

# A Systematic Approach to Personnel Selection

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**I**N THE BIBLE, Gideon was advised by the Lord that he had more men than would be needed to deliver Midian into his hands. The Lord suggested the following selection procedure:

Make every man who laps the water with his tongue like a dog stand on one side, and on the other every man who goes down on his knees and drinks.

Only 300 lapped like a dog, yet they were sufficient to accomplish the task with which they were faced. This is probably the first recorded example of a mass selection procedure. Although it is unlikely that divine guidance will be given to selectors today in their assignments, the message is still important. The principal task of a selector is to find a factor or factors which can distinguish better performers from poorer ones. On the occasion referred to above, those who lapped like dogs kept their hands free, did not lay down their weapons and were presumably more prepared for battle.

It was a long time before further advances were made in selection procedures and, once again, it was in wartime. Group tests were used during the First World War, and after the war their use was developed in industry and education. Further advances in selection procedures occurred during the Second World War, when the basic problem was to reduce waste in allocating recruits to new jobs in the armed forces. For certain more senior positions techniques were evolved which consisted of a series of tests, interviews, situational tasks and group exercises taking two or three days for each group of candidates. It would seem that in time of need the importance of selection procedures becomes obvious and efforts are made to improve those currently available. Even today it is often only in crisis conditions of high labour turnover, poor financial return or difficulty in recruiting staff that proper attention is paid to selection methods.

There is still surprising resistance to the idea that selection techniques can be investigated and improved. Experienced managers feel they are

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able to pick people, that they know all about the jobs they control and that experts can add nothing of value to their procedures. This is just not so; the whole problem of understanding jobs and learning about people's ability to do them can be approached systematically. Certain techniques can be adopted which will help to achieve better selection decisions. It should be a duty of every employer to improve his methods of selection in order that human talent can be best utilised to the over-all satisfaction of both employers and individuals. A wrong selection decision can be just as damaging to the applicant as to the organisation. Selection should not be an isolated function but an integral part of an efficient man-management system involving job design, training, manpower planning and career development.

This article attempts to describe a systematic approach to selection. The aim is to give enough information to enable those concerned with selection to assess whether their procedures are systematic and, if they are not, to set about making them so.

