The Lingering Effects of the Recruitment Experience on the Long-Term Employment Relationship

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Research indicates that how potential new hires feel they are treated during the recruitment process can have a profound impact on their attitudes toward the recruiting organization (Rynes, Heneman, & Schwab, 1980) and that negative, rather than positive, experiences in recruitment are more likely to affect those applicants (Rynes, Bretz, & Gerhart, 1991). Much recruitment research investigates the short-term effect of recruiting practices (Boswell, LePine, & Moynihan, 2003; Porter, Conlon, & Barber, 2005; Sondak & Bazerman, 1991) and how the recruitment experience influences the applicant’s decision to accept a job (Boswell et al., 2003; Rynes, 1991; Rynes et al., 1980; Rynes et al., 1991; Taylor & Collins, 2000). However, none address the influence of those practices on the long-term employment relationship.

Given the significance of justice or fairness perceptions on the employment relationship (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Greenberg & Scott, 1996; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Tepper & Taylor, 2003), it seems equally important to study the effects of the earliest interactions an employee has with his employer—those that take place during recruitment. The manner in which employees feel they are treated has a long-term effect on the relationship they have with their organization, resulting in either positive or negative outcomes for both the individual and the organization.
Therefore, our research seeks to fill the literature gap in two main areas. First, it evaluates an often overlooked aspect of the recruitment process—the negotiation of an employment offer. Second, our research reaches beyond the job choice to determine how the negotiation experience in recruitment affects the new hire’s intent to remain with the organization long after that employee’s first day on the job. Additionally, our research investigates the utility of high-pressure recruitment tactics in the recruitment process.

Our interest lies in how individuals feel they are treated during the recruitment process; therefore, our focus is on interactional justice (IJ), rather than distributive justice that centers around what one is being paid, or procedural justice that focuses on an individual’s reaction to the policies and procedures used in the process. We argue that interactional justice perceptions relating to the negotiation in recruitment linger in their effects on the employee’s intent to stay with the organization (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003; Lind, 2001).

**Effects of Recruitment and Negotiation Practices**

In the late 1990s and 2000, students graduating from both undergraduate and graduate business programs often found themselves inundated with employment offers and opportunities. During that time, the job market for new graduates in certain fields was extraordinarily tight. As a result, numerous companies resorted to high-pressure hiring tactics in order to obtain new hires and avoid being understaffed once the recruiting season was complete. For instance, some companies would phone students late at night and allow them only 12 hr to make a job choice (Reisberg, 1998). Still others suddenly would add bonuses to their offers of employment.

A large body of research exists addressing the role of recruitment practices on organizational outcomes. Empirical evidence indicates that recruitment practices affect the job choice decisions of prospective new hires (Rynes et al., 1980). For many applicants, an organization’s recruitment practices signal characteristics of the job or of the company (Behling, Labovitz, & Gainer, 1968). There is also indication that negative recruiting experiences are more likely to affect prospective new hires than are positive recruiting experiences (Rynes et al., 1991). However, there is limited empirical research surrounding aggressive or high-pressure negotiation practices. One study conducted with 288 graduate management students in a job market simulation exercise suggested that aggressive negotiation tactics diminish the quality of matching outcomes (Sondak & Bazerman, 1991). It is our contention that if aggressive negotiation practices are part of the recruitment process, they will have a significant impact on the applicant’s intentions of remaining with the organization long after the negotiations are complete.

How applicants feel they are treated in the recruitment process is an important factor in their job choice decisions (Boswell et al., 2003). In some instances, mistreatment during recruitment could lead an applicant to decline an employment offer from the offending organization and seek employment elsewhere (Boswell et al., 2003). In contrast, some applicants may not feel they are in a position to be as selective in choosing...
an employer, based either on a situation that is unique to them personally or to circumstances where jobs are scarce. When an applicant declines an employment offer because of his mistreatment during recruitment, the organization loses a potentially valuable employee. Conversely, when an applicant who feels mistreated during recruitment ultimately accepts the offending organization’s employment offer, the organization also loses out in the form of a poor employment relationship with the new hire. Perceived mistreatment such as interactional, distributive, and procedural injustice often leads to poor long-term outcomes such as low job satisfaction (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Tepper, 2000), perceived lack of organizational support (Masterson et al., 2000), lower organizational commitment (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002), and high turnover intentions (Aryee et al., 2002; Masterson et al., 2000; Tepper, 2000). We expect the same negative consequences will occur when applicants feel they are mistreated during the job negotiation process.

