphasize the negative information. Conservative bias occurs when the interviewers are overly sensitive to any negative information about the candidate but are not sensitive to positive information (Motowidlo, 1986; cited in Jagacinski, 1991).

2.4.13 Halo Effect

The halo effect seems to be inevitable in the selection decisions of the interviewers (Nieva, Perkins & Lawler, 1980). Nieva et al. (1980) observed that the

interviewers' ratings given for different characteristics of the candidates were highly correlated. Keenan (1977) found that in graduate selection interviews, personal liking correlated (r= .51) with the overall ratings about the candidate. Similarly, Anderson & Shackleton (1990) found that personal liking in graduate selection interviews correlated with the overall personality attributes also suggesting a halo effect.

2.4.14 Interviewer's Gender Bias

Raza & Carpenter (1987) demonstrated that female interviewers gave higher specific ratings and higher hiring recommendations than males. Belec & Rowe (1983) found that female interviewers made more internal attributions about the past events to the applicants, whereas male interviewers made more external attributions, which resulted in higher ratings by the female interviewers.

In summary, there are various types of biases that can affect the hiring decisions of the interviewers. In the current study, the effects of candidate's age, gender, race, physical attractiveness, clothing, weight, disability; job type and the order of the information were controlled. These characteristics were kept constant for each candidate. No characteristic that could have created an additional type of bias was attached to the candidates such as being overweight, disabled, attractive and so on. The effect of job type was controlled by presenting the same job type that could have not created any additional bias (e.g, female-typed job for a male candidate). In order to control the effect of temporal placement of information about the candidate,

negativity/positivity sequence changed randomly based on the candidate the participants evaluated.

Chapter 3

METHOD

3.1 Participants

The researcher recruited 176 undergraduate students from different departments taking psychology and sociology classes at Koç University who volunteered to participate in the study, in exchange for credit toward their final grade.

The sample consisted of 76 male and 100 female respondents, with a mean age of 20.77 years (SD=1.926). Out of 176 respondents, 55 students were in the school of social sciences and humanities, 54 students were in the school of administrative sciences and economics, 43 students were in the college of engineering, 4 students were in the school of science, 20 students were in the law school. The percentage of the students who had scholarship was 30.7 and the percentage of the students who had no scholarship was 69.3. Fifty point one percent of the respondents had previous job or internship experience; forty eight point nine percent had no previous job or internship experience.

3.2 Procedure and Instruments

Participants were invited to the experiment in groups of 10 to 20 in the classrooms of Koç University. Each participant received an envelope including the

experiment materials. They were briefly informed about the study. The participants were told when and which document to take out of the envelope and fill out. The experiment consisted of three parts. In the first part, they were told to take out the two résumés of two fictitious candidates applying for a civil engineering position. They were also asked to carefully read the company information and position description. They were asked to rate only one of the candidates which was selected randomly by the experimenter on a five point scale. In the second part, the participants were shown the interview video of the candidate whose résumé they rated from the screen projected onto the board. Before the video, the participants were informed that the candidate and the interviewer roles were played by professional actors who they could possibly recognize from different TV series or plays on theatre, in order to prevent the participants to be distracted by thinking how they could know the actors. After the video, the participants were asked to take out the document titled "A" in which they were to make a hiring decision based on all the information they had about the candidate (See Appendix A). They were asked whether they would hire the candidate or not on a yes/no scale. They were also asked to indicate the extent to which the résumé and the interview of the candidate effected their hiring decision by putting percentages for each. After the hiring decision, they took out the sheet titled "B" which was the manipulation check for the video (See Appendix B). They rated the candidate using different adjectives based on the information that was provided in the interview. In the third part, they filled out the sheet "C" that consisted of value and personality surveys and demographic questions (See Appendix C).

3.2.1 Job Post

A civil engineering job post was created by the researcher (See Appendix D). There are two reasons for selecting civil engineering position for this experiment. First of all, there is no civil engineering major in Koç University, therefore the students who would have participated in the study would not be biased against this major. Secondly and more importantly, people do not seem to have salient stereotypes of the civil engineers in general, in terms of their physical appearance or personality. Although this may not hold true for everybody, it was thought this role would be more neutral than that of a salesperson, computer engineer, teacher or marketing executive. The technical competencies required in the job post were compiled from different civil engineering position ads posted on www.kariyer.net.

3.2.2 Résumés

Résumés of two fictitious candidates applying for the civil engineering job post were created by the researcher (See Appendix E). Both résumés included same amount of experience and similar military service information. The first résumé namely, Cem's résumé described an average candidate in terms of technical competencies. It included only local company experiences, marketing work experience besides civil engineering, education from mediocre schools, and moderate foreign language knowledge. Conversely, the second résumé namely, Engin's résumé was a very good one, describing a bright candidate with high performance. It included

international work experience, graduation from the top Turkish schools, advanced foreign language skills. The technical information in the résumés was taken from real candidates' résumés from different civil engineering career websites such as www.serki.com and www.yapirehberi.net to assure the genuineness.

The participants were given two résumés because of mainly two reasons. As the sample consisted of students, they would not have had extensive job experience. Therefore, it was intended to provide them with more than one civil engineer profile. Another reason is that, the recruiters generally see résumés of different candidates before inviting candidates for an interview.

3.2.2.1 Manipulation Check for the Résumés

In a pilot study, first (moderate) résumé was given to 16 people to evaluate it on a 5 point scale, ranging from *this résumé is very suitable for this role (5)* to *this résumé is not suitable for this role at all (1)*. The average rating was 3.9, SD= 0.8. The mean was found to be higher than the targeted mean of around 3, so the résumé was rewritten. The name of the university was changed from Çukurova University which is in Adana, to Erciyes University which is in Kayseri, it was thought this university would be less familiar to the subjects. English language knowledge was changed from moderate to beginner level. Playing soccer was added to the leisure activities section, thinking that a very common sport played by most Turkish men would create an impression that the candidate is just like many Turkish men but not

original. The résumé was given to another 10 people to be evaluated on a 5 point scale. The average rating dropped to 3.3, SD= 0.7. The second (better) résumé was given to 16 people to be evaluated for the same job post and the average rating was 4.4, SD= 0.5 on a 5 point scale.

3.2.3 Interviews

The interviews of the candidates were created to portray the values and personality of the candidates. The researcher wrote two interview scenarios for the two candidates. Cem's interview intended to create the impression that he was a traditional, relationship-oriented, honest, friendly, courteous person. Engin's interview intended to create the impression that he was an individualistic, performance-oriented, casual, self-confident, and ambitious person. The interview scenarios were read by two different people. These people described the two candidates with adjectives. The adjectives for the two candidates were in the expected way.

Two professional actors were recruited by the researcher. One actor played the candidates', the other actor played interviewer's role. In order to reduce the effects of physical appearance the same actor played both candidates. The actor who played the candidate had no extreme physical characteristics that would have affected the subjects. The objective of the study was explained to the actors. After the practices, the interview videos were shot in a formal office at Koç University with the help of a

professional camera operator and editor. The length of the videos was approximately 5 minutes in both cases.

3.2.3.1 Manipulation Check for the Interviews (Pilot Study I)

In a pilot study, the interview video of Cem was shown to 13 subjects and the interview video of Engin was shown to another 12 subjects. The subjects were given evaluation forms. They were asked to evaluate the candidate they watched, on items taken and/or modified from Conformity, Tradition, Benevolence, Achievement, Power items from Schwartz's Value Survey (SVS) Ten Individual Level Values Scale on a 6 point scale ranging from *the candidate reflects this aspect very much (5)* to *the candidate does not reflect this aspect at all (1)* and *(0)* representing *it is not clear whether this aspect is observable in the candidate.*

Table 3.1

Interview evaluation scores for the candidates- pilot study I

Items				
	Candidate	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Ambitious	Cem	12	2.67	1.231
	Engin	12	4.25	.754
2. Influential on people and events	Cem	13	2.15	1.281
	Engin	8	2.38	.916
3. Competitive	Cem	12	1.33	.492
	Engin	11	4.45	.522

Note. N's are different for each item because 0's were omitted. Cem is the candidate whose résumé was mediocre; Engin is the candidate whose résumé was good.

