TWEETS AND RETWEETS: RACIAL DIFFERENCES IN WORKPLACE SOCIAL MEDIA USE FOLLOWING A POLICE SHOOTING

by

Kelcie Grenier

A thesis submitted to the faculty of
The University of North Carolina at Charlotte
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Arts in
Industrial/Organizational Psychology

Charlotte

2019

Approved by:

_____
Dr. Enrica N. Ruggs

_____
Dr. Linda Shanock

_____
Dr. Jaime Bochantin

ABSTRACT

KELCIE GRENIER. Tweets and Retweets: Racial differences in workplace social media use following a police shooting. (Under the direction of DR. ENRICA N. RUGGS)

The majority of working adults routinely use social media during their workday and recent literature demonstrates that the purpose of that use varies (Olmstead et al., 2016). Research has also explored under what conditions productivity, communication, and other organizational outcomes are affected by social media use (e.g., Leftheriotis & Giannakos, 2014; Syrek et al., 2018). However, extant research has not examined the effect a disruptive, high-profile event has on routine social media use. With the increase of media attention to police brutality in recent years and the subsequent activism borne from social media websites, social media may offer valuable resources after these events, particularly for those employees more likely to be affected by such events, such as Black Americans. For this study, I collected employees' Twitter data before and after the March 2018 officer-involved shooting of Stephon Clark in Sacramento, California. I use Event System Theory to justify the examination of this police shooting as a disruptive event that is likely to precipitate changes in behaviors such as social media use, particularly for employees with identity-relevant characteristics. In light of limitations in the Twitter data I collected, I supplemented said data with quantitative and qualitative analyses from the primary study and a pilot study to offer a fine-grained look at employees' reported reasons for social media use at work. Findings support the need to examine social media use at work in more detail, taking into account not only volume but also purpose of use.

*Key words***:** social media, Twitter, workplace, race, social identity

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis would not have been possible without Dr. Enrica N. Ruggs who has stayed by me through this long road even when we've been separated by miles and time zones. I would like to thank my committee, Dr. Linda Shanock and Dr. Jaime Bochantin who provided methodological feedback and uplifting enthusiasm from my proposal on. I would also like to thank Dr. Katherine Frear who was removed enough from my thesis to offer me objective feedback and the support I needed each week to push me through to the end. Lastly, I would like to thank the UNC Charlotte Council on University Community for their generous award of the Diversity Mini Grant which allowed me to pay my participants a reasonable wage for their time.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

In response to the attack on counter-protesters at a White supremacist rally in Charlottesville, Virginia on August 12, 2017, President Barack Obama posted a Tweet which quickly became the most-liked Tweet in Twitter's history:

> "No one is born hating another person because of the color of his skin or his background or his religion. People must learn to hate, and if they can learn to hate, they can be taught to love, for love comes more naturally to the human heart than its opposite" (Barack Obama, 2017)

The Tweet received more than 3 million likes (Schwarz, 2017). The volume and quick response from Twitter users should come as no surprise. Adults in the United States (US) routinely turn to social media after national events such as instances of racially-motivated violence—like the Charlottesville attacks—and the repeated instances of police brutality against unarmed Black men. After the rapid succession of shootings of Black men and women in 2016, Twitter showed changes in content. Most notably, hashtags related to the events like police shootings and movements such as Black Lives Matter increased within days of each shooting (Anderson & Hitlin, 2016).

Online responses to the Charlottesville event did not stop at hashtags and likes on Twitter. Op-eds (i.e., opposite the editorial page) and commentaries detailed first-hand accounts of Black Americans' uncomfortable workplace experiences in the days after Charlottesville (e.g., Lantigua-Williams, 2017). These accounts paralleled past writers' and bloggers' descriptions of similar experiences of Black Americans (For Harriet, 2015) after publicized instances of racism. With race at the center of many of these articles about work, the increases by the millions in specific hashtags like #BlackLivesMatter

(Anderson & Hitlin, 2016) may be a function of users' identities, such as their racial identity.

Even before social media sites became prevalent there were documented differences in how particular groups, like parents, responded after violent, publicized events like terrorist attacks. For example, parents exhibited decreased concentration on work tasks due to their emotional response to the 9/11 terrorist attacks (Mainiero & Gibson, 2003). Lantigua-Williams' (2017) description of her "mostly-White "workplace after the attack on protestors in Charlottesville, Virginia mirrors some of the qualitative data collected by Mainiero and Gibson (2003) nearly two decades ago. Employees reported they did not find adequate organizational or supervisor support, described others as "callous" and "cold," and employees reported that many people dismissed other's emotional responses as excuses for not attending to their work (Mainiero & Gibson, 2003).

While employees may feel similarly about violent events, in 2001 employees were not able to post on social media sites about their experiences at work like they can at present. In fact, neither Facebook nor Twitter were accessible to the general population until 2006 (Facebook, 2019; Twitter, Inc., 2019). However, in the nearly two decades since 9/11, social media use has become widely adopted and that use does include when employees are at work. At this time we do not know how workplace social media use changes for employees who may be most troubled or otherwise affected by events of this nature, such as the parents after 9/11 or Black employees in mostly-White workplaces as described by Lantigua-Williams (2017).

In addition to contributing to filling gaps in how social media is used at work, the present study contributes to a cited need in the diversity and inclusion literature. The need to account for diversity's effects on employees' work and communication with others in the workplace after an event like a police shooting, for example, is a crucial next step according to Roberson and colleagues (2017). Roberson and colleagues (2017) call specifically for research addressing publicized police shootings and their differential effects for some groups of employees, such as People of Color. In spite of the prevalence of public outcry on social media about feelings of isolation and lack of support at work, and the literature's calls to action for studying specific types of events, the examination of social media use in the workplace after a potentially traumatic event, such as a police shooting, has not been examined.

Thus, the question remains of if event-specific op-eds, postings, and YouTube videos are, in fact, a deviation from routine online and social media behaviors in the workplace; and if so, if these changes affect the workplace and the employees within. In the current study I examine what effect a police shooting of an unarmed Black civilian has on employees' social media use in the workplace. I use Event System Theory (EST; Morgeson et al., 2015), which states that employees' workplace behaviors can change as a result of an event that is important to them even if does not happen at work, and apply this theory as a framework for examining why social media use at work among employees may change following such an event. Specifically, I use EST as the basis for how a police shooting that is publicized—even when it is not within close geographical distance to the employee—may affect employees' behavior. In this study that behavior is social media use in the workplace. Further, I use Social Identity Theory (SIT; Tajfel &

Turner, 1979) and Self-Categorization Theory (SCT; Turner et al., 1987) to justify the exploration of group differences as a precipitator of behavior change using qualifications outlined in EST. Namely, I examine how race as a social identity may influence changes in social media use at work.

The present study contributes to the literature in three ways. First, this research is timely given the national climate surrounding police brutality in the US. Police shootings are particularly relevant for their potential to invoke feelings of trauma among employees and subsequently affect how they behave in the workplace. Exact figures of the annual number of victims are often inconsistent across databases and news sources (Feldman et al., 2017). Yet, both popular press (Sullivan et al., 2019) and scholarly research have reported relatively stable or increasing (Hermann, 2018) numbers of shootings in recent years hovering around 1,000 individuals. Of particular attention among scholars and citizens at large is that Black Americans are consistently overrepresented in these figures when compared to their percentage of the total US population (DeGue et al., 2016). For example, among all use of force incidents in Washington, D.C. in 2017, 93% involved Black citizens (Hermann, 2018). What is clearer is that such events are noticed and negatively affect groups of people, even if they are not direct actors in the event (Downs, 2016). Indeed, the attention to racial inequality, and particularly in policing, has led to social movements such as Black Lives Matter and public outcry on social media platforms such as Twitter (Anderson & Hitlin, 2016) from people who are indirect observers of tragic events. This study allows for an examination of how these indirect observers are affected by these events when they are at work.

Second, the present study examines the use of *personal* social media in the workplace, rather than enterprise social media sites (social media sites that are designed to be organization-specific and used within the workplace for work), and how personal social media use is affected by unexpected events outside of the immediate workplace environment. Both enterprise and personal social media at work has been studied in terms of its effect on performance (Leftheriotis & Giannakos, 2014) and as an opportunity for organizations to increase internal communication (e.g., Nduhura & Prieler, 2017; Riemer et al., 2010). However, non-work use of personal social media is common and there is not yet consensus on the benefit or detriment this behavior may have for employees and for the organization. Even when examining individuals' self-report, there is not agreement as to whether or not personal social media serves as a distraction from work (Olmstead et al., 2016). Olmstead et al. (2016) found many employees reported using social media as a means of taking a "mental break" from work. This finding is supported by Syrek et al. (2018) who found personal social media use is followed by increased engagement and may serve as the "mental break" participants endorsed in Olmstead et al. (2016). These findings suggest that there may be benefits of even personal social media use at work. In this study, I extend this examination by focusing on reasons *why* people use social media at work and how this usage may shift after traumatic events.

Third, by examining racial differences in social media use at the time of, and after the focal event, I directly address oft-neglected differences in how employees, particularly Black Americans, respond to external, critical events—a noted gap in the diversity literature (McCluney et al., 2017; Roberson et al., 2017). Some research suggests that external events can have effects on emotions and productivity when

"spillover" of the event into the workplace occurs (e.g., Byron & Peterson, 2002; Mainiero & Gibson, 2003; McCluney et al., 2017). Yet, spillover may be different for some employees. Some external events are likely to affect groups of employees differently, even when the event itself is not intimately linked to the employee. Widely publicized police shootings are particularly likely to affect social groups such as Black Americans even if they have no personal attachment to the victim. Establishing that these differences in employees' experiences and responses exist may support further examination of ways to develop effective identity-relevant diversity initiatives in the organizational sciences (Colella et al., 2017; McCluney et al., 2017).

Theoretical Background: **Event System Theory**

Event System Theory (EST) offers an explanation of how a non-routine event external to the organization, such as a police shooting, may result in outcomes, such as behavior changes, among employees within the organization (Morgeson et al., 2015). Event System Theory acknowledges organizations are open systems and individual employees within the organization can be affected by extraordinary events or circumstances that occur either internal or external to the organization. These circumstances are considered "events" if they are external to, and observable by, a perceiver, and if the circumstances are a function of an interaction between two "entities." An "event" must also have a discernable beginning and end. In accordance with the present study, this definition covers a concrete, discernible interaction (i.e., a single, fatal, shooting incident) between a law enforcement officer and a civilian (i.e., the two entities). The likelihood that a qualifying event affects outcomes like the behaviors of

employees, teams, or organizations is dependent on the strength of the event (Morgeson et al., 2015).

Components of Event Strength

The strength of an event is a function of three components: (1) the novelty of the event, (2) the extent to which the event disrupts usual activities, and (3) the criticality of the event (Morgeson et al., 2015). The novelty of the event is the extent to which the event is unexpected or deviates from the norm. According to Morgeson et al. (2015), an event that is novel requires, "entities to change or create new behaviors" (p. 521). Although police shootings across the nation are not uncommon per se, police shootings that generate widespread media attention and discourse on public forums may be considered novel in that the shootings are not planned and are not often featured in daily national news (Campbell et al., 2017). The disruption of the event is dictated by the amount of change in the external environment. An example of disruption from police shootings is the protests and large increases in hashtag use (e.g., #BlackLivesMatter; Anderson & Hitlin, 2016). Lastly, the criticality of the event is a reflection of how important the event is to an individual. The importance of a police shooting to a person can be affected by that shooting's relevance to the person's sense of self or even their evaluation of the overarching social climate. These three components are additive, such that the likelihood of an effect is increased with an increase in any or all of the components (Morgeson et al., 2015).

Moderators of Event Strength

Beyond the additive nature of event strength, the strength of an event is also moderated by two factors: the event space and the event time (Morgeson et al., 2015). In

general, the event space captures the "location" or origin of the event. This can be interpreted literally as the location of the event (e.g., Ft. Worth, Texas, where Atatiana Jefferson was killed in her home by a police officer in 2019), or this can be interpreted as what level within the organization the event occurs. In the case of a police shooting, the origin of the event is in the environment external to the organization and may have a top-down effect on individual employees' behavior, such as their degree of distress which might lead to more social media use in the workplace. According to EST, events that occur in a larger environment, such as the organization or greater society, have a greater chance to moderate the likelihood that the strength will influence behavior when considering the whole of those who may be affected. While a personal event, like a divorce, is likely to affect the individuals intimately connected, events at the environmental level are most likely to lead to *some* change in behavior among those who are aware of the event. Thus, police shootings in the external environment are events that increase the likelihood of behavior change.

Event time includes circumstances related to length of time of both the event and the strength of the event. The longer the process of the event occurs, when combined with a rapid strength change, the greater the likelihood that the strength of the event will influence behavior change. A police shooting—a discrete, fatal interaction between a civilian and a law enforcement officer—is a short event that may last for seconds, or possibly minutes, yet public response is often swift (Anderson & Hitlin, 2016). As such, these events with high strength and sometimes extended visibility from news or social media attention often lead to widespread behavior change in broader society such as people mobilizing in protest.

Present Focal Event

For the present study I explore how an event external to the workplace—a police shooting of a Black American—affects employees' social media use. Social media is known to be used frequently in the workplace (Olmstead et al., 2016) thus it can be classified as a routine behavior as defined by EST. Widely publicized fatal encounters between law enforcement and unarmed Black Americans (hereby referred to solely as "police shootings") offer an opportunity for examination of the effects described in EST. Police shootings occur frequently and consistently enough that they cannot be considered isolated or outlying events that will not occur again, but they are still novel, in that, when they occur they represent a deviation from the everyday, particularly when they are publicized and therefore widely observable (Campbell et al., 2017).

Focal Outcome: Social Media Use

To examine behavior change as predicted by EST, I explore what effect, if any, a police shooting has on employees' within-workplace social media use as a behavior. As described in EST, the strength of the event can vary as a function of any characteristic that affects the perceiver's appraisal of the event as important to them (Morgeson et al., 2015). Some employees, however, may be more greatly affected by these events. As such, social media use should change after an event for those who consider the event important, or "critical."

Drivers of Event Criticality

A necessary prerequisite for a police shooting to change an employee's behavior, the employee must have some awareness and interest in the shooting. If said employee is unaware of the event or does not perceive it as important, or "critical," it will not affect

the employee's behavior. Police shootings of Black Americans are common in the US and the rates are particularly high when compared to Whites—the probability of unarmed Black Americans being shot by police are 3.49 times that of White Americans (Ross, 2015). Of those shootings, high-profile cases have a greater likelihood of employee awareness (Stelter, 2016). With awareness (and interest), employees may deviate from their everyday functioning, even in the workplace.

For example, the shooting may be discussed with others in the workplace, much like other current events (APA, 2016). In addition to checking breaking news reports and holding watercooler discussions in direct response to the event, increases in social media use may be considered a disruption to normal or routine functioning at the individual level. It is likely employees will also turn to social media based on prevalence of social media use in the workplace (Olmstead et al., 2016), the availability of news (Gottfried & Shearer, 2016; deSilver, 2014), and the opportunity for discourse about the shooting (Anderson & Hitlin, 2016).

Social media platforms (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, Instagram) can facilitate many of the practices people do in response to events, such as follow news (Gottfried & Shearer, 2016; deSilver, 2014), seek social support (Kim, 2016; Sullivan, 2003; Weinberg et al., 1995), explore identity differentiation and construction (Dalton et al., 2009), and become involved in activism (Gil de Zúñiga et al., 2012; Harris, 2015; Stelter, 2016; Valenzuela, 2013). Further, general social media use at work is common. In the most recent research from the Pew Research Center, 77% of full- and part-time workers report using social media while at work (Olmstead et al., 2016).

The prevalence of social media use at work is no surprise; social media is widespread enough to reach the majority of the adult population in the US. Approximately 85% of adults in the US have internet access and most adults have and use at least one form of social media platform and access the account on a regular basis. Sixty-nine percent of all US adults are Facebook users, and 22% are Twitter users (Perrin & Anderson, 2019). Seventy-four percent, and 42% of those users, respectively, visit the sites daily (Perrin & Anderson, 2019). In spite of the prevalence of social media use and the equivalent use of Facebook among Black and White adults (70%), Pew reports small differences in rates of usage across races for other platforms: 24% of Black adults use Twitter compared to 21% of White adults. Instagram and Snapchat have greater percentages of the Black population than of the White population (Perrin & Anderson, 2019).

