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NO EXPECTATION, NO DISAPPOINTMENT: HOW DOES META-ACCURACY AFFECT HIREABILITY?

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People may or not know the impression they convey to others (*meta-accuracy*). However, little research has addressed to what extent meta-accuracy affects social outcomes such as *hireability* (recruiter's intention to hire). Three studies were conducted to test whether people who knew the impression they conveyed are the ones who are more likely to get hired.

Results of polynomial regression and responses surface analyses showed that meta-accuracy was related to hireability, whether meta-accuracy concerns skills during an interview (Study 1, $N = 49$, and Study 2, $N = 127$) or traits and skills on a résumé (Study 3, $N = 135$). The pattern of results takes three forms. First, the lack of meta-accuracy, as the simple gap between metaperception and other's perception, reduces hireability. Second, hireability is higher when meta- and other's perception are favorable rather than unfavorable, while staying in agreement. Third, hireability is higher for applicants underestimating the extent to which a recruiter would perceive favorably their traits and/or skills than for overestimators.

These results suggest that the best chance to get hired does not rely only on good impressions but also on knowing, or at least on underestimating, the impressions made upon others.

Keywords: Meta-accuracy; hireability; metaperception; job interview; résumé

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**NO EXPECTATION, NO DISAPPOINTMENT:
HOW DOES META-ACCURACY AFFECT HIREABILITY?**

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ABSTRACT

People may or not know the impression they convey to others (*meta-accuracy*). However, little research has addressed to what extent meta-accuracy affects social outcomes such as *hireability* (recruiter's intention to hire). Three studies were conducted to test whether people who knew the impression they conveyed are the ones who are more likely to get hired.

Results of polynomial regression and responses surface analyses showed that meta-accuracy was related to hireability, whether meta-accuracy concerns skills during an interview (Study 1, $N = 49$, and Study 2, $N = 127$) or traits and skills on a résumé (Study 3, $N = 135$). The pattern of results takes three forms. First, the lack of meta-accuracy, as the simple gap between metaperception and other's perception, reduces hireability. Second, hireability is higher when meta- and other's perception are favorable rather than unfavorable, while staying in agreement. Third, hireability is higher for applicants underestimating the extent to which a recruiter would perceive favorably their traits and/or skills than for overestimators.

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No Expectation, No Disappointment: How Does Meta-Accuracy Affect Hireability?

Many of us have colleagues who went for a job interview and came back enthusiastically reporting that all went extremely well. Even, based solely on a résumé, many of them thought that they would “make the cut”. Yet, while they were convinced of receiving a job offer, it never came. Obviously, they misjudged how they were perceived during their job interview or through their résumé. What if they had better insight into how they were judged in that particular situation? Could that have helped them to get the job?

When people seek to obtain a job, they are supposed to successfully present themselves. To do so, people need to develop accurate perceptions of what others may think of them (i.e., metaperception; Kenny & Depaulo, 1993; meta-accuracy, Carlson & Furr, 2009). Unfortunately, most of the time, metaperception and others’ perception rarely coincide which could hinder self-presentation strategies. In this context, the question to be asked is whether meta-accuracy would increase applicants’ likelihood of being hired. In high-stakes circumstances, such as social evaluation situations (e.g., job interview, public speaking, or dating), outcomes associated with meta-accuracy might have important effects.

In the present article, we investigated the relationship between meta-accuracy on traits and/ or skills and hireability. More precisely, this paper aims to explore the development of accurate metaperception in the context of two specific self-presentation tasks: first, during job interviews (Study 1 and Study 2); second, based on online résumés (Study 3) and whether meta-accuracy affects their hireability (i.e., likelihood to get hired according to a recruiter). In other words, is recruiters’ intention to hire predicted by the applicants’ ability to align metaperception (e.g., *“I think a recruiter would hire me”*) with others’ perception (e.g., whether a recruiter would actually hire the applicant)?

In the following pages, we review the theoretical and empirical evidences of such relations. Thus, we begin by examining the development of metaperception and meta-accuracy before drawing its links with hireability. To answer our research questions, we then describe and analyse the results of one correlational (i.e., Study 1) and two experimental studies (i.e., Study 2 and Study 3). Finally, this paper addresses the potential theoretical and practical implications by showing that being hired is not only a question of making a good impression but also knowing, or at least underestimating, the impression made upon others.

Meta-accuracy: from metaperception to other's perception, through self-perception

Metaperception (Kenny & DePaulo, 1993), *looking glass self* (Xie, Mahoney, & Cairns, 1999) or *reflected appraisal* (Twenge & Crocker, 2002), refer all to the same phenomenon: individuals' perceptions about how others perceive them. When individuals' metaperception coincides with other's perception, the individuals show high *meta-accuracy* (Carlson, Furr, & Vazire, 2007; Kenny & DePaulo, 1993). Meta-accuracy and accurate metaperception have a similar meaning and can be used interchangeably.

Metaperception is considered both as a consequence and as an antecedent of self-perception. On the one side, it influences how individuals perceive themselves (i.e., self-perception) (Shrauger & Schoeneman, 1979). On the other side, metaperception is shaped by self-perception (Frey & Tropp, 2006; Kenny & Depaulo, 1993). In the latter case, meta-accuracy tends to be low given that individuals expect others to see them the way they see themselves. Consequently, people tend to be more biased given that they fail to dissociate what they think of themselves from what someone else may actually think of them. They focus more on their own perception of themselves, their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors instead of trying to capture others' perception (Kenny & DePaulo, 1993; Shechtman & Kenny, 1994; Cameron & Vorauer, 2008). This process leads individuals to show low meta-accuracy since they develop

an egocentrically biased metaperception by mirroring their self-perception in their metaperception.

Outcomes of meta-accuracy

Very few studies have investigated the relationship between meta-accuracy and social outcomes. Some of them showed that meta-accuracy has a positive or negative impact on social outcomes (e.g., Anderson, Ames, & Gosling, 2008; Cameron & Vorauer, 2008).

Cameron and Vorauer highlighted several outcomes associated to a particular case of lack of meta-accuracy, transparency overestimation. On the bright side, the tendency to overestimate the extent to which internal states are apparent to others may lead to feeling in control and in security. Accordingly, expecting to be understood while being actually understood increases relationship satisfaction. On the dark side, they also reported that transparency overestimation hinders the development of interpersonal relationship since individuals would engage in less communication which would create more interpersonal conflicts (Cameron & Vorauer, 2008).

A lack of meta-accuracy impedes performance. For instance, while asked to give a public speech, anxious participants expected the audience to perceive more their anxiety than the audience actually perceived (Savitsky & Gilovich, 2003). From a more general point of view, meta-accuracy, which encompasses both under- and overestimation, has also an effect on interpersonal relationship (Carlson, 2016). In her paper gathering four studies, she showed that meta-perceivers tended to feel more satisfied with the relationship when they thought that their partner saw them positively. Meanwhile, for the judges, meta-accuracy lead to more satisfaction.

