Unfriend Me! Applicant Reactions to the Use of Social Networking Information During the Hiring Process

Byron Shane Lowery
Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, lowerybs@gmail.com

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool_dissertations
Part of the Industrial and Organizational Psychology Commons

Recommended Citation
https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool_dissertations/4148

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate School at LSU Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in LSU Doctoral Dissertations by an authorized graduate school editor of LSU Digital Commons. For more information, please contact gradetd@lsu.edu.
UNFRIEND ME! APPLICANT REACTIONS TO THE USE OF SOCIAL NETWORKING INFORMATION DURING THE HIRING PROCESS

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College
In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

in

The Department of Psychology

by
Byron Shane Lowery
B.S., University of Louisiana-Monroe, 2009
M.A. Louisiana State University, 2014
December 2017
To Mom, Haley, and Lily.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank my advisor, Dr. Jason Hicks, for sticking with me throughout this process and my graduate career in general. It was an interesting road to say the least, and I will never forget how you opened your door and allowed me to finish what I started.

To my committee members, Dr. Emily Elliott, Dr. Jason Harman, and Dr. Daniel Whitman, thank you all for your valuable insight and encouragement throughout this process. As I look back through this document, I see little pieces of you all. Your insight helped strengthen this study, and me as a student. To my mom, thank you so much for the encouragement throughout the years. I couldn’t have done it without you. Finally, to my wife Haley, thank you for believing in me, and never giving up on me. This paper is just as much yours as it is mine. We did it!
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>METHODS</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESULTS</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISCUSSION</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONCLUSION</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 1. Questions for Study 1</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 2. Welcome Page for Study 1</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 3. Debriefing Screen for Study 1</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 4. Selection Procedural Justice Scale – Job Relatedness</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 5. Selection Procedural Justice Scale – Chance to Perform</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 6. Perceptions of Privacy Scale</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 7. Procedural Justice Fairness Scale</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 8. Organization Attraction Scale</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 9. Job Pursuit Intentions Scale</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 10. Applicant Consent Qualitative Research Questions</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 11. Study 2 Applicant Job Posting</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 12. Study 2 Welcome Screen</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 13. Study 2 Participant Debriefing Message</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 14. Summary of Ratings for Study 1</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ABSTRACT

In today’s world, it seems everyone has a profile on at least one social networking website. Sites like Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn have millions of users. As such, it should come to no surprise that information contained on these sites is being used in various ways. One of the more controversial uses of this information is to screen potential job applicants during the hiring process. Indeed, a growing trend among organizations has been to gather data on applicants in order to identify better employees. However, there is a growing concern about how applicants will react to this practice. Unfavorable reactions to selection procedures may have negative impacts such as decreased organizational attraction, a loss of qualified applicants, and potential litigation troubles. This study examined applicant reactions to the use of information from different types of social networking websites during hiring processes. Using organizational justice as the framework, participants judged the perceived fairness of using information from different SNWs, and how these perceptions impacted organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions. Furthermore, this study examined invasion of privacy perceptions as an antecedent to the fairness perceptions. The results showed that procedural justice rules, including job relatedness and opportunity to perform, were significantly related to fairness perceptions, which influenced the job-related outcomes. In addition, privacy concerns were also significantly related to fairness perceptions of the selection procedure. Overall, the study suggests that participants feel that using information from social networking websites may violate privacy, influencing perceptions of fairness and most importantly, make the applicant feel the organization is not a good place to work. Moreover, these practices may not be seen as related to the job and don’t provide an opportunity for applicants to demonstrate their knowledge, skills,
and abilities related to the work. Therefore, organizations should evaluate this practice carefully as it could have serious implications for their applicant pool and overall organization.
INTRODUCTION

The use of social networking websites (SNWs) such as Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn has increased significantly in recent years (Black, Stone, & Johnson, 2015; Kluemper & Rosen, 2009; Stoughton, Thompson, & Meade, 2015; Ying-Chao Lin, Nhat Hanh Le, Khalil, & Ming-Sung Cheng, 2012). Since 2004, Facebook has grown from 1 million users to over 1 billion daily users in 2015 (Facebook, 2016). Not only has the amount of SNW users increased, the amount of time spent on SNWs has increased as well. In fact, a recent report found that individuals spend at approximately one hour a day on Facebook alone, and another 45 minutes across other SNWs (Khalaf & Kesiraju, 2017). As such, individuals use these sites to post and display a large amount of personal information such as photos, favorite movies or books, thoughts on current events, and even political views (Stoughton, Thompson, & Meade, 2015). As the amount of information available on these sites increases, so does the growing concern of user privacy and how this information may be used.

SNWs can be described as an internet service where individuals can develop profiles, connect with other individuals, and share information (Boyd & Ellison, 2007). In addition, these sites focus on building online communities of people with common interests, and provide ways for users to interact (e.g., email or instant messaging; Kluemper & Rosen, 2009). As the popularity of these sites increases, so does the actual number of SNWs, each serving different purposes. Personal sites such as Twitter, Instagram, and Snapchat all have millions of users. LinkedIn, a professional SNW primarily used for developing business contacts, job-seeking, and professional growth, now has over 400 million users (LinkedIn, 2016). As such, it is no surprise that social media usage has become common practice in the workplace, both for employees, as

Many factors are driving changes within organizations, but none as much as internet technologies (Cascio & Aguinis, 2008). There are several ways organizations may use social media within the workplace (Ployhart, 2011). Whether it’s for training and development, knowledge sharing, or recruitment and selection, businesses are finding creative ways to introduce social media into the workplace. However, as of now, there are no guidelines or principles for how organizations should manage social media in the workplace (Ployhart, 2011). Therefore, it is becoming increasingly important for organizations to examine how social media is being used, as it may carry legal, financial, or ethical risks for the company and its employees.

One of the more controversial uses of SNWs is for organizations to gather information about potential job applicants during the hiring process, a practice that has become increasingly common in recent years (Black, Stone, & Johnson, 2015; Roulin & Bangerter, 2013). Indeed, organizations are using information gathered from SNWs in an effort to choose candidates with dependable behaviors such as trustworthiness (Black, Stone, & Johnson, 2015). A study by the Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM) found that in 2013, 77% of companies were using SNWs to recruit candidates, up from 56% in 2011, and 34% in 2008 (SHRM, 2013). A more recent study found that 93% of recruiters will review a candidate’s social media profile before making a hiring decision (Jobvite, 2014).

While this practice is steadily increasing throughout the applied sector, little research has been conducted that examines the applicant reactions to such practices (Black, Stone, & Johnson, 2015). Moreover, the research that has been conducted on this topic does not distinguish among various SNWs, and instead primarily uses the generic term “social networking sites” or focuses
strictly on Facebook. Because each SNW serves a different purpose, with users posting different information on each site, it is unknown how applicants will perceive the use of each of these sites individually (Madera, 2012; Stoughton, Thompson, & Meade, 2015). For example, will applicants find it acceptable for organizations to use professional information such as prior employers and work experience from LinkedIn, even without the applicant’s permission? And would this be different for personal SNWs such as Facebook? Applicant reactions, which refers to how potential job applicants view a selection process, have important implications for outcomes such as organizational attractiveness, job pursuit intentions, and legal implications. Moreover, applicant reactions to an organization’s selection procedures may influence its ability to attract and retain top candidates.

Researchers primarily use existing theories of organizational justice to explain applicant reactions. Organizational justice often refers to the perceived fairness of some outcome, process, or interpersonal treatment (Colquitt et al, 2001). Within the applicant reaction literature, fairness perceptions also focus on the antecedents and consequences of the perceptions (Colquitt et al, 2001). Many researchers have found that negative fairness perceptions can lead to disastrous results for an organization. This may include the loss of a well-qualified applicant pool and even litigation trouble (Truxillo et al, 2009). For example, in 2013 Costco Wholesale Corp. agreed to settle an almost eight-million-dollar class action lawsuit in which the company was accused of having unfair internal selection procedures that overlooked women for management positions (Rubenstein, 2013). This decade long case also concluded with the ruling that an industrial/organizational psychologist must examine the promotion process, conduct proper job analyses, and develop unbiased selection criteria for the internal management positions (Rubenstein, 2013). Lawsuits such as these are not uncommon. In fact, in 2013 alone, the 10
most expensive discrimination lawsuits totaled over $638 million dollars in the United States (Dimarco, 2014). Within this study, the primary focus was on procedural justice, which refers to the perceived fairness of a process, in this case, the use of SNW profile information within the hiring process.

Researchers are also beginning to examine privacy invasion as an antecedent to perceptions of fairness (e.g. Bauer et al, 2006; Black, Stone, & Johnson, 2015, Eddy, Stone, & Stone-Romero, 1999). Privacy can be defined as “an individual’s ability to control personal information, and the impressions about them that are garnered from it” (Stone & Stone, 1990, p. 354). Indeed, because SNW information is typically viewed as personal and private, there is a concern that the use of this information may lead to applicants feeling their privacy has been invaded.

