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Tell me about your (Facebook) self: Recruiter Personality Traits and Accuracy of Personality Judgement of Candidate Facebook Profiles

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Abstract

The use of social networking sites, such as Facebook, in the job application screening process has changed the recruitment landscape. Many human resource (HR) professionals and recruiters have begun to use social networking sites as a tool to attract, source and screen potential candidates. When screening candidates' Facebook profiles, recruiters make personality judgements that have important consequences for hiring decisions. However, little is known about what makes a good judge of personality in the world of online screening for recruitment.

This study investigated the relationship between recruiters' Big Five personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism) and their ability to judge accurately candidates' personality traits from their Facebook profiles. In particular, distinctive accuracy measures were employed which account for personality profile normativeness, or the degree to which applicants being rated are generally alike – an important limitation of earlier profile accuracy measures. Results from 456 university students who judged five actual Facebook profiles for which 'true score' estimates on personality traits were possible, revealed that recruiters were generally able to infer applicants' personality traits from their Facebook profiles. However, recruiter personality was not an important factor in their judgement accuracy, neither when accuracy was operationalised as traditional profile accuracy measures, nor as distinctive accuracy.

Keywords: personality judgement, social media, social networking, Facebook, Big Five, selection, accuracy

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Introduction[1]

Individuals regularly make important decisions based on their assessment of others' personality. Everyday decisions, such as who to befriend, employ or even who to marry, are made based on the assessment of others (Funder, 2012). These personality judgements are critical as they serve to guide our thoughts and behaviours, while influencing further interactions and development of a relationship (Biesanz, Human, Paquin, Chan, Parisotto, Sarracino, & Gillis, 2011). One situation in which we make personality judgements is in the employment interview. A study conducted by Barrick, Paton, and Haugland (2000) revealed that recruiters could and did assess personality traits during an interview. For example, a recruiter may make an important hiring decision based on the question: "Is this individual conscientious?" Consider the consequences to the organisation if this personality judgement is inaccurate, and a receptionist is employed under the false impression that he or she is highly dependable, but in fact is completely unreliable (Christiansen, Wolcott-Burnam, Janovics, Burns, & Quirk, 2005). If accurate personality judgements could be made in such situations, unfortunate and costly outcomes could be avoided.

People portray messages about who they are through their appearance, behaviour, words and emotional cues (McDonald & Letzring, 2016). The Internet has presented an opportunity to display these personal messages and personality expressions. It has infiltrated the daily lives of countless individuals and for many, it is would be difficult to imagine life without it (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010). Various studies have shown that platforms such as Facebook (Back, Stopfer, Vazire, Gaddis, Schmukle, Egloff, & Gosling, 2010), email addresses (Back, Schmukle, & Egloff, 2008) and blogs (Li & Chignell, 2010) allow individuals to exhibit their personality. The introduction of online social networking sites (OSNs) has provided an avenue to explore "the expression and perception of personality" (Darbyshire, Kirk, Wall, & Kaye, 2016, p.380). OSNs are saturated with various types of personal information and pictures (Hall & Pennington, 2012) which may be useful in forming impressions about others, particularly their degrees of extraversion, conscientiousness and openness (Hall, Pennington, & Lueders, 2014).

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[1] Some parts of the following text correspond closely with those by the author in the original primary study (Rauch, 2015).

OSNs have shown to be a valuable source of personality information. The Five Factor model of personality has become a popular framework that is used to understand the internal stability of individuals' personality traits (Costa & McCrae, 1992; John & Srivastava, 1999). This framework consists of five broad personality factors: extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience, agreeableness and neuroticism. Research has shown that OSNs such as Facebook provide accurate information about all of the Big Five personality traits (Kluemper, Rosen, & Mossholder, 2012) and Facebook profiles have become a significant source of information that can be used to form impressions of others (Agarwal, 2014), for example when trying to determine whether to date someone. They are also being used when assessing job candidates (Agarwal, 2014). However, while there has been a substantial amount of research conducted on examining judgement in a face-to-face zero acquaintance situation (e.g., Ambady, Hallahan, & Rosenthal, 1995; Ambady & Rosenthal, 1992), far less has scrutinised the issue of personality judgement in an online context (Back et al., 2010; Darbyshire et al., 2016; Nosko, Wood, & Molema, 2010), despite the recent introduction of its use in recruitment and selection.

Many social media sites such as Glassdoor, Snap Chat, Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, WeChat and WhatsApp have entered onto the recruitment scene (Chambers & Winter, 2017). Organisations' recruitment and staffing functions have embraced many of these social media sites and found them to be a useful tool to source potential candidates, conduct background checks and justify hiring decisions (Hazelton & Terhorst, 2015; Chambers & Winter, 2017). This practice is now a reality (Slovenksy & Ross, 2012; Landers & Schmidt, 2016). In the selection process, people provide a significant amount of personal information through their online behaviours which can be observed, captured and acted upon by recruiters and employers (Landers & Schmidt, 2016). According to Haefner (2009), it is estimated that 45% of employers have used the Internet to screen employees. Caers and Castelyn (2010) have shown that 13.2% of Facebook users who work in recruitment admit to using their personal profiles to determine whether or not to invite candidates for an interview. Haefner (2009) further describes that in the 2009 Career Builder survey, 35% of employers claimed that they did not hire a candidate based on damaging information found on an OSN. By assessing a candidate on Facebook, the recruiter is making a subjective judgement of the candidate's personality. However, although organisations are using OSNs in recruitment, little about the implications is understood by researchers and HR professionals (Roth, Bobko, Van

Iddekinge, & Thatcher, 2016). With many recruiters and employers admitting to the use of OSNs in making hiring decisions, it is imperative that these decisions are based on accurate judgements.

Measurement accuracy has shown to be a well-acknowledged problem and has presented methodical challenges (Sulsky & Balzer, 1988; Furr, 2008; Biesanz, 2010), with prior research predominantly measuring judgement accuracy using the accuracy criteria of the 'good judge' that have important flaws (see Borman's differential accuracy). Research in the field of accuracy of personality judgement has evolved from assessing a single accuracy measure (see Cronbach, 1995) to understanding the complexity of personality judgement as outlined by Funder's (1995) Realistic Accuracy Model (RAM). Further research has led to understanding profile normative and distinctiveness. A common area of personality judgement research is the understanding of the 'good judge'. The goal of most research regarding the good judge of personality has been to identify characteristics related to accuracy (Letzring, 2015). However, there has been little research conducted into understanding the relationship between a judge's personality traits and the accuracy of personality judgements. Furthermore, little is known about the good judge on OSNs. Earlier studies have used judgements of interviewees' dimensions (De Kock, Born, & Lievens, 2015; De Kock, Lievens, & Born, 2018), personality (Christiansen, Wolcott-Burnam, Janovics, Burns, & Quirk, 2005) and text (Letzring, 2017). However, little is known about personality judgements from Facebook. As the use of OSNs in recruitment and selection is becoming a prominent screening tool, it is imperative to understand what makes a good judge in the virtual world.

The Present Study

Personality judgements have the potential to influence our decisions and behaviour towards others. Therefore, to ensure they are accurate, it is important to understand how judgements are made, especially in terms of online cues that can be used when rating another's personality (Darbyshire et al., 2016). The rise of online social networking sites (OSNs) such as Facebook has provided useful context to understand and explore the expressions and perception of personality.

The aim of this study is to investigate empirically the relationship between recruiter personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism) and the ability to make accurate profile and distinctive accuracy judgements when judging job candidates' personality from Facebook profiles. In order to test these ideas, five Facebook profiles will be created and presented to University of Cape Town (UCT) students.

Profile accuracy scores, operationalised as Borman's differential accuracy, and distinctive accuracy scores, operationalised as Cronbach's differential accuracy, will be derived for each judge and correlated with the "true scores" of the targets' personalities. The accuracy scores for each judge will be correlated with the judges' own level on the same Big Five trait in order to determine the relationship between judges' Big Five personality trait scores and their profile and distinctive accuracy scores.

Literature Review[2]

Personality Judgement: Theoretical Framework

As individuals, we are naturally curious about others and often form judgements about others' personality. We continuously convey messages about who we are through our behaviour, words, emotions and personal appearance (McDonald & Letzring, 2016). Judgements based on others' personality can form the basis of important everyday decisions. People will therefore make better decisions when they are able to make these judgements more accurately (Letzring, 2008). However, what does it mean to judge another's personality accurately?

Realistic Accuracy Model

The Realistic Accuracy Model, also known as RAM, is based on Brunswik's Lens Model (Brunswik, 1956; Funder, 1995). Brunswik (1956) developed a framework of person perception that explained the underlying processes in making accurate judgements (Powell, 2007). The model stipulates that when an interest (such as another's personality) cannot be observed, people will make direct judgements by focusing their attention on available cues, some of which may be more useful than others. According to Brunswik (1956), there are two methods in making accurate judgements: one is from the object to the cue, and the other is from the cue to the judgement (Powell, 2007; Letzring & Funder, 2017). For example, if an interviewer is attempting to judge accurately a job candidate's level of extraversion, there are several cues which would indicate this, such as a loud voice, being talkative and smiling. According to the Brunswik Lens Model, a cue (e.g., being talkative) may be detected and the interviewer may correctly use it to make a

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judgement. On the other hand, the interviewer may detect a cue (e.g., smiling), but not assign it appropriately (Powell, 2007). Over time, Brunswik's model has evolved. Funder (1995) is one researcher who built on this model through the development of the Realistic Accuracy Model (RAM).

RAM attempts to blend social and personality psychology views into an "overarching" theory of personality judgement (Beer & Watson, 2008, p. 250). The model outlines two implications. The first is that accuracy of personality judgement is complex and the second is that personality judgement is a combination of attributes and behaviour of both the target (the individual being judged) and the observation and discernment of the judge (the individual making the judgement) (Funder, 1995). In order for accuracy to be achieved, four stages must be completed, namely relevance, availability, detection and utilisation (Funder, 1995, 1999; Letzring, 2008). This means that the target needs to do something that is *relevant* to the personality trait that is being judged, the cue must be *available* to and easily *detected* by the judge, and lastly, the judge needs to be able to appropriately *utilise* the cue in order to form a judgement (Letzring, 2008).

The first stage of RAM, *relevance*, indicates that cues need to be portrayed by the target in order to be judged. Cues can consist of thoughts, feelings, behaviours, facial expressions, spoken words, clothing and physical appearance (Letzring & Funder, 2017). *Availability*, the second stage of RAM, highlights that only cues that are available to the judge can be used to make an accurate judgement. Overt behaviours, such as actions, physical appearance and spoken words, are readily available, for example, whereas thoughts and feelings are not. The first two stages of RAM focus on the targets being judged in that the target needs to make the relevant cues available either intentionally or unintentionally. The third stage of RAM is *detection*. The focus moves to the judge, where the judge must pay attention to detect the relevant and available cues (Letzring, 2008; Letzring & Funder, 2017). Lastly, the fourth stage of RAM is *utilisation*, in which the judge is required to use the detected cues in order to make a judgement by matching them to the associated personality traits.

Perfect accuracy can only be obtained once *all* elements of the above equation are "perfectly unambiguous". This "formulaic representation of RAM" explains why judgement accuracy is so difficult (Funder, 1995, p. 658). Figure 1 is a visual representation of RAM.

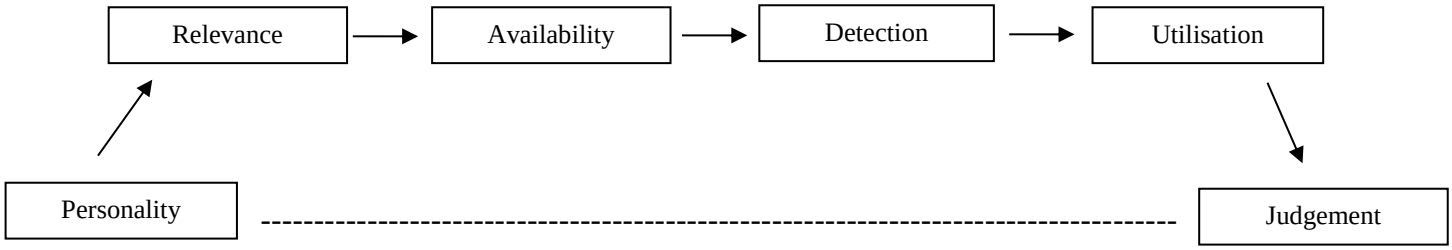

Figure 1. Funder's (1995) Realistic Accuracy Model (RAM)

A goal of RAM is to provide a foundation for accuracy research by accounting for the diverse variables (or moderators) that impact accuracy of judgement (Funder, 1995). The model acknowledges that many sources of information are required in order to achieve the highest level of accuracy (McDonald & Letzring, 2016). According to Funder (1995), moderators of accurate judgement can be categorised into four components, namely: the good judge, the good target, the good trait and the good information. In this case, "good" is used to describe each moderator to emphasise accuracy rather than error. When these four moderators are present, the best personality judgements can be achieved.

Good judge. An important component of the judgement process concerns the person making the judgement, also known as the "judge" (Letzring, 2008, p. 915). This moderator refers to the idea that some people are better and more accurate judges than others (McDonald & Letzring, 2016). A good judge is able to perceive and utilise cues accurately according to three components: knowledge, ability and motivation (Funder, 1995). A good judge should be knowledgeable about personality and how is it shown in behaviour, have "high levels of cognitive ability and general intelligence", and lastly, be motivated to make accurate judgements (Funder, 1995, p. 660; Letzring, 2008, p. 915). Amongst these elements, it is important that a good judge has access to a large amount of useful information about the target(s). Recent research shows the link between judgement accuracy and several personality characteristics. Taft (1955) noted that some such characteristics include gender (women have a slight advantage over men), intelligence, aesthetic ability, emotional stability, social skills, self-insight and social detachment. Furthermore, positive characteristics are positively related to accuracy, whereas negative characteristics are negatively related (Letzring & Funder, 2017). Examples of positive characteristics include trustfulness,

maturity, emotional stability, warmth, agreeableness and empathy (Taft, 1995; Letzring, 2008), whereas negative characteristics include being anxious, domineering, avoidant or defensive (Vogt & Colvin, 2003). Despite these characteristics having been identified, an important caution that there is no single characteristic or set of characteristics that has been consistently determined (Davis & Kraus, 1997).

Good target. A target is the subject, or individual, being judged. Some people are easier to judge than others, such as individuals who provide "more relevant and available cues to the judge" (McDonald & Letzring, 2016, p.141). This is also referred to as judgability (Letzring & Funder, 2017). Good targets are open, transparent individuals whose personality, words, actions and thoughts are consistent with their behaviour and can be judged from few observations (Funder, 1995). According to Colvin (1993), good targets are typically viewed positively by their peers and themselves. They also score particularly highly on agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness and emotional stability (low on neuroticism) (Colvin, 1993).

Good trait. The model accounts for good traits, which suggests that some traits are easier to judge than other traits. For example, extraversion is considered as a good trait as it can be more accurately judged due to the high number of "relevant and available cues" connected to it (Beer & Watson, 2008, p. 251; McDonald & Letzring, 2016, p. 141). This relates to visibility and observability, which reflects the number of external cues that are relevant to the respective trait and often made available to others (Letzring & Funder, 2017).

Good information. Good information refers to the information that is available to the judge independent of how the information is perceived or utilised (Funder, 1995). Regarding personality judgement, information refers to anything that the person being judged (the target) says or does that is relevant to the type of person he or she is. There are two important elements of good information that need to be considered: quality and quantity (Funder, 1999; Letzring & Funder, 2017). In terms of quantity, it is important to understand whether the judge has spent sufficient time with the target (frequency of interactions) (Funder, 1995; McDonald & Letzring, 2016) or for how long the judge has known the target. Information quality refers to the certain relationship "contexts or type of subjects" discussed that can provide better information than others. The higher the quality of information, the more accurate the judgements of the respective trait (Letzring & Funder, 2017, p. 141).

Social Networking Sites in Recruitment and Selection

The introduction of social networking sites has filtered into the business landscape and organisational contexts such as recruitment and selection. Many employers and recruiters actively consult social media during the hiring process (Slovensky & Ross, 2012), often without the awareness of the candidates (Landers & Schmidt, 2016). This practice is now a reality which has shown to affect several professions and can influence organisational functioning (Christiansen et al., 2005).

Selection can be described as the process or system that employers and recruiters use to determine the candidates' qualifications, followed by the decision-making process which is used to act on that information (Farr & Tippins, 2010). Recruitment, on the other hand, is the process of finding and hiring qualified individuals for a job vacancy. Job interviews constitute a part of the selection and recruitment process. According to a meta-analysis conducted by Huffcutt, Conway, Roth, and Stone (2001), personality traits and social skills are the most commonly rated constructs in job interviews. Assessing personality traits is related to several organisational consequences such as job performance (Barrik & Mount, 1991), job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002) and person–organisation fit (Cable & Judge, 1997). Subsequently, understanding personality can be particularly important in the selection process. Evidence suggests that interviewers can assess personality with some degree of accuracy (Powell & Goffin, 2009). The two personality traits that consistently predict job performance are conscientiousness and emotional stability (Barrick, Patton, & Haughland, 2000; Powell & Goffin, 2009). Furthermore, Barrick et al. (2000) found that interviewers were able to assess extraversion well (r = .42), but neuroticism less effectively (r = .17). In an employment interview, interviewers have limited time in which to make judgements and interact with the candidate (Powell & Bourdage, 2016). The introduction of OSNs in the recruitment and selection process has presented an alternative means to make personality judgements.

