Social Media and Dynamic Capabilities: Mining Millennial Resources

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Because the human element contributes greatly to a firm’s competencies and related competitiveness, and because the talent pool of prospective employees increasingly includes social media-savvy Millennials, the strategic human resource function must take full and appropriate advantage of social media tools in its acquisition of human assets. The ability to do so is, in fact, a dynamic capability that may be informed by examining the effects of hiring managers’ use of social media as an influence in employment and related decisions. How talent evaluators perceive and make decisions has always impacted the hiring process. The current effort explores cognitive and behavioral issues related to textual and contextual factors and their influence on strategic human resource decisions.

INTRODUCTION

Both scientific inquiry and practice support the idea that a firm’s potential as an above-average performer is predicated on its development and application of important, dynamic capabilities (Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997). This notion is consistent with Barney’s (1991) Resource-Based View (RBV) of the firm, in which the firm’s resources, both tangible and intangible, provide potential sources of sustainable competitive advantage when they are strategically controlled. Specifically, in the strategic human resources domain, these dynamic capabilities refer to the custody and utilization of human capital (Snell, Shadur, & Wright, 2001; Wright, Dunford, & Snell, 2001) and dictate the strategic role of human resources to cultivate “competences, cultures, and composition of workers that underlie a firm’s competitive potential” (634). Even though this area of inquiry has received increasing attention, synthesis across disciplines like entrepreneurship and human resource management, for example, has been sluggish in keeping up with what Katz, Aldrich, Welbourne, and Williams (2000) foreshadowed sixteen years ago: “At a time of unparalleled technological development, it is the human resources that paradoxically spell success or failure for all firms, and especially entrepreneurial ones” (1). While Katz, et al. (2000) ostensibly implied the application of technology to perform routine functions and, thus, to free workers to perform truly intelligent and creative tasks, the current contextualization of this strategic human resource element must involve the technological and related interactional opportunities found in social media.

Because the human element “has the potential to set a firm apart from its competitive field” (Karriker, Ireland, & Coombs, 2004, p. 3), and because the talent pool of prospective employees increasingly includes social media-savvy Millennials, the strategic human resource function must take full and
appropriate advantage of social media tools in its acquisition of human assets. We propose that the ability to do so is, in fact, a dynamic capability that may be informed by examining the effects of hiring managers’ use of social media as influences in employment and related decisions. The current effort explores cognitive and behavioral issues related to textual and contextual factors and their influence on strategic human resource decisions.

Resource Based View and Strategic Human Resources

Sustainable competitive advantage is, in essence, the ‘holy grail’ of strategic management efforts, leading to exemplary levels of firm performance. As such, it poses the penultimate, yet, elusive goal that gives buyers “lasting reasons to prefer a company’s products for services over those of competitors – reasons that competitors are unable to nullify or overcome despite their best efforts” (Thompson, Peteraf, Gamble, & Strickland, 2016, p.7). To the extent that they are valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable, the sources of sustainable competitive advantage may be found in an organization’s resources and capabilities (Barney, 1991). Wright, et al. (2001) applied this paradigm specifically to human resources, also referenced as human capital. That is, to gain a sustainable competitive advantage, human capital must, by implication, first be at the disposal of the firm (Harris & McMahan, 2017). Prahalad and Hamel, 1990, suggest, “…in combination with broader organizational systems and technologies, people form the basis of a firm’s core competencies” (p.634).

Once acquired, human capital must be both highly skilled and highly motivated to generate the potential of human capital into a self-renewing resource and a sustainable competitive advantage (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Wright, et al., 2001, Karriker & Hartman, 2016), the ability of the firm to procure appropriate and optimal talent is both vital and dynamic. In keeping with Barney (1991), we infer from Wright, et al. (2001) that an effective people management system itself comprises a set of dynamic capabilities that will turn the potential of human competency into an actual sustainable competitive advantage.