**Theory and Hypotheses**

The justice literature often emphasizes the consequences of employee mistreatment (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; Bies & Tripp, 2001; Folger & Baron, 1996; Greenberg & Alge, 1998; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Tepper & Taylor, 2003). Specifically, researchers note the importance of interpersonal treatment, or interactional justice, in communication processes (Bies & Moag, 1986) such as negotiation. Still others indicate that bad negotiation behavior results in poor outcomes (Albin, 1993; Neu & Graham, 1994; Robinson, 1995). For instance, one study indicated that aggressive seller negotiation behaviors, such as a seller talking simultaneously with a buyer or admonishing a buyer that a negative consequence will result from the buyer’s action, led to lower buyer satisfaction and lower seller profits (Neu & Graham, 1994).

Fairness heuristic theory suggests that the justice related information first obtained by an individual will have the most significant effect on that person’s overall justice perceptions (Lind, 2001). This primacy effect predicts that an organization’s use of aggressive negotiation or hiring tactics leaves the potential new hire feeling mistreated by the hiring organization. The justice literature cites numerous negative outcomes related to employee perceptions of injustice (Folger & Baron, 1996; Greenberg & Alge, 1998). Similarly, if an employee feels he was treated fairly during recruitment, we suggest that those feelings are related to more positive outcomes.

**The Effects of the Recruitment Experience**

**Aggressive Negotiation Tactics, Justice Perceptions, and Turnover**

The exploding offer is one example of the more aggressive negotiation tactics organizations employ, particularly in a tight labor market. An exploding offer is made when an organization presents an employment offer with a short-fuse deadline and that offer diminishes over the time the prospective new hire uses to make her decision. For example, an applicant might receive an offer of a $100,000 salary with a $15,000 signing
bonus, but with each day that passes without the applicant accepting the offer the signing bonus shrinks by $3,000.

Exploding offers and other forms of aggressive negotiation tactics are often characterized by several attributes including power asymmetry, choice restriction, lack of consideration and respect, as well as a lack of good faith (Robinson, 1995). In many situations, such tactics give more power to the organization and take away power from the applicant. The potential new hires have little time to consider or wait for other employment offers, as they must make a quick decision on the offer currently on the table. Choice restriction allows the offering company to potentially eliminate comparison shopping by the applicant. When applicants must make an employment decision within half a day’s time, there is almost no opportunity for them to obtain offers from other organizations. Some companies recruit early in the cycle specifically for this reason.

High-pressure tactics such as these are likely to affect actual outcomes (distributive justice) but also signal a lack of consideration and respect for the potential new hire (interactional justice). The ‘take it or leave it’ characteristic of some tactics is unduly rigid and indicates a lack of regard for the applicant. This element relates to the last attribute of many aggressive negotiation tactics, which is a lack of good faith. Lack of respect, consideration, regard, or good faith signal the quality of interpersonal treatment that the organization is providing to the applicant. Such interpersonal treatment is a basis for interactional justice perceptions (Bies & Moag, 1986). A lack of respect and consideration may leave the applicant wondering that if he is poorly treated during the recruitment process, then how will he be treated once he is an employee? We expect that those applicants with whom aggressive negotiation tactics are employed will hold perceptions of injustice or mistreatment. Specifically, we contend that when applicants feel pressure to make an employment decision too quickly, they will experience lowered interactional justice perceptions with regard to the negotiation in recruitment experience. Therefore, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 1:** There will be a negative relationship between an organization’s perceived use of pressure in the negotiation and an employee’s job negotiation interactional justice perceptions related to the recruitment experience.