OSNs have provided recruiters and HR professionals with additional means of attracting potential job applicants and conducting background checks on candidates (Nikolaou, 2014). Traditionally, recruiters and HR professionals relied on cover letters, resumés and application forms, and sometimes interviews, to screen potential candidates (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). According to Davison, Maraist, and Bing (2011), the increased use of OSNs during employee

screening may be attributed to its close relation to the traditional recruitment method of posting a job advert on the Internet. Other attractions include the ease of access to information and low cost of sourcing employee information during the screening process (Nikolaou, 2014; Landers & Schmidt, 2016). Using OSNs can also enable recruiters to reach a broader array of candidates (Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), 2016). Many employers claim that OSNs are useful sources of data and can assist in improving hiring decisions (Kluemper & Rosen, 2009). Information found on OSNs can provide recruiters with insight into the user's writing skills, job experience, and a variety of knowledge skills, abilities and other attributes (KSAO) criteria that can be related to a job or organisational fit (Kluemper & Rosen, 2009). This information can allow employers to conduct background checks on potential employees (Karl, Peluchette, & Schlaegel, 2010) and obtain information rarely gleaned in employment interviews. According to 51% of recruiters, screening a candidate's social media profiles allows recruiters to confirm easily the information provided by the candidate's cover letter, resumé and application (SHRM, 2016). Caers and Castelyn (2010) have shown that 13.2% of recruiters who are Facebook users admit to using their personal profiles to determine whether or not to interview a candidate.

Recruiting via social media is growing, with 84% of organisations currently using it as a regular practice and 9% planning to use it in the future (SHRM, 2016). Career Builder, Microsoft, Reppler and the SHRM conducted surveys to determine the prevalence of social media screening practices in industry (Kluemper, 2013; Kluemper, Mitra, & Wang, 2016). The Reppler survey conducted on 300 hiring managers revealed that 91% of them used social media in order to screen candidates. The Reppler survey further found that the most commonly used social media platforms included Facebook (76%), Twitter (53%) and LinkedIn (48%). The industries with the highest social media use included technology (63%) and "professional and business services" (53%). In 2015, 81% of organisations admitted that social media was a regular recruiting tool, with 5% confirming that it was their primary recruiting tool (SHRM, 2016). In the 2009 Career Builder survey, 35% of employers claimed that they did not hire a candidate based on damaging information found on an OSN. This included evidence of illegal activities, badmouthing current or former employers, discrepancies with their application, inappropriate photographs, poor communication skills and discriminatory comments (Kluemper, 2013; SHRM, 2016). On the other hand, 18% of employers admitted to hiring a candidate based on the information found on their

social media profile (Kluemper et al., 2016). Some of the reasons included a good organisational fit, a positive personality, strong creativity skills, supposed good communication skills and being a well-rounded candidate (Kluemper, 2013).

The use of social networking sites in recruitment and selection is not without its limitations. The main concern is the question of the reliability and validity of the information that is available via social media (Landers & Schmidt, 2016). Individuals may not accurately represent themselves on social media. Furthermore, much of the information may not be their own. Social media profiles may be contaminated with the behaviour and personality of others, such as tagged photographs and wall posts. Users have limited control over this aspect of their profiles (Kluemper & Rosen, 2009). This information could influence the perception of the user's personality. Furthermore, the information found on OSNs may not accurately reflect what an applicant will be like as an employee (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). Due to social media norms, it may be expected that users behave in a particular way (e.g., be extraverted), whereas this may not be true to how they would behave at their place of work (Smith & Kidder, 2010). It is important for organisations to understand the importance of using such information as it may come across as unprofessional (Doherty, 2010). The use of social media information can lead to discrimination towards potential candidates.

Another risk that can arise from using social media information in recruitment is the ethical concerns in screening candidates (Doherty, 2010). OSNs provide an alternative to traditional background checks as recruiters seek additional information about the candidates following the receipt of their resumé and application form (Nikolaou, 2014). Because a recruiter is looking at personal information that may not be professional (i.e. job relevant), yet is being used in a professional capacity, it may border on being unethical if not used appropriately (Chambers & Winter, 2017). Using non job-relevant information found on one's personal OSN may lead to a biased hiring decision. According to the Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998), organisations are not permitted to use assessments unless the assessment "has been scientifically shown to be valid and reliable, can be applied fairly to all employees and is not biased towards any employee or group".

Using personality information found on OSNs for recruitment purposes can also raise issues of privacy. It is acknowledged that due to the nature of OSNs, users display, often

enthusiastically, personal information that may be easily accessible to others (Smith & Kidder, 2010). However, it is reasonable to assume that many candidates would not voluntarily disclose this information to potential employers. Kluemper (2013) also indicates that this may lead to candidates withdrawing their applications.

Personality Judgement on OSNs

OSNs provide an ideal platform to express one's individual differences (Stopfer, Egloff, Nestler & Back, 2014). These sites offer a unique opportunity for studying interpersonal perceptions and impressions. OSN functionality allows users to present their personality in various mediums, for example through photographs and favourite quotes, and connect and communicate with each other by creating friend lists, joining groups and stating interests (Stopfer et al., 2014). Furthermore, the types and number of interest groups an OSN user has joined, the comments that have been made and left for the user, comments made by the user on other users' photographs, walls and status updates, along with the listed books and interests in the personal section of a profile provide useful information about the user's personality (Kluemper & Rosen, 2009). These activities on social networks can provide valuable insight into individual behaviour, experiences, opinions and leisure activities (Agarwal, 2014).

Facebook is one such OSN that has become one of the most popular computer-mediated social networking systems in the world. Facebook launched in 2004 and has since developed into an 'online community' whereby users can create profiles to share various forms of personal information (Gosling, Gaddis, & Vazire, 2007). These personal profiles can be seen by other Facebook users. Facebook profiles have become a significant source of information that can be used to form impressions of others (Agarwal, 2014). Facebook, as an OSN, stands out due to the quantity and quality of personal information users can make available on it, and the fact that this information is personality identifiable (Acquisti & Gross, 2006). One's personal Facebook profile can confirm information about employment and relationship status as well as providing details about one's life through personal photographs, listed interests, a self-description and status updates (Nosko et al., 2010; Agarwal, 2014; Lueders, Hall, Pennington, & Knutson, 2014). Research has shown that personality can be judged from Facebook profiles (Kluemper & Rosen, 2009). The fact that people are able to judge others' personality from their Facebook profiles can imply two things: Facebook profiles are a manifestation of people's personality, and some elements of a Facebook

profile can be used by people to judge others (Agarwal, 2014). This can be a valuable source of information when making hiring decisions.

Hiring managers primarily assess candidates' knowledge, skill and ability levels in order to determine person–job (P–J) fit, but will refer to their personality and character when assessing person–organisation (P–O) fit (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). OSNs allow hiring managers and recruiters to assess personality when initially screening candidates and trying to determine P–O fit (Slovensky & Ross, 2012; Kluemper, 2013). Research by Kluemper and Rosen (2009) conducted on undergraduate students (as judges) to assess personality from six Facebook profiles revealed that they could accurately judge the Big Five personality traits, with correlations between self-reported personality traits by the targets, and judges' ratings ranging from .3 to .5. Kluemper et al. (2012) further provide evidence from two studies that professional recruiters can assess personality from Facebook profiles. The studies concluded that Facebook-rated personality correlated with self-report personality scores, revealed internal consistency and inter-rate reliability for personality and being hireable, correlated with the recruiter's preference to hire the Facebook user and correlated with supervisor ratings of job performance in a sub-sample of Facebook users who were employed six months later (Kluemper et al., 2016). In understanding that recruiters are able to judge personality from Facebook profiles, it is important to determine which elements of a Facebook profile provide useful personality information.

A valuable source of information regarding personality cues may be found in the visual elements of Facebook profiles such as the targets' profile pictures and photographs posted by themselves or others. People tend to be able to form accurate personality judgements from photographs (Naumann, Vazire, Rentfrow, & Gosling, 2009). Subsequently, it could be thought that photographs could provide a valuable source of information regarding personality traits such as extraversion. However, research conducted by Darbyshire et al. (2016) revealed that extraversion was not accurately judged. The results showed that participants were aware of the potential of sociability within images, a sub-facet of extraversion (Costa & McCrae, 1992), however, they as judges were not able to utilise the cues accurately (Funder, 1995; Darbyshire et al., 2016). Research suggests that people are able to use cues from a picture as well as descriptive information when forming impressions and judgements (Bacev-Giles & Haji, 2017). Seidman and Miller (2013) instructed study participants to form impressions of four Facebook profiles of

attractive and unattractive people for each gender. The research revealed that individuals spent more time focusing on the photographs of female targets and on the descriptive information (such as the likes and interests) of the male targets (Bacev-Giles & Haji, 2017). Furthermore, this study revealed that participants spent more time studying descriptive information than viewing photographs. Another means by which personality can be detected is through text found on users' social media platforms.

The types of information available on OSNs can be effective in predicting the Big Five personality traits (Kluemper & Rosen, 2009). Darbyshire et al. (2016) conducted a mixed-methods study that revealed that personality traits (conscientiousness and openness to experience) were detectable form the user's vocabulary and occupational status. Cues portrayed by the targets' vocabulary included spelling and grammar which are predictors of intelligence, a sub-facet of openness to experience (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Darbyshire et al., 2016). A target's ability to use correct spelling and grammar may be an important screening factor for recruiters (Brown & Vaughn, 2011). However, due to the nature of social media, many online users resort to using shorthand and generation-specific abbreviations when communicating with others, for example using "u" instead of "you", which could be falsely attributed to low conscientiousness and intelligence, when it is in fact completely unrelated and simply the norm. The use of such language can appear in wall posts, status updates and comments made by the users or by friends which contaminated the target's Facebook profile. Darbyshire et al. (2016) also referred to occupation status as revealing information about organisational levels and procrastination, both factors of conscientiousness. Occupation status is a source of information within a profile that is not always readily available to judges. This information may either be omitted or invisible due to the target's privacy settings. It is important to consider that this source of information would generally have been available to recruiters in the hiring process either through interviews or on the applicant's curriculum vitae. Despite this, information about candidates' work experience and current place and level of occupation, when viewed in conjunction with other Facebook information, could provide recruiters with cues about applicants' personality. Both occupation status and the target's spelling and grammar are text-based, language cues that have been shown to be more salient in online contexts (Darbyshire et al., 2016).

Research has suggested that information found on OSNs may be used to assess aspects of knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics (KSAO), beyond personality (Kluemper et al., 2016). OSNs may provide valuable insight into KSAOs such as language and technical proficiencies, creativity, teamwork skills (Smith & Kidder, 2010), negotiation skills, leadership, communication and persuasion skills (Davison et al., 2011). However, it is worth noting that many of these skills can be obtained from traditional screening and interviewing techniques. A study by Van Iddekinge, Lanivich, Roth, and Junco (2013) concluded that Facebook ratings of KSAOs did not predict job performance. The validity of the ratings of information found on applicants' Facebook profiles was unrelated to applicants' job performance (Kluemper et al., 2016). Given these results, it seems that when using Facebook profiles, personality information can be more accurately judged and predicted in comparison to job performance. Further research is required in order to determine whether KSAOs can be accurately assessed from OSNs.

Personality as a Factor of Judgement Accuracy

Personality traits can be thought of as "patterns of thought, emotion and behaviours" that are fairly consistent across situations and time (Funder, 2012, p. 177), in other words how people think, feel and behave in comparison to others (Back & Nestler, 2016). Cost and McCrae (1992) describe personality traits as the unique ways in which individuals display lasting patterns of "thoughts, feelings and actions" (p.199). An individual's personality can also be comprised of their personal values, personality traits, attitude and beliefs, among others (McDonald & Letzring, 2016). Personality is one of the important aspects by which behaviour can be understood (Agarwal, 2014).

The Five Factor Personality Inventory, also known as the "Big Five", is a broad classification of personality traits. The model describes personality as a vector of five values corresponding to opposite traits (Agarwal, 2014). The Big Five personality traits are agreeableness, extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness and neuroticism. Personality traits may be considered as a factor in the understanding of a good judge (e.g., Christiansen et al., 2005). Who and what make a good judge of personality have been researched for some time, but have proved to be difficult questions to answer. As a result there are only a few replicated effects of judge's personality on accuracy of personality judgement (Back & Nestler, 2016). The judge's personality may influence the accuracy of interpersonal judgements, particularly the ability to form

accurate judgements of others in relation to the information processing stages of RAM (i.e. cue detection and utilisation) (De Kock et al., 2015). A study conducted by Christiansen et al. (2005) revealed that individuals do vary in their ability to make accurate personality judgements. As there has been little conclusive research conducted on understanding the role that the judge's personality plays in the role of accurate judgements (e.g., Borman, 1979; Lippa & Dietz, 2000; Powell & Goffin, 2009; Vogt & Colvin, 2003), this study aims to understand the role of the judges' personality in the online judgement process. Each of the Big Five dimensions will be discussed in light of this study's research aim.

Conscientiousness. Conscientiousness describes individuals who are hardworking and strong willed (De Kock et al., 2015). These individuals are also reliable, responsible, persevering, organised and diligent (Ross, Orr, Sisic, Arseneault, Simmering, & Orr, 2009; Agarwal, 2014). Individuals who are considered conscientious tend to focus on achieving goals in an "industrious, disciplined and dependable fashion" (Antonioni & Park, 2001, p. 333). Conscientiousness also manifests as being detail oriented, an important skill in the judgement of others, which may enable conscientious judges to detect personality cues better. Furthermore, conscientious individuals have been shown to be more consistent in the utilisation of personality cues, hence increasing their ability to make accurate personality judgements (De Kock et al., 2018). Despite this, research conducted by Christiansen et al. (2005) revealed that conscientious individuals were no more accurate than the individuals who scored lower on conscientiousness.

Agreeableness. People who score highly in agreeableness can be described as compassionate, nurturing, cooperative, optimistic, helpful, affectionate, kind, humble and likeable (Agarwal, 2014; De Kock et al., 2015). Agreeable individuals often relate to others with tolerance, trust and acceptance (Antonioni & Park, 2001). As agreeable individuals can often show concern for others (Digman, 1990), it is likely that they may be more in tune with those with which they interact (De Kock, et al., 2018). However, Christiansen et al. (2005) concluded that agreeable individuals were not able to judge others' personality accurately. In the online environment, Marcus, Machilek, and Schütz (2006) also found that agreeable individuals were not able to utilise personality cues accurately. A reason for this could be that agreeable individuals are too concerned with how they are viewed by others to interpret social cues given off by those around them

objectively. Gosling, Ko, Mannarelli, and Morris (2002) also found that individuals who scored highly in agreeableness were not able to detect and utilise personality cues accurately on websites.

Extraversion. Individuals who score highly on extraversion can be described as energetic, assertive, outgoing, active and friendly (Antonioni & Park, 2001; Brown & Vaughn, 2011). Extroverts are known to seek out social interactions. Schmidt Mast, Bangerter, and Aerni (2011) also describe extroverts as talkative individuals who act in a social way by smiling and maintaining eye contact. Judges who engage in eye contact and show interest in their targets' behaviour and conversation are more likely to be able to detect and utilise personality cues (Letzring, 2008). Due to their increased exposure to social cues, it is likely that individuals who score high on extraversion are able to hone their judgements from increased practice and feedback (Costa & McCrae, 1992; De Kock et al., 2018; Goldberg, 1992). However, there is evidence that shows that extroverts may not be good judges of personality (Christiansen et al., 2005; Lueders et al., 2014). Negative characteristics of extraversion can include impulsiveness and a lack of introspection (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999). Subsequently, it is possible that extroverts may make decisions or judgements about nonverbal cues impulsively, negatively affecting their ability to detect and utilise social cues. As judges may be able to detect social cues by being engaging and observant (Letzring, 2008), the lack of observation due to impulsiveness and focusing on self may lead to poor detection of personality cues. This could lead to making decisions and judgements quickly and without thorough analysing.

Openness to experience. Openness to experience is the trait used to describe individuals who are insightful, imaginative, open to experiencing new things, curious, adventurous, intelligent, and who appreciate beauty and art (Antonioni & Park, 2001; De Kock et al., 2015). Individuals who score highly on openness to experience have been shown to inquire about and enjoy working with abstract concepts (Goldberg, 1992). Because of this, it is logical to assume that they are able to form more accurate judgements of others through their ability to develop actively mental patterns and representations of others' traits and behaviours (De Kock et al., 2018). Judges with high intellectual capacity are more likely to be able to remember and successfully use social cues (Funder, 1999). Christiansen et al. (2005) found that judges who scored highly on openness to experience were able to judge others accurately in interviews ($r = .23$, $p < .05$). Furthermore,

Marcus et al. (2006) found that individuals who scored highly on openness were able to judge others accurately online.

