DISCLOSING THE UNDISCLOSED:
SOCIAL, EMOTIONAL, AND ATTITUDINAL INFORMATION AS
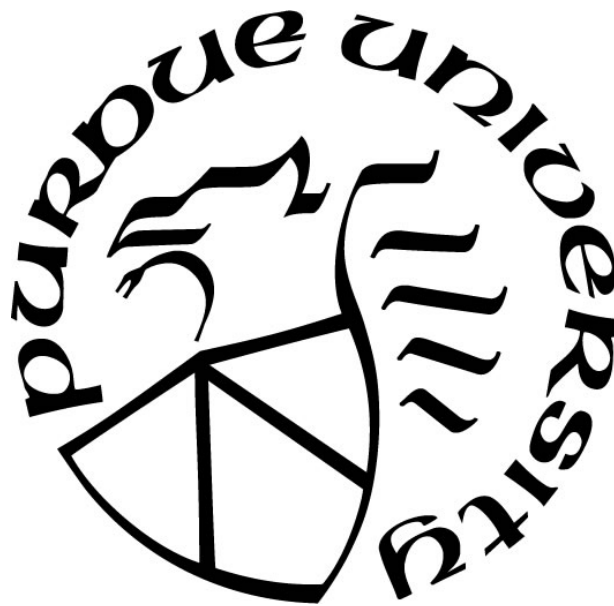# MODELED PREDICTORS OF #METOO POSTS

by

Diane Jackson

A Thesis

Submitted to the Faculty of Purdue University

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the degree of

Master of Science

Brian Lamb School of Communication

West Lafayette, Indiana

May 2019

THE PURDUE UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL
STATEMENT OF COMMITTEE APPROVAL

Dr. Sorin Matei, Chair

       Department of Communication

Dr. John Greene

       Department of Communication

Dr. Brian Smith

       Department of Communication

Approved by:

       Dr. Marifran Mattson

          Head of the Graduate Program

To all of the individuals who have invested their time and imparted their wisdom over the course of my educational career: you have taught me so much about the world, but even more about myself.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I'd like to first thank my graduate advisor, Dr. Sorin Matei, for sharing knowledge that spans far beyond the scope of this project. I will always be thankful for your dedication of time and energy to this project and to my academic and personal development. I would also like to thank my committee members, Dr. John Greene and Dr. Brian Smith, who were always willing to offer a bit of advice and encouragement. Thank you for your time and guidance.

I would be remiss if I did not thank my undergraduate advisor and mentor, Dr. Valerie Young. VY, thank you for recognizing and fostering my inquisitive nature. So much of what I have done would not have happened without your kindness, patience, and encouragement. The discipline of communication, Hanover College, and I are better for your impact.

I want to end by extending endless thanks to my friends and family. I would not be who I am or where I am without my support system, especially without the sacrifices and constant love of my parents. Mom and Dad, you have impressed on me the importance of hard work and the value of education. You push me beyond what I think is possible and remind me that what I know extends far beyond what I think. You are the ultimate teachers. Thank you for everything.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

Author: Jackson, Diane, L. MS
Institution: Purdue University
Degree Received: May 2019
Title: Disclosing the Undisclosed: Social, Emotional, and Attitudinal Information as Modeled
      Predictors of #MeToo Posts
Committee Chair: Sorin Matei

This study proposes a social and emotional disclosure model for understanding the mechanism that explains sharing intimate information on social media (Twitter). Previous research has indicated that some aspects of social, emotional, and attitudinal information processing are involved in disclosure of intimate information. However, these factors have been considered in isolation. This study proposes and tests a theoretically grounded model that brings all of these factors together by combining individual and group social media behaviors and online information processing in the realm of online social movements. The core explanatory model considers the impact of peer response, emotional evaluation, personal relevance, issue orientation, and motivation to post online on intimate information disclosure online. A path analysis building on four Poisson multiple regressions conducted on 28,629 #MeToo tweets evaluates the relationships proposed in the explanatory model. Results indicate that emotional evaluation and motivation to post online have direct, positive impacts on online disclosure. Other factors such as peer response, issue orientation, and personal relevance have negative direct relationships with online disclosure. Motivation to post online mediates the effects of emotional evaluation, issue orientation, and personal relevance on online disclosure while issue orientation mediates the effect of personal relevance on motivation to post online. This study offers findings that have use for practitioners interested in hashtag virality and to social media users interested in social influence and online information sharing.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

"If all of your friends jumped off of a bridge, would you join them?" This age-old adage used by parents to mitigate the effects of peer pressure on their children may sound clichéd, but its wisdom does not lack truth. Social influence matters; most of our important decisions depend both on internal judgment and external validation cues or information flows (Carl & Duck, 2004; Tarde, 1903). Social influence is a reciprocal process where individuals' choices are the results of their interactions with others, who are in turn impacted by those initial choices. Such group interactions are reflected in opinion, attitudinal, or behavioral changes (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955; Mahmoodi, Bahrami, & Mehring, 2018; Walker, 2015). The process of human communication, especially when facilitated by immediate proximity, is, in effect, a continuous exercise in influence (Davis & Rusbult, 2001; Deutsch & Gerard, 1955).

As the density and strength of communicative ties increase, social influence intensifies proportionally (Davis & Rusbult, 2001). Social media or social networking sites increase the flow of communication, creating more opportunities for social influence in doing so (Katz & Lazarsfeld, 1955). The factor that distinguishes social media from other forms of mediated interaction is the extra agency that users have. They act on motivations and orient their actions in virtue of their individual orientation to various issues. Unlike older media, such as print or television, social media users decide who will form their social networks, what they share, why, in what context, and, to a certain extent, who will see their content, as well as whose content they will see. Social networking sites come with some outreach tools, which allow us to target certain individuals or to listen to them preferentially. These factors strengthen the significance of social media connections and heighten their abilities to affect our decisions (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955).

The aim of the present study is to propose a new way of understanding how information sharing works via social media. Specifically, I want to find out how motivation and issue orientation combine with self and group emotional assessment to impact propensity to disclose deeply intimate information. As individuals are inherently inclined to be conscientious of what they present on social media (Chou & Edge, 2012; Qiu, Lin, Leung, & Tov, 2012), the content that they choose to share is representative of forethought. Therefore, I intend to explain the effects that social media networks have on this forethought when disclosing intimate information in the context of a conversation aggregated by a hashtag.