Shechan and Foss (2017) suggest a Porterian value chain framework, which includes hiring personnel, to help elucidate Amit and Schoemaker’s (1993) relatively precise definition of dynamic capabilities: the ability to utilize resources efficiently in tasks, processes, or activities. In this case, the tasks, processes, and activities refer to the talent acquisition function. Specifically, a primary dynamic capability of an effective management system is found in the practices of recruiting and acquiring employees to meet strategic staffing goals related to advantageous knowledge, skills, and abilities (Quinn, 1992) in support of a profitable organizational culture (Black & La Venture, 2017). Karriker, Ireland, and Coombs’ (2004) assertion that “…the people management function, as a system, may be distinctive in the ways in which it coordinates…the firm’s human capital” (p. 13) is consistent with the construct of the strategic selection process as a dynamic capability. This characterization highlights the need for researchers and practitioners to understand more fully the performance-enhancing potential of strategic hiring practices, particularly in light of the talent pool and the socio-technological environment that contextualizes current selection efforts.

Millennial Talent and Social Media

Merriam-Webster defines Millennials as persons born in the 1980s and 1990s through the early 2000s (“Millennial,” 2018). Recent employment trends, including lower unemployment rates, flexible work locations, and this demographic’s representing 50% of the global workforce by 2020, suggest Millennials will have a high degree of choice in selecting the organizations from which they wish to seek work (Fry, 2018; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011). These phenomena heighten both the importance and the challenges of the strategic human resource acquisition functions of organizations. Prospective employers may avail themselves of vast amounts of intentionally and inadvertently disclosed applicant information, thus supporting the importance in this study of exploring the impact of the volume and content of applicant social media profiles on strategic human resource decisions. Dana, Dawes, and Peterson’s (2013) study of [face-to-face] interviewers’ “sensemaking” and “dilution” propensities informs our inquiry. With regard to sensemaking, “the ability for interviewers to make sense of virtually anything the
interviewee says” (p.1), and dilution, “the tendency for available but non-diagnostic information to weaken the predictive value of quality information” (p. 1), interviewers (and interview observers) made relatively invalid assessments. Further, the inclusion of “random” information in the hiring process in the form of unstructured interviews, resulted both in significantly inaccurate evaluations and in interviewers’ false confidence in the quality of their decisions. In the current effort, we assert the varied contextual information provided by social media may also have an impact on strategic hiring decisions.

Social Identity Theory (SIT) is the study of how identities are shaped (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008), and for many job-seeking Millennials this occurs on social media sites like LinkedIn. The public presentation of identities online provides the employers the ability to see pictures posted, hobbies listed, political affiliations, favorite music, and other interests. Research on Facebook shows that users have reported their profiles as a version of their hoped-for or possible selves (Zhao, Grasmuck, & Martin, 2008). Facebook profiles can be segregated into two broad categories: the differentiation profile (I am unique and different from others) and the self-enhancing profile (I am popular and similar to others). What is potentially worrisome for employers is that the majority of profiles fell under the self-enhancing umbrella (Liu, 2007), thus suggesting a training area for building an impression management savviness in constructing profiles that fulfill the expectations of others (i.e., employers on LinkedIn) and are not authentic. Employers have followed in kind by making decisions based on employee and applicant profiles. Certain organizations’ human resource managers have made headlines for actions (e.g., rejection of an applicant because his Facebook page cited extensive romantic exploits and an interest in violent films). As students advance through their professional preparation, they begin to care more about creating a professional social media profiles; yet, they still post more unprofessional material than faculty (Kitsis et al., 2016).

Social media usage has increased tenfold between 2005 and 2015. Younger, more educated, and higher income adults are most likely to use social media, and 65% of adults are social media users (Perrin, 2015). Younger workers have grown up communicating through blogs and social networks and are less likely to communicate through email, preferring texting and social media (Hershatter & Epstein, 2010). Possibly exacerbating the challenge of incorporating social media in talent acquisition processes are the facts that, clearly, Millennials feel more comfortable engaging in self-disclosure online than in person (Mazer, Murphy, & Simonds, 2007), and that technology has altered job seeking and job seeker behavior. Most notably, membership in LinkedIn, the largest and most widely used an online professional community, has grown to include over 467 million members in over 200 countries and territories (www.linkedin.com). Over 80 percent of Fortune 500 firms’ human resource managers report using LinkedIn as part of the talent acquisition process (Barnes & Lescault, 2012). Yet, these online communities have not been well studied, and it is unclear how the context of an online profile impacts hiring recommendations and, by implication, acquisition of valuable human resources. The professional profile platform provided on LinkedIn and other social media sites provides a potentially richer resource to evaluate the quality of human capital in relation to a resume, for example, but as more self-presentation is available to raters, it is unclear if the additional contextual information means more highly qualified applicants actually secure interviews (Guillory & Hancock, 2012).