Neuroticism. Neurotic individuals are thought of as being easily distressed (Ross et al., 2009), insecure, anxious, moody, self-pitying, tense, self-conscious, sensitive and hostile (Agarwal, 2014; De Kock et al., 2015). Individuals who score highly on neuroticism tend to be more self-conscious, which could reduce their desire to seek out social interactions (Goldberg, 1992). Well-adjusted judges (judges that score low on neuroticism) are more likely to be comfortable in social situations, allowing the targets in their company to make personality cues available (Letzring, 2008). They are also likely not to be focused on themselves and/or to experience worry and anxiety, thus enabling them to detect cues more easily and to have coherent thought patterns which would allow them to make more accurate personality judgements (Letzring, 2008

Measuring Judgement Accuracy: Approaches and Research Findings

Accuracy can be assessed in several ways (for a review, see Sulsky and Balzer, 1988). The specific method that is used has a significant impact on the meaning of the accuracy findings because the definition of accuracy depends on the methods by which it is assessed (Letzring & Funder, 2017).

Measurement accuracy is a term that describes both the strength and the type of relationship between one set of measures and a corresponding set of measures, such as true scores (Sulsky & Balzer, 1988). Moreover, the accuracy of personality judgements can be defined as the correspondence between how judges perceive or judge the personality traits of targets and how the targets 'really' are concerning these traits (i.e. 'true' personality) (Back & Nestler, 2016). According to Funder's RAM (1995), accuracy can be defined using the following formula:

> Accuracy = [(relevance of behavioural cues to a personality trait) × (the extent of which these cues are available to observation)] × [(the extent to which these cues are detected) × (the way in which these cues are used)]

Important factors to consider when assessing accuracy include (1) the criterion that is used to determine accuracy, (2) whether the accuracy is calculated for a single item across a set of targets, or judge–target pairs are compared to a set of items for judgements of a specific target, and (3) the

method that is used to compute accuracy (Letzring & Funder, 2017). Accuracy can be computed using either a trait-based approach or profile-based approach (Back & Nestler, 2016).

Trait versus Profile Accuracy. There are two major approaches employed to operationalise individual differences in judgement accuracy. The first is the trait accuracy approach, also known as the trait-based approach. The trait-based approach focuses on the judges' ability to judge the targets' personality traits relative to other traits (Alik, Borkenau, Hřebíčková, Kuppens, & Realo, 2015; Back & Nestler, 2016; Hall, Back, Nestler, Fraudendorfer, Schmidt Mast, & Ruben, 2018). Judging others on a trait level may occur in a job interview. For example, a recruiter's success in selecting the right person may be better if he or she is accurately able to judge and compare applicants across specific traits, such as extraversion for a sales position or conscientiousness for an accounting role (Hall et al., 2018). Trait-based accuracy is computed across targets for each specific personality trait: judges' judgements of a specific trait are compared with the target's actual values or score on that trait (Back & Nestler, 2016). Item-level correlations are used for a trait-based approach to determine how accurately a single trait or item is rated (Letzring & Funder, 2017), in other words how accurately a judge can rate a set of targets for a single trait (Letzring & Funder, 2017). Understanding trait-based accuracy allows the researcher to ascertain whether the judge can assess who is more or less extraverted, neurotic or trustworthy, for example, and whether there are certain judges who are better at judging extraversion, neuroticism and trustworthiness than others (Funder, 1995; Back & Nestler, 2016). An advantage to using this approach to accuracy is the result is associated with a single trait, thus avoiding concerns with profile correlations such as stereotype accuracy (Cronbach, 1955; Letzring & Funder, 2017).

The second method in judging others' personality is known as the profile-based accuracy approach. This approach assesses how well a judge is able to discriminate between traits for a specific target (Hall et al., 2018). The profile-based approach hones in on the judge's ability to detect each target's individual personality traits relative to each other (Back & Nestler, 2016). Profile-based accuracy is computed by comparing, for each judge–target combination separately, the profile of personality trait judgements (e.g., understanding the target's extraversion, neuroticism and trustworthiness) with the corresponding profile of the target's "trait criterion values" (Back & Nestler, 2016, p. 5). Profile-based correlations are used to assess the level of consistency between how a set of traits is ordered for a single trait and the ordering of the same

trait for the same target according to the accuracy criterion (Furr, 2008). Better profile-based accuracy can be achieved the greater the agreement between the two profiles gets. In other words, large profile-based correlations indicate that the two profiles have similar shapes (Letzring & Funder, 2017). This approach to judging personality can examine, for example, how much a judge can evaluate whether targets are more extraverted than neurotic, and whether there are certain judges who are relatively good at judging a target's individual personality profile (Back & Nestler, 2016).

In the present study, profile accuracy has been operationalised using Borman's differential accuracy (DA). Borman's DA is based solely on *r- to z*-transformed correlations (Sulsky & Day, 1994; Roch, Woeher, Mishra, & Kieszczynska, 2012). Using the Borman's index, accuracy scores are obtained by correlating ratings with true scores for each dimension and then taking the average of those correlations (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995). High scores indicate higher (better) accuracy (Sulsky & Day, 1994). It has been noted that this definition of accuracy is somewhat different to that of Cronbach (1955) (discussed below) (Sulsky & Balzer, 1988; Sulksy & Day, 1994). Borman (1977) focused on the correlation component of differential accuracy (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995), whereas Cronbach's measure of DA reflects the distance between ratings and true scores (Smither, Barry, & Reilly, 1989). Borman's DA is conceptually similar to rating validity because it gives only correlational information, i.e. it is not sensitive to the distance between ratings and true scores (Sulsky & Day, 1994). Researcher's preference for Borman's measure as opposed to Cronbach's is due to its simplicity and a belief that the measure represents the most important element of accuracy (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995), although this has proven debatable. Sulksy and Balzar (1988) argue that Borman's DA is not a true accuracy measure. This is due to true ratings (the difference between a true score and a participant score) that may differ from the ratings provided by judges but could still correlate highly (Roch et al., 2012). A high Pearson's product–moment correlation may not necessarily indicate a small difference between the proposed and estimated true scores (Smither et al., 1989). Roch et al. (2012) further demonstrate in the case of performance rating that if a judge consistently assigns rating two points higher than an expert judge, these two rating may be perfectly correlated and thus, the rater may receive a high accuracy score. However, the rater is not mirroring the expert rater. Despite this, it is still a commonly used accuracy measure. This is because it focuses on how well judges can discriminate between targets according to

performance dimensions (Roch et al., 2012). Furthermore, the correlational nature of Borman's DA does increase ease of interpretation (Smither et al., 1989). Sulsky and Balzer (1988) also advocate that Borman's DA can be helpful as an index of rating validity (Smither et al., 1989).

Research findings. Prior studies of the good judge have traditionally employed profile accuracy measures. A meta-analysis conducted by De Kock et al. (2018) revealed that personality was not a factor of accurate personality judgement when using Borman's differential accuracy. The meta-analysis showed that judges who scored high in agreeableness and openness to experience were able to judge the personality of others accurately. However, the statistically significant results yielded only a small effect (Cohen, 1998). Table 1 summarises the meta-analytic findings (De Kock et al., 2018).

Table 1

Summary of Meta-Analytic Findings of Individual Difference Predictors in Judgement Accuracy

Personality	*N*	*k*	$\bar{r}$	SD_r	*90% CI*	*80% CV*
Extraversion	1067	8	.02	.12	-.06, .10	-.06, .12
Agreeableness	1229	9	.09	.11	.02, .16	.00, .18
Conscientiousness	1067	8	.01	.07	-.04, .05	.01, .01
Emotional Stability	1067	8	-.01	.06	-.06, .05	-.01, -.01
Openness	1067	8	.10	.13	.01, .19	-.03, .23

Notes. N = total sample size, k = number of studies included in the analysis, $\bar{r}$ = mean observed correlation, SD_r = standard deviation of the correlations, 90% CI = 90% confidence interval around $\bar{r}$, 80% CV = 80% credibility interval around $\bar{r}$

As none of these findings relevant to the personality of the good judge have been conducted in the OSN recruitment and selection context, the present study will seek to replicate them when using recruiters' judgements of applicant Facebook profiles (and using the popular Borman's differential accuracy measure of accuracy). Therefore, this study will be guided by the following primary hypothesis:

H1: Recruiter personality traits, such as (H1a) agreeableness and (H1b) openness to experience, are positively related to profile judgement accuracy[3] when judging candidates' personality traits from Facebook profiles. Based on meta-analytic findings (De Kock et al., 2018), conscientiousness, extraversion and neuroticism will be not be related to trait profile judgement accuracy.

Normative vs distinctive accuracy.

Normative Accuracy. The aforementioned profile-based accuracy can further be divided into normative accuracy and distinctive accuracy (Furr, 2008; Human & Biesanz, 2011). Normativeness can be described as the degree to which an individual profile is similar to an average profile (e.g., the degree to which a particular wife is similar to the average wife) (Furr & Wood, 2013). In other words, a normative profile, and normative accuracy, reflects a judge's ability to judge others in a way that is consistent with what the average person is like (Biesanz, 2010; Letzring, 2015). This is computed as the correlation between an individual's profile and the relevant "normative" profile of means (Furr & Wood, 2013). Normative accuracy[4] reveals accuracy which arises from applying knowledge about the average trait profile of others (Hall et al., 2018). For example, knowing that, in general, people are more extraverted than neurotic. Profile-based accuracy proves advantageous when a more adaptive approach is required, such as when a person wishes to get to know a new individual thoroughly (Hall et al., 2018), i.e. understand the individual's profile of traits rather than compare individual traits from person to person. This proves beneficial in understanding how all the elements of an individual's personality fit together (Hall et al., 2018).

Distinctive accuracy. In order to account for normativeness, distinctive accuracy needs to be determined. Distinctive accuracy relates to the ability to judge accurately the unique trait profile of a particular target (Cronbach, 1955; Hall et al., 2018). As such, distinctive accuracy explains the ability for a judge to be able to judge accurately a target's personality profile above normative accuracy – i.e. how the target's profile differs from the typical profile for a specific target sample or population (Hall et al., 2018).

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[3] Profile accuracy is operationalised as Borman's differential accuracy (see Methods section).
[4] Normative accuracy is sometimes known as stereotype accuracy.

Cronbach's framework is one of the earliest known to account for normativeness (Furr & Wood, 2013). Cronbach's (1955) analysis of accuracy involves calculating an accuracy score for each judge across a set of targets on a set of traits (Jussim, 2005). Therefore, there is an individual score for each judge. These scores can be identified and distinguished as four components of accuracy: (a) elevation (EL), the overall tendency to rate dimensions either too high or low; (b) differential elevation (DE), the accuracy with which a judge can differentiate between targets when averaging all traits; (c) stereotype accuracy (SA), the accuracy of relative judgement distinctions which are produced by averaging all trait levels when averaged across traits; and (d) differential accuracy (DA), the judge's sensitivity to differences in patterns of traits in targets (Kenny & Albright, 1987; Sulsky & Balzer, 1988; De Kock et al., 2015). Normativeness was reflected in the "stereotype accuracy" index. DA can also refer to accuracy in identifying differences in judge's patterns of rating (e.g., rating performance) (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995) and is the most commonly used criterion of the Cronbach accuracy indices (Roch et al., 2012). DA is also the component that most closely corresponds with the conceptual notion of accuracy (Borman, 1977; Powell, 2007).

Cronbach's DA has been shown to be an effective operationalisation of distinctive accuracy, especially in the case where judges are required to rate multiple targets (Furr, 2008). The computation of DA would involve the 'mathematical removal' of a judge's overall average, along with the judge's average rating level for all targets and traits (Powell, 2007). Computing for distinctive accuracy can be accomplished by normatively adjusting a profile accuracy score in order to reflect the degree to which two profiles are uniquely similar, in terms of the ways in which they are distinct from the average person (Furr, 2008; Furr & Wood, 2013). In other words, a distinctive profile indicates how the target is unique to a profile of traits (Letrzring, 2015). Appendix A presents a worked example with three targets which are measured on five personality traits by two judges (the self and the informant). The worked example is also depicted graphically. In the worked example, profile similarity (normativeness) is shown through covariance or correlations between profiles (Furr, 2008). A positive correlation between profiles indicates that the relative order of variables (or traits) is similar to the relative order of traits in the other profile. For example, if a target rates him- or herself as highly extraverted, moderately agreeable and low in openness, a positive correlation would indicate that the judge (or informant) indicates that he or

she also sees the target as more extraverted than agreeable, and more agreeable than open. The mean score reflects the group's normative level of the variable being examined in the profile, and the difference score indicates the degree to which the individual is 'distinct' or unique from the group of a variable from two profiles (e.g., a self-profile and a judge profile). Furthermore, within this example, a global mean (which can be seen in the worked example) indicates a set of scores that are averaged across all individuals and across both sets of personality profiles.

Cronbach (1955) raised the important point that accuracy measures which do not account for normativeness in targets' personalities have significant flaws. Profile accuracy measures can "complicate the interpretation of average levels of profile similarity" (Furr, 2008, p. 1272). The interpretation of profile accuracy can be shielded by the fact that a given target's self-rated profile of trait scores may be similar to that of a given informant's profile of trait scores. This would indicate a positive degree of self–other agreement. As a distinctive accuracy measure – operationalised as Cronbach's differential accuracy – represents a meaningful improvement of traditional profile accuracy measures (e.g., Borman's differential accuracy), it is important to determine the degree to which prior findings about the personality of the good judge would replicate those of this alternative operationalisation of accuracy. As such, this study will be guided by the following secondary hypothesis:

> Hypothesis 2: Recruiter (H2a) agreeableness, (H2b) extraversion, (H3c) conscientiousness, (H2d) openness and (H2e) neuroticism are positively related to distinctive accuracy[5] when judging candidates' personality traits from Facebook profiles. As there are substantial differences between the profile and distinctive accuracy measures used in this study, the secondary hypothesis will be guided by the conceptual arguments presented as to why personality traits predict accuracy for each of the Big Five personality traits.

[5] Distinctive accuracy is operationalised as Cronbach's differential accuracy (see Methods section).

Method[6]

Participants and Sampling

Students at the University of Cape Town (UCT) were recruited to participate in this research study. The research questionnaire was distributed to 26 322 UCT students. These students were obtained using a convenience sampling method. Of the 550 final responses, five participants were removed due to not completing the questionnaire. Some (50) participants were removed from the sample as they identified as knowing one or more candidates portrayed in the Facebook profiles. In order to determine any outliers, a time limit of less than 10 minutes and more than 90 minutes was set. Some (37) participants were removed from the sample due to taking too long to complete the questionnaire. A dropout rate of 1% was recorded. The final sample size was 456 participants. This was 1.73% of the initial sample that was invited to participate in this research study.

The participants were from various faculties, namely Humanities (26%), Commerce (24.3%), Health Sciences (17.3%), Engineering and the Built Environment (13.8%), Science (15.1%) and Law (3.1%). Some participants (0.4%) did not disclose the faculty in which they are registered. Undergraduate (70.9%) and postgraduate (28.9%) students completed the study. Participants were asked, "How often do you participate in rating tasks on other people?" Some students had seldom (once a year) rated others (38.1%), some had occasionally (once every two months) rated others (30%), some had not ever rated others (24.1%), some had often (once every two weeks) rated others (6.1%) and some had regularly (once a week) rated others (1.5%).

The final sample had 61.5% female and 38.3% male participants. Participants stated their racial affiliation as Indian (7.7%), White (41.4%), Black (29.3%), Coloured (9.6%), Chinese (0.7%) and other (2.2%). Some (9%) participants preferred not to disclose their race. The students were aged between 17 and 52 years of age (M = 22.52 years, SD = 5.12 years). The students identified their home languages as English (67.6%), Xhosa (7.9%), Zulu (5.9%), Afrikaans (4.8%) and other (13.6%). Some of the other languages reported included French, Dutch, Hebrew, Mandarin, Chichewa and Sesotho.

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[6] Some parts of the following text correspond closely with those by the author in the original primary study (Rauch, 2015). The data was used in this study was collected in 2015, with the researcher being a member of the research team. This study obtained ethical approval in the same year.

It was safe to assume that the majority of the research participants had prior exposure on social media and Facebook. According to Statistica (2018), there were 2.27 billion monthly Facebook users as of the third quarter of 2018. A study conducted in Indonesia revealed that of the 47 165 808 Facebook users, 20 197 820 (42.82%) of total users were between the ages of 18 and 24 years (Erlin, Fitri, & Susandri, 2015). Facebook does not provide usage rankings per country, however it has been shown that Indonesia has the world's 4th largest number of Facebook users, followed by the United States, India and Brazil (Erlin et al., 2015). Table 2 summarises the participants' demographic variables.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics: Research Participants

Characteristic		
Age		
Mean	22.52	
SD	5.12	
Gender	*f*	%
Male	175	38.3
Female	281	61.5
Race	*f*	%
White	189	41.4
Black	134	29.3
Indian	35	7.7
Coloured	44	9.6
Chinese	3	0.7
Other	10	2.2
Prefer not to answer	41	9
Home Language	*f*	%
English	309	67.6
Xhosa	36	7.9
Zulu	27	5.9
Afrikaans	22	4.8
Other	62	13.6
Relationship Status	*f*	%
Single	391	85.6
Married/co-habited	44	9.6

Other	21	4.6
Level of study	*f*	%
Undergraduate	324	70.9
Postgraduate	132	28.9
Faculty	*f*	%
Commerce	111	24.3
EBE	63	13.8
Health Sciences	79	17.3
Humanities	119	26
Law	14	3.1
Science	69	15.1
Prefer not to answer	1	0.4
Frequency of rating others	*f*	%
Seldom	174	38.1
Occasionally	137	30
Never	110	24.1
Often	28	6.1
Regularly	7	1.5

Research Design

This study used a cross-sectional correlational design (Cozby, 2009) in order to test the relationship between recruiters' personality traits and the ability to make accurate profile and distinctive personality judgements of candidates from Facebook profiles. The data collected was quantitative self-report data. This design was selected as it allowed the researchers to prove and disprove assumptions, it was not costly to perform and the findings and outcomes could be analysed in a way that would allow for further theories and research to be conducted. A shortcoming of this type of design is that causality cannot be predicted (Thiese, 2014).