While research often views justice perceptions as a short-term outcome, such perceptions also have effects on long-term outcomes. For those who accept offers made using high-pressure negotiation tactics, injustice perceptions affect the quality of the relationship the employee has with his employer. As a result, there are numerous effects on individual and organizational outcomes. For instance, many studies report a link between the injustices an employee perceives and the deviant or dysfunctional behavior the employee engages in as a way of striking back at his employer (Folger & Baron, 1996; Greenberg & Alge, 1998; Greenberg & Scott, 1996; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). On the positive side, justice perceptions also influence an employee’s organizational citizenship behaviors (Tepper & Taylor, 2003) and are associated with higher organizational commitment and lower turnover (Colquitt, 2001; Masterson et al., 2000) and with higher perceived organizational support (Masterson et al., 2000). Furthermore, the
recruitment literature indicates a strong relationship between the justice perceptions created in recruitment and important organizational outcomes such as the attractiveness of a job or organization and an applicant’s job acceptance intentions (Chapman, Uggerslev, Caroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005).

Turnover research suggests that organizational members follow one of several psychological or behavior paths when leaving an organization (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Inderrieden, 2005; Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Of particular importance in predicting turnover is the presence or absence of a “shock” or jarring event that precipitates the psychological processes of quitting a job (Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaniel, & Hill, 1999). A shock may be positive or negative, expected or unexpected. When a shock is experienced, individuals compare the shock to their own image, which is a reflection of their values and goals. If the comparison suggests that the shock and their own image are incongruent, an image violation occurs; in turn the image violation may be followed by job dissatisfaction, a search for other employment alternatives, and, ultimately, turnover (Holtom et al., 2005; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee et al., 1999). Justice perceptions created in the recruitment negotiation are a potential type of shock. These individuals will experience higher turnover intentions than those who did not perceive mistreatment during recruitment (assuming they accepted the job in the first place). Therefore, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 2:** There will be a negative relationship between an employee’s job negotiation interactional justice perceptions related to the recruitment process and the employee’s intent to leave the organization months or years after the individual is on the job.

Note that although the particular type of negotiation misbehavior discussed above was imposing time pressure on job applicants, there may be many other ways in which negotiation behavior creates interactional injustice. Some examples are lack of respect, dishonesty, slow responses, or bullying. Hypothesis 2 suggests that perceived misbehavior during negotiations, no matter which particular type of bad behavior, creates a sense of interactional injustice that will have negative long-term effects on an employee.

We conducted two studies to test these hypotheses. The first study is cross-sectional. The second study employs a longitudinal approach that provides the opportunity to draw stronger conclusions about the causal relationship between negotiation tactics, justice perceptions, and turnover intentions.

**Study 1 Methods**

**Sample and Procedure**

Participants were 68 graduate business alumni from the classes of 1998–2002 of a small southeastern university. Thirty-three percent were women and the average age of participants was 32 years, ranging from 28 to 44 years of age. Respondents worked in a wide variety of industries: manufacturing (24%), consulting (23%), technology (15%), healthcare and entertainment (11%), and investment banking (8% each), government (3%), and accounting, not for profit, and education (2%).
The sample responded to a web-based questionnaire. Using the critical incident method, we asked subjects to recall when they negotiated for their current job, to report the negotiation tactics used by the organization, to judge the justice of that negotiation, and to report their current turnover intentions. To control for common method bias, we used a split-sample method. One of the web surveys asked retrospective items first, followed by items that applied to the respondent’s current employment conditions and attitudes. The other web survey’s initial items were those pertaining to the respondent’s current employment conditions and attitudes, followed by the retrospective items asking about their negotiation in recruitment experience. We randomly assigned respondents to one-half of the split sample. Half answered the current employment conditions items first before answering the items relating to their views of the negotiation events; the other half of the sample answered the reverse. We asked participants to respond to the survey regarding the job offer negotiation for the position they currently held. The instructions stated, “In the following section of this survey, please answer the questions with regard to the employment offer you received when hired by the organization for which you currently work.”

