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Full length article

The role of organizational identification and the desire to succeed in employees’ use of personal twitter accounts for work

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to develop a better understanding of the potential drivers of personal social media use for work and the work-related information employees share through these platforms. This is important given both the increased use of social media as a form of self-presentation and the potential organizational consequences of workers’ online knowledge and information sharing behaviors. The results draw upon a multi-method design combining survey data with content analysis data of workers’ personal Twitter accounts. Findings indicate that organizational identification and a desire to succeed are related to the sharing of two distinct types of work-related content on social media: Organizational information sharing and professional information sharing. This research extends our understanding of how workers might use social media to communicate to audiences in different ways, and how this activity is related to their perceived relationships to organizational and professional groups.

1. Introduction

Recently, scholars have noted that participation on personal social media platforms includes active communication by working professionals (Cao, Guo, Vogel, & Zhang, 2016; Leftheriotis & Giannakos, 2014; Moqbel, Nevo, & Kock, 2013; Ollier-Malaterre, Rothbard, & Berg, 2013; Van Zoonen, van der Meer, & Verhoeven, 2014; Van Zoonen, Verhoeven, & Vliegenthart, 2016a). For instance, recent research found that eight in every ten employees with a personal Twitter account used the account to share work-related information (Van Zoonen et al., 2016a), and two out of three employees use social media to conduct work-related activities (Leftheriotis & Giannakos, 2014). Though scholarship has noted the increased intersection of social media use and professional life, little is known about what motivates work-related social media activity or the specific nature of these practices. Given that the use of social media by workers is associated with a number of potential social consequences for individuals including influencing job performance (Charoensukmongkol, 2014; Leftheriotis & Giannakos, 2014; Moqbel et al., 2013), employee wellbeing (Van Zoonen, Verhoeven, & Vliegenthart, 2016b), knowledge sharing, and the development of social capital in organizations (Cao et al., 2016; Fulk & Yuan, 2013; ), it is important to develop a better understanding of the potential drivers of the use of personal social media accounts for work.

This study examines employees’ personal Twitter accounts for several reasons. First, though Twitter is commonly used for self-expression and self-disclosure (Choi & Bazarova, 2015; Orehek & Human, 2017), personal Twitter accounts are frequently utilized to share work-related information (Van Zoonen et al., 2016a). Second, the unidirectional connections on Twitter make this channel accessible to a broad audience (not necessarily limited to individuals’ own social and professional networks). Third, information on Twitter is public-by-default and private-through-effort (Marwick & Boyd, 2011), making Twitter an effective channel for open communication among employees, organizations and other stakeholders (Schultz, Utz, & Göritz, 2011). Fourth, personal social media use is a context in which individuals are likely to have more control over the nature of participation relative to intra-organizational social media use, where management can shape what technology is accessible to whom. Because social media content is often visible beyond individuals’ personal networks, it serves as a useful channel for employees to share their knowledge or opinions with a broad audience (Cao et al., 2016).

A recent study by Gallup Inc. (2017) noted the importance of social media for employers in locating, attracting, and retaining employees: “Employers can use social media to locate experienced employees in minutes” (p. 6). Social media allows people to share opinions and give feedback about their past or current employers through multiple outlets and often without any filter or restrictions. And as consumers of the workplace, employees are “shopping” these channels. When looking for

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opportunities, job seekers turn to family and friends, as well as a company’s current employees (cf. Gallup Inc. p. 34). This study provides insights into the specific information employees share about their work on these social media platforms and why they choose to do so.

Research on the antecedents of social media use in the workplace has devoted considerable attention to (social) identification processes (e.g., Erhardt & Gibbs, 2014; Fieseler, Meckel, & Ranzini, 2015; Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013). Numerous studies suggest that social media is driven by impression management motivations (e.g., Erhardt & Gibbs, 2014; Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013; Van Dijck, 2013). These self-disclosing behaviors help individuals pursue strategic and interpersonal goals (Bazarova & Choi, 2014). However, as members of organizations and professional groups employees might engage in different types of work-related information sharing on social media to achieve either individual professional goals or to contribute to collective organizational goals. This research explores what potentially drives different forms of work-related information sharing, and specifically argues that social media activity for work is driven by a desire to succeed professionally and by social identification processes.