How talent evaluators perceive and make decisions has always impacted the hiring process, but organizations with a competency in evaluating online profiles likely have a competitive advantage in securing top talent. Yet, evaluator competency may be negatively impacted by the job seeker’s goals in self-presentation. Those job seekers less concerned with pictures and contextual, presentation enhancements available in online profiles may have difficulty matching recruiters’ expectations. Further, as not all high-quality job seekers are able to provide information related to the specific topics recruiters find interesting, their likelihood of obtaining interview opportunities may be reduced (Schwammleim & Wodzicki, 2012). Compounding these issues and heightening the need to examine the effects of voluntarily provided profile content is the fact that a direct request for a picture from an applicant is an EEOC violation. This means not all qualified job seekers will be willing to post their pictures, for fear of rater bias. Research in a traditional recruitment context shows that perceptions of candidate attractiveness
may drive employers' decisions regarding job interviews (Dipboye, Fromkin, & Wiback, 1975), and we assert that photo attractiveness may also play a role in the digital age.

Conversely, those job seekers minimally acceptable for employment, and yet savvy in image presentation, may disproportionately obtain interview opportunities. Even if the minimally acceptable job seekers are eventually eliminated from consideration, the time spent evaluating these individuals can be costly. Moreover, low-savvy, high-quality individuals will still be overlooked, making the candidate pool appear smaller and unnecessarily increasing the usage of hiring inducements and decreasing firm competitiveness over time.

Understanding strategic selection influences is important to researchers and practitioners. An examination of the relative impacts of the content (i.e., skills, experience, etc.) and the context (i.e., pictures) provided in an online profile on recruiter judgments and selection outcomes is vital to this effort.

_Hypothesis 1:_ Raters’ perceptions of applicant overall qualification will positively affect perceptions of person-job fit.

_Hypothesis 2:_ Raters’ perceptions of person-job fit will be positively enhanced when the job seeker profile picture is perceived as attractive.

_Hypothesis 3:_ Raters’ perceptions of person-job fit will positively affect interview invitations.

_Hypothesis 4:_ Raters’ perceptions of person-job fit will positively affect salary offers among selected candidates.

**METHOD**

This study consists of a scenario-based survey depicting a field setting where raters viewed different profiles and made recommendations about job seekers' person-job fit, invitation for an interview, and likely starting salary. Two profiles were created to reflect a typical job seeker recently graduated from college. One profile represented a well-qualified candidate, while the other represented a minimally qualified candidate. Profile photos were selected for this study using results from a pilot study. In the pilot test of color photos, taken from the public domain, two sets of four profile facial photographs, one set showing males, the other showing females, were rated by undergraduate students (13 men and 17 women). Students rated one male and one female photo ‘low’ or ‘high’ in terms of the appropriateness of the photograph for use as a profile photo in social media (low [female = 2.70 male = 2.62]; high [female = 4.20; male = 4.08]); the overall attractiveness of the person in the picture (low [female = 2.97; male =2.67]; high [female =4.13; male =4.10]), and the overall professionalism of the person in the picture (low [female = 2.07; male = 2.30]; high [female = 4.27; male = 4.10]). Ratings were made on a 5-point Likert scale, and in each category were similar in terms of appropriateness, attractiveness, and professionalism by men and women.

In the full study, profiles were presented to raters, but the pictures were randomly changed to be professional or unprofessional. Raters were instructed to determine the degree to which two applicants (1 male and 1 female) fit with the job description for a store manager at a coffee and smoothie franchise in a desirable metropolitan suburb. They were told to expect their recommendations about the candidates would be forwarded to their boss and used to make decisions about the selection decisions related to the two applicants reviewed. Subjects had access to the job description for a manager of a Chicago Suburban location of Red-Bird American Café, a fictional chain of baker-café fast casual restaurants, and were told Red-Bird American Café was similar to, and directly competed with, Panera, Starbucks, and Chipotle.