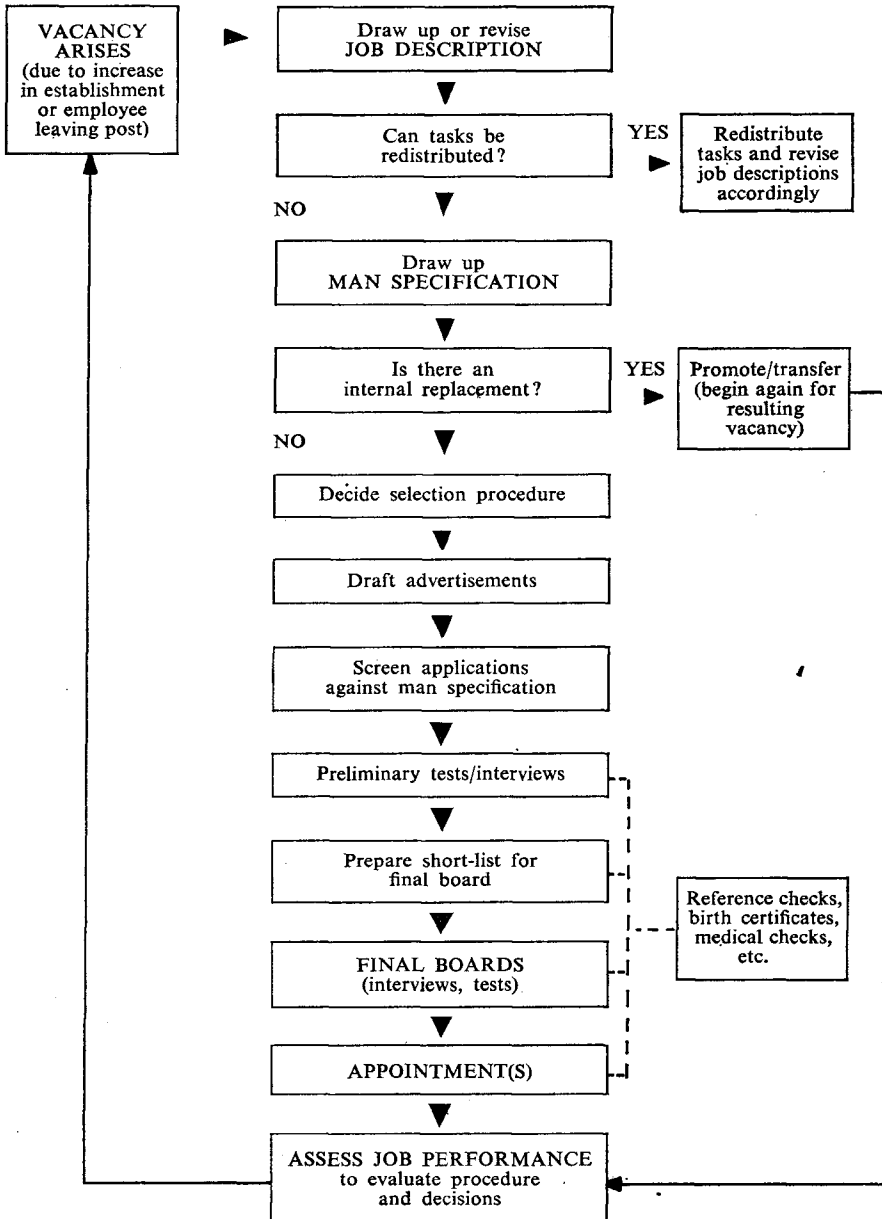
### **The selection system**

The figure illustrates a selection system from the time when a staff vacancy has arisen, through selection, to the very important stage of follow-up of the successful applicant. The first box indicates that a vacancy has arisen, or is thought to have arisen. The next step should be to examine the job description, which is a list of essential duties and responsibilities of the job, so as to decide whether or not it should be revised in any way. If a job description does not exist, one should be prepared. The important question of whether it is necessary to recruit for the position should then be considered. The opportunity might be taken to redistribute the tasks to other employees (perhaps at the same time "enriching" their jobs), thereby saving on manpower costs by not increasing the establishment.

If this cannot be done, a man specification should be prepared. This is a list of the skills, qualifications and experience that the ideal applicant should have. It is an essential step and is remarkably often ignored. It is the key to the rest of the selection procedure.

The possibility of internal promotion should now be considered. An obvious replacement may already be working in the department, or elsewhere in the organisation. In the latter case the position may need to be advertised internally and the rest of the selection system followed through. This may not be necessary if the organisation has a reliable manpower skills inventory system which should indicate appropriately qualified personnel wherever they may be working, but internal advertisement should still be considered as it gives all employees a chance to apply and may be seen to be fairer.

FIGURE 1. A SELECTION SYSTEM



If a promotion cannot be effected, the selection procedure must now be decided upon. At this stage advice may need to be sought from specialised services either inside or outside the organisation. The degree of professionalism required will depend upon the importance of the position to be filled. Indeed, for many positions assistance may be needed at the earlier stages of job description and man specification. If outside help is sought from management consultants, care must be taken to ensure that a reputable organisation is employed.

Advertising is the next problem. Consideration needs to be given to the potential sources of applicants and the media necessary to reach them. Advertisements must be carefully worded and placed in the correct media in order to produce a reasonable quantity of suitable applicants. Essential qualifications should be stated in advertisements; if this is not done unqualified people will apply, with consequent waste of time to themselves and the selectors. A successful advertisement, in the writer's experience, produces enough applicants to enable selectors to have about three serious contenders at the final board stage for each position available. If selection is a multi-stage process, one ought to be able to reduce the numbers by about two-thirds at each stage. This may not always be possible in certain market conditions, but if it is, genuine selection can be attempted.

The man specification is used to decide which applicants should be invited to enter a further stage of selection. Screening of application forms is not an easy task. Basic constraints (age, qualifications, relevant work experience) should be the main criteria for decisions at this stage. It is dangerous to attempt to assess personality and motivation from answers to open-ended questions. Application forms should be designed to obtain relevant factual information and nothing more.

The next stage will normally consist of preliminary interviews and/or tests. On the basis of performance on these a short-list of final board candidates may be drawn up. For certain positions selection may already be made at this stage, but for other, more important, positions a final board is to be preferred. Ideally the best six or eight candidates on preliminary interview will be invited back for a full day's selection board, which will consist of tests, interviews and group discussions. Following this, decisions will be made, references may be taken up, medical examinations carried out and offers of appointment made. The stage at which references are taken up or medical checks are made will vary; it would be pointless to leave any consideration of health to the final stage for positions for which full physical fitness is required.

