Does media richness influence job applicants' experience in asynchronous video interviews? Examining social presence, impression management, anxiety, and performance

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Abstract:

Asynchronous video interviews (AVIs) have become a popular alternative to face-to-face interviews for screening or selecting job applicants, in part because of their increased flexibility and lower costs. However, AVIs are often described as anxiety-provoking or associated with negative applicant reactions. Building on theories of media richness and social presence, we explore if increasing the media richness of AVIs, by replacing "default" text-based introductions and written questions with video-based ones, can positively influence interviewees' experience. In an experimental study with 151 interviewees (M_{age} = 28.08, 56% Female) completing a mock interview, we examine the (direct and indirect) impact of media richness on perceived social presence, interview anxiety, use of honest and deceptive impression management tactics, and ultimately interview performance. Results showed that media richer AVIs help increase interviewees perceived social presence and improve their interview performance. Higher perceived social presence was also associated with lower interview anxiety and facilitated using impression management (especially other-focused tactics). Our findings highlight that there might be ways for organizations to embrace the practical benefits of AVIs while still ensuring a positive experience for interviewees.

Keywords*:* Media richness, asynchronous video interviews, social presence, impression management

Practitioner Points:

- Most asynchronous video interviews (AVIs) being used by professionals are text-based.
- Media-richness can enhance the interviewees' experience in AVIs.
- Media-rich AVIs can enhance social presence, facilitate IM use, decrease applicants' anxiety, and help with interview performance.
- Adding informal low-cost videos to AVIs has the same positive effects as adding expensive professionally recorded videos.

1. Introduction

Asynchronous video interviews (AVIs) have gained increasing attention from organizations as a faster, cheaper, and less time-consuming alternative to face-to-face and videoconference job interviews (Brenner et al., 2016). AVIs can be cost-effective because they do not need hiring managers to be present during the interview. They also require less logistical preparation compared to synchronous interviews. The flexibility of AVIs allows applicants to complete the interview anywhere and anytime, which might help organizations interview a larger number of geographically diverse applicants (Mejia & Torres, 2018). However, like in other technology-mediated interviews, applicant reactions toward AVIs are somewhat negative. For instance, applicants perceive AVIs to be lower on fairness and procedural justice (Hiemstra et al., 2019) and more privacy-invasive and creepier (Blacksmith et al., 2016; Langer et al., 2017) than synchronous interviews. AVIs are also lower in interactivity and provide a narrower social bandwidth (Basch et al., 2021; Langer et al., 2017; Muralidhar et al., 2020). Such negative applicant reactions represent a major drawback for organizations because applicants gather information and form attitudes about the hiring organization during the selection process (Potosky, 2008). Reactions can also impact important applicant outcomes, such as their likelihood to accept a job offer (McCarthy et al., 2017). This is practically relevant for organizations that are trying to thrive in competitive global markets since AVIs are not a short-term fad but are here to stay as a part of the modern selection process.

In addition, because of their impersonal nature, AVIs are seen as limiting applicants' opportunities to use impression management (IM) tactics (Basch et al., 2020) without an interviewer to interact with or to use as a target for IM attempts. Indeed, the *default* design of most AVIs is to have applicants read text-based interview questions and then record a video

response. For instance, Dunlop et al. (2022) examined a large amount of archival data from an international AVI provider (from 57,475 interview questions used in thousands of AVIs by nearly 300 employers spanning 2011-2021) and found that 95.6% were text-based questions. They also noticed that including an introductory or closing video message from the employer was rare. Because IM is a central mechanism by which applicants can highlight their qualifications (Bourdage et al., 2018), such default AVIs might impede their chances to perform in the interview. In contrast, using media-rich AVIs instead of text-based AVIs may open a pathway for interviewees to use more IM. Questions can be asked in a video (rather than just a simple text) by an actual interviewer, who also may watch their videos and score them later. This could help applicants find a more tangible target for their IM efforts, putting a face on the seemingly impersonal interview process. Many commercial AVI providers offer recorded video questions as an alternative option to text-based interviews though few of them explicitly advertise it (i.e., Criteria Corp).

Moreover, a recent large-scale field study reported that applicants experienced elevated levels of anxiety when completing AVIs during the Covid-19 pandemic, which negatively impacted their interview performance (McCarthy et al., 2021). Yet, it is important to remember that an AVI represents a modality for conducting the job interview rather than being an idiosyncratic form of interview. Just like face-to-face or video-conference interviews, AVIs can be designed and structured in many ways. For example, AVI designs can differ in terms of the types and format of questions asked, response time duration, and options for reviewing one's responses and rerecording them (Lukacik et al., 2022).

This study contributes to the literature on technology-mediated job interviews in several important ways. We build upon social presence theory and media richness theory (Daft &

Lengel, 1986; Short et al., 1976) to identify the core interactional elements that differentiate applicants' experiences in synchronous vs. asynchronous interviews. We then focus on media richness design elements, which can help reintroduce a form of social presence in the AVI (Lukacik et al., 2022). More precisely, we examine whether an organization introducing video elements, such as including a video-based introduction to the company and hiring manager as well as asking the interview questions in a video format (vs. text-based information/questions) can improve applicants' AVI experience: their reactions (e.g., higher perceived social presence and lower interview anxiety), behaviors (e.g., facilitate impression management), and ultimately interview performance. As such, we empirically test some core theoretical propositions from a recent model of AVI design (Lukacik et al., 2022), and explore ways to capitalize on the advantages of AVIs, while reducing some of their disadvantages. From a practical standpoint, relying on enhanced media richness to increase perceived social presence can also be beneficial for organizations' hiring activities and image (Badger et al., 2014). Indeed, applicants' perceptions of social presence are positively associated with perceived procedural justice and the likelihood to accept a job offer (Farago et al., 2013).

2. Media Richness and Social Presence in AVIs

Our study aims to broaden the theoretical framework of AVIs by incorporating insights from diverse research contexts, including but not limited to online learning. While these theories have not been designed specifically for AVIs, they hold the potential to extend and strengthen the theoretical foundation of our study. In a synchronous interview, the applicant and interviewer engage in direct verbal and non-verbal communication. This social exchange is a defining component of the interactional process called a job interview (McCarthy & Goffin, 2004). It elicits different cognitive, emotional, and behavioral reactions from the applicant, differentiating

the job interview from other assessment tools without live interaction, like tests (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Research in various fields, including studies on police interviews (e.g., Fisher et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2012), highlights the importance of social presence, interpersonal dynamics, and rapport-building in the interview process. For instance, when interviewers make eye contact, or engage active listening and verbal affirmations or gestures, they exhibit more warmth and empathy. This helps create a positive atmosphere, as well as establishing rapport, trust, respect, and understanding. As a result, interviewees are more likely to provide longer responses with greater detail, and feel more comfortable sharing their experiences, thoughts, and emotions, leading to a richer exchange of information (Fisher et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2012). This is particularly important in police interviews, where obtaining accurate and comprehensive information is crucial for investigative purposes. Additionally, creating rapport in interviews can enhance interviewees' perceptions of fairness and satisfaction (Köhnken et al., 1999).