Table 3.1 (cont'd)

Items				
	Candidate	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
4. Placing importance on success	Cem	13	3.38	1.261
	Engin	12	4.00	.603
5. Placing importance on social power	Cem	13	3.15	1.214
	Engin	11	3.91	.701
6. Placing importance on wealth	Cem	9	1.33	.707
	Engin	12	4.83	.389
7. Placing importance on authority	Cem	10	1.60	1.350
	Engin	12	3.67	.651
8. Preserving his public image	Cem	9	3.00	1.500
	Engin	8	2.88	.991
9. Polite	Cem	13	4.46	.776
	Engin	11	2.18	.751
10. Self-disciplined	Cem	11	3.36	1.286
	Engin	12	1.67	.651
11. Honoring parents and elders	Cem	3	1.00	.000
	Engin	3	1.67	.577
12. Obedient	Cem	12	3.92	1.084
	Engin	8	3.12	1.126
13. Having a decent personality	Cem	12	4.67	.651
	Engin	11	1.91	.701
14. Respectful towards traditions	Cem	3	1.67	1.155
	Engin	4	1.75	.500
15. Humble	Cem	12	3.33	1.303
	Engin	8	2.12	1.126

Note. N's are different for each item because 0's were omitted. Cem is the candidate whose résumé was mediocre; Engin is the candidate whose résumé was good.

Table 3.1 (cont'd)

Items				
	Candidate	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
16. Modest	Cem	12	3.17	1.467
	Engin	12	1.17	.389
17. Accepting his portion in life	Cem	11	1.64	1.286
	Engin	9	1.33	.500
18. Religiously devout	Cem	2	1.00	.000
	Engin	1	1.00	.
19. Loyal	Cem	11	4.36	.674
	Engin	8	1.50	.535
20. Honest	Cem	13	3.46	1.330
	Engin	11	2.36	1.286
21. Helpful	Cem	9	3.33	1.225
	Engin	6	1.83	.753
22. Responsible, reliable	Cem	12	4.08	1.165
	Engin	12	2.75	.866
23. Forgiving	Cem	7	1.71	.756
	Engin	3	1.67	.577

Note. N's are different for each item because 0's were omitted. Cem is the candidate whose résumé was mediocre; Engin is the candidate whose résumé was good.

After the first evaluation of the manipulation check, it was thought that the manipulation check for the interview should include fewer items in the main experiment, because some items were found unrelated to the topic, as they were given *(0)* point. Furthermore having too many items could create overload of information. Thus, only 11 items were kept for the real experiment. The subjects rated how much they thought the candidate they saw in the video was a person who gives importance

to ambition, competition, success, wealth, self-discipline, politeness, obedience, having a decent personality, humbleness, modesty, loyalty, on a 6 point scale ranging from *the candidate reflects this aspect very much (5)* to *the candidate does not reflect this aspect at all (1)* and *(0)* representing *it is not clear whether this aspect is observable in the candidate.*

3.2.4 Pilot study II

The second pilot study was carried out to see whether there were significant differences between the résumés and the interview videos of the two candidates in the real experimental conditions. Forty two participants were recruited and administered the experiment in 4 sessions. Twenty five of the forty two respondents were recruited through the university's experiment management system. Respondents participated in the study by groups of 10 to 15. The rest 17 students participated in the study in a psychology lesson with the encouragement of their professor. Respondents were randomly assigned to groups where they were asked to evaluate Cem or Engin. Two groups of respondents were administered all the sections of the experiment including the values and personality survey section whereas the last two groups of respondents were only administered the résumé and interview evaluation sections. The mean rating for Cem's résumé was found 2.63 (SD=.597). The mean rating for Engin's résumé was found 4.52 (SD=.511) out of 5. Independent samples t-test analysis showed that there was a significant (p= .000) difference between the ratings given to two candidates' résumés. Independent samples t-test analyses were also run to see

whether there were significant differences in the ratings for the adjectives to describe the candidates in the interviews.

Table 3.2

Interview evaluation scores & independent samples t-tests analyses- pilot study II

Items	Candidate	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t value
1. Ambitious	Cem	19	2.37	1.212	-8.229*
	Engin	23	4.70	.559	
2. Competitive	Cem	18	1.94	.998	-9.389*
	Engin	23	4.48	.730	
3. Placing importance on success	Cem	19	3.21	.976	-4.236*
	Engin	23	4.26	.619	
4. Placing importance on wealth	Cem	12	2.00	.853	-12.034*
	Engin	23	4.78	.518	
5. Self-disciplined	Cem	16	3.56	.814	1.326
	Engin	17	3.06	1.298	
6. Polite	Cem	19	4.26	.562	9.967*
	Engin	23	2.04	.825	
7. Obedient	Cem	19	3.89	.459	3.736*
	Engin	18	3.17	.707	
8. Having a decent personality	Cem	19	4.53	.513	13.718*
	Engin	23	1.78	.736	
9. Humble	Cem	18	3.28	1.074	4.649*
	Engin	20	1.85	.813	
10. Modest	Cem	19	3.32	1.250	7.765*
	Engin	19	1.05	.229	
11. Loyal	Cem	19	4.16	.602	13.584*
	Engin	16	1.56	.512	

Note. N's are different for each item because 0's were omitted. Cem is the candidate whose résumé was mediocre, Engin is the candidate whose résumé was good, *p < .001.

Analyses showed that there were significant differences between the ambition, competition, success, wealth, politeness, obedience, having a decent personality, humbleness, modesty, loyalty scores of the candidates. However, there was no significant different between the candidates' self-discipline scores. As the pilot study was carried out only with 42 participants, this item was kept for the main study.

3.2.5 Hiring Decision Question

After the participants rated the résumé and watched the video of the candidate, they were asked whether they would hire the candidate or not. This question was a yes/no question, because in real life, recruiters have to decide whether to hire or not to hire a candidate. The participants were also asked to state percentage-wise how much they were affected by the résumé and by the interview when making this decision. The *yes (1)* or *no (2)* answers they gave were used as the dependent variable.

3.2.6 Values, Personality and Cognitive Style Scales

In order to measure performance-orientation and collectivism/individualism values, Schwartz's Values Questionnaire was employed because of theoretical reasons as well as for the lack of an exact measurement for performance-orientation in the literature. Schwartz's theoretical framework is theoretically more refined than individualism/collectivism. Voronov & Singer (2002) claimed that "the most

devastating blow to the typical classification of countries along I-C dimension was derived by Schwartz (1994)" (p. 465). Since Schwartz's value structure captures performance orientation and individualism-collectivism dimensions with different values, this theoretical framework was used for the current study.

3.2.6.1 Schwartz's Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ)

The PVQ includes short verbal portraits of 40 different people, each describing a person's goals, aspirations, or wishes that point implicitly to the importance of a value (Schwartz et al., 2001). For example, "Thinking up new ideas and being creative is important to him. He likes to do things in his own original way" describes a person for whom self-direction values are important. "It is important to him to be rich. He wants to have a lot of money and expensive things" describes a person who cherishes power values (Schwartz et al., 2001). For each portrait, respondents indicate how similar the person is to themselves on a scale ranging from *(6) "very much like me"* to *(1) "not like me at all."* It is inferred from the respondents' own values from the implicit values of the people they consider similar to themselves (Schwartz et al., 2001). The values are conformity, tradition, benevolence, universalism, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power and security. Studies in seven countries supported the reliability of the PVQ for measuring the 10 values (Schwartz, 2005b) cited in Caprara et al., 2006). Multimethod-multitrait analyses in Germany, Israel, and Ukraine compared measurement of the 10 values using the PVQ and with an earlier instrument that was

validated across 70 countries. These analyses confirmed the convergent and discriminant validity of the 10 values measured by the PVQ (Caprara et al., 2006). The scale was adapted to Turkish by Demirutku (2007) in his doctoral dissertation. Internal reliabilities ranged from .63 to .84 and test-retest reliabilities ranged from .65 to .82 for different items (Demirutku, 2007). Smallest Space Analysis (SSA) was employed to test 10 domain model and it showed construct validity for the Turkish student sample used (Demirutku, 2007). Demirutku (2007) noted that one divergence from the theoretical framework was the merge of Tradition and Conformity values that were adjacent to each other.

In the current study, achievement and power constructs were used to measure performance orientation. Benevolence, tradition and conformity values were used to measure individualism/collectivism dimension, as these were thought to represent the performance-orientation and individualism/collectivism dimensions the best. The alpha reliability coefficients were .79 for achievement scale, .70 for power scale, .67 for conformity scale, .58 for benevolence scale and .57 for tradition scale.

