JOB SEEKERS’ ACCEPTANCE TOWARDS PRODUCING VIDEO RESUMES FOR COMPANY’S RECRUITMENT

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to explore the job seekers’ acceptance towards producing video resumes for the company’s video-based recruitment. The study aims to analyse the moderating effect of self-video resumes by experienced and non-experienced applicants’ in terms of their perceived stress and coping strategies in creating the videos when applying for jobs. The quota sampling method was used to collect data from four faculties in a private university. The conceptual model was developed with constructs consisting of perceived stress, problem-focused coping, self-efficacy, self-
presentation and acceptance of video resumes. The model was validated by two-level confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Subsequently, the moderation effects between the two groups of applicants were computed to uncover different group behaviours. The perceived stress and problem-focused coping responses were found to be significantly related to self-presentations for video resumes. A direct positive relationship was also found between the applicants’ self-efficacy and their acceptance of video resumes. The results of the moderation analysis indicate a significant difference in perceived stress between groups but not in the problem-focused coping strategies.

**Keywords:** Perceived stress, problem-focused coping strategies, self-presentation, video resumes, video-based job application.

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**Introduction**

In the 1990s, the information technology (Quible, 1995) has enabled traditional paper resumes to be digitised. This allows employers a quick review of the candidate’s personality and soft skills in the selection process. The progression of online technologies to Web 2.0 has further led to the establishment of some popular Social Network Sites (SNS), such as LinkedIn, Facebook, Twitter, Yelp, Classmate.com and others (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Melanthiou, Pavlou, & Constantinou, 2015; Obar & Wildman, 2015). These SNS allow their members to share their personal and career interests in the displayed resumes or h-resumes. The H-resumes are online documents in an open micro-format suitable for embedding in Hypertext Markup Language (HTML) (Allsopp, 2007). Additionally, companies like Google and Cisco with video-sharing capabilities permit sharing recruiting videos (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Boyd & Ellison, 2007). This technological advancement is able to facilitate the next generation of recruitment and selection strategy for employers and in the near future the digitised resumes could foreseeably be replaced by video resumes (VRs) for video-based applications (Apers & Derous, 2017; Hiemstra & Derous, 2015).

Video-based applications are increasingly popular in Europe and United States (Hiemstra & Derous, 2015; Waung, Hymes, Beatty,
& McAuslan, 2015). Hiemstra and Derous (2015) compared the effectiveness of VRs with the traditional job interviews and found that the VRs are more accurate for job evaluation. Waung, Hymens and Beatty (2014) who examined the personality traits of applicants in their paper resumes (PRs) and VRs found that the selection panels were harsh in their evaluation of the applicants’ knowledge, skills and abilities in VRs than PRs. Subsequent VR studies continued to investigate the posterior effect of VRs in relation to the applicants’ behaviours and recruiters’ evaluations. For example, the YouTube video resumes were reviewed to explore the nonverbal behaviours of applicants (Nguyen & Gatica-Perez, 2016), the personality judgment of candidates in VRs (Apers & Derous, 2017), first impression of candidates for hirability in VRs presented in YouTube (Muralidhar, Nguyen, & Gatica-Perez, 2018), and the benefits of graduates to develop showcase profile LinkedIn for potential employers (Dabic, Adamovic, Suzic, & Sarac, 2019).

Reflecting on these posterior studies, hitherto, we found limited research on the understanding of the precursory behavioural characteristics of job applicants’ acceptance of VRs for company’s recruitment (cf. Waung et al., 2015; Nguyen & Gatica-Perez, 2016; Apers & Derous, 2017; Muralidhar, et al., 2018; Dabic, et al., 2019). This has not been fully explored in developing countries such as Malaysia, where video-based job applications are relatively new. Furthermore, it is still unclear whether the local job applicants would accept this form of application. We speculate that most applicants would perceive producing VR as a stressful task, in particular, if this were their first attempts. Moreover, in shooting the videos, applicants tend to be overly concerned about how recruiters would perceive their appearance (Hiemstra & Derous, 2015) and the first impression they would make on their potential employers (Wayne & Fris, 2014), as recruiters may differ in their ratings on objectification (body attractiveness) and facial attractiveness (Cristofaro, 2017). To overcome these elements of stress, it is important that job applicants hold prior experience of creating VRs. This experience will trigger individual’s reassessment of his/her self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is linked to an individual’s belief that a particular course of action can produce certain outcomes and is linked to an individual’s faith in his/her achievement or is capability and control of action (Bandura, 1977, 1986).
This control of action is pertinent to the theory of coping. Stress experienced in self-presentation is manageable if job applicants possess self-efficacy and some coping options to resolve problems encountered in video shooting (Lazarus, 1990; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Based on these factors, this study builds on the established model of acceptance (Agudo-Peregrina, Hernández-García, & Pascual-Miguel, 2014). The acceptance model originated from the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) (Davis, 1989). The behavioural intention variable in the model was excluded because the intention evaluates the actual experience of job applicants (Bagozzi, 2007). We filled the gap by exploring the precursory behavioural characteristics of job applicants’ acceptance of VRs for video-based job applications by incorporating three predictors of self-presentations, that is, perceived stress, problem-solving coping strategies and self-efficacy.

Furthermore, in relation to doing VRs, the researchers observed a common pastime activity of students (Salim, Rahardjo, Tanaya, & Qurani, 2017; Jackson, & Luchner, 2018; Omar, & Dequan, 2020) where the latter used mobile phones for self-video shooting. We perceived this phenomenon to be linked to the video self-modelling (VSM) theory (Dowrick, 1999). In video self-modelling, individuals learn self-screening by imitating desired behaviour. When the captured video is replayed, they can reflect on the positive and negative behavioural traits displayed. Constant self-shooting increases their motivation to model the desired behaviour (Dowrick, 1999; Bellini & Akullian, 2007), improves their skills, knowledge, and competence in the area. Additionally, VSM enhances self-efficacy and improves social competence of an individual (Dowrick, 1979). An implicit assumption was made that experienced users would perceive lesser stress than the non-experienced users. This study validates the assumption by analysing the differences between the two-groups of applicants by moderation of experienced and non-experienced users.