AVIs still include a social exchange component, although it is not as conspicuous as in synchronous interviews. Instead of a social exchange between the applicant and the interviewer(s), it happens between the applicant and their perceptions of the interviewer's (psychological) presence. Such perceptions connote how much applicants view the presence of the interviewer as "real" (Fulk et al., 1987), and correspond to what communication experts define as social presence (Short et al., 1976; Swan & Shih, 2005). Research on technology-mediated communication shows that participants can perceive social presence to the degree that they effectively feel connected as if the other party was physically present (Walther, 1994). A higher social presence increases interactivity and boosts user satisfaction in technology-mediated communications (Gunawardena & Zittle, 1997; Tu & McIsaac, 2002).

Media richness theory was developed to explain the role of media in the perception of social presence in technology-mediated communications (Daft & Lengel, 1986). A richer (vs. leaner) medium includes more channels of communication that can convey a higher rate of information as well as higher-quality information (Daft & Lengel, 1986). For example, video conference is a richer medium compared to email correspondence because it uses visual and auditory channels (vs. just written text) to convey more and higher-quality information. Even when interaction partners are not *physically* present, seeing their image or hearing them talking, helps perceive them as more present, more accessible, and more real. A richer (vs. leaner) medium will thus be perceived as warmer, more personal, more sensitive, and more social (Windeler & Harrison, 2018; Yoo & Alavi, 2001).

Potosky (2008) introduced a conceptual framework for examining the role of media in the personnel selection process. This framework builds upon social-presence theory and media richness theory (Daft & Lengel, 1986; Fulk et al., 1987) and identifies four key attributes of technology-assisted communication: transparency, social bandwidth, interactivity, and surveillance. We describe them, and emphasize their role in AVIs, below.

Transparency refers to the extent to which the communication medium enables seamless interaction without drawing attention to itself. In AVIs, transparency is compromised as applicants are constantly aware that technology mediates their communication (Basch et al., 2021; Potosky, 2008). Social bandwidth encompasses the transfer of social cues through the communication medium. AVIs have limited social bandwidth due to the lack of live interaction and overly relying on written communication in the form of introductory messages or questions, thus depriving applicants of verbal and non-verbal cues and emotional responses from the interviewer (Hiemstra et al., 2019). However, incorporating visual and auditory cues, such as

videos and images, into AVIs can enhance social bandwidth (Daft et al., 1987). Interactivity refers to the opportunities a communication medium provides for immediate feedback. While the two concepts are related, interactivity focuses on the level of engagement and interactive exchanges between individuals, whereas social bandwidth pertains to the transmission of social cues through a medium and applies to both one-way and two-way flows of information (Potosky, 2008). Surveillance pertains to the perception of privacy in communication and is higher when individuals believe that third parties, authorized or unauthorized, can access their communication content (Potosky, 2008). AVIs entail a higher level of surveillance as applicants are aware that their answers are recorded and potentially reviewed by different individuals. Additionally, since AVIs occur over the internet, there is a potential risk of unauthorized access to the interview content. To improve AVIs, attention should be given to enhancing transparency and social bandwidth through media richness, while exploring ways to enhance interactivity and address concerns regarding surveillance.

2.1. Designing Media-Rich AVIs to Enhance Perceived Social Presence

AVIs have been traditionally text-based. This means that, usually, applicants read each interview question and then record their answers using a webcam and microphone. However, instead of using such lean AVIs, it is possible to increase media richness by replacing text-based questions with video-based questions (with interviewers recording themselves asking the questions). Organizations can also include video-based introductory messages for candidates to watch before starting their interviews. In fact, most AVI providers (e.g., HireVue, Spark Hire, Aon) are already offering such levels of customization to their clients. Such videos can also be created with different levels of quality (or professionalism). The quality and variety of

communication channels, social cues, personal cues, personalization, language variety, and other sources of influence determine a medium's media richness (Daft & Lengel, 1986).

Such media-richer AVIs can bring in a variety of verbal and non-verbal social cues to broaden the social bandwidth. They can convey socio-emotional messages to the applicant and elicit thoughts, emotions, and reactions more like when an interviewer is physically present (Daft & Lengel, 1986; Schmitz & Fulk, 1991). A larger share of applicants' attention will also be dedicated to the perceived presence of the (video-recorded) interviewer rather than being fully aware that they are communicating via technology, thus improving transparency (Daft et al., 1987; Lukacik et al., 2022; Potosky, 2008). Verbal and non-verbal cues are two elements of perceived social presence in any communication medium (Short et al., 1976). Even taking simple steps such as adding video messages to predominantly text-based asynchronous communication increases users' perceived social presence (Borup et al., 2011, Griffiths & Graham, 2009). Media-richer AVIs can therefore help achieve an effective balance between technology and human touch, and heighten applicants perceived social presence during the interview (Borup et al., 2013). This could lead to the AVI being perceived as warmer, more sociable, and more personal (IJsselsteijn et al., 2003; Lukacik et al., 2022), as well as more trustworthy, enjoyable, and practical (Lukacik et al., 2022; Oh et al., 2018). It could also help extract more social interaction from applicants (Gunawardena & Zittle, 1997; Short et al., 1976; Swan & Shih, 2005).

Hypothesis 1. Higher AVI media richness is associated with a higher interviewee's perception of social presence.

2.2. Impression Management

IM involves conscious efforts to present oneself in a positive light to influence the perceptions of others (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). In fact, IM use is a significant determinant of how interviewees are evaluated (Ho et al., 2021; Levashina et al., 2014). Job applicants use a multitude of IM tactics as a fundamental mechanism of social influence during the interview (Bourdage et al., 2018). IM tactics can be honest and deceptive. Honest IM tactics represent applicants' truthful attempts to impress interviewers by capitalizing on their job-related knowledge, skills, and abilities. Deceptive IM, also known as interview faking, constitutes behaviors such as distorting, embellishing, inventing, or hiding information to pretend to be a good fit for the job (Roulin et al., 2015). IM efforts can also be self-focused or other-focused. Applicants may try to emphasize their qualifications or inflate their own image (self-focused IM) to impress the interviewer, or they may try to praise and flatter the interviewer or align their responses with the hiring organization's values (other-focused IM) to get on their good side (Levashina et al., 2014). Of course, both self-focused and other-focused IM tactics can be honest or deceptive (Bourdage et al., 2018)

Because of their asynchronous nature, AVIs are generally low on social bandwidth and lack interactivity, which limits applicants' opportunity to use IM tactics (Lukacik et al., 2022). A crucial element in using IM effectively during the interview is to be attentive to the interviewers' verbal and nonverbal cues or feedback and to adapt one's behaviors or responses accordingly. This increases the likelihood of positive reactions from the interviewer, leading to higher performance ratings (Wilhelmy et al., 2021). Unfortunately, AVIs lack this opportunity for interviewees, but enhancing social presence may potentially address this limitation to some degree. Even in video-conference interviews, applicants find it harder to use IM as compared to face-to-face interviews, due to decreased social presence (Basch et al., 2020). Increasing social

presence in AVIs could thus facilitate more social exchange in the form of IM between the applicant and the perceived presence of the interviewer (Basch et al., 2020; Weiss & Feldman, 2006). For instance, applicants watching a video of the interviewer asking a question (vs. simply reading a written question) have a more apparent target to direct their IM efforts, especially other-focused IM tactics (Lukacik et al., 2022). Indeed, the cues available from the videos of the interviewer asking questions or introducing the company may help applicants find more grounds for ingratiation, flattery, or emphasizing similarities. They may also feel more motivated and more comfortable promoting themselves by emphasizing their qualifications and experiences because they have a clearer mental image of the person they are trying to impress.