3.2.6.2 Extraversion Scale

This 5 item scale is a scale that is part of Goldberg's (1999) Big Five Inventory (Rubin et al., 2005). The scale utilizes a five-point Likert scale ranging from *(1) "not at all descriptive of me"* to *(5) "very descriptive of me"*. Higher scores on the scale indicate higher extraversion. First two items are reverse-scored. Sample

items include “I don’t like to draw attention to myself” and “I start conversations”. Goldberg (1999) cited in Rubin et al. (2005) reported average scale reliability between .75 and .85 and a correlation of 0.94 with NEO-PI-R. The scale was translated into Turkish by the present researcher. For the current study, the scale had an internal consistency of .78.

3.2.6.3 Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS)

The SMS was developed by Snyder and Gangestad (1986) and translated into Turkish by the present researcher. The scale is used to assess self-monitoring. The 18-item version of the SMS is presented in a true-false format. Sample items include: “I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others,” and “I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations” (Kumru & Thompson, 2003). There is a key for the scoring of the scale. Statements 4, 5, 6, 8, 12, 17, 18 are the true statements. High self-monitoring individuals tend to answer in the keyed direction, however low-self monitoring individuals tend to answer in the alternative. The scale has an internal consistency of .70. The factor analytic investigation yielded three factors (Snyder and Gangestad, 1986). For the current study, the scale had a reliability of .67, when 2 items (item no 10 and 16) were deleted the internal consistency was raised to .71.

3.2.6.4 Rational-Experiential Inventory (REI)

Rational thinking system was measured by the REI. The short version of REI was a 10-item inventory that measured analytic-rational and intuitive experiential thinking and was developed by Epstein et al. (1996). The REI consisted of two unipolar scales: The first scale measured rational thinking and was called "Need for Cognition scale" (NFC) (Epstein et al., 1996). This scale included 5 items constructed from a pool of items from the original Need for Cognition scale (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982). NFC scale included items such as; "I would rather do something that requires little thought than something that is sure to challenge my thinking abilities". Items 1, 2 and 5 were reverse-scored. Higher scores indicated a higher need for cognition. The other scale was called "Faith in Intuition scale" (FI) and it measured experiential thinking (Epstein et al., 1996). It also included 5 items such as "My initial impressions of people are almost always right". Higher scores indicated a higher faith in intuition. The responses to the statements of both scales ranged from *extremely false (1)* to *extremely true (5)* with *neither true nor false (3)* as the midpoint. Factor analyses for REI showed that two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 emerged, accounting for 48.2% of the variance (Epstein et al., 1996). All of the NFC items loaded highly on the first factor, which accounted for 26.3% of the variance and the second factor contained all of the FI items and accounted for 21.9% of the variance (Epstein et al., 1996). The authors found the internal consistency coefficients of the 5-item versions of the NFC and FI scales as .73 and .72, respectively. The original NFC

scale was translated and adapted to Turkish by Gülgöz & Sadowski (1995) (Gönenç, 2002). The Turkish name is Kısa Düşünme İhtiyacı Ölçeği. However, as the authors of REI made some changes in the NFC scale for clarity, the present researcher translated the NFC scale with the help of the Kısa Düşünme İhtiyacı Ölçeği. FI scale was also translated to Turkish by the present researcher. Higher scores on the REI scale indicate experiential thinking style in the current study. For the current study, Cronbach's Alpha was .79 for NFC scale and .82 for FI scale. As it was a bipolar scale, the reliability coefficient was calculated for the whole REI scale as well and it was found .61.

3.2.6.5 Demographic Questions

Questions about the participants' gender, age, class, department, scholarship status and job or internship experience were asked.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

The goal of the present study was to investigate the relationship of values, personality characteristics and cognitive style of the participants with personal liking bias in selection decisions. In order to test the personal liking bias, the researcher manipulated the information about the candidates' résumés and interviews.

As manipulation checks, independent samples t-tests were conducted to compare the résumés and the interviews.

It was found that résumés were significantly different from each other ($t = -13.124$, $p < .000$). The mean rating for technically mediocre candidate (Cem)'s résumé was 2.82 (SD= 0.82) and technically competent candidate (Engin)'s résumé was 4.43 (SD= 0.80) out of 5. Independent samples t-tests also showed significant differences for the items selected to represent each candidate's characteristics in the interviews (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1

Interview evaluation scores & independent samples t-test analyses- main study

Items	Candidate	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t value
1. Ambitious	Cem	85	2.60	1.236	-9.884*
	Engin	79	4.30	.939	
2. Competitive	Cem	85	2.15	1.129	-12.004*
	Engin	76	4.20	1.020	
3. Placing importance on success	Cem	95	3.72	.942	-3.265*
	Engin	79	4.14	.729	
4. Placing importance on wealth	Cem	69	2.06	1.149	-16.149*
	Engin	77	4.64	.759	
5. Self-disciplined	Cem	83	3.52	1.075	3.427*
	Engin	61	2.85	1.249	
6. Polite	Cem	96	4.10	.876	10.846*
	Engin	76	2.39	1.190	
7. Obedient	Cem	89	4.03	.845	5.904*
	Engin	66	3.18	.943	
8. Having a decent personality	Cem	95	4.27	.950	12.333*
	Engin	76	2.24	1.210	
9. Humble	Cem	92	3.54	1.143	9.178*
	Engin	75	2.00	1.000	
10. Modest	Cem	95	3.19	1.282	10.602*
	Engin	69	1.32	.831	
11. Loyal	Cem	91	4.10	1.202	11.103*
	Engin	55	1.82	1.203	

Note. N's are different for each item because 0's were omitted. Cem is the candidate whose résumé was mediocre, Engin is the candidate whose résumé was good, * $p < .005$.

Despite the low score assigned to the résumé, 48.5% of the participants decided to hire Cem and 51.5% of the participants decided not to hire him. On the other hand, despite the low score assigned to the interview, 21.5% of the participants decided to hire Engin and 78.5% of the participants decided not to hire him.

Personal liking bias occurred when the participants decided to hire the technically mediocre candidate and not to hire the technically competent candidate. Decision to hire the candidate *(1)* and not to hire the candidate *(2)* was used as the dependent variable.

The first hypothesis suggested an association between personal liking bias and low performance-orientation. Personal liking bias was expected to occur in the decisions of the participants scoring low on achievement and power. In order to test this hypothesis Logistic Regression Analysis was run. There was a significant relationship between achievement and the decision to hire the candidate whose technical competencies were good (Engin) (B= -2.056, p= .006). There was no significant relationship between achievement and the decision not to hire the candidate whose technical competencies were average (Cem).

Although it was not hypothesized, as an exploratory analysis we also looked at the percentages the participants gave to the interview for Engin's case. For the significant case we assumed that the hiring decision would be influenced by the percentage given to the weight of the interview.

In order to see this, we performed median-split on the data. We divided the participants into two groups: those who scored lower than the median and those who scored higher than the median. The first group was named low achievement and the second group was named high achievement group. We anticipated that high achievement participants who decided to hire Engin would have given the lowest percentage to the weight of the interview. We also anticipated that low achievement participants who decided not to hire Engin would have given the highest percentage to the weight of the interview. One-way analysis of variance showed that the four groups were significantly different from one another ($F= 27.361$, $p<.001$). Post-hoc analyses using Tukey's HSD formula were conducted to compare the interview percentages of the four groups. We found that there was not any difference between low and high achievement groups. As can be seen from Table 4.2 percentages with similar superscripts are similar to each other.

Table 4.2

Means of percentages given to the interview weight for those who evaluated technically competent candidate (Engin)

	Achievement value	
Decision	Low achievement	High achievement
Hire	Interview: 37 [a] % N= 5	Interview: 30.8 [a] % N= 12
Not hire	Interview: 78.5 [b] % N= 34	Interview: 83 [b] % N= 28

As the second component of the first hypothesis, we found a significant relationship between power and the decision to hire the candidate whose technical competencies were mediocre (Cem) (B=-.804, p= .014). This finding was not in the expected direction. There was not any significant relationship for the technically competent candidate's case.