An effective method for studying information sharing among social networks online is to track the diffusion of information and posts organized within specific topical areas, defined as "hashtags" (Cunha, Magno, Comarela, Almeida, Gonçalves, & Benevenuto, 2011). Hashtags are "ways to index keywords or topics" (Twitter, 2018), which can be created at any point in time by any social media user. They organize social media conversation around core discussion domains. By starting with one user, a hashtag can be reused by many other users sending out new social media updates and propagating information far and wide. Hashtag-fueled information waves can go as far as to represent social movements and expand beyond their originally intended meaning (Cunha et al., 2011).

Although the propagation of hashtags has been studied previously, much of the current research that discusses hashtag propagation focuses on the quantifiable spread of the hashtag (e.g., Chang, 2011; Cunha et al., 2011; Kamath, Caverlee, Cheng, & Sui, 2012; Romero, Meeder, & Kleinberg, 201; Samanta, De, Chakraborty, & Ganguly, 2017). These studies focus on simple counts of how often the messages were re-shared. They, in effect, offer a broader perspective on virality. The present social and emotional disclosure model focuses on the individual aspects of

virality by assessing the individual social, emotional, and attitudinal factors that lead to disclosing intimate information.

The present study combines social influence perspectives with information-processing models that deal with motivation, emotions, and attitudes. Specifically, the study combines components of the affect infusion model (AIM; Forgas, 1995) with insights from online information-sharing models (Hsu & Lin, 2008) and aspects from an explanatory model that depicts the process of publics identifying and engaging with issues (Grunig, 1997). After theoretically grounding this social and emotional disclosure model, the model is tested through the employment of a contemporary social movement hashtag. The findings of this study apply both to social media users and to individuals who are creating hashtags or who are interested in forming trending hashtags and online social movements.

The following section includes an in-depth discussion of the explanatory model that frames this study, including the origin of the concepts and their utility in the current context. Each variable included in the social and emotional disclosure model is rooted in a body of literature that will be reviewed subsequently.

1.1 Model Proposal and Explanation of Variables

Purpose of Study

I posit that the likelihood of sharing intimate information in relation to a social movement hashtag can be most effectively explained by affect infusion theory (Forgas, 1995) and complemented with perspectives of social influence and information sharing. Specifically, I propose that sharing intimate information on a social media platform is most immediately the product of one's motivation to post. Yet, motivation is itself impacted by one's emotional evaluation and orientation toward an issue. Additionally, the responses of the individual's social

media network directly impact the emotional evaluation of the individual and, by this, the motivation to post online. Through this relationship, emotional evaluation mediates the effect of peer response on motivation to post online and motivation to post online mediates the effect of emotional evaluation on the disclosure of intimate information online. Occurring in parallel to the relationship between peer response and emotional evaluation is the relationship between personal relevance and issue orientation. Issue orientation, then, exists as a mediating variable between personal relevance and motivation to post online and motivation to post online also exists as a mediator of the effect of issue orientation on the disclosure of intimate information online. These relationships are represented in Figure 1.
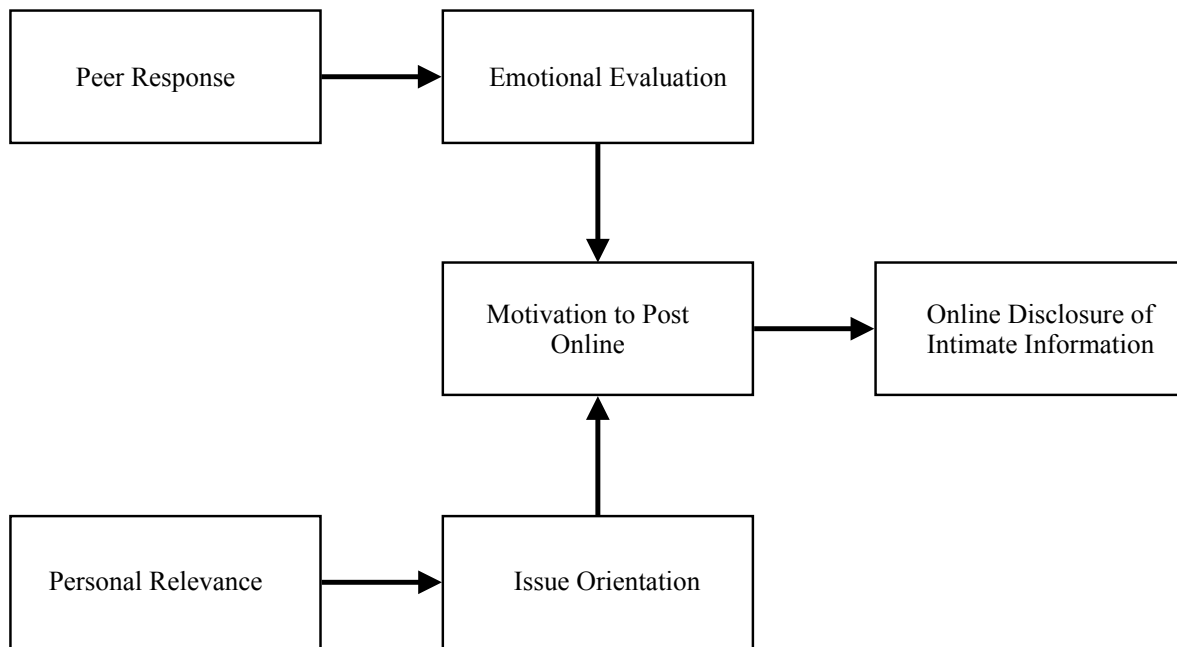

Figure 1. Explanatory model of social and emotional disclosure.

As indicated above, the model invokes peer response, emotional evaluation, personal relevance, and issue orientation as core independent variables that work to predict motivation to post online, which functions as the predictor of online disclosure of intimate information, in turn.

Before moving to the broader articulation of the model, let us define the concepts that undergird the core independent variables. Most central to the model is the mediating variable, *motivation to post online*, which is conceptually defined as the internal inclination to post online about a social movement hashtag. This is the proximal factor bearing on an individual sharing intimate information using a social movement hashtag and is arranged as mediating the relationship between all other variables and the outcome of disclosing intimate information online.

One of the factors that impact motivation is *emotional evaluation*, which is an evaluative statement in a tweet from an individual that indicates an emotional sentiment associated with a social movement issue (e.g., indicators of anger versus appreciation; Forgas, 1995; Forgas, Bower, & Krantz, 1984; Weiner, 1985). Emotional evaluation mediates the relationship between motivation and *peer response*, which involves the online reactions that an individual's peers share in direct response to his or her message using the social movement hashtag. An individual's *issue orientation*, or how he or she feels about the social movement issue through speaking out against people who oppose the movement or through advocating for the movement, works jointly with his or her emotional evaluation to impact motivation. Additionally, issue orientation mediates the relationship between motivation and *personal relevance,* or the unification (either through shared experience or through collective action) of an individual with others in relation to the social movement issue.