One exception might be self-focused deceptive IM, which involves pretending to possess qualifications or experience one does not have or hiding negative experiences to protect one's self-image (Powell et al., 2021). Using such tactics might be easier when the communication medium is leaner, and interviewees perceive less social presence. Indeed, people prefer leaner communication channels with fewer social cues when facing a situation that threatens their self-presentation and when they lie, because leaner media allows more control over the flow and regulation of information (Feaster, 2010; O'Sullivan, 2000). It is also easier to fake and lie when fewer social cues are being transferred (Hancock et al., 2004). Moreover, according to a meta-analysis conducted by Dear et al. (2019), the mere presence of observing eyes has been found to lead to a rise in prosocial behavior and a decrease in antisocial conduct, including dishonesty. The heightened sense of social presence brought about by greater media richness could thus enhance interviewees' perception of being watched, thereby deterring the use of deceptive IM tactics in the AVI. Overall, if applicants feel that they need to use deceptive tactics to save face

or pretend to be qualified, it might be easier to do in a lean text-based AVI as compared to a media-rich AVI with a higher perceived social presence.

Hypothesis 2. Higher perceived social presence in AVIs is associated with higher interviewee use of (a) honest self-focused IM, (b) honest other-focused IM, (c) deceptive other-focused IM, but (d) lower use of deceptive self-focused IM.

2.3. Interview Anxiety

Applicants are prone to anxiety during a job interview since it is a high-stake situation where they are evaluated (McCarthy & Goffin, 2004). Anxiety can negatively affect interview outcomes and lower the chances of getting hired. A meta-analysis by Powell et al. (2018) found a moderate negative relationship between interview anxiety and interview performance ratings (ρ = -.19). However, interview anxiety is not related to subsequent job performance (Schneider et al., 2019), and may therefore have harmful consequences for organizations seeking to hire the most qualified applicants (but likely losing qualified ones who performed poorly during the interview only because of their anxiety).

In general, AVIs may be more anxiety-provoking than face-to-face interviews or video-conference interviews, for reasons such as lack of familiarity with the technology or the absence of an interviewer to send verbal and non-verbal cues about the timing of the responses, indicating the interview is going well (Lukacik et al., 2022). Interviewees may also experience frustration and anxiety in AVIs since the asynchronous format limits opportunities to use IM and thus to perform (Blacksmith et al., 2016; Giordano et al., 2010). This might be especially true for people who are already more prone to interview anxiety (Powell et al., 2018). However, increasing perceived social presence in AVIs (through media richness re-introducing an interviewer, and

providing cues about the organization) may help alleviate some of the AVI-specific limitations discussed above.

Hypothesis 3. Higher perceived social presence in AVIs is associated with lower interview anxiety.

Research on face-to-face interviews suggests that the use of deceptive IM and interview anxiety are also related, reporting correlations ranging from .30 to .35 (Powell et al., 2021). Applicants usually decide to engage in deceptive IM when they realize that their true qualifications are not aligned with the job requirements, they perceive their real self-image to be unimpressive, or they find the interview to be difficult (Bourdage et al., 2018). All these elements can be anxiety-provoking too. Furthermore, applicants might find themselves facing a dilemma. Be honest, and possibly lose the job vs. project a falsified image of themselves and increase their chances to get the job. This could be an additional source of anxiety, besides the evaluation apprehension and feeling of not being fully qualified (Powell et al., 2021).

Hypothesis 4. Higher interview anxiety is associated with higher use of (a) self-focused and (b) other-focused deceptive IM in AVIs.

2.4. Interview Performance

A comparison of interview performance ratings across interview mediums shows that applicants receive higher ratings in face-to-face interviews than in technology-mediated interviews (Basch et al., 2021; Blacksmith et al., 2016; Melchers et al., 2021). Yet, research comparing interview performance in AVIs with other formats is scarce. Theoretically, media richness decreases from face-to-face interviews to video-conference interviews to AVIs. This is because, as noted above, AVIs are low on transparency, have a narrow social bandwidth, and lack interactivity (Basch et al., 2021; Daft & Lengel, 1986; Potosky, 2008). As such, applicants

should receive lower ratings in AVIs compared to face-to-face or video-conference interviews. However, it might be possible to improve applicant interview performance by increasing the media richness of AVIs for three key reasons.

First, a media-richer AVI will increase transparency, thus helping applicants focus their attention on interview content and effectively communicating their responses (vs. focusing on the technology mediating the interview), which can result in better performance. One explanation for the potential benefits of transparency comes from cognitive load theory (Sweller, 1994). This asserts that, when matching visual cues accompany auditory cues, information load increases but fewer cognitive resources are used (Basil, 2012). Thus, higher media richness can free up cognitive resources for the applicant to focus on producing better responses (Brenner, 2019). Second, adding videos of the interviewer asking the questions (vs. written questions) also increases the social bandwidth because the applicants receive more social (verbal and non-verbal) cues. Applicants can react to these cues (e.g., experience more positive emotions), and in turn incorporate more verbal and non-verbal cues in their responses, which can positively affect performance rating (Basch et al., 2021; Potosky, 2008). Finally, media richness may help improve the interview performance by increasing applicants' fairness perception, and especially their opportunity to perform. Generally, applicants perceive AVIs as being less fair (partly because of a lower perceived opportunity to perform) compared to face-to-face and video-conference interviews (Basch et al., 2020; Langer et al., 2018). But increased media richness may affect such perceptions by providing more interactional context, which in turn may affect applicants' motivation to perform.

Hypothesis 5. Higher media richness in AVIs is associated with higher interview performance.

Meta-analyses of the effects of IM on interview performance ratings suggest somewhat mixed results. For instance, Barrick et al. (2009) found a strong relationship between IM and interview performance ratings, although they did not distinguish between honest and deceptive IM or self-focused and other-focused IM. Peck and Levashina (2017) distinguished self-focused IM from other-focused IM and found moderate positive relationships between both self-focused and other-focused IM tactics and interview performance ratings (r = .24 and .17). Yet, they also did not differentiate between honest and deceptive IM. In a more recent meta-analysis that distinguished honest and deceptive IM, Ho et al. (2021) found a positive relationship between both self-focused and other-focused honest IM and interview performance (r = .23 and .15), but no relationship between deceptive IM and interview performance (r = .03). We thus expect to observe similar relationships in an AVI context.