Concerning other social outcomes, the literature is scarce. However, we know that meta-accuracy is influenced by the need to convey a specific impression to others or a high need for approval (Albright & Malloy, 1999; Ashford, Blatt, & Vandewalle, 2003; Hu, Kaplan, Wei, & Vega, 2014). In return, successful attempts to convey said impressions

depends on their metaperception (Schlenker & Weigold, 1992). For example, Susan hopes that the interviewer will perceive her as competent. During the interview, she may develop specific metaperception (e.g., “*I think the interviewer saw me as X when I said Y*”). Based on these thoughts, she may or not readapt her behavior to attain her goal depending on whether she thinks that she is perceived as competent. Indeed, Susan has strong motives to obtain this job and so to make a good impression. Her metaperception, based on contextual cues, is thus of great help to adjust her behavior to attain her goal. Whether facing a job interview or publishing a résumé, applicants must lead others to perceive them as they want to be seen (Schlenker & Weigold, 1992). Hence, successful presentation would lead applicants’ traits and skills to be seen favorably by a recruiter. Accordingly, applicants who “*communicate abilities and accomplishments to attempt to appear competent*” (Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley, & Gilstrap, 2008, p. 1082) would make a good impression upon recruiters (i.e., positive other’s perception). In return, such impression on recruiters will influence their hireability (Stevens & Kristof, 1995) and could improve interview ratings or performance (Huffcutt, Van Iddekinge, & Roth, 2011).

To our knowledge, no research has so far studied the impact of meta-accuracy on other social outcomes than interpersonal relationship, such as *hireability*. We postulate that, based on their metaperception, applicants would be able to choose, adapt, and control what others (e.g., peers, superior, recruiters) think of them (Goffman, 1959) with regards to a specific goal, like getting hired.

The present research

The current studies investigate whether meta-accuracy was related to hireability. More precisely, we asked whether people who know the impression they convey during a job interview or on their résumé are the ones who are more likely to get hired for a job. Hence, we

decided to address this question regarding two objects of meta-accuracy (i.e., skills and traits) and within two contexts (i.e., virtual reality and social media).

Given that metaperception plays a key role in applicants' self-presentation strategies (Schlenker & Weigold, 1992), the failure to show meta-accuracy would hinder the chance of getting hired. Formally stated, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1 (H1). Meta-accuracy is significantly associated to hireability such that, the higher is meta-accuracy (i.e., the smaller is the meta- and other's perception discrepancy), the higher is the probability to get hired.

When applicants' estimation meets recruiters' evaluation at high level (i.e., favorable level of skills and traits), the applicants should be more hireable. Showing meta-accuracy alone would affect hireability but to a limited extent. Hence, when metaperception and other's perception converge at high level, in other words, when the applicants think the recruiters perceive them favorably while the recruiters actually perceive them favorably, hireability should be higher than when metaperception and other's perception converge at a lower level (i.e., less favorable level of skills and traits).

Hypothesis 2 (H2). While showing accuracy, applicants who think that others perceive favorably their skills and traits while others (i.e., a recruiter) actually perceive favorably their skills and traits, obtain higher score of hireability than applicants who think that others perceive less favorably their skills and traits while a recruiter perceives less favorably their skills and traits.

The effect of meta-accuracy on hireability should not be reduced to the effect of metaperception – other's perception discrepancy, or the size of the gap. For instance, once her job interview executed, Susan thought that the recruiters did not perceived her as highly skilled while they perceived her as skilled. In this case, Susan underestimated the extent to

which the recruiters perceived favorably her level of skills. Because she had this perception during her job interview, she went the extra mile to prove that she was highly capable for the job. At the end, the recruiters had a positive impression of her while she thought the recruiters saw her less favorably. In this situation, Susan's likelihood of being hired should be higher than the applicants who overestimated the extent to which recruiters would perceive them favorably.

Hypothesis 3 (H3). While showing inaccuracy, applicants who underestimated the extent to which a recruiter would perceive their skills and traits have more probability to get hired than applicants who overestimated the extent to which a recruiter would perceive their skills and traits.

For the present research, none of our participant had a partner. Hence, this research concern only generalized meta-accuracy during one-sided interactions. Applicants had to interact with a virtual recruiter (Study 1 and Study 2) or no recruiter at all (Study 3). The first two studies were designed to assess meta-accuracy and its effect on hireability for applicants performing a job interview in an immersive virtual environment. By doing so, we were able to control for external cues by standardizing the room in which the job interview took place as well as the virtual recruiter's appearance and behavior. In Study 1, all participants were confronted to the same virtual recruiter. In Study 2, different virtual recruiters were proposed to the applicants by manipulating virtual recruiter's attitude and gender. Hence, Study 2 allowed us to replicate Study 1 in a more diversified context.

The last study concerned online résumés (i.e., LinkedIn profile). We wanted to go further than replication by introducing another manipulation of the context. Hence, in Study 3, the manipulation targeted the type of job offer. In one condition, applicants had to postulate for their dream job (i.e., Unassigned job offer). In the other condition, participants received one job offer for a managerial position varying regarding power style. In addition to replicate

results of Study 1 and Study 2, Study 3 allowed us to broaden the scope of our results by testing the effect of meta-accuracy on hireability in a more ecological setting.

For this paper, we focused first on skills (Study 1 and Study 2). Then, we chose to address both skills and traits (Study 3). In Study 1 and Study 2, conducted in French, metaperception and other's perception on skills were measured. In Study 3, conducted in English, an additional measure of meta- and other's perception was included to assess both perceptions on skills and on traits. For the three studies, hireability ratings were used as the dependent variable to measure the recruiter's hiring intention with regards to the applicants' job interview performance or online resumes.

Study 1

Method

Participants. Of the 49 participants (22 women, 27 men; $M_{age} = 24$, $SD = 4.60$), 46 were bachelor's or master's level students at a Swiss University majoring in various areas of study (e.g., economics, organizational psychology, law). Two participants were doctoral students, and one participant was a teacher from the local community. Participants received a small gift worth \$2 for their participation.

Procedure and materials. Participants were approached in campus cafeterias and invited to a one-hour research study in which they would present themselves as applicants in a job interview. Once they came to the lab, they signed an informed consent form and were given 3 min to prepare for the job interview. The job interview was conducted using an Immersive Virtual Environment Technology (IVET) (described below). After a brief training phase in the IVET, participants were videotaped while being interviewed by a virtual recruiter. Following the interview, they were asked to complete different scales including metaperception on skills and personal characteristics, using a 5-point Likert scale ranging

from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Then, they were debriefed and thanked for their participation.

Immersive Virtual Environment Technology (IVET). In order to standardize the job interview situation, we used Immersive Virtual Environment Technology (IVET), which is a three-dimensional virtual environment. Participants wear a head-mounted display (HMD) consisting of two monitors in which the virtual world is displayed. Participants are able to look and move around in the virtual environment, which is quite similar to moving and looking around in the physical world. Dimensions of the virtual office matched the physical room (3.7 m X 5.5 m X 2.7 m) with a window, wall pictures, and a table with four chairs. The technology used to track participant's position and to render the virtual environment is described in detail in previous research (Bailenson, Blascovich, Beall, & Loomis, 2003; Blascovich et al., 2002). Using IVET, participants interacted with a virtual recruiter who conducted the job interview. The recruiter was a male avatar, approximately 30 years old, with blue eyes and brown hair, and wearing a suit. His movements were controlled by a preset computer algorithm, including a preregistered human voice with mouth movements in synchrony with his speech. His face was animated, and he could look at the participant and move around the environment. An advantage to using a virtual recruiter is that variance in results can be attributed solely to the participant because all participants interact with the same virtual recruiter. Thus, for Study 1 and Study 2, IVET yields a real advantage since external cues were controlled, or at least, it could not vary from one participant to another. To accustom the participant to using IVET, a training session between the experimenter and participant was conducted at the beginning of the study (approximately 5 min in duration). For the interview, the participant waited in the virtual room for the virtual recruiter. The recruiter entered, greeted the participant, walked to one of the chairs, and asked the participant to take a seat in the opposite chair. The experimenter was seated nearby and initiated

recruiter's movement via computer; the experimenter was not visible in the virtual environment.

