THE PREDICTIVE UTILITY OF LEAST PREFERRED CO-WORKER ATTITUDES FOR UNDERSTANDING NON-SOCIAL MEDIA INFLUENCERS' MOTIVATIONS FOR POSTING ON INSTAGRAM

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Submitted to the Graduate Faculty

under the supervision of

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in partial fulfillment of

the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Leadership Studies

Xavier University

Cincinnati, OH

August 2023

Xavier University
Leadership Studies Doctoral Program
Dissertation Approval Form

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Title of Dissertation The Predictive Utility of Least Preferred Co-worker Attitudes for Understanding Non-Social Media Influencers' Motivations for Posting on Instagram

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This dissertation was completed under the supervision of the Faculty Advisor identified below as Committee Chair, and has been accepted by all members of the committee and the doctoral Program Director as meeting all academic standards established by Xavier University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) degree in Leadership Studies.

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Abstract

This study was designed to explore the relationship between normal, non-SMI Instagram users' Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) attitudes (Fiedler, 1971) and their self-reported purposes (self, social, therapeutic, and directive) for posting on Instagram, as measured by Wang's (2020) Purposes of Online Memory Sharing Scale (POMSS) assessment. A convenience sample of participants was solicited from the employees of a Midwestern marketing and data analytics company, who were also invited to post the solicitation message to their contacts on social media. Anonymous survey respondents completed the two validated assessment instruments on a secure Qualtrics server. Linear correlation analysis conducted by the dissertation advisor was used to test directional hypotheses predicting statistical relationships between LPC scores and four POMSS subscales assessing reasons for posting on Instagram: self, social, therapeutic and directive. LPC was predicted to be positively correlated with social and therapeutic motivations for posting on Instagram and negatively correlated with self and directive motivations. None of the correlations between LPC and POMSS were significant, thus none of the directional hypotheses tested were supported. LPC was found to have no utility for predicting reasons why individuals post to Instagram.

Acknowledgements

I have loved learning for as long as I can remember, and that is due to my upbringing—the support my parents gave me as a child. Homework problems that stumped me were never solved alone. Whether it was spelling, remedial mathematics equations, helping me memorize lines for a third grade school play, or quizzing me with honors anatomy notecards in high school, breadth and depth were my parents' specialty.

My mom once asked me why I insisted on doing my homework at the kitchen's island, lightly in her way while she prepared dinner, instead of the nice desk in my bedroom. Truthfully, I didn't know why I always studied on full display then. Now, I realize education was never done alone in my mind. It was my first exposure of community, joy, and group problem solving. Thank you, Mom and Dad, for investing the time in my education. Thank you for putting us in the most excellent public schools and for your commitment to my education. Learning has always been enjoyable to me, and that is largely because my curiosity was honored at a young age. I appreciate you both.

I am grateful to Xavier University and Dr. Gail F. Latta for providing an incredible doctoral program and navigating the last four years with the most grace and communication possible. Dr. Gail F. Latta was my largest supporter throughout my dissertation and was a mentor-turned-Sherpa throughout my time at Xavier.

Gail—your care for what you do and your care for each student is deeply admirable. Thank you for advocating for us, for investing your time into my education, and for committing to this body of research with me.

My courses have introduced me to incredible individuals with careers I greatly admire—thank you to my peers who made after-work hours as fun as they could be.

Thank you to my friends and the incredible community of people around me who have asked for updates, checked in, and offered support over the last several years (and some, much longer!). I am unbelievably lucky and grateful to know so many of the world's finest individuals.

To my dear sister and current roommate: I am deeply grateful for you, Sophia. Being with a far-busier student has encouraged and uplifted me when the days-turned-weeks felt long. I have loved our nights grinding out work, silently and efficiently, side-by-side; it would have taken me twice as long to finish this without you. I will miss this season of life immensely, yet I am convinced our best times together are ahead.

Just like dessert follows dinner, I saved the best for last. Thank you to my wonderful fiancé, CJ. Everything I am and everything I do has become more colorful and meaningful with you in my life. Thank you for celebrating small milestones throughout this journey and for ensuring I didn't eat granola bars for dinner during long work nights. Our life together is, and will be, grand. I love you. This is yours, as much as it is mine.

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CHAPTER 1. OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Research Topic and Background

Social Media (SM) and other online social networks are a huge part of everyday life for billions of individuals, consuming their time and energy with continuous content. Not only is SM integrated into the lives of individuals, but it is now a full-time career for many, with Social Media Influencers (SMIs) bringing in $25 billion in advertising *just* on Instagram (Dixon, 2022). Instagram, one of the most popular SM sites, is the world's largest photo-sharing social networking app. It boasts 1.3 billion Instagram users worldwide (Dixon, 2022). SMIs are a large part of Instagram for businesses and people. Businesses receive excellent SMI marketing content and opportunities, and individuals follow SMIs looking for inspiration, learning, or enjoyment (Ki et al., 2020).

Instagram has long fascinated researchers as it can be a factor in users' mental health. Time spent on Instagram can negatively impact one's level of depression and anxiety (Lim et al., 2022). Further, it has always been important to understand where people invest their time, as where an individual's time goes, so does their attention and often their money. Time is incredibly valuable, and some people spend excessive time on Instagram without even noticing (Ünal, 2018). Therefore, what individuals consume and post on Instagram is worth understanding further, and worth understanding if it's predictable. Stated simply by Song et al. (2019), "Instagram has been a game changer in the Social Networking Sites environment with regard to its ability to easily post, share, and search images" (p. 897).

Unique from other SM platforms like Facebook,

Instagram may be appealing specifically because the line between personal and

> professional is fluid. It could be that participants were less concerned about the risks of context collapse associated with Instagram than is the case with other social media (Carpenter et al., 2020, p. 10).

On Instagram, individuals are either scrolling (i.e. looking at those they are following or SMIs), or they are generating and posting content. There are three ways individuals can engage with Instagram: observing, liking/comments on others' posts, or posting their own content. The third element, posting their own content, is important to study because it could give us insight into users' online self-presentation and why they post.

The driving factors underlying individuals' online self-presentation have been studied (for instance, why do individuals share the memories they do), Users' online self-presentation can be represented through posting individual selfies, where selfies (a photo of one's face, typically up close) have been shown to highlight their personality, the overall aesthetic of their page, and how followers perceive them (Harris & Bardey, 2019). There are numerous other reasons for posting; for instance, relationship maintenance has been found across research as a primary reason individuals share personal memories with others online. Stone et al. (2022) found that in response to the Purposes of Online Memory Sharing Scale (POMSS), college students and adults primarily shared personal experiences online for social reasons, followed by self and directive reasons, with therapeutic reasons the least likely reason for posting online.

In some respects, Instagram may mirrors a classic leader-follower relationship, with those generating content boldly displaying on their account page the number of individuals following them. Thus, individuals posting and sharing content could be seen as attempting to initiate leader-like relationships with their followers, whether it is family,

friends, or people they do not even know. Whether the dynamics between individuals on Instagram mirror the interactions of individuals in the face-to-face world is not yet known.

Fiedler (1964) studied how attitudes influence the working relationships that develop between individuals in a wide variety of situations. In particular, he found that leaders' attitudes toward co-workers who are difficult to work with predict how effective they will be leading under different working conditions. Attitudes toward an individual's "least preferred co-worker" (LPC) have been used to predict the types of situations in which a person is most likely to be an effective leader (Fiedler, 1964). As a population, those who view difficult co-workers more favorably are more effective leading in non-challenging situations, while those who view difficult co-workers more unfavorably are more likely to lead effectively under challenging circumstances (i.e. with conditions are unfavorable) (Fiedler, 1964).

Fiedler developed an assessment instrument to measure these attitudes and found LPC scores to be a relatively stable dimension of personality, giving insight into the types of situations in which a person was more likely to be a successful leader. Over time, individuals with generally unfavorable attitudes toward co-workers they identify as difficult to work with were found to be more effective leading in situations involving poor quality leader-follower relationships, low power, and low task structure (i.e. challenging or unfavorable situations). These individuals were labeled task-oriented leaders. Similarly, individuals with more favorable attitudes toward co-workers they identify as difficult to work with were found to be more effective leading in situations involving high quality leader-follower relationships, high power, and high task structure

(i.e., none-challenging or favorable situations). The best type of leader for any given situation, whether low or high LPC, was thus found to depend on the type of task to be accomplished, the amount of power given to the leader, and the type of relationships leaders have formed with their followers (Fiedler, 1964).

Because of the implications of engaging in online activity for other aspects of wellbeing, it could be useful to know whether dynamics related to leader dynamics in face-to-face environments translate to the online environment. Whether an individual's LPC score predicts the behavior, motivations or effectiveness of individuals interacting in an online environment has not yet been studied (Stone et al., 2022). Since individuals are known to have different motivations for posting online, understanding if an individual's LPC score predicts whether they post for social, therapeutic, directive, or self reasons could provide insight into what individuals share on Instagram, if attitudes towards others in face-to-face environments are reflected in their behavior on SM, and if LPC score predicts the motives behind what individuals share.

Statement of the Problem

Instagram changes how we see the world and ourselves. It has become a place where we do not just see and observe, but create and share (Wang, 2021). This study assumes that why individuals create and share the content they do is not only for them, but for the people who follow them online. Therefore, what they post reveals great insight into their online self-presentation, how they want to be perceived by their followers, and their attitude towards others. It also assumes that posting, as one of the three primary activities on Instagram, consumes individuals' time and could impact their mental health, depending on how followers respond to it (e.g., likes and comments). While the

anonymity of social networking sites could set one up to be more honest about themselves, they are posting in an environment full of active feedback, whether it be likes or comments, which can affect an individual's well-being.

Extensive research has been done on the types of content that attracts individuals to SMIs, optimal aesthetics to attract followers, and the ways individuals mimic SMIs, but there has not been research conducted on whether an individual as a leader affects what they share on the internet (Harris & Bardey, 2019; Simatzkin-Ohana & Frosh, 2022). Specifically, it has not been studied whether LPC score affects why individuals specifically post their curated content on Instagram. Simultaneously, while LPC has been extensively validated, and trends across factors like sex/gender have been discovered in contributing towards individuals being more task-oriented or relationship-oriented leaders, it has not been applied to the modern era of SM, nor Instagram specifically. It has been demonstrated that individuals often end up remembering an event from how they portrayed it in a post on social media better than the actual event, which shows how critical it is to understand what drives people to post what they do, as it contributes to shaping their memory of life's experiences (Stone et al., 2022).

Additionally, research has been conducted that shows individuals may present false selves online and, depending on their personality type, have different reasons for portraying themselves in a new way (Strimbu & O'Connell, 2019). For instance, those who tend to be more introverted or struggle in social settings actually find online platforms a place where they can share their true selves, portraying a more honest version of themselves—yet a different version than people experience in person (Strimbu & O'Connell, 2019). Given that LPC shows individual's attitude towards others, it was seen

as intriguing to discover if that predicted what they shared on Instagram, a platform that can be used for self or social reasons.

Purpose of the Study

As Song et al. (2019) shared, "It is necessary and important to research motives for Instagram use . . . as SNS users have different motivations depending on their interests" (p. 899). This study sought to understand if a normal, non-SMI individual's LPC score (high or low) predicted the reasons they post on Instagram, using the POMSS (Wang, 2022) subscales assessing social, self, directive, or therapeutic reasons.

Theoretical Framework

In studying leadership, Fiedler (1964) found a way to predict the kinds of situations in which a leader would be most effective, based on their attitudes toward co-workers who they reported having "the most difficulty getting the job done" (Least preferred coworker scale, n.d.). Fiedler (1971) developed the least preferred co-worker (LPC) scale to assess these attitudes, which he found to be a stable dimension of personality broadly characteristic of the adult population. Fielder (1971) went on to develop a contingency model of leadership using LPC scores to predict which types of situations an individual would be most effective serving as a leader role. Individuals with positive attitudes toward difficult co-workers were found to be most effective in favorable leadership conditions (high power, low conflict, high task structure), while those with less positive attitudes toward difficult co-workers were found to be more effective in less optimal leadership conditions (low power, high conflict, low task structure). The contingency model of leadership provides a personality-based method of selecting the individual(s) most likely to be successful leading in both easy and

challenging circumstances, based on their LPC scores.

Through one's attitudes toward their least preferred co-worker, an LPC score of high or low can give insight to whether they see a difficult co-worker in a positive or negative way, predicting how they view others and the world (Fiedler, 1964). LPC scores have a high internal consistency, with a high LPC score individual being able to see a poor or unfavorable co-worker in a relatively favorable manner and behave in a way that promotes contentedness and lowers others' anxiety, while a low LPC individual perceives their least favorable co-worker in a less favorable manner and behave in a way that produces good outcomes in challenging situations (Fiedler, 1964). LPC scores have not yet been studied in the context of Instagram, therefore, it is unknown whether these attitudes predict Instagram users' behavior on the social media platform.

In a favorable situation (i.e. a situation where a leader has positive relations with members, high power, and high task structure) a leader with high LPC attitudes was found to be more effective (Fiedler, 1971). In an unfavorable situation, where a leader has poor relations with members, low power, and low task structure, a leader with low LPC attitude was found to be more effective (Fiedler, 1971). Given that Instagram is a forum for people to post ideas in order to influence other's opinions and attract followers, it was reasonable to expect that some of the same dynamics known to affect leader-follower relationships in other contexts would have similar effect in this social media environment.