Since the relationship was significant for Cem's case, as an exploratory analysis we also looked at the percentages the participants gave to the weight of the interview for Cem's case. For the significant case we assumed that the hiring decision would be influenced by the percentage given to the weight of the interview. In order to see this, we again performed median-split on the data. We divided the participants into two groups: those who scored lower than the median and those who scored higher than the median. The first group was named low power and the second group was named high power group. We anticipated that high power participants who decided not to hire Cem would have given the lowest percentage to the weight of the interview. We also anticipated that low power participants who decided to hire Cem would have given the highest percentage to the weight of the interview. One-way analysis of variance showed that the four groups were significantly different from one another (F= 11.189, p<.001). Post-hoc analyses using Tukey's HSD formula were conducted to compare the interview percentages of the four groups. We found that there was not any difference between low and high power groups. As can be seen from Table 4.3 percentages with similar superscripts are similar to each other.

Table 4.3

Means of percentages given to the interview weight for those who evaluated technically mediocre candidate (Cem)

	Power value	
Decision	Low power	High power
Hire	Interview: 65.6 [a] % N= 18	Interview: 67.8 [a] % N= 29
Not hire	Interview: 45.8 [b] % N= 26	Interview: 41.7 [b] % N= 24

To sum, there was a significant association between personal liking bias and achievement value only for the technically competent candidate (Engin)'s case and a significant association between personal liking bias and power value only for the technically mediocre candidate (Cem)'s case. In addition, the latter association was not in the expected direction. Therefore the data partially supported the first hypothesis.

The second hypothesis suggested an association between personal liking bias and high collectivism. Personal liking bias was expected to occur in the decisions of the participants scoring high on tradition, conformity and benevolence values. Logistic regression analyses showed significant relationship between tradition and decision to hire Cem (B=-.899, p= .016) and Engin (B=-1.527, p= .012).

The association between tradition and personal liking bias was not in the expected direction for Cem's case.

Although it was not hypothesized, as an exploratory analysis the percentages the participants gave to the weight of the interview were explored for both cases. We assumed that the hiring decision would be influenced by the percentage given to the weight of the interview. In order to see this, we again performed median-split on the data. We divided the participants into two groups: those who scored lower than the median and those who scored higher than the median. The first group was named low tradition and the second group was named high tradition group. We anticipated that high tradition participants who decided to hire Cem would have given the highest percentage to the interview. We also anticipated that low tradition participants who decided not to hire Cem would have given the lowest percentage to the interview. One-way analysis of variance showed that the four groups were significantly different from one another ($F= 12.975$, $p<.001$). We also conducted post-hoc analyses using Tukey's HSD formula to compare the interview percentages of the four groups. We found that there was not any difference between low and high tradition groups. As can be seen from Table 4.4 percentages with similar superscripts are similar to each other.

Table 4.4

Means of percentages given to the interview weight for those who evaluated technically mediocre candidate (Cem)

	Tradition value	
Decision	Low tradition	High tradition
Hire	Interview: 67.5 [a] % N= 22	Interview: 66.4 [a] % N= 25
Not hire	Interview: 42.3 [b] % N= 36	Interview: 47.9 [b] % N= 14

For Engin's case, we also anticipated that high tradition participants who decided not to hire Engin would have given the highest percentage to the interview and low tradition participants who decided to hire Engin would have given the lowest percentage to the interview. One-way analysis of variance showed that the four groups were significantly different from one another ($F= 32.207$, $p<.001$). We also conducted post-hoc analyses using Tukey's HSD formula to compare the interview percentages of the four groups. We found that there was not any difference between low and high tradition groups. As can be seen from Table 4.5 percentages with similar superscripts are similar to each other.

Table 4.5

Means of percentages given to the interview weight for those who evaluated technically competent candidate (Engin)

	Tradition value	
Decision	Low tradition	High tradition
Hire	Interview: 22.5 [a] % N= 6	Interview: 38.2 [a] % N= 11
Not hire	Interview: 80.8 [b] % N= 36	Interview: 80.2 [b] % N= 26

There was no significant relationship between conformity/benevolence and the decision to hire or not to hire. To sum, there was a significant association only between personal liking bias and tradition for each case, however it was not in the expected direction for Engin's case. Therefore, the data partially supported the second hypothesis.

The third hypothesis suggested an association between personal liking bias and high extraversion. Personal liking bias was expected to occur in the decisions of the participants high on extraversion. There was a significant relationship between extraversion and the decision to hire Cem (B=-.289, p=.024). There was not any significant relationship for the technically competent candidate's case.

Since the relationship was significant for Cem's case, as an exploratory analysis we also looked at the percentages the participants gave to the weight of the interview for Cem's case. For the significant case we assumed that the hiring decision would be influenced by the percentage given to the weight of the interview. In order

to see this, we again performed median-split on the data. We divided the participants into two groups: those who scored lower than the median and those who scored higher than the median. The first group was named low extraversion and the second group was named high extraversion group. We anticipated that high extraversion participants who decided to hire Cem would have given the highest percentage to the weight of the interview. We also anticipated that low extraversion participants who decided not to hire Cem would have given the lowest percentage to the weight of the interview. One-way analysis of variance showed that the four groups were significantly different from one another ($F= 11.494$, $p<.001$). We also conducted post-hoc analyses using Tukey's HSD formula to compare the interview percentages of the four groups. We found that there was not any difference between low and high extraversion groups. As can be seen from Table 4.6 percentages with similar superscripts are similar to each other.

Table 4.6

Means of percentages given to the interview weight for those who evaluated technically mediocre candidate (Cem)

	Extraversion attribute	
Decision	Low extraversion	High extraversion
Hire	Interview: 69.8 [a] % N= 28	Interview: 62.6 [a] % N= 19
Not hire	Interview: 44.4 [b] % N= 34	Interview: 43.6 [b] % N= 16

As there was not any significant finding about the technically competent candidate's case, it can be concluded that the data partially supported the third hypothesis.

The fourth hypothesis suggested an association between personal liking bias and high self-monitoring. Personal liking bias was expected to occur in the decisions of the participants high on self-monitoring. There was no significant relationship between self-monitoring and the decision to hire or not to hire either of the candidates. Thus, the data did not support the fourth hypothesis.

The fifth hypothesis suggested an association between personal liking bias and low rational thinking style. Personal liking bias was expected to occur in the decisions of the participants low on rational thinking style. There was a significant relationship between rational thinking style and the decision to hire Engin (B=-.221, p= .018).

Although it was not hypothesized, as an exploratory analysis we also looked at the percentages the participants gave to the weight of the interview for Engin's case. For the significant case we assumed that the hiring decision would be influenced by the percentage given to the weight of the interview. In order to see this, we performed median-split on the data. We divided the participants into two groups: those who scored lower than the median and those who scored higher than the median. The first group was named low rational thinking style and the second group was named high rational thinking style group. We anticipated that high rational thinking style participants who decided to hire Engin would have given the lowest

percentage to the weight of the interview. We also anticipated that low rational thinking style participants who decided not to hire Engin would have given the highest percentage to the weight of the interview. One-way analysis of variance showed that the four groups were significantly different from one another ($F= 26.801$, $p<.001$). We also conducted post-hoc analyses using Tukey's HSD formula to compare the interview percentages of the four groups. We found that there was not any difference between low and high rational thinking style groups. As can be seen from Table 4.7 percentages with similar superscripts are similar to each other.

Table 4.7

Means of percentages given to the interview weight for those who evaluated technically competent candidate (Engin)

Decision	Rational thinking style	
	Low rational thinking style	High rational thinking style
Hire	Interview: 32.8 [a] % N= 9	Interview: 32.5 [a] % N= 8
Not hire	Interview: 84.7 [b] % N= 19	Interview: 78.7 [b] % N= 43

Since there was not any significant finding about the technically mediocre candidate's case, it can be concluded that the data partially supported the fifth hypothesis.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

The present study aimed at contributing to the area of employee selection practices by suggesting that personal liking bias may influence the selection decisions of interviewers who possess certain values, personality characteristics and cognitive styles. In the current study, personal liking bias occurred when the participants decided to hire the technically mediocre candidate and not to hire the technically competent candidate. It was expected that participants who scored high on performance orientation and low on collectivism would be less prone to the personal liking bias. Additionally, participants who scored low on extraversion, low on self-monitoring and high on rational thinking style would be less prone to the personal liking bias. Overall, in the current study high performance orientation, low collectivism, low extraversion and high rational thinking style were partially associated with low personal liking bias.

5.1 Values

Performance orientation and individualism/collectivism were studied as values. Performance orientation was represented by self-enhancement dimension of Schwartz's theoretical model and it was measured by two separate constructs;

achievement and power. Achievement and power values were partially associated with personal liking bias.