The following section consists of a review of the literature that informs each variable as it is presented in Figure 1. This social and emotional disclosure model was developed by integrating models relating to information processing (Forgas, 1995; Martin, Ward, Achee, & Wyer, 1993; Grunig, 1997) and incorporating relevant social influence research. The following chapter will

build a case for the model displayed in Figure 1 by discussing the process of self-disclosure through

the processing of emotional and social information.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Online or offline, the communicative choice to disseminate content is the product of several factors, including how emotionally impactful these issues are to us (emotional evaluation) and to the people we talk to (peer response), how we identify with the people who are talking about or who have experienced the same issues (personal relevance), where we stand in relation to these issues (issue orientation), and how motivated we are to join the conversation (motivation). This section will first review the process of social influence and its effect on online self-disclosure as it pertains to the influence of an individual's online social network on his or her social media messages, thus addressing the peer response variable. It will then follow the organization of the sequence of variables established through the proposed relationships in the social and emotional disclosure model by discussing emotional evaluation, issue orientation, and personal relevance. The section will end with a cohesive integration of this research as it relates to the central mediator variable, motivation to post online.

2.1 Social Influence and Social Media

As demonstrated by Aristotle's conversation of influence and persuasion in *The Rhetoric*, the process of social influence has been of scholarly interest almost as long as the process of communication has existed. This is likely due to the fact that social influence is reciprocal, where every individual in an interaction is influenced and can be observed through changes of opinions, attitudes, or behaviors (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955; Mahmoodi, Bahrami, & Mehring, 2018; Walker, 2015). Users have long placed value on their peers' messages and responses, as Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) asserted when they developed the two-step flow theory. Through this theory, they postulated that individuals who consume media can act as opinion leaders by acting in the

following ways: (a) disseminating the information they absorb from the media, (b) integrating their personal opinions into the consumed information, and (c) sharing this amalgamation of opinion and fact with those in their social networks (Katz & Lazarsfeld, 1955). Over the course of studying this phenomenon of social network influence, concepts such as social and emotional contagion have emerged and been applied to numerous scenarios (e.g., Ferrara & Yang, 2015; Kramer, Guillory, & Hancock, 2014; Romero, Meeder, & Kleinberg, 2011).

When moving from offline to online media, the effect of social influence remains as relevant, if not more so, as we receive more emotional signals from more individuals in shorter periods of time.[1] These emotional signals, transmitted through reactions and responses to posts, allow individuals to be influenced through the emotional and social cues shared by their peers as soon as they see their peers' responses. This social influence aspect of social media both presents a novel avenue for influence strategies and usurps the role that direct interaction once had on the phenomenon of influence, which is why updated information of its impact on users of social media platforms is essential.

These phenomena can be easily observed on social media, and in turn makes the role of opinion leaders in their social media networks even more critical. In this way, individuals who share information through social media with their networks also serve to extend their emotional evaluations of that information to those of others in their social network who are consuming their posts. As such, in the context of this study, I am interested in analyzing individuals' public disclosure of intimate information via social media.

---

[1] It is possible that this relationship can demonstrate a curvilinear relationship, where too many emotional signals overwhelm an individual and cause a lack of signal processing. For the purposes of this study, emotional signals are received to the extent to which individuals are able to continue processing them.

Self-disclosure as social contagion

Self-disclosure in the context of this study differs from self-disclosure between individuals whose relationships exist primarily offline. Self-disclosure in relationships that occur offline is said to take place gradually (Altman & Taylor, 1973) with the goal of building trust (Greene, Derlaga, & Mathews, 2006). In the context of this social and emotional disclosure model where self-disclosure takes place via social media, disclosers' identities are attached to the extremely personal information that they broadcast. This context does not lend itself to a wholly trusting environment based on the heterogeneity of tie strength and of attitudes in social media networks. Although all self-disclosure is associated with a level of risk (Baxter & Montgomery, 1996; Omarzu, 2000), it is possible that publicizing intimate information in this environment could add to the risk level.

The scope of this study is to focus on individuals who disclose highly intimate information as part of social media posts that tag a social movement hashtag. Beyond self-disclosure, this scope contains an element of publicization. With this in mind, it is important to consider self-disclosure from the perspective of it serving as the outcome of a call to action or as a practice lending itself in some way to the social movement at hand. Therefore, this result of self-disclosure is framed by the phenomenon of social contagion.

Social contagion and hashtags

Whether it be of diseases or information, the prominent role of social networks is communication (Newman, 2010; Sheridan Dodds & Watts, 2004). However, the structures of the social networks impact this communication (Moreno, Nekovee, & Pacheco, 2004). Out of this notion, the phenomenon of social contagion. From Wheeler (1966), social or behavioral contagion is considered to be a form of social influence where a behavior is first modeled by one individual

and then enacted by another individual as a result. In the context of this study, social contagion occurs when one individual discloses intimate information via social media using a social movement hashtag and then another individual follows suit. Thus, the parameters of this study hinge on the disclosure of intimate information, where social contagion acts as the vehicle for using a social movement hashtag and posting the intimate information. Based on this theoretical foundation, the more users self-disclose using a social movement hashtag, the more users are exposed to the disclosures using the social movement hashtag, and consequently, the more users self-disclose using the social movement hashtag. The social and emotional disclosure model proposed in this study takes into account this social influence aspect in its goal of understanding what predicts self-disclosure of intimate information online. Further social influence research on the impact of one's peers on an individual's opinion formation aids in this endeavor.

Peer effects model

Friedkin and Johnsen (1990) employed the peer effects model as a way of describing the effect that people who directly influence one individual have on impacting the opinions of said individual. According to the peer effects model, the social media users who all have direct, equal access to one individual will likely influence the behaviors or decisions of said individual through the content of their posts. Like individuals who are exposed to attitudinal homogeneity within their social groups, individuals who are exposed to related posts from multiple sources in their social media networks will likely be influenced by them (Kwon, Stefanone, & Barnett, 2014; Levitan, 2018). Moreover, based upon the fact that emotions can be transmitted through interpersonal interaction (Hess & Blairy, 2001; Parkinson, 1996), it is natural that this would take place similarly in mediated contexts (Cheshin, Rafaeli, & Bos, 2011). The emotions developed and transmitted

by social media users work in tandem with the users' attitudes toward the social media movement to impact their motivations to post online.