Therefore, the aim of this research is to explore job applicants’ acceptance of presenting video resumes for their video-based job applications at a company. We analysed the moderating effect of self-video shooting by the experienced and non-experienced applicants on two aspects: (i) their perceived stress and (ii) their problem-solving coping strategies and self-efficacy.
focused coping strategies in self-presentation for producing the video resumes when applying for online jobs recruitment.

**Literature Review**

*Acceptance of Video Resumes (VRs)*

In psychology, acceptance is an expression when an individual manifests assent to a situation or offer with an intention of retaining the offer (Chirelstein, 2001). In the advent of the Internet technology in the early 1990s, online recruitment was studied extensively in the area of human resource management (HRM). Among them, researchers were examining jobseekers’ acceptance behaviour of this technology (Tong, 2009; Erdogmus & Esen, 2011; Gregory, Meade, & Gregory, 2013). At that point in time, the decisions of companies to use online recruitment allowed recruiters and job applicants to communicate by emails. Applicants were permitted to upload digitised documents in plain text (ASCII), PDF or HTML (TechTarget, 2014) to the recruiters, thus shortening the recruitment cycle time and reducing costs. This recruitment process was called Recruitment 1 and comprised the static content of World Wide Web (Web 1.0) (Murray-Rust & Rzepa, 1999).

In today’s Web 2.0 online technology, companies exploit this technology application to facilitate interaction, share contents, business collaborations, and connect talents worldwide (Kluemper, Mitra, & Wang, 2016; Ladkin & Buhalis, 2016). Furthermore, with the advances of Web 2.0, social media recruitments have become options for corporate companies. For example, online applications like Facebook, *Twitter* and LinkedIn have created their own Social Network Sites (SNS) for their users (Ladkin & Buhalis, 2016). Such trends are now observable in some hospitality industries (Madera, 2012; Gibbs, MacDonald, & MacKay, 2015). These recruitment blogs allow users (employers and jobseekers alike) for branding, social networking, pooling talents, identifying skills gaps (Staples, 2015) and uploading interactive videos or video resumes (Shaw, 2015). Video resumes are digital video-taped images and messages that are linked to Web 2.0 (Shaw, 2015). This technology is built through electronic and computer systems that allow audio, video,
music, photos and media contents to physically store in computer in different files or folders. The contents of the files can be transferred online to any recipient globally (MediaDreamWiki, 2017). With advancing technology and anticipating wider influence of this trend of recruitment strategy in most corporate companies, it is evidently imperative to seek the local job applicants’ perceptions on the acceptance of video resumes for company’s video-based application. The main issue explored is whether the applicants would accept the video-based job application since it is not mandatory for the company to use this specific technology or system for recruitment. This implies that there is a plausibility the applicants would reject the video-based application (Aafaqi, Jantan, & Ramayah, 2007) since a significant number of companies in Malaysia still accept applicants’ resumes by email submission (Tong, 2018).

**Perceived Stress**

The process of video resumes preparation requires applicants to prepare script, plan setting, rehearses speech, film presentation and finally edits video. The process continues until the applicant is satisfied with the final video resume output. In the course of executing this process, the applicants are likely to experience stress. Such stress could affect an individual’s psychological and/or physiological wellbeing (Rizeanua & Teodorb, 2015). Cohen et al. (1983) termed it as perceived stress. Perceived stress is defined by the authors as the feeling of an individual’s uncontrollable and unpredictable thoughts when appraising a situation.

During the process, applicants also encounter tension in attempting to perfect their composure, speech patterns, mannerisms and appearances (Cohen, Kamarck & Mermelstein, 1983; Rizeanua & Teodorb, 2015; Waung et al., 2014). Based on the appraisal theory of emotion, if an individual perceives this as a new event, it challenges one’s motivation and coping ability (Lazarus, 1991; Smith & Kirby, 2009; Monroe & Slavich, 2016). From a psychological perspective, this new event arouses the applicant’s feelings or thoughts and the ability to handle this stress (Philips, 2013).

In establishing features of perceived stress, Lebois et al. (2016) highlighted four kinds of features that can trigger perceived stress,
such as, familiarity, imagery, realism and certainty. Among them, imagery features explained 88 percent of the variances on perceived stress. Imagery features consist of visual, auditory, motor and bodily experience (Lebois et al., 2016). They found that individuals’ stress experience and imagery features can increase the stress level if the event is new to them. This means if job applicants were asked to prepare video resumes, that could trigger their bodily experience, such as, increased heartbeat or auditory imagery and thoughts of, ‘what if people look at me as an unattractive applicant’. In this study, we used undergraduates as prospective job applicants with no experience in preparing video resumes. Here, we sought their perceptions on video resumes self-presentation and made an assumption that they are likely to experience perceived stress in self-presentation for video resumes and posited that:

$$H_1:$$ There is a significant positive relationship between the applicants’ perceived stress in self-presentation when preparing video resumes for the company’s recruitment and selection processes.

**Problem-focused Coping**

According to Lazarus (1990), it is insufficient to measure stress as a stand-alone variable without coping. When individual goes through stress, some forms of coping style is involved as contextual response. For a full dynamic understanding of the job applicants, we reviewed the theory of coping. The theory of coping is used in various fields in psychology and commonly combined with personality tests (Carver, 1997; Takagishi, Sakata, & Kitamura, 2014; Magnano, Paolillo, Platania, & Santisi, 2017). According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p.142), coping thoughts and actions are linked to specific conditions. The more specific the context or condition been identified, the easier it is for the individuals to cope with the contextual demand. However, coping is a dynamic process, and it demands different coping strategies in relation to status changes in person-environment relationship. These changes result in re-evaluation of the situations which influence the coping efforts.