With respect to non-SMIs and those who follow them on Instagram, the quality of the relationship is typically limited (due to limited direct interaction), low in power (as the algorithm can bury different posts), and low task structure (there are no formal rules

governing the frequency, content or quality of posts). For this reason, the theoretical framework developed for this study predicted that low LPC Instagram users would report posting for more instrumental (directive) and personal (self) reasons, while high LPC users were predicted to post for more social and therapeutic reasons.

Wang's (2020) POMSS assessment has been applied to the study of Instagram. When it comes to sharing photos or personal information online, "POMSS provides a useful tool for researchers to examine autobiographical memory expression and communication in the digital age" (Stone et al., 2022, p. 459). Assuming that all Instagram posts shared online (not within the story feature) is a memory (even if it happened a few minutes or seconds prior), POMSS is able to indicate whether individuals on Instagram are posting for self, social, therapeutic, or directive reasons.

This study correlated an individual's LPC score with their POMSS results to understand if an individual's attitude towards others (shown by their LPC score) correlated with the reasons why they post (shown by POMSS). This research used their analytical frameworks to understand if motives for posting on Instagram could be statistically predicted, based on an individual's LPC score. Additionally, this antecedent research helps establish what is going on with the leader (represented by their attitude, as seen in their LPC score) and if that has any manifestation into how that translates into their SM environment, specifically Instagram. This study sought to understand how a leader's attitude, represented by their LPC score, relates to motives of posting on Instagram. Opposed to a lot of research that's been conducted using LPC scores, motives were the focus of this study, not behavior or the outcomes of what a leader posts.

In the relationship between LPC score and POMSS Scale, the predictor is the LPC

score and the outcome is the individual's POMSS subscale, describing why they posted (represented by Figure 1 below).

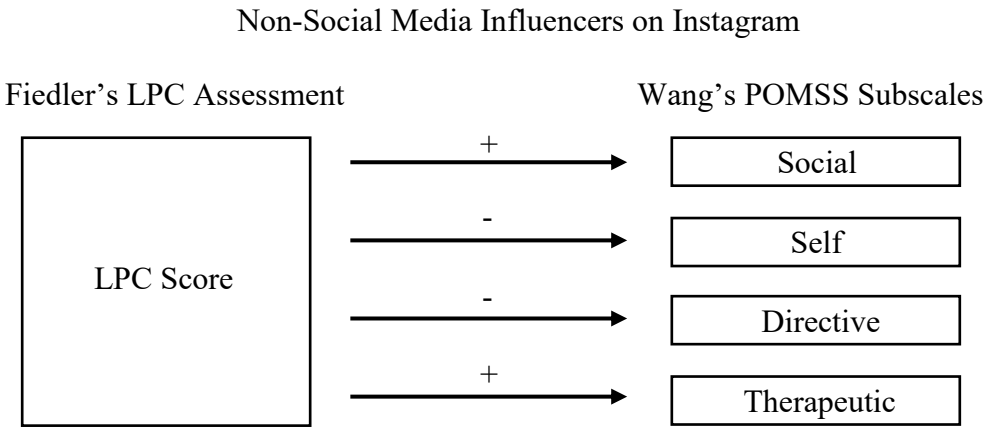

Figure 1. Predicted relationship between LPC and POMSS subscale scores among non-Social Media Influences on Instagram

Research Questions

In order to determine factors and motives for individuals posting on Instagram, the following questions were addressed by the correlation study to answer the subsequent hypotheses:

RQ1. Is there a correlation between LPC and posting for self reasons on Instagram?

H1. There will be a negative correlation between LPC and posting for self reasons on Instagram.

RQ2. Is there a correlation between LPC and posting for social reasons on Instagram?

H2. There will be a positive correlation between LPC and posting for social reasons on Instagram.

RQ3. Is there a correlation between LPC and posting for therapeutic reasons on Instagram?

H3. There will be a positive correlation between LPC and posting for therapeutic reasons on Instagram.

RQ4. Is there a correlation between LPC and posting for directive reasons on Instagram?

H4. There will be a negative correlation between LPC and posting for directive reasons on Instagram.

Methodology

The purpose of this correlation study was to identify if an individual's motive for posting on Instagram (for self, social, therapeutic, or directive reasons) can be statistically predicted based on their LPC score. All individuals participating in the study were non-SMI Instagram users. Given that SMIs are likely famous individuals, all users who came across this study were assumed to be normal, non-SMI Instagram users and had to self-identify as such prior to beginning the survey. All participants took the same surveys, and thus, were asked the same questions, to keep participation consistent.

Wang (2020) developed POMSS to understand the reasons for which people share their experiences with SM through four subscales—self, social, therapeutic, and directive (which include 5 items, 6 items, 5 items, and 4 items, respectively). Originally tested with college students, validated, and later validated through other research (see Stone et al., 2022), POMSS is a reliable instrument to understand why individuals share personal memories online.

This study invited Instagram users to complete the POMSS survey, to assess why these individuals share content online. Using the POMSS framework, participants were asked about why they post their experiences on Instagram (e.g., items like "to express

myself" or "to stay in touch with my friends and family") and rated each motive to how indicative they feel it is of why they share: "*not at all"* (1) to *"exactly my reasons"* (5) (Wang, 2020). After completing the POMSS assessment (Wang, 2020), individuals took the LPC assessment to identify where on the LPC continuum each respondent scores. During analysis respondents' LPC scores were correlated with their scores on the four POMSS scales for self, social, directive and therapeutic reasons for posting. Results shed light on whether an individual's attitudes towards others (reflected by their LPC score) predicted their self-reported motives for posting on Instagram (reflected in the four POMSS subscales).

Initial recruitment of individuals to participate in this study was sent via email to all participants on the International Leadership Association's (ILA's) Listserv. The link was shared via discussion post to individuals who have paid to be a part of the ILA and chosen to be on the Listserv, and the post explained and requested individuals to take the study. After completing the informed consent, the individual was led to the survey. After a reminder post and several weeks live on the ILA page, there had been <5 survey completions. These results were discarded and a new population was identified.

Solicitation of participants shifted to the employees of a Midwestern marketing company, who were also encouraged to post the solicitation message to others in their social media networks. The solicitation message was distributed through an electronic newsletter emailed to all employees at the company. Recipients were invited to both respond to the survey and to share it to their Instagram story. After completing the informed consent, respondents gained access to the survey. Results were analyzed by the dissertation advisor using correlation analysis to test the directional hypotheses.

Definition of Terminology

Self. An individual posting for self reasons shares with other people to convey information about who they are (Stone et al., 2022).

Social. This study, in line with Stone et al.'s (2022) research, views an individual posting for social reasons as sharing to "tell stories, entertain others, and develop and maintain social bonds" (p. 451).

Directive. This study, in line with Stone et al.'s (2022) research, views an individual posting for directive reasons as sharing to pass along lessons they have learned throughout their life or to teach others.

Therapeutic. An individual posting for therapeutic reasons shares with other people to gain sympathy from others, advice from others, and cope with negative feelings (Stone et al., 2022).

Non-SMI individual. This study is focused on looking at what drives normal Instagram users to post. Given that, SMIs profit for their posts and help companies and/or brands market, they will not be included in this research as their intent might be different than that of a non-SMI individual. Participants in this study will be viewed as normal Instagram users that are not profiting for their posts.

Normal Instagram user. This study focused on individuals who were not SMIs. A normal Instagram user is a non-SMI individual, an individual who does not profit from posting.

High LPC individual. Per Fielder's (1964) research, a high LPC score individual is seen as being able to see a poor or unfavorable co-worker in a relatively favorable manner and behaving in a way that promotes contentedness and lowers others' anxiety. In

stress-free conditions, high LPC leaders have also been found to have better group performance on creative tasks (Fiedler, 1964).

Low LPC individual. Per Fielder's (1964) research, a low LPC score individual is seen as viewing their poor or unfavorable co-worker in a negative/rejecting manner, like they are no good. Low LPC leaders are often found to share and seek more suggestions, more demanding of participation (and often get it), and more controlling of group interaction (Fiedler, 1964). In stress-free conditions, low LPC leaders had better group performance under more tension-heavy environments that were less pleasant (Fiedler, 1964).

Assumptions

The major underlying assumption of this study was that the participants answered the surveys consistently and honestly. Given that every post on an Instagram feed is a memory, it is assumed to have happened in the past. Whether a photo was taken twenty minutes ago or twenty years ago, the post/feed of photos on Instagram is not shared live nor usually in the moment, so there's an assumption that POMSS applied and was a valid source of reliability. Lastly, it was assumed that individuals who took this survey would willfully choose to.

Limitations

The largest limitation in this study was that posting tendencies may vary culturally so, for individuals in the United States, they may post more frequently for self and social functions as individuality and autonomy are admirable here (Stone et al., 2022). Additionally, POMSS has been used for all online posting, and this study limited it to just Instagram posting. One limitation with POMSS is that it can be seen as

subjective, as individuals are asked to report their experiences online, and they "may not be accurately reporting the exact motives as to why they post personal experiences at any given point in time" (Stone et al., 2022, p. 460).

Given that this study is antecedent work, a limitation is that LPC scores and motives for posting weren't going to be assessed with how any of this relates to followers. In a lot of LPC work, behavior is a focused measure. In this research, behavior was not being measured, but rather self-reported motives.

An additional notable limitation is the current changing SM environment, as this is written during December 2022 (through August 2023). As Elon Musk became the CEO of Twitter while Meta (Facebook) faced large backlash in the media with changing advertisement and data tracking regulation, some individuals have chosen to cancel their accounts or move off of the platform. Instagram, the platform this research is focused on, has been fairly immune to this malleable environment as their CEO has not changed, nor have they faced large media repercussions due to data privacy.

The last limitation is that this population group—individuals at a marketing company and their networks—is a group of individuals whose education-level, income-level, and numerous other attributes are unknown. Due to this, results cannot be extrapolated to the broader population.

Delimitations

It is critically important to consider delimitations in this research as there were self-imposed boundaries set for this study. Firstly, this study only focused on Instagram, and not all SM platforms, so the reasons for posting cannot necessarily be widely applied without additional research. While other SM sites have the option to share photos, the

sole purpose of Instagram is to share photos (and now videos). Given that a key aspect of online self presentation and sharing memories is visual content shared, Instagram was the focus. A more systematic, broader study understanding why individuals post on a multitude of SM platforms could be conducted to further understand if LPC and motives (as measured by POMSS) for posting are correlated.

Additionally, the sample of participants was limited through the marketing company being based in the United States. While the 1,200 employees could have wide networks, we are not sure who chose to share the survey to their Instagram network and, of those who did, who took the survey. Thus, the participants are likely living in the United States and in a network someone who works at a college-educated marketing firm.

Significance of the Study

Instagram has changed the way individuals interact, communicate, and learn information. With over a half-billion users on Instagram daily, it has become a huge time investment for individuals, whether they are interacting with other's content or posting their own (Barbour et al., 2017). With over 120 million active Instagram users in the United States, there was an opportunity to further understand why individuals share the content they do and if the content they share on Instagram can be predicted, based off their LPC.

These results contribute further to understanding online self-presentation and what motivates individuals to post content and share their lives. It also contributes to understanding if there's a correlation between individual's attitude towards others and what they post. The results could provide groundwork for future research and expanded

research, like the relationship between leading in person versus on SM, the mental health impacts from Instagram, or broader reasons for posting on other SM applications.

This was antecedent research studying the relationship of attitudes (measured by LPC) and motives (measured by their assessment of why they post). What can be concluded about this is limited, since this research was focused on motives and the motivation of posting in the Instagram environment. Given this antecedent research, there could be future research and later work assessing the outcomes of individuals posting on Instagram.

Organization of the Study

This dissertation is presented in five chapters, followed by references and appendices. Chapter one is an overview of the study, including background information, study design, theoretical framework, significance of the study, hypotheses, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations. Chapter two provides a review of literature related to the impact of SM broadly, Instagram's power, the role of SMIs, individuals' online presentation, individuals' motives for sharing, and least preferred co-worker. Chapter three will discuss the methodology and design of the study, affirming that the methods chosen are reliable. It walks through the research questions and design, population, data collection and analysis, IRB compliance (human subjects protections), and any potential biases. Chapter four presents the raw data of the study into various tables. Chapter five interprets the data and results of the study, as well as shows limitations of the research and initial ideas and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The Magnitude of Social Media

Social networks are an integral part of the world today—for people and companies. People are always able to access, and often are on, social networks and social media platforms wherever they are, whenever they desire (Shahpasandi et al., 2020). Social Media (SM) has become a force over the last couple of decades, evolving from catching up with old friends to being an always-on environment connecting individuals to news events, celebrities, and shopping. As SM has evolved into a multifaceted, data-powered tool, individual's experiences and use cases have evolved as well.

Social Media Influencers (SMIs) are vital components of modern marketing, as companies have created influencer-specific budgets. With an estimated $15 billion business in 2022, this is not just a profitable business, but a deeply personal thread and experience to young women's identities (Scholz, 2021). The billion dollar business, however, may be warranted: SMIs, whether it be those individuals famous from blogging, YouTube, or Instagram, statistically outperform the traditional media options, like magazines or celebrities, due to the relatability and accessibility of them (Scholz, 2021). Normal people see SMIs as similar and as credible sources of information.