Social influence on knowledge sharing

Hsu and Lin (2008) created a social influence model of an individual's motivation to blog based in part upon factors of knowledge sharing and social influence. The knowledge-sharing variables in this model involve constructs that factor into an individual's motivation to post online, such as "expected reciprocal benefit" and "altruism" (Hsu & Lin, 2008, p. 67) or "desire" and "past behavior" in a similar social influence model (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2002, p. 10). The motivation to post online as it is demonstrated in the social and emotional disclosure model proposed in this paper is the penultimate variable that impacts an individual when he or she discloses intimate information online. Therefore, the particular factors of Hsu and Lin's (2008) social influence model all work together to factor into the central variables in the social and emotional disclosure model from Figure 1. The social influence variables work similarly.

The social influence variables in the social influence model are composed of two items: "community identification" and "social norms" (Hsu & Lin, 2008, p. 67). Community identification in this social influence model includes the membership and identification that individuals feel with the blogging community (Hsu & Lin, 2008). In a related social influence model, variables including "we-intentions" and "group norms" maintain similar meanings (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2002, p. 10). In the context of this social and emotional disclosure model (see Figure 1), community identification relates to the notion of personal relevance in that it consists of identifying with a group of people that motivates the person to behave in a certain way. The model proposed in this paper hypothesizes that experienced personal relevance of an issue

and one's motivation to post online facilitate the disclosure of intimate information online, which is a notion originally proposed by Hsu and Lin (2008).

The second contributing social influence variable studied by Hsu and Lin (2008) is that of social norms, defined by the common and expected behaviors that form the code for appropriate behaviors online. The topic of this study is upon disclosure of very intimate information on social media through public posts. Such behaviors run contrary to social norms as they pertain to what is common online behavior according to previous research about online disclosure due to privacy concerns and the consequences of publicizing very personal information (Ampong, Mensah, Adu, Addae, Omoregie, & Ofori, 2018; Bazarova & Choi, 2014).

However, when an individual observes another person receive support for breaking a social norm, as can take place in the context of disclosing intimate information online, he or she may also feel more encouraged to do so through the nature of reproducing a behavior that has been positively reinforced by others (see Bandura, 1965). One demonstration of these positive reinforcements and their effects on other social media users is the employment of the reaction functions like retweets or favorites on social media platforms.

Online responses of peers

Based on the modeled behaviors of others as they apply to our behaviors on social media, the reaction functions on social media can serve multiple functions. The reactions that our social network ties share in response to our posts have significant effects on the ways that we interpret the reception of our posts and the ways that others interpret our posts (Metaxas et al., 2017). This has been the case long before the features that we are afforded today through reacting to individuals' social media posts by favoriting, liking, or retweeting their messages came into existence. For instance, previous research has indicated that retweets have been considered as

indicators of message effectiveness (Pezzoni, An, Passarella, Crowcroft, & Conti, 2013), audience appreciation (Nesi, Pantaleo, Paoli, & Zaza, 2018), or message agreement and acceptance (Metaxas et al., 2017).

Peers not only influence how we perceive information based on their own messages, but also on how we perceive our own messages after sharing with them. Favoriting or retweeting posts on Twitter offer meaningful ways of interpreting how our messages are received by others. Where some have found that retweets signify a promotion of an idea or message (Poell & Borra, 2012), others have found that retweeting serves as a method for demonstrating interest (Kunegis & Alhadi, 2011), publicly associating with the sharer of the message (Boyd, Golder, & Lotan, 2010), endorsing or supporting the message (Boyd, Golder, & Lotan, 2010; Guerra, Veloso, Meira, & Almeida, 2011), or even trusting the author of the tweet (Metaxas & Mustafaraj, 2013; Mustafaraj, Metaxas, Finn, & Monroy-Hernández, 2012).

It is natural that individuals would be influenced by observing and experiencing these reactions to their messages based upon these meaningful attributions assigned to these tools. Therefore, the purpose of the peer response variable in the social and emotional disclosure model is to analyze the responses of an individual's peers when examining his or her emotional evaluations of issues and, by extension, his or her motivation to post online in conjunction with a movement and his or her disclosure of intimate information in conjunction with a movement. The variables that were mentioned in this portion of the literature will be covered more comprehensively in the rest of this section, beginning with emotional evaluation.

2.2 Emotional Evaluation

This section incorporates various forms of emotional information that relate to the more general concept of *affect*, which is understood for the purposes of this study as, a general category

that refers to moods and emotions (Forgas, 1995; Mayer, 1986; Petty, Gleicher, & Baker, 1991).

The distinction between *mood* and *emotion* is delineated in Figure 2, which invokes definitions

from Forgas (1992; 1995), Mayer (1986), and Petty, Gleicher, and Baker (1991).
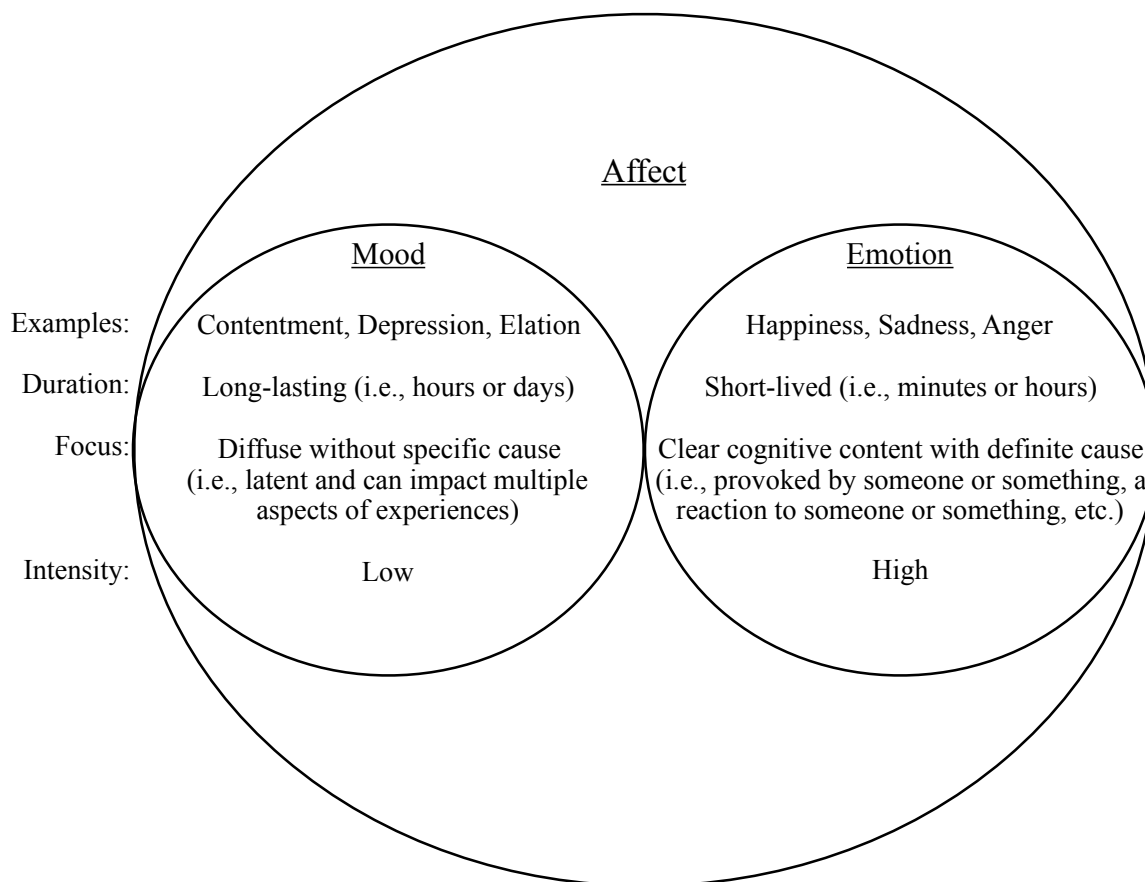
Figure 2. Representation of affective information definitions