Achievement was associated with low personal liking bias only in the technically competent candidate's case. Participants who scored high on achievement decided to hire the technically competent candidate. Those participants decided to hire the technically competent candidate almost certainly because of his good technical, job related competencies. This finding is also in line with what Aycan & Kanungo (2001) have proposed; cultures high on performance orientation would prefer selection criteria that are objective and based on job-related competencies.

However, power was associated with high personal liking bias only in the technically mediocre candidate's case. The reason of the unexpected finding may be due to the power construct that has been chosen to represent performance orientation value. Achievement was defined as "personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards" whereas power was defined as "social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources" by Schwartz et al. (2001, p. 521). According to this, achievement was probably a closer construct to the performance orientation value with its individual emphasis. However, definition of power seems to include more social ingredients such as social status and dominance over people. Participants who scored high on power thus who evaluated themselves as persons who can control people, might actually seek social resources to control people. Since the technically mediocre candidate was such a person himself,

possessing good interpersonal skills, the participants might have thought the candidate was good because of his exceptional interpersonal skills. This might have caused the hiring decision of high power participants for the technically mediocre candidate.

To conclude we can say that the current data partially supported the first hypothesis which postulated that low performance orientation would predict personal liking bias in selection decisions.

Collectivism/individualism (I/C) was measured through three constructs; tradition, conformity and benevolence (Schwartz et al., 2001). Low tradition was associated with high personal liking bias in the technically competent candidate's case and high tradition was associated with high personal liking bias in the technically mediocre candidate's case. Neither high conformity nor high benevolence constructs that were thought to represent collectivism (and individualism) were associated with personal liking bias.

In the technically mediocre candidate's case, participants who scored high on tradition decided to hire the candidate as expected. On the other hand, in the technically competent candidate's case, participants who scored high on tradition also decided to hire the candidate. Therefore, we can say that participants who scored high on tradition decided to hire the candidates they evaluted regardless of their competencies. These findings migth be interpreted as the following: it is possible that people who scored high on tradition and who may also be called as collectivists in

this context, did not want to reject the candidates. Given that collectivists make an effort to protect the interests of their in-group members as was pointed out by Hofstede (1984), in this scenario as well they may have tried to protect the candidates by deciding to hire them.

As for the conformity and benevolence constructs, the reason of the non significant finding might be that those values chosen from Schwartz's model did not represent I/C dimension well. Schwartz (1990) who attempted to refine the meaning of I/C suggested that self-enhancement and openness to change dimensions that include achievement and power constructs serve individualistic interests; whereas conservation and self-transcendence dimensions that include benevolence, tradition and conformity serve collective interests. When we chose tradition, conformity and benevolence for I/C dimension, we adapted the stimulus-response inventory model (Realo et al., 2002) by using the same items for collectivism and individualism. However, we might have overlooked the fact that individualists might be those who score high on the values that are in direct opposition of these three values in Schwartz's model. Those are hedonism and stimulation constructs which we did not take into account. In fact, there is still an ongoing debate among cross-cultural researchers about whether individualism and collectivism are the opposites of a single cultural dimension or different constructs with multiple dimensions (Li & Aksoy, 2007).

According to the conceptualization of Schwartz, the circular arrangement of the values represents a motivational continuum (Schwartz et al., 2001). The closer any two values in either direction around the circle, the more similar their underlying motivation (Schwartz et al., 2001). When we hypothesized that low performance orientation and/or high collectivism would be associated with personal liking bias, did we mean that performance orientation and collectivism were actually opposite to each other? We did not. In fact performance orientation and collectivism (individualism) values we chose are not in direct opposition with each other in Schwartz's model, except for benevolence. According to Schwartz's model, benevolence opposes achievement and power. In addition, Schwartz's model suggests that achievement and power values serve individualistic interests (Realo et al., 2002). Therefore, when we generated our value related hypotheses we partially hypothesized that collectivism opposes performance orientation, which may not be true. There are studies showing that performance orientation is not specific to individualists. The way individualists and collectivists perceive performance is just different. Yu & Yang (1994) argued that some cultures perceive achievement as an individual concept, and others perceive it as a societal concept, and that makes tradition and conformity essential for the latter group, but it doesn't mean that achievement is not essential for them.

To sum, this study showed that collectivism was partially associated with personal liking bias. However, we may not declare the same finding for individualism for the reasons above. If other multidimensional I/C measures had been used, the results could have been different.

5.2 Personality

Extraversion and self-monitoring traits were used as the personality characteristics.

Participants who scored high on extraversion decided to hire the technically mediocre candidate. In generating the hypothesis, we made inferences based on the findings in the literature that interviewers high on extraversion were more susceptible to impression management techniques and were more alert to the external cues in the environment (e.g. Lazar et al., 2004). In the technically mediocre candidate's case, extraverted participants were affected by the candidate's good interpersonal skills as expected. This candidate might have used IM techniques that worked on the extraverted participants. Studies in the literature call attention to the functionality of IM techniques that are used to impress people. However, for our technically competent candidate's case, the candidate did not try to impress the interviewer, on the contrary he was being himself or he was not making effort to impress the interviewer with the way he communicated with him. Our expectation in his case was that extraverted participants, being very receptive to the external cues in the environment, would have not liked the candidate because of his not-so-good communication style. Since there was not any significant relationship of extraversion with the hiring decision in the technically competent candidate's case, we can suggest that extraverted people might be more attentive to the positive information in the environment. Besides, there does not seem to be any study showing that extraverted

people are as alert to the negative information as they are to the positive information in the environment.

Since we found support only for the technically mediocre candidate's case, we can conclude that the data partially supported the hypothesis that extraversion is associated with personal liking bias.

The data did not support the hypothesis that self-monitoring was associated with personal liking bias. This hypothesis was generated based on the inferences derived from the previous findings that biases occurred in people high in self-monitoring. However, previous research have shown that people high in self-monitoring paid special attention to how the person looked (especially attractiveness) and were inclined to favor a specific gender group (e.g. Jawahar & Mattsson, 2005; Snyder et al., 1988). Because the effects of attractiveness and gender were controlled by the design of the present study, the usefulness of self-monitoring in predicting personal liking bias could be attuned. Another explanation is that a third variable may moderate the relationship between self-monitoring and personal liking bias. Moser and Galais (2007) found that job tenure moderates the relationship between self-monitoring and job performance. Although in the current study, job performance is not studied, making biased decisions might be considered as low job performance for interviewers. It is inevitable that biased decisions would result in a faulty selection and an indication of low performance for interviewers. Moser and Galais (2007) reported a positive correlation between self-monitoring and job performance when the

job incumbent has a low tenure. The rationale of their finding is that people with low tenure need to use impression management techniques in order to impress their customers. Their sample consisted of sales agents. On the other hand, people with high tenure or with more experience don't necessarily need to use impression management techniques to increase their performance. Although these researchers reported a positive relationship between self-monitoring and job performance for people with low tenure, in our case the tenure could have moderated this relationship if we had a different sample besides students (i.e. people with low tenure or less experience may use impression management techniques frequently to be alert to the cues in the environment thus being more vulnerable to the biases in the interviews). Furthermore, the format of the self-monitoring scale being true/false may have forced the participants to choose one of the two extreme ends and could have restricted the range.

5.3 Cognitive Style

Rational thinking style was studied as the cognitive style. In the technically competent candidate's case, low rational thinking style was associated with personal liking bias. However we did not find any significant relationship between rational thinking style and personal liking bias in the technically mediocre candidate's case.

Since the data supported the hypothesis only for one case, we conclude that the data partially supported our hypothesis. In fact, literature seems to be inconclusive

about the relationship between biased judgments and need for cognition. Although most of the literature suggests that when people actively engage in mental activity and when they are motivated to think, they tend not to rely on the mental shortcuts and this leads them to act in an unbiased way (e.g. Bodenhausen, 1990; Perlini & Hansen, 2001). Need for cognitive closure is a similar concept, in terms of shortcuts or stereotypes being highly accessible in memory, is defined as the "individuals' desire for a firm answer to a question and an aversion toward ambiguity" (Kruglanski & Webster, 1996, p. 264). Even though there is a negative correlation between need for cognition and need for cognitive closure (Kruglanski & Webster, 1996), they both suggest that people low on need for cognition or high on need for cognitive closure are more likely to make biased decisions (e.g. Kruglanski & Freund, 1983). In fact there are also studies showing that under cognitive load people are more likely to make biased judgments (e.g. Khan & Lambert, 2001; Macrae et al., 1994). In spite of the different findings in the literature, we found partial support for the association between personal liking bias and low need for cognition.