These relationships are examined using a multi-method approach combining content analysis data on employees’ tweets sent from their personal Twitter accounts with survey responses to questions related to the desire to succeed and identification. Using content analysis data this study advances our understanding of the widespread yet poorly understood online sharing of work related information in contemporary organizations. Conversely, through the unobtrusive analysis of behavior by means of content analysis, and linking these data to employees’ survey responses, this study also addresses recent calls to start using social media data in mixed method approaches to better understand its use in organizational contexts (Leonardi & Vaast, 2017; McKenna, Myers, & Newman, 2017).

2. Theory
2.1. Use of social media for work

Research on social media in the context of work has predominantly focused on the use of enterprise social media (ESM) (e.g., Gibbs, Rozaidi, & Eisenberg, 2013; Ellison, Gibbs, & Weber, 2015; Leonardi, Huysman, & Steinfeld, 2013). This work found that individuals have a variety of motives for using social media including networking with colleagues, facilitating career advancement, and promoting projects (DiMicco et al., 2008). Because the context of this extant research is focused inside of organizations, questions are commonly interested in the implications of social media use for information sharing or the development of workplace relationships (Cao et al., 2016; Fulk & Yuan, 2013; Kane, 2017; Leonardi, 2015; Leonardi & Meyer, 2015). Within internal contexts, workers make decisions about engaging in social media largely in terms of the anticipated perceptions and behaviors of other organizational members (Gibbs et al., 2013; Treem, 2015). However, professionals also participate actively on personal social media communicating with a broad and diverse (imagined) audience (Litt, 2012) beyond coworkers and internal audiences (Skeels & Grudin, 2009). Indeed, it is common for individuals to have social networks on social media that include both personal and professional contacts (Fieseler et al., 2015).

The communication by workers on personal social media in terms of content, scope, and purpose is potentially expansive. The idea of potential vieship among internal audiences and the associated consequences largely influences the choices individuals make regarding what to share on social media and how visible to make this activity to others. In other words, what drives specific work-related communications on personal social media likely depends on what (imagined) audience employees have in mind (Litt, 2012; Marwick & Boyd, 2011).

It has been noted that disclosure of information (especially in the workplace) fulfills fundamental needs for belonging and connectedness, but also carries risks of vulnerability, information loss, and losing control over the information that is shared (Bazarova & Choi, 2014). This suggests that disclosure decisions and strategies reflect a balance of conflicting needs aimed at obtaining the goal or function of disclosure. Thus, according to the functional theory of self-disclosure, disclosure goals or subjective reasons for disclosing information activate a decision-making process that shapes the content that is shared (Bazarova & Choi, 2014; Choi & Bazarova, 2015). Hence, if we want to understand employees’ work-related information sharing on social media we need to identify the major sources of value that disclosing professional information has for employees. Depending on the imagined audiences these sources of value could relate to self-expression (e.g., showcasing individual knowledge, achievement or performance), identification (e.g., disclosing information about one’s identity such as group membership), or social control disclosure (e.g., strategically share information to obtain social outcomes and resources).

2.2. Identification and worker social media use

Many studies, have examined the role of impression management and identification on sharing information on social media in organizational contexts (e.g., Erhardt & Gibbs, 2014; Fisher, Boland, & Lyytinen, 2016). For example, Erhardt and Gibbs (2014) discuss how managers and subordinates use social media as a vehicle for impression management. In the context of public social media use Ollier-Malaterre et al. (2013) discuss how these platforms present employees with identity negotiation opportunities and challenges because they invite non-tailored self-disclosure to a broad audience. This suggests social media offer opportunities for individuals to perform identities to others (Cheung, Lee, & Chan, 2015; Van Dijck, 2013). Hence, social media use by workers may be related to identification processes (Li, 2011; Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013).

Indeed, studies of workers’ posts on Twitter found that employees were largely aware of the potential impact of their messages (Van Zoonen et al., 2016a), and strategically used personal social media to engage in behaviors that supported their respective organizations’ goals (Dreher, 2014; Van Zoonen et al., 2014). Additionally, individuals who experience stronger professional or organizational identities are more likely to combine social and work connections in social media networks (Fieseler et al., 2015). Though these findings signal a connection between a workers’ relationship to an organization and social media activity, the particular ways this manifests in active communication about work online, and the specific mechanisms driving these practices, are unknown.