This is a brief presentation of a system which could be used as a framework for any selection programme. The emphasis at each stage will, of course, vary according to the position for which the selection is to be made. The rest of this article will concentrate on some aspects of interviews, tests and group activities.

### The selection interview

The selection interview has from time to time received a lot of criticism, much of which has been justified.<sup>1</sup> However, no employer, one supposes, would contemplate offering anyone a job without some sort of meeting constituting an interview. Neither would anyone want to accept a job unless he had had a chance to meet and talk to his future boss. The problem is not to find alternative methods but to see how the interview can be improved. Again, this can only be done by using a systematic approach. The reviews already cited of this process tend to agree about the advantages of structured interviews.

The interview is an information-gathering exercise and it is a two-way process. The objective, from the interviewer's point of view, is to extend his knowledge of the applicant in order to answer the basic question: Can he do the job? The applicant hopes to find out more about the particular job he has applied for, about prospects for promotion and about the over-all climate of the organisation.

Several excellent books are available which go into the do's and don't's of interviewing in depth<sup>2</sup>, and anyone who has to do even a small amount of interviewing in the course of his work should study at least one of them. All of them convey the message that interviewing must not be allowed to be an unplanned and uncontrolled process. Selectors must be trained in interviewing, and in all circumstances this will require participation in a training course or programme. All organisations should have as one of their objectives the aim of training in interviewing all personnel who have responsibility for staff selection.

Since space is short a number of points about the interview process are set out below as if they were rules. All of them may be argued about to some extent, but in the writer's experience they represent a reasonable consensus about what constitutes good interviewing practice.

(1) Prepare an interview sheet based on a systematic series of points to be covered in the interview. These can be related directly to the man specification.

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<sup>1</sup> For evidence for and against the effectiveness of the interview system the detailed review papers by Mayfield, Ulrich and Trumbo, and Wright should be consulted. See E. C. Mayfield: "The selection interview—a re-evaluation of published research", in *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 17, No. 3, autumn 1964, pp. 239-260; L. Ulrich and D. Trumbo: "The selection interview since 1949", in *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 63, 1965, pp. 100-116; and O. R. Wright: "Summary of research on the selection interview since 1964", in *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 22, No. 4, winter 1969, pp. 391-413.

<sup>2</sup> See R. L. Kahn and C. F. Cannell: *The dynamics of interviewing* (New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1957); E. Sidney and M. Brown: *The skills of interviewing* (London, Tavistock Publications, 1961); E. Anstey and E. O. Mercer: *Interviewing for the selection of staff* (London, Allen and Unwin, 1956).

(2) Make notes on this sheet as the interview is in progress; don't trust to memory after the interview or, worse, at the end of the day.

(3) Record facts rather than impressions; if you record impressions record the reasons for them.

(4) Keep questions simple and open-ended, and ask "why" questions in addition to "what" questions. For technical topics ask questions that will reveal the applicant's problem-solving ability rather than questions of simple fact.

(5) Avoid unnecessary comment or opinion.

(6) Keep to a logical pattern. Many people find a chronological sequence most suitable.

(7) Do not digress or pry unnecessarily—but remember that certain questions that do not appear directly relevant may still be important, e.g. "What does your wife feel about this application?"

(8) Do not interview in the presence of more than one other person if you can possibly help it. Board interviews should be banned. If more people have to be involved, make them operate in pairs. Not more than four people should be needed to make any selection decision, no matter how important.

(9) If this practice is adopted the pairs of interviewers should agree beforehand about topics on which each will concentrate. Too much duplication of effort is bad economics and bad manners.

(10) A few minutes should be taken after each interview to summarise the main findings under the categories "strengths" and "weaknesses".

(11) Timetables should be adhered to as far as possible.

(12) Decisions should be made at the end of the day and not deferred. Time plays tricks with impressions.

(13) Interviewers' notes should not be placed on employees' files. This will inhibit recording at the interview. Interviewers should be encouraged to retain their record sheets for the purposes of evaluation of the selection procedure and of their own performance.