Social media sites are consistently an outlet for addressing race and racial inequality in the US. Twitter discussions about race increase across the platform shortly after an event that gains widespread news attention (Anderson & Hitlin, 2016). In 2016, the #BlackLivesMatter hashtag increased in usage from just under 10,000 on July 5 (the day of Alton Sterling's shooting), to over 200,000 on July 6th (the date of Philando Castile's shooting), and to nearly 900,000 the following day (Anderson & Hitlin, 2016). Anderson and Hitlin (2016) found that the day after an event has the most active discussion about racial inequality—something they attribute to users taking time to process the event. Self-reports of individual-level usage support this event-related activity as well. In a 2015 survey of Twitter users, respondents reported that 60% of race-related Tweets were related to specific events (Anderson & Hitlin, 2016), which aligns with

content analyses demonstrating that event-specific Tweets are among the most common types of Tweets users post (Zhao & Jiang, 2011). Given that social media use in the workplace is common (Olmstead et al., 2016), it is likely that social media use following an incident known to disrupt normal social media use will extend into the workplace.

Social media use in the workplace may offer an outlet for discourse that does not pose many of the obstacles that in-person workplace discussion may present. Workplace discussions about controversial topics may lead to a tense environment (APA, 2016; Chopik & Motyl, 2016). With respect to police shootings, there is ample opportunity for disagreement to occur: opinions are known to vary during these events and can be attributed to the source and content of news (Hirschfield & Simon, 2010; Jeffries et al., 1997), the perceived ambiguity of the situation (Dovidio & Gaertner, 2000), and pre-existing beliefs people have about police conduct (Jeffries et al., 2011).

With respect to social media and political events (a charged topic at times), in a cross-sectional study Hampton et al. (2017) found increased Facebook use was associated with lower agreement with coworkers, suggesting employees may turn to social media when they hold opinions that do not align with the majority in their workplace. This is supported by Martin et al. (2013) who found that lack of access to in-person discussion about frustrating topics was one reason people turned to online outlets. In the workplace specifically, increased coworker agreement was associated with increased willingness to discuss political issues in the workplace, suggesting it is lack of agreement that may drive hesitancy to discuss (Hampton et al., 2017).

Based on previous research, I hypothesize that employees will use social media at work following police shootings in a similar pattern found by Anderson and Hitlin

(2016). That is, following the event in question, there will be an increase in social media use at work compared to the use before the event. As seen in Figure 1, I predict:

H1a: Immediately following a police shooting, there will be an increase in social media use at work.

H1b: In the time after the event, social media use in the workplace will decrease over time.

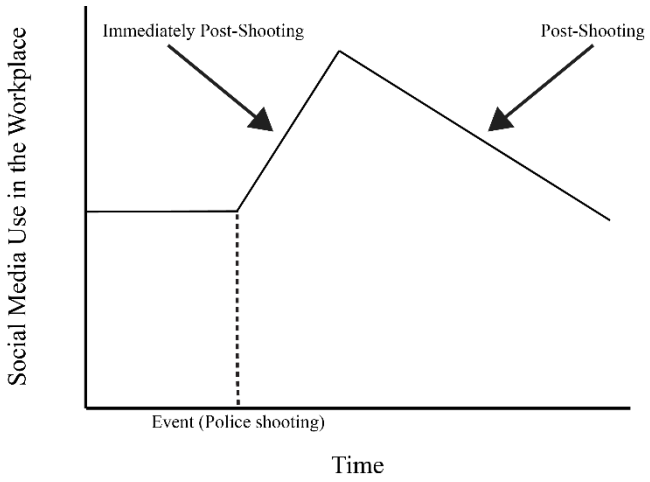

Figure 1. Hypothesized changes in social media use over time including (1) before, (2) at the time of, and (3) following a police shooting.

Race as a Social Group and its Effect on Criticality

Disagreements in the workplace about police shootings may, in fact, fall along racial lines. For instance, one study found that only 30% of Black people believe the police treat racial groups the same; whereas, 75% of White people believe this is the case (Morin & Stepler, 2016). With respect to the treatment of Black individuals in particular, 84% of Black people surveyed believe Black people experience unjust treatment in police encounters, compared to 50% of White people (Morin & Stepler, 2016). Nearly three-

quarters of Black Americans report that police are too quick to use deadly force, whereas less than a third of White Americans agree (The Ferguson Commission, 2015). Differences in opinions may lead employees to refrain from having conversations with coworkers about these events—conversations that could be beneficial for social groups particularly affected by the event.

Membership in social categories or groups, such as identifying as a particular race (Turner et al., 1987), shapes individuals' self-definitions or social identities (Tajfel, 1974). Being part of a social group can have great significance for members; positive and negative experiences and outcomes for the group can even affect members who do not directly benefit (or suffer) from the event or outcome (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

Direct and even indirect exposure to police brutality and other forms of racism may be perceived among members as threats against Black people (Petriglieri, 2011)—evidence of the devaluation of Black Americans as a racial group from law enforcement or from the majority group as a whole (McCluney et al., 2017) and may become "traumas motivated by the devaluing of one's race" (Bryant-Davis, 2007, p. 137). The effects of these threats, known as "collective identity traumas," can yield negative health outcomes such as post-traumatic health symptoms (Kira, 2010, p. 128). Thus, identity-threatening affronts against Black Americans, such as police shootings, are likely to be deemed especially critical and important to other Black Americans (c.f., Ainslie & Brabeck, 2003), and in turn, warrant actions to diminish the negative effects.

The process of acting in response to the event begins first with learning about the event, which could happen at any time as evidenced by the preponderance of social media alone as a source of news access. With increased access to news media,

particularly with mobile devices like smartphones (Knight Foundation, 2016), employees may learn about a police shooting at any time, including when commuting or potentially while working. If an employee learns about the shooting at work, it is no surprise the event could have an effect in the workplace as employees respond. For example, in an effort to gain more information employees may turn to social media for Twitter feeds from local law enforcement or talk to their colleagues. Therefore, there is ample opportunity for external events to enter the workplace context, thus increasing the likelihood of changes, such as changes in employee behavior. Because police shootings may be particularly critical, or strong, events for Black Americans, there is a greater likelihood this group in particular will demonstrate more behavior change, such as non-routine use of strategies aimed at combating the effects of learning about the shooting.

Changes in workplace social media use after a police shooting among Black Americans may reflect the use of social media as a source of resources known to offset the effects of social identity threats. Some responses to perceived social identity threats are aimed at maintaining or restoring the value of the individual's social identity (Ellemers et al., 2002). For example, individuals may use "identity-protection" responses such as discrediting the information from, and/or or educating out-groups that threaten the in-group's social identity (Petriglieri, 2011). Following social identity threats, Black Americans may use social media for identity-protection purposes. In the wake of racial discrimination and subsequent threat perception, Black Americans often seek social support as a mechanism for coping with the experience, particularly with others who may have an understanding of the experience (Carter & Forsyth, 2010; Sanders Thompson, 1996; Swim et al., 2003), and they may partake in identity-valuing behaviors, such as

outward demonstration of racial pride and identity differentiation (Constantine & Sue, 2006; Grasmuck et al., 2009).

For many Black Americans, composition of the workplace may make many of these strategies inaccessible without reaching beyond the immediate environment, as 78% of the US workforce is White, and 12% is Black (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017). Conversely, social media offers opportunities to interact. Black social media users are more likely (68%) to see posts about race or "race relations" when compared to White users (35%; Anderson & Hitlin, 2016). With respect to posting, nearly a third of Black users report most or all of what they post is related to race, whereas less than 10% of White users report the same (Anderson & Hitlin, 2016). Of Black users who report using social media as a platform to discuss race and inequality, 72% report that at least some of the posts they see are related to race or racial inequality—only 42% of White users report the same (Anderson & Hitlin, 2016).

Based on research showing that Black Americans post and receive a greater amount of race-related information on social media, I believe race will moderate the post-event and recovery period social media use at work. Those who identify as Black may exhibit more social media use immediately post-event. Although employees will likely have stable baselines of social media use in their workplace, observed changes in use may be a reflection of Black American's active efforts to take advantage of resources available through social media. Further, in the workplace context where tension and disagreement may have consequences for both individuals and immediate work groups and teams, social media may offer an outlet that reduces the likelihood of sustained negative effects from troublesome coworker interactions.

Therefore, the present study aimed to understand how racial differences may serve to moderate the perceived strength of the event. Specifically, the examination of how one driver of strength—criticality—leads to increases in social media use in the workplace for those who hold a racial identity that makes the shooting of an unarmed Black civilian more critical. As such, I believe that the recovery phase after the event (back to baseline) in social media use at work will also be moderated by race. As illustrated in Figure 2. I predict:

H2a: The event and race of the participants will interact, such that an increase of social media use at work immediately post-event will be greater for Black participants than for White participants.

H2b: In the time after the event, the rate of decrease in social media use in the workplace will be slower for Black participants than for White participants.

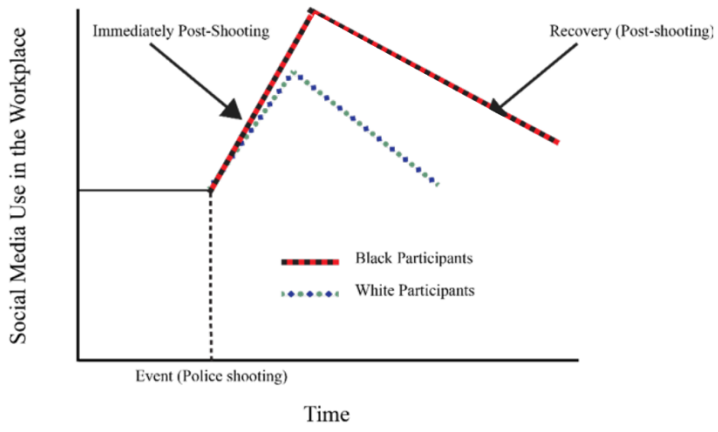

Figure 2. Hypothesized moderation effect of race on social media use immediately following (*H2a*), and in the time after (*H2b*), a police shooting.

CHAPTER 2: PRIMARY STUDY METHOD

Participants

In total, 105 participants were recruited and began this study. The exclusion process was as follows: (1) Participants did not consent and/or did not certify eligibility requirements (n = 5); (2) Participants certified the ability to provide a schedule but could not or did not do so when prompted (for attention check/consistency; n = 10); (3) Participants certified their account was older than March 11, 2018 but that was not the case (for attention check/consistency; n = 1); (4) Participants spent less than 5 minutes completing the survey (n = 2); (5) Participants completed the study more than once but provided different answers in each (n = 8); (6) Participants did not request payment from MTurk (Used as a signal to review for issues such as incomplete data; n = 3). After excluding the 29 participants the final sample was n = 76.

Of the retained participants, 52% identified as female, 47% as male, 1% identified as "other," and 1% did not respond. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 60 years old (M = 33.28 years, SD = 9.57 years). The participant race options included five groups and a write-in category. Most of the participants identified as "Caucasian/White American, European, not Hispanic" (46.05%) or "African American/Black" (42.11%). The remaining categories included "Asian, Asian American/Pacific Islander" (2.63%), Native American/American Indian" (1.32%), "Hispanic or Latina/o" (3.95%), or "other" (0%). The race options were not mutually exclusive and participants who indicated two or more races were classified as "multiracial" (2.63%).

All participants reported completing a high school diploma, and over half of the sample had earned a post-secondary degree (59.21%). Approximately half of the sample

earned $49,000 or less annually (48.69%). This aligns with per-capita median and mean annual incomes of the US which fall around $32,000 and $48,000 respectively (United States Census Bureau, 2019). For all frequencies and percentages see Table 1.

On average, participants worked nearly 40 hours per week (*M* = 38.56 hours, *SD* = 9.51 hours). Most participants identified as an "employee" in their workplace (65.79%). The remaining participants identified as "supervisors" (18.42%), "mid-level managers" (13.16%), or "firm owners" (2.63%). Participants also reported the presence or absence of social media policies in their workplaces (Greenwood et al., 2016). Forty-six percent reported having some type of policy regarding use in the workplace, 10.53% reported not knowing if they had any policy or policies, and 43.42% reported not having any such policies.

Procedure

The present study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of North Carolina at Charlotte (see Appendix A for the document certifying approval) as part of a larger study. I recruited participants through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (referred to as "MTurk") to complete an online survey through Qualtrics (see Appendix B for the MTurk "Worker" page visible to potential participants).

I examined participants' Twitter usage prior to, immediately after, and following one incidence of police use of deadly force against a Black individual: the fatal police shooting of Stephon Clark, on March 18th, 2018 in Sacramento, California. I used this shooting as the focal event as it was one of the most recent incidents at the time of data collection and therefore increased the likelihood participants could remember and report their work schedules.

I recruited on Amazon's MTurk for equal representation of both Black and White participants to facilitate examining H2a and H2b. Because MTurk's workers are predominantly White (Huff & Tingley, 2015), I created two separate postings, or "HITs" (Human Intelligence Tasks; Amazon Mechanical Turk, 2018). The first HIT was available to the general population of workers on MTurk, such that there were no listed racial requirements which I expected would yield primarily White workers. The second HIT targeted workers who identified as African American/Black. Both HITs were displayed on Amazon concurrently but participants who took one were not able to take the other.

In addition to the racial requirements for one of the HITs, participants recruited for either HIT, known as "Workers" on the MTurk platform (Amazon Mechanical Turk, 2018), had to: (a) be at least 18 years of age, (b) be currently residing in the US, (c) have had an active Twitter account since March 11th, 2018, (d) still have access to that account, and (e) be employed outside the home since March 11th, 2018 (1 week before the event). This information was presented on MTurk in the HIT before participants moved forward to the survey.

After participants accepted the HIT they followed the study link provided and landed on the study's specific application page which provided an overview of the consent information (see Appendix C). Participants willing to go forward were able to then sign in to their Twitter account and redirected to the Qualtrics survey. The first page of the survey also displayed the consent page as well as requirements for participation. At that time participants were required to provide consent and to certify that they met all listed requirements.

The survey included questions about the participants' workplace, their social media use in the workplace, and open-ended questions. Participants were compensated $1.50 for completing the survey. At the end of the survey, each participant was assigned a unique completion code that I used to link the Qualtrics response to the participant's MTurk Worker ID for payment.

Social Media Measures

Objective social media use. I collected logs of participants' Twitter use for every day one week prior to the event and four weeks after the event. To obtain this data I needed to ensure the account's username, or handle, associated with a participant was real and I needed permission to view participants' Twitter use even if the account was private. In the month prior to the primary data collection after the shooting of Stephon Clark, I conducted a pilot study and in that survey participants provided their username but were not required to sign in to Twitter with their username and password. This was problematic as some participants did not provide a valid handle (there was no account) and in some cases the account was private (I was unable to access and collect their data).

With this challenge in the pilot study, and to increase the certainty that the participants who provided responses to the survey were also those who used the Twitter account, for the primary study I designed an "Application" as a "Developer" through Twitter.

I deployed the application using the open-source software Django (2018) and written in the programming language Python. The application was hosted—the webpage where participants first landed after the MTurk "Worker" page—on the website www.Heroku.com. Participants clicked on the link in MTurk, were brought to the

application on the Heroku site, were shown the consent information, then were able to sign in to their Twitter account which authenticated the username and password through Twitter. Without completing the authentication through Twitter the participants were unable to reach the Qualtrics survey. Further, I designed the application to embed the participants' usernames into their survey response on Qualtrics.

Social media accounts and frequency of account use. Participants indicated what social media platforms they had accounts with. I listed the social media sites used in research conducted by Olmstead et al. (2016) for the Pew Research Center: Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, LinkedIn, and Pinterest. For each of the listed sites participants had accounts with, participants indicated the frequency of their use on an 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Several times a day*, 2 = *About once a day*, 3 = *3–5 days a week*, 4 = *1–2 days a week*, 5 = *Every few weeks,* 6 = *Less often*, 7 = *Never*). Self-estimations of frequency are common among literatures studying social media usage (c.f., Annisette & Lafreniere, 2017; Hampton et al., 2017; Shensa et al., 2017; Villanti, et al., 2017).

Purpose of social media use when at work. I used the eight items developed by Olmstead et al. (2016) to measure participants' reported use of social media at work. The items were responses to the question, "In your current job, to what extent do you use social media to:" Example items include, "Get information that helps you solve problems at your job," "Make or support professional connections that help you do your job," "Keep connected to family and friends while at work," "Take a mental break from work." Participants evaluated each statement on a 5-point rating scale (1 = *Not at all*, 2 = *A little*, 3 = *A moderate amoun*t, 4 = *A lot,* 5 = *A great deal*). Based on the overarching focus of the study, I added a 9th item to the scale: "Socialize when I can't with my coworkers."

Self-reported effects after using social media when at work. Participants also indicated the extent to which they agreed with statements about work-related outcomes or effects they perceived from their social media use. The scale included four items following the statement, "Thinking about your OWN use of social media at work, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?" The items were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Not at all,* 2 = *A little*, 3 = *A moderate amount*, 4 = *Quite a bit*, 5 = *Very much*). Three of the four items were used by Olmstead et al. (2016). Example items include: **"**Social media distracts me from the work I need to do," and "Social media breaks help me recharge while I am at work." To offer additional information about what social media may offer for communication or support from outside the workplace, I added the following item to the scale: "Social media gives me the opportunity to socialize with people outside of my company when I do not feel comfortable talking to coworkers."