To avoid the potential problem of social desirability, the respondents were simply told that the purpose of this study was to identify the degree to which the scenario was a realistic representation of how employers viewed LinkedIn profiles prior to inviting applicants for job interviews. Gender-neutral first names and English last names were used for all candidates to limit the possibility of variation due to
ethnic and racial biases, because individuals with English names in the U.S. are more likely to receive a call for an interview than those with foreign names (e.g., China, India, or Pakistan) (Derous et al., 2012; Oreopoulos, 2011). However, the genders of the profiles including the photos were different to allow for the possibility of a gender bias. The colleges were hypothetical, but organizations’ names were not. All the candidates, within each set, had the same graduation dates and college majors. The fictitious employer along with a description of an open position within the organization was created using modified job postings from typical postings available to university students through the career center at their university. Descriptions of the job were identical in both conditions. Each rater read the description of the job first, and participants took on an evaluative role to rate each applicant on several dimensions and to recommend whether the applicant should be invited for an interview and, if so, at what salary level.

Sample
We recruited 145 raters (46.6% men, 50.7% women, and 2.7% did not report) from undergraduate business classes at a large Midwestern university. These raters were between 19 and 23 years of age. Support for our approach is found in Falk, Hammersmann, Mohnen, and Werner (2013) and Hosoda, Stone-Romero, and Coats (2003), which demonstrates ratings of job candidates provided by students are nearly identical to those of professionals.

Procedure
A fictitious employer and a description of an open position within the organization were created using modified job postings from postings typically available to university students through the career centers at their universities. Descriptions of the job were identical in both conditions. Participants were randomly assigned to rate two job applicants’ LinkedIn profiles, one male and one female, and to assess each applicant’s fit with a job. Initially, the raters read descriptions of their roles in the study, the description of the job the applicants had applied for; and, separately, the LinkedIn profiles of the two applicants. Each applicant received ratings on the (a) attractiveness of applicant (photo), (b) overall qualification (materials) of the applicant, (c) person job-fit, (d) whether the applicant should be invited for an interview, and (e) if offered the job, whether offer should be below, at, or above the typical starting salary level. Except for salary, all ratings were made on 5-point scales ranging from low (1) to high (5). Finally, participants were asked to report briefly (1 to 2 sentences) the justifications for their interview and salary recommendations. These justifications were coded to determine if the justifications were weighted on applicant experiences, profile photograph, skills, or other profile information. Each profile evaluated by raters included a photo of the applicant. Photos were placed in the typical prominent location on fictitious LinkedIn profiles given to participants via an online survey. Each participant received one of two surveys. Information, including the LinkedIn profile information, was held constant in both surveys except for the gender of the person’s profile picture.

Measures

Applicant Qualification
Participants responded to the question, “Taking everything into consideration regarding the applicant’s profile, what is your overall evaluation of the candidate?” This was rated on a 5-point Likert scale from “very unattractive” (1 point) to “very attractive” (5 points).

Applicant Attractiveness
Subjects reviewed each candidate’s LinkedIn profile and responded to the request, “Please rate the overall level of attractiveness of this applicant (appearance, dress, etc.)” on a 5-point Likert Scale from “very unattractive” (1 point) to “very attractive” (5 points).

Perceived Person-job Fit
Consistent with Cable and Judge (1996), raters reviewed candidates’ credentials and assessed how well the candidates’ work histories, skills, and other experiences met the job’s requirements with the
items: “The applicant's qualifications are suitable for the job.”; “To what extent does this applicant fit the demands of the job?”; “To what extent will other raters think this candidate is qualified to do this job?; “How confident are you that this applicant is qualified for this job?” Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = not at all to 5 = completely.

**Interview Invitation**

Two items formed a behavioral measure of a raters’ selection intentions: “I would be interested in interviewing this applicant,” and “I would invite the applicant to my organization for an interview.” Ratings ranged from strongly disagree [1] to strongly agree [5]. This measure was similar to the measure used by Cable and Judge (1997) because the items represent frequently used variables in previous selection decision research (e.g., Cable and Judge, 1997; Kristof-Brown, 2000).