Interviewing is something that most people can be helped to do reasonably well but it is not something that people can do without any guidance. Training is required at all levels. It is an activity which does not give much leeway for individual idiosyncrasy. It has an important public relations function in addition to the primary one of selecting the right person. All applicants are probably also potential customers of one sort or another and must not be given a bad impression of the organisation by offhand, disorganised, or rude interviewers.

### Selection tests

The other main selection method consists of testing. By a test is meant a systematic procedure for comparing the behaviour of two or more persons. Tests should be standardised so that the same one can be given in the same way at different times and places. They should also be objective so that each observer or judge seeing the same performance will arrive at the same conclusion.

Cronbach<sup>1</sup> suggests that tests can be divided into two main categories.

*Tests of ability or maximum performance* include tests of general mental ability (intelligence), tests of special abilities (spatial ability, mechanical ability, sense of pitch, etc.) and proficiency or achievement tests (school examinations). An aptitude test is used to predict success in some occupation or training course. It is a compound test as, for example, an engineering aptitude test, which may contain sections measuring general mental ability, special abilities such as mechanical comprehension and achievement in mathematics.

*Tests of typical performance* measure what a person usually does rather than his potential. Such tests consist of personality questionnaires, interest inventories, or behaviour observations under controlled conditions as in group discussions and activities, structured interviews and projective tests.

Two technical concepts are essential to an understanding of the part that tests can play in selection. The first is validity, which is defined as the extent to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure. Validity can be represented mathematically by means of a correlation coefficient calculated by correlating test scores (predictor variables) with performance measures (criterion variables). Predictive validity is demonstrated by showing a relationship between a predictor and performance on a criterion some time in the future. Concurrent validity is demonstrated by showing relationships between predictor and criterion measures taken at the same time. Two other types of validity are not normally expressed in numerical terms. If a test fully represents the intended area of knowledge or ability, it is said to have content validity. Construct validity is a theoretical concept: the extent to which a test measures a psychological construct such as aggression or spatial ability. Finally, there is "face" validity, which is the extent to which a test appears to be relevant. This is important in selection, as it is unfair to subject candidates to tests that appear to have no relevance to the post for which they are applying. Some personality tests may be criticised on these grounds.

The other main concept is that of reliability, which is defined as the extent to which a test gives consistent measures. This concept can also

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<sup>1</sup> L. J. Cronbach: *Essentials of psychological testing* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1960).

be expressed mathematically by means of a correlation coefficient. Measures of internal consistency (such as split-half reliability, in which the correlation between the results obtained on two halves of the same test is calculated) are taken from the results of one administration of a test. A coefficient of equivalence is a reliability estimate calculated by correlating the scores of testees obtained on the basis of two parallel forms of a test. A coefficient of stability is based on two administrations of the same test at different times. It should be clear that these different ways of estimating reliability are not universally applicable. It is not really meaningful to take a measure of stability on the basis of a proficiency test, as proficiency is likely to change with time.

A raw score or mark in a psychological test, taken by itself, has no significance. The score must be related to some standard. This is often done by converting test scores to percentile ranks. A percentile rank indicates what proportion of a group of persons score at or below a particular test score. Norms are usually established by administering the test to a representative sample of the occupational group in which one is interested. In industry it is common practice to build up norms for both applicant and employee groups.

A useful way to combine norm and test validity information is by means of an expectancy table (see below). This shows the relationship between a clerical aptitude test and performance in a basic training course of a group of airline reservation clerks. It is clear that those who obtained scores in the test went on to obtain higher scores in the training course examination. In this case the correlation between test and course marks was 0.46, which is significant beyond the  $P=0.05$  level ( $N=50$ ), a result that with the group of 50 concerned might be expected to occur by chance alone less often than once in twenty times. The use of this test should increase the efficiency of selection of reservation clerks.

Before adopting a test for use, satisfactory answers should be sought to the following questions from the source recommending the particular test:

(1) Was the test designed to measure what you intend to measure with it?

(2) Is the administration clearly explained and is the scoring objective?

EXPECTANCY TABLE: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEST SCORE AND TRAINING COURSE PERFORMANCE FOR AIRLINE RESERVATION CLERKS

Test score range	Percentile range	Chances in 100 of scoring 91 or more on the course
130+	76-100	79
116-129	51-75	62
97-115	26-50	54
0-96	0-25	36

- (3) Are the administration time and cost within reasonable limits?
- (4) Is there published evidence of validity in a situation similar to that in which you intend to use it?
- (5) Is there evidence of reliability?
- (6) Are there norms on groups similar to those on which you intend to use it?
- (7) Has the test been recommended to you by a reputable professional source and/or has it obtained satisfactory reviews in textbooks or journals?