Findings from Scholz's (2021) research culminated in the "Influencer Marketing Dartboard," showing six distinct ways and actions consumers interpret influence. Their research showed that normal consumers (non-SMIs) "integrate influencer content into their own practice performances through six distinct actions: positionally vetting, granularly validating, actually learning, methodically immersing, pragmatically interpreting, and ideologically bolstering" (p. 511-512). While these are the six spokes

and areas of influence on the Influencer Marketing Dartboard, Scholz's (2021) research ultimately shows that influencers are teaching others how to perform and are crowned examples of good performance. Millennial and Generation Z beauty consumers show that younger, predominantly-female generations are aware they are being influenced and enjoy it, as it contributes to part of their identity (Scholz, 2021).

While some are aware they are being influenced and welcome it, others are more skeptical. Consumers' perceived legitimacy of social media's genuineness comes from the unique characteristics of SM, like users generating and creating their own content (Dunn & Harness, 2019). Comments that receive a high number of 'likes' tend to be more believable, which can present a problem, as users with popularity can look like experts (Dunn & Harness, 2019). Not only does this affect SMIs on SM, but it also affects companies. Consumers typically have increased skepticism and think organizations lack honesty if their comment is neglected on a SM platform (Dunn & Harness, 2019). This puts organizations in a challenging place where each comment, like, or interaction can affect their brand, emphasizing how powerful social networks are. How an individual or company acts and interacts on a social network can sway their user base and credibility immensely.

Consider something like Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), where a company could put a positive, truthful message out via Facebook or Instagram. The public can then comment, reply to comments, or like the message, and the company may respond to followers' activity. As the company replies or as likes increase, the credibility and legitimacy of the message is malleable and shaped throughout the responses of individuals (Dunn & Harness, 2019). Out are the days where traditional metrics, like

measurable impact, sway what one deems as trustworthy: consumers' perception of believability and legitimacy lie in their own hands now due to SM and cues they interpret (Dunn & Harness, 2019).

Social media has dramatically changed the way the world and people interact, even with institutions like libraries. Academic libraries have had to relearn the way they engage with their customers and now share that a key part of their public relations strategy is engagement on social media (Ihejirika et al., 2021). Depending on the goal of a library, the integration of social media likely contributes to the vision of a university library (Ihejirika et al., 2021). While adding SM to a university library might sound simple, it is not necessarily as clean-cut as one might initially believe. To bring social media into this library organization, there would have to be communication and regulation to ensure that all staff understood the purpose of SM and how to use it (Ihejirika et al., 2021). In some ways, SM has forced companies that might have stayed further from digital networking to enter it, as they learn to communicate with an audience that has grown up liking and commenting.

Not only does SM influence a company or organization's marketing plans and outreach, like libraries, it affects a company's stock price which affects their value and worth (Petrescu et al., 2020). After an incredibly controversial Pepsi ad, consumers took to social media describing the ad as a 'bad week' for Pepsi, a 'PR blunder,' and an 'ad created for white people' (Ihejirika et al., 2021). While it was clearly a marketing and PR nightmare, when SM took storm discussing it—primarily via Twitter—Pepsi's stock dropped around 1% the day after the ad went viral (Ihejirika et al., 2021). United Airlines faced a similar 1% drop the day after a video went viral of a consumer being pulled off of

their plane (Ihejirika et al., 2021).

While these events certainly would have been negative before, with SM's presence and continuous documentation, they last long enough and gain sufficient attention to lower a large company's stock price. The volume of chatter of a brand on social media is seen to have an exceptionally strong relationship with financial returns in the short term and the long term; a lot of that chatter, however, comes from users and user-generated content on social media, which is something incredibly hard for a brand to control (Tirunillai & Tellis, 2012).

Social media is a powerful means where individuals create and share information with the world at large (Stone & Wang, 2017). This content and connection is prioritized and often where users prioritize spending their time. Ünal (2018) found that "people often check their Facebook page right after booting their PCs and they tend to spend excessive amounts of time on social media without even noticing" (p. 551). Social media has created an environment where individuals can post their thoughts, feelings, and opinions at any moment. As of January 2022, Instagram is the fourth most popular social network site, trailing only Facebook, YouTube, and WhatsApp (Dixon, 2022).

The Power of Instagram

Instagram, the biggest photo-sharing social networking app, allows users to take photos and videos, edit and apply filters, and engage with their network (Dixon, 2022). There are 1.3 billion Instagram users worldwide, with over 120 million active Instagram users in the United States (Dixon, 2022). The United States is Instagram's leading market based on audience size, with projections to reach 127 million U.S. users by 2023 (Dixon, 2022).

Originally a platform for static, photo content, Instagram launched their video-sharing feature in 2013 which is broadly used across the world—and used daily for hundreds of millions of individuals (Kusumasondjaja, 2019). With over a half-billion users active on Instagram daily, Instagram is seen as the most popular application for creating and sharing photographs and videos (Barbour et al., 2017). Individuals use Instagram for a variety of reasons—posting, sharing, and even shopping (Shahpasandi et al., 2020). Unlike other social media platforms, like Facebook or Twitter, Instagram focuses on photos—sharing and enhancement—and nonreciprocal relationships (Jackson & Luchner, 2017). However, there are still reciprocal relationships on Instagram. According to Dixon with Statista (2022), the leading use on Instagram is to see what one's family and friends are doing, with a nearly a quarter of U.S. teens claiming Instagram as their favorite social network.

The intersection of reciprocal relationships and lack-there-of can be seen as mental health has long been a topic of interest related to Instagram. Research shows that SM use is responsible for aggravating mental health problems and presents many of the risk factors for depression and anxiety (Lim et al., 2022). Risk factors for depression and anxiety can come from time spent, activity, and addiction to social media (Lim et al., 2022). While the relationship between depression and Instagram needs far more research, the force of Instagram and SM is clear when it is a factor in determining an individual's mental health.

Influencer's Presentation and Impact

Individuals with a large following that have the power to sway those in their network are Social Media Influencers (SMIs), which attracts the attention of retail

marketers as a new way to advertise with branded content (Ki et al., 2020). This new content is not just a creative marketing stream, but a force—influencing individuals' habits and purchases on the internet. Ki and Kim (2019) found SMI content to be 6.9 times more effective than standard studio-shot content. With power comes money and, with Instagram, the case is no different. In 2021, there was over 25 billion dollars of advertising revenue spent just on Instagram (Dixon, 2022).

For instance, the average media value of an Instagram post of Cristiano Ronaldo (the most-followed person on Instagram) is $985,441 . . . nearly a million USD per post (Dixon, 2022). Cristiano Ronaldo would be classified as a large-scale SMI or, more so, celebrity, but there are also micro-influencers in this landscape. Micro-influencers can have as few as 10k followers, and, while worth less than the Cristiano Ronaldos of the world, have a higher engagement rate with their followers due to the intimate relationship created (Kim and Kim, 2022). Understanding the size and scale of Instagram specifically, there is a lot to be learned about how and why individuals find themselves attracted to or attached to an SMI. SMIs are found to "satisfy their followers' needs for ideality, relatedness, and competence, the more they perceive SMIs as human brands who have strong emotional bonds with their followers" (Ki et al., 2020, p. 9). Like a brand, celebrities can be professionally managed and have the association and features of a brand (Tomson, 2006).

Human brand theory (Tomson, 2006) proposes that specific media personas, like athletes or actors, can be viewed as a 'human brand' if they meet certain conditions. If an individual's name (or other qualities) distinguish and separate them from other individuals in a similar category, they could be known as a human brand. Thomson

(2006) shares that strong attachments are developed when a human brand fulfills an individual's need, like intimacy. The power SMIs have and exert over their followers comes from an emotional bond that is developed between the SMI and followers. Thus, the stronger emotional bond there is, the higher likelihood that the individual is influenced (say, to a brand or product's endorsement) by the SMI (Ki et al., 2020).

In addition to Tomson's (2006) human brand theory, attachment and attachment theory has been used to understand the relationship between SMIs and followers. While attachment is often viewed through person-to-person relationships or is commonly referred to in familial settings, Kim and Kim (2022) look at attachment as affectionate bonds between people and a control system used to achieve security. Attachment theory has now been broadly applied to brands and consumers; in influencer-follower relationships, attachment looks at influencer and follower interactive communications, how they come to life in marketing, and the feelings of an individual internalizing an interaction with an SMI (Kim & Kim, 2022).

Attachment has been found to lead to stronger loyalty and credibility between an SMI and follower, similar to what we see with consumers and brands—reemphasizing the human brand theory (Kim & Kim, 2022). Paralleled to human brand theory, though, lies brands acting as selves.

While not as widespread as human brand theory, brands have made an intentional effort to act like people or humans, to show relatability and accessibility. From Simatzkin-Ohana & Frosh's (2022) research, twelve leading fashion brands had three clear patterns when it came to the way their official accounts posted. These brands reposted users' photos on their official feed, posted amateur-style photos of celebrities,

and displayed selfie-style images where the brand appears to be an individual, performing its own representation (Simatzkin-Ohana & Frosh, 2022). As brands have become more self-like, individuals—really, SMIs—have become more brand-like. Instagram's trends, and suggestions of content 'you might like,' have forced individuals to consider things like relatability when posting, as the results of engagement are measurably more.

Influencers' Motivations

Researchers have been working to understand why SMIs are enticing and attractive to individuals by taking different angles to look at how and why individuals decide who to follow. As partnerships with SMIs become more important to brands' marketing strategies—SMIs are viewed as accessible and credible—this has become more important to understand (Ki & Kim, 2019). Ki and Kim (2019) further understood the extent to which an SMI produced attractive, prestigious, expert-like, and informative content on Instagram and the positive reception of the post. For Ki and Kim's (2019) research, attractiveness was defined as the extent Instagram content is displayed in an appealing manner. Prestige was defined as the extent content is perceived to be high quality (Ki and Kim, 2019). Expertise was defined as the extent posts showcase knowledge, and information was defined as the extent content is informative (Ki and Kim, 2019). Therefore, Ki and Kim's (2019) research gives four metrics that SMIs may be held or judged by: attractiveness, prestige, expertise, and informativeness. Similarly, Kim and Kim (2022) found homophily, social presence, and physical attractiveness to be factors that strengthen bonding between an SMI and follower. Given that homophily is found to strengthen the bond between SMIs and followers, we can glean an insight about the followers: individuals seek out people, or are attracted to people, who are like

themselves.

To further understand the relationships between SMIs and followers, Ki et al. (2020) surveyed 395 participants to find two overarching factors which helped SMIs establish relational bonding with their networks: SMIs' persona-driven attributes and SMIs' content-driven attributes. SMIs' persona-related traits really look at who they are as people and what they give/how they are perceived by the world; persona-related traits are comprised of inspiration, enjoyability, similarity, physical attractiveness, and authenticity (Ki et al., 2020). SMIs' content-related traits are looking at the actual posts (not just the person), and are comprised of informativeness, visual aesthetics, and expertise (Ki et al., 2020). In understanding fulfillment, they found the primary attachment to an SMI is often to help them become an ideal self (Ki et al., 2020). Ki et al. (2020) also found that individuals had a relatedness need and a competency need, filled by an SMIs' personal traits of relatedness (comprised of enjoyability and similarity) and competency (comprised of knowledge or skills).

SMIs serve as opinion leaders and taste leaders, which highlights consumers' desire to mimic them (Ki & Kim, 2019). If a consumer perceives an SMI's content to be visually appealing, conveying prestige, and/or showcasing expertise, they perceive the SMI to have good taste (Ki & Kim, 2019). Similarly, individuals select the SMIs they follow in "the following areas of specialty: beauty (21.85%), fashion (13.85%), health (13.54%), food (7.38%), travel (7.08%), and others (e.g., games, technology, etc.)"—all areas that one could deem as good taste (Ki et al., 2020, p. 7).

While taste is an important attribute in photos of humans, taste is an important attribute in photos of destinations and landscapes as well. In looking at the popular

hashtag #beautifuldestinations on Instagram, it was found that pictures showing natural elements were more aesthetically pleasing to individuals than photos with man-made elements (Hauser et al., 2022). The findings revealed that the content of a photo subconsciously influences the interpreted aesthetic perception of the photo (Hauser et al., 2022). These results make sense, as individuals do not always know why they like the certain things they enjoy. A photo's content subconsciously influencing the aesthetic is interesting to consider as it shows there are aspects of Instagram people enjoy that they might not be able to articulate, or that are subconscious.

In looking at fashion, something quite contrary to beautiful landscapes, aesthetic expression is a core part of the field of photography and consumer culture in how images come to life on Instagram (Simatzkin-Ohana & Frosh, 2022). Aesthetic expression is linked to a brand's character and is seen in User-Generated Content (UGC), which is discussed in further detail later (Simatzkin-Ohana & Frosh, 2022). Broadly, a brand's aesthetic and photographs' perceived aesthetic contributes to culture and visual style (Simatzkin-Ohana & Frosh, 2022). Beautiful destinations and fashion accounts are interesting to consider as there are subconscious ways individuals could view the aesthetic of the photos, including the attractiveness of the visual and the actual content contained in the photo.