Hypothesis 6. Higher use of (a) honest self-focused IM, and (b) honest other-focused IM, is associated with higher interview performance ratings in AVIs, but (c) deceptive other-focused IM, and (d) deceptive self-focused IM are unrelated to interview performance.

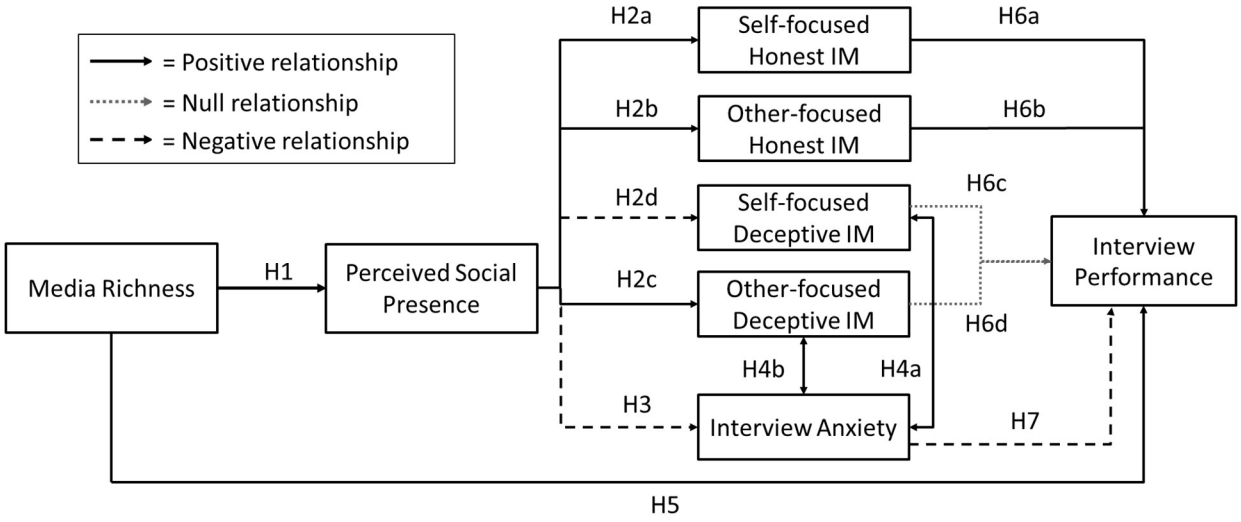
The negative effects of interview anxiety on interview performance are well-established findings in the job interview literature. In a meta-analysis, (Powell et al., 2018) found a moderate negative relationship between anxiety and performance in job interviews (r = -.19).

Hypothesis 7. Higher interview anxiety in AVIs is associated with lower interview performance.

All hypothesized relationships are summarized in the conceptual model in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Model of Hypothesized Relationships Between Study Variables



3. Method

3.1. Sample

We initially recruited 176 participants, but only 151 provided complete/usable data[1] (85 females, 65 males, 1 other; M_{age} = 28.08 years, *SD* = 10.25). English was the first language of most participants (85.4%) and 66.2% were White, 15.2% were Asian, and 18.6% were of other ethnicities. Almost all participants had previous work experience (*M* = 8.88 years) and experience with face-to-face interviews (*M* = 8.2 interviews), but only 12.5% had experience with AVIs. Sixty-two participants were students from a Canadian University, recruited to practice their job interview skills via posted notices in the university and on an internal research participation portal, in exchange for course credits. The remaining 89 participants were Canadian

[1] To explore the possibility that some of the non-significant results in our study could be attributed to limited statistical power resulting from our sample size, we performed a sensitivity analysis using G-Power. Overall, these analyses indicate that statistical power was not a major concern for our study. A summary of this information can be found in our Online Supplement.

residents recruited on the Prolific platform and paid £4. The study took 25 minutes. To motivate Prolific participants, the top 10% of best performers in the interviews received an extra £5.

3.2. Procedure

The study was conducted on a proprietary web platform specifically designed to run AVI studies, but mimicking the format used by large AVI providers. Participants were first presented with a page designed to check their microphone and camera. They read the informed consent form, a brief introduction scenario, and a job description for the position of assistant store manager at the local branch of a (real) Canadian retail store[2]. Participants were then randomly assigned to one of the three study conditions that reflected different levels of media richness (see next section). All versions of the AVI included an introduction to the company and the hiring manager (with the same content but different levels of media richness) and used the company's logos and colors, to increase realism.

Interview questions were presented to the participants immediately after the introduction. We did not measure any variable (e.g., anxiety) before the interview. The interview consisted of six questions, three past behavior questions, and three situational questions, for which participants video-recorded their responses. The interview questions were presented in an alternate order, starting with a past behavior question and followed by a situational question. Interview questions were adopted from Roulin (2022) and were assessing the following skills: organization, leadership, communication, teamwork, integrity, and handling pressure. Participants could spend as much time as they wanted to prepare their responses before starting their recording, but they only had one attempt to record their response and response length was

[2] We include all relevant research materials, including the job description, information about the company and interviewer, interview questions, all measures/items, and interview performance rating (i.e., BARS), in our online supplement.

limited to a maximum of 5 minutes per question. This was justified by the findings of Roulin et al. (2022) that more preparation time is not strongly related to IM use, but rerecording was associated with less IM use, which could be a confounding variable in this study. After answering the interview questions, applicants completed all measures (perceived social presence, interview anxiety, and IM), and provided demographic information before seeing the final feedback page which concluded the study. Videos were later rated for performance by one of the authors and a trained research assistant.

3.3. Experimental Design

We initially designed three experimental conditions with different levels of media richness and/or quality: an entirely text-based AVI, a media-rich but low-quality AVI, and a media-rich and high-quality AVI. Participants in the text-based AVI condition read a written message from the hiring manager (the regional HR manager of the company), introducing himself and the company, as well as explaining the company's values and the interview procedure. Each interview question was text-based, and participants video-recorded their answers to each question.

In the media-rich conditions, instead of a written introduction, participants watched a video of the hiring manager (a male actor) providing the same introductory content and then watched a short video of the interviewer asking each question. To mitigate potential extraneous effects, such as potential halo effects or other biases stemming from individual differences between hiring managers, we employed the same actor in both media-rich conditions. The main difference between the two media-rich versions was media quality. In the low-quality version, the videos were recorded by the actor himself, using the selfie camera of a smartphone. In the high-quality version, the introductory video also included a short official corporate video (in

addition to the same introductory content) and short videos of the hiring manager asking the interview questions. In addition, all the videos were recorded with a professional camera, in a mock company environment that included branded elements (e.g., a mug and background poster with the company logo). The scripts for both introductory videos were exactly the same, but in the low-quality version, the actor used a colloquial tone, as if talking to friends in a familiar environment while in the high-quality version, he used a more formal tone, conveying more authority and assertiveness.