The primary goal of this study was to examine the applicant reactions to organizations using information from different types of SNWs to make hiring decisions and how these perceptions influenced important outcomes such as fairness perceptions, organizational attractiveness, and job pursuit intentions. Following the framework of Gilliland’s (1993) organizational justice model, this study focused on three contributing factors to fairness perceptions: job-relatedness, propriety of questions, and opportunity to perform. In addition, this study examined privacy concerns as an antecedent to the fairness perceptions of this practice. Lastly, this study included a qualitative portion to explore applicant reactions more in depth. This included examining the type of information potential applicants are posting on social media, their feelings toward sharing this information (if asked for permission), and if they feel the information would be relevant to their job.
This study focused on two categories of SNWs. The first was “personal” SNWs (Brown & Vaughn, 2011; Roulin & Bangerter, 2013). Personal SNWs are sites that personal information such as photos, activities, and personal thoughts are shared. Three of the most popular personal SNWs are Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter. Facebook is an online SNW where individuals can connect with friends and family, discover what is happening in the world, and to express and share what matters to them (Facebook, 2015). The company’s mission is to “give people the power to share and make the world more open and connected.” Currently, over 1 billion people use Facebook every day. Facebook profiles often contain information aimed towards family or friends, such as interests, social life, or current activities. Instagram is a SNW primarily focused on capturing and sharing moments through pictures and short videos. The site currently has over 500 million users and was recently purchased by Facebook in 2012 (Instagram, 2016). Much like Facebook, Twitter is an online SNW that allows individuals to express and share thoughts, learn about what is happening in the world, and report on what is happening around them. Twitter’s mission is “To give everyone the power to create and share ideas and information instantly, without barriers.” With over 320 million monthly users, Twitter allows individuals to report and discover events in real time, as they are happening (Twitter, 2016). For example, users may be able to follow along with real-time sporting events, political elections, or world disasters. In 2009, SNWs allowed communication to remain open between people in Iran while other means of communication were limited by the Iranian Government (Clark & Roberts, 2010). The second type of SNW this study focused on are professional SNWs, particularly LinkedIn (Roulin & Bangerter, 2013). These types of SNWs are primarily used for business purposes such as recruiting and business networking. LinkedIn is a professional social network primarily used to develop business contacts, job search, and professional development. The site currently has over
400 million users and is primarily designed for work colleagues and potential or current employers (LinkedIn, 2015; Stoughton, Thompson, & Meade, 2015). LinkedIn profiles typically contain information on previous work experience, education, and job-relevant knowledge, skills, and abilities. To determine whether the above mentioned SNWs can be categorized into personal or professional, a preliminary study was conducted that asked participants about certain characteristics of these sites and whether they could fit into these categories.

In summary, this study explored applicant reactions to the use of information from two types of SNWs (personal and professional) during the hiring process, in the form of perceived fairness, and how these reactions affect organizational attraction and job pursuit intentions. Moreover, given the organizational practice of using this information, often without the applicant’s permission, the study explored invasion of privacy perceptions as an antecedent to the perceived fairness of this practice.

**Applicant Reactions**

A growing topic of interest within employee selection has been how potential job applicants react to the perceived fairness of selection procedures (Truxillo et al, 2009). Indeed, researchers have begun to look not only at selection from the view of the employer, but from the employee (Ababneh, Hackett, & Schat, 2014; Truxillo et al, 2009). While a vast amount of research has been devoted to the psychometric aspects of employee selection (e.g. validity and reliability), researchers are beginning to look at the social aspects of employee selection (Gilliland, 1993). These reactions are critical to an organization’s success as research has shown that applicant reactions to selection procedures may impact variables such as fairness perceptions, perceptions of the organization, litigation intentions, job acceptance decisions, and organization recommendations. From a broader perspective, reactions to selection procedures
may impact an organization’s ability to attract, hire, and retain quality employees (Gilliland, 1993).

One of the main goals of applicant reactions research is to understand what organizations can do to improve a potential employee’s reactions to a given selection procedure (Truxillo et al., 2009). Researchers have found many ways employers can improve on these processes. These include creating job relevant selection procedures, providing as much information as possible to the applicant, having an open line of communication, and treating the applicant with respect and honesty throughout the process (Gilliland, 1993; Truxillo et al., 2009).

Much of the applicant reaction literature and theoretical models have been based on theories of organizational justice (Bauer et al., 2001). Organizational justice refers to the perceived fairness of organizational outcomes, procedures, and interpersonal treatment (Greenberg, 1987). Most early research focused on distributive justice, which refers to the perceived fairness of outcomes or resource allocation (Colquitt, et al., 2001). Distributive justice was derived from Equity Theory (Adams, 1965). According to Equity Theory, the perceived fairness of an outcome is based on the ratio of inputs to outputs, which is then compared to a referent other. From an employee selection perspective, an example of distributive justice may involve the perceived fairness of the outcome of an application process or promotion. If an applicant perceives the outcome to be fair, perceptions of distributive justice will be higher.

A second form of justice is procedural justice. This type of justice refers to the perceived fairness of the process used to determine outcomes or resource allocations (Colquitt, et al., 2001). This concept was first introduced by Thibaut and Walker (1975) who examined fairness perceptions within legal proceedings. The authors discovered that individuals viewed the process as fair if they perceived they had control during the arbitration process. That is, regardless of the
outcome, a person would perceive the outcome as fair as long as they felt were in control during the process. While Thibaut and Walker developed the concept of procedural justice within the legal world, it was Leventhal (1980) extended the concept into organizational settings. Leventhal developed six criteria that a procedure should meet if considered fair. To be perceived as fair, a procedure should: (a) be applied consistently across people and time, (b) be free from bias, (c) decisions should be made on accurate information, (d) have a procedure in place to correct inaccurate decisions, (e) be ethical and moral, and (f) take into account the opinions of all parties affected by the decision (Leventhal, 1980).

The last form of justice involves the interpersonal treatment of people during a process or procedure. This type of justice, known as Interactional Justice, consists of two different types of interpersonal treatment. The first is interpersonal justice, which refers to how people are treated (e.g. politely, with dignity and respect) (Greenberg, 1990a). The second type of interactional justice is known as informational justice. As the name suggests, this form of justice involves the degree of explanation provided to about how and why procedures were used, or how outcomes were determined (Colquitt et al., 2001).

While there have been several models developed to explain the cause and effects of applicant reactions (e.g. Arvey & Sackett, 1993; Gilliland, 1993), a large number focus on Gilliland’s (1993) organizational justice model (Ababneh, Hackett, & Schat, 2014; Bauer et al., 2006). Gilliland’s model uses theories of organizational justice to provide an explanation of applicant reactions and fairness in employee selection procedures. The author uses a set of procedural rules to define procedural justice, as well as distributive justice rules to explain distributive justice. As such, the extent to which the perception that each of these rules has been satisfied or violated provide the candidate’s overall perceptions of fairness of the selection.
procedure. Gilliland’s model includes 10 procedural justice rules that fall within 3 broader categories: formal characteristics, explanation, and interpersonal treatment. Within these categories are the following 10 rules: job relatedness, opportunities to perform, reconsideration opportunity, consistency, feedback, selection information, honesty, interpersonal effectiveness, two-way communication, and propriety of questions. Moreover, the author uses 3 distributive justice rules, equity, equality, and needs, to explain attitudes of distributive justice. The extent to which applicants feel these rules have been followed or violated can have significant impact on outcomes such as job-acceptance decisions, application recommendations, test motivation, and legal battles. Moreover, if hired, applicant perceptions may influence job performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and overall job satisfaction. A summary of the justice rules from Gilliland’s model can be found in Table 1.
Table 1. Summary of Organizational Justice Rules in Gilliland’s Applicant Reaction Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedural Justice Rules</th>
<th>Summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job-relatedness</td>
<td>The extent to which a test appears to be related to the job, job content, or appears to be valid (face validity).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to perform</td>
<td>The opportunity for an applicant to demonstrate his or her qualifications or opinions during the selection process. For example, demonstrating knowledge, skills, or abilities related to the job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reconsideration opportunity</td>
<td>The opportunity for job candidates to appeal or challenge the decision-making process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency</td>
<td>The consistency and standardization of the selection process across people and time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>The extent to which candidates receive timely and relevant feedback on performance during the selection process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection information</td>
<td>The amount of information on the selection process, communication during the process, and explanation regarding the decision that is given to job candidates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honesty</td>
<td>The honesty of communication between applicants and hiring professionals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal effectiveness</td>
<td>The degree to which applicants feel they were treated with respect by the hiring professional.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-way communication</td>
<td>The extent to which applicants have the opportunity to provide input or have their opinions considered during the selection process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propriety of questions</td>
<td>The appropriateness of the questions asked during the selection process.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distributive Justice Rules</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equity</td>
<td>The fairness of rewards received related to the outputs given.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equality</td>
<td>The extent to which all candidates have the same opportunity to receive the selection outcome.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs</td>
<td>The extent to which rewards are given based on individual needs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of particular interest in this study are the justice rules of job relatedness, opportunity to perform, and propriety of questions. More specifically, the use of information from SNWs during the hiring practice may not be seen as job related because it focuses on behavior that occurs outside of the workplace (Black, Stone, & Johnson, 2015). Moreover, because there are no
guidelines for how organizations should use SNW information, the appropriateness of how this information is used, in addition to how much explanation is given to applicants, may be inconsistent (Ployhart, 2012).

In addition to the justice rules outlined above, Gilliland (1993) also noted that invasion of privacy may also be an additional rule that may impact fairness. Indeed, recent literature has used invasion of privacy and the relationship to organizational justice to explain applicant reactions to selection procedures (Bauer, et. al., 2006; Black, Stone, & Johnson, 2015; Stoughton, Thompson, & Meade, 2015). Due to the nature of using SNWs in the selection process, such as gathering information without permission, some researchers believe that privacy invasion may be a precursor to fairness perceptions (Black, Stone, & Johnson, 2015). Moreover, most applicants view personal SNW information as non-work related because of the information posted on each site (Levinson, 2009). As such, this study integrated privacy literature as an antecedent to the perceived fairness of selection procedures.