Procedure

This study was approved by the Faculty of Commerce Ethics in Research Committee, as well as the Department of Student Affairs. Upon approval, the online questionnaire was activated, which enabled the participants to access and complete the survey. The research questionnaire was administered using Qualtrics, an online survey platform (Qualtrics, Provo, UT). The participants were able to complete the survey on their mobile phones or desktop computers. All participation was voluntary and participants were informed that they could withdraw from the survey if they so

wished. All results were confidential and no personal data were requested. A lucky draw of a single R500 ($36.26 as of 5 December 2018) voucher was used to incentivise participation. Participants were required to provide their email address in order to be eligible to win the voucher.

Prior to the research questionnaire being released, a pre-test was conducted in order to determine the realism of the five Facebook profiles used in the study. The researchers' family and friends (12) were asked to evaluate the questionnaire. Each person rated the realism of the Facebook profiles on a scale of 1 to 10, with 1 being very unrealistic and 10 being very realistic. The questionnaire proved to be realistic (M = 7.25, SD = 1.42, n = 12). The pre-test was also conducted in order to determine the average time to complete the questionnaire. The pre-test participants were required to record the total time they took to complete it. Most pre-test participants completed the survey within 25 minutes (M = 26.83 minutes, SD = 10.13 minutes, n = 12).

Students received an email outlining the aim of the study as an invitation for participation. An online survey link was included in the email to direct them to Qualtrics. The email aimed to capture the participants' attention and was introduced as follows: "Did you know that some recruiters look at your Facebook profile to determine whether you are right for their organisation?" At the beginning of the survey, the participants were reminded of the aim of the study, which was presented on the Qualtrics landing page as such: "Given the shift in the world of work to increased electronic interactions, impression formation in the digital domain is becoming more important. Hence, the purpose of this study is to explore how accurately a person's personality can be inferred from their Facebook profile."

The survey consisted of three sections. The first section required participants to rate five independent Facebook profiles using a five-point Likert-type scale, whereby they were introduced to the recruitment context and an explanation of the Big Five personality traits. The Facebook profiles were presented as experimental vignettes (discussed next). Other study measures (e.g., personality and demographics) were included in the survey (see Appendix B). This information was used to determine each participant's dominant personality trait. Most participants completed the survey within 20 minutes (M = 22.98 minutes, SD = 13.76 minutes, n = 458).

Materials

Vignettes: Facebook profiles. The stimulus in this study was constructed using five actual Facebook profiles. Authentic Facebook profiles were selected to enhance realism within the judging process. The use of real Facebook stimuli allowed for a generalised application which would be found within the recruitment and selection processes in organisations (Highhouse, 2009). The researchers, namely five UCT Honours students, gave consent to use their real Facebook profiles for the purpose of the study (an example can be found in Appendix C). The vignettes were accessed on Qualtrics, an online survey platform, to imitate the process of making online judgements, rather than selecting pen and paper as the chosen survey platform.

Each vignette contained four sections which consisted of elements of a real Facebook profile. The participants were first presented with a colour profile picture of each target and a censored summary of the candidate's (target's) friend list, which included the total number of Facebook friends. A colour cover photo was provided in this section, which was labelled as "Profile Overview and Friend List". The second component, labelled "Likes", was an overview of what interests and hobbies the target had "liked". Images were presented in colour and contained the total number of pages that the target had shown interest in. Associated with each image was the name of the interest or hobby, or relevant page. Next, the participants were presented with nine thumbnail photographs that the target was tagged in. These photographs provided a summary of recent photographs that would be immediately visible to Facebook users viewing the target's profile. This section was labelled, "Recent Photos". Lastly, the first five wall posts that were visible on the target's Facebook profile were presented. These wall posts contained both text and images such a photographs. The wall posts were a summary of what would be immediately visible to other Facebook users. Furthermore, these wall posts were not necessarily written by the target, but were also messages posted by Facebook friends.

These profiles, known as vignettes, were constructed using the experimental vignette methodology (EVM) guidelines (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). This methodology was chosen as it allowed the researchers to develop realistic profiles that could assess accuracy of personality judgement while being able to manipulate the Facebook profiles to allow for each candidate's dominant personality trait to be visible. This methodology was applied through the addition of two wall posts. These wall posts aimed to test the study stimuli. The wall posts consisted of two status

updates which were short phrases that revealed each target's dominant personality trait according to the Big Five Inventory. An example of this can be seen in Appendix C. Schwartz et al. (2013) conducted a study using approximately 19 million Facebook status updates written by 136 000 participants. The results analysed word choices across gender, age and personality. For example, extraverts tend to use social words such as "party" and "love you" more than introverts, who use words such as "reading" and "Internet". Furthermore, phrases and words attributed to gender were applied to the wall posts. For example, females tend to use more emotive words and first-person singulars, compared to males who tend to use more swear words and object references. Lastly, words associated with age can take the form of slang, emoticons and Internet speak applicable to age groups, such as school-going youngsters, college students and working professionals. The statuses found on the Facebook wall of Person A were formulated using these popular word choices that are specific to the target's characteristics, in this case a young extraverted adult male. These phrase and word choices within the manipulation wall posts allowed for the generalisability of the manipulations (Highhouse, 2009) across judges of various ages, genders and dominant personality traits. This is important considering that recruiters and judges are not all alike, yet partake in similar judging tasks within the recruitment and selection processes.

These additional wall posts were included in order to measure the judges' ability to make accurate personality judgements due to the variety of information made available to the judges in each Facebook profile. The aim was to present an unobtrusive manipulation that also acted as an attention check (Hauser, Ellsworth, & Gonzalez, 2018). The realistic combination of text and visual-based personality cues, as well as the volume of information available to the judges, could have impacted their ability to make accurate personality judgements. This could have influenced the judges' ability to decipher and detect personality cues accurately from a variety of information sources within each Facebook profile. It was, therefore, important to design the manipulation wall posts in a way that presented dominant personality traits in a creative, yet precise manner (Highhouse, 2009) that was easy for the participants to interpret. It was important that they be true to the target's dominant personality traits and be a realistic feature on a Facebook wall.

True Score Development

The purpose of this study was to test the relationship between recruiters' personality traits and their ability to judge profile and distinctive personality accurately from Facebook profiles.

Therefore, it is important to define accuracy in relation to making personality judgements. Funder (1999) defines accuracy of personality judgement as the agreement between a judge's rating and a "true score". The definition of "true score" does raise concerns regarding how these scores are established (Powell, 2007). A perfect criterion for personality accuracy does not exist (Funder, 1995; Powell, 2007). Prior studies have used self-ratings, peer ratings, parent or friend ratings, or subject matter expert (SME) ratings as sources of "true scores" of a target's personality (Lippa & Dietz, 2000; Vogt & Colin, 2003; Powell, 2007). Each true score source has potential limitations (Powell, 2007). For example, a self-report personality rating may be prone to self-enhancement (Vogt & Colvin, 2003). As there are limitations to using self-report data, it was imperative to confirm the targets' true scores. In this study, true scores were computed using the mean of the five targets' responses to the 44-item Big Five Inventory (BFI) (John & Srivastava, 1999) and a realistic accuracy criterion (see below). The BFI responses were also used to determine the targets' dominant personality traits. The self-report scores for each Big Five traits of each of the five targets can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3

Self-Report Scores for the Five Targets in the Facebook Stimuli

Target	E	A	C	N	O
Target A	3.56	3.67	4.22	2.13	3.70
Target B	4.00	3.00	3.33	4.38	2.70
Target C	4.63	3.44	3.78	3.50	4.80
Target D	3.50	3.22	3.67	2.88	4.50
Target E	3.38	4.11	4.00	2.63	3.90

Notes. $N = 5$, E = Extraversion, A = Agreeableness, C = Conscientiousness, N = Neuroticism, O = Openness to experience

The realistic accuracy criterion (Funder, 1995) was in the form of two family members or friends who completed the BFI on the target. This was done in order to ensure that the target's self-rating was accurate. Lastly, accuracy scores were calculated for each target by correlating the judgements (of targets' personality) by each participant and the realistic accuracy and a "true score". Realistic accuracy criterion scores were determined using the target's self-report

personality scores (BFI) and the realistic accuracy criterion. The true scores for the five targets are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

True Scores for the Five Targets in the Facebook Stimuli[7]

Target	E	A	C	N	O
Target A	3.9	4.1	4.0	2.0	3.3
Target B	3.6	3.3	3.9	4.0	2.6
Target C	3.8	4.2	3.3	2.4	4.2
Target D	3.9	3.7	3.8	2.6	4.6
Target E	2.9	3.7	4.0	3.1	3.7

Notes. $N = 5$, E = Extraversion, A = Agreeableness, C = Conscientiousness, N = Neuroticism, O = Openness to experience

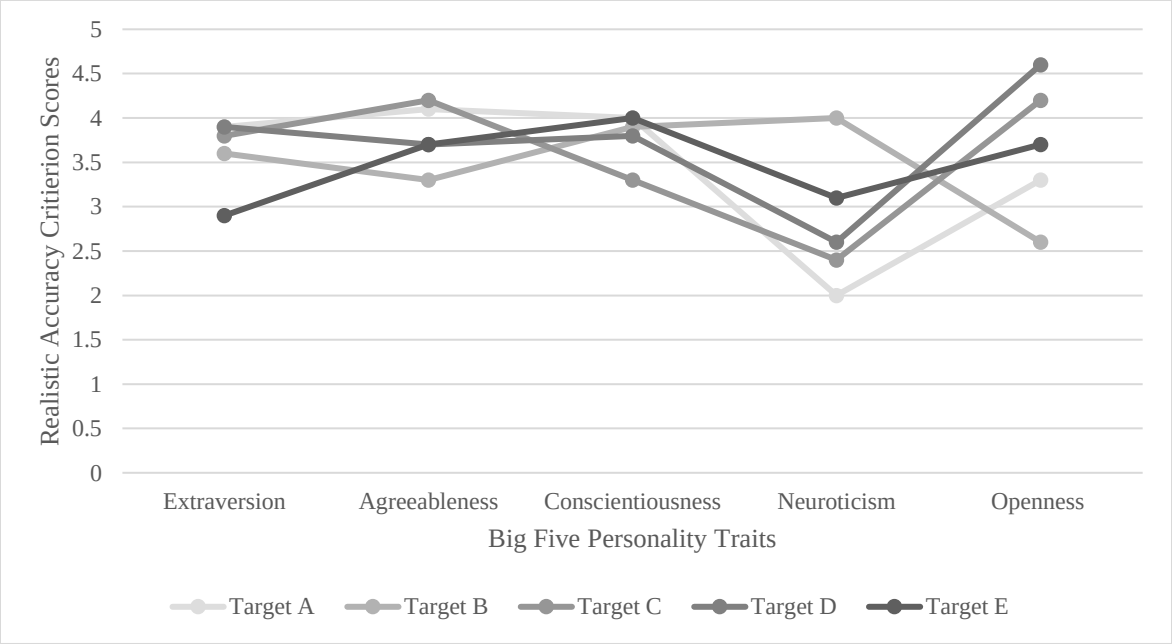

Figure 2. Realistic accuracy criterion scores of target profiles

[7] The realistic accuracy criterion score per target is the mean of the self-rating and two parent or friend ratings. These scores range from 0 to 5 for each Big Five personality trait.

Furthermore, two-way random effects intraclass correlation (ICC) was conducted in order to determine the level of inter-rate reliability between the ratings used in the realistic accuracy criterion, being the family and friend's personality ratings of the target. The ICC scores were obtained for each target. Target A has an ICC of .893, Target B of .654, Target C .725, Target D .922 and Target E .595. All of the five ICC scores proved to be reliable ($r > .5$) (Field, 2009).

Rating tasks. Before judging the target profiles, participants received definitions and descriptive adjectives of the Big Five traits. This was also made available after each profile before completing the rating scale. The list was tabulated to include adjectives that describe people who are high and low in each trait (see Appendix B). In order to judge personality from the five Facebook profiles, participants rated each target's Facebook profile using a Likert-type scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being a low indication of the trait to 5 being a high indication of the trait (see Appendix D). Participants could use the table of personality adjectives as a reference when rating each target's personality.

Accuracy criterion measures and scoring.

Profile accuracy. Accuracy scores acted as the dependent variable in this study. A profile accuracy score was computed for each participant by calculating the "within-person profile correlations", in other words the difference between the judge's personality rating and the realistic accuracy criterion of each target (see Borman, 1977) for each of the Big Five traits (De Kock et al., 2015). Regarding interpretation, higher differential accuracy scores indicate higher accuracy (Sulsky & Balzer, 1988).

Distinctive accuracy. Drawing on the workings of Sulsky and Balzer (1998), Cronbach's differential accuracy (CDA) (Cronbach, 1955) measure was computed as a measure of distinctive accuracy. This aimed to assess the judge's ability to determine differences in patterns of traits between targets (Powell, 2007; De Kock et al., 2015). The computation of CDA involves removing the judge's overall average and the judge's average rating scores for all targets and traits (Powell, 2007). Higher CDA scores indicate lower accuracy (De Kock et al., 2015).

Personality. To measure judges' personality traits as predictor variables, judges completed the Big Five Inventory (BFI) (John & Srivastava, 1999). The BFI is a short instrument which measures the assessment of the five personality dimensions. It uses short phrases based on the adjectives to describe the five trait dimensions, also known as the prototypical markers of the Big

Five (John, 1989, 1990; John & Srivastava, 1999). The BFI comprises five subscales (according to each personality dimension) which include eight to ten items (John & Srivastava, 1999). The participants were required to indicate their agreement with the statements about their personality on a five-point Likert-type scale, from strongly disagree (indicated by 1) to strongly agree (indicated by 5). The BFI has been shown to be both reliable and valid. The coefficient alpha reliabilities have been shown to be impressive (α = .83, N = 462) with individual traits proving reliable: extraversion (α = .88), agreeableness (α = .79), conscientiousness (α = .90), neuroticism (α = .85) and openness to experience (α = .88) (John & Srivastava, 1999).

Statistical Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) (IBM Corp, 2017) was used in order to capture, clean and analyse the collected data. Once the data had been cleaned, an item analysis and test for internal reliability was conducted to ensure structure and internal consistency of the Big Five subscales. An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted to establish the dimensionality of the Big Five subscales. Finally, a Pearson product–moment correlation was run in order to determine the relationship between recruiter personality traits and their ability to judge distinctive and overall personality accurately from Facebook profiles. A further analysis, using multiple regression analysis, was conducted to establish whether the possible combination of Big Five traits could predict judgement accuracy.

Results

Data Preparation[8]

Prior to being analysed, the data were checked to ensure that no problems, such as coding discrepancies, were experienced in the transfer from Qualtrics to SPSS. The data were checked using a percentage spot-checking method to see if the data coding was accurate. Furthermore, the questionnaire results were scanned for any obvious response patterns. Data sets of five participants were removed as a result of incomplete responses. Participants who were identified as knowing one or more of the targets (50) (9.1%) were removed due to potential bias. Participants who took

[8] Some parts of the following text correspond closely with those by the author in the original primary study (Rauch, 2015).

less than 10 minutes and more than 90 minutes to complete the questionnaire were removed. The time limit of between 10 and 90 minutes was chosen as being a realistic timeframe for a recruiter screening a Facebook profile. It was decided to remove these participants due to the possibility of inaccurate judgements being made either due to haste or more thorough judgement when more time was taken to examine the profiles. Thirty-seven participants (6.73%) were removed.

This research design was based on the assumption that the survey would be completed in a single sitting. The notion that an average job interview is approximately 40 minutes in duration (Christiansen et al., 2005) was also taken into account. Because these screenings are online, it is possible for a recruiter to conduct them in multiple sittings. However, the assumption was made that should it take longer than 90 minutes to conduct a screening, it would negatively impact the ability to make accurate personality judgements.

Tests for assumptions were conducted for all variables. SPSS was used to check for outliers, multivariate normality, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity and a linear relationship between variables, using p-values ($p < .01$) as cut-off scores. All assumptions were met.

Measurement Properties

Measurement reliability. An item analysis for each of the Big Five subscales was conducted in order to determine internal consistency reliability of the scales. A Cronbach Alpha of .70 and greater was considered an acceptable scale reliability score (Field, 2009). Table 5 shows all the alphas and the minimum and maximum item-total correlations for the Big Five subscales.

