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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" those 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, & Steinfield, 2013). This work found that individuals had 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 viewership beyond 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 (Erhardt & 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 & Buzzanell, 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.[1] 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://vsnu.nl/files/documenten/Domeinen/Onderzoek/The%20Netherlands%20Code%20of%20Conduct%20for%20Academic%20Practice%202004%20%28version%202014%29.pdf).

Table 1
Correlations and descriptive statistics.

Variable	M (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Professional content	9.74 (11.11)	**.63**									
2 Organizational content	4.54 (7.36)	.38	**.72**								
3 Desire to succeed	3.93 (0.70)	.22	.11	**.90**							
4 Identification	3.71 (0.79)	-.00	.16	.36	**.85**						
5 Age	43.31 (10.79)	.07	.12	.06	.13	–					
6 Gender	1.34 (0.48)	.06	.04	.04	-.09	-.15	-				
7 Work experience	20.22 (11.26)	.01	.06	.03	.08	.92	-.15	–			
8 Hours a week	39.62 (10.06)	.08	.11	.15	.06	.05	-.27	.12	–		
9 Managerial position	1.35 (0.48)	.00	.08	.09	.21	.23	-.17	.23	.30	–	
10 Overall Twitter use	3574.23 (9295.49)	.04	-.08	-.01	-.02	.08	-.08	.08	.18	-.00	–
11 Org. encouragement	1.48 (.28)	.01	.12	.07	.13	.06	-.07	.06	.13	.03	.04

Note. N = 430 [s] 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 Mael 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); Krippendorf'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.

Item	R^2	Standardized factor loading	Unstandardized factor loading[a]	Se
Profession-related information				
Industry related information	.45	.673	1.000 [b]	
Daily work activities	.48	.693	0.406	.08
Organization related information				
Organizational news	.36	.603	1.000 [b]	
Employee-stakeholder communication	.41	.640	0.634	.07
Call to action	.66	.815	0.605	.06
Desire to succeed				
It is important that I succeed in my profession	.70	.835	1.000 [b]	
It is important that I move up in my profession	.65	.808	1.050	.05
It is important that I am successful at my job	.80	.895	1.080	.05
It is important that I succeed in my organization	.61	.780	1.038	.06
Organizational identification				
I am very interested in what others think about this organization	.39	.620	1.000[b]	
When I talk about this organization, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'	.45	.667	0.908	.08
This organization's successes are my successes	.84	.917	1.335	.08
When someone praises this organization, it feels like a personal compliment	.78	.884	1.260	.08
Criticism at the organization would also reflect on me.	.37	.611	0.968	.08

[a] All factor loadings are significant at p < 0.05.
[b] Unit loading indicator constrained to 1.

Table 3
Coding categories and reliability assessment.

Category	Definition	Example[a]	Kalpha	% Agreement
Profession-related communication	Tweets refer to the field in which the employee works. Thus information that is not specific to an individual's job or organization but to the profession at large. These tweets may refer political, societal or economic issues relevant to the profession/industry. For instance, tweets about "CLA" (collective labor agreements) negotiations. These tweets do not include activities from employees such as the performance of work related tasks.	#Police allowed to campaign for #CLA. Success and persevere. #Police fights for #recognition by the Minister #CLAAction	.82	.95
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 the tweets are related to work behaviors. For instance, arrival at work or a meeting, or progress reports.	Did a great disaster simulation exercise concerning a huge incident at a shipyard this evening #practicemakesperfect	.83	.98
Organizational news	This includes messages about the organization and the brand including; news about awards, internal affairs, mergers, and reorganizations. Organizational milestones, accomplishments, employment communication, or the organization featured in news articles are also ways in which employees share organizational news on Twitter.	RT: @Organization signs partnership agreement with [company], for legal support in case of emergencies	.69	.97
Employee-stakeholder communication	This includes tweets that refer to information related to web care activities conducted by employees. Communication is directed at individuals outside the organization. For instance information about products and services. These tweets are by definition directed at the organization's stakeholders through @mentions.	@user your answer: public map or heat maps are intended to map visualize crowds. Users can see where it is too busy	.54	.97
Call to action	Tweets that explicitly aim to induce specific behaviors by the reader. A call to action persuades an audience to do something that may help the employee or his/her organization, for instance: requests to participate in a competition, survey or campaign, or calls to buy a product are in this category.	#City #Street There has been a burglary. Have you seen something call #09008844	.66	.99

Note: [b] Reliability scores are calculated on N = 4.309.
[a] All example tweets are from employees working in law enforcement, except in the organizational news category. Organizations and users are made anonymous.