**Privacy Concerns**

As an increasing number of our daily activities are being conducted online, there is a growing concern about security, privacy, and the improper use of personal information (Bauer et al., 2006; Stone & Stone, 1990). Indeed, even the mainstream press has written about potential job applicants and their concerns over the privacy of their online social networking information (Goldberg, 2010).

Stone and Stone (1990) developed a model that viewed privacy as the extent to which an individual can control personal information and the concern over any impressions that may be developed from the personal information. In the context of this definition, an applicant’s privacy would involve the control of his or her personal social networking information and the concern
over any impression an organization or hiring manager may develop from this information.

Within this model, Stone and Stone felt there were several factors that would influence a person’s beliefs about control their information and privacy. These include information factors (e.g. purpose of collection and type of information), physical environment factors (e.g. density/crowding or visual barriers), cultural and organizational factors (e.g. privacy norms and communications from others), and individual factors (e.g. personality and physiological makeup). These factors in turn influence a person’s cognitions, the motivational force to protect their privacy, and the resulting behaviors. For example, the model suggests that the more an individual values their privacy, the greater likelihood they should believe that the lack of control will lead to negative outcomes. In addition, any information that is gathered without their permission will also have negative outcomes. That is, the inability to control personal information will result in negative attitudes such as invasion of privacy. Within the context of the workplace, when an individual (or applicant) perceives she cannot control her personal information (i.e. someone uses social networking information without permission), she may feel that privacy has been invaded, which in turn may lead to negative perceptions of the organization (Bauer et al., 2001; Black, Stone, & Johnson, 2015).

In summary, an applicant who perceives their privacy has been invaded, perhaps by an inability to control personal information, or due to the use of personal information without permission, will have negative emotions and behavioral outcomes such as less organizational attraction, greater litigation intentions, and may even refuse a job if offered.

**Fairness Perceptions Model**

Using existing theories of invasion of privacy, applicant reactions, and organizational justice, this study examined job relatedness, propriety of questions, opportunity to perform, and
invasion of privacy concerns as antecedents to the perceived fairness of using social networking information during an organization’s hiring practice. In addition, this study examined how these fairness perceptions influenced organizational attraction and job pursuit intentions. As previously stated, this study focused on two types of SNWs. The first was “personal” SNWs (e.g. Facebook and Twitter) that primarily contain information related to a person’s personal life. The second was professional SNWs (e.g. LinkedIn) that primarily contain information related to an individual’s job, career, and work experience. The hypotheses outlined below were based on these assumptions.

Figure 1: Fairness Perceptions Model
Invasion of Privacy and Perceived Fairness

First, this study examined how perceptions of invasion of privacy impact the perceived fairness of the selection practices presented to the participants. As the amount of personal information available online continues to increase, there is a growing concern around the privacy of this information. Moreover, questions are being raised regarding the use of online personal information by organizations. For example, a recent study commissioned by Microsoft found that 70% of U.S. recruiters and human resources professionals who participated in the study had rejected job candidates based on information found online (Cross-Tab, 2010). As such, researchers are beginning to examine these privacy violations and how they may affect important organizational outcomes.

Stoughton, Thompson, and Meade (2015) conducted two studies to examine how job applicants react to the use of social media information during the hiring practice. The authors also integrated research on privacy invasion and electronic performance monitoring into their research model. Using this literature, the authors posited that the screening of SNWs during the hiring process would impact an applicant’s perceived invasion of privacy, which in turn would impact outcomes such as procedural justice perceptions and organizational attractiveness. The authors conducted two studies, one with an undergraduate population and the other in a real-world setting. The results showed that using social networking information during pre-screening increased perceptions of invasion of privacy. This in turn decreased organizational justice perceptions and lowered organizational attractiveness. One important caveat to this study is that the authors did not distinguish between SNWs (e.g. Facebook or Twitter) and instead used the generic term “social networking sites.”
Bauer et al. (2006) explored the impact of privacy concerns on applicant reactions. The authors conducted two studies, one with a student sample and one with an actual sample of applicants. The authors used a fictitious intern position and examined how applicant perceptions of privacy concerns would impact procedural justice. For the real-world applicant sample, the authors retroactively measured applicant opinions to a selection process at a state personnel office in the northwestern United States. Overall, the authors found that privacy issues were a determinant of fairness perceptions. These results were consistent in both the student and real-world applicant sample.

Therefore, given the previous examples of how perceptions of privacy invasion negatively impact perceived fairness, it was posited that a negative relationship would exist between the perceptions of privacy invasions and the perceived fairness of using SNWs in the hiring process. That is, participants who are more likely to feel their privacy has been invaded, will have lower perceptions of fairness. Because the information posted to these sites is often considered personal, and therefore, not directly job-related, one would expect that the use of this information would be seen as an invasion of privacy. However, privacy perceptions are expected to be lower for the use of professional SNWs because the information contained within these SNWs is directly related to a person’s career.

H1a: Perceptions of privacy invasion will be negatively related to perceptions of fairness in using personal SNWs during the hiring process.

H1b: Perceptions of privacy invasion will be negatively related to perceptions of fairness in using professional SNWs during the hiring process.

H1c: The relationship between perceptions of privacy invasion and perceptions of fairness will be stronger when referencing personal SNWs during the hiring process.
Job Relatedness and Perceived Fairness

The first antecedent to fairness perceptions examined in this study was job relatedness. Job relatedness refers to how well a test or procedure is related to a job or appears to be valid, that is, having face validity (Gilliland, 1993). For this study, job relatedness refers to the applicant’s perception of how information from SNWs is related to a job or job performance.

Job relatedness can influence fairness perceptions more than any other characteristic of the selection process (Zibarras & Patterson, 2015). Truxillo, Bauer, and Sanchez (2001) examined applicant reactions of police applicants for two types of selection procedures, written and video-based. The authors’ goal was to demonstrate that test fairness is a multidimensional entity consisting of several important factors. Overall, the authors found that applicants perceived the written test more fair on some dimensions, and the video-based test more fair on different dimensions, supporting the idea of a multi-dimensional model of applicant fairness. Specifically, the authors found that job-relatedness was important to overall fairness perceptions. Moreover, this finding was true of the predictive job-relatedness after controlling for the outcome feedback (pass/fail) on the written exam.

In an alternate setting, Schmitt, Oswald, Kim, Gillespie, and Ramsay (2004) studied the perceived fairness to the use of the ACT/SAT, situational judgement items, and biodata questions in college admissions. The authors used theories of organizational justice and self-serving bias to explain perceptions of fairness. The authors indeed found that the relevance of the admissions tests did impact perceptions of fairness. In addition, relevance was also influenced by performance beliefs. That is, relevance perceptions were influenced by how well the student felt they did on the items, lending to the self-serving bias hypotheses.

Zibarras and Patterson (2015) explored the relationship between job relatedness and self-efficacy in fairness perceptions in a high-stakes selection setting involving general practitioners.
in the United Kingdom. The authors found that perceptions of job relatedness predicted both immediate fairness perceptions, as well as those after receiving the feedback outcome. As with the previous study, this finding was true regardless of the selection outcome (pass/not pass). In sum, it was expected that a positive relationship would exist between job relevance and perceptions of fairness. Moreover, job relevance is expected to be higher for professional SNWs than personal SNWs

\[ H2a: \text{Perceptions of job relatedness of using personal SNWs will be positively related to perceptions of fairness in using personal SNWs during the hiring process.} \]

\[ H2b: \text{Perceptions of job relatedness of using professional SNWs will be positively related to perceptions of fairness in using professional SNWs during the hiring process.} \]

\[ H2c: \text{The magnitude of the relationships will be strongest when each variable references the same type of SNW (e.g. job relatedness of professional SNWs and fairness perceptions of professional SNWs).} \]

**Chance to Perform and Perceived Fairness**

The final antecedent to fairness perceptions that was examined was chance to perform. This variable refers to a person having the opportunity to demonstrate their knowledge, skills, and abilities during a hiring process or testing environment (Bauer et al., 2001). As with job relatedness, this variable appears in Gilliland’s (1993) procedural justice model. For this study, chance to perform refers to a candidate’s ability to demonstrate knowledge, skills, or abilities related to a given job during a selection process.

In the study mentioned above, Truxillo, Bauer, and Sanchez (2001) studied applicant reactions to both written and video-based selection tests within a law enforcement setting. The authors predicted that the applicants would have more positive reactions to the video based tests because it allowed them the opportunity to respond to open ended questions about different scenarios, rather than to be confined to a multiple-choice answer. Indeed, the authors found that
the video-based test was seen as more fair than the multipole choice test, and specifically, chance to perform was significantly related to overall selection system fairness.

Kohn and Dipboye (1998) conducted two experiments to determine the effects of interview structure on interview and organization perceptions. The authors had participants review transcripts for job interviews that varied by job, organization, and structure of the interview. The authors discovered that participants were more favorable towards the unstructured interview, and that this effect was strongest for transcripts without job or organization information.