Table 5

Reliability Results of the Big Five Subscales Showing Initial and Adjusted Results

	E	A	C	O	N
Cronbach's α	.842	.740	.818	.784 .804†	.825
Corrected min. item-total correlation	.419	.318	.417	.191 .249†	.512
Corrected max. item-total correlation	.736	.524	.607	.631 .653†	.642

Notes. E = Extraversion (*N* = 8 items), A = Agreeableness (*N* = 9 items), C = Conscientiousness (*N* = 9 items), O = Openness to experience (*N* = 9 items), N = Neuroticism (*N* = 8 items)

† Adjusted item-correlation scores

An item analysis was conducted to test for internal reliability across each of the Big Five traits (see Appendix F, tables 10.1 to 10.6). An item-total correlation of .3 and above was sufficient for the inclusion of further analysis (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008; Field, 2009). One item (item 35) from the "Openness to experience" scale had a corrected item-total correlation of $r = .191$ (see Table 10.5). The item was removed from the scale and excluded in further analyses. The Cronbach's Alpha for all of the other BFI subscales were considered high enough to be included in further analysis. Overall, the reliability analysis deemed satisfactory reliability coefficients for each of the Big Five subscales.

Measurement validity. A principle component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation extraction method was performed to determine the structure and dimensionality of the BFI subscales. To continue with a PCA analysis, the associated Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling accuracy should be greater than .5, while the Bartlett's test of sphericity should indicate an associated probability of less than .05 (Field, 2009). The KMO test (> .5) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity were shown to be statistically significant ($p < .05$) and revealed that exploratory factor analysis was appropriate to run on the Big Five subscales (see Table 11 in Appendix G).

Principle components extraction was used to extract the number of factors, presence of outliers, and absence of multicollinearity and factorability of the correlation matrices. With $\alpha = .001$ cut-off level, no outliers were identified. The Kaiser (1970) criterion was used to determine the factor structure. Factors with an eigenvalue of more than 1 were considered important. The PCA results confirmed that one component within each of the respective scales: conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism. This confirmed unidimensionality of these scales. Unidimensionality could not be determined for the agreeableness and extraversion scales as two or more components were found.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 6 reports the descriptive statistics and intercorrelation of study variables that were obtained for the accuracy scores of each Big Five subscale trait. On inspection, the mean of the profile and distinctive accuracy were low (Profile Accuracy, $M = .36$; Distinctive Accuracy, M

= .84[9]). This indicates that judges were able to judge personality traits accurately from Facebook profiles when employing traditional profile accuracy measures, but were less convincing when accounting for profile normativeness. These results are comparable with Christiansen et al. (2005) and De Kock et al. (2015). Figures 3 and 4 are box and whisker plots that further describe the central tendency and dispersion and the Big Five scales and profile and distinctive accuracy scores. The mean scores, based on the 44-item Big Five Inventory indicate that the study participants' dispersion of personality scores per trait was similar across the five traits. Overall, the participants scored highly in openness to experience and generally low in neuroticism. Figure 4, showing the dispersion of profile and distinctive accuracy scores, revealed that the participants' mean ratings when judging profile and distinctive accuracy were low. It is important to highlight that the individual cases indicated as outliers were extreme values that did not meet the *z*-score cut-off (*p* = .05). Outlier assumptions were tested and met. Figure 5 is a visual depiction of the relationship between the Big Five personality traits, and profile and distinctive accuracy presented as a matrix scatterplot.

[9] Distinctive accuracy is operationalised as Cronbach's differential accuracy. High scores imply low accuracy.

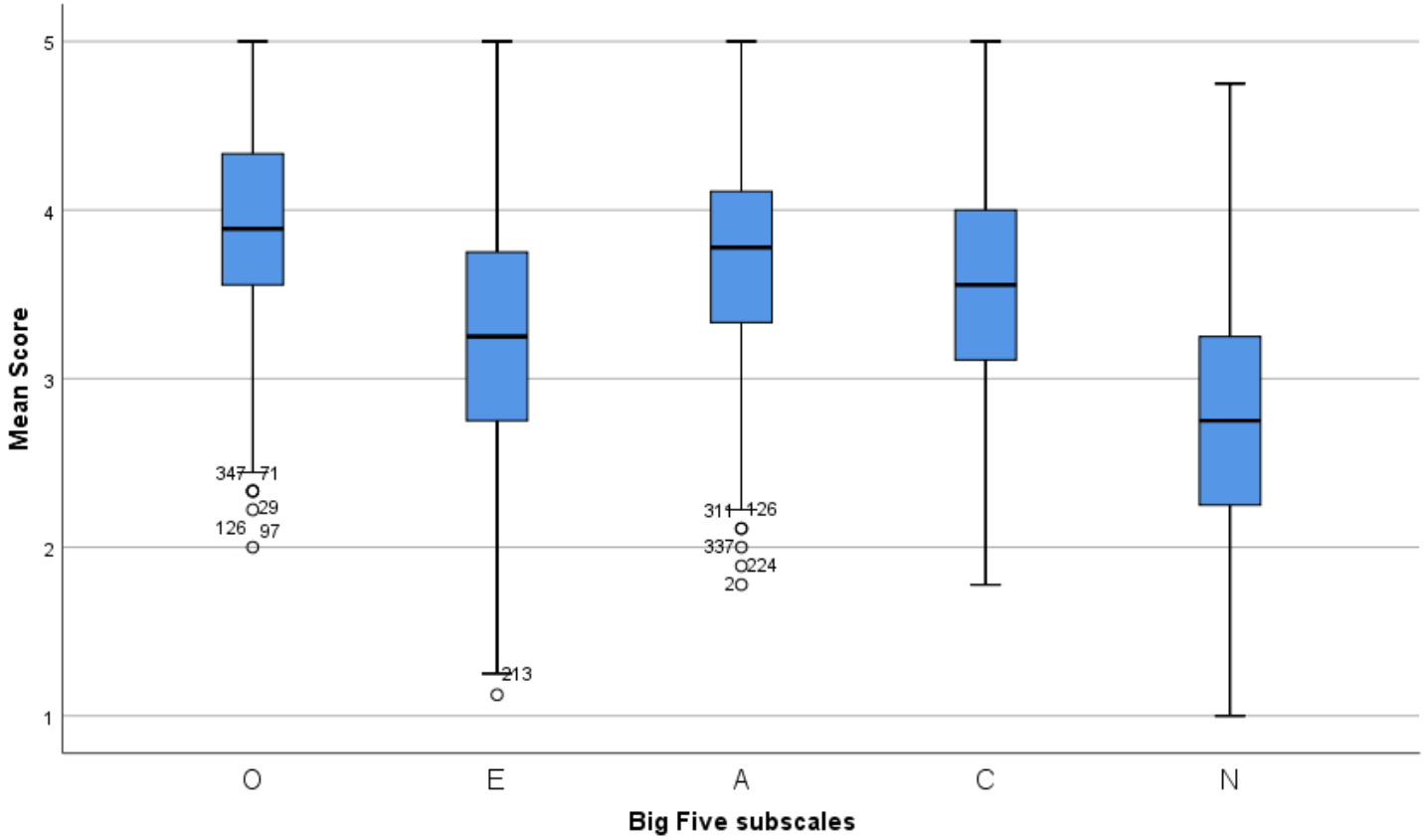

Figure 3. Box and whisker plots indicating central tendency and dispersion of the Big Five subscales

Notes. N = 456. O = Openness to experience, E = Extraversion, A = Agreeableness, C = Conscientiousness, N = Neuroticism

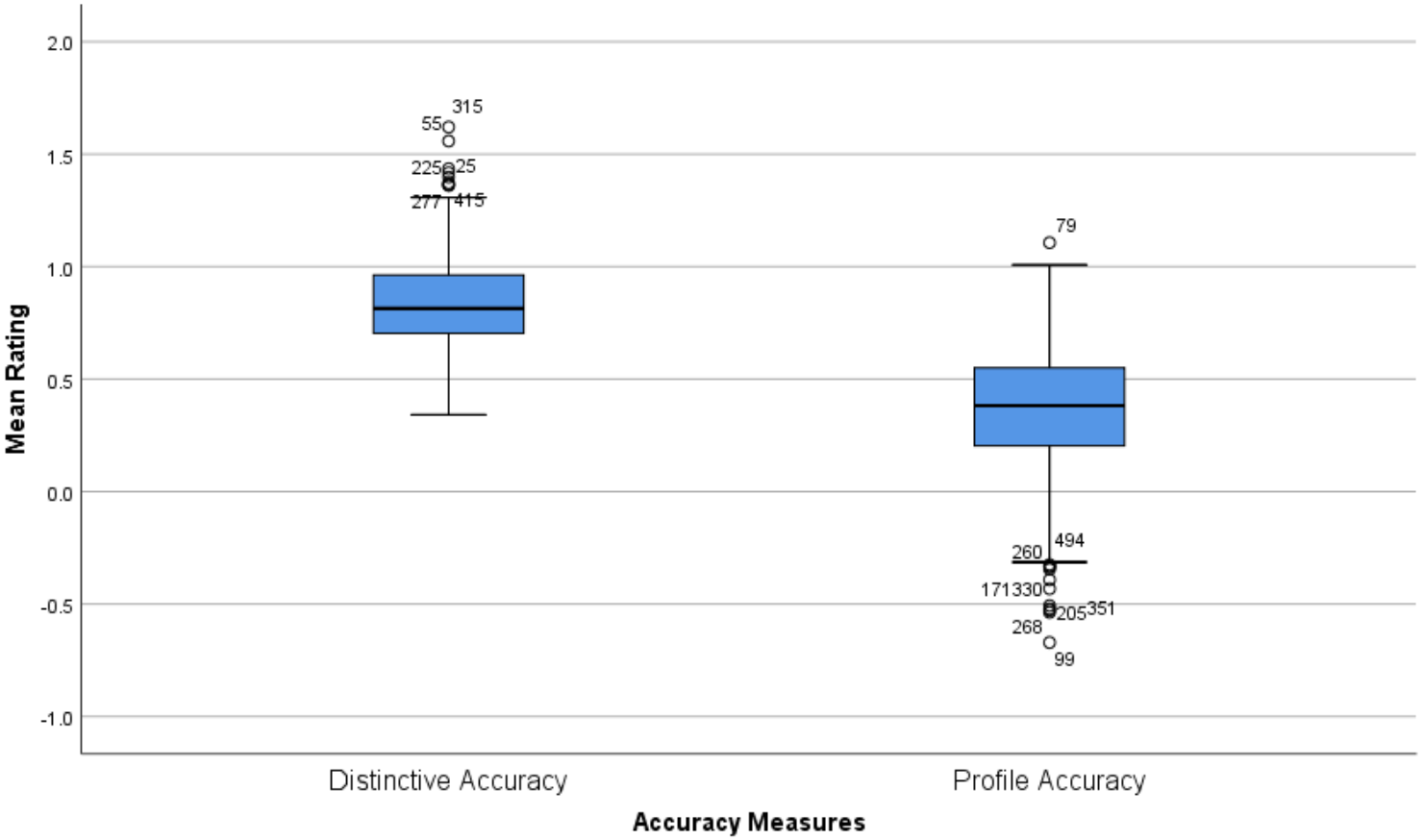

Figure 4. Box and whisker plots indicating central tendency and dispersion of the Profile and Distinctive accuracy scores

Notes. Distinctive accuracy is operationalised as Cronbach's differential accuracy. Higher scores indicate lower accuracy. Profile accuracy is operationalised as Borman's differential accuracy. Higher scores indicate higher accuracy.

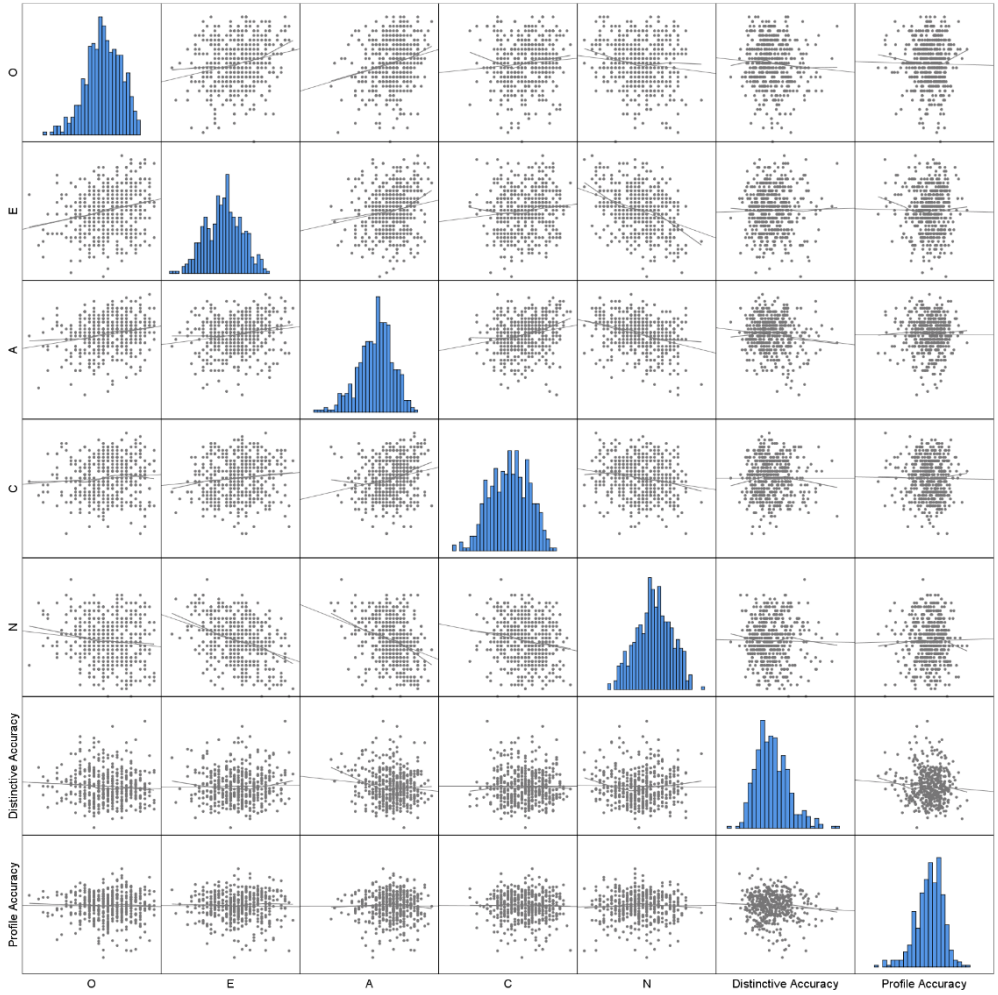

Figure 5. Matrix scatterplot showing the relationship between the Big Five subscales and Profile and Distinctive accuracy

Notes. O = Openness, E = Extraversion, A = Agreeableness, C = Conscientiousness, N = Neuroticism. Distinctive accuracy is operationalised as Cronbach's differential accuracy. The higher the score, the lower the accuracy. Profile accuracy is operationalised as Borman's differential accuracy. The higher the score, the higher the accuracy.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelation of Study Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*
1. Gender [a]	-	-	-								
2. Age	22.52	5.12	-.00	-							
3. Extraversion	3.24	.72	.02	-.03	-						
4. Agreeableness	3.70	.55	.05	-.06	.17**	-					
5. Conscientiousness	3.55	.62	.10*	.11*	.11*	.21**	-				
6. Neuroticism	2.79	.70	.21**	.033	-.35**	-.31**	-.17**	-			
7. Openness	3.88	.56	.00	-.01	.23**	.22**	.09	-.12**	-		
8. Profile Accuracy [b]	.36	.27	-.03	.12*	-.02	.00	-.01	.02	-.02	-	
9. Distinctive Accuracy [c]	.84	.19	-.09*	-.07	.02	-.12*	.00	-.02	-.07	-.07	-

Notes. $N = 456$

[a] Gender was coded as such that men were 1 and female were 2.

*$p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed)

[b] Profile accuracy is operationalised using Borman's differential accuracy. These accuracy scores are Fisher transformed (r to z) profile correlations between judges' ratings at the dimension and level acquaintances' true score estimates. High scores indicate higher accuracy.

[c] Distinctive accuracy is operationalised using Cronbach's differential accuracy (see Methods section). Higher scores indicate lower accuracy.

Tests of Hypotheses[10]

Hypothesis 1 stated that recruiter (H1a) agreeableness and (H1b) openness to experience are positively related to profile accuracy[11] when judging candidates' personality traits from Facebook profiles, i.e. they would be moderately related to each other ($r > .30$) (Cohen, 1988). The results of hypothesis 1a showed a non-statistically significant relationship between scoring highly on agreeableness and the ability to judge profile accuracy accurately from Facebook profiles ($r = -.00$, $p = .952$) 95% CI [-.09,.09], with a small effect (Cohen, 1988). Hypothesis 1b also revealed a non-statistically significant relationship between scoring highly on openness to experience and the ability to judge profile accuracy from Facebook profiles accurately ($r = -.02$, $p = .738$) 95% CI [-.09,.07], with a small effect (Cohen, 1988). We cannot support the hypothesis. Therefore, judges who scored highly in agreeableness and openness to experience were not able to judge profile accuracy more accurately than judges low in agreeableness and openness to experience.