In a study, Khan & Lambert (2001) found that need for cognition does not have a direct relationship with making biased decisions but it may moderate other relationships. In their study, anti-black participants who had high need for cognition made biased judgments against the blacks. Future research may also look at the moderating effect of need for cognition or rational thinking on a relationship with making biased decisions.

As a general note about the exploratory analyses we conducted for significant cases; participants who had different value, personality and cognitive style scores did not differ in terms of the percentages they gave to the weight of the interviews. Participants who decided to hire the technically competent candidate gave a lower percentage to the weight of the interview and participants who decided to hire the technically mediocre candidate gave a higher percentage to the weight of the interview regardless of their values, personality and cognitive style.

5.4 Limitations of the Present Study and Suggestions for Future Research

The present study has a number of limitations. First of all, the sample was comprised of students. Almost half of the students had no previous job or internship experience. If all the students had some experience in work life, they could have interpreted the tasks provided in the experiment in a different way. It is strongly recommended that the experiment be conducted in the field with real interviewers in future research.

Another limitation is that participants only evaluated one candidate, although they have also seen the résumé of another. In real life, interviewers evaluate more than one candidate, it is possible that contrast effect occurs as a result of comparative evaluation. It could be fruitful to see the results when the participants evaluate more than one candidate.

Another limitation might be about the interview video. Although using video is a widely used method in experiments, as it is more realistic than a written text, there might still be some problems related to the genuineness of the video. The candidate in the video was played by a professional actor which could have been perceived as fictitious.

Finally, the scales used here to measure values were proxy measures of the constructs which might not have directly measured performance orientation and individualism/collectivism (I/C). Although there are direct measures of I/C in the literature, most of the measures of I/C suffer from low reliability (Triandis et al., 1995). Additionally, there is no consensus about its conceptualization and measurement (Li & Aksoy, 2006). However, the results could change if more direct measures of the two constructs were used.

5.5 Contributions of the Present Study

It was stressed in the Introduction that only effective interviewers use job related information in the interviews (Graves & Karren, 1992). Personal liking bias as first defined by Frank & Hackman (1975) could be a critical trap that interviewers may fall into while making a hiring decision. This study contributes to the literature by showing that low performance orientation, high collectivism, high extraversion and low rational thinking style of the interviewers are partially associated with personal liking bias they could fall into in selection decisions. Organizations should

pay great attention to the selection of the interviewers who may be the gate keepers in organizations. In order to avoid interviewers who could make biased selection decisions, it is suggested that those values, personality attributes and cognitive style of the interviewers that were found to be associated with personal liking bias be assessed before hiring them. Although it is speculated here that high performance orientation, low collectivism, low extraversion and high rational thinking style is associated with proneness to low personal liking bias, it does not necessarily mean that those interviewers who are less biased would make the best selection decisions for the organizations. It is advised to be careful about the interpretation of the findings here, because there could always be other biases.

Scientific contribution of the study is the new personal liking bias definition. Personal liking bias was first introduced by Frank & Hackman (1976) as the personal liking of the interviewer towards the interviewee as a result of a similarity between them. However, this definition had a limited focus therefore we expanded this definition so that personal liking bias was not limited to be a product of a similarity between the interviewer and the interviewee. The second important contribution is to the cross-cultural human resources management literature that focuses on technical vs. interpersonal competencies in different HRM practices such as recruitment and selection, job analysis and design, performance appraisal, human resource planning and career management, compensation and reward management, training and development (e.g. Aycan, 2005). The current study found partial support for the premises that high performance orientation, low collectivism, low extraversion and

high rational thinking style are associated with employee selection based on technical competencies.

APPENDIX A

Hiring Decision Question

Adayın videosunu izlediniz. Şimdi lütfen adayın özgeçmişini de göz önünde bulundurarak aday hakkındaki aşağıdaki soruları cevaplandırınız.

- Bu adayı işe alır mıydınız?

1) Evet, alırdım. 2) Hayır, almazdım.

- Bu kararınızda, adayın özgeçmişi ile mülakatının ne kadar etkili olduğunu, yüzde olarak belirtiniz.

Bu kararımda:

Adayın özgeçmişi %..... etkili oldu.

Adayın mülakatı %..... etkili oldu.

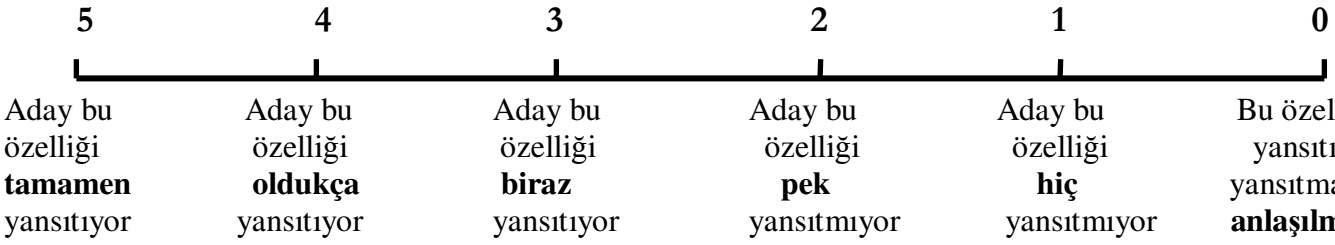
(Burada verdiğiniz yüzdelerin toplamı 100 etmelidir).

APPENDIX B

Manipulation Check for the Video

Burada, izlediğiniz adayın aşağıda verilen tanımlamalara uygunluğu sorulmaktadır.

Lütfen videoda izlediğiniz adayı her cümle için, aşağıdaki ölçekten size en uygun olan rakamı her cümlenin başındaki boşluğa yazarak değerlendiriniz.



İzlediğiniz adayın adını yazınız: .....
(Adayın adı size araştırma sorumlusu tarafından söylenecektir.)

____ 1. Hırslı

____ 2. Rekabeti seven

____ 3. Başarılı olmayı önemseyen

____ 4. Zengin olmayı önemseyen

____ 5. Başkalarının gözünde mahcup düşmemeyi önemseyen

____ 6. Kibar

____ 7. İtaatkar (Görevini yerine getiren)

____ 8. Efendi bir kişiliğe sahip

____ 9. Ilımlı (Aşırı duygu ve hareketten kaçınan)

____ 10. Alçak gönüllü (Kendini öne çıkarmayan)

____ 11. Sadık (Arkadaşlarına ve çevresine bağlı)

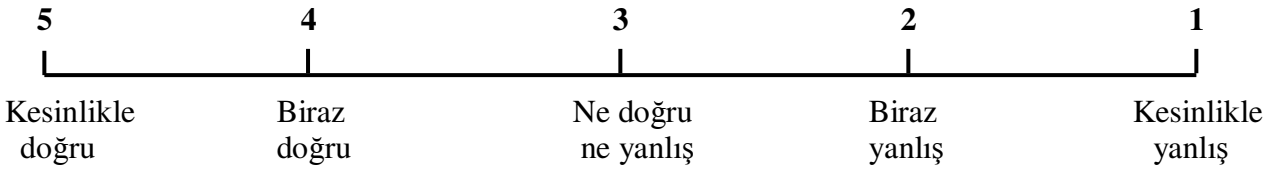
APPENDIX C

Values, Personality and Cognitive Style Questionnaires

Anket 5 bölümden oluşmaktadır. Lütfen her soruyu cevaplandırınız. Lütfen anketin hiçbir bölümüne isminizi yazmayınız.

BÖLÜM I (Rational-Experiential Inventory):

Lütfen aşağıdaki cümleleri okuyup, her bir cümlenin size ne denli uyduğunu belirtin. Soruların doğru veya yanlış yanıtları yoktur. Önemli olan bu cümlelerin sizi anlatıp anlatmadığıdır. Cümlelerin başındaki boşluklara ölçekte uygun gelen sayıyı yazınız.