Bauer, Maertz, Dolen, and Campion (1998) explored the longitudinal reactions of employment testing. The authors measured a candidate’s reactions prior to testing, after testing but before outcome feedback, and after they received outcome feedback. At time 2 (post assessment, pre-outcome feedback) chance to perform was related to both general perceptions of testing fairness and test-taking self-efficacy, after controlling for pre-assessment perceptions. In addition, the authors found that chance to perform was significantly related to test-taking self-efficacy after outcome feedback and controlling for pre-assessment perceptions. Based on the literature, it is expected that a positive relationship will exist between chance to perform and perceptions of fairness. Moreover, this relationship will be strongest when each variable references the same type of SNW.

\[ H3a: \text{Perceptions of chance to perform when using personal SNWs will be positively related to perceptions of fairness in using personal SNWs during the hiring process}. \]

\[ H3b: \text{Perceptions of chance to perform when using professional SNWs will be positively related to perceptions of fairness in using professional SNWs during the hiring process}. \]

\[ H3c: \text{The magnitude of the relationships will be strongest when each variable references the same type of SNW (e.g. chance to perform for professional SNWs and fairness perceptions of professional SNWs)}. \]
Organizational Attractiveness

One of the primary organizational outcomes examined in this study was organization attraction. As stated previously, organizational attractiveness broadly refers to an applicant’s “attitude or expressed general positive affect towards an organization” (Aiman-Smith, Bauer, and Cable, 2001, p. 221). Organizational attractiveness has long been studied as an outcome to applicant reactions to selection procedures. Stoughton, Thompson, and Meade (2015) examined the effects of using information from social media websites on organizational attractiveness. The researchers created a hypothetical job situation and asked participants to evaluate their reactions to the hiring process. The researchers used an initial screening process to select participants who used Facebook on a regular basis. Once the Facebook users were identified, participants were assigned to two groups: a non-screening group, which was not given any information about the screening process, and a screening group, which was told the hiring organization had reviewed their SNW profiles to assess professionalism. Using the organizational justice framework, the researchers found that using social media websites for hiring purposes not only lowered applicant’s perceptions of organizational justice, but these perceptions also decreased organizational attractiveness and increased intentions of litigation against the organization. Results also showed that participants in the screening group had a significantly higher mean rating for invasion of privacy. Surprisingly, these results were not moderated by the hiring decision. That is, whether the applicant was told they were hired did not impact perceptions of justice or organizational attractiveness. This finding is significant as it demonstrates that potential employees, even those who receive job offers, may develop negative thoughts of the organization, even after becoming employed. As with the dissertation study, participants were presented with a job selection process that informs them that SNW information will be used during the hiring process.
Bauer et al. (2006) examined personal information privacy concerns and computer experience on applicant reactions to screening processes. The authors found that procedural justice mediated the relationship between privacy concerns and organizational attractions. That is, in addition to impacting perceptions of procedural justice, privacy concerns also directly impacted organizational outcomes, specifically organizational attraction, intentions toward the organization, and test-taking motivation. These results were found both in the field sample as well as with a laboratory sample.

Schinkel, van Vianen, and van Dierendonck (2013) examined the combined effects of selection outcomes with perceived fairness of selection procedures. Using a longitudinal design, the authors were able to measure applicant well-being and organizational attractiveness both before and after an interview. This study was unique as it is one of the few applicant reaction studies to be conducted in a real-world setting. The authors found that procedural fairness did influence an organization’s attractiveness. The results showed that organizational attractiveness was lower for applicants who perceived the selection procedure as unfair. However, this finding was only true for individuals who were not hired. No differences were found in organizational attractiveness among individuals who were selected, regardless of whether they found the procedure fair or not. Therefore, given the extant research on organizational attractiveness as an outcome of perceived fairness, the following hypothesis was proposed:

\[ H4: \text{Perceived fairness will be directly positively related to organizational attractiveness, regardless of social network type.} \]

**Job Pursuit Intentions**

The next important outcome used for this study was job pursuit intentions. Job pursuit intentions typically refer to any effort to pursue a job. This may include submitting an application, participating in an interview, or merely wanting to remain in the candidate pool for a
specific position (Chapman et al., 2005; Smither et al., 1996). For this study, job pursuit intentions referred to an applicant’s willingness to continue the hiring process and accept the job if offered.

Smither et al. (1996) conducted a study in which college participants examined a recruiting brochure containing information about a specific company’s hiring procedures. The authors manipulated the content of the brochure by changing altering the hiring processes for each condition (e.g. job simulations, cognitive testing, and biographical information collection). In addition, the authors manipulated the level of compensation across conditions. Overall, the results showed that job simulations, seen as the most relevant to the job, had higher perceptions of fairness. Moreover, these fairness perceptions were the strongest predictor of job pursuit intentions, with higher perceptions of fairness leading to greater job pursuit intentions.

Madera (2012) examined the use of SNWs during the hiring process for hospitality workers. The author presented the participants with a job advertisement that included details on the selection process. For the experimental condition, the job advertisement included information on how the company would examine SNWs to recruit and assess candidates. The study examined the applicant’s reactions to the perceived fairness of the advertisement, as well as job pursuit intentions. The results found that the use of SNWs use during the hiring process was perceived as less fair than not using this information. Furthermore, these perceptions negatively impacted job pursuit intentions, where lower perceptions of fairness meant applicants were less likely to pursue the job if offered. As such, the following hypothesis was proposed:

\[ H5: \text{Perceived fairness will be directly positively related to job pursuit intentions, regardless of which social network is being examined.} \]
Research Questions

In addition to the hypotheses outlined above, the following research questions are proposed to gain more in-depth insight into prospective employee perceptions of SNW use during hiring processes. These research questions were guided through qualitative response questions proposed to the participants. In addition, these questions partially addressed hypotheses proposed by Black, Stone, & Johnson (2015) regarding the impact of using SNWs on applicant privacy.

Applicant Consent

As the prevalence of organizations using SNW information increases, often without permission, questions remain as to whether applicants will be willing to share this information if asked. In the privacy literature, one of the key factors influencing whether applicants feel their privacy has been invaded involves the control of their personal information (Stone and Stone, 1990). That is, individuals will feel more in control if prior permission is given before an organization uses SNW information. As such, it is important to know whether applicants would be willing to share their SNW information, which may in turn lead to lesser feelings of privacy invasion. For this study, participants were asked whether they would be willing to give permission to use SNW profile information during the hiring process, and were also given the opportunity to explain why they may or may not give permission. In addition, applicants were also asked about the use of information that is not set to be private, such as information gathered from photos or tagged posts.

RQ1: Are applicants willing to give consent to organizations to use SNW information during hiring procedures?

RQ2: Do applicants feel the use of information, even if it is public, violates privacy?
Types of SNW Information Being Shared

In addition to whether applicants will give consent for organizations to use their SNW information, another important question is what information applicants are comfortable in sharing. For example, are applicants comfortable with sharing information such as personal interests, political views, or even pictures of their families or friends? As previously stated, a key factor in perceiving a process as fair is the job-relatedness of the information gathered during the process. With a bevy of information contained on SNWs, some information may be more job-relevant than others. For example, information found on LinkedIn, such as job experience and education, can certainly be viewed as job-relevant. Even information found on Facebook and Twitter, such as interests and life goals, could possibly be a proxy to job-relevant behaviors such as attentiveness and conscientiousness. Moreover, with the emergence of “big data,” there is a growing interest in mining this information to possibly create a model of an “ideal” employee, even though this information may not seem job-relevant to normal applicants. Therefore, it is important to learn more about the type of information applicants are willing to share, which may help guide organizations as to the type of information they should collect. As such, the following question was proposed:

*RQ3: What type of information from SNWs are applicants willing to share during the hiring process?*
METHODS

Study 1: Preliminary Study

A preliminary study was conducted to determine whether participants feel SNWs such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram could be categorized as personal SNWs and whether LinkedIn could be considered a professional SNW. The outcome of Study 1 informed the inclusion criteria for the Study 2 by determining which SNWs fall into each of the category types. Specifically, Study 1 asked participants to categorize some of the most popular SNWs (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and LinkedIn). In doing so, this allowed me to include participants who reported using at least one SNW from each of the categories.

Participants

Approximately 100 participants were recruited using the Amazon MTurk online survey platform. Mturk is an online marketplace designed to give businesses, and even researchers, access to a large population of users (Amazon, 2015). One of the benefits of using Mturk is that it provides a more diverse sample than the traditional college population (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). Moreover, researchers have found that the quality of data obtained through Mturk meets popular psychometric standards and in some cases, is indistinguishable from laboratory populations (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Casler, Bickel, & Hackett, 2013).

To ensure quality data are collected, certain criteria were met to be included in the study. Participants had a 95% approval rating and completed at least 1,000 tasks through Mturk.

Measures

Participants were presented with the names of various SNWs and asked whether each could be classified as a personal or professional SNW. In addition, participants were asked to rate each SNW on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from Professional Only (-3) to Personal Only (3). Participants were also given the option to classify the SNW as “other” and given a text
box to respond. Definitions of personal and professional SNWs were also be provided. For an example of the questions asked of participants, see Appendix 1.

Procedure
For this procedure, participants were presented with an introductory screen (Appendix 2) that explained that they will be asked questions regarding SNWs. After the introduction, each participant was presented with the questions concerning the categorization of specific SNWs, particularly, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and LinkedIn. Once participants finished the questions, they were presented with a debriefing screen explaining the survey (Appendix 3). Participants were paid $0.25 for their participation in the study.

Study 2: Primary Study
Participants
Two hundred and seventy one participants from Amazon’s MTurk survey platform served as participants for Study 2, each of whom met the appropriate inclusion criteria (e.g. work at least 20 hours per week and use at least one of the SNWs identified in the preliminary study daily). Participants had at least a 95% approval rating, meaning at least 95% of their previous tasks had been approved. Participants were paid $1.00 for their participation. Two validation questions were embedded within the survey to measure effort in responding (e.g. Answer “C” to this item). No participants were excluded based on the validation questions. However, fifteen people were removed because they did not work at least 20 hours per week, thirteen were removed for not being a user of one of the primary SNWs identified in Study 1, and an additional six people were excluded for stating they did not spend any time during the day on SNWs. This left a final sample of 237 individuals.
Participants were 55% female, with an average age of \( M=36.2, SD=10.2 \). The primary SNW used by respondents was Facebook (76%), followed by Twitter (12%), LinkedIn (7%), and Instagram (6%). All participants reported spending at least 10 minutes daily on SNWs, with 80% spending at least 30 minutes per day.