The initial goal of those two different high-media richness conditions was to simulate an organization creating "cheap" vs. more professional-looking video content, two formats that employers/hiring managers might use in practice depending on their resources (e.g., time and money). However, as we describe in our results section because those two conditions were associated with equivalent levels of perceived social presence, we combined them for analyses.

3.4. Measures

Social Presence. Perceived social presence was measured using a 5-item (α = .92) scale adapted from Gefen and Straub (1997). An example item is "there was a sense of human warmth in this interview". Participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

Interview Anxiety. We used an 11-item scale (α = .90) adapted from the Measure of Anxiety in Selection Interview (MASI), developed by McCarthy and Goffin (2004). Items were slightly modified to align with the AVI context rather than a face-to-face interview (e.g., "I became so apprehensive in this video interview that I was unable to express my thoughts

clearly"). Participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

Impression Management. Participants were asked to specify their use of IM during the interview using a modified version of the short Honest and Deceptive Impression Management Scale (Bourdage et al., 2018). Some items were slightly modified to match the asynchronous situation of the interview. This scale consisted of 26 items, where participants were asked to report to what extent they used IM tactics, from 1 = *not at all* to 5 = *to a very great extent*. Eight items (α = .86) measured self-focused honest IM, by combining honest self-promotion and honest defensive IM items (e.g., "I made sure the interviewer was aware of my skills and abilities"). Four items (α = .81) measured other-focused honest IM (i.e., honest ingratiation – e.g., "I let the interviewer know about those values of the organization that I shared"). Ten items (α = .90) measured self-focused deceptive IM (i.e., relevant slight image creation, extensive image creation, and deceptive image protection items – e.g., "I exaggerated my responsibilities in my previous jobs"). Finally, 4 items (α = .83) measured other-focused deceptive IM (i.e., deceptive integration – e.g., "I complimented the organization on something, however insignificant it may actually be to me").

Interview Performance. A 5-point behaviourally anchored rating scale (i.e., BARS - ranging from 1 = poor performance to 5 = excellent performance) was developed for the evaluation of responses to each question and assessing whether the interviewee demonstrated the relevant skill. BARS are an important part of interview structure (Levashina et al., 2014), and should contribute to reducing biases, for instance based on applicant appearance or background. The interview responses were rated independently by one of the authors and a trained research assistant (a Ph.D. student in industrial/organizational psychology), and the average of two ratings

was used in analyses. Inter-rater reliability was excellent (average ICC across the six questions = .96).

4. Results

4.1. Preliminary Analyses

First, because our sample was composed of both students and Prolific respondents, we ran a series of independent sample *t*-tests to compare the two sub-samples on all study variables (see our Online Supplement). The results showed that interview performance was slightly higher for the Prolific respondents than the students, $t(149) = -2.10$, $p = .04$, $d = .35$, but there was no other significant difference between the two sub-samples for any of the other study variables. As such, we conducted all main analyses with the full sample.

Subsequently, we conducted an ANOVA to explore disparities in perceived social presence across the three media richness conditions. The results unveiled a significant impact of media richness on social presence, $F(2,148) = 15.40$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .17$. Follow-up pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni adjustments indicated that the perceived social presence in the text-based AVI condition ($M = 2.03$, $SD = .81$) was significantly lower than both the low-quality media-rich AVI condition ($M = 2.93$, $SD = .87$, $p < .001$, 95% C.I. for the difference = [-1.33, -.47]) and the high-quality media-rich AVI condition ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 1.01$, $p < .001$, 95% C.I. for the difference = [-1.24, -.37]). However, there was no statistically significant difference between the two media-rich conditions ($p = .84$). Therefore, for all the analyses, the low-quality and high-quality media-richness conditions were combined and simply called the media-rich condition (as opposed to the text-based condition). Means and standard deviations for all variables across all experimental conditions (including the two media-rich versions) are presented in Table 1. Intercorrelations for all study variables can be found in Table 2.

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations of All study Variables Across Study Conditions.

	Text-based		Low-Quality Media		High-Quality Media		Combined Media	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Social Presence	2.03	.81	2.93	.87	2.83	1.01	2.88	.94
Interview Anxiety	2.75	.87	2.37	.84	2.54	.79	2.45	.81
Self-focused Honest IM	2.84	.82	2.88	.78	2.88	.78	2.88	.82
Other-focused Honest IM	2.06	.91	2.20	.86	2.16	.90	2.18	.87
Total Honest IM	2.58	.74	2.65	.80	2.64	.72	2.65	.76
Self-focused Deceptive IM	1.67	.78	1.55	.71	1.66	.87	1.60	.79
Other-focused Deceptive IM	1.87	.74	1.82	.90	1.74	.78	1.78	.84
Total Deceptive IM	1.73	.73	1.63	.71	1.68	.80	1.65	.75
Interview performance	2.60	.79	2.95	.83	2.96	.92	2.95	.87

Note. N = 151 (51 text-based, 51 low-quality media, 49 high-quality media, 100 combined media).

Table 2.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations Among Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1. Gender	0.56	0.66	-										
2. Ethnicity	0.66	0.47	-.15	-									
3. Social Presence	2.60	0.98	-.18*	-.01	(.89)								
4. Interview Anxiety	2.55	0.84	.30**	-.14	-.23**	(.81)							
5. Self-focused HIM	2.87	0.81	-.11	.06	.17*	-.13	(.84)						
6. Other-focused HIM	2.14	0.88	-.16	.02	.32**	-.01	.57**	(.90)					
7. Overall HIM	2.62	0.75	-.14	.05	.25**	-.09	.95**	.80**	(.89)				
8. Self-focused DIM	1.63	0.78	-.10	-.02	.10	.39**	.16	.38**	.26**	(.85)			
9. Other-focused DIM	1.81	0.85	-.13	.06	.24**	.25**	.25**	.53**	.39**	.65**	(.88)		
10. Overall DIM	1.68	0.74	-.12	-.00	.16	.38**	.20*	.46**	.33**	.97**	.82**	(.92)	
11. Interview performance	2.84	0.80	.02	-.09	.17	-.13	.15	-.07	-.08	-.28**	-.22*	-28**	(.88)

Note. N = 151.; Alpha reliability coefficients are shown on the diagonal in parentheses.; Gender is coded as 1 = Female, 0 = Male; Ethnicity is coded as 1 = White, 0 = Non-White; HIM = Honest impression management; DIM = Deceptive impression management.