The thoughts and actions of individuals coping with a specific context can be assessed either by emotion-focused or problem-focused methods. Both methods are coping potentials used as secondary
The emotion-focused coping approach determines individual’s emotional distress regulation or avoidance in a stressful event, whereas the problem-focused coping approach is linked directly to assess problem solving (Lazarus & Folkman, 1988). In general, the former is used to assess unchangeable situations and the latter for changeable situations (Lazarus & Folkman, 1988; Takagishi et al., 2014).

Applying this theory to the video resumes preparation and screening, we anticipated that applicants are able to overcome the stressful events for resumes script writing, self-presentation and editing tactics, and other unforeseeable processes to perfect the quality of video resumes. Since coping is proximally associated with this stressful event (Bartley & Roesch, 2011), applicants are likely to engage in problem-focused coping to regulate their cognitive and behavioural attempts with the aim of overcoming these interim stressful activities (Lazarus & Folkman, 1988). The emotion-focused coping is inappropriate in this situation as it involves people experiencing psychological distress, such as losing a job or loved one (Billings & Moos, 1981; Mutad, 2004). Moreover, the emotion-focused coping measures wishful thinking, distancing, self-blame, self-isolation and others (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). Video playback for review by applicants is likely to arouse dissatisfaction for the first few self-presentations of resumes. Applicants actively attempting to improve the video and are in control with stress by problem-focused coping can lead to a positive outcome (Finkelstein-Fox, Park, & Riley, 2019) of producing a good self-presentation in the VRs. In this study, we presumed that applicants are able to derive different coping solutions for resolving the problems encountered during the video shooting. Thus, we posited the following hypothesis:

\[ H_2 : \text{There is a significant positive relationship between the job applicants’ problem-focused coping strategies and self-presentation in preparing video resumes for the company’s recruitment and selection processes.} \]

**Self-Efficacy**

With the existence of social media and the use of social media for recruitment (Ladkin & Buhalis, 2016), we perceived that the
likelihood of changes in the domain of job application system will be absorbed in most developing countries. These changes are often seen as time lapse and the process may not be linear. Before the video-based application system is accepted and implemented, job applicants need to comprehend this change. At this transitional period of change, applicants must possess some degree of readiness that elicits self-efficacy for change (Andersen, 2008) in accepting this system. In this context, self-efficacy refers to individual’s self-belief and judgement that determines “how well one can execute courses of actions required to deal with prospective situations” (Bandura, 1982, p. 122). According to the theory of self-efficacy, people who perform habitual routine jobs do not judge their efficacy in repeated experiences (Bandura, 1982; Kendrick, Craig, Lawso, & Davidson, 1981). The judgment of self-efficacy, however, is only prompted whenever there are significant changes in task demands. In such a situation, people reappraise to determine how much effort they tend to expand and how long they will persist to overcome the difficulties of the task (Bandura, 1977a).

This theory was validated by Xi et al. (2017) that job search self-efficacy was linked to employability. Similarly, self-efficacy for job search intentions and outcome expectations was shown to influence applicants job search planning and job search behaviours (Fort, Jacquet, & Leroy, 2011; Guerrero & Hatala, 2015). Job search behaviour self-efficacy is also linked to job search outcome self-efficacy (Kim, Kim, & Lee, 2019) and perceived employability (Atitsogbe, Mama, Sovet, Pari, & Rossier, 2019). We associated these findings of self-efficacy to understand the job application in modern video-based application. If the applicants accept this change and challenges, and express self-efficacy, the outcomes of producing effective VR can be achieved (Bandura, 2007). Furthermore, applicants with high self-efficacy to embrace video-based application, producing VRs will be less stressful (Rafferty & Simons, 2006; Andersen, 2008). If most companies asserted video-based application system in the near future, applicants may eventually perceive VRs as the platform for enhancing their visibility and positive impressions to the recruiters (Moore & Fris, 2014). Hence, based on these justifications we conceived that self-efficacy is associated with self-regulation and acceptance of video-based job application (Andersen, 2008). For these reasons, we hypothesise the following:
H$_3$: There is a significant positive relationship between the applicants’ self-efficacy and the acceptance of video resumes for the company’s recruitment and selection processes.

**Self-Presentation**

Self-presentation is important in social life where people tend to uphold their roles or characters in formal and informal structures (Goffman, 1959). In this aspect, people are motivated to behave with the purpose of conveying information about them or to maintain an impression or image on others (Baumeister, Tice, & Hutton, 1989). Such behavioural motivation can be distinguished into audience-pleasing motive and/or for one’s own ideal self (Baugesister & Hutton, 1987).

The contributions to self-presentation theory are not exhaustive. Research from different studies and settings have led to interesting findings on self-presentation. The advents of social media and social network have revealed interesting findings on users’ self-presentation. For examples, social network users intentionally share personal profiles with friends to project their desired impression digitally (Rui & Stefanone, 2013), online daters use the digital platform to extend their social contacts and networks (Toma, et al. 2008; Lyu, 2016) and jobseekers optimise their professional profiles in LinkedIn with intention to secure opportunities for job interviews (Guillory & Hancock, 2012; Chiang & Suen, 2015). At this point, we have only observed the “static” self-presentation of users’ behaviours in the above listed platforms. However, a filmed self-presentation in video format would receive an all-new perspective on hiring recommendations from recruiters on applicants’ behaviours. Waung et al. (2015) conducted experimental study in a public university in United States and evaluated the job applicants’ self-promotion as the sub-set of self-presentation strategies. In their tests, the authors manipulated the experiments by varying jobseekers on the intensity and frequency of self-promotion statements for both genders. The results indicated that experienced recruiters and college students reacted unfavourably to female applicants who intensified the frequency of self-promotion. The results, however, showed no effect on male applicants.