**Measures**

**Job Relatedness.** Job relatedness was measured using four modified questions from the Selection Procedural Justice Scale (SPJS) developed by Bauer et al. (2001; Appendix 4). These items were designed to measure the specific dimension of job-relatedness in Gilliland’s (1993) procedural justice rules. The measure was assessed using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). This scale was given for each type of SNW referenced in this study. When developing the full scale, the authors found reliability coefficients ranging from .87-.92. Because Study 2 only uses a subscale of the overall SPJS, reliability analyses were conducted to ensure reliability estimates were not compromised. Reliability estimates for Study 2 were .87 for both the personal and professional SNW job relatedness subscales.

**Chance to Perform.** Chance to perform was measured using four modified questions from the Selection Procedural Justice Scale developed by Bauer et al. (2001; Appendix 5). These items were designed to measure the specific dimension of opportunity to perform in Gilliland’s (1993) procedural justice rules. The measure was assessed using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). This scale was given for each type of SNW referenced in this study. When developing the full scale, the authors found reliability coefficients ranging from .87-.92. For this study, reliability estimates were .94 for both the personal and professional SNW chance to perform subscales.
**Invasion of Privacy Perceptions.** Invasion of privacy was measured using five items from Alge, Ballinger, Tangirala, and Oakley (2006; Appendix 6). These items initially measured the “the belief in the extent that an organization’s personal information gathering and handling practices have violated one’s expectations of how it should conduct itself, given the situation” and was modified to fit the context of this study (Alge et al., 2006, p. 224). The measure was assessed using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The authors found this scale to have a reliability estimate of .80 in their study.

**Procedural Justice.** The procedural justice, or perceived fairness, of the selection process was measured using three questions from Truxillo and Bauer (1999; Appendix 7). This scale was designed to measure the overall fairness of the selection procedure and was administered for each type of SNW referenced in this study. The measure was assessed using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The authors found reliability estimates to be .88 for the study.

**Organization Attractiveness.** Organization attractiveness was measured using the Organization Attraction Scale developed by Highhouse, Lievens, and Sinar (2003) (Appendix 8). The measure contains 15 items designed to measure three aspects of organization attraction: General attractiveness, intentions to pursue, and prestige. For Study 2, only the five items from the general attractiveness portion were used, as these items are the most applicable to the study. The measure will be assessed using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Previous studies using this scale (e.g. Stoughton, Thompson, & Meade, 2015) have found acceptable reliability coefficients of approximately .95.

**Job Pursuit Intentions.** Job pursuit intentions were measured using four items from Macan et al. (1994), Smither et al. (1993), and Smither et al. (1996) (Appendix 9). Items were
measured on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). These items were also used by Madera (2012) and Bauer et al. (2006). Studies using this measure have found overall reliabilities between .89 and .97.

**Applicant Consent.** For research question one, applicants were asked whether they would be willing to give organizations consent to use their SNW information during the hiring process. In addition, participants were required to express why they would, or would not, give this consent. For research question two, participants were asked whether they feel it is ok for organizations to use SNW information that is set to be public, rather than private. These questions can be found in Appendix 10.

**Types of information being shared.** To address research question two, applicants were provided with a list of the most common types of information found on SNWs, and asked if they would be willing to share this information with prospective employers. In addition, participants were allowed to express any additional information they would be willing to share during the hiring process. These questions can be found in Appendix 10.

**Procedure**

Following procedures used by Stoughton, Thompson, and Meade (2015), as well as Madera (2012), participants were presented with a fictitious job posting describing an opening within a fake organization. Within this posting, the organization’s selection process was described, including that the organization will use information from personal and professional SNWs to make hiring choices. To create a job posting that appealed to a diverse sample, generic language (e.g. “a job within your current industry; located within your current city”) was used. See Appendix 11 for the complete job posting.
Participants were shown an introduction screen (Appendix 12), where it was explained that they will be answering questions regarding a fictitious selection procedure. After the initial introduction, the selection procedure was presented. The selection process was presented across several screens in order to ensure participants did not skip over any important information. The final screen of the selection process stated that the organization will factor in any information found on SNWs into the hiring decision. Once the participants were presented with the selection process, they were presented with the survey questions regarding their reactions to the process. Once finished, a debriefing screen (Appendix 13) appeared that explained the purpose of the study and also contained contact information for participants who wanted additional information. Participants were paid $1.00 for their participation.
RESULTS

Analytic Strategy

All analyses were conducted using SPSS v. 21 and AMOS v. 24. Path analysis and bivariate correlations were used for hypothesis testing. The fit of the models were assessed using the chi-square goodness-of-fit test. In addition, because the chi-square test can be influenced by factors such as sample size and number of variables, additional fit indexes were examined (e.g. RMSEA and CFI). Kline’s (2005) fit criteria were used to determine model fit. This criterion includes a non-significant chi-square, a RMSEA statistic below .08 and a CFI above .90. In addition, mediation analyses as proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) were conducted to examine the direct and indirect effects of the antecedents and both organizational outcomes. This was done by examining both the full and partial mediation effects of fairness perceptions. Internal reliability was calculated for each scale using Cronbach’s alpha. Information gained from the qualitative research questions was analyzed using a content analysis, in which responses were categorized and reported as trends and themes within the data.

Study 1: Preliminary Study

A preliminary study was conducted to determine whether participants feel SNWs such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram can be categorized as personal SNWs and whether LinkedIn can be considered a professional SNW. Overall, the results show that participants primarily view personal SNWs such as Facebook and Twitter as “personal” and professional SNWs as professional. Table 2 summarizes the ratings for each SNW from the preliminary study. In addition, Appendix 14 provides additional details on the ratings for each SNW.
Table 2. Summary of Ratings of Preliminary Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Social Networking Websites</th>
<th>% of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Facebook</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twitter</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instagram</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google+</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pinterest</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youtube</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumblr</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snapchat</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional Social Networking Websites</th>
<th>% of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LinkedIn</td>
<td>96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cofoundr</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The percentage of respondents is the percent of participants who rated the SNW at least “Somewhat Personal” or greater, or at least “Somewhat Professional or greater, depending on the type of SNW.

Based on the results of Study 1, Facebook, Twitter, or Instagram accounts were used as inclusion criteria for personal SNWs and LinkedIn accounts were used as the inclusion criteria for professional websites in Study 2. That is, to participate in the primary study, a participant must have been an active user of at least one personal SNW, as well as LinkedIn.

**Study 2: Primary Study**

**Quantitative Analysis**

Means and standard deviations for each variable in Study 2 can be found in Table 3. In addition, correlations and reliability estimates for each variable can be found in Table 4. Prior to conducting the model analyses, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to ensure participants were able to distinguish between questions regarding personal SNWs and professional SNWs. Indeed, the results showed that questions involving each SNWs loaded on to different factors. Therefore, within these analyses, each variable is analyzed separately with respect to the type of SNW referenced (e.g. job relatedness – personal SNWs and Job relatedness – professional SNWs). However, due to concerns of collinearity and the strong correlation
between the outcome variables, an additional factor analyses was conducted with items from the organizational attraction and job pursuit intentions scales. The analysis confirmed that these items load onto a single factor. Since collinearity can negatively affect path analyses, including the decreased ability to detect significant path coefficient (Petraitis, Denham, & Niewiarowski, 1996), an additional model that included a composite of these two variables was examined.

Hypotheses 1a and 1b suggested a negative relationship would exist between perceptions of invasion of privacy and perceptions of fairness, regardless of which type of SNW was used during the hiring process. Indeed, there was a significant negative relationship between invasion of privacy and using both personal and professional SNWs ($r = -0.81, p < .01; r = -0.39, p < .01$, respectively), supporting hypotheses 1a and 1b. Of note is the significantly stronger relationship between invasion of privacy perceptions and the use of personal SNWs during the hiring process ($z=7.7, p<.01$), supporting hypothesis 1c. That is, participants felt a stronger violation of privacy if organizations used information from personal SNWs such as Facebook.

Hypotheses 2a and 2b suggested a positive relationship between job relatedness and perceptions of fairness. In addition, the magnitude of the relationship will be greatest within the same type of SNW (e.g. job relatedness of using personal SNWs and the fairness perceptions of using personal SNWs). The results showed that job relatedness was related to fairness perceptions, and was strongest when each variable referenced the same type of SNWs ($r = .63, p < .01$ for personal SNWs; $r = .73, p < .01$ for professional websites). Moreover, while job relatedness and fairness perceptions were related across all relationships, the magnitude was not as strong if both variables did not reference the same SNWs ($r = .15, p < .05$ for job relatedness – personal SNWs and fairness perceptions – professional SNWs; $r = .24, p < .01$ for job relatedness – professional SNWs and fairness perceptions – personal SNWs). In addition,
participants rated using professional websites higher than using personal websites ($M=3.4, M=2.4$, respectively, $t(236)=14.6, p<.01$, Cohen’s $d=.9$).

Chance to perform was hypothesized to have a positive relationship with fairness perceptions. The results show that indeed this variable was significantly related to fairness perceptions, regardless of what SNW was referenced ($r=.60, p<.01$ for personal SNWs; $r=.74, p<.01$ for professional websites). In addition, the overall mean was higher when referencing professional SNWs ($M=3.5, M=2.3$, respectively, $t(236)=16.2, p<.01$, Cohen’s $d=1.0$). This suggests that participants were more likely to feel that information on their professional SNWs displayed their knowledge, skills, and abilities related to the job.