Job interview description. We used a generic job description of a consultant for a human-resource consulting firm which contained six frequently required skills. The six skills, based on previous research regarding job competency (Bartram, 2005), were: leadership, listening, interpersonal, analytical, organizational, and coping skills. During the interview, participants were asked to describe situations in which they demonstrated each skill (Latham, Saari, Pursell, & Campion, 1980).

Applicants' measures. Following the job interview, participants completed several scales assessing metaperception and individual characteristics. These last data were collected for another research. Hence, they are not discussed further.

Metaperception (MP). Participants rated how they thought the recruiter would perceive them on each of the six skills (“*The recruiter must think that I have good listening skills*” – Listening; “*... I have the ability to set priorities*” – Organizational; “*... I have good analytical skills*” – Analytical; “*... I can lead and decide effectively*” – Leadership; “*... I have difficulties to master stressful situations*” (reverse-scored) – Coping; “*... I feel comfortable with others*” – Interpersonal). An additional score, $MP_{Overall}$, based on the mean across the 6 skills, was also computed ($M = 4.24$; $SD = .44$; $\alpha = .49$).

Judge's measures. Using the applicants' videotaped job interview (displaying the participant with the HMD in the lab talking to the avatar in the virtual world), an external judge (female professional with a Master's degree in organizational psychology) was asked to complete the measures of other's perception and hireability.

Other's perception (OP). The judge rated each participant on the six skills. She used the same items and ratings as the participants' metaperception self-report, except the judge ratings began with the phrase “*The applicant ...*”. Before coding all participants, judge

reliability was established by comparing ratings of 20 participants with a second judge (the last author) ($\bar{r} = .81$; average correlation across the six skills). $OP_{Overall}$ was computed based on the mean of other's perception for each skill ($M = 3.89$; $SD = .69$; $\alpha = .82$).

Hireability. The external judge also reported their hiring intention for all applicants, using an 11-point scale, ranging from 0% to 100% ($M = 68.98$, $SD = 24.09$). Before watching the job interviews, the judge was provided with the job description. Judge reliability was established by comparing ratings of 20 participants with a second judge ($r = .89$).

Analysis strategy. When studying the effect of accuracy on a dependent variable, one may choose to use difference scores. However, the use of difference score when researchers are interested in the effect of accuracy or congruence on a specific outcome lead to serious limitations (Edwards, 2001, 2002; Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison, & Heggstad, 2010). When one wants to go further than simply explore the effect of accuracy on an outcome, one should use polynomial regression and response surface analysis (Edwards, 2002). This approach allows testing how the dependent variable (i.e., hireability) depends on both predictors when they are considered jointly. It permits researchers to assess how accuracy (when MP and OP are in agreement) and inaccuracy (when MP and OP are in disagreement) affect the outcome. Thanks to response surface analysis, we can also observe the impact of under- and overestimation on the outcome (i.e., when one predictor is lower or higher than the other one). Finally, when using polynomial regression less focus is put on the effect of each polynomial term and more is put on the 3-D shape of the regression (i.e., response surface analysis) (Brion, Lount Jr, & Doyle, 2015).

A prerequisite to use this method is to verify that there is sufficient disagreement between the two predictors (Shanock et al., 2010). To do so, we calculated the proportion of accuracy in our sample, based on Fleener's method (1996). Metaperception (MP) and other's perception (OP) scores were standardized to observe the distance between the two scores.

When the distance between the two predictors was greater than half a SD to the mean on standardized score of the second predictor, the score was considered as discrepant. The mean proportion of *in agreement* scores across dimensions was 38.1%, ranging from 26.5% for Organizational Skills to 49.0% for Coping Skills. Following Shanock and colleagues' guideline (2010), given that more than half of our participants showed metaperception – other's perception discrepancy, polynomial regression and response surface analyses were used to test our three main hypotheses. We estimated the following equation, seven times depending on the dimensions of interest (e.g., Overall, Listening, Organizational, Analytical, Leadership, Coping, and Interpersonal Skills):

Equation 1

$$H = b_0 + b_1MP + b_2OP + b_3MP^2 + b_4MP \times OP + b_5OP^2 + e$$

where the dependent variable, hireability (H) was regressed on applicant's metaperception (MP), judge's others' perception (OP), metaperception squared (MP²), Meta- x Others' Perception (MPxOP), and others' perception squared (OP²) where MP and OP scores were mean centered prior to the analyses.

Then, to perform response surface analyses, unstandardized coefficients and their standard errors, as well as specific covariance coefficients, obtained from polynomial regression analyses, were entered in an excel template provided by Shanock and colleagues (2010) which allows us to analyse the slope and curvature along the line of agreement (i.e., MP = OP) or disagreement (i.e., MP = -OP) and thus, the effect of underestimation (i.e., MP < OP) and overestimation (i.e., MP > OP) on our dependent variable, hireability. In concrete, with regard to our hypotheses, we expect to find a negative coefficient for surface a_4 (i.e., curvature along the line of disagreement) which would indicate that hireability decreases as MP-OP discrepancy increases (H1), a positive coefficient for surface a_1 (i.e., slope along the

line of agreement) indicating that hireability increases when the scores of MP and OP increase while staying in agreement (H2), and finally, a negative coefficient for surface a_3 (i.e., slope on the line of disagreement) indicating that hireability is higher for underestimators than overestimators (H3).

Results

Descriptive and correlations. First, correlational analyses (see Table 1.) revealed that metaperception and other's perception scores were positively correlated for Analytical Skills ($r = .31, p = .033$) and marginally correlated for Interpersonal Skills ($r = .25, p = .09$). None of the other scores of meta- and other's perception, per dimension, were correlated.

Insert Table 1 about here

Hypotheses testing. Results of polynomial regression and response surface analyses are reported in Table 2. Figure 1, corresponding to hireability as predicted by meta- and other's perception discrepancy for all dimensions confounded, is a graphical depiction of these findings. Below, we present the main results according to the concerned hypotheses.

Insert Table 2 about here

Insert Figure 1 about here

Hypothesis 1. We observed, only for Interpersonal skills, that meta-accuracy was positively associated to hireability ($a_4 b(SE) = -1.07 (.52), p < .05$). The smaller is the

discrepancy between meta- and other's perception, the greater is applicants' likelihood to get hired. Hypothesis 1 is supported only for Interpersonal skills.

Hypothesis 2. Results of response surface analyses showed that hireability was higher when meta- and other's perception scores converge at higher level (i.e., meta-accuracy achieved for favourable judgment) than when meta- and other's perception converge at lower level (i.e., meta-accuracy for less favourable judgment), for all dimensions tested individually, except for Organizational and Interpersonal Skills, and when confounded (a_1 ; p_s ranging from $< .10$ to $< .001$). Hypothesis 2 is supported for Overall, Listening, Analytical, Leadership and Coping skills.

Hypothesis 3. Hireability was higher when applicants tended to underestimate the extent to which a judge would perceive their skills for all dimensions than overestimators (a_3 ; p_s ranging from $< .02$ to $< .001$). These results support Hypothesis 3 according to which underestimators are more likely to get hired than overestimators.