This interesting study contributes to the practical knowledge on the importance of applicants’ video preparations. However, little
is known about the applicants’ reactions at the early stage of video resumes screening. Fenigstein, Schreier and Buss (1975) referred to such reaction as the public self-consciousness (PSC). People with high PSC are more aware of themselves as social objects and are concerned about public appearance (Tomarelli & Shaffer, 1985). Naturally, in self-presentations, the applicants are wary and conscious about their appearances, especially being conscious of their body and look, while capturing the video. This internal state of behaviour could affect self-presentation quality during the video shooting. At this stage, the applicants are likely to be conscious about the way they look, speak and behave during video filming. This implies that public self-consciousness is related to the behavioural regulation in self-presentation (Shim et al., 2016). Chiang and Suen’s (2015) study on online communities in LinkedIn also suggested that the improvement of self-presentation affects hiring opportunities. With this concomitant of public self-consciousness, the applicants who are overly concerned about creating a good impression on video images will find ways to overcome their apprehensions and focus on their video presentations. This is possible only if the applicants are willing to accept company’s requirement for video resumes. Thus, we can hypothesise the following:

\[ H_4: \text{There is a significant positive effect between the applicants’ self-presentation and acceptance of video resumes for the company’s recruitment and selection processes.} \]

**Moderating Effect of Experience**

Experience is an important element that has been conceived as a category for understanding learning and development (Dewey, 2008; Vygotskij, 2001 as cited in Roth & Jornet, 2014). It refers to the knowledge, skill or technique that a person learns over time (Erlich, 2003). With the advancement of Internet and mobile phone technologies, users interactively learn the knowledge and skill of using these technologies. These experiences transform and regulate the affective states of behavioural and emotional change of the users (Hassenzahl & Tractinsky, 2006). For instance, in the context of Internet and website, the experienced users tend to surf specific goal-directed information compared to the non-experienced users who tend to explore general information. This indicates that the users’ experience
plays a moderating role on their intentions of using specific websites (Castañeda, Muñoz-Leiva, & Luque, 2007). Similarly, Cooke and Sheeran’s (2004) meta-analysis reveals that experience moderated both the attitude-behaviour relationship and intention-behaviour relationship. Hence, it is evident that the individuals with experience in technology tend to be more positive in attitude and intention to utilise their ability to resolve issues between a given task and the technology (Eid & Abbas, 2017). Based on Eid and Abbas’ (2017) assertion, we assume there is a relationship between experience and management of stress in resolving issues encountered while using technology. We searched for literatures to confirm this assumption but found little study related to experience and stress except studies conducted by Maudgalya, Wallace, Daraiseh and Salem, (2006) on technology, Mollart, Skinner, Mewing and Foureur (2013) on nursing and Klassen and Chiu (2010) on teaching. These studies indicated that experience does moderate stress. With this evidence, we theorised that the applicants who have had experience in using their phones for self-video presentations would experience little or lesser stress in self-presentation than those without experience. Thus, we hypothesise the following:

H₅: There is a significant difference in perceived stress between the applicants with experience in self-video presentations and the applicants without any experience in preparing self-presentation video resumes.

Similarly, the study also found that the more experience one has, the better his/her coping ability (Maudgalya et al., 2006). In a study of students’ psychological distress, students who have the ability in coping with problems tend to manage their wellbeing better (Julal, 2013). Using problem-focused coping strategies has a promotive effect on an individual’s health when one aims to overcome the problems and stress (Xu et al., 2018). Meanwhile, Swettenham, Eubank, Won and Whitehead’s (2020) study on gender differences in tennis performance stress and coping found that the male players experienced more performance stress in competition and physical stress in practice and they utilised more problem-focused coping strategies than the female players. Thus, these studies provide relevant cues on the importance of utilising the problem-focused coping strategies in dealing with situations that are stressful. Hence, we can hypothesise that the
experienced group is likely to have better engagement in problem-focused coping strategies than the non-experience group:

\[ \text{H}_6: \text{There is a significant difference in problem-focused coping strategies between the applicants with experience in self-video presentations and the applicants with no experience in preparing the self-presentation video resumes.} \]

**Methodology**

**Sample and Data Collection**

In this study, the quota sampling method was used. In the quota sampling, the researchers would ensure that certain characteristic or traits of a population sample of the sub-group of great interest would be represented to the exact extent in the study (Acharya, Prakash, Saxena, & Nigam, 2013). Quota sampling data collection procedure is a combination of convenience and judgement (Sakdeo, 2020). There are two quota controls chosen in this study (Yang & Banamah, 2014). Using this guide, the participants’ gender was first fixed at 50 percent for each gender as the first stratum. The participants were divided into two groups comprising male and female groups. The division of second stratum consisted of Group A participants with experience in presenting self-videos using their mobile phones and Group B consisted of participants without self-video shooting experience (Neuman, 2006; Yang & Banamah, 2014). In these samples, both groups did not have any experience in preparing the video resumes. The sample size of 200 participants was planned, and this sample size is sufficient for analysis, in relation to the number of constructs in the framework (Iacobucci, 2010).

The questionnaires were distributed by hand to undergraduate students from four faculties in a private university in Melaka, Malaysia. The students’ participations were voluntary and the data were collected with the help of a research assistant. To ensure the eligibility of the participation and the relevancy to the topic of interest, the research assistant asked the students two screening questions before issuing them the questionnaires. First, the students were asked whether they had any experience in video resume
preparation. If the answer is, ‘No’, the research assistant would probe another question on whether they were interested to participate in the survey. If there was no objection to participating in the survey, the students were given the self-reporting questionnaires to answer. The duration for data collection lasted about two weeks. All data collected were checked and validated to ensure that there were no missing data and the participants were given tokens of appreciation for their willingness to be involved in the study.