Ki et al. (2020) ultimately found that followers focus less on physical traits, like attractiveness when choosing SMIs, and place more emphasis and importance on a SMIs' persona, like inspiration. This also makes sense when we consider that the world has shifted to a more experience-focused economy (Hauser et al., 2022). Inspiration, enjoyability, and similarity are the top persona-driven qualities SMIs could use to curate

informative social media content, increasing the emotional bond between the SMI and follower (Ki et al., 2020). On the contrarian side, Tomson (2006) had originally found that autonomy and relatedness explained attachment strength between a human brand and follower, but competence did not. Strong attachments are characterized by "consumers' perceptions of their relationships with the human brand as satisfied, trusting, and committed" (Tomson, 2006, p. 110).

Desiring to be or be like a user's SMI is supported as Ki and Kim (2019) found that influencing posts positively and significantly affect consumers' attitudes, leading to behavioral outcomes through their desire to mimic SMIs. Influencers, through social media word-of-mouth, affected consumers' purchase intentions. This research compared the power dynamic between sales agents and consumers, looking at a more typical advertisement when a consumer is aware they are being marketed or sold to, versus SMIs and peer consumers—the new, more subtle digital marketing context. Mimicking is seen as consumers practice and mirror SMIs in the beauty space—watching their tutorials and learning about makeup culture, ultimately increasing their own use of makeup (Scholz, 2021). In this case, SMIs are users of a platform, creating UGC that influences consumers/their followers.

SMIs are powerful; UGC is seen as reliable content and, in some cases, is believed to be more legitimate than company-generated content (Dunn & Harness, 2019). Increasingly so, SM is used to communicate company's messages of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and has been found that "stakeholders respond to CSR messages with UGC, signaling approval or disapproval, potentially shaping consumers' perceived legitimacy and skepticism towards CSR" (Dunn & Harness, 2019, p. 886). For some

people, SM is the ideal platform for communicating CSR as it is, again, seen as enhancing legitimacy and more credible than traditional advertising (Dunn & Harness, 2019). This makes sense, as earlier research showed that brands might act as humans—this is seen to enhance legitimacy, to be more approachable and, thus, would perform better than traditional advertising.

As mentioned earlier, consumers positive attitudes towards SMIs' posts have influenced their purchase intentions and—notably so—shown a consumer's desire to mimic an SMI (Ki & Kim, 2019). An individuals' desire to mimic, which leads to behavioral outcomes, shows a unique view of SMIs and the consumer-decision making process, which are heavily linked (Ki & Kim, 2019). There are marketing implications, as the SMI chosen will determine or sway a specific consumer base, and there are interpersonal and social implications as well. SMIs can use altruism, relatability, 'good' role model persona, or sheer luxury to entice audiences and to appeal to their following (Leban et al., 2020). While some of these tactics can lead to moral hypocrisy or backlashes in the media, influencers leave a significant mark on public discourse and what their audiences view as good and/or ethical (Leban et al., 2020). Understanding which ways consumers mimic SMIs, beyond just converting or purchasing a product advertised, is critical in understanding consumers/users.

Instagram shopping, an extremely popular avenue for impulse buying, is another key component of the platform's experience (Shahpasandi et al., 2020). Depending on how much one browses their feed or a company's site, time spent positively increases the flow of shopping which leads to a positively influenced shopping experience (Shahpasandi et al., 2020). The more consumers scroll and experience a positive flow, the

more pleasure and enjoyment they have and the more likely they are to use understanding and interpretation—simulating a full cognitive shopping experience (Shahpasandi et al., 2020). Therefore, it is more likely that consumers experience impulse buying on Instagram, instead of impulse buying in a store (Shahpasandi et al., 2020).

While some shopping on Instagram might involve cheap or accessible items, some items are luxury goods. High-net-worth (HNW) SMIs—like Kylie Jenner or Barron Hilton—are individuals that live luxurious lifestyles while also influencing or being seen as a 'good' role model to some (Leban et al., 2020). SMIs can be famous for a variety of things, like living a geographically mobile lifestyle, traveling across the country with their dog, or just outright luxury. These HNW SMIs have the potential to display ethicality and leave a significant mark on the luxury world (Leban et al., 2020). The influence of SMIs is substantial when research shows they have the power to positively sway the world towards a more ethical and luxurious lifestyle. Many luxurious things, like private jets, are not an environmentally conscious decision, showing the power influence can bring (Leban et al., 2020).

The reasons for using social media spans far beyond SMIs and shopping experiences. Individuals have diverse goals when engaging with social media, like social interaction, entertainment, gratification, expressing opinion, and more (Stone et al., 2022). Instagram also provides a memory reel for individuals—a selective sharing of personal information—which allows them to selectively retrieve and remember their lives (Stone & Wang, 2017). It can be seen as a true digital photo album to the self. The self is also subconsciously influencing, when there are over 55 million posts tagged with the hashtag #beautifuldestinations on Instagram (Hauser et al., 2022). Those are not just

travel blogs or travel bloggers sharing their destinations, but millions of individuals posting aesthetic landscapes across the world, maybe mimicking their favorite SMI.

Individuals' Online Presence

While SMIs are a key part of the Instagram experience, the vast majority of accounts and users are not human brands and are just normal, non-SMI people. It is incredibly important to understand why individuals post what they do—how they discern what they share with others—as social media is not just an important way individuals share their lives, but can sometimes be the key way they share their lives (Stone et al., 2022). As normal people on a SM application that is heavily aesthetic-reliant, online personas can be created and can continually change, update, and revise (Barbour et al., 2017). Through studying the hashtag #watchingtv, Barbour et al. (2017) found that people were taking the privacy of normal, at-home leisure time and creating it as a public showing. Over a 28-day period, there were 340 posts of individuals merely watching television (Barbour et al., 2017). Individuals, in sharing about a private, mundane moment of their life, not only shared the fact they were watching TV or the show they were watching, but also the conditions and contexts of watching (Barbour et al., 2017). This hashtag on Instagram primarily did not appear as a way to inform individuals of a show, their experience with it, or the rating of it, but to highlight the aesthetic and ambiance of how TV was being watched—casually giving friends and family a glimpse into what one is doing right there at home (Barbour et al., 2017).

The contents of an Instagram post shares something about how the poster perceives themselves or desire to be perceived. When it comes to television, leisure can be seen by an individual propping their feet up, relaxation shown when junk food or

treats are included in the photo, and fellowship through the presence of a pet (Barbour et al., 2017). Almost half the posts of #watchingtv showed pets, many with the animal as the sole focus of the photo (Barbour et al., 2017). The private space of home—and many other areas—is now in the public realm through Instagram, showing the impact and modern-era social media has led the world to. Most interestingly is that to capture images, post them, and frame them with a hashtag is a labor-intensive activity; individuals are spending their time curating photos to post (Barbour et al., 2017). While potentially pleasurable, an individual is disrupting their day or delaying their television show to post this content, showing the nature of digital persona work (Barbour et al., 2017).

While individuals are posting their normal, day-to-day lives on Instagram, they are also spending a sizable amount of time on the internet and SM broadly. It has been shown that most individuals spend more than two hours a day online (Ünal, 2018). When parents learned how much time they and their children spent on SM, parents defended the internet, sharing that it was entertaining, relaxing, and informative (Ünal, 2018). After sharing the positives, however, parents did share that there could be disadvantages, like the platform being addictive or damaging to people and society (Ünal, 2018).

While the self has always been comprised of conscious aspects and others' interpretation, Wang (2022) proposes a triangular theory of self in an effort to characterize one's sense of selfhood: the self in the social media world is made up of the self in the private mind of the person, the self interpreted by a virtual audience, and the self shown on social media platforms. Using Wang's theory (2022) the social media era individual is composed of the represented self, the registered self, and the inferred self.

The registered self—the self that is the characteristics, roles, and experiences of the user shared on social media—is the self that really looks at *why* individuals post what they do, what they are trying to present (Wang, 2022). The registered self, unique to all selves pre-social media era, is constructed with the virtual audience in mind and can use a variety of tactics to engage this virtual audience (Wang, 2022). As social media has given individuals numerous ways to present themselves, it has also given individuals numerous selves to present.

Self-presentation, the process of self-portrayal, can be done for various reasons. With the ease of sharing on social networking platforms, individuals often exaggerate or understate aspects of themselves (Strimbu & O'Connell, 2019). Why individuals share what they post—specifically memories—has been studied before, as individuals posting personal memories on a public platform is an interesting phenomenon (Stone et al., 2022). Individuals sometimes remember the events on social media better than the actual event they are posting the memory about, and oftentimes, the motive for posting is not with the intent to remember life's moments in different ways. Stone et al. (2022) found that individuals primarily shared personal experiences online for social reasons, then self and directive reasons and, lastly, therapeutic reasons. This aligned with the additional memory literature they studied as relationship maintenance is a large reason for individuals to share memories—especially personal ones—with others. However, individuals with greater independence more often posted their personal experiences for self-motives (Stone et al., 2022). While this is a thought-provoking yet logical insight, it is hard to say if individuals self-reporting as independent truly classifies them as such.

It has been shown that people may express their true selves more freely online

than in person, and depending on one's personality type, like introverts, that could be truer (Marriott & Buchanan, 2013). For instance, those using the internet to meet others or fine friends may prefer it as it avoids some of the face-to-face difficulties of social interaction (Marriott & Buchanan, 2013). Self-concept is found to play a key role in an individual's online self-presentation (Strimbu & O'Connell, 2019). Individuals enjoy posting online, whether it is to show multiple versions of themselves or just highlight one version. Regardless of age, higher self-concept shows those individuals have a lower presentation of multiple selves and a preference for online presentation (Strimbu & O'Connell, 2019).

Additionally, shyer individuals are more likely to show their real selves online, as it might be an environment where they are more comfortable (Marriott & Buchanan, 2013). This gives indication that depending on one's personality type, extraversion level, and more, individuals might have different reasons for posting.

In looking at over a hundred friendships, all participants felt offline relationships were closer and more meaningful than online ones (Marriott & Buchanan, 2013). Further, with the exception of neuroticism, online and offline personalities were found to be similar for those classified as with extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness (Marriott & Buchanan, 2013). This makes sense, as neurotic individuals may use social media as a safe place for self-presentation, as many have social difficulties (Seidman, 2012). While online self-presentation has been studied across SM platforms and some insights could be widely applicable, Instagram is unique as it is a visual online setting focused on photos (Harris & Bardey, 2019).

Pertegal et al. (2019), in studying motives for using SM, found that factors like

gender, age, and personality can cause youths to have different motives and needs on SM; they also found that extraverts typically use SM more actively. Regarding neuroticism, they found that higher levels of neuroticism correlates to high control over online information shared, which ultimately showed a lower tendency of widespread online communication (Pertegal et al., 2019). The lack of online communication was attributed to a fear of being accepted by others (Pertegal et al., 2019).

Social media as a safe place has been long-debated, as not everyone leaves a social media platform feeling better about themselves. Individuals often feel good about editing or viewing their own online profile—curating their ideal self-presentation—and sometimes bad after viewing others' posts (Wang, 2022). Additionally, self-presentation has been found to be the root and connector to self-criticism and emotional responses to feedback on Instagram (Jackson & Luchner, 2017). Why individuals spend time on SM and why they post certain content is important to understand as it affects how they view themselves, and whether they leave Instagram feeling worse about themselves than when they arrived.

Diving further into why individuals post what they do, it is helpful to understand the kinds of photography modes, layouts, and impressions. There have been three unique photographic modes established on Instagram: casual, professional, and designed (Simatzkin-Ohana & Frosh, 2022). As expected, each different mode comes with its own characteristics and photos taken in a specific environment. Casual mode serves as the home environment—picture photos from the hashtag #watchingtv. Professional photos follow aesthetic photographer practice rules, whereas designed photos convey hip, truly designed-for-Instagram posts (Simatzkin-Ohana & Frosh, 2022). We have already

established that brands can act like individuals, and humans can be brands, so it should come as no surprise that both brands and humans span all three categories, depending on how they seek to be perceived.

While a different platform, differing self-presentations and trends hold true on Facebook. With self-presentation as the second major motivator for using Facebook—with self-presentation primarily achieved via sharing photos—online and offline personalities can differ, with personality as a key decider of how they differ for individuals (Seidman, 2012). With results aligned as what is seen on Instagram, extraversion was associated with actual self-presentation, with individuals posting their true selves more often (Seidman, 2012).

Individuals continue to use this site, whether they are consciously aware of presenting a true self or a false version of themselves. While social networks broadly, and Instagram specifically, have positive use cases—like connecting online friends and sharing memories—they also have been found to contribute damagingly to psychological wellbeing (Jackson & Luchner, 2017). Understanding SM fulfills the broad needs for self-presentation and the need to belong, Instagram specifically enables user expression and the gathering of feedback from others (Jackson & Luchner, 2017).

Whether it is a like, a comment, or a view on a story, Instagram is set up to allow others to give feedback continually. Instagram users who have adaptive needs for self experience positive consequences from time spent on the platform, whereas maladaptive individuals only experience negative reactions and affective consequences from the app (Jackson & Luchner, 2017). Those who are adaptive responded positively to positive feedback and were disconnected to negative feedback, whereas those who are

maladaptive were disconnected to positive feedback and more swayed by negative feedback (Jackson & Luchner, 2017).