Organizational identification refers to the extent to which workers define themselves in terms of their membership in and association with an organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). This identification is shaped and reinforced through the active communicative behaviors of workers (Scott, Corman, & Cheney, 1998), and workers may purposefully and strategically alter communication in efforts to elicit particular perceptions of organizational identification from different audiences (Scott & Stephens, 2009). Organizational identification is related to social identity theory; that is, the idea that individuals are motivated to participate actively in groups with which they identify strongly. A basic assumption in social identity theory is that people tend to think of themselves in terms of the groups or organizations to which they belong (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). As a result of social identification processes employees may develop a sense of psychological attachment to their organization, which can be an important predictor of their motivated behavior (Bartels, Pruyn, De Jong, & Joustra, 2007; Boezeman & Ellemers, 2008; Ellemers, De Gilder, & Haslam, 2004). Personal social media offers workers an opportunity to communicate aspects of organizational identification broadly. Employees with stronger social identities vis-à-vis their organization may be likely to share organization-related information on personal social media as a means of facilitating organizational success (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Ho, Kuo, & Lin, 2012).
Furthermore, publicly sharing information about the organization, its products, and services is a way to endorse the organization and emphasize group membership (Van Zoonen et al., 2014), making work and the organization a more salient part of one's identity.

**H1.** Organizational identification has a positive effect on organizational information sharing on Twitter.

2.3. Desire to succeed and social media sharing

Workers not only identify with organizations as units and take communicative actions aligned with this identification, they also recognize that status differences exist among individuals within organizations. The perception of status difference, and associated differences in influence, among coworkers and professional colleagues influences employees’ motivation to work in organizational contexts (Bunderson & Reagans, 2011; Magee & Galinsky, 2008). In other words, beyond employees’ identification with their organization, the desire to succeed in one’s work is likely to play a motivating role in employees’ communicative behaviors (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). Specifically, Boswell and Olson-Buchanan (2007) indicate that employees’ individual job and career aspirations are likely to influence behaviors such as communication technology use after [work] hours (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007), which may be viewed as a means to aid advancement in a professional context. Desrochers and Dahir (2000) note that a desire to succeed reflects the motivation to do what is necessary to advance in one’s profession, either within or beyond the current employer. Employees with a strong desire to succeed are likely to put in extra effort in pursuit of professional success – and engage in communicative actions that signal that goal. From an impression management perspective, social media can be used to regulate and convey a positive image of the self in an attempt to obtain a desired professional goal (Ehrhardt & Gibbs, 2014). Impression management has often been linked to social media use in the context of work (e.g., Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013), as it allows employees to make experience and expertise visible to others (Treem & Leonardi, 2013; Van Zoonen et al., 2016a).

Conversely, a recent study on the increasing practice of cybervetting – the evaluation of prospective employees by reviewing an online presence – by employers suggests that awareness of such practices may lead employees to extend career-oriented impression management into online contexts (Berkelaar & Buzannell, 2014). In doing so employees may be able to convey an image of competence and expertise, improving their chances of being considered for other positions. To achieve such goals employees are better served by sharing professional information that reflects individual performance, experience, and knowledge, as opposed to organizational information that is more likely to reflect collective efforts and achievements. Hence, we argue that the desire to succeed is linked to sharing professional information on personal social media.

**H2.** The desire to succeed has a positive effect on professional information sharing on Twitter.

2.4. Different effects for desire to succeed and organization identification

Boswell and Olson-Buchanan (2007) conclude that employees use communication technologies after hours for their work and career interests and aspirations rather than because they have an affective attachment to the organization (p. 603). This resonates with earlier findings associated with work-related tweets, classifying them as both professionally oriented (knowledge and experience) and socially oriented (organizational) (Van Zoonen et al., 2016a). The discussion above implies that these are two distinct yet related behaviors each with unique motivations.