**Salary Offer**

Raters were given an annual pay scale for this position ($50K to $80K) and the average annual pay for newly hired regional managers ($62K) and asked, “Assuming the position is offered to this applicant, what starting salary should this applicant be offered?”

**Rationale.** Finally, participants were asked to report briefly (1 to 2 sentences) and separately the justifications for their interview and salary recommendations.

**Other Measures**

Three items (Cronbach’s Alpha = .81) were used to measure scenario realism: “The scenario described seemed realistic,” “I could make myself feel that this situation was real,” and “This situation could happen, or has happened.” Participants responded to these items on a 5-point scale with anchors of 1 (definitely no) to 5 (definitely yes). Greenberg and Eskew (1993) noted that scenarios can be an effective way to learn how individuals respond to events in their own workplace when participants are asked to role-play a situation they are familiar with and believe to be realistic. In this study, raters perceived the scenario provided to them as realistic (Condition 1: Mean: 3.97 (.67); Condition 2: Mean: 4.02 (.56)).

After reading the description of the job, each rater separately assessed two applicants for a total of 290 applicant ratings. Participants were randomly assigned to rate two job applicants’ LinkedIn profiles, one male and one female, and to assess the applicants’ fit with the requirements of a job. Due to differences among scale anchors, responses were standardized before scale scores were computed, consistent with Cole, Rubin, Field, and Guiles (2007). Further, when predicting applicant interview invitations and salary offer recommendations, we controlled for the rater’s sex.

The means, standard deviations, and correlations among all the variables appear in Tables 1 and 2. The correlation between person-job fit and interview invitations support that they are related, but also distinct constructs.

**RESULTS**

Multiple regression analysis was used to assess the relative effects of the variables. Because each participant made two assessments, the resulting study N was 290 (145 participants x 2 applicant evaluations). This approach has been shown to be valid in prior research (Dineen, Noe, & Wang, 2004; Bretz & Judge, 1992). We tested our hypotheses, controlling for the rater’s gender. Our first hypothesis (H1), that rater perceptions of applicant qualifications will positively affect perceptions of person-job fit, was supported. Next, rater perception of applicant attractiveness was regressed on perceived person-job fit (See Table 3). Of these variables, both applicant qualification and applicant attractiveness explained a significant amount of the variance in the criterion. Applicants’ profiles garnering a better overall impression and perceived as attractive were more likely to have a better person-job fit. Additionally, applicant physical attractiveness explained fit perceptions beyond that of qualification alone, supporting Hypothesis 2, that rater perceptions of person-job fit will be positively enhanced when the job seeker’s
profile pictures is perceived as attractive. Here, a small but significant R-squared changed was noted. However, positive qualification did explain the greatest amount of variance Beta = .41; p < .001 versus Beta = .25; p < .05).

**TABLE 3**
PREDICTING PERSON JOB-FIT BY QUALIFICATION AND ATTRACTIVENESS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>R^2</th>
<th>Delta R^2</th>
<th>df</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Rater Gender</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>2, 271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Applicant Qualification</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Applicant Attractiveness</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.03**</td>
<td>1,270</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Beta = standardized regression coefficients; DV = Person Job-Fit
*p <.05, **p <.001

Hypotheses 3 and 4 were concerned with the relationships between the evaluators’ perceptions of applicant fit and whether this resulted in interview invitations and salary offers. (For literature review on fit, see Cable & DeRue, 2002). Table 4 provides regression results from interview invitation analysis. In support of Hypothesis 3, that rater perceptions of person-job fit will positively affect interview invitations, the regression weights for perceived P-J fit were significant. In past studies (Kristof-Brown, 2000, and others), perceived P-J fit explained the greatest amount of variance in hiring decisions. Hypothesis 4, that rater perceptions of person-job fit will positively affect salary offers among selected candidates, was also supported. Table 5 depicts the results of the analyses concerning the relationships between rater perceptions of candidate qualifications, attractiveness, and fit with the job, and rater recommendations about salary offers. However, person job-fit explained more variance in interview invitations than it did for salary offer recommendations (R^2 = .72 versus R^2 = .38). This attenuation is expected because the raters were given a pay scale for this position ranging from $50K to $80K in annual salary, and the average pay for newly hired regional managers was provided as being $62K. This may have unnecessarily restricted rater salary recommendations.