When individuals post, they are not just thinking about themselves. Depending on the audience or fellow users' feedback of their post, the user—or content creator, in this case—may anticipate audience expectations in the future, causing them to strategically present themselves or self-censor (Wang, 2022). While positive feedback makes individuals feel supported, something small like not receiving enough 'Likes' on a post (platform-agnostic) results in negative feelings (Wang, 2022). This could explain why research, though limited, shows that sharing public information leads to a worse recall for the individual posting it (Stone & Wang, 2017). While this trend, poorer recall, can also be seen for those consuming information in this social media fashion, it is particularly interesting that in sharing public moments or information, it actually causes individuals to misremember the facts of it.

When an individual is posting a photo on a platform, there is often a caption being written or comments being typed out. It has been shown that students are aware and able to recognize the difference between writing for social media versus writing for professional publications (Parrella et al., 2021). If students, mere teens, are consciously aware of what SM writing looks like compared with academic or professional writing, there is confidence instilled that they understand and are considering what they are posting (the content of the photo) as well.

While individuals can be more true to themselves online than offline, there are additional learnings to be found in how they present themselves online. Selfies (a photo an individual takes of him or herself) have been found to be a personality predictor

(Harris & Bardey, 2019). Through thematic analyses and interviews, research showed selfies can cause an individual to be perceived as highly narcissistic if the selfie is taken alone, as opposed to with a group or people (Harris & Bardey, 2019). Selfies—the closeness of one's face—can also be seen as a window into their character (Harris & Bardey, 2019). For instance, if an individual posts up-close photos of their face without make-up or looking natural, it could share with the world a little bit of their personality, who they are, and what they care about. Selfies and the presence of faces on one's Instagram feed can give followers insight into who that individual is and what their personality is like (Harris & Bardey, 2019).

Another personality predictor on Instagram is a user's collective layout (not one photo, but the compilation of their photos) (Harris & Bardey, 2019). Whether an account showed similar tones and colors, was minimalist, or was seen without a color scheme was interpreted by individuals to draw conclusion on those they follow. For instance, one user shared that an account's profile felt sterile, and in sterility felt lonely, because they had a "pastel, whitewashed theme" (Harris & Bardey, 2019, p. 8).

People are not the only ones concerned with others when they post on Instagram; companies, too, are thinking about their audiences. Brands that post with an expressive, aesthetic image receive more engagement (likes and comments) than those with classic aesthetics (Kusumasondjaja, 2019). Similarly, video content receives more likes and comments than normal, static content (Kusumasondjaja, 2019). Brands, caring about sales and consumer engagement, think of others when they post, and they know others prefer expressive aesthetics and video content over classic aesthetics and static content. While luxury brands used more classical aesthetics when posting, they had far more likes

and comments on posts with expressive aesthetics (Kusumasondjaja, 2019). This is a unique case where a brand's desired way to present themselves—timeless, classic—is more important than just getting engagement metrics. In the same way that individuals with different personality types post for different reasons, brands with different objectives and goals do as well.

A sponsored post is when brands post off their page or have their post appear like an 'ad' in someone's Instagram timeline. Sponsored posts are an attempt at the brand persuading an individual to consider a product or purchase something (Boerman et al., 2012). In a study looking at the effects of persuasion knowledge and brand responses, research found that disclosing a sponsored post increased brand memory, regardless of how long an individual looked at the post (Boerman et al., 2012). When an individual recognizes a persuasion attempt, when they see a brand sponsoring a post, they cognitively understand and recognize advertising is occurring (Boerman et al., 2012). While this might seem disadvantageous to the brand if they are seen as intentionally trying to persuade someone, it is arguably advantageous, as the individual remembers that brand and retains them longer (Boerman et al., 2012).

Not only does a persuasion attempt lead to brand memory, but a persuasion attempt does not directly alter consumers' perception of the brand, unless they spend six second looking at the content; if a viewer sits on a sponsored post for six seconds, it may cause the individual to distrust the sponsored content more (Boerman et al., 2012). This is an important reminder of the format of Instagram, as well. The format of Instagram is photo-after-photo (or video) in a tile-like approach where one can scroll quickly. To get someone to stop on a photo or spend more than six seconds looking at it can change their

attitude and impression of the brand or individual posting it.

Individuals' Motives for Sharing

The motives behind using SM are commonly found as maintaining relationships, seeing information, and entertainment (Pertegal et al., 2019). These motives are just for being on SM, but not necessarily why individuals post or click the share button to show content or photos to the world.

Understanding that individuals have an online presence that may be similar or dissimilar to who they are (or act like) in face-to-face scenarios, it is important to understand the impetus and motivation for why they share online. Instagram has been found, when used for professional reasons, to increase self-efficacy, content knowledge, and make individuals feel less lonely (Carpenter et al., 2020). On the other hand, use for personal reasons has been researched by Stone et al. (2022) looking to understand why people share memories online using the Purposes of Online Memory Sharing Scale (POMSS) and the subscales within it: self, social, therapeutic, and directive. By studying college students and adults, Stone et al. (2022) found that emerging and older adults posted their personal experiences on SM for mainly social reasons, like to entertain others or maintain social bonds. The least likely reason for posting and sharing personal memories online was therapeutic reasons (Stone et al., 2022).

These findings have been found consistent and validated by Wang's (2020) research involving a different college and community (adults) sample. Wang (2020) created the POMSS from extensive empirical research, identifying that we share memories for self, social, therapeutic, and directive functions, and a desire to better understand why people share their experiences online (compared to face-to-face

interactions). Wang (2020) found that POMSS had excellent internal consistency reliability for self, social, and therapeutic subscales, while the directive subscale had poor internal consistency. Through Stone et al.'s (2022) research, POMSS has been validated as an excellent measurement tool to use for understanding why individuals post memories online.

Expanding on earlier discussion, Stone et al. (2022) found that individuals who post for self reasons typically have greater independence and a lower need for relatedness, whereas individuals posting personal experiences more for social purposes may be more disclosive and interdependent. In looking at ethnicity, non-White participants posted more for therapeutic motives than White participants, potentially because SM "provides a platform for individuals of color to cope with living in a predominantly White culture" (Stone et al., 2022, p. 460). Those with lower self-esteem and more loneliness posted their memories on SM for therapeutic reasons as well (Stone et al., 2022).

In a specific study on why educators use Instagram, Carpenter et al., (2020) found educators using Instagram for professional knowledge exchanging, wisdom exchanging, and affectionate support. Many use Instagram for person reasons, and some use SM for student activities or their own professional learning, as well. Educators can use SM to "fulfill needs related to professional identity, community, and affective support (Carpenter et al., 2020, p. 3). This would fall into Wang's (2020) subscales of social and potentially therapeutic reasons.

Educators also use it for content sharing and collaboration with other educators; less than 10% of teachers surveyed indicated that they use it for advertising or selling

products (Carpenter et al., 2020). Carpenter et al. (2020) found that almost 90% of educators said that Instagram increased their sense of self-efficacy, while 80% thought it enhanced their content and pedagogical knowledge. There are clear compelling and possibly positive motives for using Instagram, and sharing on it, if you'll likely have higher self-efficacy and enhanced content knowledge.

Through Pertegal et al.'s (2019) study to develop and validate the Scale of Motives for Using Social Networking Sites (SMU-SNS), they used nine factors (seeking Information, Self-expression, seeking Social Recognition, Entertainment, Following and Monitoring Others, Social Connectedness, Academic Purposes, Dating, and New Friendships) as the motives behind SM use. SMU-SNS achieved internal consistency and is an additional measure to assess young people's motives for using SM, like POMSS.

Pertegal et al. (2019) also found that they didn't see variance based on age, but did see some differences across gender (boys and girls); namely, Social Recognition and Self-expression were more prevalent in girls than boys. Social Recognition is defined as "motives related to looking for popularity and feedback (likes and comments)," and Self-expression is defined as the "motives" related to the expression of one's opinions and feelings" (Pertegal et al., 2019, p. 12). Part of the reason Pertegal et al. (2019) sought to develop the SMU-SNS was due to the lack of information and holistic research on motives behind SM use, as well as the mindset and mental health of users. Song et al. (2019) also sought to understand how the mind interacts with SM, and specifically in their case, if a growth or fixed mindset impacts motivations for and uses of Instagram.

There are clear threads and motives for posting or—more broadly—using SM. Similar to Pertegal et al's (2019) research, Song et al. (2019) found five motives for

Instagram use (not necessarily posting): Entertainment, Identity Expression, Social Interaction, Relationship Management, and Information Seeking.

Motivations for using SM has moved from a desire to connect to friends, to entertaining, to self-documentation (Song et al., 2019). Song et al. (2019) found "that growth-mindset individuals are more likely to engage in most Instagram activities," like meeting new people or obtaining information (p 897). Given that younger adults are more likely to have growth orientation, while older adults are likelier to have fixed mindsets, age could be a factor explaining why growth-mindset individuals are active on SM (Song et al., 2019). While engagement level varied on growth and fixed-mindset individuals, Song et al. (2019) found that both of those groups engaged in liking others posts; liking requires little effort (just the click of the button) so this could explain why it is found as a common activity in both groups.

There are a variety of reasons individuals might give likes or enjoy getting likes on their posts, some which can be explained by Katz et al. (1974) research, sharing that some "attempt to tract the extent to which they are gratified by the media or other sources," which others take observed gratifications as a starting point and attempt to reconstruct the needs that are being gratified" (p. 510). Overall, growth-mindset users are likely to be active learners, followers, and social connecters compared to fixed-mindset individuals (Song et al., 2019).

Understanding individuals often seek out media to fulfill their needs, which in turn, gratifies them, Whiting and Williams (2013) applied that foundation of media to modern-day SM. Using Social Interaction, Information Seeking, Passing Time, Entertainment, Relaxation, Communicatory Utility, and Convenience Utility as their

themes, they found that most individuals use SM for Social Interactions, followed by Information Seeking. While these are reasons for using SM, they aren't necessarily reasons for posting or motives for sharing one's life on SM.

Least Preferred Co-worker

While on SM, followers are most frequently talked about as individuals who 'subscribe' to seeing or possibly getting a notification for an individuals' posts, photos, or messages on SM. The act of following (which can be seen as a leader-follower relationship) has been long discussed and studied by researchers. As SM users who have followers can be seen as leaders, it is important to understand existing literature on leadership further.

Fiedler first introduced the notion of contingency theory as one approach to the study of leadership in 1964. Contingency theory shows the importance of variable leadership, stating that a leader's style must fit the situation they are in for them to truly be an effective leader (Fiedler, 1964). Fiedler (1964) found a gap with personality attributes characterizing an effective leader and sought to understand leadership effectiveness through two different measures: the "assumed similarity between opposites" (ASo) and the least preferred co-worker (LPC) scores. LPC and ASo are "measures of interpersonal attitudes" of leaders, though Fiedler (1964) acknowledges that a leader can "be trained to modify these attitudes" (p. 184). ASo asks for descriptions of one's most preferred co-worker and one's least preferred co-worker (Fiedler, 1964). Further, ASo and LPC scores "predicted leadership effectiveness to the degree to which the leader had good interpersonal relations in the group" (Fiedler, 1964, p. 157).

LPC scores look at whether an individual is a relationship-oriented or task-

oriented leader, based on rating the individual they would least like to work with on various measures, using a scale 1-8 (Fiedler, 1964). LPC scores have a high internal consistency, and individuals have either a high LPC score or a low LPC score (Fiedler, 1964). A high LPC score individual is interpreted as being able to see a poor or unfavorable co-worker in a relatively favorable manner and behaving in a way that encourages satisfaction and lowers others' anxiety (Fiedler, 1964). A low LPC score individual perceiving their "least preferred co-worker in a highly unfavorable, rejecting manner, [like] 'if I cannot work with him, he is probably just no good'" (Fiedler, 1964, p. 155). Low LPC leaders are often found to share and seek more suggestions, more demanding of participation (and often get it), and more controlling of group interaction (Fiedler, 1964).

A leader with high LPC versus a leader with low LPC have been found to act different depending on if they are in a stressful or stress-free environment. In stress-free conditions, high LPC leaders typically have better group performance on creative tasks, whereas low LPC leaders were shown to have better group performance under less-pleasant and tension-filled environments (Fiedler, 1964). This idea is expanded on by Fiedler in 1971 as he discusses and introduces situational favorableness.

Fiedler (1964) originally used the visual of a three-dimension, eight-celled cube to dimensionalize group situations. The three sides were affective leader-member relations, task structure, and leadership position power, with the leader's relationship with their members being the most important of the three dimensions (Fiedler, 1964). Task structure was second in importance, "since it embodies the demands of higher authority, such as a standard operating procedure," with leadership position power being the least important

of the three (Fiedler, 1964, p. 164).

To develop a model to understand the interpersonal aspects of one in studying leadership effectiveness, Fiedler (1964) names three situational components that "which are likely to affect the leader's influence: (a) his personal relations with his members of his group, (b) the power and authority which his position provides, and (c) the degree of structure in the task, which the group has been assigned to perform" (p. 158). These three components are defined by three corresponding measures: (a) affective leader-group relations, (b) task structure, and (c) leadership position power (all mentioned and ranked in importance above) (Fiedler, 1964).