In total, 5000 bootstrap samples were extracted from the data to estimate model parameters and standard errors and to calculate parameters' confidence intervals (Kline, 2011). Contrasting effects were calculated to test Hypotheses 3a and 3b which pertain to the statistical priority of different effects.

4. Results

4.1. Content analysis

This study describes two types of work-related tweets: a) professional tweets–tweets that display employees' knowledge and expertise about their *industry* and *work*–and b) organizational tweets–e.g., organizational news, information about products and services. Conversely, professional (N = 9044) and organizational (N = 5873) tweets totaled 14,917 work-related tweets of 430 workers. Although an in-depth discussion of non-work related tweets is beyond the scope of this article, most of these tweets appear to be related to television programs, sports games, and service encounters (mostly with public transportation companies and mobile/telecom service providers) these employees had in their role as customers or users. Hence, employees share a mixture of professional, organizational, and social information through the same social media accounts. Again demonstrating that social media are hybrid spaces in which boundaries between work and nonwork, profession and organization, and self and community, are increasingly blurred. For the purpose of this study we focus on the professional (i.e., industry-related or work experiences) and organizational social media messages (i.e., organizational news, call-to-action, employee-stakeholder interaction). Note that when tweets included multiple topics coders were instructed to code the category that received most attention in the tweet (i.e., largest amount of characters).

Professional tweets. Of the 9044 professional tweets 5647 tweets could be labeled industry-related, this is 14.8% of all tweets. An exemplary tweet in this category is provided by a police officer who tweeted about collective labor agreements: "#CLApolice five #Sundays extra work on a yearly basis, paid #breaks are canceled. So #drawbacks." This information transcends organizational boundaries and applies to all within the profession or industry. Likewise, the tweet does not involve personal work activities, since (s)he did not negotiate these terms in person. Another example of an industry-related tweet came from a teacher sharing new research findings relevant to other teachers: "Important to teachers: Math education is more important to math performance than talent see: https://t.co//%5burl%5d" The tweet addresses other teachers, especially those in the same field (i.e., mathematics), which transcends organizational boundaries. Also note that the tweet does not imply any specific work activity from the employee who posted the tweet. Work experiences were shared in 3397 tweets and always involved the performance of a work activity associated with individual's job; these tweets represent 8.9% of all tweets in the sample. This could be in the near past or future, or a work activity that is performed by the employee at the time of the tweet. For instance, a police officer tweeted: "Unfortunately I failed the #Caco Exam. Know what went wrong, so next time it should work out. #sad." A teacher of an elementary school tweeted: "Busy preparing #parent information morning about #linguistics in #class 1–2, we will show videos of the classes. #behindthescenesview." These tweets are directly related to actions taken by the individual, and emphasize the employees' role and/or the performance of specific tasks. Hence, as evidenced by the examples presented here, professional tweets are those that relate to employees' role performance (i.e., employees reporting their activities), or tweets that relate to macro-level topics of work (i.e., themes and topics that relate to the professional field of employees and are exclusive to organization one works for).