The general argument here is that employees who are motivated by organizational identification processes can communicatively enact their social identities – i.e., organizational membership – through sharing information about their group – i.e., the organization. Individual work experiences or knowledge, embedded in professional information sharing, are less likely to contribute to the construction of employees’ social identities as members of the organization. In turn, employees that are driven by a desire to succeed are more likely to share professional information rather than organizational information. Professional information reflects individual work experiences and knowledge and as such is more likely to aid employees in constructing a unique professional identity than organizational information, which is typically reflective of collective efforts by organizational members. Thus, professional information is more likely to help employees construct a differentiating image from their peers than organizational information, and as such by extension might be perceived as more helpful in obtaining individual professional goals. Hence, the following hypotheses are presented:

**H3a.** Organizational identification is a stronger predictor of organizational information sharing than the desire to succeed.

**H3b.** The desire to succeed is a stronger predictor of professional information sharing than organizational identification.

3. Methods

3.1. Sample and procedure

Two data sources were used for this study: survey responses, and respondents’ Twitter posts. Survey responses were collected using a Dutch Internet-based questionnaire; participation was voluntary. A professional research company (I&O Research) collected the data using an online survey distributed among their panel. Participants were asked to provide their Twitter account name and permit the analysis of their tweets. Email invitations were sent to 1200 Dutch employees who worked on a part-time or full-time basis in various organizations with at least 30 employees. The email contained instructions to the survey, the terms of confidentiality, and an informed consent form. If respondents agreed to participate they could access the questionnaire, which was programmed in Qualtrics, through an online link. Overall, 452 employees completed the questionnaire, eight employees were excluded as they used an organizational Twitter account, and another 14 employees were excluded as they were unemployed at the time of this study or provided an invalid Twitter account name. This left a total of 430 employees who completed the survey and provided a valid Twitter account.

The response rate was 35.8%. Of these 430 employees 65.6% were male and they worked 39.62 (SD = 10.07) hours on average per week. The average age of the respondents was 43.31 years (SD = 10.79), and 28.1% had an academic degree. This is in line with the Dutch workforce, in which the average age is 41.4 years old and 33% of the employees hold a higher educational degree. The sample also represents the Dutch workforce in terms of average working hours per week (34.4). The employees worked for different organizations in the following sectors: government/public administration (16.6%), education/science (12.1%), healthcare (11.7%), business services (11.2%), trade/commercial services (7.4%), industry (6.5%), and financial services (5.1%).

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1 I&O Research uses a ISO 26,362 certified panel ensuring both representativeness of the panel to the Dutch population as well as abiding by the rules of conduct for academic research (http://vstu.nl/files/documenten/Domeinen/Onderzoek/The%20Netherlands%20Code%20of%20Conduct%20for%20Academic%20Practice%202014%20Version%202014%2029.pdf).
Table 1

Correlations and descriptive statistics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M (SD)</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Professional content</td>
<td>9.74 (11.11)</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Organizational content</td>
<td>4.54 (7.36)</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Desire to succeed</td>
<td>3.93 (0.70)</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Identification</td>
<td>3.71 (0.79)</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Age</td>
<td>43.31 (10.79)</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Gender</td>
<td>1.34 (0.48)</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Work experience</td>
<td>20.22 (11.26)</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Hours a week</td>
<td>39.62 (10.06)</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Managerial position</td>
<td>1.25 (0.48)</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Overall Twitter use</td>
<td>3574.23 (9295.49)</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Org. encouragement</td>
<td>1.48 (.28)</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 430 Values on the diagonal represent reliabilities Cronbach's Alpha (α). Significance levels are flagged at * p. < 0.05. b Gender (1 = Male, 2 = Female), Management position (1 = yes, 2 = no), Overall Twitter use (is total amount of tweets).

3.2 Measures

3.2.1. Independent variables – survey data

The desire to succeed was measured using four items derived from Desrochers and Dahir (2000) and reflects the importance that employees attribute to being successful in their work (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). Organizational identification was evaluated using Maed and Ashforth’s (1992) scale including four items such as “I usually refer to ‘we’ rather than they’ when I talk about this organization.” For both variables the answer categories were anchored on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1) strongly disagree to 5) strongly agree. The descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations and alpha coefficients are represented in Table 1. Table 2 lists all scale items and their respective factor loadings, standard errors and squared multiple correlations.