Existing research discussed in this section regarding affect and mood are shared in relation

to the affective experiences that individuals have when processing this information. These

findings, therefore, possess a relationship to the concept of emotional evaluation in the current

model, which recognizes the role of affective information in one's formation of impressions

regarding issues or ideas.

Emotions are formed out of three elements: (a) physiological arousal, (b) behavioral

response, and (c) subjective experience (Lazarus, 1991; Myers, 2010). Emotional evaluation exists

at the intersection of behavioral response and subjective experience by operating as the subjective experience of an emotion that is being integrated into an evaluation of a social movement issue. This evaluation is sharing as a message shared via social media, thus serving as the behavioral response in conjunction with the subjective message.

Individuals tend to be easily influenced by emotional appeals (Akpinar & Berger, 2017). Our emotional states may prompt us to share content online on the basis of being more likely to engage in the process of information sharing if we or our peers are aroused by certain appeals. The impressions of stimuli that we form based upon our current emotional states (Frijda & Mesquita, 1994), then, are especially relevant when forming judgments about disclosing intimate information online (e.g., sharing a post, supporting an online social movement, etc.) as they impact how we will process the available information (e.g., Forgas et al., 1984; Forgas & George, 2001). The affect infusion model (AIM; Forgas, 1995) provides us with one way of viewing the role of this emotional appeal regarding online information dissemination.

Affect infusion model. The AIM posits a continuum based upon the amount of affect integrated into information processing (Forgas, 1995). One end of the spectrum involves more reliance on logic than emotion and is more objective than the other end of the spectrum, which relies more heavily on emotion to form social judgments and is more subjective. On this opposing end of the spectrum, individuals may either process information based upon their current affective state or integrate more affect with their preexisting knowledge in order to form a judgment (Forgas, 1995). If this their affects are integrated with preexisting knowledge, Forgas (1995) suggested that an individual's affective state can moderate his or her thought process and thought valence (i.e., positive or negative). The impact of affective states on thought processes and thought valence depends upon the propensity of him or her to integrate affective state into judgment formation.

Thus, if one's current affective state is negatively valenced, he or she may demonstrate a higher likelihood for negative evaluations. On the other hand, positive affective states are more likely to lead to judgments and behaviors that involve optimistic perspectives or positive evaluations (Forgas, 1998; Sinclair, 1988). This pattern is demonstrated by Forgas (1995), who studied individuals experiencing heightened stress or negative affects and concluded that their thought processes and thought valences were likely to mirror their negative affective states.

Similarly, AIM's "affective state" construct has been found to impact the degree of selectivity that individuals employ when processing information, and the amount of time that it took for people to form judgments (Forgas, 1991). AIM is the model that frames the emotional evaluation variable of the model proposed in this study due to its perspective of affective information being integrated with information in the processing phase of evaluating an issue. In this case, it relates directly to individuals who consume information online and pair emotional information with the content they are consuming while evaluating the content and subsequently, talking about it. Affective state within the AIM literature (Forgas, 1995) refers to the emotionally-valenced information that can preempt an individual's evaluations.

In the social and emotional disclosure model, emotional evaluation works similarly in that the emotional responses triggered by a social movement issue form the impression that an individual creates about the social movement issue. Thus, although affect and emotion are different in scope, previous research about one can inform the other. Other models about the role of affective information in information processing, such as the mood as input model (Martin, Ward, Achee, & Wyer, 1993), can also expand our understandings of processing emotional and social information together.

Mood as input model

The mood as input model (Martin, Ward, Achee, & Wyer, 1993) is an emotional information processing model that incorporates the role of emotionally valenced stimuli. While the AIM centers around the influence of *affects*, mood as input model offers a second look at emotional information through the lens of *moods*. The mood as input model provides us with deeper insight into the information-processing ability beyond AIM's spectrum of affect integration and social judgment formation, which allows for a broader scope of understanding these emotional information processes.

The mood as input model originated after a series of experiments performed by Martin, Ward, Achee, and Wyer (1993) that assessed how likely individuals were to pursue more information based upon their moods. These studied indicated that individuals in positive moods were motivated to seek and process more information than individuals in negative moods. The results bearing on the mood as input model, then, are in keeping with the current model in that our emotional states are linked to other aspects of the information-processing system, such as our motivations to post online or the likelihood that we disclose intimate information about ourselves. Therefore, findings from the mood as input model demonstrate the linkage between concepts such as the emotional evaluations that we have of an item of information and our motivations to post online in line with that emotionally valenced information.

Although it is clear that this research supports the notion that emotional information complements and, in some cases, supplements the logical information that individuals seek, the definition of emotional information differs in these two models. For Forgas (1995), *affect* is simply information that includes either an emotionally positive or negative valence that predisposes an individual to behave in a certain way. However, Martin, Ward, Achee, and Wyer (1993) refer to

more temporary emotional information that dictates a person's likelihood to seek additional information: his or her *mood*.