Additional Measures

Event awareness. Following the procedures in Hampton et al. (2017) I collected participants' familiarity with, awareness of, knowledge of, and interest in the shooting of Stephon Clark on five-point Likert-type scales. First, participants indicated how familiar they were with, "The shooting of Stephon Clark in Sacramento, CA" to which they could respond on a five-point scale (1 = *Not at all,* 2 = *A little*, 3 = *A moderate amount*, 4 = *Quite a bit*, 5 = *Very much*).

Participants who selected *A little, A moderate amount, Quite a bit,* or *Very much* regarding familiarity with the event were then asked to rate how accurate the following three statements were: (1) "How informed are you about the event?" (2) "How

knowledgeable are you about the event?" and (3) "How interested are you about the event?" The last three items used the same five-point Likert-type scale as for the familiarity question.

Others' agreement about police shootings. I measured participants' perceived agreement with individuals in their workplace with a write-in option (Watt & Larkin, 2010). In line with Hampton et al. (2017), participants were asked to estimate and write-in the percentage of coworkers and supervisors who agreed with their views regarding police shootings. Participants were also able to endorse the responses *I don't know* and *I didn't talk to them*.

Qualitative data measure. The present study was part of a larger study that also included questions designed to understand the reasons employees used social media in their workplace. For this purpose, I collected and analyzed responses from the open-response question: "What are the top three reasons you use social media when you are at work? (Please describe as appropriate)."

Twitter Activity Measure

I collected Twitter data to objectively measure the focal outcome: changes in the volume of social media use at work from at the time of and after the focal event. I chose the social media site Twitter for three reasons. First, Twitter attracts a larger proportion of Black than White users, although those differences are relatively small (Greenwood et al., 2016; Perrin & Anderson, 2019). Second, at the time of data collection, Twitter's usage data was more accessible than other social media sites' data. At the time I was able to create a "Developer Account" to access the public activity of any Twitter user from Twitter's API and private use from those who gave me permission. To measure use

before and after the shooting of Stephon Clark I used an objective measure of activity to overcome some of the criticisms associated with participant estimations of social media use (Ellison et al., 2007).

Third, although Twitter was (Greenwood et al., 2016)—and still is (Perrin & Anderson, 2019)—not as widely used as some other platforms like Facebook, Twitter's content is often not "protected" or limited to the user's chosen connections. For example, Facebook defaults to posting content for a user's approved "Friends" on Facebook to view, rather than posting to be viewed by any user on the platform. My aim was to offer a study with less of an intrusion on participants' privacy than posts on social media websites that are commonly comprised of networks of known individuals, like Facebook. To ensure the privacy of Twitter's users who did not post publicly, I implemented the required log in to their Twitter accounts. This also prevented participants from providing usernames of those who were not consenting to be part of the study.

For the proposed analyses, between 6 and 30 data points are recommended (Bliese et al., 2017; Bliese & Lang, 2016). To gather adequate data points for hypothesis testing, I collected the Twitter usage 7 days prior to the shooting of Stephon Clark (March 18, 2018 at 9:30pm Pacific/12:30am Eastern) and 28 days after the event (including the transition day). With this, there was the possibility of up to 35 data points or days of use (7 before the event and 28 after).

CHAPTER 3: PRIMARY STUDY QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

The data collected in the primary study consisted of questions about general social media use, social media use at work, and additional event-specific measures. First, the descriptive statistics for the social media measures are reported. These descriptive statistics are followed by the reported racial differences in the event-specific questions. Lastly, I review the Twitter activity data collected from Twitter's API.

Descriptive Statistics for Social Media Measures

Social media accounts and frequency of account use. Eighty-eight percent of participants had a Facebook account. More than half of all participants reported using Facebook at least daily (57.89%). Specifically, 51.32% reported *Several times a day*, 21.05% reported *About once a day*, 6.58% reported *3–5 days per week*, 6.58% reported *1–2 days per week*, 2.11% *Less often*, and 9.47% reported *Never*. More than half of participants also reported using Twitter at least daily (51.58%). Specifically, 40.79% reported *Several times a day*, 23.68% reported *About once a day*, 11.84% reported *3–5 days per week*, 9.21% reported *1–2 days per week*, 5.26% *Less often* and 3.95% reported *Never*. Fewer than half of participants reported using Instagram, LinkedIn, or Pinterest at least daily. See Table 3 for a full list of frequencies for each response.

Purpose of social media use when at work. Using the Pew Research Center's items (Olmstead et al., 2016), the most common reason endorsed for using social media at work was to, "Take a mental break from work" (M = 3.66, SD = 1.18). Namely, 93.42% of participants endorsed this response to some degree (i.e., provided a response greater than *Not at all*).-The second most commonly reported reason for social media use at work was to, "Keep connected to family and friends while at work" (M = 2.82, SD =

1.29). Specifically, 80.26% responded at least *A little*. This was followed by using social media at work to, "Socialize when I can't with my coworkers" (M = 2.72, SD = 1.36) which 76.31% of participants stated was true at least *A little*.

For the item, "Get information that helps you solve problems at your job," 64.47% endorsed the reason (M = 2.43, SD = 1.38). For the item, "Learn more about someone you work with," 64.47% endorsed the response (M = 2.28, SD = 1.26). For the item, "Build or strengthen personal relationships with coworkers," 64.47% endorsed the response (M = 2.30, SD = 1.26). Beyond those statements the item, "Make or support professional connections that help you do your job," 60.53% endorsed the response (M = 2.30, SD = 1.31). "Ask work-related questions of people OUTSIDE your organization," was endorsed by 59.21% (M = 2.19, SD = 1.22) of the participants. The only item that received endorsement from less than half of the participants was, "Ask work-related questions of people INSIDE your organization," to which only 48.68% (n = 37) endorsed the response (M = 2.05, SD = 1.30).

Self-reported effects after using social media when at work. Using the Pew Research Center's items (Olmstead et al., 2016), most participants reported that, "Social media breaks help them recharge when at work" (M = 3.30, SD = 1.24). About 82% of participants endorsed the effect, "Social media gives me the opportunity to socialize with people outside of my company when I do not feel comfortable talking to coworkers" (M = 2.84, SD =1.24). This was followed by 76.32% of participants who agreed, "Social media distracts me from the work I need to do" more than just *A little* (M = 2.56, SD = 1.27). Lastly, 65.79% of participants endorsed the effect, "Social media lets me see too

much information about my coworkers" (M = 2.33, SD = 1.24). See Table 4 for all frequencies by response.

Descriptive Statistics and Racial Differences for Additional Measures

Event familiarity and interest. Most participants (76.32%) were at least *A little* familiar with the shooting of Stephon Clark (M = 2.82, SD = 1.38). Of the participants who reported familiarity with the shooting, 98.68% reported being informed about the shooting (M = 3.25, SD = 1.11). Further, nearly all of these participants believed they were knowledgeable to some extent (98.68%, M = 3.29, SD = 1.12). In terms of interest, 97.37% of those familiar with the shooting reported some interest in the shooting (M = 3.70, SD = 1.21). See Table 5 for the frequencies for each response.

Group differences in familiarity and interest. There were significant racial differences between participants who reported as either "Caucasian/White American, European, not Hispanic" or "African American/Black." To test for racial differences, participant race was regressed onto the variables for familiarity, and for being informed, knowledgeable, and interested. For familiarity, 16% of the variance in familiarity was explained by race, $F(1, 65) = 12.77$, $p < .001$. Among the participants who reported some familiarity with the shooting, race accounted for 20% of the variance in how informed ($F(1, 48) = 12.02$, $p < .001$) and 19% of the variance in how knowledgeable ($F(1, 49) = 11.28$, $p < .01$) participants reported being. Lastly, 39% of the variance in interest was explained by race, $F(1, 49) = 31.88$, $p < .001$. For all four questions, participants who identified as "African American/Black" had higher means than those who identified as "Caucasian/White American, European, not Hispanic."

Others' agreement about police shootings. In response to the question, "About what percentage of the following groups agree with your views about police shootings," approximately half of the participants could report their level of agreement with people at work. Over half of participants could report they knew their level of agreement with their coworkers (64.47%) and about half (48.68%) could report this information for their supervisors. The reported level of agreement for coworkers and for supervisors ranged from 2% to 100% and from 0% to 100%, respectively. The mean reported agreement with coworkers was 61.33% (*SD* = 27.07 *SE* = 3.87). The mean agreement with supervisors was 59.41% (*SD* = 36.43, *SE* = 5.99).

Twitter Activity Measure

The present study was slated to use a discontinuous growth model (Bliese et al., 2017; Bliese, Chan, & Ployhart, 2007; Bliese & Lang, 2016) with pre-event (baseline), transition point (time of shooting), and post-event (eventually entering into recovery) social media use. To address H1a and H1b, I collected Twitter usage data to examine intra-unit changes in social media use to test police shootings as a qualifying "event" under Event System Theory (Morgeson et al., 2015; Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). To address H2a and H2b, I aimed to examine group differences by including race as a moderator (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). In order to perform these analyses and address the four hypotheses, each participant had to meet the requirements necessary for the analyses as outlined by Bliese et al. (2017): a minimum of three data points before and three points after the "event" was necessary for each participant.

The review of the Twitter data for participant inclusion or exclusion for hypothesis testing was conducted after all other exclusion steps were completed,

therefore the starting pool was 76 participants. After participants completed the survey and were retained in the study, I used the usernames embedded in their responses downloaded from Qualtrics to extract their usage data from Twitter's API. To "pull" said data from Twitter, I used RStudio (RStudio Team, 2019) and the package rtweet (Kearney, 2019). Using this package, I collected the usage data for each username. Lastly, I exported the Twitter activity data to a .csv, removed any use not within the timeframe of interest (one week before and four weeks after), then I linked the usernames back to the Qualtrics data.

The majority of participants did not meet the minimum requirements for inclusion. The first round of exclusion accounted for the volume of activity before and after the event and was independent of participants' workdays or times. The exclusion procedure was as follows: Participants who (1) cancelled their Twitter account after the study but before data extraction (n = 1, 1.32%); (2) rescinded authorization after the study but before data extraction (n = 6, 7.89%); (3) had no use during specified time frame (n = 38, 50.00%); (4) had fewer than needed amount of activity both before and after the event (n = 10, 13.16%); (4) had less than needed activity during the week before (baseline; n = 7, 9.21%); (5) had less than needed activity after the event (post-event/recovery; n = 1, 1.32%). This left 13 participants to be reviewed for activity on workdays and during their reported work hours. After excluding participants with too few data points during the participants' workdays and/or scheduled hours, another 11 participants (14.47%) were excluded because they did not have enough data before the event to establish a baseline. This left a participant pool of n = 2, which was not

sufficient for the analyses to address Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2a, and 2b as proposed. See Table 6 for the means, standard deviations, and the exclusion process of these data.

Prior to the primary data collection for this thesis, I conducted a pilot study following the mass shooting at the Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School on February 14th, 2018. At that time, the survey I used after the shooting of Stephon Clark had not yet been tested with participants. With the volume of attention given to the Marjory Stoneman Douglas shooting, the event served as an opportunity to test the survey's functionality and to collect data after a critical, national-level event. Given that there were not sufficient data in the primary study to test my hypotheses, the remainder of the results section is focused on reporting results from the pilot study and reporting the analyses and results from the qualitative data collected in both the primary and pilot studies.

CHAPTER 4: PILOT STUDY METHOD

Participants

In total, 146 participants were recruited and began the pilot study. The exclusion process was as follows: (1) Participants did not consent and/or did not certify eligibility requirements (n = 8); (2) Participants did not complete the survey (n = 35); (3) Participants certified the ability to provide a schedule but could not or did not do so (for attention check/consistency; n = 3); (4) Participants provided a non-existent Twitter handle/username (n = 1); (5) Participants spent less than five minutes completing the survey (n = 3); and (6) Participants who worked fewer than 10 hours (n = 1). A total of 51 participants were excluded and the final pool was n = 95.

Of the retained participants, 45% identified as female, 56% as male, and 1% identified as "other." Participants' ages ranged from 19 to 63 years old (M = 33.76 years, SD = 9.68 years). As expected, most of the participants identified as "Caucasian/White American, European, not Hispanic" (80.00%), followed by "African American/Black" (10.53%), "Hispanic or Latina/o" (3.16%), "Asian, Asian American/Pacific Islander" (2.11%), Native American/American Indian" (1.32%), "Hispanic or Latina/o" (3.95%), or "multiracial" (4.21%; race options were not mutually exclusive).

All participants reported completing a high school diploma, and over half of the sample had earned a post-secondary degree (68.42%). Just under half of the sample earned $49,000 or less annually (45.26%). As with the participants collected after the shooting of Stephon Clark, this aligns with per-capita median and mean incomes of the US which fall around $32,000 and $48,000 respectively (United States Census Bureau, 2019).

On average, participants worked nearly 40 hours per week (M = 38.62 hours, SD = 6.03 hours). Most participants identified as an "employee" in their workplace (69.47%). The remaining participants identified as "supervisors" (16.84%), mid-level managers (11.58%), or firm executives (2.11%). Participants also reported the presence or absence of social media policies in the participants' workplaces (Greenwood et al., 2016)—36.84% reported having some sort of policy regarding use in the workplace, 9.47% reported not knowing if they had any policy or policies, and 55.79% did not have any such policy. For all frequencies and percentages see Table 7.

Procedure

Participants completed an anonymous online questionnaire in Qualtrics. To be eligible to participate in our study, participants had to: (a) be at least 18 years of age, (b) be currently residing in the US, (c) have had an active Twitter account since February 7th, 2018, (d) still have access to that account, and (e) be employed outside the home since February 7th, 2018. I recruited the sample on February 16th and 17th, 2018.

After accepting the task from the MTurk worker page, participants were directed to the consent page on the first page of the survey hosted on Qualtrics. The consent form described their rights as research participants and provided the researchers' contact information. Participants had to confirm that they met all of the eligibility criteria for the study and that they understood the information that had been provided before they were given access to the survey. Participants were compensated $1.50 for completing the survey and were assigned a unique completion code that was necessary to link their responses on Qualtrics to their MTurk Worker ID and to qualify them for payment.

Measures

The majority of the measures used in the primary study were also used in the pilot study after the shooting at the Stoneman Douglas High School. The referent, however, was the Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting. The event was appropriate based on the nearly immediate media attention and discourse about gun control and culpability for the event (Siegel, 2018). The measures included the participants' reported social media accounts, frequency of account use, reported purpose of social media use at work, others' agreement regarding the Marjory Stoneman Douglas shooting, and the open-response question for reasons participants used social media at work.

One measure was on a scale different from the scale in the primary study: the extent to which participants agreed with statements about work-related effects from their social media use. The scale included the same four items following the statement: "Thinking about your OWN use of social media at work, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?" The items were presented on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly disagree*, 2 = *Moderately disagree*, 3 = *Slightly disagree*, 4 = *Neither agree nor disagree*, 5 = *Slightly agree*, 6 = *Moderately agree*, 7 = *Strongly agree*).

CHAPTER 5: PILOT STUDY QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics for Social Media Measures

Social media accounts and frequency of account use. More than half of participants reported using Facebook or Twitter daily. With respect to Facebook, 73.68% used the site daily. Specifically, 57.89% reported *Several times a day,* 15.79% reported *About once a day*, 5.26% reported *3-5 days per week*, 4.21% reported *1-2 days per week*, 4.21% reported *Every few weeks*, 2.11% *Less often*, and 9.47% reported *Never*. More than half of participants reported using Twitter *At least daily* (73.68%). Specifically, 53.68% reported *Several times a day,* 20% reported *About once a day*, 8.42% reported *3-5 days per week*, 11.58% reported *1-2 days per week*, 3.16% reported *Every few weeks*, 2.11% *Less often*, and 1.05% reported *Never*. Approximately half of participants reported using Instagram daily (49.47%). Fewer participants reported using LinkedIn (9.47%) or Pinterest *At least daily* (15.79%). See Table 8 for a full list of frequencies.

Purpose of social media use when at work. In the order of highest- to lowest-endorsement, participants responded as follows: The highest rate of endorsement was for the item, "Take a mental break from work"—94.73% endorsed the response by reporting more than *Not at all* (*M = 3.85, SD* = 1.31). The second highest response was for, "Keep connected to family and friends while at work" (85.26%, *M = 2.85, SD* = 1.58). This pattern was also present in the data collected after the shooting of Stephon Clark.