Summary

Study 1 demonstrated that hireability was associated to meta-accuracy. The pattern of results support the three hypothesized trends: (1) applicants with higher meta-accuracy on interpersonal skill had a greater likelihood to get hired (for interpersonal skill only), (2) applicants who thought that a recruiter would perceive their skills while a recruiter perceive their skills had greater likelihood to get hired than applicants who did not think a recruiter would perceive their skills while the recruiter did not perceive the said skills, finally, (3) applicants who underestimated the extent to which a recruiter would perceive their skills show higher hireability than applicants who overestimated the extent to which a recruiter would perceive their skills.

Study 2

Study 2 was designed to replicate Study 1 using a larger sample and a more diversified context (i.e., manipulation of virtual recruiter's appearance).

Method

Participants. Of the 127 participants (67 women, $M_{age} = 23.80$, $SD = 2.45$), 99 were bachelor's and master's level students of a Swiss University, four were PhD students, and one was a post-doctoral researcher. The remaining participants were employees in diverse organizations from the local community (e.g., engineers, pharmacists). As in Study 1, participants received a small gift for their participation.

Procedure and materials. The procedure was similar to Study 1 with a few modifications. In Study 2, participants were randomly assigned to one of four interview conditions: male or female recruiter (avatar's gender) who conducted the interview in a friendly or unfriendly manner (avatar's attitude). As in Study 1, participants received a brief training session in the IVET. Afterward, they were videotaped during their job interview with the virtual recruiter. The measures used in Study 2 were exactly the same as the ones used in Study 1.

Analysis strategy. Polynomial regression and response surface analyses were performed to test the effect of meta-accuracy on the outcome variable (i.e., hireability). The equation tested was the same one as in Study 1 (see Equation 1). We also tested the effect of virtual recruiter's attitude and gender on meta-accuracy following Edwards' recommendations by testing the effect of the manipulations on the linear combination of meta- and other's perception (Edwards, 1995). The results of multivariate regression analyses did not yield any effect on meta-accuracy. Therefore, we are not discussing them further.

Results

Descriptive and correlation. Means, standard deviations and coefficients of correlation are reported in Table 3. Correlations between meta- and other's perception were significant for four skills out of six (r_s ranging from .18 to .46, $p_s < .05$). Hireability, the outcome variable, tended to correlate more with other's perception (r_s ranging from .42 to .87; $p_s < .01$) than with metaperception (r_s ranging from .15 to .29, $p_s > .01$).

Insert Table 3 about here

Hypotheses testing. Results from polynomial regression and response surface analyses testing the effect of meta-accuracy, as the joint effect of meta- and other's perception, on hireability are presented in Table 4. Figure 2 showed how meta- and other's perception, on Listening and Coping skill, affect hireability.

Insert Table 4 about here

Insert Figure 2 about here

Hypothesis 1. Results of polynomial regression and response surface analyses did not fully support the hypothesis stating that the greater the distance between meta- and other's perception, the smaller the probability to get hired. Hypothesis 1 was supported for Coping skill only ($a_4 b(SE) = -.18 (.11)$; $p = .099$). The opposite results were observed for Overall and Listening skill (a_4 ; $p_s < .05$).

Hypothesis 2. Concerning the effect of meta-accuracy at high and low levels of skill on hireability, results showed that Hireability increased as meta- and other's perception increased jointly, for each and all skills confounded (a_1 ; $p_s < .01$). Hypothesis 2 is supported for Overall, Listening, Organizational, Analytical, Leadership, Coping and Interpersonal skills.

Hypothesis 3. Concerning the effect of the direction of the discrepancy on hireability, which referred to response surface a_3 , results indicated that hireability was higher for applicants who underestimated the extent to which a recruiter would perceive their skills (a_3 ; $p_s < .05$) than applicants who were overestimating. Hypothesis 3 is supported for all the targeted skills.

Summary

Similarly to Study 1, Study 2 demonstrated that hireability was associated to meta-accuracy in two ways: First, applicants who think that a recruiter would perceive them as highly skilled while a recruiter perceives them as highly skilled (i.e., meta-accuracy at high level) have a greater likelihood to get hired than applicants who think a recruiter would perceive them as less skilled while the recruiter perceives them as less skilled; Second, applicants who underestimated the extent to which a recruiter would perceive them as skilled show higher hireability than applicants who overestimated the extent to which a recruiter would perceive them as skilled. Concerning the Hypothesis 1 stating that meta-accuracy affects hireability, Study 1 and Study 2 differ partially. As for Study 1, Study 2 showed that applicants with higher meta-accuracy on Coping skill have a greater likelihood to get hired (for interpersonal skill only) than applicants who lacked meta-accuracy which is similar to Interpersonal skill in Study 1. However, concerning Listening skill, we observed that the more meta- and other's perception are discrepant, the greater is hireability.

Study 3

The aim of Study 3 was twofold. First, it aimed at replicating the results of Study 1 and Study 2 in a different context and with different dimensions. Second, it aimed at studying the effect of style assignment on meta-accuracy.

Concerning the first aim, Study 3 allowed testing the effect of meta-accuracy on hireability for two dimensions instead of one. Besides measuring job skills, metaperception and other's perception also targeted traits. Indeed, skills and personality traits are key criteria in personnel selection (Robertson & Smith, 2001). Hence, it seems logical to extend our hypotheses to both skills and traits.

As for Study 1 and Study 2, Study 3's design included only one-sided interactions. This type of interaction does not allow neither face-to-face feedback nor external cue (Carlson et al., 2011; Hebert & Vorauer, 2003). In the absence of such information, individuals rely more on their own knowledge when developing their metaperception. In return, meta-accuracy would be more difficult to attain. Additionally, when assigned a specific management style to adopt, which may not be the desired or usual style, the applicants may have more difficulty realising meta-accuracy. Indeed, the cognitive load required to comply with this forced style may impede meta-accuracy given that individuals would be more naïve (Kenny & DePaulo, 1993; Gilbert, 1991). Hence, being free to apply to one's dream job would lead to higher level of meta-accuracy than being constrained to apply for one specific job offer.

Hypothesis 4 (H4). Style assignment has a negative effect on meta-accuracy. More precisely, the discrepancy between meta- and other's perception is greater for participants assigned to a specific style than participants unassigned to a style.

Method

Participants. Three hundreds and sixteen Master's students were recruited from several marketing and psychology courses. Among them, 135 participants, namely the *applicants* completed the second wave of measures (i.e., metaperception) (66 females, $M_{Age} = 22.66$, $SD = 2.04$) and were assigned to one of two conditions. The "Unassigned Style" condition gathered 52 participants (23 females, $M_{Age} = 22.94$, $SD = 2.37$). The remaining 83 participants were assigned to the condition "Assigned Style" ($M_{Age} = 22.48$, $SD = 1.80$).

Meanwhile, 89 students were enrolled through another class and were asked to play the role of *recruiters* and to evaluate the LinkedIn profiles. Among these 89 students, 26 were randomly selected as sources of other's perception and recruiters for the "Unassigned Style" condition and 41 for the "Assigned Style" condition.

Procedure and Materials. Study 3 was composed of two distinct parts conducted during two academic semesters: The first part concerned the applicants and the second one the recruiters. Online surveys were used throughout each step of this study: During the first semester, applicants were prompted to complete the surveys during class; During the second semester, each recruiter was asked to evaluate the LinkedIn profiles under the supervision of an experimenter. The duration of completion varied from 10 to 30 minutes. A 5-point Likert-type scale was used for all surveys, ranging from 1 (*not at all agree*) to 5 (*totally agree*).