**Measures**

Each of the following variables was measured using seven-point Likert-type scales (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree; 1 = small extent, 7 = large extent) and was worded as appropriate for each item.

**Perceived High-Pressure Negotiation Tactics**
Participants completed three items developed to measure the perceived time pressure the respondent felt during the negotiation with their hiring organization. The stem of the measure reads: “With respect to how you were treated when you received the offer and during the time you made your decision regarding that offer…” The three items were worded as follows: “to what extent did you feel pressured to make a job choice more quickly than you would have liked?”, “to what extent did you not feel you were allowed enough time to think about your goals and needs?”, and “to what extent did you not feel you were allowed enough time to consider other job options?” We averaged item ratings to form overall scores for respondents’ high pressure negotiation tactic perceptions (α = .88).

**Job Negotiation Interactional Justice Perceptions**
Participants completed seven interactional justice items from Colquitt’s (2001) justice measures adapted to focus on job negotiation interactional justice perceptions. These evaluated the extent to which the respondent’s experience reflects attributes of fair outcomes and interactions and focused specifically on the employment offer they received from their hiring organization. An example includes “With respect to how you were treated when you received the offer and during the time you made your decision regarding that offer, to what extent did the organization treat you with respect?” We
averaged the item ratings to form an overall score for respondents’ interactional justice ($\alpha = .89$) perceptions related to the negotiation experience.

**Turnover Intentions**
Measures were taken of the respondents’ turnover intentions using three items from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh’s (1979) measure of intent to leave. We averaged item ratings to form overall scores for respondents’ intent to leave ($\alpha = .92$). Figure 1 illustrates the theoretical model incorporating the above noted variables.

**Controls**
Measures were also taken of respondents’ distributive justices perceptions related to the negotiation experience, their organization’s use of supportive human resources practices, and their age. We included these variables in the models to control for the impact of other important predictors of turnover intentions that may occur separate from the interactional justice perceptions created in the negotiation experience. Distributive justice emphasizes the perceived fairness outcomes related. It is possible that individuals are more concerned about their outcomes than how they are treated in the process and that our measures of interactional justice are really just picking up the effects of distributive justice (since distributive justice and interactional justice are correlated; Colquitt, 2001, 2001). We control for distributive justice to ensure that we are actually identifying the effects of interactional justice. Distributive justice was measured using Colquitt’s (2001) four items, and included items such as “In relation to the terms/conditions of the employment offer, to what extent have your outcomes that are controlled by the organization reflected your true value?”

In addition to distributive justice related to the negotiation, it was important to control for the overall nature of how the organization treats its members. Job negotiation interactional justice and a respondent’s turnover intentions may both be the result of an organization’s good or bad general practices in dealing with applicants or employees. Thus, an association between job negotiation interactional justice and turnover might be an artifact of both having a common cause—the organization’s culture. Therefore,
control this, we measured respondents’ perceptions of their organization’s use of supportive human resource practices, using Allen, Shore, and Griffeth’s (2003) measure. Examples include “My organization provides me the opportunity to improve my skills and knowledge.” and “I am allowed a significant degree of influence in decisions regarding my work.”

We drew the sample in Study 1 from an alumni pool with considerable variability in age. Older employees may perceive fewer employment alternatives than do their junior counterparts and be less likely to seek employment outside their current position. Therefore, we also controlled for age, which was measured with an open-ended item.

Results for Study 1

Table 1 reports descriptive statistics, including correlations among the study variables.

Table 2 reports the results of regression analyses of the relationships between the predictors and the dependent variables, controlling for distributive justice, supportive human resource practices, and their age. Model 1 shows the effect of the controls on job negotiation interactional justice. Model 2 tests the effect of high-pressure negotiation tactics on the respondent’s job negotiation interactional justice perceptions while controlling for distributive justice, supportive human resource practices, and the respondent’s age. This relationship was not significant; therefore, Hypothesis 1 was unsupported in Study 1.