### **Test research**

It should be clear by now that testing is not something that can be embarked upon without a lot of care and attention. It is vital that professional advice should be sought. A useful starting-point would be to consult a local university department of psychology or management studies. One must beware of disreputable consultants using unreliable and invalid techniques. If an organisation is considering carrying out testing on a regular basis, a qualified occupational psychologist should be employed. Such a person is not needed to administer and score tests—training courses are available to train personnel staff in the administration of certain tests<sup>1</sup>—but decisions about which tests to use can be taken only by a qualified psychologist, and only such a person can carry out evaluation research, which is essential.

Before a testing procedure can be introduced some preliminary research is required. One approach is to give the tests to current employees in the occupation for which one is recruiting. Their scores on the tests are correlated with a measure of job performance. While measures of job performance are notoriously difficult to obtain, problems of reliability and validity arising here as they do with tests, techniques are available to assist with these problems.<sup>2</sup> Complicated rating scales and numerous separate scales should be avoided. Ratings should be descriptive and based on observation of actual behaviour. It is advisable to encourage supervisors to record the events that lead to their ratings as well as the ratings themselves. To carry out this research the co-operation of management and employees will be required. Some suspicion about the purposes will be aroused, so these must be explained clearly and co-operation sought at an early stage. This type of study will indicate the concurrent validity of the tests. Predictive validity is much more difficult to establish. Tests are given to applicants but the results are not used to make selection decisions. At a later stage the test scores are related to the job per-

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<sup>1</sup> But see J. Tiffin and E. J. McCormick: *Industrial psychology* (London, Allen and Unwin, 1966), Ch. 9, p. 151.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, Ch. 2.

formance of those who were selected. If significant results are obtained, this will justify using the tests on future occasions.

At this stage it should be pointed out that all research of this type carried out in a real-life situation is hindered by certain unavoidable problems. Ideally, selection research should be based on a predictive validity model. All applicants are tested, test results are ignored, and all are selected, trained and allowed to perform the job. After a reasonable time has elapsed job performance is measured and correlated with test results. Such a strategy is, of course, not practical, and indeed there are now some doubts as to whether or not it is even theoretically valid.<sup>1</sup> An effective training programme ought to go some way towards removing individual differences which may have been present at the time of selection. In other words training programmes should be individually tailored to produce effective workers. However, the main point to notice is that in practical situations we are dealing with samples which have already been selected in some way or other and the chances of obtaining high validity coefficients in these circumstances of restriction of range<sup>2</sup> are diminished. Other hindrances to research are practical and ethical ones; time may not be available to use part of a selection procedure programme for research; one may also question the ethics of wasting applicants' time by asking them to undertake tests which have no bearing on their present application.

What types of tests should be used? For most positions some measure of general intelligence will prove of value. Beyond this, tests should be specially chosen to suit particular jobs: clerical tests for clerical positions, engineering aptitude tests for engineering apprentices, high-level intelligence tests for general managerial positions, and so on. No general rules can be laid down; only specific investigations including job studies of each position can give an answer.

### **Personality tests**

Should personality tests be used? It is right that attempts should be made to improve our knowledge of the relationship between personality traits and job behaviour, but the problems are much greater in this area than in that of ability measurement. In the first place theories of personality are many and there is much less agreement about basic factors in personality structure than about those in intellectual structure. Personality tests are less objective than ability tests; it is quite likely that respondents will react to them differently in selection circumstances than in other circumstances and will attempt to appear in what they judge to

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<sup>1</sup> See E. A. Rundquist: "The prediction ceiling", in *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 22, No. 22, summer 1969, pp. 109-116.