Concerning the applicants, they were asked to set up a LinkedIn Profile to put to the test their personal branding skills. And, they were asked to complete several questionnaires about personality and perception in two consecutive waves. Between the first wave gathering the "individual characteristics" measures and the second wave concerning "metaperception", applicants from the "Assigned Style" condition received one of two job offers for a junior manager position in a consulting firm. They were told that the job offer was designed to help them adapt more efficiently their LinkedIn profile given that it provides a more specific

context. After reading the job offer, applicants were informed that they would have two weeks to adapt their LinkedIn profile with regards to the job offer they read earlier. The two job offers were created especially for this study and were based on the distinction power seen as opportunity and power seen as responsibility. Once they had read the job offer, the applicants filled out a short scale assessing their understanding of the said offer.

Concerning the recruiters, one to three of them were received by an experimenter in one office. The experimenter gave to each of them an envelope containing one cover letter and two LinkedIn profiles. The content of the envelope differed according to the condition. In the “Unassigned style” condition, recruiters were only asked to go on the online survey. In the “Assigned style” condition, they had to read the job offer submitted to the applicants before going on the survey. Recruiters were asked to read carefully the job offer and to report their understanding of the said job offer before evaluating the level of skills and traits perceived through the LinkedIn profiles.

Applicants’ measures. Applicants started by creating their own personal and individual identification code. Then, they completed a questionnaire assessing their metaperception on traits and skills. They were asked to describe what they thought a recruiter would perceive of them based on their LinkedIn profile. Afterwards, they were asked to send a pdf version of their profile. Only half of the applicants sent their profile. Thus, based on their identification codes and the demographics, the other half was uploaded directly from the group created during their marketing class. Profile picture and recommendations were removed from the anonymized and printed version of the LinkedIn Profile.

Metaperception. Metaperception was measured along two dimensions: traits (i.e., agentic and communal) and skills (i.e., technical and human). All the items began with “Based on my LinkedIn profile, I think that a recruiter would perceive me as ...”. The whole questionnaire gathered 22 items. Concerning *metaperception on traits* (MP_{Traits}, based on

Wojciszke & Abele, 2008), the scale was composed of 12 items (6 Agentic and 6 Communal traits). Examples of items include “... *active*”, “... *independent*” and “... *caring*”, “...*empathic*” ($M = 3.78, SD = .46, \alpha = .78$). Concerning *metaperception on skills* (MP_{Skills} , based on Katz, 1955; Mumford, Campion, & Morgeson, 2007), the scale gathered 10 items (5 Technical and 5 Human skills). Examples of items include “... *easily identifies how things work*” for technical skills and “... *easily communicates with others*” for human skills ($MP_{Skills} M = 3.76, SD = .40, \alpha = .65$). $MP_{Overall}$ was computed based on the mean across the 22 items ($MP_{Overall} M = 3.77; SD = .39; \alpha = .84$).

Recruiters' measures. The questionnaire presented to the recruiters was composed of two parts. The first part focused on the recruiters' individual characteristics. For the second part, the recruiters had to evaluate the two LinkedIn profiles (i.e., others' perception on traits and skills and hireability).

Other's perception. The same items used for the assessment of metaperception on traits and on skills were provided to the recruiters. For each profile, they reported their perception of the applicants' traits and skills, based solely on their LinkedIn profile. For example, skills items began as follow: “*Based on his/her profile, I see this applicant as ...*” ($OP_{Traits} M = 3.57, SD = .49, \alpha = .77$; $OP_{Skills} M = 3.57, SD = .49, \alpha = .68$; $OP_{Overall} M = 3.57, SD = .43, \alpha = .82$).

Hireability. The recruiter used a four-item scale to report their hiring intention. Recruiters indicated their level of agreement with statements beginning with “*Based on his/her LinkedIn profile, as a recruiter, I would...*” and finishing with “... *be willing to hire him/her*” or “... *think that he/she will make an effective employee*” ($M = 3.38, SD = .85, \alpha = .88$).

Analysis strategy. For this study, we had to test the effect of meta-accuracy on the outcome variable (i.e., Hypotheses 1 to 3) and then, we had to assess the effect of style

assignment on meta-accuracy (Hypothesis 4) . Hence, first, polynomial regressions and response surface analyses were performed to test the effect of meta-accuracy on hireability. Second, to test the effects of the manipulation on meta-accuracy, multivariate regression analyses were used instead of difference scores as the dependent variable.

Before performing polynomial regressions, we computed the proportion of agreement and disagreement. More than 65 % of the sample under- or overestimated the extent to which a recruiter would perceive their traits and/or skills based solely on their LinkedIn profile (65.2% for the dimension Traits and 71.9% for the dimension Skills). These results lead us to follow the procedure proposed by Shanock and colleagues (2010) and to use polynomial regression and response surface analyses to assess, for each condition, the effect of meta-accuracy, as the joint effect of MP and OP, on hireability.

To simplify the presentation of our results, polynomial regression and response surface analyses are presented in three sub-sections according to the hypothesis tested. For each hypothesis, we start with meta-accuracy Overall (traits and skills confounded), followed by meta-accuracy on Traits only, and finally, meta-accuracy on Skills only. Finally, the ‘results’ section of Study 3 concludes itself with the multivariate analyses testing the effect of style assignment on meta-accuracy.

Results

Descriptive and correlations. Table 5 gathers means, standard deviations and coefficients correlation. Correlations between meta- and others’ perception Overall, on Traits and on Skills, were not significant. However, two significant correlations were observed for agentic traits ($r = .21; p = .015$) and communal traits ($r = .18; p = .038$). As expected, hireability was not correlated to metaperception while it was significantly correlated to other’s perception ($\bar{r} = .62, p_s < .01$).

Insert Table 5 about here

Hypotheses testing. Table 6 gathers the results of polynomial regression and response surface analyses per dimension of interest (i.e., Overall, Traits, and Skills). Meanwhile, Figure 3 shows the response surface plots of hireability as predicted by meta- and others' perception discrepancy.

Insert Table 6 about here

Insert Figure 3 about here

Hypothesis 1. Results of response surface analyses referring to surface a_4 were not statistically significant, for none of the studied dimensions. However, the unstandardized coefficients characterizing a_4 were all negative, as expected: $a_{4-Overall} b(SE) = -.24(.51)$; $a_{4-Traits} b(SE) = -.28(.44)$; $a_{4-Skills} b(SE) = -.53(.49)$, $p_s > .01$. Hypothesis 1, stating that the greater is the distance between meta- and other's perception, the smaller is hireability, is not supported.

Hypothesis 2. Response surface analyses showed that hireability is higher when meta- and other's perception converge at high level of skills and/or traits than when meta- and other's perception converge at lower level of skills and/or traits ($a_{1-Overall} b(SE) = 1.28(.21)$; $a_{1-Traits} b(SE) = .87(.19)$; $a_{1-Skills} b(SE) = 1.07(.21)$, $p_s < .01$). Hypothesis 2 is supported for Overall, Traits and Skills. Hypothesis 2 is supported.

Hypothesis 3. Finally, response surface analyses showed that hireability is higher when applicants tended to underestimate the extent to which a recruiter would perceive their level of skills and traits than overestimators. This effect was significant for Overall ($a_{3\text{-Overall}} b(SE) = -1.12(.20), p < .01$), for Traits ($a_{3\text{-Traits}} b(SE) = -.86(.19), p < .01$), and for Skills ($a_{3\text{-skills}} b(SE) = -.97(.20), p < .01$). Hypothesis 3 is fully supported.