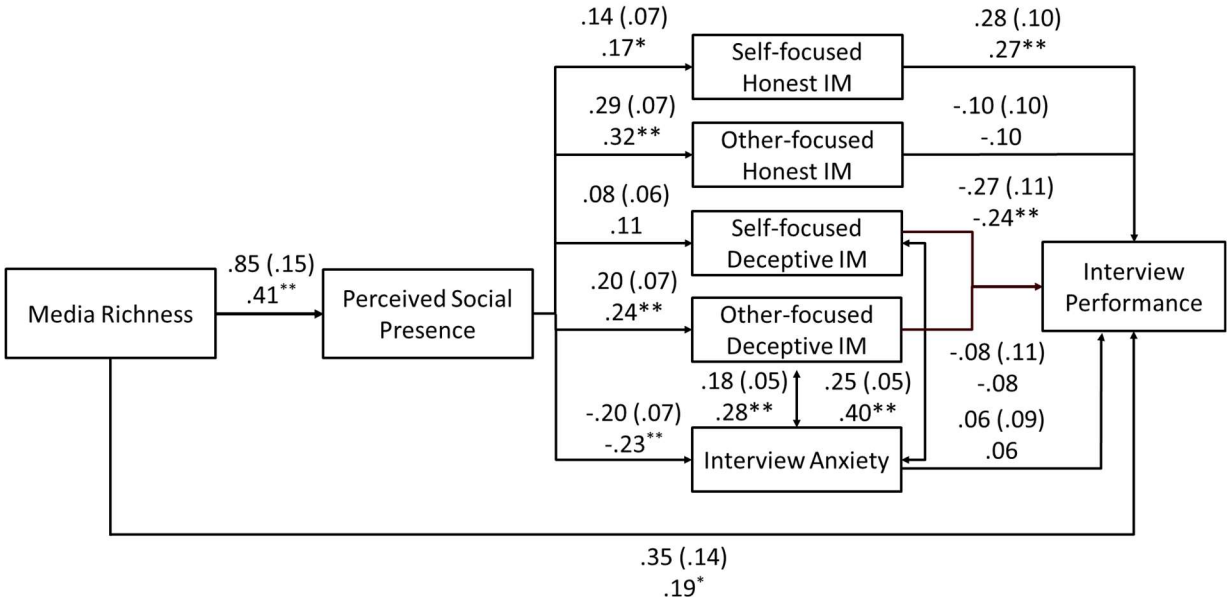
*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

4.2. Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses were tested with the path analysis presented in Figure 2[3,4], using a maximum likelihood estimator in STATA 14. The model showed an excellent fit to the data, $X^2(8, N = 151) = 11.10$, $p = .20$; RMSEA = .05; TLI = .96; CFI = .99, SRMR = .04.

Figure 2.

Path Diagram of the Standardized Effects of Media Richness on Interview Performance



[3] We also conducted Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) to investigate the measures utilized in our analyses and assess their distinctiveness. The purpose of these analyses was to examine the underlying factor structure of the measures and determine how well they align with the theoretical framework of our study. The results of the CFAs, including detailed information about model fit indices, are reported in our online supplement. For instance, they show that a 6-factor model (with anxiety, social presence, and our four IM measures - with covariances) achieved a decent fit with the data (e.g., $\chi^2/df = 1.79$; CFI = .86; RMSEA = .07) and outperformed other models.

[4] The model also includes covariances between different forms of IM, since past studies show that all forms of IM are intercorrelated (Bourdage et al., 2018). These relationships ranged from .18 (for honest self-focused IM and deceptive self-focused IM) to .64 (for deceptive self-focused IM and deceptive other-focused IM). In addition, we tested an alternative model with robust SEs. The results were largely equivalent to those presented in the manuscript, with one small exception: the path between social presence and honest self-focused IM became just non-significant (β = .17, 95% CI [-.01;.34]).

Note. Values at the top are unstandardized coefficients, with SEs in parentheses. Values at the bottom are standardized estimates. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 1 stated that an AVI with more media richness would increase interviewees' perceived social presence. The standardized direct path between media richness and social presence was positive and statistically significant (β = .41, 95% CI [.29, .54]), thus H1 was supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that when perceived social presence increases, participants would use more (a) honest self-focused IM, (b) honest other-focused IM, (c) deceptive other-focused IM, but (d) less deceptive self-focused IM. The paths were significant in the predicted direction for honest self-focused IM (β = .17, 95% CI [.01, .32]), honest other-focused IM (β = .32, 95% CI [.18, .46]), and deceptive other-focused IM (β = .24, 95% CI [.09, .39]). However, the path for deceptive self-focused IM was not significant (β = .10, 95% CI [-.06, .26]). Thus, H2a, H2b, and H2c were supported, but H2d was not.

We found support for Hypothesis 3 which proposed that higher perceived social presence would be associated with lower interview anxiety (β = -.23, 95% CI [-.38, -.07]). Hypothesis 4 predicted that higher interview anxiety would be associated with higher use of (a) self-focused and (b) other-focused deceptive IM. Both the relationships between interview anxiety and self-focused deceptive IM (β = .40, 95% CI [.27, .53]) and other-focused deceptive IM (β = .28, 95% CI [.14, .41]) were positive and significant, thus H4a and b were supported.

Hypothesis 5, which proposed that media richness would be associated with higher interview performance, was also supported (β = .19, 95% CI [.05, .34]). Hypothesis 6 predicted that higher use of (a) honest self-focused IM and (b) honest other-focused IM would be associated with higher interview performance ratings, but (c) deceptive other-focused IM and (d)

deceptive self-focused IM would have no relationship with interview performance. Consistent with H6a, the path between honest self-focused IM and interview performance was significant (β = .27, 95% CI [.09, .44]). But the path for honest other-focused IM was not (β = -.10, 95% CI [-.30, .10]), thus not supporting H6b. In addition, in contrast with H6c, deceptive self-focused IM was negatively related to interview performance (β = -.24, 95% CI [-.44, -.04]). But, consistent with H6d, deceptive other-focused IM was not (β = -.08, 95% CI [-.29, .13]). Finally, we did not find support for Hypothesis 7 that suggested higher interview anxiety would be associated with lower interview performance (β = .06, 95% CI [-.11, .22]).

4.3. Indirect Effects

Although not hypothesized, we tested the indirect effects of media richness on interview performance, interview anxiety, and IM via social presence. The results showed that media richness was indirectly related to interview anxiety (β = -.17, $p < .01$), honest other-focused IM (β = .25, $p < .01$), and other-focused deceptive IM (β = .18, $p = .02$), but we did not find any indirect relationship between media richness and interview performance or self-focused IM tactics.

5. Discussion

5.1. Main Findings and Theoretical Implications

This study aimed to investigate the role of media richness in AVIs for interviewees' reactions, behaviors, and performance. We found that increasing media richness in AVIs, by replacing text-based with video-based company introduction and interview questions effectively enhanced interviewees' perceived social presence. This finding is well in line with media

richness and social presence literature that asserts that the richness of a communication medium is positively related to users' perceived social presence (Daft & Lengel, 1986; Fulk et al., 1987).