In this paper, *emotional evaluation* is a predictor of an individual's motivation to post since affect impacts information processing and judgment formation (Forgas, 1995; Van Kleef, 2017). Specifically, emotional evaluation refers to an evaluative statement in a tweet that indicates an emotional sentiment associated with a social movement issue. Emotional evaluations tend to relate to our judgments of issues as pleasing or acceptable, where more positive emotional states produce stronger emotional evaluations of satisfaction or happiness evoked by a movement (Schwarz & Clore, 1983). This information is relevant when considering the disclosure of intimate information online because our emotions preempt our evaluations of a hashtag as positive, negative, or neutral, thus influencing our motivation to post.

The attitudinal and emotional states of an individual when he or she is consuming posts about an online social movement can determine the attributions that he or she makes when evaluating the movement (Forgas et al., 1984; Schwarz & Clore, 1983). This notion was extended by Fazio (1990), who explained that strong attitudes especially serve as salient predictors of behavior. Therefore, the emotions that arise when consuming and evaluating posts are not the exclusive indicators of how individuals choose to act on behalf of the issue related to the posts. Issue orientation, or the way that individuals feel about social movement issues by speaking out against their opposition or by advocating for them, also moderate whether those individuals share intimate information on social media.

2.3 Issue Orientation

Another factor that serves to explain an individual's choice to share intimate information online is issue orientation. When individuals have previously adopted stances on issues and have

orientations toward them before being exposed to content related to the issues on social media, the MODe model hypothesizes that the individuals will be more motivated to take action in some way related to the issue (Fazio, 1990). For this reason, issue orientation works with emotional evaluation to influence motivation to post online when individuals share intimate information in conjunction with a hashtag on social media.

As discussed by Martin, Achee, Wyer, and Ward (1993), an individual's emotional state and his or her issue orientation are linked and can jointly assist in the formation of his or her motivation to post online. Issue orientation, or the way that a person feels about a social movement issue by speaking out against people who oppose the movement or by advocating for it, can impact the amount of information that a person seeks when forming a decision (Fazio, 1990). The motivation and opportunity as determinants model (MODe; Fazio, 1990) links the theoretical concepts of issue orientation and motivation.

MODe model

Based upon the premise that the motivation to process information will determine whether an individual behaves consistently with his or her attitudes, the MODe model offers deeper insight into the relationship between issue orientation and motivation. Fazio (1990) predicted whether individuals would make decisions that were consistent with their attitudes based on their capacities to process information. Individuals who had little or no ability to process information were more likely to engage in spontaneous information processing and, from there, would behave in one of two ways.

The first possibility is that individuals will rely on preexisting mental frameworks in order to make decisions that coincide with their previously formed attitudes. However, a second possible cognitive path arises when those attitudes are not automatically engaged, thereby disposing people

to make attitudinally inconsistent decisions (Fazio & Olson, 2003). This model relates to the social and emotional disclosure model proposed in this study through its employment of issue orientation, which is rooted in attitudes, as indicators of motivation, where Fazio's MODe "motivation" concept rests as a necessary predeterminant for information processing in this model's concept of "motivation to post online."

Without the motivation to process information, no deeper thought processing should occur (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) and thus, the decision to behave would rest on preexisting attitudes (Fazio, 1990). The model proposed in this paper integrates this notion of social, emotional, and attitudinal information processing abilities with the motivation to post online and to engage in conversation. Explained more fully, this paper's emotional and social disclosure model relates an individual's inclination to share information online (i.e., motivation) to his or her predetermined position toward an issue or topic (i.e., issue orientation) through attitudinally consistent behavior. Therefore, Fazio's MODe model (1990) offers support for the connection between an individual's issue orientation and his or her motivation to behave in a particular way. Preceding this relationship between issue orientation and motivation is the impact that an issue's level of personal relevance can have on an individual's orientation toward the issue.

2.4 Personal Relevance

The final factor that contributes to the motivation to posting information on social media is personal relevance, which describes how closely individuals relate to a social movement or to its members. If an individual deems the central issue of a social movement to be strongly relevant to himself or herself, it is possible that this consideration affects his or her orientation toward the movement. However, if the movement lacks personal relevance for a person, his or her issue

orientation and, in turn, his or her motivation, may be impacted. By extension, the information-processing strategy in posting intimate information will be affected.

Personal relevance has been embraced in the social and emotional disclosure model based upon the AIM literature, which indicates that the more personally relevant information is, the more effortful the information processing will be (Forgas, 1989; Forgas, 1991). Since individuals are cognizant of their identities being tied to the information that they share on social media (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010), the personal relevance of a social media movement to users is important. Applying the situational theory of publics (Grunig, 1997) will provide a deeper understanding of the concept of personal relevance as it relates to the motivation to post information online.

Situational theory of problem solving

Grunig (1997) developed the situational theory of publics: a method for predicting why individuals choose to communicate about and organize as a public in response to an issue. Within this theory, predictions about responses of individuals are grounded in three criteria: the recognition of a problem, the recognition of constraints, and recognition of involvement (Grunig, 1997). Situational theory of publics (Grunig, 1997) was subsequently expanded to include additional variables and formed the situational theory of problem solving (Kim & Grunig, 2011). This theory included the original variables with the addition of a couple more: referent criterion and situational motivation with the outcome of communicative action.

In application to the current scenario in which individuals are exposed to a conversation or issue via social media, this theory predicts that individuals will identify the problem and the need for a solution (i.e., *problem recognition*; Grunig, 1997). After having recognized a problem and considered possible solutions, individuals encounter obstacles when attempting to address the issue at hand, such as the geographical distance separating them from joining at a physical location

or schedule discrepancies that hinder their abilities to communicate synchronously (i.e., *constraint recognition*; Grunig). Individuals recognize how connected they feel to the issue, deliberating whether they feel drawn to attending protests or rallies, joining social organizations, contacting local government, etc. (i.e., *recognition of involvement*; Grunig; Kim & Grunig, 2011). Individuals will then consider referent criterion, which can include "the presence and extent of wishful thinking and/or willful thinking toward an end state in problem solving" (Kim & Grunig, p. 131). According to this theory, after having considered these things, situational motivation mediates the relationship between each of these variables and communicative action, or one's "heightened communicative activeness in information taking, selecting, and giving as one engages in problem solving" (Kim & Grunig, p. 124).

This theory is helpful in understanding the processes individuals move through when they consider why and to what extent they want to be involved with a social movement or issue. The concepts proposed in the situational theory of problem solving (Kim & Grunig, 2011) offer a useful framework for understanding the social component of joining a conversation about a social movement issue on social media. Individuals who feel more connected to the people who are conversing about an issue may feel more drawn to be involved with the issue, thereby linking together personal relevance with recognition of involvement in the issue. Relatedly, the more strongly that they desire to end the problem, the deeper their issue orientation is likely to be and consequently, the greater their motivation will be (Kim & Grunig). In the context of social media movements, the situational theory of problem solving (Kim & Grunig) offers a theoretical explanation for how personal relevance through identification can connect to issue involvement and then into motivation.