3.2.2. Dependent variables – content analysis data

Work-related tweets i.e., profession-related and organization-related tweets, were identified by content analyzing employees’ tweets. Job statements on Twitter were cross-referenced with other social media accounts (i.e., LinkedIn and Facebook, when existing) to more accurately determine each individual’s job and organization. After receiving 8 h of coder training, four coders were randomly assigned to users and coded their tweets chronologically. All tweets were categorized, as outlined by van Zoonen et al. (2016a, 2016b), into one of five categories. The dependent variables in our analysis are comprised of the sum of positives (1 = presence) on each of the categories (see Table 3 for examples). Professional information sharing was comprised of two categories, namely: a) industry related content and b) work-related activities (M = 9.74, SD = 11.11). Conversely, three categories comprised organization-related information sharing; c) organization news, d) employee-stakeholder communication, and e) persuasive communication (M = 4.54, SD = 7.36).

Reliability of the coding procedure was assessed using a randomly selected double-coded subsample of 11.3% (n = 4309) of the tweets (Lacy & Riffe, 1996; Lombard, Snyder-Duch, & Bracken, 2002; Krippendorff’s Alpha and percent agreement statistics are shown in Table 3. Some of the KALPHA coefficients are relatively low, however, this is due to the skewed distribution of the binary variables. The percent agreement for these variables is at least 97 percent.

3.3 Analysis

Structural equation modeling (SEM, using AMOS) was used to test our hypotheses. Both incremental and absolute fit indices are presented to gauge the model fit. Two incremental fit indices were used: the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), these model fit indices have a threshold of > 0.90 (Kline, 2011). Two absolute fit indices were examined: a standardized version of the root mean squared residual (SRMR) and the root mean square of approximation (RMSEA). A SRMR ≤ 0.08 is considered to indicate good model fit, whereas a RMSEA value ≤ 0.05 is defined as a close fit (Kline, 2011).

Table 2

Measurement model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Standardized factor loading</th>
<th>Unstandardized factor loading</th>
<th>Se</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional-related information</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.673</td>
<td>1.00 b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry related information</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.693</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily work activities</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.603</td>
<td>1.00 b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational news</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.640</td>
<td>.634</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee-stakeholder communication</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.815</td>
<td>.605</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire to succeed</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.835</td>
<td>1.00 b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important that I succeed in my profession</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.808</td>
<td>1.050</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important that I move up in my profession</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.895</td>
<td>1.080</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important that I am successful at my job</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.780</td>
<td>1.038</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational identification</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.620</td>
<td>1.00 b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am very interested in what others think about this organisation</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.667</td>
<td>.908</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I talk about this organisation, I usually say ‘we’ rather than ‘they’</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.917</td>
<td>1.335</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This organisation’s successes are my successes</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.884</td>
<td>1.260</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When someone praises this organisation, it feels like a personal compliment</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>.611</td>
<td>.968</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* All factor loadings are significant at p < 0.05.

b Unit loading indicator constrained to 1.
### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Examplea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional communication</td>
<td>Tweets refer to the field in which the employee works. That information is not specific to an individual's job or organization but to the profession at large. These tweets may refer to collective labor agreements.</td>
<td>Did a great disaster simulation exercise concerning a huge incident at a shipyard this evening #practicemakesperfect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Work behaviors            | Tweets in this category refer to activities performed by the employee. When the tweet includes information that can be ascribed to work tasks or the actual performance of work tasks, the tweets are related by work behaviors. | Tweet: "Busy preparing #parent information! Have you seen something call streets or #publicmeters?

Employees/stakeholder communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Examplea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work behaviors</td>
<td>Tweets in this category refer to activities performed by the employee. When the tweet includes information that can be ascribed to work tasks or the actual performance of work tasks, the tweets are related by work behaviors.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Work behaviors (N = 5873)                                             | prepare items, such as product requests or service orders. | Tweet: "Important to teachers: Math education is more important to math students! #Caco Exam. Know what went wrong, so next time it should work out. #sad."