**TABLE 4**
PREDICTING INTERVIEW INVITATIONS BY QUALIFICATION AND ATTRACTIVENESS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
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<th>Delta R^2</th>
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<td></td>
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<td>.20**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Person Job-Fit</td>
<td>.59**</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.22**</td>
<td>1, 269</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Beta = standardized regression coefficients; DV = Interview Invitation
*p <.05, **p <.001

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### TABLE 5
**PREDICTING RECOMMENDED SALARY OFFERS TO CANDIDATE BY PERSON JOB-FIT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Beta</th>
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<th>Delta R^2</th>
<th>df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Applicant Qualification</td>
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<td>.17</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>3, 257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Applicant Attractiveness</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Person Job-Fit</td>
<td>.58**</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.21**</td>
<td>1, 256</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Beta = standardized regression coefficients; DV = Recommended Salary Offer to Candidate
*p < .05, **p < .01
Listwise N= 256 Number of Ratings

We also conducted a supplemental moderator analysis to ascertain the effects, if any, of applicant gender on the relationship between person-job fit and interview invitations (see Figure 2). Here, we note that interview invitations were significantly more likely when the photograph and skills were not mentioned as criteria influencing applicant evaluation. Men were more negatively impacted in terms of interview invitations when the profile photo was mentioned as a justification for decisions about interview invitations, suggesting the potential activation of a negative stereotype about unqualified male applicants. Interestingly, a similar analysis for salary did not reveal such an interaction effect.

**DISCUSSION**

Applicant selection is usually influenced by cues identified during the selection process. Positive cues found on a resume tend to include a targeted career objective; relevant education and training; relevant work experience, interests, and references (Fritzsche & Brannick, 2002). Such cues are primarily content-based. Socio-technical advancements have made available other cues, including biodata (e.g., photos, demographics, etc.), or contextual factors inherent with social media. Similar to those traditional media cues in Ash et al. (1989), these relatively new contextual cues may influence evaluators to make inferences about applicant attributes.

In this effort, we examine raters’ use of LinkedIn profile contextual information, as well as profile content, for making applicant screening decisions. Results indicate that raters are influenced by the applicant’s overall qualification when making decisions about person-job fit. Contextual cues, in the form of applicant (photo) attractiveness, appear to enhance the effects of profile content on the assessment of person-job fit. In turn, person-job fit is a strong indicator regarding interview invitations and potential salary offers. This is particularly important because 122 million LinkedIn users had received an interview through LinkedIn as of spring 2017 (Mediakix Team, 2017). Additionally, over 40 million students and recent college graduates have profiles on LinkedIn (Millennials make up 38% of LinkedIn’s global users) and approximately a quarter of all internet users (male 28% and female 27%) use LinkedIn on average for 17 minutes each month (Aslam, 2018). LinkedIn ranked fifth among the seven major social networks in monthly user counts (Adweek, 2016).

Key supplemental findings help us understand how photo attractiveness enhances profile content. These analyses show possible interaction effects when raters include certain profile characteristics in their deliberations, and that raters do make some consistent ratings regarding applicant attractiveness. Specifically, ratings of person-job fit significantly predicted outcomes for all applicants as expected. Both factors of applicant attractiveness (photo) and overall qualification (resume, materials) of the applicant did significantly predict raters’ interview invitations for the male and female candidates with professional
profile pictures, but only applicant (photo) attractiveness and person-job fit perceptions significantly predicted interview invitations for the male candidate. Unexpectedly, the variables used to predict interview invitations did not behave similarly in the evaluations of each candidate. Further, the qualitative results show that, when the experience is mentioned as an important decision criterion, qualified females have a slight edge over qualified males. However, when the profile photograph is salient, unqualified males may have had an advantage over qualified females, unqualified females, and qualified males (see Figure 1).