Hypothesis 2 stated that recruiter (H2a) agreeableness, (H2b) extraversion, (H3c) conscientiousness, (H2d) openness and (H2e) neuroticism are positively related to distinctive accuracy[12] when judging candidates' personality traits from Facebook profiles. The results of hypothesis 2 showed a non-statistically significant relationship for four of the five Big Five traits and the ability to judge distinctive personality accurately from Facebook profiles. These traits included: extraversion ($r = .02$, $p = 664$), 95% CI [-.08, .12]; conscientiousness ($r = .00$, $p = .999$), 95% CI [-.09, .09]; openness ($r = -.07$, $p = .122$), 95% CI [-.16, .02]; and neuroticism ($r = -.02$, $p = .745$), 95% CI [-.12, .08], with a small to medium effect (Cohen, 1988). We cannot support these hypotheses. Therefore, judges who scored highly in extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism were not able to judge profile accuracy more accurately than judges low in agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism.

The results of hypothesis 2a resulted in a statistically significant relationship between recruiter agreeableness and the ability to judge distinctive accuracy accurately from Facebook profiles ($r = -.12$, $p = .013$), 95% CI [-.20, -.02], with a small effect (Cohen, 1988). We can support

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[10] Pearson product–moment correlation was used to test all hypotheses.
[11] Profile accuracy is operationalised as Borman's differential accuracy (see Methods section).
[12] Distinctive accuracy is operationalised as Cronbach's differential accuracy (see Methods section).

this hypothesis. Therefore, judges who scored highly in agreeableness were able to judge distinctive personality accuracy more accurately than judges low in agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism.

Further Analysis

In addition to our test of the study hypotheses using the correlational accuracy measure of profile and distinctive accuracy, a multiple regression analysis was run. A multiple regression analysis was conducted to explore how the Big Five traits in combination would predict accuracy of personality judgement using profile and distinctive accuracy measures, respectively.

Tables 7 and 8 display the correlations between the variables, the standardised regression coefficients (*B*) and intercept, R^2 and adjusted R^2. For Profile accuracy, *R* was not significantly different from zero, $F(5,450) = .073$, $p = .996$, with $R^2 = .001$. The adjusted R^2 value of −.01 indicates that less than .1% of the variability in profile accuracy is predicted by the Big Five traits.

Examining distinctive accuracy, *R* was not significantly different from zero, $F(5,450) = 1.89$, $p = .095$, with $R^2 = .021$. The adjusted R^2 value of .01 indicates that less than 1% of the variability in personality judgement accuracy is predicted by the Big Five traits.

For profile accuracy, .1% (−1% adjusted) of the variability in the accuracy judgement scores using profile accuracy was predicted by knowing the scores of the Big Five personality traits. For distinctive accuracy, 2.1% (1% adjusted) of the variability in the accuracy judgement scores using distinctive accuracy was predicted by the scores of the Big Five personality traits. The size and direction of the relationship suggest that there is a small effect between using the profile and distinctive accuracy measures respectively and the ability to judge the Big Five personality traits accurately from Facebook profiles.

Table 7

Results of the Multiple Regression Analyses of Profile Accuracy and the Big Five Personality Traits

Predictor	*β*	*t*	*p*
Constant	.36*	2.20	.03
Extraversion	-.01	-.13	.89
Agreeableness	.02	.29	.78
Conscientiousness	-.01	-.21	.83
Neuroticism	.02	.33	.74
Openness	-.01	-.29	.77

Notes. $R = .028$, $R^2 = .001$, $F(5,450) = .073$, $p = .996$
*$p < .05$

Table 8

Results of the Multiple Regression Analyses of Distinctive Accuracy and the Big Five Personality Traits

Predictor	*β*	*t*	*p*
Constant	1.07*	9.09	.00
Extraversion	.04	.74	.46
Agreeableness	-.13*	-2.51	.01
Conscientiousness	.02	.41	.68
Neuroticism	.05	-.86	.38
Openness	.06	-1.24	.22

Notes. $R = .143$, $R^2 = .021$, $F(5,450) = .189$, $p = .095$
*$p < .05$

Discussion

Main Findings

The use of online social networking sites (OSNs) has changed the landscape in which job searches and recruitment processes are conducted (Smith & Kidder, 2010; Kluemper, Rosen, & Mossholder, 2012; Kluepmer, 2013; Chambers & Winter, 2017). Despite the increased use of OSNs in many organisations' recruitment and selection practices, there has been little understanding of what constitutes a "good judge" in online contexts. Further research and understanding was required.

The main purpose of the study was to understand the relationship between recruiter personality traits (extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience and neuroticism) and their ability to judge profile and distinctive personality accuracy accurately from Facebook profiles. Prior research on the personality of the good judge has relied heavily on traditional profile accuracy measures, although these measures are limited as they do not effectively account for personality profile normativeness (see Cronbach, 1955; Furr, 2008). To this end, the present study compared the accuracy results of two accuracy measures, namely profile and distinctive accuracy. It was hypothesised that there is a positive relationship between recruiter personality traits and the ability to judge profile personality accurately from Facebook profiles. Further research hypotheses explored the relationship between recruiter personality traits and distinctive accuracy, operationalised as Cronbach's differential accuracy, from Facebook profiles. The study results revealed that judges were able to judge personality traits accurately from Facebook profiles when employing traditional profile accuracy measures. However, the judges' ability to account for profile normativeness was less convincing. Furthermore, the role of the judges' personality was not a factor in accuracy of personality judgement.

The good information. In order to determine possible explanations as to why our results did not support the study hypotheses, Funder's (1995) RAM can be re-examined. Online social networking sites (OSNs) allow users to present information and messages in several mediums, mainly text and visual messages. According to RAM (Funder, 1995), the *good information* moderator can influence the ability for a judge to assess personality accurately. The *good information* moderator refers to both the quality and quantity of information that is available to

judges that can be used to make personality judgements (Funder, 1995, 2012). The Facebook vignettes used in this research study contained extracts from actual Facebook profiles. This was done to create a sense of realism for the judges (see EVM: Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). The vignettes contained both visual and text-based personality cues, in the form of a profile picture and cover photo, wall posts, likes and interest pages, and a summary of the target's Facebook profiles. Referring to Funder's (1995) RAM, there were various forms of information available to the judges that could be considered detailed. It could be argued that this was a sufficient quantity of information. Overall, the results of this study revealed that judges making personality judgements from online cues were not able to make accurate personality judgements from Facebook profiles. A possible reason for this could be the quality of the information (Letzring, Wells, & Funder, 2006; Letzring & Human, 2013) found on Facebook profiles.

The quality of the information found in Facebook profiles may not have been conducive to personality cue detection and utilisation. This study had a variety of diverse types of information available to the judges (Funder, 1995). However, it is possible that the information provided did not allow for accurate cue utilisation. For example, one of Target A's dominant personality traits was extraversion. Target A's profile picture (see Appendix C) was an image of the target without any others that could have been perceived as friends, and his cover photograph was that of a sports stadium. The photographs that were visible on Target A's profile that indicated extraversion cues were not accurately utilised by the judges. It is also important to consider that smaller cues such as number of Facebook friends (which was given in the Facebook vignettes) have been shown to act as a cue for extraversion. Our results revealed that these cues were also not utilised accurately by the judges. Judges may not have considered this information to be personality relevant. The researchers took this into account, which was evident through the manipulation wall posts that were added (Highhouse, 2009). These wall posts contained words and phrases commonly used by young extraverted males (Schwartz et al., 2013) in order to enhance the targets' dominant personality traits.

OSN users interact and engage with other online users. These interactions can take the form of comments, status updates, wall posts and sharing photographs. These interactions allow for content to appear visible on a user's profile that was not endorsed by the user. Some recruiters may pay close attention to the information that is written by 'friends' of the user rather than the user's original content, as this information may be perceived as more truthful and less subject to

impression management (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). In this way, Facebook users may have little control over the information and content that appear on their profiles. This information, such as photographs, may be contaminated by other users which can negatively affect the quality of information available to judges (Landers & Schmidt, 2016; Smith & Kidder, 2010; Slovensky & Ross, 2012). On Facebook, it is also possible to be mistakenly tagged in a photograph or post. This may allow for the possibility of being incorrectly associated with other users who they do not know. If these photographs or posts are used in the hiring process, it can provide recruiters with a misleading impression of who the candidate is and what he or she is like (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). It is highly likely that there are many users with the same name, and even geographical location. This is particularly important for recruiters to be aware of, especially if they conduct social media screening and background checks prior to interviewing the candidate (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). The interference of other users' interactions and presence on Facebook users' profiles may have hindered the judges in this study in detecting the targets' true personality from their profiles, thus impacting their ability to utilise the personality cues accurately.

It is important for recruiters to consider that individuals change and mature. Information found on their social media profiles may no longer be applicable to the applicant or the current job application (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). Recruiters may find themselves using outdated information to make important hiring decisions and potentially reject acceptable job applicants. Furthermore, the way individuals portray themselves on social media may not be a representation of what they would be like as an employee. For many social media sites, the social norm is to appear outgoing and to exaggerate one's actions and opinions (Smith & Kidder, 2010). Subsequently, the information used by recruiters to make hiring decisions may not be a true reflection of the candidate's personality and real-life behaviour (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). Recruiters need to consider the quality and relevance of the information found on social media platforms carefully when conducting candidate background checks.

The recruiter's personality. The uniqueness of this study lay in understanding individual differences of the good judge in the online context. This is an important distinction as little has been investigated regarding the online judge (De Kock et al., 2018). The use of social media in organisations' recruitment practices is likely to continue and gain popularity (SHRM, 2016). It has therefore become important to investigate further the factors that influence the role of the judge in an online context. This study is the first to test the relationship between personality traits and

personality judgement accuracy in the online context. In doing this research, we added to the understanding of what makes a "good judge" of personality (Funder, 1999, 2012).

The accurate Facebook judge does not seem to score significantly high or low in any of the Big Five personality traits. The results revealed that only one of the Big Five personality traits, agreeableness, revealed a significant result when judging distinctive profile accuracy from Facebook profiles, with a small effect (Cohen, 1988). The overall results of this study revealed that recruiter personality is not a factor in online personality judgement accuracy. These results are in line with previous studies (see Christiansen et al., 2005; De Kock et al., 2018). Our results revealed that an accurate online judge of distinctive accuracy scores high in agreeableness. Agreeable individuals have been shown to be able to relate to others with tolerance, trust and acceptance (Antonioni & Park, 2001). These judges may have accurately detected and utilised personality cues from Facebook profiles based on their trusting personalities. The Facebook profiles contained a finite amount of information in which to judge personality cues. Thus, the agreeable judges may have trusted their ability to detect the personality cues available and utilise them accordingly. It is important to note that these results were not in line with Christiansen et al. (2005) and Marcus et al. (2006), which revealed that agreeable judges were not able to judge personality accurately. An overt difference between the studies is the sample demographics. In the case of this study, the participants were of university-going age. It is possible that age is a moderator of online personality judgement. With possible increased exposure and usage of social media sites, it is plausible that the age of the agreeable judges positively influenced their ability to detect and utilise personality cues from the Facebook profiles. Further research would be encouraged.

Accounting for normativeness. Personality judgement researchers have realised that accounting for profile normativeness is an important piece of information in understanding overall personality profile accuracy (Cronbach, 1995; Furr, 2008; McDonald & Letzring, 2016). Normativeness has shown to be problematic when assessing personality profile accuracy using profile correlations (McDonald & Letzring, 2016). This is due to the resulting correlation that may not reflect how similar the ratings of two people are to one another, but rather how two people are similar to the "average person" (McDonald & Letzring, 2016). This is something that Cronbach (1955) criticised as personality profile ratings do not account for profile normativeness. The normativeness of a profile can inflate overall profile accuracy because what is being judged is the

degree of similarity between two "average people" (McDonald & Letzring, 2016). This issue can be addressed by calculating a distinctive profile accuracy score (Furr, 2008; McDonald & Letzring, 2016). In light of these findings, this study included two operationalisations of accuracy, namely Borman's differential accuracy and Cronbach's differential accuracy. These measures were used to determine and distinguish the effect that accounting for profile normativeness had on judgement accuracy in an online context.

The overall results of this study revealed that, despite accounting for normativeness, judges were not able to judge personality traits accurately from the Facebook profiles. Only agreeable judges were able to judge personality accurately using Cronbach's differential accuracy as a measure of distinctive accuracy, with a small effect. Overall, the predictor effect patterns were relatively similar across the two measures. This may be due to the context in which the study was set, i.e. an online context. We do not necessarily understand what the 'average' person is like in an online context. Referring to the *good information* moderator within RAM (Funder, 1995), the quality of information on Facebook profiles may not be a true reflection of personality. The contamination of other online users' on one's Facebook profile may skew the idea of what an 'average person' may be like in an online context. Further research along these lines would be encouraged.

Limitations

There appear to be a few limitations that need to be considered and acknowledged when analysing the results of this study. A limitation of the study relates to external validity. The present study focused on using Facebook as the social media platform for judging personality. Each social media platform has its own unique target audience, restriction settings and volume of information available (Kluemper et al., 2013). It is important to acknowledge that there are several popular social media platforms, each with a unique purpose that may influence users' behaviour and portal of personality traits. For example, a user may act differently on Facebook in comparison to Twitter and LinkedIn (Kluemper, 2013; Roth et al., 2016). Subsequently, the results of this study using Facebook personality judgements may not be generalisable across other popular social media platforms (Highhouse, 2009). Further research should aim to understand users' personality across the different popular social media platforms and the implications for using these platforms in conjunction when conducting screening and candidate background checks in the hiring process.

Both the targets and the judges were students from the University of Cape Town of a similar age. While it has been acknowledged that students are equally accurate judges compared to professional recruiters (Schmidt Mast et al., 2011), it is important to consider the possible limitation of generalisability across judgements in practice. For example, many managers are over the age of 35, while the majority of Facebook users range between 18 and 34 (Burbary, 2011). Therefore, it is possible not to expect to see many social media screenings for older candidates (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). Similarly, the age and seniority of recruiters and HR professionals may differ and influence judgements. A junior recruiter may differ in his or her ability to make judgements from social media platforms compared to that of a senior HR manager (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). Furthermore, the ability of junior recruiters to make accurate personality judgements of mature candidates (and vice versa) from their social media accounts needs to be considered. This remains an area for future investigation to determine whether age is a moderator in accuracy of online personality judgements.

This study accounted for several methodological recommendations by researchers in the field of personality judgement accuracy (e.g., Funder, 1999). In order to pre-empt the effects of the above-mentioned limitations, real individuals were used as the targets, which appeared from real Facebook profiles (see Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). Each judge rated multiple targets and accuracy criteria were chosen using both self-rated and acquaintance personality ratings. True score definitions, and the different true score sources, have shown to have limitations (Sulsky & Balzer, 1988; Powell, 2007). Self-ratings can be flawed due to the potential tendency for self-enhancement (Vogt & Colvin, 2003). Furthermore, individuals may not understand or know how to judge personality, which could negatively affect the self-ratings. To elevate this, a realistic accuracy criterion (Funder, 1995) was used. This criterion was computed using the targets' self-report personality ratings and the mean of two family or friends' ratings on each target's personality. The mean of the targets' self-ratings and the two family or friends' ratings formed a true score for each target.

It is important to acknowledge that the sample consisted of University of Cape Town students. This sample could be considered as not generalisable to the judgements made by HR professionals and recruiters. The research participants were students from all faculties within the University of Cape Town. Thus, a substantial number of the students may not have had any theoretical understanding of human resource management, specifically recruitment and selection

principles and practices. As the context of this study was understanding recruiters' personality traits and their ability to judge the personality of others accurately from Facebook profiles, recruiters could be seen and thought to have more knowledge and enhanced skills in personality judgement. However, according to Schmidt Mast et al. (2011), students have shown to be equally accurate in their ability to judge personality. These empirical findings were taken into account when selecting the sample participants. Judging the personality of others is an essential skill in the social world, as personality is a key driver to understanding people's interactions, behaviours and emotions (Youyou, Kosinski, & Stillwell, 2015). Furthermore, these students will become judges in the workplace. These judgements could take the form of performance appraisals (such as 360-degree feedback), with the participants acting as a peer, subordinate or manager in the appraisal process.

Recommendations for Future Research

The use of social networking sites and technology in recruitment and selection practices will continue to be a prominent feature in many organisations (Kluemper et al., 2013; SHRM, 2016; Chambers & Winter, 2017). At this stage, we cannot definitively state that social media should or should not be used in recruitment practices (Kluemper, 2013) as we do have a lot to learn about the use of social media in recruitment. Future studies could consider replicating these findings to conduct the research in the recruitment and selection profession, whereby the study participants are trained recruiters. This would enable the comparison of rating accuracy scores between students and recruiters. Furthermore, this would determine whether actual recruiters do have the necessary skills to judge personality traits from social media platforms, like Facebook.

According to Kluemper et al., (2013), social media can be considered an important asset for many organisations. It is, therefore important that organisations that choose to use social media data in recruitment and selection processes, do so strategically. Future research is required in order to understand the ethical and legal implications of using social media information (Smith & Kidder, 2010; Slovensky & Ross, 2012; Kluemper et al., 2013). It is particularly important to understand the issue of discrimination in social networking screening. Another common reason for not using social media in candidate screening relates to the legal risks, relevancy and the accuracy of the information available (SHRM, 2016). It is, therefore, important to understand the legal risks associated with using social media information. Further investigation would be recommended. Furthermore, it is important to understand what job-relevant information can be deduced from

social media profiles. Currently, it is difficult to establish content validity of social media information used in recruitment screenings (Roth et al., 2016). Further investigation into what information available on popular social media sites, such as Facebook, Twitter and Instagram, and not necessarily employment websites like LinkedIn, would be valuable in being able to predict personality, and ultimately job performance is necessary (Kluemper et al., 2013; Miguel, 2013, Roth et al., 2016).