Model 3 indicates the effect of the controls on a respondent’s turnover intentions. Model 4 indicates the effects of job negotiation interactional justice on turnover intentions. This model suggests that job negotiation interactional justice perceptions do have a lingering effect on a respondent’s turnover intentions; therefore, we found support for Hypothesis 2. These results show that job negotiation interactional justice has a long-term effect on turnover intentions independent of the effects from distributive justice and supportive human resources practices.

These results suggest a lingering effect of job negotiation interactional justice on an individual’s turnover intentions while controlling for distributive justice, supportive human resource practices, and the respondent’s age. In addition to the current employment conditions and outcomes related to the negotiation, the recruitment experience

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Study 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Age</td>
<td>32.15</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Supportive HR practices</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>−.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Perceived high-pressure negotiation tactics</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>−.09</td>
<td>−.20*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Job negotiation interactional justice</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>−.28*</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>−.17*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Job negotiation distributive justice</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>−.13</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td>−.24*</td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Intent to leave</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>−.02</td>
<td>−.67**</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>−.28*</td>
<td>−.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01; all tests are one-tailed.
still has an effect on an employee’s intentions to remain with the employing organization. These results fill a gap in the knowledge concerning the long-term effect of the recruitment experience on an individual’s intent to remain with their hiring organization.

Table 2
Study 1—Analysis of Regression of Job Negotiation Justice Perceptions and Intent to Leave Upon Controls and Negotiation Experience Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Job negotiation interactional justice</th>
<th>Intent to leave</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Model 1</td>
<td>Model 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Job negotiation distributive justice</td>
<td>.38**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive HR practices</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>−.22*</td>
<td>−.23*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negotiation experience variables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived high-pressure negotiation tactics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job negotiation interactional justice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\Delta R^2) (compare to Model 1)</td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td>.46**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\Delta R^2) (compare to Model 3)</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.04*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model (R^2)</td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td>.27**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. \(N = 65\), \#\(p < .10\), \*\(p < .05\), \**\(p < .01\); all tests are one-tailed. Standardized coefficients (betas) are reported.

Study 2 Methods

Sample and Procedure

We surveyed participants over a 6-month period, using web-based surveys. We gave the first survey, at Time 1 (T1), to 135 MBA graduates of the class of 2004 of a small southeastern university who had accepted a post-graduation job offer. The initial surveys were completed in July with respect to negotiations that took place between November and May. The survey instructions stated, “Throughout this survey, please answer the questions with regard to the employment offer you received when hired by the organization for which you currently work or for which you will soon work (if you have accepted an offer but have not actually begun work yet).” Respondents had an opportunity to win a cash prize in return for their completion of the survey. Fifty-two responded, yielding a 39% response rate. The second survey, at Time 2 (T2), was emailed 6 months after the Time 1 survey. Thirty-three web-based surveys were completed (response rate of 63%). Thirty-one percent were women. The average age of participants was 29 years with a
range from 25 to 35 years of age. The respondents’ industries were as follows: manufacturing (21%), healthcare and technology (17% each), consulting (12%), investment banking (9%), education (6%), and not for profit and entertainment (3% each).

Measures

Each of the following variables was measured using seven-point Likert-type scales (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree; 1 = small extent, 7 = large extent) and was worded as appropriate for each item.

Perceived High-Pressure Negotiation Tactics
At T1, participants completed the same three items used in the first study to measure respondents’ perceptions of time pressure during the negotiation. We averaged item ratings to form overall scores for respondents’ pressure perceptions ($\alpha = .82$).

Job Negotiation Interactional Justice Perceptions
At T1, participants also completed the same items used in the first study to measure their job negotiation interactional justice perceptions related to recruitment. We averaged item ratings to form overall scores for respondents’ job negotiation interactional justice perceptions ($\alpha = .81$) related to the negotiation experience.

Turnover Intentions
At T2, participants completed the same items used in Study 1 to measure their intent to leave the employing organization. We averaged item ratings to form overall scores for respondents’ intent to leave ($\alpha = .87$ at T2).