2.5 Motivation to Post Online

Motivation in this model refers to an individual's propensity to post online. Early research has indicated that individuals use mediated communication for information, entertainment, social interaction, or personal identity purposes (Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000; Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008), but more recent research has indicated that engaging on social media centers more around socializing (Brandtzæg & Heim, 2009). Within the model of social and emotional disclosure, the motivation to post online is influenced both by emotional evaluation of the social movement issue and by orientation toward the issue. Within the context of AIM, emotions moderate motivation (Forgas, 1995). In this way, negative emotional evaluations, in particular, reflect the valence of the evaluations that are formed about the movement issues and how motivated people are to behave in accordance with those evaluations (Erber & Erber, 1994; Forgas, Bower, & Krantz, 1984).

The same can be said in considering the components of situational theory of problem solving (Kim & Grunig, 2011). The more significant a problem is perceived by an individual (i.e., *problem recognition*), the more connected he or she feels to others through the problem in their experienced personal relevance (i.e., *recognition of involvement*). Consequently, this ties into how strongly individuals wish for or will for the problem to end (i.e., *referent criteria*), thus impacting their orientations toward the issue. As a result, their motivations to do something about the issue (i.e., *situational motivation*), which in this study's social and emotional disclosure model resembles motivation to post online, are also impacted (Kim & Grunig). Thus, their motivations to post online as per the situational theory of problem solving would be strengthened through the increased involvement with the movement (Grunig, 1997).

In conclusion, each of the variables of peer response and emotional evaluation, personal relevance and issue orientation, and motivation to post online is a component of individuals'

information processing when exposed to influential messaging (Van Kleef, 2017). The impact that our social network ties have on our emotional evaluations when processing information and determining one's motivation to post online were discussed, allowing for the formation of the peer response and emotional evaluation variables (Forgas, 1995; Friedkin & Johnsen, 1990; Martin, Wyer, Achee, and Ward, 1993). The effect that attitudinal predispositions regarding an issue, or issue orientations, have in motivating behavior was then discussed (Fazio, 1990) in relation to motivation to post online. Subsequently, the influence that personal relevance has on issue orientation and on motivations to engage in a social movement was addressed (Grunig, 1997). Finally, the constructs of motivation to seek information and to behave consistently in application to emotional evaluation, personal relevance, and issue orientation were addressed (Fazio, 1990; Forgas, 1995; Grunig, 1997).

Following the flow of the model proposed in Figure 1, these variables influence each other so that personal relevance influences issue orientation while peer response influences emotional evaluation, which works jointly with issue orientation to influence motivation to post online. Motivation to post online, then, is the final variable that dictates how likely an individual will be to disclose intimate information online.

2.6 Research Questions

Based on the model in Figure 1 and relevant literature, the following research questions were posed:

RQ1: Do the online responses of an individual's peers to his or her social media post about a social movement issue impact the emotional evaluation that he or she forms about that issue?

RQ2: Does the emotional evaluation that an individual forms regarding a social movement issue influence his or her motivation to post online about the issue?

RQ3: Does the extent to which a social movement issue is personally relevant to an individual influence his or her orientation toward the issue?

RQ4: Does an individual's orientation toward a social movement issue influence his or her motivation to post online about the issue?

RQ5: Does an individual's motivation to post online about a social movement issue influence his or her disclosure of intimate information on social media in relation to the issue?

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

This study used social media data to answer the previously presented research questions. The data was harvested from Twitter by Hamdan Azhar, who collected 28,629 tweets in the context of tweets from Public accounts that posted using #MeToo. It was made available to the research community on the public data-sharing platform, Data.World, Inc. (the dataset can be accessed here: https://data.world/hamdan/tweets-with-emojis-metoo-2017-10-16). The data included the complete text, response values, and unique authors of the tweets. Tweets were transformed into the variables of interest through the use of an automated content analysis program. In the following section, a rationale for choosing #MeToo as well as an in-depth discussion of the procedure that was followed is provided.

3.1 #MeToo as a Case Study

Because the current model centers around processing social, emotional, and attitudinal information and disclosing intimate information online in conjunction with a social movement issue, it was necessary to choose one specific social movement to study. I chose the MeToo movement, which was started and promoted with the purpose of shedding light on the prevalence of sexual assault and harassment. The hashtag #MeToo functioned as a codeword used on Twitter to mark tweets concerned with addressing and contributing to the online conversation about sexual assault and harassment incidences and experiences. Twitter users who shared this hashtag aimed to publicly identify with other sexual assault and harassment survivors and to add to the number of individuals sharing #MeToo, thereby signifying the number of individuals who had experienced sexual assault and/or harassment.

On the evening of October 15th, 2017, actress Alyssa Milano revolutionized the social media world and sparked a transformation in the gender equality movement by calling for all sexual assault survivors to post "#MeToo" in a demonstration of the prevalence of sexual assault and harassment (Johnson & Hawbaker, 2018). The actress, who herself is a survivor, was accompanied by a multitude of other professionals coming forward about experiencing sexual assault in Hollywood. These recounts quickly incited public reactions ranging from surprise, to anger, to personal identification for individuals who had also experienced harassment or assault.

With more than 12 million posts on Facebook and over one million uses on Twitter, #MeToo and sexual harassment quickly became a conversation among individuals around the world—both on- and offline (CBS News, 2017). How does social media facilitate the propagation from one tweet to millions of social media posts that spanned 85 countries within 10 days of its inception (Parks, 2017)? This question provides a case where individuals broke social norms to publicly disclose intimate information regarding their sexual assault and harassment experiences, creating a case to which the current model could be applied.

#MeToo is unique as a social movement for a multitude of reasons. First, moving so many individuals who survived incidents of sexual assault or harassment to speak out and claim such traumatic experiences via a public platform and through a medium that associates their posts with their identities and broadcasts their posts to their peers is unprecedented. Additionally, #MeToo emerged toward the end of 2017, a year preceding a divisive presidential race and marked by political turbulence and social movements in America, as in the case of #TakeAKnee, Black Lives Matter, and the Women's Marches as a result. During this critical intersection of the social media era where social issues were entering into the online conversation with a much more prominent agenda, #MeToo was born and encouraged millions of individuals to share their personal and

traumatic experiences with a captive audience, sometimes for the first time. Lastly, #MeToo encouraged people who survived sexual assault to share the hashtag in order to publicize the prevalence of sexual assault and harassment, raising awareness and shedding light on the experiences of sexual assault and harassment brought on by countless individuals in the process.