Most items fell between 60% and 70% endorsement. For the item, "Learn more about someone you work with," 70.53% reported *A little* or more (*M* = 2.14*, SD* = 1.46). For the item, "Make or support professional connections that help you do your job," 69.47% endorsed to some extent (*M = 2.32, SD* = 1.45). Beyond those items, "Build or

strengthen personal relationships with coworkers," was endorsed by 68.42% of participants (*M* = 2.11, *SD* = 1.37). Still, more than half of participants reported that, "Get information that helps you solve problems at your job," was at least *A little* true (65.26%, *M* = 2.14, *SD* = 1.41). For the item, "Ask work-related questions of people OUTSIDE your organization," 61.11% endorsed the response (*M* = 1.89, *SD* = 1.37). The only item that received endorsement from less than half of the participants was, "Ask work-related questions of people INSIDE your organization," in which only 48.42% endorsed the response (*M* = 1.97, *SD* = 1.39) which aligned with the findings in the primary study. See Table 9 for all frequencies by item.

Self-reported effects after using social media when at work. For the only items on a scale ranging from one to seven, about 73% of participants reported using social media breaks to recharge at work (*M* = 5.38, *SD* = 1.50). About 60% (*M* = 4.92, *SD* = 1.74) of participants reported at least some agreement with the item I included for this study and the Stephon Clark data collection ("Social media gives me the opportunity to socialize with people outside of my company when I do not feel comfortable talking to coworkers"). Closely behind was the 57.89% of participants who agreed, "Social media distracts me from the work I need to do" (*M* = 4.33, *SD* = 1.86). The least-endorsed item was, "Social media lets me see too much information about my coworkers" (30.53%, *M* = 3.35, *SD* = 1.79). See Table 10 for all frequencies by item.

Descriptive Statistics for Additional Measures

Event familiarity and interest. All participants in this study were familiar with the Stoneman Douglas High School Shooting two days after the event (*M* = 3.74, *SD* = 1.01). More than half reported they were *Very* (24.21%) or *Extremely* (30.53%) familiar

with the event. A third (34.74%) reported they were *Moderately* familiar, and 10.53% identified as only *Slightly* familiar.

Others' agreement regarding the Stoneman Douglas High School Shooting. In response to the question, "About what percentage of the following groups agree with your views about the shooting at Marjory Douglas Stoneman High School," approximately half of the participants could report knowing this information about their coworkers and supervisors. Approximately 50% of participants could estimate their agreement with their coworkers and 36.84% for their supervisors. For both coworkers and supervisors, participant agreement ratings ranged from 0% to 100%. The mean agreement with coworkers was 64.73% (SD = 30.79, SE = 4.44) and the mean agreement with supervisors was 36.84% (SD = 37.81, SE = 6.39).

CHAPTER 6: QUALITATIVE ANALYSES AND RESULTS

The pilot and primary studies allowed me to simultaneously collect quantitative and qualitative data. Specifically, before offering participants Olmstead et al.'s (2016) reasons for social media use at work, participants described in their own words their reasons for using social media at work. Ellison and colleagues (2007) noted that studying all social media use as equivalent is a limitation in much of the social media literature. In the workplace context, using generalized measures such as the frequency of use, or proxies such as the size of "friend" networks, may not adequately explain social media use's effect on the workplace. In fact, there are inconsistencies in the literature with respect to relationships between the use of social media at work and workplace outcomes (e.g., distraction, performance). At present research is examining more specific factors such as personality and job characteristics and how they may interact with social media use and workplace outcomes. These studies offer support that not all employees or jobs are affected equally (e.g., Ali et al., 2019). With these emerging findings, the ability to better specify what type of "use" is associated with specific outcomes may be an additional step to resolve inconsistencies in the workplace social media research.

Therefore, with calls to tease apart nuances in social media use purposes and discrepancies in the existing literature, I used the qualitative data from the pilot study and the primary study to begin to fill this gap. Further, I used these data to compare employees' endorsed reasons for their in-workplace social media use with those presented in Olmstead et al.'s (2016) survey with pre-determined items. For this purpose, I began the data analysis with the following the research questions:

RQ1: How do participants describe their own social media use in the workplace?

RQ2: How do the qualitative findings compare to the categories, or types of social media use, provided in Olmstead et al.'s (2016) survey?

Both the primary and pilot study included the open-ended item question, "What are the top three reasons you use social media when you are at work? (Please describe as appropriate)." I used a convergent parallel mixed methods design to begin this inquiry (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Following the steps outlined in Creswell and Plano Clark (2018), the quantitative and qualitative data were simultaneously collected and were analyzed independently (p. 66). The results were then put together and compared to yield an interpretation of the data (p. 66).

A mixed methods design was the most appropriate means of addressing both RQ1 and RQ2. To address RQ1, I analyzed the qualitative data I collected in the surveys. To address RQ2, I needed both the qualitative, open-response data and the quantitative survey data in order to make the comparisons. Further, the two research questions were focused on a "single phenomenon" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 246), namely how social media is used at work.

Methodological Approach

At the time of analysis, I had no evidence of an existing framework that had been systematically developed to address the reasons why employees use social media at work. To determine if the items presented in Olmstead et al. (2016) were created from existing theory or from an inquiry that had not yet been published, I used the recommended contact information and contacted the survey's supporting organization, the Pew Research Center. I requested documentation for the source of the listed items and I did not receive a response. Thus, with a set of items with no known basis in the literature, I

used an inductive qualitative content analysis to examine my qualitative data to begin to address the first research question (Edmundson & McManus, 2007). I used an "interpretive" approach during the reading of the data (Mason, 2008) to capture the message the participant was conveying with an understanding of the context of the response—namely, while considering the question(s) the participants were answering, and language used in the context of social media use in the workplace in particular.

Data Collection and Preparation

The data collection and participant pools are described in Chapters 2 and 4. Both the quantitative and the qualitative data in each study were gathered within the same survey and both questions were collected from each participant. I attempted to avoid contamination in the responses from the Olmstead et al. (2016) survey items by presenting the open-response questions before the survey items and by putting the qualitative and quantitative questions on different pages.

Once data collection for both studies was complete, I conducted the aforementioned data cleaning procedures for each data set. Participants provided written responses that were exported with the whole of their responses from Qualtrics. Before analyses, the qualitative data were protected by removing all identifying information collected by Qualtrics (e.g., IP addresses) but I retained the random-character Qualtrics ID. I then gave each participant an anonymized ID that was linked to their Qualtrics ID in a separate document so that after coding the quantitative data and qualitative data could be linked. Following these steps, I compiled the open-response data into a document with only the anonymized ID. Once aggregated, the primary study and pilot studies yielded 206 and 260 responses, respectively.

Before merging or aggregating the qualitative data of the pilot and primary studies for analysis I compared demographic characteristics from the Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting and the Stephon Clark shooting to ensure the samples were mostly equivalent. There were no statistically significant differences between studies for age, income, number of hours worked, nor gender. Race, however, differed between studies with the primary study having a greater number and proportion of Black participants due to the sampling technique needed for the purpose of the study.

Researcher Bias and Coder Training

Throughout the analyses and in the present writeup, I considered my role as the researcher and what bias I may bring and have brought to the analyses that may jeopardize confirmability of the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I trained and supervised two research assistants through this process and considered what bias they may bring, as well. While I was unable to entirely remove myself from the coding process, I was mindful of my own familiarity with the items in Olmstead et al. (2016) and what effect that may have in the interpretation of the data. The undergraduate and post-baccalaureate research assistants that helped with this data were briefed on the overarching aims of the larger study but were not provided the survey that included the Olmstead et al. (2016) items and were not given a reading list that included the Olmstead et al. (2016) article nor any readings that referenced it.

Coding Process

The participants were not asked to rank their responses in any order of importance, so the unit of the analysis was the "unit of meaning" (Dey, 2003, p. 124) present in each individual "reason." Responses were no more than one sentence and often

comprised of just a few words. Each line/cell included a response. All participants responded to the question, although some participants offered fewer than three reasons.

Step One

In the first stage of analyses, I worked with two research assistants and we became familiar with the data by reading through the de-identified responses to the question in an Excel document (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Dey, 2003). At the first stage each response had been given a separate line to consider each response independently rather than as a grouping from one participant.

Step Two

After an overall review, we began open coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) and made notes in our independent documents. With these, we used axial coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) and established initial codes or a "detailed category list" (Dey, 2003, p. 107). Specifically, we inductively generated descriptive codes from the raw responses and then highlighted and annotated with summarizing statements (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Patton, 1990). Although frequency or prevalence is not necessarily an indicator of a code's or theme's value (Braun & Clarke, 2006), initial reviews of the data appeared to indicate there were few reasons that were not related, thus frequency became a crucial factor in determining the theme's value and later inclusion in the framework.

It was in this step that we had encountered enough instances where we needed the context from a previous response to have the response from the one we were examining. For example, some participants would refer to their previous answer with a statement such as, "see #1." For the additional steps I reorganized the data such that the three responses from each participant were visible together.

Step Three

After we developed the descriptive codes, we generated a rough codebook with all codes. With additional readings of the reorganized data layout with the three responses together for each participant, we were able to better contextualize responses and determine where the original descriptive codes needed to be broken apart or where the "message" was actually the same. At that time, we grouped the codes into the current sub-codes (Braun & Clarke, 2006), which were then placed in their appropriate descriptive broad code. See Table 11 for a full description of said codes and nvivo examples.

Step Four

Once we had an organized framework, we reviewed the data to determine if the codes were exhaustive. We identified that the lowest level codes were not always exhaustive, even if they clearly fell within a broad code. In other words, these cases often captured responses with less specificity than others but that shared the same overarching "reason" captured by the broad code. Because these responses were under the same umbrella as others in the broad code but with less specification, we developed a "general" or "other" category within the broad codes that had these instances (Dey, 2003). For example, the "general interactions" sub-code often included the same behavior as the other sub-codes but did not include a referent, such as with a friend or family member (see more detailed description and examples below). We continued to refine the codebook through an iterative process of reviewing the data, enhancing descriptions, and pulling exemplars of the codes (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Once the additional sub-codes were added, there were few cases of responses that included a "reason" that did not fit within the coding framework. Approximately 8% of the responses were coded as "other" in the data sets (see Tables 12 and 13 for specific values). We considered the preponderance of coverage with our codebook to be evidence of saturation that would be compromised if we continued to add additional codes to fit all responses.

Step Five

In addition to using the best practices described for conducting a thematic or inductive content analysis, I evaluated the reliability of my final codes using Cohen's Kappas for support for the dependability of the results if applied to data for similar research questions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). We independently coded 20% of the full data set then came together to resolve discrepancies and refine the codebook. I assessed inter-coder reliability (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014) with Cohen's Kappas (Cohen, 1960) because of the two coders and the nominal codes (Denham, 2017). I assessed the adequacy of the indices based on recommended cutoffs as well as known factors that may yield conservative Kappas (e.g., low frequency of a response within a category; Neuendorf, 2002). In deciding if the level of agreement was sufficient for moving forward, I considered the above as well as the risk of coding the entire data set over the course of achieving reliability. All Kappas are present in Table 11. After achieving adequate reliability statistics that approached, or were above, 0.80 (Landis & Koch, 1977), I split the responses randomly between the two coders. Once completed, I attached the nominal variables associated with the codes to the quantitative data with the matched Qualtrics ID, anonymized ID.

Resulting Codes

The final codebook yielded four "broad codes" and an "other" category. Specifically, the broad codes include, "interactions," "seeking or consuming online material," "passing the time," and "connection," the latter of which was a grouping of responses dedicated to non-specific connections with unclear referents. The "other" category consisted of written, but undecipherable, responses as well as responses that were not captured within the framework, of which there were few. See Table 12 for frequencies for each code for the primary study and Table 13 for the frequencies for the pilot study.

Broad Code: Seeking and/or Consuming Material

The most prominent broad code in both studies was "Seeking and/or consuming material" which consisted of three sub-codes that described activities such as reading or watching material and content online ($\kappa = 0.92$). Thirty-nine percent of the responses in pilot study (Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting; $n = 102$) fell within the "Seeking and/or consuming material" code, and 37.86% of the responses in the primary study (after the shooting of Stephon Clark; $n = 78$) were within this code.

Current events. These responses included consumption of information/material such as news, events, and videos and may include references to local, national and/or international news. It also included current products/services updates and review. Topics could include celebrities or hobbies/things they reported being interested in ($\kappa = 0.91$). Examples of this code include: "Looking at news," "when i want to check on news," "To make sure I'm not missing out on news," "To get up to date world and national news," "Find out about breaking news that I will want to search for more info on," "to keep up

with the news," "To get the news quickly," "To check the news," "I use it for information about local emergencies," "To keep up with current news and current events," "Read news," and "follow news."

Entertainment. This sub-code includes consuming content for entertainment purposes ($\kappa = 0.94$). Examples of this code include: "to entertain myself," "worldstar," "Entertainment when I need a break," "Entertainment," "To amuse myself," "watch funny videos," "for fun."

Seeking or consuming other content. This sub-code captures a range of related activities from "seeking and/or consuming material/information" but that does not fit in "entertainment" or "current events" or if the response mentions multiple options from the broad code. The sub-code includes statements that mention viewing other's social media (e.g., wall, timeline, history, pictures) ($\kappa = 0.73$). Examples include: "Look up recipes," "to look up information if I am unsure," "SEARCHING FOR INFORMATION," "to read about the opinions of others," "need to check something out," "Find content for my courses."

Broad Code: Interactions

The broad code "interactions" also consisted of three sub-codes, interactions with personal contacts, professional contacts, and non-specified contacts, which captured types of communication participants reported with different recipients or stakeholders ($\kappa = 0.92$). This was present in 27.69% ($n = 72$) of the responses in the pilot study, and 24.27% ($n = 50$) of the responses in the primary study, making it the second- and third-highest reported reason within each respective study.

Interaction with personal contacts. This sub-code captures interaction or communication with personal contacts (e.g., friends, family) and/or the material they post. These must include references to friends and family to be in this category (κ = 0.96). Examples of this code include: “talk to friends,” “To stay updated on family events/emergencies,” “stay in touch with friends,” “keep in touch with freind,” “To keep in touch with my family and friends throughout the day,” “To send updates to parents,” “To build better relationships with friends.”

Interaction with professional contacts. This includes coworkers, customers, and clients or reasons mentioning or involving social media use for the purpose of work (Not all references to work, such as the non-example, “taking a break from work”) (κ = 0.91). Examples of this code include: “To interact with customers,” “To connect with coworkers,” “To contact coworkers not at work currently,” “keep in touch with co-workers,” “keeping up with clients,” “Connect with other co-workers,” “TO COMMUNICATE WITH CUSTOMERS,” “Communicating with coworkers,” “to communicate with my boss.”

General interaction. Mentions of interacting, sharing, or communication with no specific group (κ = 0.89). Examples of this code include: “communication,” “Talk to others,” “sharing ideas,” “SHARING INFORMATION,” “chat,” “stay in touch with people.”

Broad Code: Passing Time

This code has no sub-codes and described social media as a way to use or fill time that is not otherwise filled (κ = 0.97). This was present in 23.08% (n = 60) of the responses in the pilot study, and in 30.10% (n = 62) of the responses in the primary

study. Examples of this sub-code include: “Bored during down time,” “Boredom,” “I am bored,” “I use social media at work when I'm bored and I have down time between tasks,” “because i am genrally bored,” “Something to do when I am bored or work is slow,” “Boredom,” “Pass the time when there's nothing to do,” and “pass the time.”

Broad Code: Connections

The “connections” code captures broad references to being connected or staying connected but no clear method of doing so or referent, such as reading about others or messaging them. This also includes mentioning social media use for a non-specific sense of connection ($\kappa = 1.00$). This was present in 1.54% ($n = 4$) of the responses in the pilot study, and 0.49% ($n = 1$) of the responses in the primary study. Examples of this code include: “keeps me connected,” and “stay connected.”

Broad Code: Other

This category captures responses that do not answer the question, of which some were statements that the participant did not use social media at work, or incoherent responses and/or those that are unable to be deciphered. This was present in 8.46% ($n = 22$) of the responses in the pilot study, and 7.28% ($n = 15$) of the responses in the primary study. At the time of conducting reliability, this code also included non-text responses (empty cells) ($\kappa = 1.00$). Before calculating the overall percentages of response codes, the empty or blank cells were removed from the *N* representing the whole.

Incoherent. Some responses in the data set were unable to be interpreted as they were. To be diligent with coding what data we could, we reviewed the other responses for participants who had codes in this category to determine if answers were connected to the previous responses. For those that were not, the response fell within this category. Some

examples include: “fast,” “i want to,” “it helps me,” “FREE,” “The speed is the first thing.”

No use at work or no response. Participants who did not provide any response (a blank or empty response in the open-ended box) or reported they did not use social media at work were placed into this category. Examples of responses that indicated participants did not use social media at work included: “I don’t,” “I dont use personal social media at work,” “Cant do it at work.”

CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSION

The present study aimed to shed light on how (and if) an event outside of an organization affects employees' social media use, particularly when the event in question is particularly important or salient for the employees. To address this focus and to form my hypotheses I used Event System Theory (Morgeson et al., 2015), which offers an explanation for how events outside of an organization can affect the routine behaviors of employees within their organization. Specifically, I used the publicized police shooting of a Black civilian, Stephon Clark, as a focal event to examine differential effects for Black Americans compared to White Americans. To supplement these data with another event, I analyzed pilot data collected after the highly-publicized school shooting, at Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School.

To test the hypotheses, the present study was slated to use a discontinuous growth model with social media data collected for each participant (Bliese et al., 2017; Bliese et al., 2007; Bliese & Lang, 2016). The data included social media use pre-event (baseline), at the transition point (time of shooting), and post-event (eventually entering into recovery). I hypothesized that the shooting of Stephon Clark would yield an increase in volume of social media use at work (H1a) followed by a return to baseline social media use (H1b). To address H1a and H1b, I collected Twitter usage data to examine intra-unit changes in social media use following a police shooting of a Black civilian. I also hypothesized that the increase in use immediately after the event would be greater for Black participants (H2a) and the return to baseline would be slower for Black participants (H2b). To address H2a and H2b, I aimed to examine group differences by including race as a moderator to capture "criticality" as described by Morgeson et al. (2015). In order to

perform these analyses and address the four hypotheses, a minimum of three data points before and three data points after the event was necessary for each participant. The majority of participants did not meet these requirements and the final pool was $n = 2$. As such, I was unable to test the proposed hypotheses.

However, one of the broader goals of this study was to examine how and why people use social media at work following events. With the inclusion of the pilot data collected after the Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting, self-report data regarding use patterns after a racially relevant and non-racially relevant event were valuable for indirectly supporting future research in this vein. Although I was unable to use participants' Twitter data as proposed, I analyzed the quantitative reports of reasons for use at work and the qualitative data collected in both of these studies. Although these later sets of data included questions that were not aimed at the use of social media before and after an event, these supplemental analyses offer a more comprehensive understanding of the reasons behind social media use at work that goes beyond volume of Tweets.

The supplemental qualitative analyses were designed to shed light on the reasons employees use social media at work in tandem with the theory-driven hypotheses regarding social media use after critical events. The qualitative data offers some indirect support for the hypotheses and with more information about general use, the data offers alternative avenues from which to study social media use in the workplace. Research question one, "How do participants describe their own social media use in the workplace?" guided the process of creating a code structure inductively with the open-response data collected in both surveys. The second research question, "How do the

qualitative findings compare to the categories provided in Olmstead et al. (2016)?" was addressed after the codes had been inductively developed independent of the categories in Olmstead et al. (2016). Overall, the qualitative data suggest there are opportunities for studying specific uses of social media in the workplace that may be different from those captured in opinion surveys.

Self-Reported Social Media Data

Social media use and frequency. The present study's data were collected after the Pew Research Center's workplace social media report by Olmstead et al. (2016) but the Pew Research Center has not yet released a follow-up to that study, which collected data before the series of police shootings of Black civilians (e.g., Alton Sterling and Philando Castile, both of which were caught on camera). However, the Pew Research Center has released a new social media use survey that covers general use (Perrin & Anderson, 2019) and asserts that social media use across the US has remained constant for the time since the Olmstead et al. (2016) report. These reported rates by Perrin and Anderson (2019) align with the usage frequencies reported in both my pilot and primary studies for Facebook and Twitter as well as for less-used sites like Pinterest and LinkedIn.

Purpose of social media use at work. The patterns in reported purpose or reasons for in-workplace social media use collected after the Stephon Clark and Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shootings were similar to those presented in Olmstead et al. (2016). Specifically, the highest-endorsed purpose for use across both of my studies and Olmstead et al. (2016) was "Keep connected to family and friends while at work." The high rate of responses related to connecting with friends and family (which was also

supported in the qualitative data) supports the potential use of social media to reach beyond the workplace although neither data sources offer why or under what conditions participants connect with friends and family.

To lend additional support by incorporating the qualitative findings with the endorsed survey items presented in Olmstead et al. (2016) there is overlap in my coding scheme with the researcher's items. For instance, the sub-code "Interaction with personal contacts" closely mirrors Olmstead et al.'s (2016) "Connect with friends and family" item in their survey. Although my data supported a code to capture this use, the frequency with which it was mentioned in my qualitative data did not align with endorsement rates present in Olmstead et al. (2016). Specifically, Olmstead et al. (2016) reported that 27% of their participants endorsed that option as a reason for use at work, whereas only 5.45% of my sample's responses mentioned that category. Even when the sub-code is brought to the broad, "Interactions" code, 22.72% of my sample endorsed this category (which also includes interaction with professional contacts), which still falls short of Olmstead et al.'s (2016) 27%. In making this comparison, however, it should be noted that this difference may not be statistically significant and the frequency of mentions in qualitative data should not be the only consideration in interpreting importance (Braun & Clarke, 2006). These findings should also be evaluated with the possibility that prior knowledge of the Olmstead et al. (2016) categories influenced the creation of the present code as noted in Chapter 6.

The codebook I developed, however, did have an additional use category not included in Olmstead et al.'s (2016) survey: descriptions of obtaining news and event information. This additional reason for use in my codebook may be one explanation for

the differences in the frequencies of connecting with friends and family. For example, participants may offer the news category in lieu of a response that would be in "interactions," particularly since social media users are often exposed to more—and more diverse—news when they have large and diverse social network connections (Beam et al., 2018).

As described above, responses from the qualitative data yielded the novel response of the option to follow news or current events. The category accounted for a large proportion of the responses—20% of the sample. As such, this lends support to the potential for employees to learn about events like shootings while they are working and/or creates the opportunity for employees to continue to follow event updates. As this is one way that workplace social media use could change after the occurrence of a salient event, this finding in the qualitative data offers support for future examination of H1a and H1b. Further, with the large number of US adults who report gathering general news from social media sites independent of specific events, this is an important opportunity of further study.

The reasons or intended purpose of social media use while in the workplace may include reasons that help the organization. The second-highest endorsed category in the quantitative data was to, "Take a mental break from work." However, there is also evidence that use can be detrimental to organizational interests. For example, there has been exploration of social media as a form of distraction (Olmstead et al., 2016) or its negative effects on productivity (Andreassen et al., 2014). In fact, approximately 75% of the participants in the primary study and 60% in the pilot study endorsed that social media is a distraction at work. Beyond distraction, recent work has explored social media

use as a form of deviance (Turel, 2017; Turel et al., 2018; Turel et al., 2018). Without knowing the employees' motivations for using social media and what they are doing, it is difficult to conclude what is a distraction that leads to lower productivity or performance, and what use serves to distract an employee to allow them to "come back" to their work and perform better, and potentially with higher levels of engagement (Syrek et al., 2018). Closer examination of these differences should also inform future research.

One particular reason for use offered in this study may have a unique effect on employees when use is a response to relationships with coworkers. For example, the third-highest endorsed item in my data collected after the shooting of Stephon Clark was the item, "Socialize when I can't with my coworkers" which was added specifically for this study. According to literature in the health fields, those who use social media in lieu of social interaction are likely hurting themselves in some way. Therefore, if employees feel compelled to use social media to fill a void, this has the potential to do more harm than good. Aside from organizational-specific outcomes, general well-being may be negatively affected by social media use (Li, Chang, & Chiou, 2017). At this time this relationship should be considered in future research examining the workplace and relationships with co-workers.

Self-Reported Event-Specific Data

Across both studies, similar rates of participants could report their agreement level with their coworkers and supervisors, meaning similar rates of participants knew where their colleagues stood on the issues at hand. These rates were similar across studies although the pilot data collection after the Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting was shortly after the incident (2 days later) and the primary study's data

collection after the shooting of Stephon Clark for the primary study was 11 days after the event. Although the rates of ability to report agreement were similar across the studies, there were differences between studies with respect to agreement with coworkers versus agreement with supervisors. Specifically, the primary study had similar rates of reported agreement across coworkers and supervisors regarding police shootings. In contrast, participants reported lower rates of agreement with supervisors than with coworkers about the Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting. This discrepancy may be explained by the survey, or more specifically the topic-level referent in one ("police shootings") and the incident-specific referent in the other ("Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting"). However, the type of event may explain how awareness about colleagues' agreement was consistent yet for the school shooting there was lower agreement for supervisors.

The subject matter of some events—like police shootings—may influence employees' willingness to discuss the event or the issue as a whole with a supervisor, as they might suspect or know that their supervisor does not share their views or would be uncomfortable holding such a discussion. Support for this possibility can be found in literature addressing race discussions in the US. Police shootings and racial issues can be uncomfortable. White Americans often exhibit discomfort when given the opportunity to speak about race, and particularly when holding these discussions with Black Americans. Simply the thought of this interaction can be upsetting (Dovidio et al., 2002) and even lead to a physical anxiety response (Marshburn & Knowles, 2018). Should this be the case, it would make sense that only participants who already knew they agreed with their supervisors were willing to have these discussions and thus could report the agreement

figures. The possibility that these discrepancies are due to known agreement prior to the event should be further explored.

Another possibility is that participants had expectations about their supervisors' or coworkers' awareness about the events. Namely, some participants may have known what events were followed by those they work with from in-person conversations or even from following their coworkers on social media websites. Although the Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting was just 2 days prior to the data collection, 100% of the participants were familiar with the shooting. In contrast, 76.32% of participants were familiar with the shooting of Stephon Clark after 11 days. It is striking that with additional time—9 days to be exact—there was still a lower percentage of participants familiar with the Stephon Clark shooting. With this, employees could assume everyone they worked with at least knew about the Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting and hold a conversation if all other conditions supported it, whereas the same could not be said about the shooting of Stephon Clark. An additional consideration is that there were significant racial differences in familiarity with the Stephon Clark shooting with Black participants being more familiar with the shooting than White participants. This lends greater support to the need to consider racial identity in the workplace after certain events like police shootings as described by Roberson et al. (2017).

Contributions and Future Directions

Theoretical and Methodological Contributions

The present study offers a preliminary step to justify the closer examination of workplace-specific social media use. Current directions in social media research is

exploring non-work social media use, such as how social media use may serve to give a break to employees and yield increases in outcomes like engagement (Syrek et al., 2018). Olmstead et al. (2016) offered this reason, and the present study supported the prevalence of that intended use. However, to my knowledge there is no academic research that has worked from the ground up and developed a framework from participants' own words to gather a more in-depth understanding of *what employees are doing* when they are taking this break to use social media. In order to test hypotheses regarding the use of social media in the workplace with quantitative methods, which are common in the literatures on this topic, measures need to be designed starting from the ground up (Edmondson & McManus, 2007).

The present study lends support to examining non-work use and how events like police shootings may create workplace environments that affect how employees use social media and even how employees communicate with one another. The integration of the quantitative and qualitative methods offers indirect support for the need for exploration of specific types of uses before and after a critical event, whether this be to reach out to loved ones or to gain information and updates. The racial differences in self-reported familiarity and interest in the Stephon Clark shooting lends support to the potential differences due to characteristics or identities that make an event more or less important or critical to an employee. The news category that was so prevalent in the qualitative data—yet was not captured in the quantitative items—further begs the question of whether this form of use is related to particular events and identities.

With that, the present study exemplifies the need for more refined examination of "social media use" as called for by Ellison et al. (2007). Social media websites have

different user-bases and purposes based on their features and shared connections. Therefore, the reasons people choose to use "social media" may differ across individuals and contexts. However, the aggregation of all social media sites and types of use is common (Ellison et al., 2007). Recent work is beginning to examine individual differences among employees who are using social media, the characteristics of employees' work such as amount of independence, and what differences these factors may have on particular outcomes (e.g., Ali et al., 2019). However, the continued differentiation of types of use needs to be further developed and must evolve as new social media sites are developed, become obsolete, or change in how they are used.

In the present study I demonstrated that there are numerous self-reported reasons for use, some of which are not captured in existing literature dedicated to social media use at work. By shedding light on the reasons for use at work, findings from this study may be used to better inform additional mixed-methods and quantitative studies (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). Additional work should continue to include individual differences such as injustice sensitivity (Thomas, Baumert, & Schmitt, 2011) and personality traits which are associated with relationship conflict in the workplace (Schmitt, Gollwitzer, & Arbach, 2003), and job-related characteristics. By incorporating specific reasons for use as I have identified here, as well as better refinement of the types of social media sites and the people who are using said sites, we can make better recommendations for the workplace. Such individual considerations will allow researchers to make recommendations that are based in a more fine-grained understanding of social media use at work rather than blanket solutions.

Future Directions for Practical Application

In addition to theoretical implications, there is the potential for this study to inform future research for practical application. First, the findings may inform future recommendations for organizational policies around social media use at work. Existing policies limiting or banning social media use at work, even when effective, may not be beneficial for organizations. According to Olmstead et al. (2016), about half of full-time and part-time workers have said their workplace has rules about using social media while at work (Olmstead et al., 2016). These figured are mirrored in both the data collected after the Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting (36.84%%) and the shooting of Stephon Clark (46.05%). Despite these organizational restrictions, most employees are using their social media accounts when they are at work.

There is the potential that social media use, even use that is unrelated to users' work, may be beneficial for employees and organizations (c.f., Syrek et al., 2018). However, employees' use of social media can be labeled as incivility or a counterproductive work behavior when the organization prohibits it (Turel et al., 2018). Organizations may need to consider how to handle policies when a behavior that is indicative of incivility is actually beneficial for the employee. For example, how might organizations handle an employee such as one participant who explicitly stated, "they do not pay me enough to care." With a more thorough understanding from the qualitative data, organizations may begin to consider policies based on what their employees are using their social media accounts for. The topics addressed in the present study are but a few to address some of the questions of whether or not organizational policies should be implemented for social media use.

Second, this study has implications for understanding coworker dynamics. Future studies should examine the extent to which employees who use social media for purposes not directly related to their job use it to bridge communication with their coworkers. After all, using social media can support social connectedness and belongingness (Grieve et al., 2013). Additional measures, such as indices of relationship quality with coworkers, could build on this to gain insight into if the social media sharing is *because of* an existing relationship with a coworker, or if social media can help to build those relationships over time. Either case may be likely, as adult friendships are often intertwined with, or derive from, work (Hess, 1972 cited in Hartup & Stevens, 1999; Winstead, Derlega, & Montgomery, 1995).

Beyond the coworker relationship that occurs within the work domain, it is important to consider how interacting with coworkers on social media may affect the employee, their home life, and even the news employees and their personal connections are exposed to. Zivnuska and colleagues (2019) call for an examination of, "the impacts that social media use has on the intersection of work and family" (p. 155), thereby representing an area that organizations need to seek more information about. A large proportion of my participants reported communicating with personal connections like friends and family through social media, thus bringing the home into work. Further, employees "friending" their coworkers on social media might also bring the workplace home. Both possibilities represent non-traditional cases of spillover that organizations and practitioners should consider. Interestingly, employees who friend coworkers and expand their networks in diverse ways such as this may actually be exposed to more news and share information through their social media accounts (Beam et al., 2018). In other

words, spilling work over into home and vice versa may also include the spillover of diverse information about events such as those that were examined in the present study.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

The present study did not have enough data within the timeframe of focus to test the hypotheses presented. Further, the lack of data in the objective data logs contradicts the self-reported frequency of use by the participants. Specifically, participants reported more use than was supported by their Twitter objective data. There are, however, potential explanations for this inconsistency. First, participants' self-reported estimates may be flawed—a methodological concern expressed by Ellison and colleagues (2007). However, research comparing logs directly from Facebook indicates that self-reports are moderately to strongly correlated with self-reported use. Specifically, for Facebook users, correlations between objective logs of use (i.e., liking, commenting, sending private messages) and self-reported use in surveys range from 0.4 and 0.6 (Goulet, 2012). However, according to Goulet (2012), users with infrequent use significantly underreport that use, which is in contrast to the apparent over-estimation in my data.

Perhaps more likely, however, is that the "use" the participants self-reported was not captured in my data from Twitter's API. In response to Ellison et al.'s (2007) methodological recommendations, Burke, Kraut, and Marlow (2011) used objective data logs from Facebook's API to capture a comprehensive view of usage over the course of 60 days. In addition to the "active" use comparable to what I collected in the present study (e.g., comments, posts), Burke et al. (2011) obtained indicators of "passive" use such as number of reloads, stories clicked, and profiles viewed.