Organizational tweets. The organization-related tweets, in turn, are directly pertaining to the individual's respective organization, and include tweets that share organizational news, calls to action, and support as a case of dystopias. |
employee-stakeholder interaction. Organizational news refers to tweets about organizational news, these messages intend to inform an audience about organization or brand related issues, such as organizational milestones or when the organization is featured in the news. The second category ‘call-to-action’ refers to tweets that are directed at inducing a course of action from audience members. These tweets relate to requests for participation in a campaign or surveys, incentivizing audiences to buy the organization’s products or apply for a vacant position in the employees’ team or organization. Finally, employee-stakeholder communication refers to employees’ discretionary efforts to inform specific audience members about their work or provide information about their organization or its products and services, often in response to online questions or comments of other Twitter users. These tweets include @mentions to indicate conversation partners, and are directed at external stakeholders.

Organizational news accounted for 3405 tweets, referring to 8.9% of all tweets. For example, an employee of a bottled water vendor tweeted “[organization] sponsors at the HorecaEvent TT the https://t.co/%5b…%5d” And: “Today our new website www.[…].nl was launched. We will have updates daily.” Clearly, these tweets directly relate to the products, services, and activities of the organization. Moreover, in 1296 tweets (3.4% of all tweets) the primary focus was on a call-to-action. This became apparent in encouragements to apply to vacancies, or respond to requests to share or like organizational information: for instance; “Are you the new top sales person for our #Icentre in #place? Apply quickly via this link! https://t.co/[…]”. Another example is provided by meteorologist who tweeted about an event of his organization: “Register now for #Carbon-#Climate Interactions: #Science to #policy. @[organization] #Meteo #Airquality 12 jan ’15 https://t.co/[url].” Again, although the tweet is also about the organization, the tweets devotes most characters to a call to action by requesting readers to register. Finally, 1172 tweets (3.1% of all tweets) referred to employee-stakeholder interactions, providing information about products and services of the organizations or offering help to consumers. Consider the following example of a producer at a local news broadcaster who tweeted in response to a question from a viewer; “[…] As of next week we will be back from our own studio. In sd. Until April, after that definitive transition to HD.” Another example of employee-stakeholder interactions was the following response of an elementary school teacher to an ongoing discussion about tests and examinations in kindergarten “@[User] don’t draw premature conclusions from [name test] and toddler-tests: http://t.co/[url]. Better yet abolish them and simply observe.” Hence, these tweets from employees’ personal Twitter accounts often reflected a response to a public request for information or represented a contribution to an ongoing debate, by explicitly including one or more stakeholders in the conversation.

4.2. CFA measurement model

The measurement model demonstrates good model fit: $\chi^2 (71) = 225.78; \ CFI = 0.94; \ TLI = 0.93; \ SRMR = 0.06$ and $\ RMSEA = 0.071 \ (CI: 0.061, 0.082)$. Discriminant validity was assessed
through cross-factor correlations. The highest correlation was 0.38 between sharing professional tweets and sharing organizational tweets. The desire to succeed and organizational identification showed a 0.36 correlation. Other correlations in the model ranged from −0.004 to 0.22 (see Table 1), which convincingly demonstrates the distinctiveness of the latent constructs in the model (Kline, 2011). Convergent validity was assessed by examining factor loadings and squared multiple correlations. All factor loadings in the model were significant and sizable on the intended latent constructs. The standardized factor loadings range from 0.60 to 0.92 (see Table 2). In sum, the measurement model adequately measures all latent constructs in the model, and examination of the structural model is justified.

4.3. Structural model

The structural model shows good model fit: $\chi^2$ (72) = 254.62; CFI = 0.92; TLI = 0.93; SRMR = 0.07 and RMSEA = 0.077 (CI: 0.067, 0.087). Fig. 1 presents the overall structural model with standardized path coefficients. Below the unstandardized effects and contrasts of effects are discussed.

This study assumes that professional information sharing and organizational information sharing are two distinct types of work related social media use, which are driven by different motivations. Hypotheses 1 suggests that organizational identification affects the sharing of organizational information, but not professional information. The results show that organizational identification is related to organizational information sharing ($b = 1.608$, BC95% [0.197, 3.270] $p = 0.050$), but not to professional information sharing by employees ($b = -1.890$, BC95% [-4.240, 0.533] $p = 0.187$).

Hypotheses 2 presents the notion that employees’ desire to succeed yields an opposite effect, that is, a desire to succeed will affect the professional information sharing, but not organizational information sharing. The findings support this pattern; the desire to succeed is related to professional information sharing ($b = 5.727$, BC95% [3.279; 8.475] $p = 0.000$), but not to organizational information sharing ($b = 0.881$, BC95% [-0.120; 1.965] $p = 0.135$). These findings support hypotheses 1 and 2.