Controls
Respondent’s perception of supportive human resource practices and distributive justice perceptions related to the organization were also measured in Study 2 using the same measures used in Study 1. We measured distributive justice perceptions related to the negotiation at Time 1, and supportive human resource practices at Time 2. Age was not included in the regressions for Study 2 for two reasons. First, in Study 1 the effect of age on the relationship between job negotiation interactional justice perceptions and a respondent’s turnover intention was not significant. Second, because of the small sample in Study 2 ($N = 33$), it was important to limit the number of predictors in the analyses.

Results for Study 2

Table 3 reports descriptive statistics, including correlations among the Study 2 variables. Table 4 reports the results of regression analyses of the relationships between the predictors and the dependent variables, including the controls for Study 2. Model 1 indicates the effect of the controls on job negotiation interactional justice. Model 2 tests the effect of perceived high-pressure negotiation tactics on the respondent’s job negotiation
interactional justice perceptions while controlling for distributive justice and supportive human resource practices. The results show a negative relationship between the pressure respondents felt related to the negotiation and their job negotiation interactional justice perceptions; therefore, we found support for Hypothesis 1 in Study 2.

Model 3 indicates the effect of the controls on a respondent’s turnover intentions. Model 4 shows the effect of negotiation interactional justice on turnover intentions. As predicted, job negotiation interactional justice had a negative relationship with turnover intentions. As a result, Hypothesis 2 was supported. This model suggests that job negotiation interactional justice perceptions have a lingering effect on a respondent’s turnover intentions.
These results indicate job negotiation interactional justice has a lingering effect on an individual's turnover intentions while controlling for both supportive human resource practices and distributive justice perceptions related to the negotiation in recruitment experience. In addition to the current employment conditions, in this case supportive human resource practices, and the outcomes related to the negotiation, the job negotiation interactional justice perceptions created in the recruitment experience still have an effect on an employee's intentions to remain with the employing organization.

**Discussion**

The results of these studies suggest that (1) the negotiation experience in recruitment produces short-term and long-term effects for both the organization and the employee, and (2) employees' perceptions of job negotiation interactional justice explain the lingering effect of the negotiation experience on the employee's intent to remain with the hiring organization. Our discussion reviews the findings' implications for knowledge about negotiation in recruitment and its effects on the long-term relationship between the organization and its employees. We highlight the implications for negotiation, recruitment, and justice theory and research, and identify the limitations of this research.

**Negotiation, Recruitment, and Justice in Organizations**

Our findings indicate that employees' negotiation experiences in the recruitment process have short-term effects on their interactional justice perceptions related to the negotiation, and that those perceptions have an impact on employees' long-term relationships with their employers. Specifically, the sense of injustice one feels during a negotiation affects an employee's turnover intentions with the hiring organization. These findings are consistent with research indicating that negotiations in the recruitment process can set the tone for the future employment relationship or employer-employee exchanges (Barber, 1998).

The potential harm of pressure should serve to inform the negotiation practices that organizations employ during the recruitment process. Employees view pressure as a form of injustice with implications for their long-term relationship with their employing organization. When jobs are plentiful, organizations that pressure their recruits lose potentially valuable employees because the applicants feel they are unjustly treated during the negotiation process. Similarly, but less important, when jobs are scarce, applicants who feel they are mistreated during the negotiation might still accept the job from the offending organization simply because they might prefer a less than ideal job with a seemingly unfair organization than to have no job at all. The justice literature abounds with implications of employing an individual who feels mistreated by the organization. Injustice is linked to retaliatory behavior (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), revenge (Bies & Tripp, 2001), and employee deviance (Aquino et al., 1999). When employees feel mistreated by their employer, they often look for ways to right the wrong they feel has been done. This can bring harm not only to the organization, as in the case of petty theft of office supplies or withholding effort, but also to individuals within the organization, as
in the case of verbal abuse of colleagues. In contrast, employees who hold higher justice perceptions are more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors (Tepper & Taylor, 2003).