Consistent with recent theoretical propositions (Lukacik et al., 2022), our results showed that interviewees who perceived higher social presence in their AVI engaged in more honest self-focused IM, more other-focused IM, and more deceptive other-focused IM (but not deceptive self-focused IM). Additional analyses also emphasized that our media-richness manipulation indirectly influenced other-focused IM tactics use (but not self-focused tactics), via social presence perceptions. Higher social presence can facilitate the social exchange between the interviewee and the perceived presence of the hiring manager (Basch et al., 2020; Weiss & Feldman, 2006). Our findings suggest that watching short videos of the hiring manager introducing the job and the organization (or asking interview questions) might help interviewees identify values or opinions they share with the interviewer and the organization and integrate them into their responses. They can also use the information obtained from the videos to deceptively ingratiate with the interviewer or hiring organization. Interestingly, while higher perceived social presence was also associated with higher use of self-focused IM tactics, the effects were smaller than for other-focused IM. In addition, there was no relationship for deceptive self-focused IM. As suggested by Lukacik et al. (2022), in contrast with ingratiation tactics, interviewees do not necessarily need the presence of an interviewer as a target to highlight (honestly or deceptively) their qualifications and experiences for the job they are applying for. Overall, our findings contribute to the emerging literature examining IM in technology-mediated interviews (vs. face-to-face interviews). Importantly, we measured a variety of IM tactics used by interviewees in an actual interview, whereas past work has examined IM intentions in a hypothetical interview scenario (e.g., Basch et al., 2020) or used a

general IM measure without distinguishing between honest and deceptive or self-focused and other-focused tactics (e.g., Basch et al., 2021).

We also found that the increased perception of social presence improves the AVI experience for interviewees by reducing their interview anxiety. Studies investigating the role of anxiety in asynchronous interviews are scarce, and several scholars have called for more research on interview anxiety in AVI settings (e.g., Constantin et al., 2021; Lukacik et al., 2022). Existing evidence suggests that, generally, applicants' reactions are less favorable to asynchronous vs. synchronous interviews (Basch et al., 2021). The limitations of an AVI may frustrate interviewees and escalate their interview anxiety (Langer et al., 2017). With an enhanced social presence, interviewees find a more tangible target (the social presence of the interviewer) to direct their efforts, which helps reduce the added interview anxiety that comes from the asynchronous nature of the AVIs. This finding contributes to the interview anxiety literature. For instance, Constantin et al. (2021) recently introduced the Tripartite Interview Anxiety Framework (TIAF) as a new conceptual model for interview anxiety. They incorporated cognitive, behavioral, and physiological components and highlighted the role of the applicant, interviewer, and contextual characteristics in shaping interview anxiety. But many of the elements in their model directly or indirectly depend on the existence of a live interviewer in the interview process and are not directly applicable to AVIs. Our results suggest that even though there is no live interviewer in AVIs, the perceived presence of the interviewer can still affect interview anxiety. This suggests that future research can incorporate social presence into the TIAF to extend this model to AVIs.

Our results showed that interview anxiety was associated with increased use of both self- and other-focused deceptive IM in an AVI, which is in line with previous face-to-face interview

research showing that interviewees may use deceptive IM as a way to cope with their anxiety (Powell et al., 2021). Interestingly, the effects were somewhat larger for self-focused than other-focused tactics. This could be because of the asynchronous vs. synchronous interview format. Indeed, in an AVI, without an interviewer present to directly converse with, it can be much harder (or cognitively demanding) to use other-focused IM as a coping or protective mechanism. For instance, pretending to like the interviewer or the organization, or to share their values, is likely easier in a live interaction where applicants can actively seek information from the interviewer to incorporate into their responses. Such information might be impossible to find in an AVI (or limited when a media-richer format is used).

Media richness had a direct positive effect on interview performance, which may be explained by the increased transparency in the media-rich (vs. a lean text-based) AVI, allowing interviewees to pay less attention to the technology that potentially obstructs the flow of communication (Potosky, 2008). Another reason might be that media richness widens the social bandwidth of AVIs. Incorporating videos of an interviewer offers more verbal and non-verbal social cues, which can invoke more positive emotional responses from interviewees and enhance interview performance (Basch et al., 2021; Potosky, 2008). A third way that media richness may help improve interview performance is by improving fairness perception. Applicants who have a more positive experience in selection tend to be more motivated to perform, and ultimately perform better (McCarthy et al., 2017). As such, interviewees may have perceived more opportunity to perform in media-richer AVIs, making them more motivated to perform, and thus actually performing better in the interview.

Consistent with past work in face-to-face interviews (Bourdage et al., 2018), we found a significant between honest self-focused IM use and interview performance. However, we found

no relationship for other-focused IM. This can be because we used a highly structured interview format, and we evaluated the interview performance by using a behaviourally anchored rating scale (BARS). Although using structured interview questions and BARS improves the psychometric properties of the interview (Roulin et al., 2019), it weakens the effect of IM on the performance ratings (Levashina et al., 2014). Because our raters were instructed to evaluate interviewees' performance in terms of how they demonstrated possessing job-relevant competencies, interviewees' attempts to ingratiate might have been rendered ineffective. In addition, perhaps the way interviewees apply honest IM tactics differs in AVIs vs. face-to-face interviews. As an example, when an interviewee is trying to emphasize the similarities between their values and those of the organization to a live interviewer, they can adjust the content of their responses, as well as their tone, their facial expressions, hand and body gestures, or the moments of silence and moments of emphasis based on the social cues that they receive from the interviewer. But when doing the same in front of a camera, there are no such social cues to guide the applicant in effectively adjusting their arguments. As a result, an interviewee could report using the same kind or amount of other-focused IM in both interview formats, but the difference in the quality of the tactics may be responsible for the more limited effectiveness of other-focused IM tactics in AVIs. Moreover, similar to meta-analytical evidence from face-to-face interviews (Ho et al., 2021), we found that deceptive IM use did not benefit interviewees' performance ratings. The use of self-focused deceptive was even negatively related to performance. This could be because individuals who "faked" did so when they were lacking the relevant experiences or qualifications to provide a strong response to the question based on their true credentials. As such, they might have tried to embellish or invent their qualifications, but did

that ineffectively, possibly because of the absence of feedback from the interviewer to adjust their strategies.

Finally, meta-analytical findings in the face-to-face interview literature show an average correlation of -.19 between interview anxiety and interview performance (Powell et al., 2018). This correlation was -.13 in our study. Although not statistically significant (and disappearing in our path model including IM), this relationship is in the same direction and shows that anxiety can also possibly hinder interviewees' performance in AVIs. This relationship was also similar to the one reported in a recent AVI field study (r = -.09; McCarthy et al., 2021). We also examined this relationship separately for our two sub-samples and found a relationship similar to the meta-analytic estimate for the Prolific respondents ($r(87)$ = -.21, p = .04), but no relationship for the students ($r(60)$ = 0.02, p = .87). The lack of relationship for the students could be due to the low-stakes situation. Indeed, they completed the AVI in exchange for course credits, but they knew they would receive their credit no matter their performance (i.e., we could not include a bonus component). In contrast, Prolific respondents could receive a bonus payment, equivalent to more than doubling their base compensation, if they were among the top 10% of best performers. Additionally, the student sub-sample consisted of 63% female participants whereas the Prolific sub-sample was more evenly balanced (52% female). Some studies suggest that female interviewees' performance is not hindered by interview anxiety as much as male interviewees' (Feeney et al., 2015; Powell et al., 2018).