The results further demonstrate the distinctiveness of the two types of work-related information sharing on Twitter: professional and organizational. Hypotheses 3a and 3b warrant a more in-depth look at the effects between organizational identification and the desire to succeed and social media behaviors - i.e., professional and organizational information sharing. Hypotheses 3a assumes that the direct effect of organizational identification on organizational information should be given statistical priority over the alternate causal path of desire to succeed on organization information sharing. Whereas, hypotheses 3b assumes that the desire to succeed should be the dominant predictor of professional information sharing.

The direct effects are contrasted to see which effects should be given statistical priority over alternative direct effects. The results show that organizational information sharing is more strongly affected by organizational identification than by the desire to succeed ($\Delta = 0.381$, BC95% [0.176; 0.605] $p = 0.003$). The results show that professional information sharing is more strongly influenced by the desire to succeed than by organizational identification ($\Delta = 0.258$, BC95% [0.081; 0.462] $p = 0.017$). These results support the reasoning reflected in Hypotheses 3a and 3b.

4.4. Control variables

Gender, age, years of work experience, managerial position, Twitter activity, organizational encouragement, and working hours per week were consecutively modeled to control for potential confounding effects. Twitter activity was modeled by including employees’ total amount of followers, accounts they were following, and the total number of tweets sent through each employee’s respective account. These figures were derived from the profile page; none of these indicators of general Twitter use were found to impact the relationships in the model. Additionally, organizations may encourage employees to share specific types of information within their social networks, and such organizational encouragements could have a confounding effect on results. To test this alternative explanation the model was estimated while controlling for organizational encouragement. Organizational encouragement was measured with three indicators: ‘The use of social media for work is being encouraged in my organization’, ‘In my organization social media applications are freely accessible’, and ‘My organization offers social media training on how to use these platforms.’ Again, including these variables did not affect the relationships in the model. In sum, all the parameters presented in the final model remained significant when controlling for any of these variables, meaning the control variables had no influence on the overall findings.

5. Discussion

5.1. Theoretical implications

This study extends our theoretical understanding of the relationship between social media use, identification, and organizational work. The findings show that organizational identification and the desire to succeed operate as antecedents to the work-related use of personal Twitter accounts, but not necessarily in similar ways. This extends previous findings by linking a desire to succeed and identification processes to social media use by workers (Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013), and presents a more rigorous and nuanced understanding of the relationship between these concepts and social media content.

In contrast to Boswell and Olson-Buchanan (2007) findings with regard to technology use after hours, this study suggest that employees use social media for their work and career aspirations and because they identify with the organization. Specifically, the results demonstrate that work-related Twitter content could be classified as professional information sharing and organizational information sharing. Though this study did not directly measure psychological motivations for social media use by workers, the findings signal that work-related activities are influenced by how individuals feel in relation to the groups of which they are members.

Organizational information sharing correlated with organizational identification but not with a desire to succeed. This suggests that employees who more strongly identify with their organization are more inclined to utilize their personal social media to share organizational news, share product and service related information, and even persuade their audience to engage with the organization. This suggests that organizational identification makes employees intuitively and socially inclined to align the organization’s best interest and exhibit greater effort in obtaining organizational goals through social media use. This is in line with studies that argue that employees can use social media to represent their organization (Dreher, 2014) and influence others’ perceptions of the organization (Van Zoonen et al., 2014) and by extension of themselves (Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013).

Importantly, professional information sharing correlated with the desire to succeed and not with organizational identification. This implies that employees feel that sharing individual work experiences and showcasing knowledge about their respective industry contributes to achieving professional success. At the very least, making knowledge and experiences visible aids effective self-presentation (Leonardi & Treem, 2012). In other words, employees with a greater desire to succeed can capitalize on the awareness that social media affords regarding individuals’ knowledge and abilities (e.g., Leonardi, 2015). Each individual post about work experience and knowledge of the industry contributes to establishing an image of competence, which in turn may help employees’ achieve professional goals. Notably, although professional information sharing may aid employees in communicating their expertise and obtain professional goals, it may also have adverse
effects. For instance, employees’ professional goals may not necessarily align with organizational goals, thereby creating tensions and complicating the achievement of professional goals. Similarly, as many online audiences are grounded in offline relationships (e.g., friendships with colleagues), well-intentioned professional information sharing may make employees more appealing to other employers, but may simultaneously draw criticism from colleagues and other organizational members. Further investigation is needed to explore these potential conflicts.