<sup>2</sup> Cf. J. P. Guilford: *Fundamental statistics in psychology and education* (New York, McGraw-Hill, 1965).

be a favourable light. Many personality tests have been developed to assess abnormal personality traits and their applicability to the normal population is doubtful. To use personality tests a high level of training is required and it is doubtful if this can be imparted in a short time. Evidence of their validity and reliability is not reassuring; a short examination of the relevant literature will make this perfectly clear.<sup>1</sup>

There are other problems connected with personality tests which, even if those mentioned above could be overcome, may still make the desirability of using these tests for selection doubtful. Basic personality traits may not prove to be highly correlated with job success. It is clear that a wide range of personality types is to be found in any occupational group. Average profiles in a personality test of, for example, representative samples of engineers and doctors may differ significantly in some respects, but over and above this, individual variation may be so great as to make the use of the test for individual selection decisions an extremely dubious practice. Economic considerations may also be important; a valid picture of an applicant's personality could emerge after two hours of personality testing but selection time might be more profitably spent on interviews and ability tests. It is certainly not enough to be able to measure personality well. It still remains to be shown that the traits which have been measured are related to performance on the job. Guion concludes:

In view of the problems, both technical and moral, one must question the wisdom and the morality of using personality tests *as instruments of decision* in employment procedures. Research must continue, but it should be basic research defining and classifying traits and discovering how a job applicant's personality relates to the personality he reveals later on a job.<sup>2</sup>

### Criticisms of tests

Recently the use of tests of any sort has been criticised<sup>3</sup> on the ground that they may discriminate against minority group candidates unfairly. The problem appears to be that minority group candidates may do poorly in tests but do well on the job. Tests may have a differential validity for such groups. Many of the problems involved in using tests with them are no more than the problems of tests and, indeed, of selection procedures in general. Techniques should not be adopted which are inappropriate, i.e. unreliable and invalid. Tests, themselves, do not discriminate in a racial sense; many employers do. On this subject Doppelt and Bennett say:

Discrimination in the world of work is a social ailment. Although poor showings on tests may be a symptom of the ailment, the use of tests in employee selection is

<sup>1</sup> O. K. Buros (ed.): *Sixth mental measurements yearbook* (New Brunswick (New Jersey), Gryphon Press, 1965).

<sup>2</sup> R. M. Guion: *Personnel testing* (New York, McGraw-Hill, 1965).

<sup>3</sup> See, for example, D. E. Coupland: "Aptitude tests and discrimination", in *International Labour Review*, Vol. 102, No. 3, Sep. 1970, pp. 241-253.

inherently a friendly rather than a hostile act to those who come to the job market from backgrounds of limited opportunity. Society may well have the responsibility of providing effective remedial instruction for those who have been culturally deprived. The rejection of measuring instruments which register the consequence of such deprivation is merely a modern version of killing the messenger who brings bad news.<sup>1</sup>

It is important that testing should be retained and further developed as an integral part of selection procedures. A score in an aptitude test is a fact which can be independently verified; a report of an interview is much more subjective and it may be much more difficult to prove discrimination where non-objective procedures are in use. Not all members of minority groups score poorly in tests and this is a point which some critics seem to forget. Where tests have been carefully designed and validated (and this is not an impossible task), and are integrated with other selection aids (such as interviews and well-designed application forms), minority groups can benefit from their use. Once unfamiliarity with testing is overcome, and if a test can be shown to have validity for the job in question, then a greater opportunity may be given to applicants from disadvantaged groups to demonstrate their skills than is given by a face-to-face interview, particularly where linguistic and social differences exist between the interviewer and the applicants.

### **Group activities in selection**

A third type of selection technique involves observing applicants in an activity which they undertake as a group. Group activities may be of several kinds. A topic may be given to applicants at the beginning of a final board. This could be a business case study consisting of background information on a management problem and posing some questions on it. During the day while applicants are between interviews they are expected individually to read and make notes on the study. Or instead of a case study a controversial article from a business or professional journal could be used. At the end of the day the candidates (not more than six to eight in a group) come together and informally express their views on the problem. The selectors observe but do not intervene in the discussion. The comments made by the candidates can be classified in two main ways: task-centred and group-centred. The task-centred dimension covers the relevance and usefulness of the comments to the solution of the problem. The group-centred dimension covers the appropriateness of the comments in the context of the discussion at the time. This may be the more important dimension, particularly in the case of selection for positions in which human relations are important. Selectors should beware of candidates who do not seem to take the views of other members

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<sup>1</sup> J. E. Doppelt and G. K. Bennett: "Testing job applicants from disadvantaged groups", in *Test Service Bulletin*, No. 57 (New York, The Psychological Corporation, 1967).

of the group into consideration, who are rude, or who argue, or who attempt to talk while someone else is talking. Of course, this is assuming that such behaviour is not required on the job in question. There may be jobs in which it is required; the importance of an accurate man specification is again emphasised.