In the discussion, Fiedler (1964) notes shortcomings of the categorization. One of those shortcomings being that if conditions are not normal in group-task situations, "some groups dislike the leader enough to sabotage a task" (Fiedler, 1964, p. 183). Hence, for extreme cases, Fiedler (1964) acknowledges that when it comes to weighing the dimensions, there could be a better method.

Coming back to the contingency model of leadership effectiveness less than a decade later, Fiedler (1971) extended the LPC model, looking at leadership style in different situations: namely, "task-oriented" leaders and "relationship-oriented" leaders. Fiedler (1971) first defined the main three terms used in the theory: (a) leadership style—represented by an individual's LPC score, (b) situational favorableness—the moderating variable between LPC and group performance showing the "degree to which the situation itself provides the leader with potential power and influence over the group's behavior," and (c) leadership group effectiveness—when a leader's effectiveness is measured by the group's task performance (p. 129). Through a variety of group studying done in different

fields, like West Point or Church Leadership groups, extended the contingency model's predictive power (Fiedler, 1971).

The three components mentioned earlier that Fiedler (1964) theorized affect a leader's effectiveness (a leader's personal relations with the members of their group, the power and authority which their position provides, and the degree of structure in the task) determine situational favorableness, which is an input of an individual's LPC. An LPC score is obtained by "asking an individual to think of all co-workers he has ever had. He is then asked to describe the one person with whom he has been least able to work well, that is, the person he least prefers as a co-worker" (Fiedler, 1971, p. 129). This individual is not someone they're actively working with, and they describe them on 16 to 24 items made on an 8-point scale with bipolar adjectives, like friendly (8) to unfriendly (1) or cooperative (8) to uncooperative (1). Through summing all the item values, the LPC score is obtained, meaning a high LPC score "indicates that the subject has described his least preferred co-worker in relatively favorable terms" (Fiedler, 1971, p. 129).

A leader's personal relations with members of the group is captured and highlighted in their ranking of their least preferred co-worker. Situational favorableness, defined above, affects group phenomena as it shows the degree a situation provides a leader with power and influence (Fiedler, 1971). This highlights the components Fiedler (1964) theorized affecting a leader's effectiveness as the power and authority to which a position provides. Fielder (1971) further acknowledges this through sharing that his "original work on the contingency model presented one method based on three component dimensions that affect the degree to which the situation provides the leader with potential power and influence. There are leader-member relations, task structure,

and position power" (p. 129). The hypothesis shared that it's likely easier to be a leader of a group when the leader feels accepted, when the group is highly structured, and/or when the "position is vested with power" (Fiedler, 1971, p. 130).

A leader with high LPC, or a relationship-oriented leader described earlier, is predicted to be more effective in a favorable situation; a favorable situation being one where the leader has positive relations with members, high power, and high task structure (Fiedler, 1971). In a favorable situation, you want someone with a high LPC attitude.

A leader with low LPC attitude, or someone who behaves like a low LPC leader, is predicted to be more effective in an unfavorable situation; an unfavorable situation being one where the leader has poor relations with members, low power, and low task structure (Fiedler, 1971). In an unfavorable situation, you want someone with lower LPC, also known as the task-oriented leader described prior.

Fiedler's (1964) work has been widely validated and used. Rice and Chemers (1973) used the LPC model to try predicting the emergence of leaders. Rice and Chemers (1973) ultimately were not successful in predicting leadership type of emergent leaders, but they were successful in predicting leadership effectiveness, further validating the LPC model. They also found that low LPC individuals were perceived as more popular and valuable group members than high LPC individuals (Rice & Chemers, 1973). In looking at leader's sex and short-term supervisory experience, Offermann (1984) found female leaders had the lowest LPC scores (showing a focus on task orientation) after supervising males, and male leaders had the highest LPC scores (showing a focus on relationship-orientation) after supervising groups of females. Offermann (1984) suggested that male leaders may adopt and become more relationship-oriented when leading all females and,

more broadly, leaders might adopt different orientations depending on what they think a situation may require.

LPC has had criterion-related validity completed by Hoffman and Roman (1984) and instrument refinement discussed by Fox (1976). Hoffman and Roman (1984) found that the middle LPC category should not be excluded in analyses, which at the time, many studies were excluding middle LPC. Fox (1976) shared that individuals will not necessarily describe any LPC (even a hypothetical one) the same, challenging the assumption that one LPC instrument is like another in effectiveness. While there are modifications and variations of the LPC instrument over the years, it is seen as a valid instrument in predicting leadership effectiveness.

Through looking at additional studies, Cummins (1990) found that the LPC scale can be related to worker burnout and social support, as social support is related to burnout. Task-oriented individuals, represented by a low LPC score, are likelier to depersonalize burnout unlike their high LPC counterparts who value personal relationships and tend to have wider-spread support (Cummins, 1990). Given their extensive literature review, "it seems plausible that LPC may moderate the buffering effect of social support on the impact of job stress" (Cummins, 1990, p. 94). While Fiedler's model focuses on relating an LPC score to a group performance, Cummins (1990) found that LPC is related to individual attitudes as well, like job satisfaction.

While LPC score might correlate to individual attitudes as well as group attitudes, Kundu and Mondal (2019) show industry similarities to LPC scores. In analyzing a few librarians, it is shown that librarians are "identically inherited relationship-oriented leaders but they are task oriented leaders in the regular situations of the library" (Kundu

& Mondal, 2019, p. 2). Kundu & Mondal (2019) found that all librarians were high LPC leaders and half of them had poor position power, but worked in a favorable situation. Leaders in similar jobs/job profiles having similarly high LPC scores is plausible when understanding that certain roles might have a higher relationship or task-oriented focus. This pushes the consideration as well if individuals on similar platforms, like Instagram, have the potential to have similar LPC scores, or if the follower-leader dynamic on a SM site is unique.

Conclusion

Instagram users are inundated with advertisements and SMIs, constantly being exposed to the presentation of idealized selves (Harris & Bardey, 2019). With many discussions focused on how individuals are impacted by time spent on SM, SMIs' presence, and brands' perceptions, there has been a more recent focus of research on what motivates normal individuals or non-SMIs to post. While there are different scales and phrases for what motivates an individual spending time on SM, POMSS (developed by Wang (2020) and further validated by Stone et al. (2022) is a reliable instrument for understanding if individuals share memories online for self, social, therapeutic, or directive reasons.

The initial intent of social networks promoting connectivity feels extremely positive, as many individuals share their motivation for engaging with Instagram is to "communicate with friends and family and to engage in the sharing of information," (Harris & Bardey, 2019, p. 8). However, Instagram now expands far beyond just a platform to connect with friends and family. Many individuals feel like social networks have detrimental side effects, like a focus on how many followers one has, cyberbullying,

and the potential to spread hate (Harris & Bardey, 2019). Given the time spent on Instagram, the potential side effects, and the advertisement hub and billion dollar business the platform now is, it would be helpful to focus on exploring further what motivates individuals to share and post on Instagram. Understanding the leader-follower relationship and leadership in the real world, there are predictors that can categorize one's leadership effectiveness (see Fiedler, 1964). If an individual's LPC score is known, there could be predictability on what they might post on Instagram—whether it is focused on self, social, therapeutic, or directive reasons. The next chapter explores the research methodology proposed to investigate Instagram users' intentions and desired perceptions.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

The primary objective of this study was to assess whether an individual's LPC scores (Fiedler, 1971) correlated with their self-reported reasons for posting on Instagram, measured by Wang's (2022) POMSS criteria. Non-SMI Instagram users were invited to take the POMSS assessment, assessing whether they posted for social, self, directive, or therapeutic reasons, and Fiedler's (1971) LPC assessment to determine their LPC score. It was hypothesized that individuals with low LPC attitudes would be more likely to report that they post for self or directive reasons, while individuals with high LPC attitudes were hypothesized to be more likely to report that they post for social or therapeutic reasons. The methodology used to give insights to the research questions is presented in the subsequent sections in this chapter.

Theoretical Framework

Since the focus of this exploratory study was to understand if an individual's LPC score correlated with their reasons for posting, the predictor variable was assessed using Fiedler's (1964, 1971) LPC scale. Developed by Fiedler in 1964 and revised in 1971, the LPC scale uses forced-choice ratings to assess attitudes toward a "peer, boss, or subordinate" an individual identifies as the person with whom they "would least want to work". LPC scores have a high internal consistency with scores ranging from 18 to 144. A person with a high LPC score has been characterized as being able to see a poor or unfavorable co-worker in a relatively favorable manner and behaving in a way that encourages satisfaction; a person with a low LPC score individual is has been characterized as perceiving their unfavorable co-worker in a rejecting manner and tending to be more demanding of participation and controlling of group interaction

(Fiedler, 1964).

This study's outcome variable was assessed using Wang's (2022) POMSS scale. Wang (2020) created the Purposes of Online Memory Sharing Scale (POMSS) from empirical research exploring why people share their experiences online (compared to face-to-face interactions). The POMSS uses self-report rating scales to assess the strength of four motivations individuals report for sharing memories online: self, social, therapeutic, and directive. As an example, a social reason for posting might be "to entertain others or maintain social bonds". Originally tested with college students and validated, POMSS was later validated additionally by Stone et al.'s (2022) research, finding POMSS to be a "useful tool for researchers to examine autobiographical memory expression and communication in the digital age" (Stone et al., 2022, p. 459).

Figure 1 presents the relationship between LPC score and POMSS score that was tested in this study.

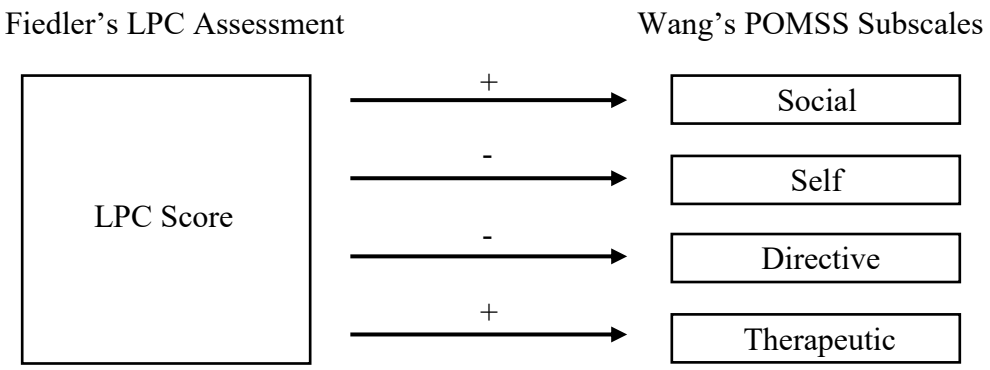

Figure 1. Relationship between LPC score and POMSS subscale

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study of the relationship between LPC and the four motivations for posting assessed by the POMSS scale. Directional hypotheses stated to assess these research questions are also stated:

RQ1. Is there a correlation between LPC and posting for self reasons on Instagram?

H1. There will be a negative correlation between LPC and posting for self reasons on Instagram.

RQ2. Is there a correlation between LPC and posting for social reasons on Instagram?

H2. There will be a positive correlation between LPC and posting for social reasons on Instagram.

RQ3. Is there a correlation between LPC and posting for therapeutic reasons on Instagram?

H3. There will be a positive correlation between LPC and posting for therapeutic reasons on Instagram.

RQ4. Is there a correlation between LPC and posting for directive reasons on Instagram?

H4. There will be a negative correlation between LPC and posting for directive reasons on Instagram.

Research Design

This exploratory study assessed whether Instagram users' self-reported LPC scores are correlated with their self-reported motives for posting on the platform. There was one source of data for this study which was Instagram users' responses to the two assessment instruments, Wang's POMSS subscales and Fiedler's LPC scale.

Survey data was collected using the secure Qualtrics server. All data was collected anonymously via Qualtrics. Individuals were solicited via the marketing company's weekly information email. After consenting, participants were able to take the

survey via a cell phone or on a computer/laptop system. The participants on the email distribution list represent the entirety of the company—consultants, engineers, HR, and more. The company does not require employees to submit research protocols for review prior to soliciting participants online. Employees may share any message or solicitation in the email by submitting it a week prior. As an employee of the company, the principal investigator submitted the post to the information email handle, and the communications team assembled the email with the solicitation message included. Thus, all individuals at the company were invited to take the study if they met criteria for participation.

Population and Data Sources

This proposed exploratory study solicited data from employees at a marketing company and their Instagram networks who self-identify as non-SMI Instagram users who have posted on the platform. Non-SMI Instagram users refers to 'normal people' using Instagram, specifically those without the verified blue checkmark on Instagram. The blue checkmark typically indicates that a user is famous, and this is their correct, verified account. Verified users were assessed through a screening question on Qualtrics, "Do you have a blue checkmark on Instagram?" It was assumed that if they respond "no" (they're not verified on Instagram) the individual is a non-SMI user. Data was not collected from individuals who respond "yes" to the screening question.

Originally, participants were solicited from among the membership of the International Leadership Association. Participants were solicited via an announcement posted on the International Leadership Association's (ILA) member Listserv's discussion board. Members of the ILA are scholars, educators, and development professionals who pay annual dues to join (International Leadership Association, 2023). There are no

educational or professional qualifications for ILA membership. Participants on the ILA Listserv represent a subset of the ILA membership who have voluntarily joined the informal email-based network. The Listserv is an informal mechanism for this subset of ILA members to communicate with each other about topics of mutual interest. The Listserv is not a formal mechanism used by ILA to communicate with its members.