Hypothesis 4. Results of omnibus multivariate tests indicated that the manipulation of style assignment (i.e., Unassigned and Assigned Style) had a significant effect on the linear combination of meta- and other's perception Overall (*Wilks' Λ* = .91, $F(2,128) = 6.32, p < .01$; $\eta^2 = .09$), on Traits (*Wilks' Λ* = .93, $F(2,128) = 5.17, p < .01$), and on Skills (*Wilks' Λ* = .92, $F(2,128) = 5.28, p < .01$). As shown in Figure 4, discrepancies between meta- and other's perception were smaller in the condition "Unassigned style" than in the condition "Assigned style". Hypothesis 4 is supported by our results.

Insert Figure 4 about here

Summary

Similarly to Study 1 and Study 2, results of Study 3 showed that hireability was associated to meta-accuracy in two ways: First, applicants who think that a recruiter would perceive them as skilled and presenting favorable traits while a recruiter perceive said level of skills and traits (i.e., meta-accuracy at high level) have a greater likelihood to get hired than applicants who think a recruiter would perceive them as less skilled and presenting less favorable traits while the recruiter perceive them as less skilled and presenting less favorable traits (i.e., meta-accuracy at low level); Second, applicants who underestimate the extent to which a recruiter would perceive them as skilled and presenting favorable traits, have higher

hireability than applicants who overestimate the extent to which a recruiter would perceive them as skilled.

As opposed to Study 1 and partially Study 2, results of Study 3 did not yield significant results regarding Hypothesis 1 which states that hireability decrease as meta- and other's perception discrepancy increases. Indeed, results of polynomial regression and response surface analyses showed that surface $a4$ had the direction hypothesized but those coefficients were not significant.

Finally, as expected, style assignment had a negative effect on meta-accuracy. Meta-accuracy was lower for applicants from the "Assigned style" condition than for applicants from the "Unassigned style" condition.

Discussion

The goal of the present research was to extend previous research regarding the outcomes associated to meta-accuracy. Particularly, we aimed at assessing the effect of meta-accuracy in its broader sense on hireability. Previous research demonstrates that a recruiter's hiring decision highly depends on the impression the applicant conveys in the job interview (e.g., Stevens & Kristof, 1995). Three studies showed two highly consistent results: (1) hireability is higher when meta- and other's perception converge at high level than when meta- and other's perception converge at low level, and (2) underestimating the impressions made during a job interview or based on an online résumé, leads to greater hireability than overestimating.

Could this pattern of results be explained by a form of Dunning-Kruger effect, according to which high performers tend to slightly underestimate their performance while low performers who tend to overestimate? Kruger and Dunning proposed that unskilled individuals lack meta-cognitive skills allowing them to assess their level of said skills (Kruger

& Dunning, 1999). If our results mirror this cognitive bias, it would seem logical that applicants who tend to overestimate how favorably they are perceived by others, would be the one that are less hireable since they are under-performing. Meanwhile, applicants who underestimate the extent to which a recruiter would perceive favorably their skills and traits, are more likely to get hired. Hence the question asked is whether applicants' performance predicts meta-accuracy, and in particular, under- and overestimation. Future research could test the hypotheses that (1) the proportion of overestimation is higher among low performers than among high performers and the proportion of underestimation is higher among high performers than among low performers, and (2) meta-accuracy is higher among high performers than among low performers.

A third hypothesis (i.e., Hypothesis 1) was formulated: meta-accuracy, as the size of meta- and other's perception discrepancy, affects hireability. The three studies performed in this project did not offer consistently significant results. Study 1 and Study 2 partially supported Hypothesis 1. However, Study 3 did not provide significant results. We do not have straightforward explanation for this lack of consistency. It may be linked to the settings of studies: the self-presentation task was similar for Study 1 and Study 2 but not Study 3. Or it may due to the objects of meta-accuracy. While Study 1 and Study 2 concerned only skills, Study 3 addressed another object of meta-accuracy, namely traits. Additionally, all of the skills and traits used were favorable characteristics. With respect to personality, it seems that individuals are able to accurately know what others think of them, at least with respect to some traits. The Self Other Knowledge Asymmetry model (Vazire, 2010) presents an explanation for the existing asymmetry in self-perception and other-perception with regard to accurate trait assessment: Traits low on observability are more accurately assessed by the self while traits high on evaluativeness are more accurately assessed by others. Future research

would benefit from studying meta-accuracy while differentiating its objects, and particularly the level of favorability or desirability of the studied dimensions as well as the level of observability of such dimensions.

Still even if these results are not consistent across studies, we observe a common tendency: hireability seems to decline as applicants show less meta-accuracy.

A new hypothesis (i.e., Hypothesis 4), stating that style assignment affected meta-accuracy, was introduced in Study 3. With Study 3, we wanted to introduce a more ecological parameter: a job offer that varied across conditions. While Study 1 and Study 2 offered the same generic job description to all the applicants, Study 3 allowed us to manipulate the said job description. In one condition, applicants were pushed to comply to a specific style (i.e., Assigned style) while the other applicants had to follow their dream job. Results of Study 3 supported this hypothesis. Meta-accuracy was lower in the “Assigned style” condition than in the “Unassigned style”. Future research is needed to confirm that our manipulation of cognitive load had an impact on meta-accuracy.

Individuals presenting themselves during a virtual interview or seeking a job through social media do not have access to specific cues relatives to their performance. Indeed, these three studies targeted *generalized meta-accuracy* within *one-sided interaction with zero-acquaintance*. In these conditions, applicants must have relied mostly on their self-perception to develop their metaperception. This process would lead to less meta-accuracy.

The virtual environment of our studies introduces an interesting implication regarding the mechanism of meta-accuracy. Because our studies were run in the IVET, the potential that applicants were “reading” the interviewers’ cues about the impression being made is unlikely because the avatar displayed the same cues across all participants, and was preprogrammed to display very little movement. Therefore, it appears that applicants were meta-accurate based

upon their own personal assessments of their performance, rather than any cues or feedback by the avatar/recruiter. On the other hand, perhaps the controlled virtual environment allowed applicants to be more accurate because they were not distracted by a recruiter's behavior. Given that the recruiter always displayed the same behavior, similarity between applicant and recruiter enhancing applicant first impression cannot explain our results.

As a practical implication, these findings might be crucial for future applicant training programs. If applicants can increase their knowledge about what others think of them, this might increase their chances of being hired. Thus, it might not only be important to convey a favorable first impression but also to know what impression one is conveying, or at least avoid any over-estimation.

Conclusion

In sum, our findings indicate that meta-accuracy is related to hireability. While two of our three studies show that individuals who know the impression they are making, during a job interview or through their résumé, are more likely to get hired, the effect of meta-accuracy is not limited to meta- and other's perception discrepancy. Indeed, across three studies, we observed that (1) meta-accuracy at high level lead to higher hireability in comparison to meta-accuracy at low level and, that (2) underestimators are more likely to get hired than overestimators. These results suggest that the best chance to get hired does not rely only on good impressions but also on knowing, or at least on underestimating, the impressions made upon others.

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Tables

Table 1.

Descriptive statistics and correlation between meta- and other's perception on skills.