A further development of the group activity uses tasks which are ill-defined and apparently simple (for example building a tower with children's toy bricks). An element of stress can be introduced by setting a time limit. Groups very quickly become involved in such tasks and do not seem to find them irrelevant or boring. Since the intellectual content of these tasks is very low, the skill with which a candidate interacts with and influences other members of the group is more readily observed.

Selection boards for commissions in the British Army involve almost all of the procedures described so far. These boards include a further type of group activity designed to assess qualities of initiative and leadership. Some of these tasks take place in the open air and require the team of candidates to negotiate an obstacle course within a time limit. An interesting booklet on the Regular Commissions Board describes the selection procedures for intending officers.<sup>1</sup>

### **Evaluation of selection procedures**

An essential constituent of a fully developed selection system is evaluation. The term evaluation is used deliberately in this context rather than validation. By evaluation is meant the over-all worth of the selection procedure in economic and social as well as technical terms. The term validation should be reserved for the effectiveness of a test, or particular constituent of a selection procedure, in measuring a particular criterion. A test could have high validity but, if administration time was very long, it might be evaluated poorly in terms of the over-all selection procedure. Continuous evaluation is necessary even with procedures which have been shown to have a high degree of validity. Jobs change and applicant groups may change, so that the validity of procedures may drop. Evaluation involves the follow-up of successful candidates; job performance measures are collected and related to selection information. Ideally, rejected candidates should be followed-up too, but this is nearly impossible: the response rate is not likely to be very high! Performance measures present their own problems of validity and reliability but an attempt can be made to overcome them.<sup>2</sup> Where a performance appraisal system is in operation for purposes of training, assessment of effectiveness and promotion, the data it generates may also be used for the evaluation

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<sup>1</sup> P. Lewis: *Regular Commissions Board—Army officer selection procedure* (London, HM Stationery Office, 1969).

<sup>2</sup> Tiffin and McCormick, *op. cit.*, Chs. 2 and 9.

of selection procedures. If a performance appraisal system is being introduced, care should be taken to ensure that data are collected in such a form as to make selection validity studies possible.

The anxiety felt in some quarters about the use of tests with minority group applicants has already been mentioned. Recently in the United States personnel selection practice has been the object of some criticism. Concern has been expressed about the invasion of privacy of the individual by the use of both personality tests and personnel interviews. The only answer to such criticism is to ensure that recruitment and selection procedures are placed firmly in the hands of people trained and qualified to do the job. It is a job in which certain personal as well as technical and professional qualities are required. The selection of personnel to carry out selection duties is in itself an important task. Rules about how far to probe in interviews cannot be made; awareness of what is acceptable to candidates and of what is appropriate to the situation develops with training and experience. But it does seem clear to the present writer that some people will never develop this awareness and should not be contemplating occupations as selection interviewers. Guion ends a recent review by commenting on this whole area of concern. Some of the blame for the discrediting of selection procedures, he feels, lies with the professionals themselves, who have too readily marketed their techniques:

Much of this is the fruits of the psychological do-it-yourself movement: "You, too, become a tester in ten pleasant sessions!" This was not charlatanism, it was an attitude of professionals that selection was, in fact, so routine that it could be easily taught to others.... Improved applications of psychology to employment practice cannot be developed or directed by graduates of a five-day seminar; that must be done by competently trained psychologists fully aware of theoretical, methodological and analytical advances in the field and able to see more than simple relations between predictors and criteria. Perhaps public regulation will return personnel testing, at least, to psychologists. If so, it will be welcome.<sup>1</sup>

Guion is implying that any organisation which wishes to use selection procedures including testing should employ, or consult, an occupational psychologist. It is unlikely that testing will be restricted by law to qualified psychologists, and indeed it is doubtful if this would ever be necessary for all types of test. Protection for the individual will come from co-operation between psychologists and organisations. Psychologists may have been too ready to share their expertise but it is also true that certain organisations have, in turn, been too ready to accept and use dubious and untried techniques.

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<sup>1</sup> R. M. Guion: "Personnel selection", in *Annual Review of Psychology*, Vol. 18, 1967, pp. 191-216.