After one reminder discussion post and several weeks of the survey remaining live, the survey had generated <5 completed responses. Given the lack of activity and involvement, the principal investigator and dissertation advisor submitted a modification to the IRB protocol redirecting recruitment to a different population. Responses obtained from the ILA membership were discarded.

The new target population was employees of a US-based marketing and data analytics company with approximately 1,500 employees. It is unknown how many employees have personal Instagram accounts. Participants were solicited through an announcement in the company's weekly company-wide email. The weekly information email is a casual way for employees to post updates and solicitation opportunities. The announcement contained information about the study as well as an invitation to post the announcement to their Instagram story (see Appendix A).

Participation in this study was completely voluntary. Interested employees were prompted to complete the Informed Consent before gaining access to the assessment instruments (see Appendix B). Individuals who did not consent were thanked for their time and dismissed from Qualtrics prior to gaining access to the assessment instruments.

Instrumentation

For this study, the instrumentation used was Wang's (2022) POMSS scale and

Fiedler's (1971) LPC scale (see Appendix C). Participants were able to click a link in the invitation posted to the weekly email, or shared via a friend's Instagram story, to gain access to the Informed Consent and qualifying question in Qualtrics. Only those who consented to participate and qualified for participation in the study were given access to the assessment instruments. The sequence for accessing the instrumentation (see Appendix C) involved clicking on the Qualtrics link in the solicitation message sent to the weekly email (see Appendix A), consenting to the terms of participation outlined in the Informed Consent, and responding negatively to the qualifying question regarding verified status in Instagram (see Appendix B).

Wang's (2020) POMSS uses a 5-point Likert-like scale to assess participants' self-reported reasons for posting on Instagram. Initially, Wang (2020) found that POMSS had excellent internal consistency reliability for self, social, and therapeutic subscales, while the directive subscale had poor internal consistency. Stone et al. (2022) expanded Wang's research and validated the POMSS as a measurement tool to use for understanding why individuals post memories online. Based on their prior Instagram posts, participants in this study were asked to indicate how much each of the statements on the POMSS describes their reasons for sharing experiences online, ranging from *"not at all"* (1) to *"exactly my reasons"* (5). Each statement corresponds to one of the four purposes for posting assessed by the POMSS subscales: self, social, directive or therapeutic.

There are 4-6 statements for each subscale, resulting in 20 statements. Statements that represent the self-purpose subscale reflect posting to express oneself or document personal experience. Examples of statements on the self-purpose subscale are: "I posted

to express myself" and "I posted to document my personal experiences". Statements that reflect the social-purpose subscale reflect posting to stay in touch with family and friends or to feel close to others. Examples of statements on the social-purpose subscale are: "I posted to stay in touch with my friends and family" and "I posted to feel close to others". Statements representing the directive-purpose subscale reflect posting to influence the way other people think or posting to help others. Examples of statements on the directive-purpose subscale are: "I posted to influence the way other people think" and "I posted to help others". Lastly, statements that represent the therapeutic-purpose subscale reflect posting to gain insight into problems, easing distress, or posting to get feedback from others who have similar experiences. Examples of statements on the therapeutic-purpose subscale are: "I posted to gain insight into my problems" and "I posted to ease my distress".

Fiedler's (1971) LPC assessment uses 18 pairs of contrasting adjectives to create forced-choice scales for respondents to rate for describing their least preferred co-worker. Each pair of words (for example, pleasant versus unpleasant) anchor opposite ends of an 8-point scale numbered from one to eight (or eight to one), between the words. Participants will select the number on the scale that best reflects how they feel the two adjectives describe their least preferred co-worker. In each adjective pairing on the instrument, the highest end of the scale is anchored by words like pleasant, friendly, and accepting, while the low end of the scale is anchored by words like unpleasant, unfriendly, and rejecting. When scored, by totaling the selected rating for all 18 adjectives, the raw numbers between 18-144 reflect the degree to which respondents describe their least preferred co-worker in favorable (high LPC) or unfavorable (low

LPC) terms.

Data Collection

All data collected for this exploratory study was solicited through the marketing company's email message or an employee's Instagram story, if an employee chose to share it. Any data collected previously from the ILA Listserv was securely deleted.

The email solicitation message (Appendix A) had a link taking individuals to Qualtrics. The Informed Consent (Appendix B) was the first screen they were taken to and had to be reviewed and consented to prior to getting access to the survey, including POMSS and LPC assessments (Appendix C). Those who consented were also asked qualifying questions to confirm they were over the age of 18 and determine their celebrity status on Instagram. There were three questions an individual must respond affirmatively to prior to moving to the survey: "I consent to participate", "I certify that I am at least 18 years of age", and "I certify that I do not have a blue checkmark next to my Instagram name." Those that did not consent and qualify for participation were thanked for their time and interest without being permitted to respond to the survey instruments.

Qualtrics is a secure server that will be set to the highest level of anonymity for collecting participants' responses, meaning no IP addresses or geolocators of any kind will be collected. Participants were non-identifiable so they cannot be contacted afterwards; they were not be asked to share their name, Instagram account, or any identifiable information.

Data Analysis

All data was analyzed using correlation analysis. Individuals' responses were converted to scores for each of the four POMSS subscales reflecting their self-reported

reason(s) for posting. To test the research hypotheses, LPC scores for each participant were correlated with their scores on each of the four POMSS subscales representing why individuals post on Instagram.

Human Subjects Protections (IRB compliance)

The co-investigators have both completed CITI certification for human subjects' protections in social science research. The research protocols followed in this study were reviewed and approved by Xavier University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) prior to commencing data collection. The IRB application outlined procedures for minimizing any known risks to survey participants. Informed Consent (Appendix B) was obtained electronically via Qualtrics before collecting any data from qualifying participants. Consenting participants were assured of the anonymity of their participation and screened to ensure they meet study criteria prior to data collection.

Assumptions and Limitations

This study reflects a number of underlying assumptions, including that the self-report assessment instruments will accurately reflect study variables. This will require that participants understand and respond honestly to the assessment instruments. Given that the study sought to recruit a qualified sample of normal, non-SMIs, results rest on the assumption that individuals will answer truthfully to the screening questions about not being verified or having non-celebrity status on the Instagram platform. Given that every post on an Instagram feed is a memory that is assumed to have happened in the past. Whether a photo was taken twenty minutes ago or twenty years ago, the post/feed of photos on Instagram is typically not shared live or in the moment, it is assumed participants may have different motivations for posting on Instagram, and may have more

than one motive for each post.

This study also has limitations that need to be acknowledged. No attempt was made in this study to restrict participants' POMSS responses to assessing their motivations for a single Instagram post. Instead, participants were asked to indicate their aggregate motivation(s) for posting. The validity and reliability of the POMSS for assessing multiple motivations had not yet been determined. Additionally, results of this exploratory study are limited by the non-representative nature of the sample of participants. The sample of participants for this study were solicited from among a marketing company's employee distribution list, and their networks, and confirmed they were non-SMI posters on Instagram. Given these limitations, interpretation of results will be limited to the participants in this study. Extrapolation of result to a generalized population will not be possible.

CHAPTER 4. DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents results of the data collected to explore the relationship between Fiedler's (1971) contingency model of leadership and the purposes for posting on Instagram assessed by Wang's (2020) Purposes of Online Memory Sharing Scale (POMSS).

Survey Response Rate

Solicitation messages were sent to roughly 1,500 employees of a marketing and data analytics firm in Southwestern Ohio who were both invited to participate in the study and to share the solicitation message with their contacts on Instagram. Thus, the exact number and general demographics of the individuals invited to participate are unknown. The survey was active for about three weeks. Survey results were downloaded from Qualtrics and cleaned for analysis by the dissertation advisor. A total of 208 individuals responded, however, one did not consent, three were not 18 years old, three had blue Instagram checkmarks signifying they were not non-influencers on the social media platform, and 34 did not complete the entire survey, leaving 167 completed surveys for analysis. Neither response rate nor sample demographics can be reported due to the indeterminate nature of the population parameters.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, kurtosis, and skewness) were calculated by the dissertation advisor using Microsoft Excel, version 2304 (see Table 1). Results were examined to determine the normality of the sample. Deviations from normal kurtosis were observed on half the calculated variables (scores), while skewness exceeded the normal range on 2 of 6 variables. Implications of these deviations from

normally distributed results are discussed below.

Self scores could range from 5 – 25, with 5 representing an individual not posting for self reasons and 25 representing an individual posting exactly for self reasons. Social scores could range from 6 – 30, with 6 representing an individual not posting for social reasons and 30 representing an individual posting exactly for social reasons. Therapeutic scores could range from 5 – 25, with 5 representing an individual not posting for therapeutic reasons and 25 representing an individual posting exactly for therapeutic reasons. Directive scores could range from 4 – 20, with 4 representing an individual not posting for directive reasons and 20 representing an individual posting exactly for directive reasons. Total POMSS scores could range from 20 – 100. LPC scores could range from 18 – 144 (Fiedler, 1971).

Several variables exceeded the range of normality with respect to skew (-1 to +1), kurtosis (-1 to +1), or both (see Table 1). Kurtosis scores, shown in Table 1, exceeded the normal range by approximately two times the normal range for therapeutic (with a score of 2.57), total POMSS (with a score of 1.92), and LPC (with a score of 2.04), indicating respondents' individual scores on these three variables were highly clustered around the mean. Skewness, exceeded the normal range for therapeutic (with a score of 1.32) and LPC (with a score of 1.03), indicating the distribution of individual scores on these two variables were not centered around the mean.

Scale Reliability

Reliability of the scales employed in this study was assessed by the dissertation advisor using Cronbach's alpha (see Table 2). While the overall reliability of both the LPC and POMSS assessments were confirmed, two of the four POMSS subscales fell

below the acceptable 0.70 cut-off criteria. Self and social were below the acceptable 0.70 criteria, coming in at 0.58 and 0.60 respectively, indicating that the scale did not perform reliably. This could be due to poor correlation between items or a lack of inter-relatedness.

Table 1. Raw results of POMSS and LPC assessments.

	Self	Social	Therapeutic	Directive	POMSS Total	LPC
Mean	14.95	18.04	8.13	8.01	49.13	56.32
Standard Deviation	3.44	3.92	3.24	3.25	10.66	21.76
Kurtosis	0.12	0.23	2.57	0.54	1.92	2.04
Skewness	0.11	-0.06	1.32	0.91	0.58	1.03
Max Score Possible	25	30	25	20	100	144

Table 2. Cronbach's Alpha of POMSS and LPC assessments.

	Self	Social	Therapeutic	Directive	POMSS Total	LPC
Cronbach's Alpha	0.58	0.60	0.80	0.75	0.83	0.92

Inferential Statistical Analysis

Correlation analysis was performed by the dissertation advisor to assess the relationship among all variables assessed (see Table 3). There were significant

correlations among all subscales of the POMSS and between each of these subscales and total POMSS scores. All subscales on the POMSS were significantly and positively correlated with each other and with total POMSS score. LPC scores were not significantly correlated with total POMSS or any of its subscales.

Table 3. Correlation Table

	Self	Social	Therapeutic	Directive	POMSS Total	LPC
Self	1					
Social	.51*	1				
Therapeutic	.55*	.35*	1			
Directive	.56*	.27*	.53*	1		
POMSS Total	.85*	.72*	.77*	.75*	1	
LPC	-.07	.02	-.09	-.01	-.05	1

* $p < .001$

Among scores on the POMSS, posting for self reasons was significantly correlated with posting for social ($r (165) = .51$, $p < .001$), therapeutic ($r (165) = 55$, $p < .001$), and directive ($r (165) = .56$, $p < .001$) reasons, as well as with overall POMSS score ($r (165) = .85$, $p < .001$). Posting for social reasons was also significantly correlated with therapeutic ($r (165) = .35$, $p < .001$) and directive ($r (165) = .27$, $p < .001$) reasons, as well as with the total POMSS score ($r (165) = .72$, $p < .001$). Posting for therapeutic reasons was significantly correlated with directive reasons ($r (165) = .53$, $p < .001$) and the total POMSS score ($r (165) = .77$, $p < .001$). Lastly, posting for directive reasons was significantly correlated with the total POMSS score as well ($r (165) = .75$, $p < .001$).

None of the correlations between LPC and scores on the POMSS were statistically significant. LPC was not significantly correlated with reasons for posting on Instagram related to self $r(165) = -.07$, $p = .39$, social $r(165) = .02$, $p = .85$, therapeutic $r(165) = -.09$, $p = .26$, directive reasons $r(165) = -.01$, $p = .86$, and with overall POMSS scores $r(165) = -.05$, $p = 0$.

CHAPTER 5. INTERPRETATION AND IMPLICATIONS

In this chapter, results of the data analysis presented in Chapter 4 are interpreted relative to stated hypotheses exploring the relationship between Fiedler's (1971) contingency model of leadership and the purposes for posting on Instagram assessed by Wang's (2020) Purposes of Online Memory Sharing Scale (POMSS). Implications of these findings, limitations, and ideas for future research are discussed.

Interpretation of Study Findings

The following research questions were addressed in this correlational study by testing the stated hypotheses:

RQ1. Is there a correlation between LPC and posting for self reasons on Instagram?