1. _____ Çok düşünmek zorunda kalmaktan hoşlanmam.
2. _____ Bir mesele hakkında derin düşünmemi gerektirecek durumlardan uzak durmaya çalışırım.
3. _____ Az düşünmemi gerektirecek şeyler yapmaktansa, düşünme yeteneğimi zorlayacak şeyler yapmayı tercih ederim.
4. _____ Karmaşık problemleri basit problemlere yeğlerim.
5. _____ Bir sorunu kafamda uzun süre yoğun bir biçimde tartışmak hoşuma gitmez.
6. _____ İnsanlar hakkındaki ilk duygularıma güvenirim.
7. _____ Önsezilerime güvenirim.
8. _____ İnsanlar hakkındaki ilk izlenimlerim neredeyse hep doğrudur.
9. _____ İnsanlara güvenmek konusunda, çoğu zaman önsezilerime kulak veririm.
10. _____ Genellikle bir insanın haklı mı haksız mı olduğunu, nasıl bildiğimi bilmesem de hissedebilirim.

BÖLÜM II (Schwartz's Portrait Values Questionnaire):

Aşağıda bazı kişiler kısaca tanımlanmaktadır. Lütfen her tanımı okuyun ve bu kişilerin size ne derecede benzediğini ya da benzemediğini düşünün. <u>Tanımda verilen kişinin size ne kadar benzediğini</u> göstermek için aşağıdaki ölçekten size uygun gelen sayıyı cümlelerin başına yazınız.

6	5	4	3	2	1
Bana çok benziyor	Bana benziyor	Bana az benziyor	Bana pek benzemiyor	Bana benzemiyor	Bana hiç benzemiyor

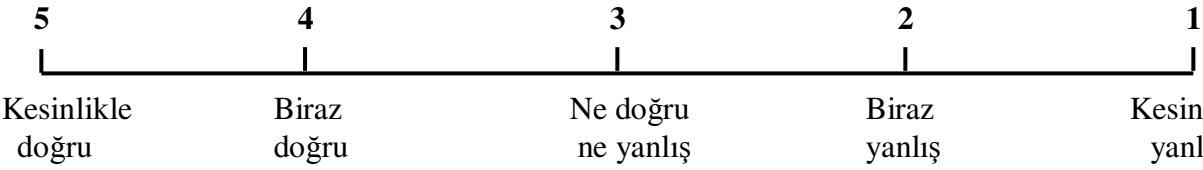
1. _____ Yeni fikirler bulmak ve yaratıcı olmak onun için önemlidir. İşleri kendine özgü, orijinal yollardan yapmaktan hoşlanır.
2. _____ Onun için zengin olmak önemlidir. Çok parası ve pahalı şeyleri olsun ister.
3. _____ Dünyada herkesin eşit muamele görmesinin önemli olduğunu düşünür. Hayatta herkesin eşit fırsatlara sahip olması gerektiğine inanır.
4. _____ Onun için yeteneklerini göstermek çok önemlidir. İnsanların onun yaptıklarına hayran olmasını ister.
5. _____ Onun için güvenli bir çevrede yaşamak önemlidir. Güvenliğini tehlikeye sokabilecek her şeyden kaçınır.
6. _____ Hayatta pek çok farklı şey yapmanın önemli olduğunu düşünür. Her zaman deneyecek yeni şeyler arar.
7. _____ İnsanların kendilerine söylenenleri yapmaları gerektiğine inanır. İnsanların her zaman, hatta başkaları izlemiyorken bil kurallara uymaları gerektiğini düşünür.
8. _____ Kendisinden farklı olan insanları dinlemek onun için önemlidir. Onlarla aynı fikirde olmadığında bile onları anlamak ister.
9. _____ Sahip olduğundan daha fazlasını **istememenin** önemli olduğunu düşünür. İnsanların sahip olduklarıyla yetinmeleri gerektiğine inanır.
10. _____ Eğlenmek için her fırsatı kollar. Zevk veren şeyleri yapmak onun için önemlidir.
11. _____ Yaptığı işler hakkında kendi başına karar vermek onun için çok önemlidir. Faaliyetlerini seçip planlarken özgür olmaktan hoşlanır.

12. _____ Çevresindeki insanlara yardım etmek onun için çok önemlidir. Onların iyiliği için uğraşmak ister.
13. _____ Çok başarılı olmak onun için önemlidir. İnsanlar üzerinde iyi izlenim bırakmaktan hoşlanır.
14. _____ Ülkesinin güvende olması onun için çok önemlidir. Devletin içeriden ve dışarıdan gelebilecek tehditlere karşı uyanık olması gerektiğini düşünür.
15. _____ Risk almaktan hoşlanır. Her zaman macera peşinde koşar.
16. _____ Her zaman uygun şekilde davranmak onun için önemlidir. İnsanların yanlış diyeceği şeyleri yapmaktan kaçınmak ister.
17. _____ İşin başında olmak ve başkalarına ne yapacaklarını söylemek onun için önemlidir. İnsanların onun söyledikklerini yapmalarını ister.
18. _____ Arkadaşlarına sadık olmak onun için önemlidir. Kendisini ona yakın olan insanlara adamak ister.
19. _____ İnsanların doğayı korumaları gerektiğine gönülden inanır. Çevreye bakıp güzelleştirmek onun için önemlidir.
20. _____ Dini inanç onun için önemlidir. Dininin gereklerini yerine getirmek için çok çaba harcar.
21. _____ Eşyaların düzenli ve temiz olması onun için önemlidir. Ortalığın dağınık ve kirli olmasından hiç hoşlanmaz.
22. _____ Her şeyle ilgili olmanın önemli olduğunu düşünür. Herşeyi merak etmekten ve anlamaya çalışmaktan hoşlanır.
23. _____ Dünyadaki bütün insanların uyum içinde yaşaması gerektiğine inanır. Dünyadaki bütün gruplar arasında barışın güçlenmesi onun için önemlidir.
24. _____ Hırslı olmanın önemli olduğunu düşünür. Ne kadar yetenekli olduğunu göstermke ister.
25. _____ İşleri geleneksel yollarla yapmanın en iyisi olduğunu düşünür. Öğrendiği gelenek ve göreneklerin devam ettirmek onun için önemlidir.
26. _____ Hayattan zevk almak onun için önemlidr. Kendisini şımartmaktan hoşlanır.
27. _____ Başkalarının ihtiyaçlarına cevap vermek onun için önemlidir. Tanıdıklarına destek olmaya çalışır.

28. _____ Ana-babasına ve yaşlı insanlara her zaman saygı göstermesi gerektiğine inanır. Onun için itaatkar olmak önemlidir.
29. _____ Herkese, hatta hiç tanımadığı insanlara bile adil muamele yapılmasını ister. Toplumdaki zayıflaır korumak onun için önemlidir.
30. _____ Sürprizlerden hoşlanır. Heyecan verici bir yaşamının olması onun için önemlidir.
31. _____ Hastalanmaktan kaçınmak için çok çaba gösterir. Sağlıklı olmak onun için çok önemlidir.
32. _____ Hayatta başararak öne geçmek onun için önemlidir. Başkalarından daha iyi olmaya çalışır.
33. _____ Kendisini inciten insanları bağışlamak onun için önemlidir. İçlerindeki iyi yanları görmeye ve kin gütmemeye çalışır.
34. _____ Bağımsız olmak onun için önemlidir. Kendi ayakları üzerinde durmak ister.
35. _____ İstikrarlı bir hükümetin olması onun için önemlidir. Sosyal düzenin korunması konusunda endişelenir.
36. _____ Başkalarına karşı her zaman nazik olmak onun için önemlidir. Başkalarını hiç bir zaman rahatsız veya huzursuz etmemeye çalışır.
37. _____ Hayattan zevk almayı gerçekten ister. İyi zaman geçirmek onun için önemlidir.
38. _____ Alçakgönüllü ve kibirsiz olmak onun için önemlidir. Dikkatleri üzerine **çekmemeye** çalışır.
39. _____ Her zaman kararları veren kişi olmak ister. Lider olmaktan hoşlanır.
40. _____ Doğaya uyum sağlamak ve onunla kaynaşmak onun için önemlidir. İnsanların doğayı değiştirmemesi gerektiğine inanır.

BÖLÜM III (Extraversion Scale):

Lütfen aşağıdaki cümleleri okuyup, her bir cümlenin size ne denli uyduğunu belirtin. Soruların doğru veya yanlış yanıtları yoktur. Önemli olan bu cümlelerin sizi anlatıp anlatmadığıdır. Cümlelerin başındaki boşluklara ölçekte uygun gelen sayıyı yazınız.