	M	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.
1 MP List	4.57	.65												
2 MP Org	4.00	1.01	.13											
3 MP Ana	4.06	.90	.05	.23										
4 MP Lead	4.18	.81	.07	.26 ⁺	.44 ^{**}									
5 MP Cop	4.08	.93	.03	.18	-.11	.06								
6 MP Int	4.51	.65	.48 ^{**}	-.03	.16	.06	.134							
7 OP List	3.79	.90	.02	-.06	.12	.05	-.15	.22						
8 OP Org	3.49	.86	-.11	-.04	.16	.25 ⁺	.02	.05	.14					
9 OP Ana	3.76	1.27	-.16	-.14	.31 [*]	.11	-.12	.10	.45 ^{**}	.25 ⁺				
10 OP Lead	3.96	1.06	-.09	-.26 ⁺	.24 ⁺	.18	-.21	.06	.61 ^{**}	.30 [*]	.61 ^{**}			
11 OP Cop	4.10	.71	-.04	-.15	-.04	-.11	.18	.20	.55 ^{**}	.44 ^{**}	.47 ^{**}	.56 ^{**}		
12 OP Int	4.21	.92	.12	.02	.25 ⁺	.15	-.23	.25 ⁺	.56 ^{**}	.39 ^{**}	.43 ^{**}	.47 ^{**}	.32 [*]	
13 Hire	69.0	24.09	-.16	-.14	.32 [*]	.24	-.18	.10	.67 ^{**}	.51 ^{**}	.61 ^{**}	.76 ^{**}	.56 ^{**}	.74 ^{**}

Note. *n* = 48-49. MP List = Metaperception on Listening Skills; MP Org = Metaperception on Organizational Skills; MP Ana = Metaperception on Analytical Skills; MP Lead = Metaperception on Leadership Skills; MP Cop = Metaperception on Coping Skills; MP Int = Metaperception on Interpersonal Skills; OP List = Other's perception on Listening Skills; OP Org = Other's perception on Organizational Skills; OP Ana = Other's perception on Analytical Skills; OP Lead = Other's perception on Leadership Skills; OP Cop = Other's perception on Coping Skills; OP Int = Other's perception on Interpersonal Skills; Hire = Hireability.

⁺ *p* < .10
^{*} *p* < .05
^{**} *p* < .01

Table 2.

Hireability as predicted by meta-others' perception discrepancy.

Dimensions	Overall		Listening		Organizational		Analytical		Leadership		Coping		Interpersonal	
	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)
Constant	3.69		3.50		3.72		3.38		3.71		3.42		3.70	
MP	-.10	(.19)	-.20	(.34)	-.29	(.22)	.01	(.19)	-.09	(.17)	-.47	(.21)	-.38	(.27)
OP	1.40	(.14)	.87	(.16)	.71	(.21)	.67	(.15)	.71	(.13)	1.04	(.21)	.94	(.20)
MP ²	-.71	(.43)	.22	(.36)	-.07	(.17)	-.17	(.13)	-.24	(.13)	-.07	(.13)	-.57	(.39)
MPxOP	-.05	(.25)	.19	(.20)	-.10	(.20)	-.13	(.12)	-.12	(.11)	.28	(.21)	.40	(.28)
OP ²	-.22	(.16)	-.14	(.15)	-.29	(.21)	.16	(.09)	-.08	(.08)	.11	(.30)	-.10	(.19)
R ²	.81		.49		.31		.48		.65		.44		.58	
Response surface tests														
<i>a</i> 1	1.30	(.23)	.67	(.36)	.42	(.32)	.67	(.22)	.62	(.20)	.58	(.24)	.56	(.36)
<i>a</i> 2	-.98	(.40)	.27	(.43)	-.47	(.38)	-.14	(.13)	-.44	(.15)	.33	(.33)	-.27	(.36)
<i>a</i> 3	-1.50	(.23)	-1.06	(.39)	-.99	(.28)	-.66	(.25)	-.81	(.22)	-1.51	(.35)	-1.31	(.32)
<i>a</i> 4	-.88	(.63)	-.12	(.42)	-.26	(.33)	.12	(.22)	-.20	(.22)	-.23	(.36)	-1.07	(.52)

Note. *N* = 48-49. MP = Metaperception; OP = Other's perception.

⁺ *p* < .10
^{*} *p* < .05
^{**} *p* < .01

Table 3.

Descriptive statistics and correlation between meta- and other's perception on skills and hireability

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 MP List	4.38	.77														
2 MP Org	3.92	1.01	.04													
3 MP Ana	3.84	.78	.07	.02												
4 MP Lead	4.16	.78	.01	.19 [*]	.17 ⁺											
5 MP Cop	3.84	1.00	.02	.20 [*]	.08	.10										
6 MP Int	4.25	.85	.38 ^{**}	.15 ⁺	-.13	.21 [*]	.07									
7 MP all	4.07	.44	.46 ^{**}	.58 ^{**}	.37 ^{**}	.53 ^{**}	.54 ^{**}	.54 ^{**}								
8 OP List	4.02	.90	.18 [*]	.16 ⁺	-.10	-.03	.06	.27 ^{**}	.19 [*]							
9 OP Org	3.47	.97	-.03	.24 ^{**}	.07	.10	-.05	.04	.13	.24 ^{**}						
10 OP Ana	3.83	.76	.04	.10	.06	.06	-.12	.08	.07	.24 ^{**}	.32 ^{**}					
11 OP Lead	4.23	.78	.12	.18 [*]	.07	.24 ^{**}	.11	.12	.28 ^{**}	.32 ^{**}	.32 ^{**}	.26 ^{**}				
12 OP Cop	3.95	.95	.04	.06	.04	-.01	.13	.16 ⁺	.15	.33 ^{**}	.39 ^{**}	.26 ^{**}	.46 ^{**}			
13 OP Int	4.01	1.03	.10	.14	-.02	.15 ⁺	.07	.46 ^{**}	.30 ^{**}	.47 ^{**}	.30 ^{**}	.23 ^{**}	.22 [*]	.30 ^{**}		
14 OP all	3.92	.59	.11	.23 [*]	.03	.13	.07	.30 ^{**}	.29 ^{**}	.67 ^{**}	.67 ^{**}	.57 ^{**}	.63 ^{**}	.70 ^{**}	.67 ^{**}	
15 Hire	54.41	20.88	.11	.15 ⁺	.03	.09	.06	.29 ^{**}	.24 ^{**}	.63 ^{**}	.55 ^{**}	.42 ^{**}	.53 ^{**}	.60 ^{**}	.66 ^{**}	.87 ^{**}

Note. *N* = 127. MP List = Metaperception on Listening Skills; MP Org = Metaperception on Organizational Skills; MP Ana = Metaperception on Analytical Skills; MP Lead = Metaperception on Leadership Skills; MP Cop = Metaperception on Coping Skills; MP Int = Metaperception on Interpersonal Skills; OP List = Other's perception on Listening Skills; OP Org = Other's perception on Organizational Skills; OP Ana = Other's perception on Analytical Skills; OP Lead = Other's perception on Leadership Skills; OP Cop = Other's perception on Coping Skills; OP Int = Other's perception on Interpersonal Skills; Hire = Hireability.

⁺ *p* < .10
^{*} *p* < .05
^{**} *p* < .01

Table 4
Hireability as predicted by Meta- and Other's perception discrepancy.