In my qualitative data, some of the highest-endorsed reasons for using social media at work would be "passive consumption" as described by Burke et al. (2011). In fact, the broad code "Seeking and/or consuming material" was present in approximately 40% of all responses in both the primary and pilot studies. Specifically, the sub-code capturing following the news or seeking information about current events was endorsed in approximately 25% of all responses. Thus, after a critical event, employees may be trying to stay informed but without "active use." For example, some participants described this in their responses: "Find out about breaking news that I will want to search for more info on," "If a big news story happens," or "New important news." Without active interaction with what they read (e.g., sharing or liking the information or articles), their use as described would not have been captured with the present study's method of data collection.

Unfortunately, neither Facebook nor Twitter allows developer or user access to data of that nature through their APIs. I attempted to circumvent this issue by collecting data from Twitter, which allows for more data access than does Facebook, but none of the passive indices above are accessible with their API. Future research requiring objective measures of all use may require that researchers evolve their methods of collecting said data. For example, Apple devices with current software have a "Screen Time" feature, which allows users to see how much time is spent on different apps (Apple, Inc., 2019). The amount of time on each app is visible for all devices signed in with the same Apple account, and the apps may be organized by their function (i.e., all social media apps).

With overcoming the data limitations described above, I suggest there are multiple opportunities to shed light on the issues that informed the aims of this study. With adequate data, alternate analyses could be conducted that better fit patterns of use. Although the proposed pattern was expected to fit with the discontinuous growth model (Bliese et al. 2016, 2017), there is no way to evaluate this with the sparse data. With enough data the hypotheses presented—while still based on EST (Morgeson et al., 2015)—could instead be modeled as a single curvilinear relationship or a two-phase, pre- and post-event relationship (rather than using the three phases of a discontinuous growth model).

Further, the proposed method and analyses could be applied across multiple events and/or different types of events. This presents an opportunity to contribute to the diversity literature with respect to race or, with the framework presented by Morgeson et al. (2015), with any population that has an identity-relevant characteristic that would affect the salience of an event. One example is parents, who may be more emotionally affected by certain events than non-parents. Mainiero and Gibson (2003) demonstrated that the emotional responses following 9/11 interfered with employees' ability to concentrate while at work, and certain groups, such as parents, were more greatly affected. In this study, the school shooting at the Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School may have been a particularly salient event for parents. Future research should explore additional populations and identify relevant identity characteristics for specific events.

Last, by opening this line of research to different events and identities than those originally proposed, researchers may still be able to answer the overarching question of

"do salient events affect employees' social media use" with the existing definition of a change in "routine workplace behaviors" (social media use) as a change in the volume of the use, as was hypothesized in this study. However, even if data suggest volume does not change, a broader definition of a "change" in routine workplace social media use may need to be applied. There is a possibility employees do not *increase* their use, but perhaps a greater *proportion* of use is dedicated to a particular topic after an event. Future studies should test the hypotheses informed by EST (Morgeson et al., 2015) while considering the many ways in which "change" can be defined. This will, however, require overcoming the aforementioned limitations in data access from social media sites such as Facebook and Twitter.

Beyond differences in social identity and self-reported motivations, differences in stated reasons for workplace social media use warrant the exploration of perceptions of the workplace or underlying, indirect reasons that could lead to the reasons identified in the present study. For example, individual differences may also explain social media use.

Conclusion

Most working adults in the US use social media during their workday, yet the reasons why employees are using social media is unclear, as are the individual and organizational outcomes from this use. When critical events occur, events like the shooting of Stephon Clark or the Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting, employees may turn to social media to discuss the events, check on their loved ones, or gather information. The present study demonstrates that the reasons for workday social media use varies in that there is no one reason employees use social media at work. Although changes in use over time and between groups could not be examined, the

present study offers indirect justification for future research in this line, such as the evidence of between-group differences in familiarity with, and interest in, an event hypothesized to be critical and relevant for Black Americans. Therefore, with the known gaps in detailed reasons for use, differences across groups in social media use in the workplace, and social media use changes after critical events, the present study justifies closer examination of these areas for empirical research and for organizational policies.

REFERENCES

Ainslie, R. C., & Brabeck, K. (2003). Race murder and community trauma: Psychoanalysis and ethnography in exploring the impact of the killing of James Byrd in Jasper, Texas. *Journal for the Psychoanalysis of Culture and Society*, *8*(1), 42–50. https://doi.org/10.1353/psy.2003.0002.

Ali, A., Wang, H., & Khan, A. N. (2019). Mechanism to enhance team creative performance through social media: A transactive memory system approach. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *91*, 115–126. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2018.09.033

Amazon Mechanical Turk. (2018). FAQs. *Amazon Mechanical Turk, Inc.* https://www.mturk.com/worker/help

American Psychological Association (APA). (2016). Politics in the workplace survey: 2016 election season. http://www.apaexcellence.org/assets/general/2016-politics-workplace-survey-results.pdf?_ga=1.118552384.839490149.1407366904

Anderson, M., & Hitlin, P. (2016). Social media conversations about race. *Pew Research Center.* http://www.pewinternet.org/2016/08/15/social-media-conversations-about-race/

Andreassen, C. S., Torsheim, T., & Pallesen, S. (2014). Use of online social network sites for personal purposes at work: Does it impair self-reported performance? *Comprehensive Psychology*, *3*, 1–21. https://doi.org/10.2466/01.21.CP.3.18

Annisette, L. E., & Lafreniere, K. D. (2017). Social media, texting, and personality: A test of the shallowing hypothesis. *Personality and Individual Differences, 115*, 154–158. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.02.043

Apple, Inc. (2019). Use Screen Time on your iPhone, iPad, or iPod touch. *Apple Support*. https://support.apple.com/en-us/HT208982

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, *14*(1), 20–39. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1989.4278999

BarackObama. (2017, August 12). No one is born hating… [Twitter post]. https://twitter.com/BarackObama/status/896523232098078720

Beam, M. A., Child, J. T., Hutchens, M. J., & Hmielowski, J. D. (2018). Context collapse and privacy management: Diversity in Facebook friends increases online news reading and sharing. *New Media and Society*, *20*(7), 2296–2314. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461444817714790

Bliese, P. D., Adler, A. B., & Flynn, P. J. (2017). Transition processes: A review and synthesis integrating methods and theory. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *4*, 263–286. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032516-113213

Bliese, P. D., Chan, D., & Ployhart, R. E. (2007). Multilevel methods: Future directions in measurement, longitudinal analyses, and nonnormal outcomes. *Organizational Research Methods*, *10*(4), 551–563. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428107301102

Bliese, P. D., & Lang, J. W. (2016). Understanding relative and absolute change in discontinuous growth models: coding alternatives and implications for hypothesis testing. *Organizational Research Methods*, *19*(4), 562–592. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428116633502

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(2), 77–101. https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa

Bryant-Davis, T. (2007). Healing requires recognition: The case for race-based traumatic stress. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *35*(1), 135–143. https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000006295152

Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2017). Report 1070: Labor force characteristics by race and ethnicity, 2016. *United States Department of Labor*. https://www.bls.gov/opub/reports/race-and-ethnicity/2016/home.htm

Burke, M., Kraut, R., & Marlow, C. (2011). Social capital on Facebook: Differentiating uses and users. In *Proceedings of the SIGCHI conference on human factors in computing systems* (pp. 571–580). ACM. http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=1979023

Byron, K., & Peterson, S. (2002). The impact of a large-scale traumatic event on individual and organizational outcomes: Exploring employee and company reactions to September 11, 2001. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *23*(8), 895–910. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.176

Campbell, B. A., Nix, J., & Maguire, E. R. (2017). Is the number of citizens fatally shot by police increasing in the post-Ferguson era? *Crime and Delinquency, 64*(3), 398–420. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0011128716686343

Carter, R. T., & Forsyth, J. (2010). Reactions to racial discrimination: Emotional stress and help-seeking behaviors. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy*, *2*(3), 183–191. https://doi.org/ 10.1037/a0020102

Chopik, W. J., & Motyl, M. (2016). Ideological fit enhances interpersonal orientations. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, *7*(8), 759–768. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1948550616658096

Cohen, J. (1960). A coefficient of agreement for nominal scales. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *20*(1), 37–46. https//doi.org/10.1177/001316446002000104

Colella, A., Hebl, M., & King, E. (2017). One hundred years of discrimination research in Journal of Applied Psychology: A sobering synopsis. *Journal Applied Psychology, 102*(3), 500–513. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000084

Constantine, M. G., & Sue, D. W. (2006). Factors contributing to optimal human functioning in people of color in the United States. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *34*(2), 228–244. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0011000005281318

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2018). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications, Inc.

Dalton, R., Van Sickle, A., & Weldon, S. (2010). The individual–institutional nexus of protest behaviour. *British Journal of Political Science*, *40*(1), 51–73. https://doi.org/10.1017/S000712340999038X

DeGue, S., Fowler, K. A., & Calkins, C. (2016). Deaths due to use of lethal force by law enforcement: Findings from the national violent death reporting system, 17 U.S. states, 2009–2012. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine, 51*(5), S173–S187. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2016.08.027

Denham, B. E. (2017). Interrater agreement measures for nominal and ordinal data. In *Categorical statistics for communication research* (pp. 232–254). John Wiley and Sons, Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119407201.ch11

Dey, I. (2003). *Qualitative data analysis: A user friendly guide for social scientists.* Routledge.

Django (Version 2.0) [Computer Software]. (2018). https://djangoproject.com.

Dovidio, J. F., & Gaertner, S. L. (2000). Aversive racism and selection decisions: 1989 and 1999. *Psychological Science*, *11*(4), 315–319. https://doi.org/10.1111%2F1467-9280.00262

Dovidio, J. F., Gaertner, S. E., Kawakami, K., & Hodson, G. (2002). Why can't we just get along? Interpersonal biases and interracial distrust. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, *8*(2), 88–102. https://doi.org/ 10.1037//1099-9809.8.2.88

Edmondson, A. C., & McManus, S. E. (2007). Methodological fit in management field research. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*(4), 1246–1264. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2007.26586086

Ellemers, N., Spears, R., & Doosje, B. (2002). Self and social identity. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *53*(1), 161–186. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.53.100901.135228

Ellison, N. B., Steinfield, C., & Lampe, C. (2007). The benefits of Facebook "friends": Social capital and college students' use of online social network sites. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, *12*(4), 1143–1168. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1083-6101.2007.00367.x

Ellison, N. B., Steinfield, C., & Lampe, C. (2010). Connection strategies: Social capital implications of Facebook-enabled communication practices. *New Media and Society*, *13*(6), 873–892. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461444810385389

Feldman, J. M., Gruskin, S., Coull, B. A., & Krieger, N. (2017) Quantifying underreporting of law-enforcement-related deaths in United States vital statistics and news-media-based data sources: A capture–recapture analysis. *PLoS Medicine*. https//doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1002399

The Ferguson Commission. (2015). Forward through Ferguson: A path toward racial equity. https://3680or2khmk3bzkp33juiea1-wpengine.netdna-ssl.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/09/101415_FergusonCommissionReport.pdf

Facebook. (2019). Our history. https://about.fb.com/company-info/

For Harriet. (2015, July 20). *Call in Black featuring @eveeeeezy* [Video file]. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cpVeUVcFMAU

Gil de Zúñiga, H., Jung, N., & Valenzuela, S. (2012). Social media use for news and individuals' social capital, civic engagement and political participation. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, *17*(3), 319–336. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1083-6101.2012.01574.x

Gottfried, J., & Shearer, E. (2016). News use across social media platforms 2016. *Pew Research Center*. http://assets.pewresearch.org/wp-content/uploads/sites/13/2016/05/PJ_2016.05.26_social-media-and-news_FINAL-1.pdf

Grasmuck, S., Martin, J., & Zhao, S. (2009). Ethno-racial identity displays on Facebook. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 15*(1), 158–188. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1083-6101.2009.01498.x

Greenwood, S., Perrin, A. & Duggan, M. (2016). Social media update 2016. *Pew Research Center.* http://www.pewinternet.org/2016/11/11/social-media-update-2016/

Grieve, R., Indian, M., Witteveen, K., Tolan, G. A., & Marrington, J. (2013). Face-to-face or Facebook: Can social connectedness be derived online? *Computers in Human Behavior*, *29*(3), 604–609. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2012.11.017

Hampton, K. N., Shin, I., & Lu, W. (2017). Social media and political discussion: When online presence silences offline conversation. *Information, Communication and Society, 20*(7), 1090–1107. https://doi.org/10.1080/1369118X.2016.1218526

Harris, F. C. (2015). The next civil rights movement? *Dissent Magazine.* www.dissentmagazine.org/article/black-lives-matter-new-civil-rights-movement-fredrick-harris

Hartup, W. W., & Stevens, N. L. (1999). Friendships and adaptation across the life span. *Current Directions in Psychological Science,* 76–79. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.00018.

Hermann, P. (2018, January 23). Study finds D.C. police using more force. *The Washington Post*. https://www.washingtonpost.com/local/public-safety/report-finds-dc-police-using-more-force/2018/01/23/a858451e-0066-11e8-8acf-ad2991367d9d_story.html?utm_term=.f94a832334e9

Hess, B. (1972). Friendship. *Aging and Society*, *3*, 357–393.

Hirschfield, P. J. & Simon, D. (2010). Legitimating police violence: Newspaper narratives of deadly force. *Theoretical Criminology, 14*(2), 155–182. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1362480609351545

Huff, C., & Tingley, D. (2015). "Who are these people?" Evaluating the demographic characteristics and political preferences of MTurk survey respondents. *Research and Politics*, *2*(3), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F2053168015604648

Jefferis, E., Butcher, F., & Hanley, D. (2011). Measuring perceptions of police use of force. *Police Practice and Research: An International Journal*, *12*(1), 81–96. https://doi.org/10.1080/15614263.2010.497656

Jefferis, E. S., Kaminski, R. J., Holmes, S., & Hanley, D. E. (1997). The effect of a videotaped arrest on public perceptions of police use of force. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 25*(5), 381–395. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0047-2352(97)00022-6

Kearney, M. W. (2019). rtweet: Collecting Twitter data. R package version 0.6.9. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=rtweet.

Kim, L. S. (2016). *Social media and social support: A uses and gratifications examination of health 2.0* (Order No. 10001646). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (1758891657)

Kira, I. A. (2010). Etiology and treatment of post-cumulative traumatic stress disorders in different cultures. *Traumatology*, *16*(4), 128–141. https://doi.org/10.1177/1534765610365914

Knight Foundation. (2016). Mobile-first news: How people use smartphones to access information. https://knightfoundation.org/reports/mobile-first-news-how-people-use-smartphones-access

Landis, J. R., & Koch, G. G. (1977). The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics*, 159-174. https://doi.org/ 10.2307/2529310

Lantigua-Williams, J. (2017). After the racist violence in Charlottesville, I dread showing up to a mostly-white office. *Bustle.* https://www-bustle-com.cdn.ampproject.org/c/s/www.bustle.com/p/after-the-racist-violence-in-charlottesville-i-dread-showing-up-to-a-mostly-white-office-76465/amp

Leftheriotis, I., & Giannakos, M. N. (2014). Using social media for work: Losing your time or improving your work? *Computers in Human Behavior*, *31*, 134–142. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2013.10.016

Li, S., Chang, Y. Y., & Chiou, W. (2017). Things online social networking can take away: Reminders of social networking sites undermine the desirability of offline socializing and pleasures. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 58*(2), 179–184. https://doi-org.librarylink.uncc.edu/10.1111/sjop.12348

Lincoln, YS. & Guba, EG. (1985). Naturalistic Inquiry. Sage Publications, Inc.

Mainiero, L. A., & Gibson, D.E. (2003). Managing employee trauma: Dealing with the emotional fallout from 9-11. *The Academy of Management Executive, 17*(3), 130–143. https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.2003.10954782

Marshburn, C. K., & Knowles, E. D. (2018). White out of mind: Identity suppression as a coping strategy among Whites anticipating racially charged interactions. *Group Processes and Intergroup Relations*, *21*(6), 874–892. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1368430216681178

Martin, R. C., Coyier, K. R., VanSistine, L. M., & Schroeder, K. L. (2013). Anger on the Internet: The perceived value of rant-sites. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking*, *16*(2), 119–122. https://doi.org/10.1089/cyber.2012.0130

Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative researching* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications, Inc.

Miles, M. B. & Huberman, A. M. (1994). Qualitative Data Analysis (2nd edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications, Inc.

Morgeson, F. P., Mitchell, T. R., & Liu, D. (2015). Event system theory: An event-oriented approach to the organizational sciences. *Academy of Management Review*, *40*(4), 515–537. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2012.0099

Morin, R., & Stepler, R. (2016). The racial confidence gap in police performance. *Pew Research Center.* https://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2016/09/29/the-racial-confidence-gap-in-police-performance/

McCluney, C. L., Bryant, C. M., King, D. D., & Ali, A. A. (2017). Calling in Black: a dynamic model of racially traumatic events, resourcing, and safety. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, *36*(8), 767–786. http://doi/10.1108/EDI-01-2017-0012

Morin, R. & Stepler, R. (2016). The racial confidence gap in police performance. *Pew Research Center.* www.pewsocialtrends.org/2016/09/29/the-racial-confidence-gap-in-policeperformance/

Neuendorf, K. A. (2002). *The content analysis guidebook.* Sage Publications, Inc.