1. _____ Dikkatleri üzerime çekmekten hoşlanmam.
2. _____ Yabancılar arasında sessiz biriyimdir.
3. _____ Genellikle sohbeti başlatan olurum.
4. _____ Partilerde çok değişik insanlarla sohbet ederim.
5. _____ İlgi odağı olmak beni rahatsız etmez.

BÖLÜM IV (Self-Monitoring Scale):

Şimdiki bölümde yine aşağıdaki cümlelerin sizin tutumlarınızı anlatıp anlatmadığını lütfen doğru (D) veya yanlış (Y) harflerini kullanarak, her cümlenin başında belirtiniz.

1. _____ Başkalarının davranışlarını taklit etmek bana zor gelir.
2. _____ Parti veya sosyal toplantılarda başkalarının hoşuna gidecek şeyler söylemek ya da yapmak için çaba göstermem.
3. _____ Yalnızca gerçekten inandığım görüşleri savunabilirim.
4. _____ Hakkında hiçbir bilgimin olmadığı konularda bile hazırlıksız konuşma yapabilirim.
5. _____ Başkalarını etkilemek ya da eğlendirmek için rol yapabilirim.
6. _____ Herhalde iyi bir oyuncu olurdum.
7. _____ Bir grubun içinde nadiren ilgi odağı olurum.
8. _____ Değişik durumlarda ve kişilerle çok farklı biri gibi olabilirim.
9. _____ Genellikle başkalarının beni sevmesini sağlamakta iyi değilimdir.

10. _____ Genellikle göründüğüm kişi değilimdir.
11. _____ Birisinin hoşuna gidecek diye veya birisine yaranmak için görüşlerimi değiştirmem.
12. _____ Stand-up yapmayı düşündüğüm olmuştur.
13. _____ Doğaçlama oyunculuk gerektiren sessiz sinema gibi oyunlarda hiçbir zaman iyi değilimdir.
14. _____ Davranışlarımı değişik insan ve durumlara uydurmakta zorlanırım.
15. _____ Partilerde başkalarının şaka yapmasına ya da fıkra anlatmasına izin veririm.
16. _____ Topluluk içinde kendimi garip hisseder, görünmem gereken gibi görünemem.
17. _____ Herhangi birinin gözünün içine bakarak ifadesiz bir suratla (iyi bir amaç uğruna) yalan söyleyebilirim.
18. _____ Birini hiç sevmesem de ona arkadaşımmış gibi davranıp kandırabilirim.

BÖLÜM V: (Demographic Questions)

Cinsiyetiniz _____**Erkek** _____**Bayan**

Yaşınız _____

Sınıfınız _____

Bölümünüz _____

Burs durumu _____**Burslu** _____**Burssuz**

Daha önce herhangi bir iş/staj deneyimi olup olmadığı _____**Evet** _____**Hayır**

APPENDIX D

Job Post

S.D.A. International Group

Yurtiçi ve yurtdışı inşaat projeleri için aşağıdaki niteliklerde inşaat grup müdürü aramaktadır.

Genel Nitelikler:

- İnşaat Mühendisliği mezunu
- Konusunda en az 5 yıl deneyimli
- MS Office ve Autocad programlarını iyi derecede kullanabilen
- İngilizce iletişim kurabilen
- Yurt dışı seyahat engeli olmayan
- Firmamızı temsil edebilecek ve vizyon sahibi
- Yöneticilik vasıfları gelişmiş
- Erkek adaylarda askerliğini yapmış veya en az 2 sene tecilli.

İnşaat Grup Müdürü alınacaktır.

İş Tanımı:

- Yurtdışı ve yurtiçi şantiyelerin, teknik idari, mali yönetim ve planlamasının koordinasyonu.
- Keşif, Metraj, Hakediş Hazırlama ve Kontrol, İş Planı, Nakit Akış Planı, Geçici Kabul, Kesin Kabul, Kaba yapı, İnce yapı, Kalite Kontrol süreçlerini takip edip, yönetmek.

APPENDIX E

Résumés of the Candidates

KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER	
Ad Soyad:	**Cem Kırımlı**
Doğum Tarihi :	18-07-1975
Adres :	Cengiz Topel Cad. Gül Sok. No:6/1 Şişli, 34367 İstanbul
Telefon, E-Posta :	0532 5315247, cemkirimli@yahoo.com
DENEYİM	
Mart 2008- Temmuz 2003	**TEKNOTEL A.Ş., İstanbul** *ŞANTiYE ŞEFi* - Fabrika inşaatı, idari bina inşaatı, tank temelleri ve ısı merkezi inşaatı, yağmur suyu ve pis su drenaj hatlarının projesi ve inşaatlarının uygulamasında şantiye şefliği.
Ocak 2003- Temmuz 2003	**ÜMİTLER TEKSTİL A.Ş, Kayseri** *PAZARLAMA UZMANI* - Müşteri portföyünü arttırmak için çalışmalar uygulamak. - Şirket iş planlarının gerçekleştirilmesinde satış ekibinin ihtiyaç duyduğu tüm pazarlama desteğinin verilmesini sağlamak.
Kasım 2001- Aralık 1998	**MODTEKNİK İnş .Müh Tic. San Ltd. Şti., Kayseri** *TEKNiK OFiS MÜHENDiSi-SAHA MÜHENDiSi* - Atık su arıtma tesisleri inşaatı, borulama, çelik konstrüksiyon imalat ve montajı. - Metraj, hakediş, kesin hesap, teklif keşif özeti hazırlama.
EĞİTİM	
Üniversite Eğitimi	**Erciyes Üniversitesi (1993-1997)** İnşaat Mühendisliği
Lise Eğitimi	**Abdurrahman Kadir Lisesi (1987-1993)**
YABANCI DİL	
	İngilizce:Başlangıç seviyesinde
BİLGİSAYAR BİLGİSİ	
	Ms Office, Ms Project, Autocad.
DİĞER BİLGİLER	
Askerlik :	20-07-2001 itibari ile tamamlandı.
Hobi, dernek üyelikleri :	

KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER	
Ad Soyad:	**Engin Sarpsoy**
Doğum Tarihi :	04-08-1975
Adres :	Abdi İpekçi Cad. Başa Sok. No:12/7 Beşiktaş, 34367 İstanbul
Telefon, E-Posta :	Cep: 0532 5039321, enginsarpsoy@gmail.com
DENEYİM	
Mart 2008- Haziran 2003	**UNIT INTERNATIONAL** *ŞANTİYE VE HAKEDİŞ KONTROL TEKNİK OFİS ŞEFİ* Moskova Güç Santralı Projesi - Projede şantiye şefliği. - Saha imalat metrajlarının ve taşeron hakedişlerinin kontrol edilmesi. - Uygulama projelerinin dağıtımının yapılması ve proje resimleri arasındaki koordinasyonun sağlanması.
Ocak 2003- Şubat 2000	**TEPE İNŞAAT** *ALTYAPI ŞEFLİĞİ, SAHA MÜHENDİSLİĞİ* Bakü-Tiflis-Ceyhan Petrol Boru Hattı Projesi - Pompa binası, borulama binası, idari binalar, tank temelleri, sosyal tesisler, altyapı inşaatları sorumluluğu. - Taşeron hakedişlerinin kontrolü ve metrajların hazırlanması. Method Statement ve risk analizleri.
Haziran 1999- Ekim 1997	**COŞKUN MİMARLIK** *PROJE MÜHENDİSİ VE TEKNİK UYGULAMA SORUMLUSU* - Autocad programıyla bina ve fabrika projelerinin statik betonarme hesaplarının yapılması. - Bina restorasyonlarının yapılması.
Mayıs 1997- Eylül 1997	**ORJİN GRUP** Stajyer olarak projelerde görev aldım.
EĞİTİM	
Üniversite Eğitimi	**Boğaziçi Üniversitesi (1993-1997)** İnşaat Mühendisliği
Lise Eğitimi	**Avusturya Erkek Lisesi (1986-1993)**
YABANCI DİL	
	İngilizce: Çok iyi. **Almanca:** Çok iyi. **Rusça:** Orta.
BİLGİSAYAR BİLGİSİ	
	Ms Office, Ms Project, Autocad, SAP2000, Primavera, Matlab.
DİĞER BİLGİLER	
Askerlik :	20-01-2000 itibari ile tamamlandı.
Hobi ve dernek üyelikleri :	Yapı ve inşaat dergileri okumak. İstanbul İnşaat Mühendisleri Odası üyesi, Anka Yelken Klubü üyesi.

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