5.2 Practical implications

Our findings highlight the benefits of media richness for some interview outcomes, such as enhanced social presence, and (indirectly) reduced applicant anxiety or honest IM. We thus recommend that hiring organizations, AVI providers, as well as AVI researchers use more

media-rich content when designing AVIs. Instead of using lean text-based questions in AVIs, a video recording of an interviewer asking the same questions could go a long way while not being very costly or time-consuming for organizations. All it requires is a good cellphone and an hour or two to record these videos. Another way to increase the media richness is to include at least one introductory video. This can involve interviewers introducing themselves, the organization, and the position they are trying to fill. Using company settings and including logos or other organizational artifacts may also help increase the professionalism of the interview in addition to media richness. However, our preliminary results did not show meaningful differences in the interview outcomes between AVIs that used professionally recorded videos and those with just a simple video taken with the selfie camera of a cellphone. Therefore, when designing an AVI if time and resources are limited, low-cost video recordings could be sufficient.

Furthermore, the consistent use of the same actor in different interview scenarios is crucial to mitigate potential unintended influences, interactions, and outcomes that may influence interviewees' AVI experience. These practical considerations hold significant importance for researchers and hiring professionals involved in the development or use of AVIs. When selecting individuals or actors presented in videos, careful attention should be paid to ensuring standardized and consistent information delivery, as well as a similar manner of asking questions. In our study, we addressed this concern by employing the same actor and utilizing similar scripts across different conditions. However, it is important to acknowledge that real-world scenarios may involve different individuals recording videos for various job roles, leading to variations in emotions and communication styles. Recognizing such inconsistencies is essential, as they can significantly impact interviewees' reactions and experiences. By advocating for consistency in the selection and presentation of actors or media-rich content, researchers and

practitioners can foster fair and reliable assessments within virtual interview settings, to minimize potential biases and optimize the effectiveness of the process.

5.3. Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study has several limitations, which highlights opportunities for future research. First, we relied on a mock interview with the student and Prolific participants, which might limit the external validity and generalizability of our findings. Additionally, although we used the name and logo of a real and well-established company (i.e., likely familiar to most participants) to increase realism, the interviewer was not really working in the company, the interview videos were not recorded on the company site, and the introductory video was not an official video of the company (but based on real promotional video clips). Applicants interviewing for an actual position might be more motivated to perform and thus engage in (deceptive) IM, or more concerned with their performance and thus experience more interview anxiety. Moreover, the absence of a notable distinction between the low-quality AVI and high-quality AVI might stem from the high-quality videos we created appearing superficial or less authentic to interviewees, as compared to the low-quality ones. Consequently, additional investigation is necessary to ascertain whether there exists a disparity in candidate responses to high-quality or low-quality videos during an actual job interview. Our findings should thus be replicated in a high-stake job interview context.

Second, we used a highly structured performance evaluation method (BARS), combined with the already-structured nature of AVIs. As noted above, this might explain the absence of significant relationships between other-focused IM and interview performance, contrary to the existing literature. However, highly structured rating scales to evaluate AVI responses might not be standard in practice. While it is aligned with interviewing best practices (Levashina et al.,

2014), many AVI providers or hiring organizations might use less standardized approaches (such as rating responses – or even entire AVIs – on a 1 to 5 stars scale). Future studies could explore whether more vs. less structured AVI rating systems influence the effect of IM (or anxiety) on performance evaluation.

Third, we only examined a few of the outcomes described in the recent model of AVI design (Lukacik et al., 2022). Future research could explore other applicant reactions or behaviors (e.g., general fairness perceptions, perceived opportunity or motivation to perform, attraction to the hiring organization) as well as organizational outcomes (e.g., AVI criterion-related validity, adverse impact). However, such research should also pay close attention to how constructs are measured in an AVI context. Indeed, while we found good internal consistency reliabilities for all our measures, and relationships between variables were comparable to past research, fit indices were only acceptable in our factor analyses when loosening some assumptions (i.e., integrating covariances between items). Future studies might benefit from measures specifically designed to capture applicant reactions or behaviors in AVIs. For instance, while we slightly adapted Bourdage et al.'s (2018) IM measures, several items still included references to the "interviewer" which might not be relevant in AVIs (especially those low on media-richness). Recent AVI studies have used more AVI-specific IM measures (e.g., Roulin et al., 2023). Similar work could be done to validate AVI-specific measures of perceived social presence or anxiety.

Fourth, integrating video content in AVIs might create interesting opportunities for organizations in terms of recruiting a diverse workforce. For instance, organizations could vary the background of the interviewer asking the questions, use multiple interviewers (who differ in terms of gender, race/ethnicity, age or disability status) across questions, or even let applicants

choose their interviewer from a selection. All this could help improve the interview experience, and ultimately attract more diverse applicants, and should be examined in future research.

Finally, we used a white male actor in his mid-thirties as the hiring manager. Research has shown that interviewees' performance and interviewers' evaluations are influenced by interviewees' demographics (e.g., gender, race, age) and the level of similarity or dissimilarity with interviewers' (McCarthy et al., 2010; Tsui et al., 1992). Further, Arseneault and Roulin (2023) showed that cultural differences between the interviewee and the evaluator could bias evaluations in AVIs. Of course, these potential negative effects could possibly be mitigated through the implementation of highly structured interviews and standardized processes (McCarthy et al., 2010; Levashina et al., 2014) and AVIs are usually structured interviews. Yet, the benefits of media-richness in AVIs describe in this study may depend on contextual factors, such as the characteristics of the hiring manager depicted in the videos. For instance, we used a White male in his thirties in our study, which may primarily benefit young White male applicants. In contrast, a young Black female applicant might have felt more at ease, and performed better, if the video included a hiring manager who shared her demographic background (e.g., a Black female). Future research could thus explore if presence of a hiring manager who is similar to the interviewee in AVI videos can potentially reduce anxiety and enhance the effective utilization of IM.

5.4. Conclusion

The popularity of AVIs as a faster and more cost-effective alternative to traditional interviews is on the rise. As Lukacik et al. (2022) suggested, it is important to improve our understanding of how different AVI design elements influence applicants' affective, cognitive, and behavioral outcomes, and accumulate evidence to better job applicants' AVI experience and

improve hiring organizations' outcomes. The present study offered preliminary insights into the potential benefits of increasing media richness for applicants' behaviors and performance in AVIs. However, more research is needed to further improve our understanding of the effects of other AVI design factors on interview outcomes.

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