This study utilised self-report and acquaintance (family and friends) personality ratings as the accuracy criterion (Funder, 1995). Future studies could consider comparing results when using alternative accuracy criterion sources. Additional sources, such as recruiter, subordinate, manager or peer ratings could be included as accuracy criterion within the realistic accuracy criterion. These results would enable HR professionals, recruiters and hiring managers to understand which source of accuracy criterion personality ratings would yield the most accurate judgements. The findings would further enable HR teams to ensure that the correct accuracy data sources are incorporated into personality judgement rating assessments and screenings during the recruitment processes.

Drawing on the findings of Antonioni and Park (2001) and Sait (2014), future research should investigate the relationship between personality similarity and accuracy of personality judgements in an online context. This research could aim to determine whether the judge–target trait similarity plays a role in the judge's ability to judge personality traits online. The question of "does it take one to know one?" in an online context could be explored. The research should also assist in uncovering potential biases in online accuracy of personality judgements.

This research showed that recruiter personality is not a factor in the ability to judge personality accurately from Facebook profiles. Therefore, future research should aim to investigate other plausible variables that play a role in online personality judgement accuracy. For example, meta-analytic findings show that intelligence and dispositional reasoning play a role in judgement accuracy (De Kock et al., 2018). However, this leaves a gap in understanding if these factors, and others such as emotional intelligence, play a role in online personality judgement accuracy.

Practical Implications

The use of online social networking sites is becoming a widely used medium to attract, source and screen job applicants (Slovensky & Ross, 2012; Kluemper, 2013; Roth et al., 2016; Kluemper et al., 2016). Much attention has been drawn to these practices in the media in recent years (Cerasaro, 2008; Du, 2007; Valdes & McFarland, 2012; Swallow, 2011). However, these

practices are still fairly new (Chambers & Winter, 2017), with much of the research on the topic still in its infancy (Roth et al., 2016). As ease of use has been an attractive reason for using these sites in the recruitment process, it is important to understand whether recruiter judges are indeed accurate. The findings of this study may have practical implications for personnel selection practices, especially for organisations that utilise OSNs as part of the selection process (Roulin, 2014).

Recruiters, and other applied psychological professionals, are often required to make trait-based judgements and inferences as a result of the job interview (Christiansen et al., 2005). Furthermore, many organisations may have integrated the use of OSNs into their screening processes, however the overall results of this study revealed that judges with particular personality traits were not able to detect and utilise personality cues more accurately (than judges with dissimilar traits) from applicants' Facebook profiles. This lends the question, should we be screening recruiters on personality traits? In order to do this, recruiters would need to undergo personality assessments to assess dominant personality traits. Considering that only recruiters scoring high in agreeableness proved to be accurate online judges of personality, screening recruiters on personality trait measures would not be advised. Screening and conducting personality testing on recruiters that have been shown not to be accurate judges of personality would be a cost that organisations would incur without the guarantee of reliable and valid results.

Job candidates who use Facebook are likely to have profiles that are contaminated by other Facebook users that may not be a true representation of the candidate's personality. The quality of the information found on Facebook profiles causes the concern of whether recruiters should be using Facebook, and other social media sites, as screening tools in the recruitment process. Our results indicate that using Facebook as a recruitment screening tool is not advisable. A reason for this is due to the unreliable and inconsistent information found on Facebook profiles. These findings are in line with recommendations made by Davison et al. (2011). Furthermore, with many users having Facebook profile privacy settings enabled, recruiters are not able to judge the same Facebook information across candidates. This would make direct comparisons across candidates difficult, if not impossible (Brown & Vaughn, 2010; Landers & Schmidt, 2016). The information available to recruiters, especially on Facebook, may not be relevant to job-specific knowledge, skills, attributes and other (KSAO) job-relevant skills (Van Iddekinge et al., 2013). Therefore

recruiters using Facebook as a screening tool run the risk of rejecting suitable candidates based on job-irrelevant information.

Technology is rapidly changing. Facebook, as an example, now has facial recognition software that may allow recruiters to use an online photograph to search for additional photographs and information about potential candidates (Moe, 2011). Technological advances such as these may enable outdated information about candidates' personal lives to be resurfaced by recruiters. This information may represent a phase of life that is no longer relevant to the applicant (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). Many social media platforms now have location-based technology which can enable recruiters to see where a candidate has been, and where photographs of the candidate were taken (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). Location-based information can be another source of bias that can influence a recruiter's perception of a candidate. HR professionals and recruiters that use social media in screening processes need be to be aware of the constant changes in technology and regularly review which technologies they wish to use for candidate background checks.

There are currently more than 535 million profiles on Facebook, LinkedIn and Twitter, many of which represent a large and growing proportion of the workforce (Black, 2010). Individuals use social media for a purpose that is different to that of an organisation wishing to use candidates' personal information in order to make hiring decisions. This does raise an issue about fairness and privacy (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). Using candidates' social media information could compromise their right to privacy as they do not know who and have not given consent for their personal information to be used for professional purposes (Smith & Kidder, 2010). In many countries, the legal system is still in the process of understanding the implications of using social media in hiring practices (Chambers & Winter, 2017). Organisations need to be aware of the legal and ethical ramifications of using this method of screening candidates. SHRM (2016) reinforces cautionary behaviour in that using social media in hiring practices is risky, with the potential to discriminate against candidates and violate candidates' privacy (Acquisti & Gross, 2006; Chambers & Winter, 2017). It is advised for organisations to understand the legal implications of social media use in recruitment, be aware of privacy legislation and develop recruitment policies around social media use in the hiring process. Furthermore, organisations need to be guided by clear criteria based on a job analysis (Chambers & Winter, 2017) in order to avoid discriminating against candidates using non-job relevant information found on their social media profiles.

Should organisations wish to utilise social media in their hiring practices, there are practices and steps that can be taken in order to ensure successful implementation. Organisations should consider developing a social media policy (Davison et al., 2011; Chambers & Winter, 2017). In a 2015 study conducted on 342 organisations, 59% did not have a formal or informal social media policy regarding its use in recruitment. Of these organisations, only 21% said that they planned to implement a formal policy within 12 months (SHRM, 2016). The policy should aim to detail how social media can and cannot be utilised during the hiring process, in order to ensure that legal and ethical implications are thoroughly addressed. This is an important component of organisational governance (Kluemper et al., 2016). These policies should be written in a way that is broad enough to deal with a variety of situations that can arise from job applications and employees (Slovensky & Ross, 2012). Furthermore, HR teams should create and document hiring steps that include predefined job-specific hiring criteria to ensure that only job-relevant information is collected from applicants' social media profiles (Chambers & Winter, 2017). In terms of training recruiters on how to use social media cues effectively, recruiters could be provided with standardised instructions and a clear focus on how to assess job-relevant information from social media profiles (Miguel, 2013; Roth et al., 2016; Chambers & Winter, 2017) on how to make personality ratings from social media profiles. This would ensure that the way in which ratings and judgements were collected was consistent across applicants, and only job-relevant information was being used, based on a job analysis (Landers & Schmidt, 2005; Clark & Roberts, 2010; Davison et al., 2011). Lastly, if organisations are going to collect and use judgements from candidates' social media profiles, it is important to ensure that the candidate has been notified in writing (Chambers & Winter, 2017).

Accurate personality judgements are an important task for all positions within every organisation (Christiansen et al., 2005). It may be possible and advisable for organisations to first and foremost train recruiters (Kluemper et al., 2013), but then all employees on understanding, detecting and utilising personality cues in online contexts. Training interventions designed to improve personality judgement accuracy could consist of educating individuals on understanding personality and common personality expressions on social media. Furthermore, training could include simulation exercises (Christiansen et al., 2005), such as viewing social media profiles, instant message chats and videos to practise detecting personality cues. These training

interventions could involve discussing how personality judgements compare across several social media profiles and which online cues elicit different personality traits.

Conclusion

Social media platforms, such as Facebook, are increasingly used to attract, source and screen potential job candidates during the hiring process. When doing so, recruiters make subjective personality judgements about candidates. As understanding what makes a 'good judge' of personality has been an area of interest for many researchers in other assessment contexts, it is imperative to explore the role of recruiter personality traits in shaping rater accuracy in the OSN context. Moreover, as the profile accuracy measures predominantly used in prior studies have important shortcomings, the present study employed a measure of distinctive accuracy to address these limitations. Results showed that judges were able to judge personality accurately from others' Facebook profiles when using traditional profile accuracy measures, but when employing accuracy measures that account for profile normativeness, their demonstrated accuracy was less convincing. Regardless, in line with previous meta-analytic findings from judgement in other assessment contexts, recruiters' personality traits did not, with the exception of agreeableness, seem to support their ability to judge personality accurately in an 'online' context.

This research provides organisations with important information about the continued use of social media, particularly Facebook, in recruitment and selection. The use of Facebook in recruitment should be used with caution. Additional research is needed to understand whether recruiters in the human resource field have the necessary skills to make accurate personality judgements online.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Table 9

Example Data for Computing Similarity, Normativeness and Distinctiveness (Furr, 2008)

Target A Trait	Self-rating	Inf. Rating	Distinctive Self-Rating	Distinctive Inf. Rating	Target A's Mean Profile
Neuroticism	3	2	0	-0.7	2.5
Extraversion	3	4	-1	0.3	3.5
Openness	1	2	-0.7	-1.7	1.5
Agreeableness	3	4	-0.3	0	3.5
Conscientiousness	4	4	0.3	0	4
Mean	2.8	3.2	-0.3	-0.4	3
Std Dev	1.10	1.10	0.53	0.8	1
Target B Trait	Self-rating	Inf. Rating	Distinctive Self-Rating	Distinctive Inf. Rating	Target B's Mean Profile
Neuroticism	2	3	-1	0.3	2.5
Extraversion	4	4	0	0.3	4
Openness	2	5	-3	1.3	3.5
Agreeableness	4	4	0.7	0	4
Conscientiousness	3	4	-0.7	0	3.5
Mean	3	4	-1	0.4	3.5
Std Dev	1	0.71	0.69	0.55	0.85
Target C Trait	Self-rating	Inf. Rating	Distinctive Self-Rating	Distinctive Inf. Rating	Target C's Mean Profile
Neuroticism	4	3	1	0.3	3.5
Extraversion	5	3	1	-0.7	4
Openness	2	4	0.3	0.3	3
Agreeableness	3	4	-0.3	0	3.5
Conscientiousness	4	4	0.3	0	4
Mean	3.6	3.6	0.5	0	3.6
Std Dev	1.14	0.55	0.56	0.41	0.84
Norms Trait	Normative Self-rating	Normative Inf. Rating			Global Mean Profile
Neuroticism	3	2.7			2.8
Extraversion	4	3.7			3.8
Openness	1.7	3.7			2.7
Agreeableness	3.3	4			3.7
Conscientiousness	37	4			3.8
Mean	3.1	3.6			3.4
Std Dev	0.9	0.55			0.72

Notes. Inf. = Informant

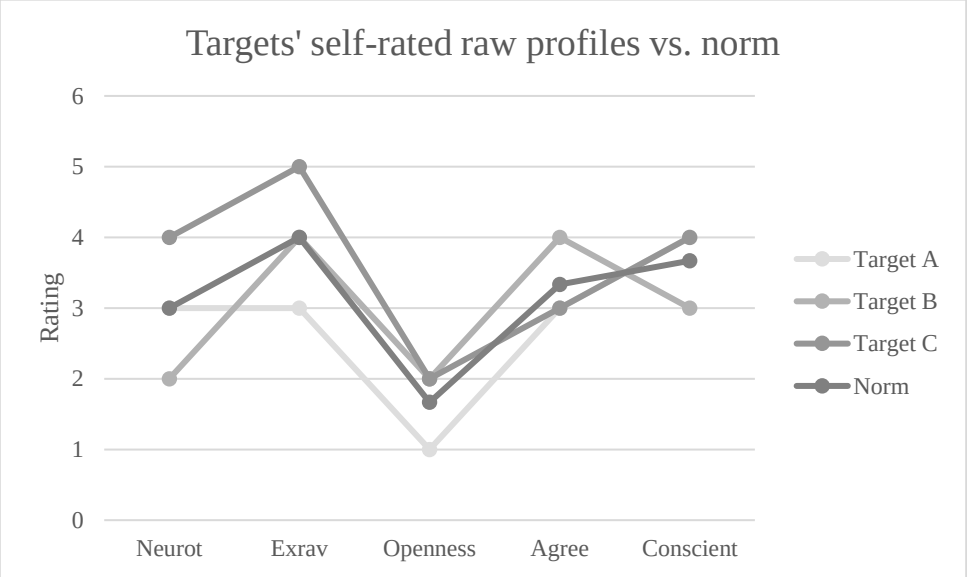

Figure 6. Targets' self-rated raw profiles vs norm

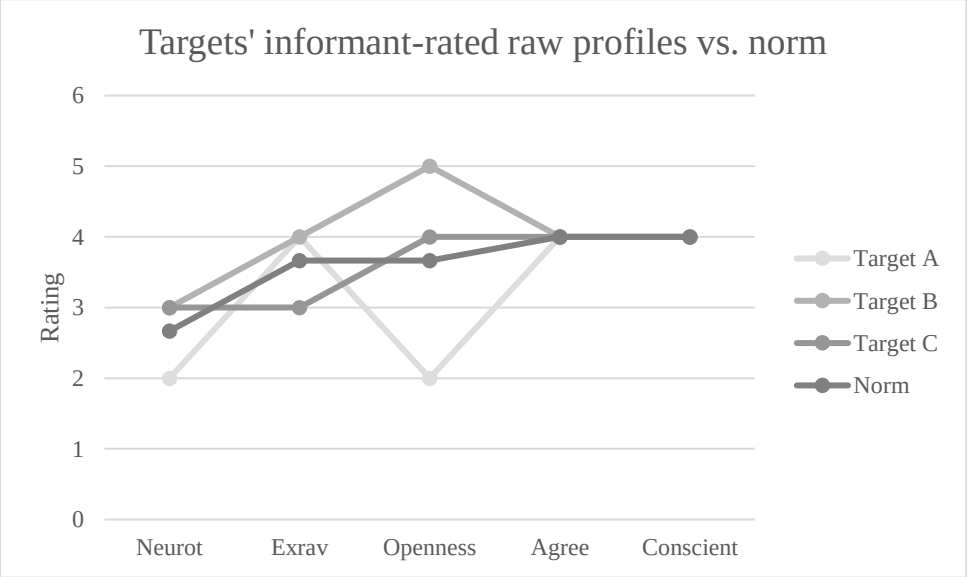

Figure 7. Targets' informant-rated raw profiles vs norm

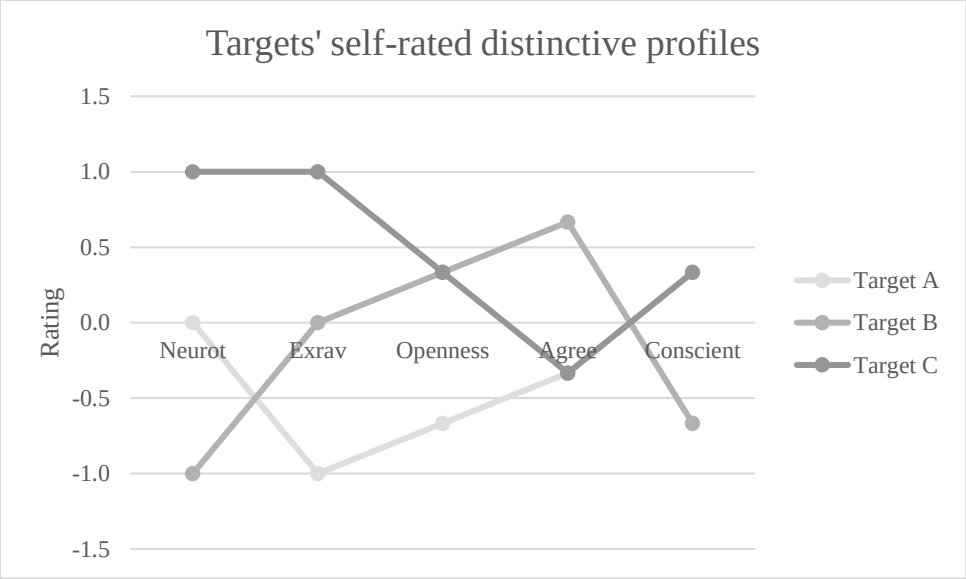

Figure 8. Targets' self-rated distinctive profiles

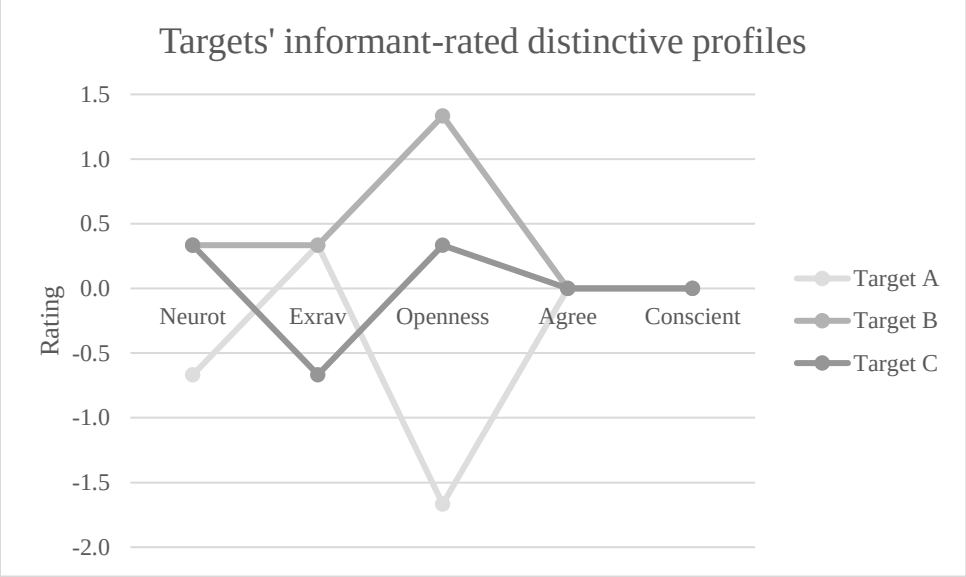

Figure 9. Targets' informant-rated distinctive profiles

Appendix B[13]

You will be shown five 'job applicants' Facebook profiles. You are required to assume the role of a recruiter and rate each applicant's personality based on what you see. Listed below are descriptions of five personality traits. Each description lists adjectives that describe people high and low on the trait. Please read each description carefully. You will use these descriptions in a subsequent rating activity.