**FIGURE 1**

PROFILE INFORMATION USED TO FORM JUDGEMENTS ABOUT APPLICANTS

Unqualified females have an advantage over all other applicants when skills were mentioned by the raters. Thus, our analysis of written justifications of the raters’ feedback indicates individual raters consider certain contextual attributes differently, and they allow these perceptual differences to interact to influence their content-based conclusions. The skills listed on a profile are not believable, but experience is convincing; and a male candidate’s appearance — whether attractive or not — enhances his chances of an employment offer, while a female candidate’s appearance can lessen hers.

These findings suggest that some rater biases may exist based on criteria salience or other factors. Although rater gender bias was shown not to be significant, future research will be called upon by social movements like #metoo to investigate more thoroughly the interplay between social profile content, context, yet to be evaluated intervening factors and candidate assessments. Van Iddekinge, Lanivich, Roth and Junco (2016) urge caution in the use of social media information in applicant assessments, based on preliminary indications of bias in favor of female and white applicants and the potential for adverse effects on job candidates in other sub-groups. Recent and perhaps surprisingly consistent work regarding student ratings of professors assert that, rather than gender, a professor’s ‘perceived hotness’ is significantly correlated with his or her positive rankings on RateMyProfessors.com (Wallisch & Cachia 2018). Such social media studies may inform future investigations. As the popularity of social media will

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no doubt continue to influence raters’ beliefs regarding applicant success, this effort begins to call attention to rater skill, and by extension organizational dynamic capabilities, in navigating these new waters and developing competitive recruitment advantages.

Limitations

Although steps were taken to enhance realism, the use of a controlled scenario may inhibit generalizability. Perhaps, presented with actual profiles, professional recruiters will behave differently than these participants making judgments about applicants for a research study.

CONCLUSION

In a practical sense, job seekers should not be encouraged to be deceptive in advancing their social media employment profiles; rather, to the extent possible, they should build profiles like resumes that better match the implicit theories recruiters have for jobs (Weinstein, 2012). Conversely, they should be cognizant of the influences of their contextual information in enhancing or attenuating raters’ perceptions of their potential.

Essentially, and extending prior research, recruiters would be expected to distinguish salient biodata available electronically and would be influenced by differences in these biodata to alter or enhance their content-based judgments. Because the ability to recruit and select high quality applicants is a dynamic organizational capability, and because social media are increasingly used in recruitment interactions, it is vital that we continue to add to our understanding of the impact of content-based and contextual cues in this understudied, yet highly utilized, socio-technological realm.

REFERENCES


## APPENDIX

### TABLE 1
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF ALL VARIABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean (S.D.)</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>1. Rater Gender*</td>
<td>1.45(0.55)</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Applicant Gender*</td>
<td>0.52(0.50)</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Applicant Attractiveness</td>
<td>3.56(1.15)</td>
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<td>4. Applicant Qualification*</td>
<td>0.50(0.50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Perceived Person Job Fit</td>
<td>3.50(0.88)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Influence of Experience</td>
<td>0.72(0.44)</td>
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<td>7. Influence of Photo</td>
<td>0.31(0.46)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Influence of Skills</td>
<td>0.12(0.32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Influence of Other Information</td>
<td>0.27(0.44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Interview Invite</td>
<td>3.67(0.97)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Salary Offer</td>
<td>61.18(6.03)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Applicant Gender: 0 = Female; 1 = Male
Rater Gender: 1 = Female; 2 = Male
Applicant Qualification: 0 = Less qualified; 1 = More qualified

### TABLE 2
CORRELATIONS FOR ENTIRE SAMPLE

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7.</th>
<th>8.</th>
<th>9.</th>
<th>10.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Gender</td>
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<td>4. Applicant Qualification</td>
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<td>.02</td>
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<td>-.01</td>
<td>.56**</td>
<td>.63**</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Influence of Experience</td>
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<td>.16*</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.23**</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-.20**</td>
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<td>-.14*</td>
<td>-.18**</td>
<td>-.12</td>
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<td>.08</td>
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<tr>
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<td>-.06</td>
<td>.13</td>
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<td>-.13</td>
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<td>.62**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * p < .05; ** p < .01
Pairwise N=290 Number of Ratings
FIGURE 2
SUPPLEMENTAL MODERATOR ANALYSIS