**Survey Instrument**

Part A of the self-reporting questionnaire consists of participants’ gender, age, ethnicity, academic, faculties, ethnicity, and self-video shooting experienced/no experience. The questions in Part B are related to the constructs of perceived stress (PS), Problem-focused coping (PFC) strategies/mechanisms, self-presentation (SP), self-efficacy (SE) and acceptance of video resumes (A).

**Measures**

**Perceived Stress Scale.** Five perceived stress statements from Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) were adapted from Cohen et al. (1983). For example, the participants were asked to respond to the questions like ‘In the last month, I have too many things to do’; I fear I may not manage to attain my goal’, and the extent to which the item was scored using a four-point scale where rank of “1” indicates “almost never” to “4” usually”.

**Problem-focused Coping Strategies.** For testing Problem-focused Coping Strategies, questions were adapted from the revised statements of Vitaliano, Russo, Carr, Maiuro, and Becker’s (1985) study derived from The Way of Coping Checklist (WCCL) (Aldwin, Folkman, Shaefer, Coyne & Lazarus, 1980). WCCL used five (5) subscales, but in this study, we adopted questions designed specifically for testing problem-focused coping strategies. For example, the participants would complete the items, ‘I would concentrate on something good that could come out of the whole thing’; ‘I intend to make a plan of action and followed it for the video shoot’. This subscale used a four-point Likert scale (0 = does not apply and/or not used; 3 = used a great deal).
**Self-presentation.** The Public Self-consciousness construct from Self-consciousness Scale was adapted for Self-presentation (Fenigstein, et al. 1975). For example, ‘I am concerned about the way I present myself’; ‘I am usually worry about making a good impression’. A four-point Likert Scale was used (1= Extremely Uncharacteristic to 4 = Extremely Characteristic).

**Self-efficacy.** Next, to measure Self-efficacy construct, we adapted Sherer et al’s (1982) General Self-efficacy Scale. For example, ‘When I make plans for the video resumes, I am certain I can make them work’; ‘If I can’t do video resumes the first time, I keep trying until I can’. This scale used four-point Likert scale (1 = Not at all true to 4 = Exactly true).

**Acceptance of video resume.** Lastly, the Acceptance Scale was operationalised from relevant literatures (Anderson, 2008; Bagozzi, 2007; Erdogmus & Esen, 2011). The items consist of, ‘I am willing to accept video resume if it is asserted by company’; ‘I am willing to accept video resume if I perceive its value of employer observing me my confidence in self-presentation’. A five-point Likert scale was used with 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree with the aim to predict the participants’ willingness to accept video resumes. The contents of the acceptance statements were validated by two internal human resource professors.

**Analysis Procedure**

The demographic profile was first analysed using the IBM Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 24. In computing the structural equation modelling (SEM), the IBM SPSS analysis of moment structures (AMOS) version 23 was used. The items in the SEM consisted of the exogenous and endogenous constructs and these items were confirmed by first-order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Those items with standardised regression weights (SRW) less than 0.5 were deleted. In the second-order CFA, the specified constructs that formed the research framework were analysed (see Figure 1) (Hair et al. 2010). In this research, AMOS was opted because the covariance facility for the perceived stress, problem-focused coping strategies and self-efficacy were needed for the analysis.
**Moderation and Bootstrapping**

Moderation between groups differences are commonly used in social science studies (BarNir, 2012; Gonzalez-Mulé, DeGeest, & Mount, 2013). In this study, however, we chose to use the moderation method using two groups comprising one group with experience in using their mobile phones for self-video shooting and the other group without such experience.

The two groups of participants are equivalent in regard to their characteristics (with the exception of experience in video shooting). Group A (experienced) and Group B (with no experienced) in pastime self-video shooting were analysed as dichotomous variables with dummy variables (1=Group A; 0=Group B). This analysis explains whether the path model is consistent and has an interaction across two groups (Cohen et al., 2003). That is, the outcome will indicate the effects of the two cohorts’ directions and/or strength of the exogenous relationships with the endogenous variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986) and using the chi-square difference and degree of freedoms. The percentage of confidence between group differences is also determined. Moderation between groups helps to uncover different groups' behaviours in perceived stress and problem-focused coping strategies in video recording of selves (Ng, Ang, & Chan, 2008).

The bootstrapping method allows re-sampling of the derived sample as conceptualised pseudo-population that represents a broader population so that the strength of the moderation effect can be
assessed (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). In the output of the AMOS programme, the bootstrapping was pre-set to 2000 samples with 90 percent bias-corrected confidence level.

Results

Participants

Table 1 shows the participation rate of 200 students in the survey (50% male, 50% female). The group with experience in preparing self-video presentations consisted of 48 percent male and 52 percent female students. On the other hand, non-experienced group sample consisted of 52 percent male and 48 percent female participants.