Behaviour description

Trait	High (+)	Low (-)
1. Agreeable	Likable Affectionate Kind	Argumentative Critical Demanding Stubborn Suspicious/sceptical
2. Conscientious	Organised Thorough Determined Ambitious	Lazy Indecisive Unreliable disorganised
3. Extraversion	Talkative Energetic Assertive Sociable	Withdrawn Quiet Shy unsociable
4. Open to experience	Having wild interests Curious Imaginative insightful	Shallow Unreflective Unobservant unimaginative
5. Neurotic	Tense Moody Anxious Insecure	Calm Independent Even-tempered Unemotional

Instructions

We now illustrate five Facebook profiles in terms of each user's profile picture and cover photo, friends list, the pages they like, a selection of their photos and their five most recent wall posts. Try your best to form an impression of each Facebook user's personality by looking at his or her Facebook profile.

[13] Some parts of the following text correspond closely with those by the author in the original primary study (Rauch, 2015).

Indicate the level of personality trait demonstrated by each Facebook user by selecting a number from 1 to 5 (1 = low indication of trait; 5 = high indication of trait). You may refer to the personality descriptions listed earlier.

Appendix C[14]

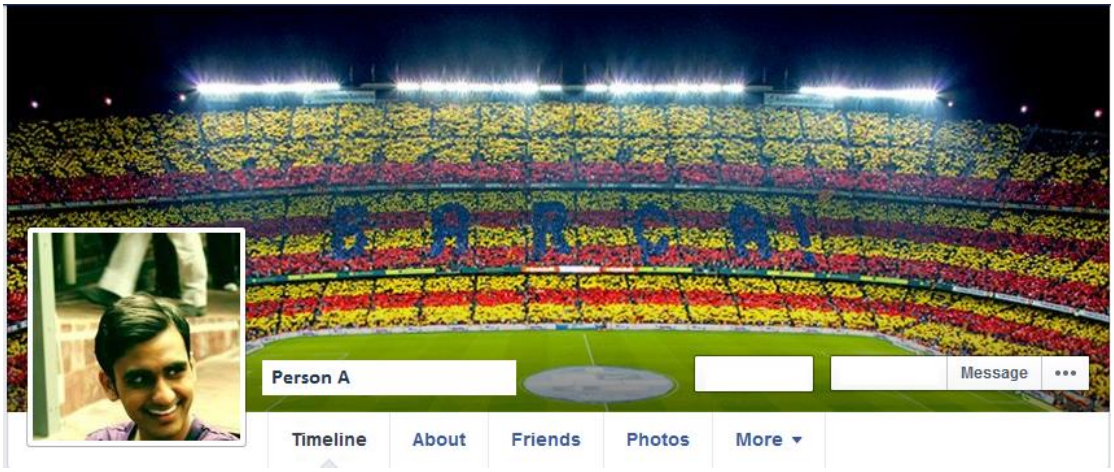

Figure 10. Person A's profile picture and cover photo

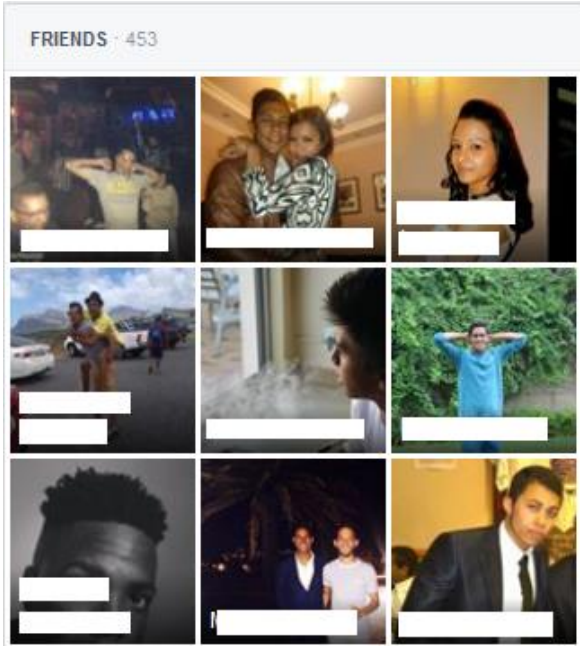

Figure 11. A censored summary of Person A's Facebook friends including his total number of Facebook friends

[14] Some parts of the following text correspond closely with those by the author in the original primary study (Rauch, 2015).

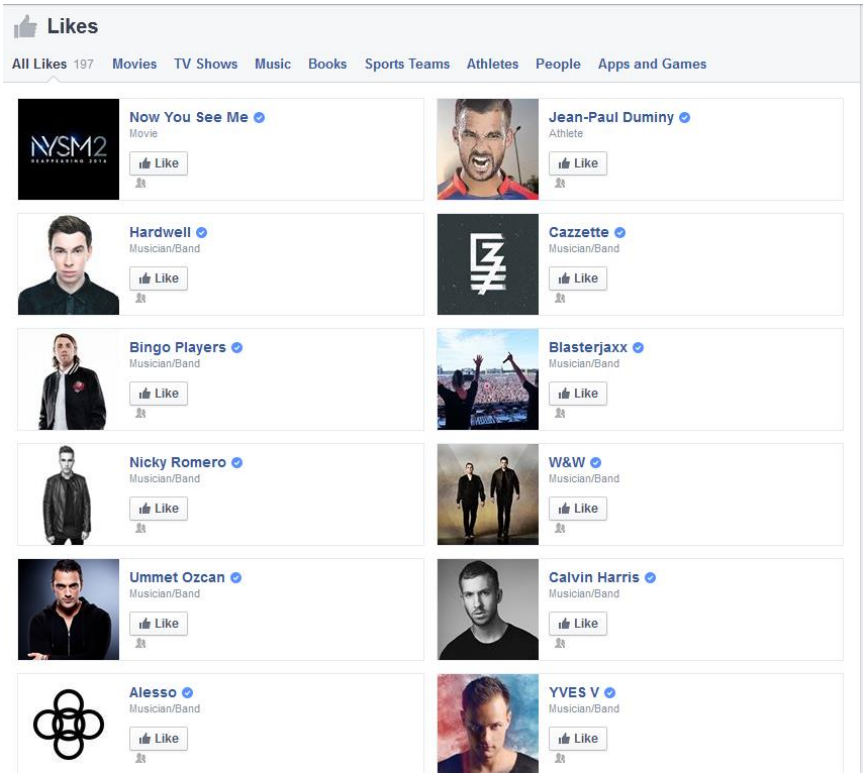

Figure 12. A summary of Person A's 'likes'

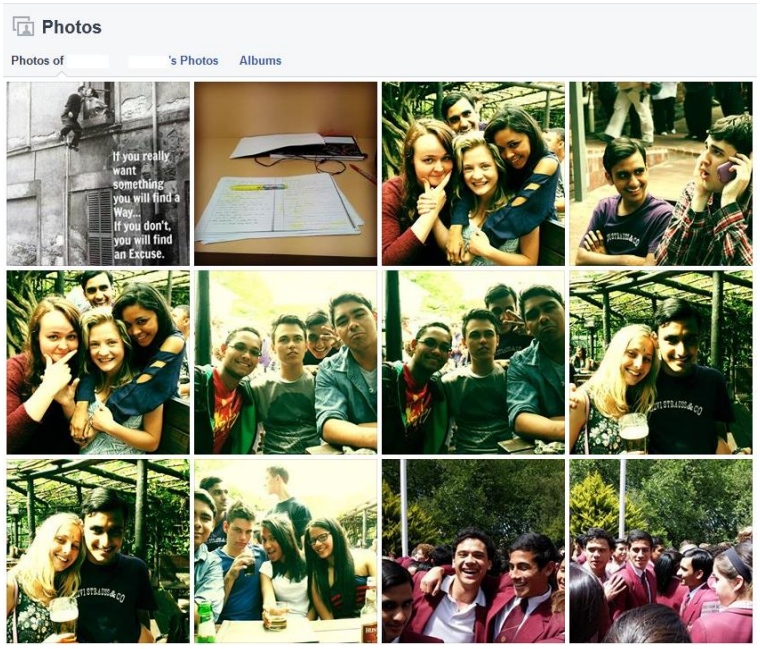

Figure 13. A collection of Person A's photographs

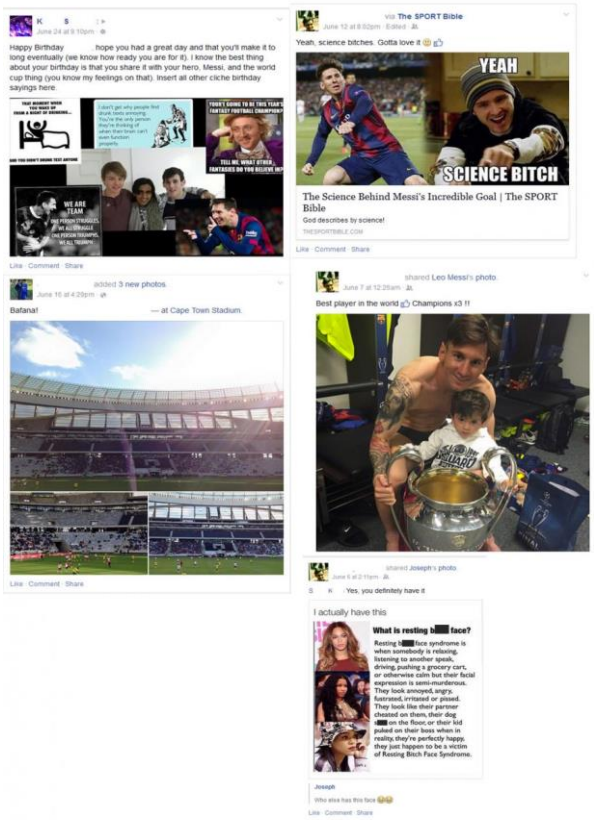

Figure 14. Person A's five most recent wall posts

These are two status updates posted by Person A in the last week:

"It's the weekend! Can't wait to party!"

"Having an awesome day chillin' on the beach ;)"

Figure 15. Two statuses used as manipulations to enhance Person A's dominant personality trait

Appendix D[15]

Person A

Please rate Person A on each trait by making a selection in the appropriate circle.
You may refer to the following terms to help understand these traits:

Trait	Behaviour description: High (+)	Low (-)
1. Agreeable	• Likable • Affectionate • Kind	• Argumentative • Critical • Demanding • Stubborn • Suspicious/sceptical
2. Conscientious	• Organised • Thorough • Determined • Ambitious	• Lazy • Indecisive • Unreliable • Disorganised
3. Extroversion	• Talkative • Energetic • Assertive • Sociable	• Withdrawn • Quiet • Shy • unsociable
4. Open to experience	• Having wild interests • Curious • Imaginative • insightful	• Shallow • Unreflective • Unobservant • unimaginative
5. Neurotic	• Tense • Moody • Anxious • Insecure	• Calm • Independent • Even-tempered • Unemotional

	1 (low indication of trait)	2	3	4	5 (strong indication of trait)
1. Agreeable	○	○	○	○	○
2. Conscientious	○	○	○	○	○
3. Extroverted	○	○	○	○	○
4. Open to Experience	○	○	○	○	○
5. Neurotic	○	○	○	○	○

[15] Some parts of the following text correspond closely with those by the author in the original primary study (Rauch, 2015).

Appendix E[16]

The Big Five Inventory (BFI)

Please indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements by selecting a number from 1 to 5 (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)

I see myself as someone who:

1. Is talkative
2. Tends to find fault with others
3. Does a thorough job
4. Is depressed, blue
5. Is original, comes up with new ideas
6. Is reserved
7. Is helpful and unselfish with others
8. Can be somewhat careless
9. Is relaxed, handles stress well
10. Is curious about many different things
11. Is full of energy
12. Starts quarrels with others
13. Is a reliable worker
14. Can be tense
15. Is ingenious, a deep thinker
16. Generates a lot of enthusiasm
23. Tends to be lazy
24. Is emotionally stable, not easily upset
25. Is inventive
26. Has an assertive personality
27. Can be cold and aloof
28. Perseveres until the task is finished
29. Can be moody
30. Values artistic, aesthetic experiences
31. Is sometimes shy, inhibited
32. Is considerate and kind to almost everyone
33. Does things efficiently
34. Remains calm in tense situations
35. Prefers work that is routine
36. Is outgoing, sociable
37. Is sometimes rude to others
38. Makes plans and follows through with them

[16] Some parts of the following text correspond closely with those by the author in the original primary study (Rauch, 2015).

17. Has a forgiving nature
18. Tends to be disorganised
19. Worries a lot
20. Has an active imagination
21. Tends to be quiet
22. Is generally trusting
39. Gets nervous easily
40. Likes to reflect, play with ideas
41. Has few artistic interests
42. Likes to cooperate with others
43. Is easily distracted
44. Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature

Appendix F[17]

Table 10.1

Item-Total Statistics for Extraversion Scale (8 items) (α = .842)

Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
Item1	.663	.813
Item 6	.548	.828
Item 11	.496	.833
Item 16	.572	.825
Item 21	.736	.801
Item 26	.419	.842
Item 31	.520	.831
Item 36	.657	.813

N = 458

Table 10.2

Item-Total Statistics for Agreeableness Scale (9 items) (α = .740)

Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
Item 2	.396	.720
Item 7	.383	.723
Item 12	.401	.719
Item 17	.443	.712
Item 22	.370	.725
Item 27	.434	.715
Item 32	.524	.703
Item 37	.504	.701
Item 42	.318	.731

N = 458

[17] Some parts of the following text correspond closely with those by the author in the original primary study (Rauch, 2015).

Table 10.3

Item-Total Statistics for Conscientiousness Scale (9 items) (α = .818)

Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
Item 3	.607	.791
Item 8	.497	.803
Item 13	.549	.800
Item 18	.598	.790
Item 23	.531	.799
Item 28	.522	.800
Item 33	.548	.798
Item 38	.472	.805
Item 43	.417	.814

N = 458

Table 10.4

Item-Total Statistics for Openness to Experience Scale (10 items) (α = .784)

Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
Item 5	.539	.756
Item 10	.439	.768
Item 15	.247	.786
Item 20	.503	.759
Item 25	.631	.743
Item 30	.504	.759
Item 35	.191	.804
Item 40	.519	.758
Item 41	.518	.757
Item 44	.504	.759

N = 458

Table 10.5

Item-Total Statistics for Openness to Experience Scale (9 items) (α = .804)

Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
Item 5	.553	.778
Item 10	.424	.794
Item 15	.249	.811
Item 20	.520	.782
Item 25	.653	.764
Item 30	.507	.784
Item 40	.525	.782
Item 41	.519	.782
Item 44	.516	.783

N = 458

Table 10.6

Item-Total Statistics for Neuroticism Scale (9 items) (α = .825)

Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
Item 4	.503	.811
Item 9	.605	.797
Item 14	.552	.804
Item 19	.642	.791
Item 24	.549	.805
Item 29	.479	.815
Item 34	.512	.810
Item 39	.543	.806

N = 458

Appendix G[18]

Table 11

Structure and Dimensionality of the Big Five Subscales

Scales	KMO	Bartlett's test of Sphericity	Eigenvalue of first component	% of variance explained by component	Min. factor loading	Max. factor loading
		X^2	*df*			
E	.864	1293.38	28	33.11	.362	.772
A	.811	662.15	36	42.15	.215	.635
C	.888	1057.77	36	38.08	.410	.624
O	.810	778.69	28	48.15	.468	.714
N	.861	1032.36	28	45.24	.389	.573

Notes. A = Agreeableness, C = Conscientiousness, O = Openness to Experience, E = Extraversion, N = Neuroticism

[18] Some parts of the following text correspond closely with those by the author in the original primary study (Rauch, 2015).