	Overall		Listening		Organizational		Analytical		Leadership		Coping		Interpersonal	
	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)
Constant	2.63		2.68		2.66		2.71		2.70		2.78		2.66	
MP	.01	(.11)	-.03	(.13)	.07	(.10)	.08	(.13)	-.04	(.12)	-.10	(.09)	-.10	(.12)
OP	1.60	(.08)	.75	(.09)	.60	(.09)	.56	(.12)	.74	(.12)	.72	(.09)	.78	(.09)
MP ²	.01	(.19)	.06	(.07)	.04	(.07)	.10	(.10)	-.01	(.11)	.12	(.06)	-.14	(.07)
MPxOP	-.27	(.23)	-.36	(.13)	.01	(.09)	-.06	(.14)	.06	(.15)	.12	(.07)	-.00	(.09)
OP ²	.32	(.11)	.06	(.08)	.02	(.08)	-.05	(.12)	.04	(.15)	.06	(.06)	.16	(.08)
<i>R</i> ²			.44		.31		.19		.28		.40		.47	
Response surface tests														
<i>a</i> ₁	1.61	(.12)	.72	(.15)	.67	(.13)	.64	(.16)	.69	(.16)	.62	(.12)	.69	(.13)
<i>a</i> ₂	.06	(.24)	-.25	(.13)	.07	(.09)	-.02	(.19)	.09	(.18)	.06	(.09)	.02	(.08)
<i>a</i> ₃	-1.60	(.15)	-.78	(.16)	-.54	(.14)	-.47	(.18)	-.78	(.18)	-.82	(.13)	-.88	(.17)
<i>a</i> ₄	.61	(.30)	.48	(.16)	.04	(.14)	.11	(.21)	-.04	(.23)	-.18	(.11)	.02	(.11)

Note. *N* = 127. MP = Metaperception; OP = Other's perception.

+ *p* < .10

* *p* < .05

** *p* < .01

Table 5
Descriptive statistics and correlation between meta- and other's perception on skills and hireability.

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 MP all	3.77	.39						
2 MP Traits	3.78	.46	.93					
3 MP Skills	3.76	.40	.88	.65				
4 OP all	3.57	.43	-.02	-.00	-.04			
5 OP Traits	3.57	.49	.00	.03	-.04	.91		
6 OP Skills	3.57	.49	-.04	-.04	-.03	.86	.57	
7 Hire	3.38	.85	.02	.02	.01	.62	.52	.59

Note. *N* = 135. MP all = Metaperception Overall; MP Traits = Metaperception on Traits; MP Skills = Metaperception on Skills; OP all = Other's perception Overall; OP Traits = Others' perception on Traits; OP Skills = Others' perception on Skills; Hire = Hireability

+ *p* < .10

* *p* < .05

** *p* < .01

Table 6
Hireability as predicted by Meta- and Other's perception discrepancy.

	Overall		Traits		Skills	
	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>se</i>)
Constant	3.41		3.44		3.40	
MP	.08	(.15)	.00	(.14)	.05	(.15)
OP	1.20	(.14)	.87	(.13)	1.02	(.14)
MP ²	-.15	(.30)	-.06	(.24)	-.07	(.30)
MPxOP	.05	(.31)	.03	(.24)	.43	(.36)
OP ²	-.04	(.20)	-.20	(.18)	-.03	(.17)
<i>R</i> ²		.39		.28		.35
Response surface tests						
<i>a</i> ₁	1.28	(.21)	.87	(.19)	1.07	(.21)
<i>a</i> ₂	-.14	(.42)	.23	(.31)	.34	(.51)
<i>a</i> ₃	-1.12	(.20)	-.86	(.19)	-.97	(.20)
<i>a</i> ₄	-.24	(.51)	-.28	(.44)	-.53	(.49)

Note. *N* = 135. MP = Metaperception; OP = Other's perception.

+ *p* < .10

* *p* < .05

** *p* < .01

Figures

Hireability as predicted by meta- and other's perception discrepancy for all dimensions confounded

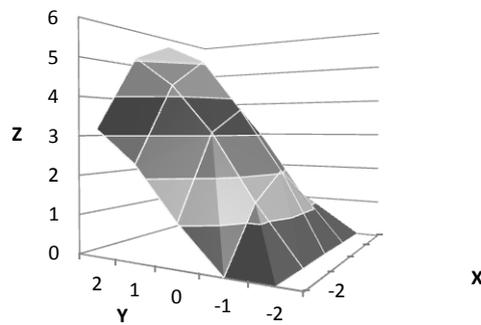
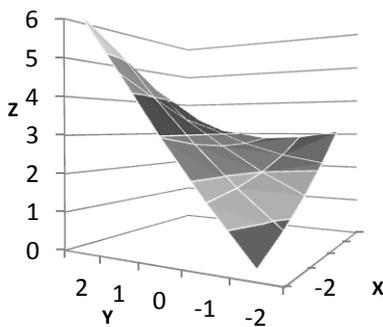


Figure 1. Response surface for hireability (Z) as predicted by meta (X) – other's perception (Y) discrepancy on all skills (Study 1).

Hireability as predicted by meta- and other's perception discrepancy for listening skill



Hireability as predicted by meta- and other's perception discrepancy for coping skill

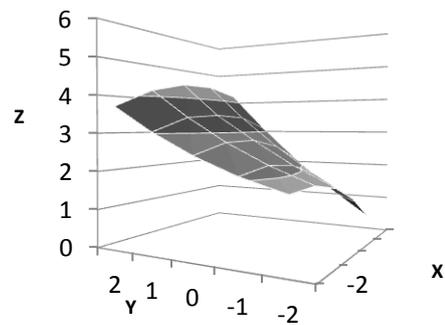
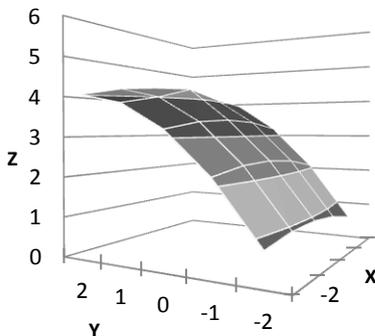


Figure 2. Response surface for hireability (Z) as predicted by meta (X) – other's perception (Y) discrepancy (on the left: Listening skill; on the right: Coping skill) (Study 2).

Hireability as predicted by meta- and other's perception discrepancy on Traits



Hireability as predicted by meta- and other's perception discrepancy on Skills

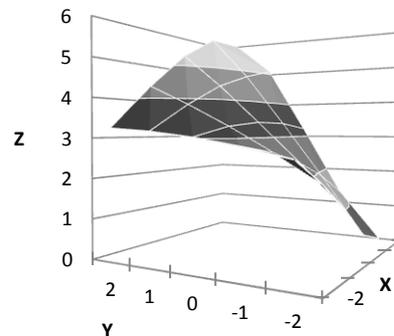


Figure 3. Response surface for hireability (Z) as predicted by meta (X) – other's perception (Y) (on the left: Traits; on the right: Skills) (Study 3).

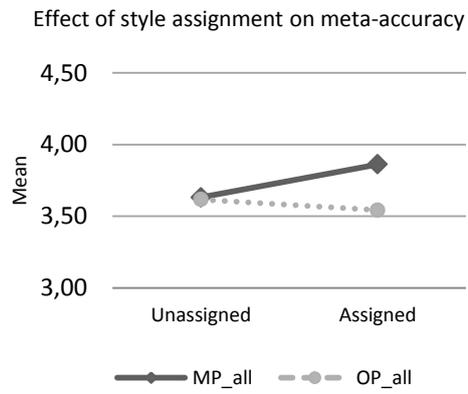


Figure 4. Effects of style assignment on meta- and other's perception (Study 3).