Table 1

Demographic Profile and Percentage based on 200 Participants

| Profile of participants      | Percentage (%) |
|------------------------------|----------------|
| Gender                       |                |
| Male                         | 50             |
| Female                       | 50             |
| Age (Mean=1.89, SD=0.624)    |                |
| 17-20                        | 25             |
| 21-24                        | 61.5           |
| 25-28                        | 13             |
| 29 and above                 | 0.5            |
| Ethnicity (Mean=1.99, SD=0.437) |                |
| Malay                        | 10             |
| Chinese                      | 81             |
| Indian                       | 9              |
| Academic (Mean=1.92, SD=0.280) |                |
| Diploma                      | 8.5            |
| Degree                       | 91.5           |
| Business & Management        | 6              |
| Law                          | 13             |
| Engineering                  | 13.5           |
| IT                           |                |
| Self-video shooting experience | Yes  Male=48; Female=52  |
|                              | No  Male=52; Female=48  |

Source: Researcher’s data (2018)

The highest number of participants belonged to the age range of 21 to 24 (61.5%) and the lowest age group in the age range of 27 and above
Most participants (N=135) belonged to the Faculty of Business (67.5%), followed by 27 students from the faculty of IT (13.5%), 26 from the Faculty of Engineering (13%), and 12 students from the Faculty of Law (6%). The ethnic distribution of the participants was recorded as 162 Chinese (61.5%), followed by 20 Malays (10%), and finally 18 Indians (9%).

**Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Analyses**

After the first-order CFA, 7 items were deleted due to the standardised regression weight (SRW) less than 0.5. The perceived stress construct has two items deleted, problem-focused coping strategies, two items, Self-efficacy, one item, Self-presentation one item and Acceptance was one item being deleted. The remaining 18 valid items from all the five constructs were treated as latent constructs in the second-order CFA. During the CFA computation, the indicators with high errors that appear in the same constructs were modified using the modification indices.

**Table 2**

**Goodness-of-Fit Test**

| Fit        | Value | Fit        | Value |
|------------|-------|------------|-------|
| CMIN/DF    | 1.584 | df; p      | 111; 0.000 |
| Pratio     | 0.816 | TLI        | 0.942 |
| CFI        | 0.953 | SRMR       | 0.0634 |
| RMSEA      | 0.054 | Pclose     | 0.313 |

This method allows the covariance of the error terms to be linked to improve the model fit (Arbuckle, 2011). The outcome from the analysis indicates the model fit values for the 4 constructs. The fit values of $\chi^2=175.82$, (df)=111, $\chi^2$/df=1.584 and p=0.000, with TLI=0.942, CFI=0.953, SRMR=0.0634 and RMSEA=0.054 suggested a good model fit (MacCallum, Brown, & Sugawara, 1996). This model meets all the threshold values of a good fit model. Furthermore, the standardised variables as predicted by the residuals have a mean of zero and standard deviation of one. These standardised residuals fall between the threshold values of ± 2 at 95 percent confidence and any residuals
outside of this threshold imply presence of outliers (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006; Byrne, 1989). In this model, there is no violation of this limit.

**Reliability and Construct Validity**

The four constructs in the model have good construct reliabilities of 0.834 for PS, 0.826 for CR, 0.784 for C, 0.852 for SP, and 0.856 for A exceeding the minimum threshold value of 0.7 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). The variance extracted (VE) values showed a convergent validity score above 0.5 for all constructs with measures of PS (0.63), SC (0.61), C (0.56), SP (0.59), and AVR (0.6). This indicated an adequate convergence of the construct (Hair et al., 2010, p. 709).

**Table 3**

Internal Consistencies, Construct Reliability, Correlations and AVE of the Constructs

| Construct                        | Mean | S.D  | CR   | VE  | PS  | SE  | PSC | SP   | A   |
|----------------------------------|------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|-----|
| Perceived Stress (PS)            | 3.5  | 0.96 | 0.834| 0.63| 0.79|
| Self-efficacy (SE)               | 3.44 | 0.8  | 0.826| 0.61| -0.34**| 0.78|
| Problem-focused coping (PFC)     | 3.66 | 0.61 | 0.784| 0.56| -0.184**| 0.476**| 0.75|
| Self-presentation (SP)           | 3.95 | 0.66 | 0.852| 0.59| 0.169| 0.167*| 0.162*| 0.77|
| Acceptance (A)                   | 3.71 | 0.67 | 0.856| 0.6  | -0.194**| 0.696**| 0.451**| 0.293*| 0.77|

Notes. CR is the construct reliability. The diagonal values in bold represent the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) between constructs and their measures. The off-diagonal values are the correlations between the constructs. The diagonal values higher than the off-diagonal values in the
same row and column indicate discriminant validity. Variance extracted (VE) values greater than 0.5 indicate convergent validity. The correlation value is significant at *p<0.05; **p<0.01 (2-tailed).

**Conceptual Model**

In this study, the hypotheses $H_1$ to $H_4$ for the model were found to have significant positive relationships between constructs, indicating all the hypotheses were accepted. In $H_1$, the result indicated a positive relationship between perceived stress (PS) and self-presentation (SP) with statistical significance of $p=0.008$ and an estimate of 0.177. Its standardised regression weight (SRW) was 0.245. For $H_2$, the problem-focused coping (PFC) was also found to have positive significant relationship with SP, with an estimate of 0.382, p-value of 0.003 and SRW of 0.308. The squared multiple correlations (SMC) for these two constructs were 0.111, indicating the predictors of perceived stress and problem-focused coping strategies were at 11.1 percent of its variances.

**Table 5**

**Results of Hypothesis Testing**

| Constructs | Estimate | SE  | P     | Hypotheses | SRW | SMC |
|------------|----------|-----|-------|------------|-----|-----|
| $H_1$ Self-presentation $\leftarrow$ Perceived stress | 0.177 | 0.092 | 0.008 | $H_1$ = S | 0.245 | 0.111 |
| $H_2$ Self-presentation $\leftarrow$ Problem-focused coping | 0.382 | 0.130 | 0.003 | $H_2$ = S | 0.308 |
| $H_3$ Acceptance $\leftarrow$ Self-efficacy | 0.535 | 0.075 | *** | $H_3$ = S | 0.797 |
| $H_4$ Acceptance $\leftarrow$ Self-presentation | 0.217 | 0.062 | *** | $H_4$ = S | 0.240 | 0.734 |

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001.