Hypothesis 4 suggested a positive relationship between perceptions of fairness and organizational attractiveness. Indeed, the results showed a positive relationship between both fairness perceptions of using personal SNWs and professional SNWs ($r=.64, p<.01$; $r=.45, p<.01$, respectively). These results suggest that the more an applicant views a selection procedure as fair, the more attractive the organization will be to work for.

Finally, hypothesis 5 suggested a positive relationship between perceptions of fairness and job pursuit intentions, regardless of which SNW was being referenced. Positive correlations were found for both fairness perceptions – personal SNWs and fairness perceptions – professional SNWs ($r=.59, p<.01$; $r=.39, p<.01$, respectively). As with previous literature, this relationship suggests that the greater an applicant finds a selection procedure to be fair, the more likely they are to apply to the job.
Table 3. Means and Standard Deviations for Study 2 Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Invasion of Privacy</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Relatedness – Personal SNWs</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Relatedness – Prof. SNWs</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chance to Perform – Personal SNWs</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chance to Perform – Prof. SNWs</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness – Personal SNWs</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness – Professional SNWs</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Attractiveness</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Pursuit Intentions</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. Correlations and reliability estimates for study variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</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>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Invasion of Privacy</td>
<td></td>
<td>(.94)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Job Relatedness – Personal SNWs</td>
<td>-.45**</td>
<td>(.87)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Job Relatedness – Prof. SNWs</td>
<td>-.19**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>(.87)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Chance to Perform – Personal SNWs</td>
<td>-.45**</td>
<td>.71**</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>(.94)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Chance to Perform – Prof. SNWs</td>
<td>-.30**</td>
<td>.23**</td>
<td>.80**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>(.94)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Fairness – Personal SNWs</td>
<td>-.81**</td>
<td>.63**</td>
<td>.24**</td>
<td>.60**</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>(.94)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Fairness – Professional SNWs</td>
<td>-.39**</td>
<td>.15*</td>
<td>.73**</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>.74**</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>(.95)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Organizational Attractiveness</td>
<td>-64**</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.64**</td>
<td>.45**</td>
<td>(.95)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Job Pursuit Intentions</td>
<td>-.58**</td>
<td>.42*</td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.59**</td>
<td>.39**</td>
<td>.90**</td>
<td>(.95)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Outcome Composite</td>
<td>-.63**</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.63**</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>(.97)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Age</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.14*</td>
<td>-.17*</td>
<td>-.16*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Time spent on SNWs</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* indicates significance at the 0.05 level; ** indicates significance at the 0.01 level.
Overall Model Fit

To test the overall fit of the model shown in Figure 1, a path analysis was conducted to test the causal relationships in the observed correlations (Klein, 2005). Overall, the fit indices were inconsistent and showed poor to good fit [$\chi^2 (14) = 105.35, p < .01, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .16$]. The CFI fit statistic was consistent with criteria for a good fitting model (> .9), although the RMSEA value fell within the “poor” fit range (> .10; Kline, 2005). Regarding the relationships between specific variables, invasion of privacy was significantly related to both measures of fairness perceptions ($\beta = -.63, p < .01$ for personal SNWs, $\beta = -.21, p < .01$ for professional SNWs), supporting hypotheses 1a and 1b. Of note is the strong relationship between invasion of privacy and the fairness perceptions of using personal SNWs, suggesting applicants feel more violated when employers use personal information, rather than professional. A significant path was also found between job relatedness – personal SNWs and fairness perceptions – personal SNWs ($\beta = .24, p < .01$), supporting hypothesis 2a. In addition, a significant path was found between job relatedness – professional SNWs and fairness perceptions – professional SNWs ($\beta = .42, p < .01$), supporting hypothesis 2b. For both personal and professional SNWs, the path between opportunity to perform and fairness perceptions were significant ($\beta = .15, p < .01; \beta = .34, p < .01$, respectively), supporting hypotheses 3a and 3b. Hypothesis was also supported, with significant paths found between both measures of fairness perceptions and organizational attractiveness ($\beta = .55, p < .01$ for personal SNWs, $\beta = .21, p < .01$ for professional SNWs). Hypothesis 5 was not supported for either path between fairness perceptions and job pursuit intentions ($\beta = .06, p = .20$ for personal SNWs, $\beta = -.02, p = .53$ for professional SNWs). Lastly, due to the high correlation and relationship found in previous literature (e.g. Bauer et al, 1998), an additional path between organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions was added and proved to be significant.
(β=.87, p<.01), suggesting that the more an applicant sees the organization as a good place to work, the more likely they are to pursue a job within the company. The standardized path coefficients can be found in Figure 2.

![Figure 2. Standardized path coefficients for overall fairness perceptions model](image)

**Improving Model Fit**

In an effort to improve model fit, additional analyses were conducted that examined the mediation effects of fairness perceptions and the direct effects of the antecedent variables on the organizational outcomes. In addition, an alternative model was analyzed that combined the outcome variables due to concerns of collinearity. The results of these models are presented in the following sections.
Mediation Analyses

Mediation analyses were conducted using the four steps as proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) to examine the indirect effects of the procedural justice antecedents and the job outcomes. The results showed that fairness perceptions fully mediated the relationships between job relatedness – personal SNWs and opportunity to perform – professional SNWs to organizational attractiveness, and partially mediated the relationship between invasion of privacy and organizational attractiveness. Direct paths between the antecedent variables and job pursuit intentions were not significant. A summary of the significant results of the four steps can be found in table 5. While the addition of these paths significantly improved model fit according to the chi-square difference test (p<.01), this modification was not enough to reach the criteria of a good fitting model. $[\chi^2 (12) = 83.43, p < .01, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .16]$. See Figure 3 for the additional paths showed a mediating relationship according to Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four steps.

Figure 3. Fairness Perceptions Model with mediation paths
Table 5: Summary of significant mediation paths for indirect effects of fairness perceptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Step 2</th>
<th>Step 3</th>
<th>Step 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IOP → Org Attractiveness¹</td>
<td>β = -.53, p &lt; .01</td>
<td>β = -.63, p &lt; .01</td>
<td>β = .22, p &lt; .02</td>
<td>β = -.36, p &lt; .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOP → Org Attractiveness²</td>
<td>β = -.53, p &lt; .01</td>
<td>β = -.21, p &lt; .01</td>
<td>β = .15, p &lt; .04</td>
<td>β = -.36, p &lt; .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JR-Pers. → Org Attractiveness</td>
<td>β = .12, p &lt; .02</td>
<td>β = .24, p &lt; .01</td>
<td>β = .22, p &lt; .02</td>
<td>β = .07, p &lt; .27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTP-Prof. → Org Attractiveness</td>
<td>β = .19, p &lt; .05</td>
<td>β = .34, p &lt; .01</td>
<td>β = .15, p &lt; .04</td>
<td>β = .08, p &lt; .26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: IOP=Invasion of Privacy, JR-Pers.= Job Relatedness – Personal SNWs, CTP-Prof=Chance to Perform – Professional SNWs. Step 1: Show the causal variable is correlated with the outcome, Step 2: Show the causal variable is correlated with the mediator, Step 3: Show the effects of the mediator on the outcome variable, Step 4: Show the effect of the causal variable on the outcome when controlling for the mediator (should be non-significant for full mediation, if all but Step 4 are met, it indicates partial mediation).

**Addressing Collinearity**

Based on the results of the factor analysis between organizational attraction and job pursuit intentions, additional models were examined that excluded one of the outcome variables from the model. Kline (2005) suggests two ways of handling collinearity: eliminating one variable, or creating a composite between the two variables. For this study, organizational attraction and job pursuit intentions were combined to form an organizational outcome composite score. As with previous results, introducing the composite into the model rather than the individual outcomes did not improve model fit enough to meet the threshold of a good fitting model \[\chi^2 (10) = 97.641, p < .01, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .19\].

**Control Variables**

Two final analyses were conducted that examined both age and time spent on social networks as control variables in the path model. Introducing these control variables into the model did not improve model fit \[\chi^2 (15) = 100.37, p < .01, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .15\] for age and \[\chi^2 (15) = 101.30, p < .01, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .16\] for time spent on SNWs.

¹ Through Fairness Perceptions – Personal SNWs
² Through Fairness Perceptions – Professional SNWs
Research Questions

Three research questions were examined in the study. The first was “Would you be willing to give an organization permission to use information found on your social networking profiles during the hiring process?” Fifty five percent of participants stated they would be willing to give organizations permission to use information on their SNWs. Twenty four percent of participants stated they would not give permission due to privacy concerns. Moreover, 23% of participants stated they would not give permission because it wasn’t related to the job.

The next research question asked “Would you be willing to give an organization permission to use information found on your social networking profiles during the hiring process if it was relevant to the job?” For this question, 73% of participants said they would give permission, suggesting that applicants are more likely to provide information if they know it is relevant to the position. Those participants who stated they would not give permission cited issues such as privacy concerns and job relevance. As such, it should be noted that regardless of the question stating the information was job relevant, some participants disagreed with that notion completely.

The last research question was “Do you feel it is ok for organizations to use information from social networking profiles that is set to be public, rather than private?” Sixty seven percent of participants felt this was an ok practice. Of those that did not agree with the practice, 50% cited concerns with privacy and 29% stated it was because it was not related to job performance.