**Implications for Theory and Research**

This article contributes to both the justice and negotiation literatures. While many studies explore the effects of procedural and distributive justice in negotiation, few give similar attention to the effects of interactional justice in negotiation, with the exception of Leung, Tong, and Ho (2004). Our study demonstrates that interactional justice affects turnover intentions, even beyond the effects of distributive justice.

Second, our article investigates interactional justice as it specifically relates to job negotiation. Prior studies of interactional justice and turnover analyze IJ in terms of how it works through various mediators to predict turnover. For example, Simons and Roberson (2003) studied how satisfaction with one's supervisor mediates the relationship between interactional justice and turnover. The items in their study include those by Niehoff and Moorman (1993) and focus on general perceptions of fairness in the workplace. Thus, we do know that IJ has an indirect effect on turnover, but we go beyond that. We show that how employees are treated during one significant, early encounter between an employer and employee—their job negotiation—has a significant and direct long-term impact, despite the fact that it is a relatively brief interaction early in the relationship. Our study demonstrates that interactional justice affects turnover intentions, even beyond the effects of distributive justice.

Next, this research contributes to the literature in that we capture the effect of job negotiation interactional justice on turnover intentions longitudinally in Study 2. Studying justice in a longitudinal approach is important in that it allows researchers to make stronger conclusions regarding causal directions. Notably, only nine studies have explored the effects of organizational justice perceptions over time (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003). Seven of these focused on procedural justice and two were limited to distributive justice; however, none of them addressed interactional justice in a longitudinal approach. This is particularly significant in that our findings indicate a negative relationship between interactional justice perceptions related to the negotiation experience and an employee's intent to remain with the organization.

**Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research**

The present research extends the literature in the domains of recruitment, negotiation, and organizational justice. The study is limited in several ways, however. First, the second study is comprised of a relatively small sample. An analysis of variance of those who participated in both data waves versus those who only participated in the first one indicated significant differences in felt pressure ($F = 10.77$). Those who dropped out after the first data collection reported an average perception of pressure in the negotiation was 3.87, as opposed to a mean of 2.21 for those who participated in both waves. This suggests that had all participants participated fully in both surveys, our results may
have been stronger and more significant. These analyses indicate that the subjects who felt the most pressure did not participate in the second survey, perhaps because they were no longer employed with the hiring organization. Second, Study 1 could be susceptible to retrospective bias in that the data was collected at a single point in time such that the respondents’ present justice perceptions and turnover intentions may color their memories of the negotiation experience. We attempted to address this issue in Study 2 by collecting data about the recruitment experience and its negotiation shortly after those events took place. We then measured the respondent’s turnover intentions 6 months after Time 1 in order to eliminate the chance of bias in that sample. Collecting long-term data allows us to make clear deductions regarding the effect of the justice perceptions developed in the negotiation experience in recruitment on the employee’s intent to remain with the hiring organization.

This research also highlights opportunities for further research. In both studies, the relationship between job negotiation interactional justice and turnover intentions was significant. However, perceived high-pressure negotiation tactics did not have the hypothesized effect on an employee’s desire to leave the organization. Future research should explore how other negotiation tactics (such as untimely responses, lack of honesty, disrespect, unwillingness to make concessions or provide a sense of give and take) influence an individual’s interactional justice perceptions and affect the long-term employment relationship.

**Conclusion**

The justice literature frequently illustrates the importance of fairness in the workplace. When employees feel they are fairly treated, the effects are usually positive, and when they feel mistreated the negative impact can be significant. Some studies have investigated how recruitment practices can affect the job choice decisions of a potential employee and others have explored the effects of interactional justice perceptions. Our research brings these domains together to examine how the negotiation experience in recruitment and its corresponding interactional justice perceptions can affect one’s long-term relationship with the organization. Our results indicate that not only do recruitment practices have a lingering effect on one’s intent to leave, but that the fairness perceptions related to the negotiation experience in recruitment also have a far-reaching effect on the employment relationship.

**References**


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