SE – Standard error; S – Significant; NS – Not significant; SRW – Standardised regression weight; SMC – Squared multiple correlations

Similarly, for $H_3$, the estimate for the self-efficacy (SE) and acceptance (A) of video was 0.535 with p-value of 0.000 and SRW of 0.797. Lastly, for $H_4$, the relationship estimate for SP and A was 0.217 ($p = 0.000$) with SRW of 0.240 and SMC of 0.734. This indicates that the predictor
of self-presentation on acceptance of video resumes was at 73.4 percent of its variances.

**Moderation between Groups**

The moderation results for Group A with self-video shooting experience has an estimate of negative 0.096 (p = 0.234) and an estimate of negative 0.539 (p = 0.001) for Group B.

Table 6

**Moderation between Groups**

**Respondents with Experience in Self-Video Shooting (Group A)**

| Constructs                         | Estimate | SE  | p value    | SRW  | R-square |
|------------------------------------|----------|-----|------------|------|----------|
| H₅ Self-presentation --- Perceived Stress | -0.096   | 0.08| 0.234 (ns) | -0.158 | 0.327    |
| H₆ Self-presentation --- Problem-focused Coping | 0.762    | 0.316| 0.016 (s)  | 0.595  |          |

**Respondents without Experience in Self-Video Recording (Group B)**

| Constructs                         | Estimate | SE  | p value    | SRW  | R-square |
|------------------------------------|----------|-----|------------|------|----------|
| H₅ Self-presentation --- Perceived Stress | 0.539    | 0.166| 0.001 (s)  | 0.639 | 0.224    |
| H₆ Self-presentation --- Problem-focused Coping | 0.722    | 0.276| 0.009 (s)  | 0.539 |          |

Chi-square thresholds (verifying group differences)
H₅ Perceived Stress to Self-presentation: Chi-square = 540.954 (99% confidence there are groups differences)
H₆ Problem-focused Coping to Self-presentation: Chi-square = 526.926 (<5.29.32 – there are no group differences)

Notes:
1) *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001. 2) SE – Standard error; S – significant; NS – not significant
2) Chi-square = 529.32 (90% confidence); 530.48 (95% confidence); 533.27 (99% confidence)

The moderation effect was confirmed by the chi-square difference test. The results of chi-square difference test indicated 99 percent
confidence with a group difference in the perceived stress between groups in video resumes of self-presentations. This validates that $H_5$ was accepted. In contrast, the moderation results for both groups, although indicated a significant p-values indicated that there is no group difference in problem-focused coping strategies on self-presentation (as revealed by the chi-square difference results). This means $H_6$ was not accepted.

**Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to explore the job seekers’ acceptance of video resumes for the company’s video-based job application. The study also sought to understand the antecedents of job applicants’ perceived stress, problem-focused coping strategies on video resume self-presentation and self-efficacy on the acceptance of video resumes. Moreover, we analysed the moderating effect between the two groups of experienced and non-experienced participants’ pastime self-video shooting. The findings are presented below.

Based on quota sampling, the results revealed that the self-video shooting by the experienced and non-experienced groups were fairly and evenly represented for each group. The applicants did perceive stress in the process of self-presentation for video resumes. In particular, we found that they were likely to experience difficulties in preparing an effective video resume. As expected, stress seems like a natural occurrence to individuals preparing for the video resumes. According to Yerkes-Dodson’s law, there is a relationship between performance and stress (Anderson, 1976; Yaniv & Vitouch, 2004). While stress can be induced from the difficulty of preparing self-presentation for VRs, it arouses job applicants’ attention and interest and generally increases their performance (Anderson, 1976). These findings are consistent with Lebois et al’s (2016) research on imagery features affecting perceived stress.

Similarly, the problem-focused coping strategy was found to be significantly related to self-presentation. This means applicants who attempt to resolve problems encountered during video shooting by employing coping strategy are likely to improve their self-presentation in presenting VRs. According to the appraisal theory of emotion, coping is an important aspect of secondary appraisal,
especially when applicants are deploying problem-focused coping strategies. One of the problem-focused coping items specified was that the applicants intended to concentrate on making things right. This means that they are able to derive few satisfactory solutions or to get things right to ensure that their video resumes are acceptable. This finding is congruent with Lazarus’ (1991) and Smith and Kirby’s (2009) studies. However, problem-solving coping strategies for self-presentation is manageable up to a moderate stress level. At a higher stress level, the coping mechanism declines due to the applicant’s over-concentration on emotion (Anderson, 1976). In addition, when individuals have adequate self-presentation and coping experience in difficult situations, they are able to work with their emotions (Miklosikova, Malcik, & Vaclavik, 2020). The relationship between self-efficacy of applicants’ acceptance of video resumes was also found to be significant. This positive relationship indicated applicants’ motivation affect performance (Bandura & Locke, 2003; Tim et al., 2014). We found that applicants were ready to accept the challenges of producing video resumes for video-based applications. In the context of performance, applicants were confident to have sufficient resources for preparing effective resumes and were likely to perceive the chances to express themselves better in this form of resumes in self-presentation. Overall, the findings present some implications that are worthy to be considered for contribution to theory. Based on the theoretical justifications of using the appraisal theory of emotion, the two predictors of perceived stress and problem-focused coping on self-presentation were developed as part of the framework. This study contributes to the aspects of primary and secondary appraisals (Lazarus, 1991). This implies that applicants who are unfamiliar or “new” to the video resumes production would engage in both of these facets of appraisals. More so, when they encounter problems during the video resumes shooting and are trying to improve it.