Overall, responses to the research questions suggest that applicants who do not agree with the practice of using SNW information in the hiring process are concerned with privacy and a lack of relatedness between the SNW information and the job. For those who were ok with the practice, most suggested it was because they had nothing to hide on their SNW profiles or don’t
post anything that would be detrimental to potential employment. When asked what type of information participants would be willing to share with organizations, only 27% said they would be willing to share all of their profile information, 16% said they wouldn’t share any information, 36% said they would only share work related information, 14% would only share basic demographics, and 11% stated they would only share information that was already public. Participants were also asked about specific pieces of information they would be willing to share with an organization during the hiring process. Overall, most participants seem unwilling to share information from personal SNWs such as photos or tweets. Most however are willing to share job related information such as resumes, job experience, and LinkedIn information. The percentage of people who stated they would share the information is found in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Percentage of participants willing to share specific information with organizations during the hiring process
DISCUSSION

This study explored applicant reactions to using SNW information during the hiring process. Using Gilliland’s procedural justice model as the framework, this practice was examined through the lens of job relatedness, opportunity to perform, and invasion of privacy, and ultimately, how these perceptions influenced organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions. Overall, the results suggest that the more applicants find this practice related to the job, gives them an opportunity to demonstrate skills related to the job, and doesn’t invade their privacy, the more likely they are to have higher perceptions of fairness.

A strong negative relationship existed between invasion of privacy and both variables of fairness perceptions, supporting hypothesis 1. These results are in line with previous studies (e.g. Stoughton, Thompson, and Meade, 2015) and also supports Gilliland’s (1993) idea that invasion of privacy should be explored as an antecedent to fairness perceptions. The findings suggest that regardless of what type of SNW is used by the organization, if applicant privacy is violated, they are more likely to not perceived the selection process as fair. In addition, the relationship was strongest between invasion of privacy and fairness perceptions of using personal SNWs. This suggests applicants are more likely to have privacy concerns when organizations use personal SNW information. Indeed, qualitative analyses shows that over half of participants who responded that they would not give an organization permission to use information from SNW cited privacy concerns or relevance as their main reason for not sharing. Hypothesis 2 was also supported by the data. A significant relationship was found between job relatedness and perceived fairness, regardless of what type of SNW was referenced. In addition, the overall mean was higher on the job relatedness score when referencing professional SNWs, suggesting participants felt this information was more related to a job than personal SNW information.
Hypothesis 3 was also supported, as a significant relationship was found between chance to perform and perceived fairness. As with job performance, this relationship was true regardless of which SNW was referenced. Hypothesis 4 suggested a positive relationship between fairness perceptions and organizational attractiveness. The results showed that a significant relationship existed between both variables of fairness perceptions and organizational attractiveness. This is in line with previous researchers who have also found this relationship (e.g. Bauer et al., 2006; Schinkel, van Vianen, and van Dierendonck, 2013). Lastly, it was hypothesized that fairness perceptions would be positively related to job pursuit intentions. While the paths in the overall model were not significant (β=.06, p=.20 for personal SNWs, β=-.02, p=.53 for professional SNWs), strong significant correlations did exist between the variables (r = .59, p < .01; r = .39, p < .01, respectively). This finding may suggest that while the two variables are related, other factors may be involved that moderate this relationship. For example, factors such as location, salary, and job descriptions can also influence job pursuit intentions. While Study 2 addressed these in the fictitious job posting (e.g. “a job within your area”), real applicants are likely to consider other factors when applying for a job. Moreover, due to the strong correlation between organizational attraction and job pursuit intentions, it is possible that the participants didn’t distinguish between these variables.

Implications

This study contributes to the existing literature in two ways. First, by examining the reactions to different categories of SNWs, it extends previous studies which only examined one SNW, or did not specify a specific SNW or type of SNW (Roulin & Bangerter, 2013). Moreover, examining the perceived fairness of using different types of SNWs demonstrates the differences in how applicants view this practice based on the information being used. An important
takeaway from this study is that participants seem willing to share information, provided it is related to the job. This means only using information provided from professional sites such as LinkedIn. The hope is that this information will allow organizations to determine the types of information they ask of applicants during the hiring process.

Second, by introducing a qualitative component, this study was able to explore applicant reactions in more detail. For example, this study examined if applicants were willing to give consent to use SNW information, as well as the type of information applicants are comfortable in sharing. Supporting the quantitative data, participant responses suggested that they are ok with sharing information, provided it is relevant to the job. This may include things such as previous work experience, skills, and resumes. From an organizational perspective, it is important to consider the impact this practice has on an applicant’s view of the hiring process. For example, even the suggestion that SNW information will be used in the hiring process could cause adverse reactions if the candidate refuses to share the information. Ultimately, refusing to share information may cause an applicant to feel they will not be treated fairly because they did not provide the information.

These results not only highlight the types of information applicants are willing to share, but also provide information on the information that applicants should be cautious to place on their SNW profiles. As previously stated, participants seemed willing to share information from SNWs if it was job relevant. As it is becoming an increasingly common practice for organizations to examine SNW profiles, applicants should examine their profiles to ensure any information that can be obtained by organizations is job relevant, and could not be considered detrimental to an applicant. For example, information concerning political views could introduce a bias against the applicant if the recruiter or hiring manager does not share the same views. In
sum, potential job applicants should not only be aware that this practice is occurring, but also limit or screen the type of information that may be present on their SNW profiles.

Overall, these results only highlight the need for standardized, validated selection procedures that only measure the skills needed to perform successfully on a given job. Because there are no current laws governing the use of SNW information during the hiring process, companies are left to develop internal policies on their own. However, unlike validated or standardized selection procedures such as assessments or structured interviews, there is currently no evidence that personal SNW information has an impact on job performance. Therefore, organizations should proceed with caution with using this information until the value of the information can be linked to job performance, and a standardized process of evaluating candidates equally can be established.

**Limitations**

A significant limitation to this study was the use of a fictitious job posting and selection process. Therefore, it is unknown if these findings would translate to real-world applicants. Moreover, because this is a fictitious job posting, it is unknown if being selected for a position would affect these perceptions. While some researchers have found that hiring outcome did not influence fairness perceptions (e.g. Stoughton, Thompson, and Meade, 2013), others have found seen this relationship (e.g. Schinkel, van Vianen, and van Dierendonck, 2013).

Along these same lines, it is unknown how invasion of privacy perceptions would differ based on a real-world scenario where an organization used this type of selection procedure. That is, applicants may respond differently if they feel their privacy has truly been violated. Based on the significant relationships between invasion of privacy and fairness perceptions, along with the
qualitative comments, one would expect there to be a stronger relationship if privacy was actually violated in a real-world setting.

Another limitation to this study was the issue of collinearity. Results of the factor analysis showed that organizational attraction and job pursuit intentions loaded onto one same factor. This suggests that participants were unable to distinguish between the two measures. From a practical standpoint, these two variables may seem interchangeable, as one would only apply to a job if they see the organization as an attractive place to work. Future research could explore this issue to determine if applicants truly feel these variables are interchangeable.

Lastly, while this study focused on specific aspects of Gilliland’s (1993) organizational justice model, specifically job-relatedness and opportunity to perform, related to the use of SNW information being used in the hiring process, there are other factors that may influence fairness perceptions. These may include interpersonal treatment during an interview, timeliness of the hiring decision, equal treatment and evaluation among candidates. Therefore, it is important to look at this study as a smaller practice within a much larger hiring process.

Suggestions for Future Research

A suggestion for future research would be to begin examining this process within a real-world setting. As mentioned above, a study by Jobvite (2014) found that 93% of recruiter’s review a candidate’s social media profile before making a hiring decision. It is important to not only examine whether applicants know this practice is occurring, but the consequences related to organizational outcomes such as applicant pool, reputation, and litigation intentions.

Further research should also examine the impact of fairness perceptions on job pursuit intentions. While previous studies have found a significant relationship (e.g. Madera, 2012; Smither et al., 1996), Study 2 found a non-significant relationship when examined within the
path model, though there may be an issue with collinearity. As such, another direction would be to examine the incremental validity of job pursuit intentions over organizational attraction, and whether or not these two variables are interchangeable.

Another suggestion would be to begin researching the relationship between information found on SNWs and actual job performance. As the ideas of data mining and “big data” become more mainstream, organizations should begin examining whether certain pieces of information found on SNWs can be directly linked to job performance. This may provide an opportunity to merge other areas of research including cognitive ability and personality. If a relationship can be found with personality dimensions, and specific information found on SNWs, this information can then possibly be used in a selection battery. This would not only provide additional information for candidate evaluation, but also go a long way in making this practice legally defensible. Moreover, if this link is made, companies can begin developing standardized practices for using this information, which is critical when developing selection procedures. However, based on the findings of this study, organizations should still consider the perceptions of these practices and whether the benefits outweigh the consequences.
CONCLUSION

The present study explored the practice of using SNW information during the hiring process and its effects on important job outcomes. Specifically, how this practice influenced perceptions of job relatedness, opportunity to perform, invasion of privacy, and fairness perceptions. The results show that for both personal and professional SNWs, the job relatedness, chance to perform, and privacy concerns all influenced overall fairness perceptions, which were directly related to organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions. This is concerning as this practice is becoming more common in the workplace. As such, organizations need to evaluate their selection processes to ensure the process (e.g. assessments, interviews, information gathered), are all job relevant and can be administered consistently across candidates.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX 1. QUESTIONS FOR STUDY 1

Social networking websites can often be classified into two types:

1. Personal social networking sites are sites that are used to post, view, and comment on personal information such as photos, personal thoughts, activities, etc.
2. Professional social networking sites are primarily used for business purposes. This may include recruiting, business networking, job searches, and business reading/blogging.

How would you classify the following social networking websites (will have drop down menu with personal, professional, and other).