More broadly, this study provides further evidence that workers actively shape group identities beyond organizational identification, and that social media facilitates this goal. As with any communicative act, employees have mental conceptualizations of the people with whom they are communicating through social media (Litt, 2012). As Marwick and Boyd (2011) noted individuals may use social media strategically depending on their imagined audience, and this includes decisions of what to share and acts of self-censorship. Similarly, Gibbs et al. (2013) discuss how employees navigate strategic choices between three dialectic tensions presented by social media affordances: visibility-invisibility, engagement-disengagement, and sharing-control. The findings of this work support the idea that employees tailor their social media content strategically to their audiences. Arguably, conceptualizations of audiences as primarily constituting social connections of coworkers might encourage employees to share organizational information. Audiences that are believed to consist of supervisors or future employers might induce more professional information.

Additionally, the functional model of self-disclosure suggests that reasons for disclosing information activate a decision-making process that shapes the content that is shared (Bazarova & Choi, 2014). Marwick and Boyd (2011) noted individuals may use social media strategically depending on their imagined audience, and this includes decisions of what to share and acts of self-censorship. Similarly, Gibbs et al. (2013) discuss how employees navigate strategic choices between three dialectic tensions presented by social media affordances: visibility-invisibility, engagement-disengagement, and sharing-control. The findings of this work support the idea that employees tailor their social media content strategically to their audiences. Arguably, conceptualizations of audiences as primarily constituting social connections of coworkers might encourage employees to share organizational information. Audiences that are believed to consist of supervisors or future employers might induce more professional information.

Finally, scholars have noted that as the boundaries of organizations blur in contemporary society, there is a need to broaden our conceptions of organizational membership and identification (Pratt, 1998). Social media, as a visible form of communication that crosses professional and personal boundaries, may be a powerful influence on the different forms of group identification that workers construct. Further investigation is needed to determine the specific ways that organizational identification influences social media use by workers, but also how workers might utilize social media to strategically influence the ways they are perceived by existing, past, and future colleagues across professional contexts.

5.3. Limitations and future research

Several limitations to this study need to be acknowledged. First, the underlying factor structure of the dependent variable shows some marginal factor loadings. In part, this is due to the use of binary count variables, which tend to produce suppressed factor loadings in CFA’s. These data characteristics are also likely to affect reliability statistics such as Krippendorff’s Alpha. Additional research is needed to more adequately model latent factor structure for work-related social media content.

Secondly, from a thematic perspective, this is one of the first studies to examine work-related Twitter use. Hence, many empirical questions about its causes and consequences remain unanswered. Additionally, in this study, the focus was on employees’ Twitter use. Although Twitter shares similar features to other social media outlets it is hard to say to what extent these behaviors and its antecedents might be generalizable to other outlets. Hence, future research should direct attention to other social media channels such as Facebook and LinkedIn. Similarly, research might examine whether the findings reported here also apply to enterprise social media use. Finally, professional, organizational, and social information is shared through the same accounts simultaneously (e.g., Van Zoonen et al., 2016a). What type of information is shared is likely to depend upon employees’ motivations – i.e., organizational identification and desire to succeed - which may be triggered differently across time or situations and future research should address the potential distinctions, or lack thereof, individuals make regarding what to share on social media using both longitudinal and experimental research designs.

6. Conclusion

Employees use personal Twitter accounts to share professional and organizational information. This mixed methods design shows that self-reported levels of organizational identification and the desire to succeed are linked to the publication of organizational and professional twitter content. Specifically, organizational identification is positively related to publishing organizational information, whereas, the desire to succeed is positively related to publishing professional information on Twitter. This indicates that work related social media use helps employees to enact different professional identities depending on the extent to which they identify with their organization or seek to further individual goals. This study provides a deeper understanding of the antecedents and content of personal social media use for work and will hopefully spur ongoing exploration of this domain.