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
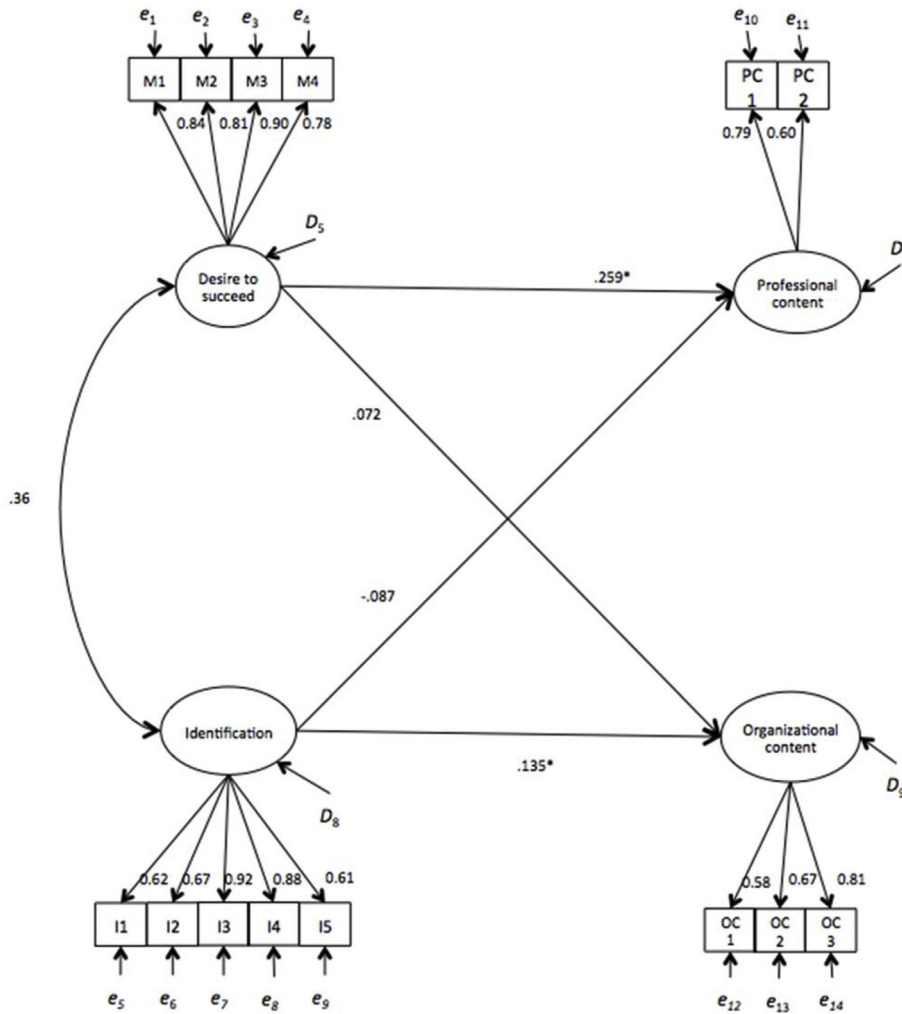
Fig. 1. Structural model with standardized estimates.

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' discretional 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: χ^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: χ^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 (Δb = 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 (Δb = 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 act in 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; Choi & Bazarova, 2015). The findings of this study suggest that identification and self-expression are important sources of value that determine whether and what type of information employees disclose on social media. Identification is an important source of value for disclosing organizational information as this helps employees to make their membership of an organization a more salient part of their identities. In turn, self-expression is an important source of value for professional information sharing as this allows employees to showcase individual knowledge, achievements or performance, which in turn may contribute to obtaining desired professional outcomes.

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.

5.2. Practical implications

The results provide more robust support for findings that employees widely engage in knowledge sharing about organizational and professional activities on personal social media, (Leftheriotis & Giannakos, 2014; Moqbel et al., 2013; Van Zoonen et al., 2014; 2016a), and demonstrate this with measures of behaviors instead of self-reported data. Employees' work-related social media content is important to organizations for several reasons. First, public perceptions of organizations are increasingly shaped by the content that people encounter on social media (Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy, & Silvestre, 2011). Similarly, employees seeking new job opportunities use information employees share on social media to get a sense of a potential new workplace. Likewise, organizations are increasingly able to use the information employees share online for their recruitment decisions (Berkelaar &

Buzzanell, 2014; Carrillat, d'Astous, & Morissette Grégoire, 2014). Second, work-related social media use affects individual outcomes such as employee performance (Leftheriotis & Giannakos, 2014) and well-being (Van Zoonen et al., 2016b). Third, employees may use work-related content to enact professional identities on social media, which may transpose to the organization (Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013). The findings of this study have several applied implications for managers and practitioners seeking a better understanding of work-related communication beyond traditional workplace boundaries.

The use of Twitter by employees to share messages about their work and their organization offers companies a number of opportunities to broaden public communication efforts (Van Zoonen et al., 2014; 2016a). Employees have social networks in place, and through these networks they reach a broad and diverse audience including professional contacts (e.g., (potential) clients and co-workers) and personal contacts (e.g., family and friends). Additionally, the voluntary nature of work-related use of personal social media may make these messages appear more authentic or credible than centrally communicated messages through organizational social media channels (Dreher, 2014).

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.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2019.06.008.

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