Furthermore, in the analysis of moderating effect between those with experience in recording videos for selves and without such experience on the perceived stress on self-presentations, we found that the former has a negative but non-significant estimate compared to the significant estimate for the latter. The non-significant result suggests that there is no difference in perceived stress and self-presentation.
This means the experienced group has little or lesser stress compared to the group with no experience. Therefore, self-video shooting experience using mobile phone did provide the mechanism of stress-buffering effect that enables applicants to handle stress better (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Presumably, when both groups are accustomed with the process of video resume preparations over time, their stress level would reduce significantly. According to Finkelstein-Fox et al. (2019) the reductions in perceived stressfulness may reduce the negative effect of reactivity and facilitate engagement with positive experiences. This implies people who acquired experience from a reflective level of consciousness are likely to use this experience for future actions (Galla, & Wood, 2015).

In contrast, the Chi-square results indicated there were no group differences between the problem-focused coping strategies for self-presentations. This means that both the experienced and the groups with zero experience in producing good quality VRs faced some difficulties in problem-focused coping strategies for self-presentations. Overall, we perceived that the model can be adopted for future study.

**Contribution to Theory**

The applications of Web 2.0 are diverse and such technology enables users to experience real time interaction (Banerjee & Gupta, 2019) which is connected to the Web rather than personal computers (Yoo & Huang, 2011). The search for understanding the acceptance of new online technology enabled by the Web 2.0 and its antecedents are becoming more complex than ever (Agudo-Peregrina et al., 2014). This study contributes to the knowledge of the applicant’s acceptance of video resumes by overcoming the perceived stress and implementing problem-solving coping strategy for self-presentation. Moreover, since coping was found to covary with self-efficacy and applicants’ self-efficacy was directly linked to acceptance of VR, this implies that applicants’ self-belief and judgement determines the confidence of preparing VRs and how much effort they tend to expend for a quality VR production. The findings also contributed to Lazarus’ (1991) appraisal theory of emotion. Furthermore, the two theories were verified in this study, the self-presentation theory in video resumes settings (Goffman, 1959; Baumeister et al., 1989) and the theory of video self-modelling theory (Dowrick, 1999). This implies that selecting the appropriate theories for the antecedents
in support of the main underpinning theory of acceptance of new technology (Davis, 1989) is critical as it shapes a better understanding of how and why the applicants would accept the companies’ video-based job applications.

**Contribution to Practice**

The study contributes to the practices for job applicants’ preparation of video resumes in preparation for a company’s video-based job applications. For first-time applicants who are attempting the video resumes preparation and recording, it is recommended that they prepare the scripts and rehearse it in front of the mirror for several times before the actual video was created. This practice will boost the confidence of applicants and lessen the perceived stress. Alternately, if the applicants perceive a tense video shooting situation and are concerned about how other people would view them, they should seek for significant others’ feedback on the video resumes. Receiving feedback is more likely to boost applicants’ confidence in self-presentation (Powell & O’Neal, 1976; Goettea, Bendahanb, & Thoresenb, 2015). In addition, if applicants have little or no experience in self-video recording, it is suggested that they should optimise the use of the mobile phones video feature by recording singing, acting, TikTok recording, and other activities. Familiarising oneself with any of these activities would improve the self-efficacy and self-presentation of video resumes. This study also contributes to the practices for Human Resources managers and Organisational Psychologists to unlearn and relearn the selection processes to improve the hiring practices for company’s adopting video-based applicants. The aim is to ensure that these professionals are able to identify the right talents from the submission of applicants’ video resumes.

**Limitations and Future Study**

There are few limitations worth highlighting. We are aware that the sample size was sufficient for this study (Hair et al., 2010) and the study only focused on the perspectives of students from a local private university. These groups of students are not representatives of the undergraduates in other universities and the findings are not generalisable. However, the data provided some indications of
students’ acceptance of the company’s video-based applications. At this juncture, the conceptual model has yet to be further tested in other Malaysian university graduates and the jobseekers. Moreover, this study excluded the legal perceptions of VRs and how recruiters would perceive the objectification of body and facial attractiveness of the applicants (Cristofaro, 2017). Future study should consider using experimental research on these factors to measure the actual stress level of applicants during video shootings. This will provide recruiters with better understanding of forming effective judgements on the applicants.

Conclusion

In this paper, we have introduced the conceptual framework of acceptance of a company’s video-based job application used in the study. The framework was rooted from the acceptance model. The predictor variables consisted of the perceived stress, problem-focused coping strategies, self-efficacy and self-presentation. While the video-based job applications in Malaysia is fairly new among the companies, the acceptance is still unclear. Our study reveals that the perceived stress and problem-focused coping responses were significantly related to the self-presentation for video resumes. In addition, the applicants’ self-efficacy of job applicants has a direct positive relationship with the acceptance of video resumes for a video-based job application. In the moderation analysis, the applicants with experienced in mobile phones self-video shootings were more confident in preparing the video resumes. Interestingly, some applicants perceived video resumes as being better platform to impress the recruiters.

In countries where video-based job applications are new, recruiters are likely to have little or no experience in video resumes screening and selection of the candidates. Recruiters who lack the experience in evaluation would bear the risks of misinterpreting potential applicants’ characteristics to job- or organisational fit. When resumes become visual, recruiters may have the tendency to discriminatory practices, such as prioritising the physical attractiveness and minority applicants, hence resulting in poor and bias selection. In this regard, companies intended to adopt the video-based recruitment system should derive standardised criteria of selection and train their recruiters on the assessment of traits and KSA displayed in VRs to
prevent bias judgment of the prospective. Furthermore, with the advances in Web 2.0 online technology there may be a growing adoption of this technology by companies to incorporate the video-based applications as their long-term recruitment strategy. Thus, it is important to elicit the perceptions of applicants’ acceptance of video resumes. Knowing the applicants’ perceptions in advance would facilitate companies to consider incorporating the video-based application system into the human resource management system and probably an artificial intelligence selection system in future.

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