Nduhura, D., & Prieler, M. (2017). When I chat online, I feel relaxed and work better: Exploring the use of social media in the public sector workplace in Rwanda. *Telecommunications Policy*, *41*(7–8), 708–716. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.telpol.2017.05.008

Olmstead, K., Lampe, C., & Ellison, N. B. (2016). Social media and the workplace: New platforms can be tools for connection with colleagues and outside experts, but can also serve as distractions while on the job. *Pew Research Center.* http://www.pewinternet.org/2016/06/22/social-media-and-the-workplace/#

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Perrin, A., & Anderson, M. (2019, April 10). Share of U.S. adults using social media, including Facebook, is mostly unchanged since 2018. *Pew Research Center*. https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2019/04/10/share-of-u-s-adults-using-social-media-including-facebook-is-mostly-unchanged-since-2018/

Petriglieri, J. L. (2011). Under threat: Responses to and the consequences of threats to individuals' identities. *Academy of Management Review*, *36*(4), 641–662. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2009.0087

Ployhart, R. E., & Vandenberg, R. J. (2010). Longitudinal research: The theory, design, and analysis of change. *Journal of Management*, *36*(1), 94–120. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0149206309352110

Riemer, K., Richter, A., & Seltsikas, P. (2010). Enterprise microblogging: Procrastination or productive use? *Proceedings of the 2010 Americans Conferences on Information Systems*. http://aisel.aisnet.org/amcis2010/506/

Roberson, Q., Ryan, A. M., & Ragins, B. R. (2017). The evolution and future of diversity at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 102*(3), 483–499. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/apl0000161

RStudio Team. (2019). RStudio: Integrated Development for R. RStudio, Inc., Boston, MA. http://www.rstudio.com.

Sanders Thompson, V. L. (1996). Perceived experiences of racism as stressful life events. *Community Mental Health Journal*, *32*(3), 223–233. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02249424

Schmitt, M., Gollwitzer, M., & Arbach, A. (2005). Justice sensitivity: Assessment and location in the personality space. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 21*, 202–211.https://doi.org/10.1027/1015-5759.21.3.202

Schwarz, H. (2017, August 16). Obama's Charlottesville tweet is most liked in Twitter history. *CNN*. http://www.cnn.com/2017/08/15/politics/obamas-charlottesville-tweet/index.html

Shensa, A., Escobar-Viera, C. G., Sidani, J. E., Bowman, N. D., Marshal, M. P., & Primack, B. A. (2017). Problematic social media use and depressive symptoms among US young adults: A nationally-representative study. *Social Science and Medicine, 182*, 150–157. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2017.03.061

Siegel, R. (2018, March 2). The Parkland shooting is different. The news coverage proves it. *The Washington Post*. https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/wonk/wp/2018/03/02/the-parkland-shooting-is-different-the-news-coverage-proves-it/

deSilver, D. (2014). Facebook is a news source for many, but only incidentally. *Pew Research Center.* http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2014/02/04/facebook-is-a-news-source-for-many-but-only-incidentally/

Stelter, B. (2016). Philando Castile and the power of Facebook Live. *CNN Money*. http://money.cnn.com/2016/07/07/media/facebook-live-streaming-police-shooting/

Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. M. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: grounded theory procedures and techniques.* Sage Publications, Inc.

Sullivan, C. F. (2003). Gendered cybersupport: A thematic analysis of two online cancer support groups. *Journal of Health Psychology, 8*(1), 83–104. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1359105303008001446

Sullivan, J., Weber, L., Tate, J., & Jenkins, J. (2019, February 12). Four years in a row, police nationwide fatally shoot nearly 1,000 people. *Washington Post.* https://link.gale.com/apps/doc/A573786234/GPS?u=char69915&sid=GPS&xid=070fb856

Swim, J. K., Hyers, L. L., Cohen, L. L., Fitzgerald, D. C., & Bylsma, W. H. (2003). African American college students' experiences with everyday racism:

Characteristics of and responses to these incidents. *Journal of Black Psychology*, *29*(1), 38–67. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0095798402239228

Syrek, C. J., Kühnel, J., Vahle-Hinz, T., & De Bloom, J. (2018). Share, like, Twitter, and connect: Ecological momentary assessment to examine the relationship between non-work social media use at work and work engagement. *Work and Stress*, *32*(3), 209–227. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2017.1367736

Tajfel, H. (1974). Social identity and intergroup behavior. *Social Science Information, 13*(2) 65–93.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33–47). Brooks/Cole Publishing.

Thomas, N., Baumert, A., & Schmitt, M. (2011) Justice sensitivity as a risk and protective factor in social conflicts. In E. Kals & J. Maes (Eds.), *Justice and conflicts*. Springer.

Turel, O. (2017). Organizational deviance via social networking site use: The roles of inhibition, stress and sex differences. *Personality and Individual Differences, 119*, 311–316. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2017.08.002

Turel, O., Cavagnaro, D. R., & Meshi, D. (2018). Short abstinence from online social networking sites reduces perceived stress, especially in excessive users. *Psychiatry Research, 270*, 947–953. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2018.11.017

Turel, O., He, Q., Brevers, D., & Bechara, A. (2018). Social networking sites use and the morphology of a social-semantic brain network. *Social Neuroscience, 13*(5), 628–636. https://doi.org/10.1080/17470919.2017.1382387

Turner, J. C., Hogg, M. A., Oakes, P. J., Reicher, S. D., & Wetherell, M. S. (1987). *Rediscovering the social group: A Self-categorization Theory.* Blackwell Publishers.

Twitter, Inc. (2019). Investor fact sheet: About Twitter. https://s22.q4cdn.com/826641620/files/doc_financials/2019/q3/Q3_19_InvestorFactSheet.pdf

United States Census Bureau. (2019). PINC-01. Selected characteristics of people 15 years and over, by total money income, work experience, race, Hispanic origin, and sex. *U.S. Department of Commerce*. https://www.census.gov/data/tables/time-series/demo/income-poverty/cps-pinc/pinc-01.2017.html

Valenzuela, S. (2013). Unpacking the use of social media for protest behavior: The roles of information, opinion expression, and activism. *American Behavioral Scientist*, *57*(7), 920–942. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0002764213479375

Villanti, A. C., Johnson, A. L., Ilakkuvan, V., Jacobs, M. A., Graham, A. L., & Rath, J. M. (2017). Social media use and access to digital technology in US young adults in 2016. *Journal of Medical Internet Research, 19*(6). https://doi.org/10.2196/jmir.7303.

Walker, C., & Baxter, J. (2019). Method sequence and dominance in mixed methods research: A case study of the social acceptance of wind energy literature. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *18*, https://doi.org1609406919834379

Watt, S. E., & Larkin, C. (2010). Prejudiced people perceive more community support for their views: The role of own, media, and peer attitudes in perceived consensus. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *40*(3), 710–731. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2010.00594.x

Weinberg, N., Uken, J. S., Schmale, J., & Adamek, M. (1995). Therapeutic factors: Their presence in a computer-mediated support group. *Social Work with Groups*, *18*(4), 57–69. https://doi.org/10.1300/J009v18n04_05

Winstead, B. A., Derlega, V. J., Montgomery, M. J., & Pilkington, C. (1995). The quality of friendships at work and job satisfaction. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *12*(2), 199–215. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0265407595122003

Zhao, X., & Jiang, J. (2011). *An empirical comparison of topics in Twitter and traditional media.* Singapore Management University School of Information Systems https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/7da8/51a9d67b6c8ee7e985928f91ee577c529f2e.pdf

Zivnuska, S., Carlson, D. S., Carlson, J. R., Harris, R. B., & Harris, K. J. (2019). Investigating the impacts of regulatory focus and political skill within a social media context. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *91*, 151–156. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2018.09.030

APPENDIX A: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD LETTER OF APPROVAL

OFFICE OF RESEARCH COMPLIANCE
9201 University City Boulevard
319 Cameron Hall
Charlotte NC 28223-0001
(704)-687-1871
Web site: http://research.uncc.edu/
Federalwide Assurance (FWA) #00000649

To: Enrica Ruggs
Psychology

From: Office of Research Compliance

Date: 1/23/2018
RE: Notice of Modification Approval (Exempt)
Exemption Category: 2.Survey, interview, public observation
Study #: 17-0340

Study Title: Social support and social media use in the workplace: How perceived support affects social media use

This modification submission has been reviewed and approved by the Office of Research Compliance.

Submission Description:

I have added a series of questions related to social identity to supplement the demographic questions related to race. These changes can be found in the updated survey, and are highlighted in yellow.

Investigator's Responsibilities:

1. It is the investigator's responsibility to promptly inform the committee of any changes in the proposed research, and of any adverse events or unanticipated risks to participants or others.
2. You are required to obtain Office of Research Compliance and/or IRB approval for any changes to any aspect of this study before they can be implemented.
3. Data security procedures must follow procedures as approved in the protocol and in accordance with ITS Guidelines for Data Handling.

Your approved consent forms (if applicable) and other documents are available online at http://uncc.myresearchonline.org/irb/index.cfm?event=home.dashboard.irbStudyManagement&irb_id=17-0340.

CC:
Kelcie Grenier, Organizational Science
Christopher Marshburn, Psychology

APPENDIX B: MTURK "PROJECT" INFORMATION (PRIMARY STUDY)

Social Media Use in the Workplace after National Events(~ 20 minutes)

Description: The purpose of this study is to learn about how people use social media when they are at work. To complete this survey you MUST: 1) Have an active Twitter account that you can sign in with to authorize and 2) You must be able to report your work schedule for the last couple weeks. The custom instructions include important additional information.

Instructions

INSTRUCTIONS

The purpose of this study is to learn about how people use social media when they are at work, especially after highly-publicized events like mass shootings.

To participate you MUST agree you meet the following criteria:

- **Be 18 years of age or older**
- **Had an active Twitter account since March 11th, 2018**
- **Still have access to your Twitter account**
- **You will be required to verify your account by signing in with Twitter (to ensure you are, in fact, authorized to give us permission to look at the timeline of that account)**
- **Were employed outside the home from March 11th, 2018 through today**
- **Can report your work schedule from March 11th, 2018 through today**

We cannot prorate payments--you must certify you meet all criteria above, and complete the survey in full for us to pay you.

1. **Complete the Qualtrics survey below**
2. **Put the randomly-generated code from the end of the survey into the HIT to link your response for payment.**

Note:

Make sure to leave this window open as you complete the survey. When you are finished, you will return to this page to paste the code from Qualtrics into the box below.

The number must match the unique code at the end of your survey for you to be compensated.

Go to Link and follow the study instructions. Note the secret key found at the end of the study which you will need to complete the HIT.

* 1. Enter the SECRET KEY (not your Worker ID) found at the end of the linked survey. Do not add any comment or text here

APPENDIX C: INFORMED CONSENT FORM (PRIMARY STUDY)

What this study is about: Thank you for your interest in the following study. The purpose of this study is to learn about how people use social media when they are at work, especially during times of highly-publicized, national-level events. In order to take part in this study, you must meet the following criteria:

- Be 18 years of age or older
- Had an active Twitter account since Sunday, March 11th (3/11/2018) Still have access to your Twitter account
- Agree to allow us to view your timeline
- Were employed outside the home from March 11th, 2018 through today
- Can report your work schedule from March 18th, 2018 through today (the approximate times you started and stopped)

What we will ask you do: If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to verify your Twitter account to allow us to view your timeline. We will examine the frequency/amount of posts as well as some characteristics, such as how much emotion is expressed. You will also answer questions about your Twitter use and complete some demographic questions about yourself and your work.

Benefits: You will be compensated $1.50 USD for your participation in this study. MTurk does not allow for prorated compensation. In the event of an incomplete HIT, you will not be compensated for that particular HIT.
PLEASE NOTE: This study contains checks to make sure that participants are finishing the tasks completely. As long as you read the instructions and complete the tasks, your HIT will be approved. If you fail these checks, your HIT will be rejected.

Confidentiality: All identifying information will be removed prior to data analysis. All data for this study will be kept in a private password protected file that only the researchers have access to. In any sort of report we make public, all data will be reported at the group level, using the data as a whole.

Your Mechanical Turk Worker ID will be used to distribute payment to you but will not be stored with the research data we collect from you. Please be aware that your MTurk Worker ID can potentially be linked to information about you on your Amazon public profile page, depending on the settings you have for your Amazon profile. We will not be accessing any personally identifying information about you that you may have put on your Amazon public profile page.

Taking part is voluntary: Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. **However, if you do not meet the qualifications listed above and/or if you do not complete the study, you will not be eligible for compensation.**

If you have questions or concerns: You are free to print a copy of this consent form, if

you wish. If you have questions about the present research, you may email Kelcie Grenier at kgrenier@uncc.edu or Dr. Enrica Ruggs at eruggs@uncc.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research, you can contact the University's Research Compliance Office at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte (704-687-1871).

Consent: I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary, and that I am free to withdraw my consent at any time and to discontinue participation in this project without penalty. I acknowledge that I have read and fully understand the characteristics of this study. I understand that if I have concerns or complaints about my treatment in this study, I am encouraged to contact the University's Research Compliance Office at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte. By proceeding with this study, I am acknowledging that I am a willing participant in this research study.

APPENDIX D: MTURK "PROJECT" INFORMATION (PILOT STUDY)

Twitter use at work after mass shootings(~ 12 minutes)

Description: The purpose of this study is to learn about how people use social media when they are at work. To complete this survey you MUST: 1) Have an active Twitter account -- you will provide your handle; 2) Your Twitter account cannot be protected; 3) You must be able to report your work schedule for the last couple weeks. The custom instructions include important additional information.

Instructions

INSTRUCTIONS

The purpose of this study is to learn about how people use social media when they are at work, especially after highly-publicized events like mass shootings.

To participate you MUST agree you meet the following criteria:

- **Be 18 years of age or older**
- **Had an active Twitter account since February 7th, 2018**
- **Still have access to your Twitter account**
- **Your Twitter account is not "protected" or "private" and you will provide your Twitter handle**
- **Were employed outside the home from February 7th, 2018 through today,**
- **Can report your work schedule February 7th, 2018 (2/7/2018) through today**

We cannot prorate payments--you must certify you meet all criteria above, and complete the survey in full for us to pay you.

First, you will be asked to complete the Qualtrics survey below.

Second, you will put the randomly-generated code from the end of the survey into the HIT to link your response for payment.

Third, you will be qualified to take a short followup survey in 1-3 weeks for an additional $1.50

Note:

Make sure to leave this window open as you complete the survey. When you are finished, you will return to this page to paste the code from Qualtrics into the box below.

The number must match the unique code at the end of your survey for you to be compensated.

Go to Link and follow the study instructions. Note the secret key found at the end of the study which you will need to complete the HIT.

* 1. Enter the SECRET KEY (not your Worker ID) found at the end of the linked survey. Do not add any comment or text here

APPENDIX E: INFORMED CONSENT FORM (PILOT STUDY)

What this study is about: Thank you for your interest in the following study. The purpose of this study is to learn about how people use social media when they are at work, especially during times of highly-publicized, national-level events. In order to take part in this study, you must meet the following criteria:

- Be 18 years of age or older
- Had an active Twitter account since February 7th, 2018 (2/7/2018) Still have access to your Twitter account
- Your Twitter account is not "protected" or "private" and you will provide your Twitter handle Were employed outside the home from February 7th, 2018 through today
- Can report your work schedule February 7th, 2018 (2/7/2018) through today (the approximate times you started and stopped)

What we will ask you do: If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to provide your Twitter "handle" and also answer questions about your Twitter use. You will also be asked to complete some demographic questions about yourself and your work.

Benefits: You will be compensated $1.50 USD for your participation in this portion of the study, and will receive another $1.50 USD for the second study, which will take no more than 10 minutes and will be posted to MTurk in 7-21 days. MTurk does not allow for prorated compensation. In the event of an incomplete HIT, you will not be compensated for that particular HIT.
PLEASE NOTE: This study contains checks to make sure that participants are finishing the tasks completely. As long as you read the instructions and complete the tasks, your HIT will be approved. If you fail these checks, your HIT will be rejected.

Confidentiality: All identifying information will be removed prior to data analysis. All data for this study will be kept in a private password protected file that only the researchers have access to. In any sort of report we make public, all data will be reported at the group level, using the data as a whole.