Facebook
Twitter
Instagram
Google+
Tumblr
Snapchat
Youtube
LinkedIn
Cofoundr
Pinterest

Please rate each social networking website on the following scale:

-3: Strictly Professional
0: Both Personal and Professional
3: Strictly Personal
Greetings,

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this survey. We would like to ask you a few questions about social networking websites, particularly, how you would classify them into different types. The survey will take less than 5 minutes to complete and you will be rewarded .25 for your participation.
APPENDIX 3. DEBRIEFING SCREEN FOR STUDY 1

Thank you for your participation! The purpose of this study was to determine how individuals classify various social networking websites. The results from this study will be used to inform additional studies regarding social networking websites. If you have any additional questions regarding the study, or would like to see the results, please contact Shane Lowery (blower4@lsu.edu) at Louisiana State University.
APPENDIX 4. SELECTION PROCEDURAL JUSTICE SCALE – JOB RELATEDNESS

Given twice in reference to both Personal and Professional SNWs

Personal SNWs

1. It would be clear to anyone that using information from personal SNWs is related to the job.
2. Using personal SNWs information is clearly related to the job.
3. Doing well on the evaluation of personal SNWs means a person can do the job well.
4. A person who was evaluated well in relation to personal SNWs will be good at the job.

Professional SNWs

1. It would be clear to anyone that using information from professional SNWs is related to the job.
2. Using professional SNWs information is clearly related to the job.
3. Doing well on the evaluation of professional SNWs means a person can do the job well.
4. A person who was evaluated well in relation to professional SNWs will be good at the job.
APPENDIX 5. SELECTION PROCEDURAL JUSTICE SCALE – CHANCE TO PERFORM

Given twice in reference to both Personal and Professional SNWs

Personal SNWs

1. I could really show my skills and abilities through the evaluation of my personal SNWs. – Chance to Perform
2. Evaluating my personal SNWs allows me to show what my job skills are. – Chance to Perform
3. Evaluating a person’s personal SNWs gives applicants the opportunity to show what they can really do. – Chance to Perform
4. I would be able to show what I can do if an organization evaluates my personal SNWs. Chance to Perform

Professional SNWs

1. I could really show my skills and abilities through the evaluation of my professional SNWs. – Chance to Perform
2. Evaluating my professional SNWs allows me to show what my job skills are. – Chance to Perform
3. Evaluating a person’s professional SNWs gives applicants the opportunity to show what they can really do. – Chance to Perform
4. I would be able to show what I can do if an organization evaluates my professional SNWs. Chance to Perform
APPENDIX 6. PERCEPTIONS OF PRIVACY SCALE

1. I feel that this organization’s information policies and practices, including collecting social networking information during the hiring process, would be an invasion of privacy.
2. I would feel uncomfortable about the types of personal information, including information from my social networking profiles that this organization collects.
3. The way that this organization collects social networking information from employees would make me feel uneasy.
4. I would feel personally invaded by the methods used by my organization to collect information from my social networking websites.
5. I would have little reason to be concerned about my privacy in this organization (R).
APPENDIX 7. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE FAIRNESS SCALE

Overall, I believe that organizations using Personal SNW information during the hiring process is fair.

Overall, I believe that organizations using Professional SNW information during the hiring process is fair.

I feel good about organizations using Professional SNW information during the hiring process.

I feel good about organizations using Personal SNW information during the hiring process.

Using Personal SNW information during the hiring process is fair to job applicants.

Using Professional SNW information during the hiring process is fair to job applicants.
APPENDIX 8. ORGANIZATION ATTRACTION SCALE

General Attractiveness

1. For me, this company would be a good place to work.
2. I would not be interested in this company except as a last resort.
3. This company would be attractive to me as a place for employment.
4. I would be interested in learning more about this company.
5. A job at this company would be very appealing to me.
APPENDIX 9. JOB PURSUIT INTENTIONS SCALE

1. I would participate in the application process.
2. I would accept a job if one was offered.
3. I would pursue employment with this company.
4. I would sign up for an interview with this company.
APPENDIX 10. APPLICANT CONSENT QUALITATIVE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Would you be willing to give an organization permission to use information found on your social networking profiles during the hiring process? Why or why not?
2. Would you be willing to give an organization permission to use information found on your social networking profiles during the hiring process if it was relevant to the job? Why or why not?
3. Do you feel it is ok for organizations to use information from social networking profiles that is set to be public, rather than private? Why or why not?
4. What type of information from your social networking profiles would you be willing to share with an organization during a hiring process? (open ended text box)
5. Which of the following pieces of information would you be willing to share with an organization during a hiring process (check boxes)
   a. Facebook Posts
   b. Twitter Tweets
   c. Photos
   d. Favorite movies, bands, or books
   e. Resume
   f. Job Experience
   g. LinkedIn information
   h. Volunteer Work
   i. Other (text box)
APPENDIX 11. APPLICANT JOB POSTING

Gilliland International, Inc. is currently hiring for a senior position in your respective industry. The job is located in your current city, but has the option to relocate if willing. This job offers competitive salary, great benefits and flex-time.

The application process will consist of the following steps:

1. An initial screening will be conducted by a recruiter to determine an applicant’s level of interest in the position and whether the basic qualifications are met.
2. After the initial screening, applicants will participate in a video interview with their potential manager. This interview will be conducted using web cameras and will take approximately one hour to complete. During the interview, applicants will be asked a series of behavioral based questions about their previous job experiences (e.g. “Tell me about a time when you had to put in extra effort at work in order to make a deadline”).
3. The next step in the process will be to complete a work sample for the position. This step involves being presented with a real-world issue related to the position and coming up with an effective solution to solving the issue. An example may include troubleshooting a customer complaint or prioritizing a workload to meet conflicting deadlines.
4. The last step in the application process will be an on-site interview with a panel consisting of the applicant’s potential manager, senior manager, and the head of the human resources department. During this interview, applicants will be asked about previous job experiences, accomplishments, work styles, and how they feel they would fit in with the company.

In addition to the steps above, recruiters will be examining any information found online about the applicant, including information found on personal social networking websites such as Facebook and Twitter, and professional websites such as LinkedIn.
APPENDIX 12. STUDY 2 WELCOME SCREEN

Welcome

Thank you for participating in this study. In a few moments you will be presented with a job selection process. The goal is to determine how you feel about certain aspects of this process. Therefore, you will be asked questions regarding your feelings and attitudes towards the procedure. When reading the selection procedure, we ask you to realistically picture yourself going through this process, as it will help guide your attitudes and feelings. This study will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete and you will be rewarded $1.00 for your participation.
APPENDIX 13. PARTICIPANT DEBRIEFING MESSAGE

Thank you for your participation! The purpose of this study was to determine how individuals feel about the use of social networking information during the hiring process. The goal was to learn more about specific attitudes such as privacy invasion and fairness. This study was conducted as part of a graduate dissertation for a psychology student at Louisiana State University. If you have any additional questions regarding the study, or would like to see the results, please contact Shane Lowery at blower4@lsu.edu.
APPENDIX 14. SUMMARY OF RATINGS FOR STUDY 1

Summary of Ratings in Study 1

- Facebook
- Category 2
- Category 3
- Category 4

- Strictly Professional
- Mostly Professional
- Somewhat Professional
- Both Personal and Professional
- Somewhat Personal
- Mostly Personal
- Strictly Personal
APPENDIX 15. IRB APPROVAL FORM

ACTION ON EXEMPTION APPROVAL REQUEST

TO: Shane Lowery  
Psychology
FROM: Dennis Landin  
Chair, Institutional Review Board
DATE: February 2, 2017
RE: IRB# E10299
TITLE: Unfriend Me! Applicant Reactions to using social networking information in the hiring process

Review Date: 2/1/2017
Approved X Disapproved
Approval Date: 2/2/2017  Approval Expiration Date: 2/1/2020
Exemption Category/Paragraph: 2a.b
Signed Consent Waived?: Yes
Re-review frequency: (three years unless otherwise stated)

LSU Proposal Number (if applicable):
Protocol Matches Scope of Work in Grant proposal: (if applicable)

By: Dennis Landin, Chairman

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING – Continuing approval is CONDITIONAL on:
1. Adherence to the approved protocol, familiarity with, and adherence to the ethical standards of the Belmont Report, and LSU's Assurance of Compliance with DHHS regulations for the protection of human subjects*
2. Prior approval of a change in protocol, including revision of the consent documents or an increase in the number of subjects over that approved.
3. Obtaining renewed approval (or submittal of a termination report), prior to the approval expiration date, upon request by the IRB office (irrespective of when the project actually begins); notification of project termination.
4. Retention of documentation of informed consent and study records for at least 3 years after the study ends.
5. Continuing attention to the physical and psychological well-being and informed consent of the individual participants, including notification of new information that might affect consent.
6. A prompt report to the IRB of any adverse event affecting a participant potentially arising from the study.
7. Notification of the IRB of a serious compliance failure
8. SPECIAL NOTE: When emailing more than one recipient, make sure you use bcc. Approvals will automatically be closed by the IRB on the expiration date unless the PI requests a continuation.

* All investigators and support staff have access to copies of the Belmont Report, LSU's Assurance with DHHS, DHHS (45 CFR 46) and FDA regulations governing use of human subjects, and other relevant documents in print in this office or on our World Wide Web site at http://www.lsu.edu/irb

68
VITA
Shane Lowery is a native of West Monroe, LA. He attended the University of Louisiana at Monroe where he received his Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology in December 2009, and his Masters of Science degree in General Experimental Psychology in July 2011. Shane began his academic career at Louisiana State University in the fall semester of 2011. He received his master’s degree in Industrial/Organizational Psychology in May 2014 and plans to graduate with his Ph.D. in December 2017. After graduation, Shane plans to continue his career in the applied sector of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, specifically in the area of employee selection.