H1. There will be a negative correlation between LPC and posting for self reasons on Instagram.

H1 was not supported. The reliability of the self POMSS subscale was questionable for the population sampled (Cronbach's alpha .58). The correlation between LPC and the self subscale was not significant, $r(165) = -.07$, $p = .39$. These results indicate individuals' LPC scores are unrelated to posting on Instagram for self reasons. Based on these results, the directional hypothesis stated in H1 was rejected.

RQ2. Is there a correlation between LPC and posting for social reasons on Instagram?

H2. There will be a positive correlation between LPC and posting for social reasons on Instagram.

H2 was not supported. The reliability of the social POMSS subscale was questionable for the population sampled (Cronbach's alpha .60). The correlation between LPC and the social subscale was not significant, $r(165) = .02$, $p = .85$. These results

indicate individual's LPC scores are unrelated to posting on Instagram for social reasons. Based on these results, the directional hypothesis stated in H2 was rejected.

RQ3. Is there a correlation between LPC and posting for therapeutic reasons on Instagram?

H3. There will be a positive correlation between LPC and posting for therapeutic reasons on Instagram.

H3 was not supported. The reliability of the therapeutic POMSS subscale was acceptable for the population sampled (Cronbach's alpha .80). The correlation between LPC and the therapeutic subscale was not significant, r (165) = -.09, p = .26. These results indicate individual's LPC scores are unrelated to posting on Instagram for therapeutic reasons. Based on these results, the directional hypothesis stated in H3 was rejected.

RQ4. Is there a correlation between LPC and posting for directive reasons on Instagram?

H4. There will be a negative correlation between LPC and posting for directive reasons on Instagram.

H4 was not supported. The reliability of the directive POMSS subscale was acceptable for the population sampled (Cronbach's alpha .75). The correlation between LPC and the directive subscale was not significant, r (165) = -.01, p = .86. These results indicate individual's LPC scores are unrelated to posting on Instagram for directive reasons. Based on these results, the directional hypothesis stated in H4 was rejected.

Implications and Applications

Results of this study indicate that LPC does not predict posting on Instagram for

self, social, directive or therapeutic reasons. Regardless of an individual's leadership tendencies, reflected in their attitudes toward a least preferred co-worker, their reasons for posting on Instagram cannot be predicted. This suggests that the leadership distinctions associated with attitudes toward difficult co-workers in traditional work environments do not carry over to the virtual environment of Instagram. Thus, LPC scores have little utility for predicting how individuals lead, or how they present themselves on social media.

The directional hypotheses tested in this study were based on leadership dynamics previously documented in traditional work environments. The fact that none of the hypotheses were supported raises questions about the degree to which attitudes toward co-workers influences leadership dynamics in informal online communities such as social media. If results of this study are corroborated in formal online work environments, these findings could point to more uniform effectiveness among remote leaders in both favorable and unfavorable conditions.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study. The effects of some of these limitations on study results were minimized due to the inferential statistical analysis employed in hypothesis testing.

First, the population parameters could not be estimated from the participant sample due to the permission granted for wide-spread dissemination of the solicitation message on social media. It is not known to what degree this permission was exercised by the initial recipients of the survey invitation. Additionally, it is not known how many of the initial recipients participated on Instagram. As a result of these two factors, there is no

way to determine how representative of the Instagram community the resulting sample of participants may be.

Second, scale reliability was not uniform across all variables. On the POMSS, the Cronbach's alpha scores for two subscale, self (.58) and social (.60) reasons were below the acceptable 0.70 criteria, indicating that the scale did not perform reliably for the population sampled. The same limitation pertained to the predictor variable. This limitation also could not be corrected in analysis and could have affected the results of hypothesis testing for H1 & H2.

Third, the sample of participants is not normally distributed with respect to the predictor variable (LPC) and one of the outcome scores (therapeutic reasons). However, since the inferential statistics employed in testing study hypotheses do not assume normal distribution, these deviations from normal distribution among the participant sample do not reduce confidence in the study results. Similar deviations from normal distribution were observed in the predictor variable (LPC) and the same outcome score (therapeutic reasons). While this limitation indicates these scores were not centered around the mean, the results of hypothesis testing were not affected because correlation analysis does not assume normal distribution.

Future Research

Replicating this study with a population that is representative of all variables—LPC scores and POMSS subscales—may be warranted to enhance confidence in the conclusion reported regarding whether leadership differences associated with LPC scores have any utility for predicting the reasons individuals post on Instagram. Although the sample size of 167 people, the methods used to solicit participants raises doubts about the

how representative the resulting sample was of the entire Instagram community. Repeating this study using more direct methods of soliciting Instagram participants may produce a more representative population sample.

LPC was a highly reliable instrument for the study population, however, participant scores were highly clusters at the high end of the scale (kurtosis = 2.04). While there was sufficient variability to test study hypotheses, the observed kurtosis on LPC raises other interesting questions worth exploring about the distribution of attitudes toward co-workers among Instagram users. There is a possibility that individuals on Instagram tend to score higher on LPC than the general population. Future research using more targeted participant solicitation methods could help determined the normative distribution of LPC scores among Instagram users. Findings could reveal whether certain types of individuals with more accepting attitudes toward difficult co-workers are more attracted to posting and sharing to Instagram.

Previous studies have reported the POMSS to have variable reliability, a finding that was corroborated by results of this study. Future research to improve the overall reliability of this instrument may be needed before seeking to determine whether there are normative parameters pertaining to the reasons individuals post on Instagram. Instrument reliability is also a prerequisite for pursuing other lines of research such as determining whether there are significant differences among reasons for posting to social media sites that rely on primarily textual verses photographic media. Demonstrating instrument reliability across multiple social media platforms will be important for future research, as social media and its user base continue to evolve.

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Appendix A – SOLICITATION MESSAGE

Are you an Instagram user? If so, you may be eligible to participate in an anonymous survey of non-Social Media Influencers' attitudes and reasons for posting on Instagram being conducted by Erica Boden, an [company name redacted] employee, in collaboration with Professor Gail F. Latta, Ph.D. at Xavier University. There are two ways to participate: 1) [company name redacted] employees who meet study requirements are invited to respond to the anonymous survey, and/or 2) may invite others to participate by posting this announcement to their personal Instagram account. All non-verified Instagram users who are at least 18 years of age are eligible to participate. Participation will take about 10 minutes and is completely voluntary. All responses will be recorded anonymously through Qualtrics; no IP addresses, geolocators or personally identifying information will be collected. Neither you, nor the company [company name redacted] will be identified in any publications or presentations of study results. To learn more, please click on the link below to read the Informed Consent on Qualtrics:

https://xavier.co1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_6Y9uzU9GHBRgzZ4

Thank you,

Erica Boden
Doctoral Candidate
Leadership Studies
Xavier University

Gail F. Latta, Ph.D.
Professor
Leadership Studies
Xavier University

Appendix B – INFORMED CONSENT

My name is Erica Boden, a doctoral student conducting dissertation research in collaboration with Dr. Gail F. Latta, Ph.D., Professor and Inaugural Program Director of Leadership Studies at Xavier University. We are contacting you to invite your participation in a study of non-Social Media Influencer (non-SMI) Instagram users. The purpose of this study is to explore whether attitudes toward co-workers predict non-SMI's reasons for posting on Instagram. You are eligible to participate in this study if you are either an employee of the [company name redacted]-affiliated company, [company name redacted], or an individual affiliated through Instagram with an [company name redacted] employee, and have a non-verified account on Instagram. As a participant in this study, you will be asked to complete an anonymous online survey consisting of 20 Likert-style rating scales followed by 18 forced-choice adjective scales. There are no right or wrong answers; we are only interested in your perspective. No personal information will be collected that would permit researchers to know the identity of individual respondents. The entire survey should take about 10 minutes to complete. There are no anticipated risks associated with participation in this study, nor will there be any direct benefits or compensation for participating. If you are interested in learning more about the study, please continue reading.

Nature and Purpose of the Project
The purpose of this study is to explore whether attitudes toward co-workers predict non-SMI's reasons for posting on Instagram. Anonymous survey methods will be used to collect responses to an online survey from non-verified Instagram users. Your decision whether to participate is entirely your own and will be known only to you. Instagram users who participate will complete the survey once; no follow-up of any sort will be required.

Why You Were Invited to Take Part
You are being invited to participate in this study because you are either an employee of the [company name redacted]-affiliated company, [company name redacted], or is someone with whom one of the company's employees has shared the solicitation message through his or her Instagram account. Any employee the company [company name redacted], or Instagram-affiliated contact of someone employed by that company, is eligible to participate in this study if they are also a non-SMI Instagram user. If you are an employee of the company [company name redacted], or an individual affiliated through Instagram with an [company name redacted], employee, and have a non-verified Instagram account, your perspective is relevant to this study.

Study Requirements
If you choose to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete an anonymous online survey consisting of 20 Likert-style rating scales followed by 18 forced-choice adjective scales. There are no right or wrong answers; we are only interested in your perspective. No demographic or personally identifying information will be collected that would permit researchers to identify individual respondents. The entire survey should take about 10 minutes to complete. Results will be analyzed and reported only in the

aggregate. Individual participant anonymity and institutional confidentiality will be maintained in all publications and presentations of study results.

Anticipated discomforts/risks
There are no anticipated risks related to participating in this study.

Benefits
There will be no direct benefits to you for your participation in the study. However, you may derive satisfaction from contributing to research on a topic related to your interests.

Confidentiality/Anonymity
All of your responses will be collected anonymously through the Qualtrics website, which will be set to the highest level of anonymity. This means that no IP addresses, geolocators or other Internet-based tracking information will be collected. No personally identifying information will be collected that would permit researchers to know the identity of individual respondents. Both individual anonymity and institutional confidentiality will be maintained in all publications and presentations of study results. The anonymous data collected for this study will be retained for three years on a password-protected computer, at which point the data will be deleted. Anonymous informed consent information will remain on the secure Qualtrics server for three years and then be deleted.

Compensation
There will be no compensation awarded for your participation in this study.

Refusal to participate in this study will have NO EFFECT ON ANY FUTURE SERVICES you may be entitled to from the University. You are FREE TO WITHDRAW FROM THE STUDY AT ANY TIME WITHOUT PENALTY.

If you have any questions at any time during the study, you may contact the co-investigators, Erica Boden at [phone number redacted] or bodene@xavier.edu, and Dr. Gail F. Latta, Ph.D. at [phone number redacted] or via lattag@xavier.edu. Questions about your rights as a research participant should be directed to Xavier University's Institutional Review Board at (513) 745-2870 or irb@xavier.edu.

You may print a copy of this form for your records, or contact Erica Boden at [phone number redacted] or via email at bodene@xavier.edu to request a copy be sent to you.

I have been given information about this research study and its risks and benefits and have had the opportunity to contact the researchers with any questions, and to have those questions answered to my satisfaction. By completing the elements of the study as previously described to me, I understand that I am giving my informed consent to participate in this research study.

Choose one:
- ☐ I consent to participate

- ☐ I do not consent to participate

Choose one:

- ☐ I certify that I am at least 18 years of age
- ☐ I am not at least 18 years of age

Choose one:

- ☐ I certify that I do not have a blue checkmark next to my Instagram name, indicating I am not a verified user on Instagram
- ☐ I do have a blue checkmark next to my Instagram name, indicating that I am a verified user on Instagram

Appendix C – INSTRUMENTATION

Purposes of Online Memory Sharing Scale

Why do you share your Instagram posts online? Indicate how much each of the statements below describes your reasons for sharing your experiences online.

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all				*Exactly my reasons*

1. I posted to express myself
2. I posted to stay in touch with my friends and family
3. I posted to gain insight into my problems
4. I posted to share useful information, practical knowledge or skills with others
5. I posted to entertain people
6. I posted to document my personal experiences
7. I posted to ease my distress
8. I posted to influence the way other people think
9. I posted to network or to meet new people
10. I posted to get attention
11. I posted to communicate to many people at once, rather than telling one at a time
12. I posted to get feedback from others who have similar experiences
13. I posted to motivate other people
14. I posted to record my thoughts and feelings so I can reflect on them
15. I posted to feel close to others
16. I posted to get advice from others
17. I posted to communicate about a special interest or issue that I care about
18. I posted to help others
19. I posted to maintain my social network
20. I posted to get more points of view

Least Preferred Co-worker Scale

Instructions

Think of all the different people with whom you have ever worked . . . in jobs, in social clubs, in student projects, or whatever. Next, think of the **one person** with whom you could work least well, that is, the person with whom you had the most difficulty getting a job done. This is the one person (a peer, boss, or subordinate) with whom you would least want to work. Describe this person by circling numbers at the appropriate points on each of the following pairs of bipolar adjectives. Work rapidly. There are no right or wrong answers.

Pleasant	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Unpleasant
Friendly	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Unfriendly
Rejecting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Accepting
Tense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Relaxed
Distant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Close
Cold	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Warm
Supportive	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Hostile
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Interesting
Quarrelsome	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Harmonious
Gloomy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Cheerful
Open	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Guarded
Backbiting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Loyal
Untrustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Trustworthy
Considerate	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Inconsiderate
Nasty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Nice
Agreeable	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Disagreeable
Insincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Sincere
Kind	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Unkind