Your Mechanical Turk Worker ID will be used to distribute payment to you but will not be stored with the research data we collect from you. Please be aware that your MTurk Worker ID can potentially be linked to information about you on your Amazon public profile page, depending on the settings you have for your Amazon profile. We will not be accessing any personally identifying information about you that you may have put on your Amazon public profile page.

Taking part is voluntary: Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. **However, if you do not meet the qualifications listed above and/or if you do not complete the study, you will not be eligible for compensation.**

If you have questions or concerns: You are free to print a copy of this consent form, if you wish. If you have questions about the present research, you may email Kelcie Grenier at kgrenier@uncc.edu or Dr. Enrica Ruggs at eruggs@uncc.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research, you can contact the University's Research Compliance Office at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte (704-687-1871).

Consent: I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary, and that I am free to withdraw my consent at any time and to discontinue participation in this project without penalty. I acknowledge that I have read and fully understand the characteristics of this study. I understand that if I have concerns or complaints about my treatment in this study, I am encouraged to contact the University's Research Compliance Office at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte. By proceeding with this study, I am acknowledging that I am a willing participant in this research study.

TABLE 1: Primary study demographic characteristics

Demographic Variables for Participants of Primary Study After Stephon Clark Shooting

	n	%	*M*	*SD*
Age (Range 18-60)	76		33.28	9.57
Gender (1 missing)				
Female	39	51.32		
Male	35	46.05		
Genderless	1	1.32		
Race (1 Missing)				
African American/Black	32	42.11		
Asian, Asian American/Pacific Islander	2	2.63		
Caucasian/White American, European, not Hispanic	35	46.05		
Native American/American Indian	1	1.32		
Hispanic or Latina/o	3	3.95		
Multiracial	2	2.63		
Education				
HS diploma	9	11.84		
Some college	22	28.50		
Associates	7	9.21		
BS/BA	28	36.84		
Advanced degree	10	13.16		
Work Role				
Employee	50	65.79		
Supervisor	14	18.42		
Mid-level Manager	10	13.16		
Firm Executive	0	0.00		
Firm Owner	2	2.63		
Work Hours (3 missing)	73		38.56	9.51
Income (1 Missing)				
Less than $20,000	10	13.16		
$20,000 to $49,000	27	35.53		
$50,000 to $74,999	20	26.32		
$75,000 to $100,000	12	15.79		
Greater than $100,000	6	7.89		
Social Media Rules at Work				
No	33	43.42		
Yes	35	46.05		
Don't know	8	10.53		

TABLE 2: Frequencies and percentages of social media accounts (Primary study)

Participants with Accounts and the Frequency of Use for Each Social Media Site in Primary Study

Platform	Has account		Never		Less often		Every few weeks		1-2 days a week		3-5 days a week		About once a day		Several times a day	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Facebook	64	84.21	7	9.21	2	2.63	0	0.00	5	6.58	5	6.58	16	21.05	39	51.32
Twitter	74	97.37	3	3.95	4	5.26	4	5.26	7	9.21	9	11.84	18	23.68	31	40.79
Instagram	55	72.37	14	18.42	5	6.58	4	5.26	5	6.58	3	3.95	15	19.74	29	38.16
LinkedIn	39	51.32	29	38.16	11	14.47	14	18.42	8	10.53	3	3.95	4	5.26	3	3.95
Pinterest	35	46.05	28	36.84	14	18.42	7	9.21	6	7.89	4	5.26	5	6.58	7	9.21

Note. Overall participant $N = 76$.

TABLE 3: Descriptive statistics for reasons for social media use (Primary study)

Means, Standard Deviations, and Response-frequencies for Reasons for Use in Primary Study

			Not at all		A little		A moderate amount		A lot		A great deal	
Item	*M*	*SD*	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Get information that helps you solve problems at your job	2.43	1.38	27	35.53	15	19.74	17	22.37	8	10.53	9	11.84
Make or support professional connections that help you do your job	2.3	1.31	30	39.47	14	18.42	16	21.05	11	14.47	5	6.58
Keep connected to family and friends while at work	2.82	1.29	15	19.74	18	23.68	17	22.37	18	23.68	8	10.53
Take a mental break from work	3.66	1.18	5	6.58	8	10.53	16	21.05	26	34.21	21	27.63
Ask work-related questions of people OUTSIDE your organization	2.19	1.22	30	39.47	16	21.05	18	23.68	7	9.21	4	5.26
Ask work-related questions of people INSIDE your organization	2.05	1.30	39	51.32	11	14.47	14	18.42	7	9.21	5	6.58
Build or strengthen personal relationships with coworkers	2.3	1.26	27	35.53	18	23.68	17	22.37	9	11.84	5	6.58
Learn more about someone you work with	2.28	1.26	27	35.53	20	26.32	16	21.05	7	9.21	6	7.89
Socialize when I can't with my coworkers*	2.72	1.36	18	23.68	18	23.68	18	23.68	11	14.47	11	14.47

Note. Overall participant $N = 76$. Response options not mutually exclusive. *Item presented only to participants in the primary study after the shooting of Stephon Clark.

TABLE 4: Descriptive statistics for effects of social media use (Primary study)

Means, Standard Deviations, and Response-frequencies for Effects of Social Media Use in Primary Study

Item			Not at all		A little		A moderate amount		Quite a bit		Very much	
	M	*SD*	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Social media distracts me from the work I need to do[1]	2.56	1.27	17	22.37	25	32.89	14	18.42	12	15.79	7	9.21
Social media breaks help me recharge while I am at work	3.3	1.24	6	7.89	17	22.37	16	21.05	22	28.95	15	19.74
Social media lets me see too much information about my coworkers	2.33	1.24	26	34.21	19	25.00	14	18.42	14	18.42	3	3.95
Social media gives me the opportunity to socialize with people outside of my company when I do not feel comfortable talking to coworkers	2.84	1.31	14	18.42	20	26.32	15	19.74	18	23.68	9	11.84

Note. Overall participant $N = 76$. [1]Item missing one response ($N = 75$).

TABLE 5: Familiarity, awareness, knowledge, and interest in the shooting of Stephon Clark (Primary study)

Means, Standard Deviations, and Frequencies of Self-reported Measures Regarding Stephon Clark Shooting

			Not at all		A little		A moderate amount		Quite a bit		Very much	
Item	*M*	*SD*	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Familiar	2.82	1.38	18	23.68	14	18.42	20	26.32	12	15.79	12	15.79
Informed	3.11	0.77	1	1.72	17	29.31	16	27.59	15	25.86	9	15.52
Knowledgeable	3.02	0.73	1	1.72	16	27.59	17	29.31	13	22.41	11	18.97
Interested[a]	3.50	0.92	2	3.45	9	15.52	13	22.41	13	22.41	20	34.48

Note. Overall participant $N = 76$ and for first item; $N = 58$ for remaining three items as participants who reported no familiarity with the event were removed and did not see these items ($n = 18$).

[a] One participant missing.

TABLE 6: Summary of volume of Twitter usage data (Primary study)

Evaluation for Inclusion and Summary of Participant Twitter Use Volume

Data Volume	*n*	%	*M* Before	*SD* Before	*M* After	*SD* After
No use (before, after, or both)						
*No use from 3/11/2018 - 4/14/2018 (1 week before **and** 4 weeks after)*	38	50.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Not enough data						
*Fewer than three from 3/11/2018 - 4/14/2018 (1 week before **and** 4 weeks after)*	48	63.16	–	–	–	–
Fewer than three points/use from 3/11/2018 - 3/18/2018 (1 week before)	7	9.21	1.14	0.90	12.14	16.15
Fewer than three points/use from 3/18/2018 - 4/14/2018 (4 weeks after)	1	1.32	3.00	–	2.00	–
Data not available						
Rescinded authorization	6	7.89	–	–	–	–
Cancelled account after study	1	1.32	–	–	–	–
Participants with sufficient data points from 3/11/2018 - 4/14/2018 (1 week before and 4 weeks after)	13	17.11	17.5	12.45	54.00	40.86
*Participants with sufficient data points from 3/11/2018 - 4/14/2018 (1 week before and 4 weeks after) **(At work)***	2	2.63	5	1.41	12.50	4.95

Note. Overall participant/starting $N = 76$ which includes the 7 participants without accessible data.

Category “Fewer than 3 from 3/11/2018 - 4/14/2018 (1 week before and 4 weeks after)” includes those who have 0 posts before and after the event.

Category “Fewer than 3 points/use from 3/11/2018 - 3/18/2018 (One week before)” includes those with sufficient data after the event but not before the event.

Category “Fewer than 3 points/use from 3/18/2018 - 4/14/2018 (4 weeks after)” includes those with sufficient data before the event but not after the event.

TABLE 7: Demographic characteristics (Pilot study)

Demographic Variables for Participants of Pilot Study After Marjory Stoneman Douglas Shooting

	n	%	*M*	*SD*
Age (Range 19-63)	95		33.76	9.68
Gender				
Female	43	45.26		
Male	51	53.68		
Non-Binary	1	1.05		
Race (1 Missing)				
African American/Black	10	10.53		
Asian, Asian American/Pacific Islander	2	2.11		
Caucasian/White American, European, not Hispanic	77	81.05		
Native American/American Indian	0	0.00		
Hispanic or Latina/o	1	1.05		
Multiracial	5	5.26		
Education				
HS diploma	10	10.53		
Some college	20	21.05		
Associates	10	10.53		
BS/BA	47	49.47		
Advanced degree	8	8.42		
Work Role				
Employee	66	69.47		
Supervisor	16	16.84		
Mid-level Manager	11	11.58		
Firm Executive	2	2.11		
Firm Owner	0	0.00		
Work Hours	95		38.62	6.03
Income (1 Missing)				
Less than $20,000	7	7.37		
$20,000 to $49,000	36	37.89		
$50,000 to $74,999	27	28.42		
$75,000 to $100,000	14	14.74		
Greater than $100,000	11	11.58		
Social Media Rules at Work				
No	53	55.79		
Yes	35	36.84		
Maybe	9	9.47		

TABLE 8: Frequencies and percentages of social media accounts (Pilot study)

Participants with Accounts and the Frequency of Use for Each Social Media Site

Platform	Has account		Never		Less often		Every few weeks		1-2 days a week		3-5 days a week		About once a day		Several times a day	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Facebook	84	88.42	9	9.47	2	2.11	4	4.21	4	4.21	5	5.26	15	15.79	55	57.89
Twitter	94	98.95	1	1.05	2	2.11	3	3.16	11	11.58	8	8.42	19	20.00	51	53.68
Instagram	65	68.42	18	18.95	2	2.11	9	9.47	7	7.37	7	7.37	26	27.37	21	22.11
LinkedIn	41	43.16	35	36.84	13	13.68	15	15.79	10	10.53	5	5.26	7	7.37	2	2.11
Pinterest	44	46.32	38	40.00	8	8.42	15	15.79	4	4.21	7	7.37	9	9.47	6	6.32

Note. Overall participant $N = 95$.

TABLE 9: Descriptive statistics for reasons for social media use (Pilot study)

Means, Standard Deviations, and Response-frequencies for Reasons for Social Media Use in Pilot Study

			Not at all		A little		A moderate amount		A lot		A great deal	
Item	*M*	*SD*	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Get information that helps you solve problems at your job	2.14	1.41	33	34.74	22	23.16	20	21.05	13	13.68	7	7.37
Make or support professional connections that help you do your job	2.32	1.45	29	30.53	20	21.05	23	24.21	14	14.74	9	9.47
Keep connected to family and friends while at work	2.85	1.58	14	14.74	22	23.16	22	23.16	17	17.89	20	21.05
Take a mental break from work	3.85	1.31	5	5.26	6	6.32	23	24.21	19	20.00	42	44.21
Ask work-related questions of people OUTSIDE your organization	1.89	1.37	36	37.89	28	29.47	15	15.79	9	9.47	7	7.37
Ask work-related questions of people INSIDE your organization	1.97	1.39	49	51.58	13	13.68	14	14.74	13	13.68	6	6.32
Build or strengthen personal relationships with coworkers	2.11	1.37	30	31.58	25	26.32	22	23.16	12	12.63	6	6.32
Learn more about someone you work with	2.14	1.46	28	29.47	29	30.53	15	15.79	15	15.79	8	8.42

Note. Overall participant $N = 95$. Response options not mutually exclusive.

TABLE 10: Descriptive statistics for effects of social media use (Pilot study)

Means, Standard Deviations, and Response-frequencies for Effects of Social Media Use in Pilot Study

Item			Strongly disagree		Moderately disagree		Slightly disagree		Neither agree nor disagree		Slightly agree		Moderately agree		Strongly agree	
	M	*SD*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Social media distracts me from the work I need to do	4.33	1.86	11	11.58	11	11.58	6	6.32	12	12.63	28	29.47	17	17.89	10	10.53
Social media breaks help me recharge while I am at work	5.38	1.50	2	2.11	1	1.05	8	8.42	15	15.79	20	21.05	20	21.05	29	30.53
Social media lets me see too much information about my coworkers	3.35	1.79	20	21.05	17	17.89	13	13.68	16	16.84	15	15.79	12	12.63	2	2.11
Social media gives me the opportunity to socialize with people outside of my company when I do not feel comfortable talking to coworkers	4.92	1.74	6	6.32	5	5.26	6	6.32	20	21.05	14	14.74	25	26.32	19	20.00

Note. Overall participant $N = 95$.

TABLE 11: Qualitative codebook for reasons for social media use at work

Qualitative Codebook Developed from Open-Response Data Regarding Reasons for Social Media Use at Work

Broad Code	Cohen's Kappa	Sub-Code	Cohen's Kappa	Description	Examples
Interactions	0.92	*Interaction with personal contacts*	0.96	Interaction with personal contacts (e.g., friends, family) and/or the material they post. These must include references to friends and family to be in this category.	"Talk to my friends" "Keep up with family"
		Interactions with professional contacts	0.91	This includes coworkers, customers, and clients. Anything mentioning/involving for the purpose for work (NOT: "taking a break from work")	"Communicate/talk to my coworkers"
		General Interactions	0.89	Mentioning of interacting/sharing with no specific group	"Connect with other" "Connecting with people"
Seeking and/or Consuming Material	0.92	*Current events*	0.91	(local, national, international news) / Current products/services updates: Consumption of information/material such as news, events, and videos. Product reviews or updates. Include celebrities. Include hobbies/things they are interested in.	"Looking at what's going on in news" "Stay up-to-date"
		Entertainment	0.94	Consumption of content for entertainment purposes	"Watch funny videos" "Humor" "Memes"
		Any other seeking/ consumption of material	0.73	Seeking and/or consuming material/information that does not fit in Entertainment or Current events/products or services. Select category if it mentions multiple options from this theme. Include any statements that mentions viewing other's social media (e.g., wall, timeline, history, pictures)	"get information"
Passing Time		—	0.97	Describing social media as a way to use or fill their time that is not otherwise filled.	"Bored" "Nothing else to do"
Connection		—	1.00	They describe being connected or staying connected but vaguely. When mentioning social media use for sense of connection.	"Stay connected" "Connection"
Other		—	0.88	Non-responses (no text), or incoherent responses. Unable to decipher.	"To dedicate life"

TABLE 12. Summary of qualitative data results (Primary study)

Descriptive Statistics for Reasons Why Participants Report Using Social Media in the Workplace (Primary Study)

Broad Code	*n*	%	Sub-Code	*n*	%
Interactions	50	24.27	*Interaction with personal contacts*	12	5.83
			Interactions with professional contacts	25	12.14
			General Interactions	13	6.31
Seeking and/or Consuming Material	78	37.86	*Current events*	44	21.36
			Entertainment	23	11.17
			Any other seeking/consumption of material	11	5.34
Passing Time	62	30.10	—		
Connection	1	0.49	—		
Other	15	7.28	—		
No response[1]	22	9.65			

Note. Total $N = 228$ entries from primary study responses.

[1]Percentage calculated with total *N*. Remaining percentages calculated by excluding 22 "no response" entries, or $N = 206$.

TABLE 13. Summary of qualitative data results (Pilot study)

Descriptive Statistics for Reasons Why Participants Report Using Social Media in the Workplace (Pilot study)

Broad Code	*n*	%	Sub-Code	*n*	%
Interactions	72	27.69	*Interaction with personal contacts*	21	8.08
			Interactions with professional contacts	33	12.69
			General Interactions	18	6.92
Seeking and/or Consuming Material	102	39.23	*Current events*	70	26.92
			Entertainment	18	6.92
			Any other seeking/consumption of material	14	5.38
Passing Time	60	23.08	—		
Connection	4	1.54	—		
Other	22	8.46	—		
No response[1]	25	8.77			

Note. Total $N = 285$ entries from pilot study's responses.

[1]Percentage calculated with total *N*. Remaining percentages calculated by excluding 25 "no response" entries, or $N = 260$.