However, what made this a meaningful movement is not only that so many individuals did this, but that they did this in spite of their identities being associated with their posts and their social media networks witnessing their posts in order to demonstrate the pervasiveness of this experience. Beyond the motivation to support the movement, and to show how common this phenomenon had become, people had to have been affected by the posts of their social media network. In this way, users chose to post "#MeToo," thereby indicating that they were survivors of sexual assault, in spite of the risks of their identities being publicized, other social media users seeing their posts and knowing their identities and revealing this extremely intimate information in a very public space. For these reasons and based upon the fact that individuals had more reason not to post "#MeToo" than to post in alignment with the hashtag yet still chose to post and disclose their traumatic stories, indicates that social influence was at work here.

3.2 Data Collection

Tweets that used the tag #MeToo were the units of analysis for this study. The tweets that were analyzed were located through the use of the Google Dataset search engine and are available as a public dataset. The data was collected and shared by Hamdan Azhar via Data.World, Inc. for the purpose of studying and reporting about the emojis that were used in #MeToo tweets (Azhar, 2017) in the effort to document the effects and uses of emojis in popular culture discussions online. The text, retweet counts, favorite counts, and user URLs (containing individual user handles) of 28,629 #MeToo tweets from public Twitter accounts that were gathered using the Twitter Search

API on October 16, 2017 constitute the data that were analyzed in this study. This dataset was chosen because the tweets were gathered over the course of several hours on the day after the #MeToo social movement hashtag caught attention, which is during the time that the hashtag was being used most frequently in conjunction with testimonial posts.

The timing of gathering these tweets is critical as many media outlets began adopting the #MeToo hashtag as a way of organizing news coverage that in some way related to sexual assault and harassment. Because the objective of this study is to analyze the outcome of individual social media users disclosing intimate information related to a social movement issue, it is paramount that the tweets were gathered during a time when these disclosures were being shared most. After having collected these tweets, the data was treated through the use of an automated content analysis software called LIWC.

3.3 LIWC Program

Some of the variables included in this study (emotional evaluation, personal relevance, issue orientation, and intimate information disclosure) were derived from the text of the tweets using LIWC. LIWC is an automated content analysis program that helps categorize texts by keywords. By applying a dictionary that contains words, word stems, and dimensions (i.e., aspects of meaning) into which the words and word stems fall to a text file, LIWC matches words in a text with dictionary-based words to produce a percentage of the text that is indicative of each dimension of meaning.

LIWC was originally developed to systematically analyze texts in order to reduce the inconsistencies that arise from manually coding with multiple coders (Tausczik & Pennebaker, 2010). There are two core capabilities of LIWC: its computerized analysis and its automatic dictionary (Tausczik & Pennebaker, 2010), both of which were employed in this study to varying

extents. The program functions by using a dictionary of words and word stems that are organized by various sentiment-based dimensions to compare against text-based files.

Data files are uploaded into the LIWC system and then processed. When semantic indicators of the different dimensions are identified in the text that is being analyzed, LIWC recognizes and highlights the text or phrase. Then, LIWC calculates the percentage of words used in the text that indicate each dimension and reports it in a downloadable file. In the case of this study, a datafile of tweets were uploaded into LIWC, and it employed a dictionary to analyze each tweet and report the percentage of words that indicate each dimension of meaning.

For instance, one dimension of the dictionary that is preprogrammed into LIWC is "positive emotion" which falls under the general dimension of "affective processes." Semantic indicators that flag for this positive emotion dimension include examples such as "love," "nice," and "sweet" (Tausczik & Pennebaker, 2010). Therefore, if LIWC analyzed a tweet consisting of ten words that uses both of the words "nice" and "love," it would produce the "positive emotion" score of 20.00, which represents 20% of the words in the tweet indicating positive emotion (Pennebaker, Booth, Boyd, & Francis, 2015; Tausczik & Pennebaker, 2010).

Validity of LIWC

Many studies have employed LIWC and reported its results in an empirically valid way (Tausczik & Pennebaker, 2010). As words produce a more complicated way of empirically validating results (Pennebaker, Boyd, Jordan, & Blackburn, 2015; Tausczik & Pennebaker, 2010), the internal validity statistics associated with its use are lower than results of other forms of data analysis.

In order to calculate the internal validity of LIWC, about 181,000 text files from several different bodies of language were analyzed by LIWC and the following information was found.

The uncorrected values are based on Cronbach estimates, where the corrected values are based on Spearman Brown (Pennebaker, Boyd, Jordan, & Blackburn, 2015). The affective processes dimension that is programmed and employed in the LIWC2015 dictionary report: $\alpha = .18$ (uncorrected)/.57 (corrected). Within this dimension are two components that are taken together to form the emotional evaluation variable in the model proposed in this study: positive emotion ($\alpha = .23/.64$) and negative emotion ($\alpha = .17/.55$; Pennebaker, Boyd, Jordan, & Blackburn, 2015).

In terms of external validity, several studies have been conducted to compare LIWC's computerized content analysis program to manual coding results and found support for LIWC's accuracy in detecting sentiment (see Pennebaker & Francis, 1996; Pennebaker, Boyd, Jordan, & Blackburn, 2015; Tausczik & Pennebaker, 2010).

Thus, LIWC's dimensions demonstrate greater capacity for gauging the emotional indicators employed in these tweets. This finding was also supported by conducting a pilot study of 500 #MeToo tweets and comparative LIWC's capacity to detect emotion variables to that of a manual emotion dictionary that was created for this study using emotion words that were identified using words from the #MeToo tweets. In general, the coding capabilities and the dictionary dimensions utilized by LIWC have been well-developed through years of improvements and is widely used in various social sciences as a systematic tool for consistent, innovative computerized content analysis (see Tausczik & Pennebaker, 2010).

3.4 Variable Operationalization

The six variables that compose the social and emotional disclosure model were operationalized differently depending on the conceptual and operational definitions, as well as the information provided from the data. For clarity, Table 1 displays the conceptual and operational definitions of each variable.

Although each variable employed different dictionaries, emotional evaluation, personal relevance, issue orientation, and the dependent variable (disclosure of intimate information) were all analyzed through the same process. Therefore, the peer response and motivation variables will first be discussed and then the method for operationalizing of each of the other four variables will be explained.

VARIABLE	CONCEPTUAL DEFINITION	OPERATIONAL DEFINITION
PEER RESPONSE	The online reactions that an individual's peers share in direct response to his or her message	Sum of favorites and Retweets of #MeToo tweet
EMOTIONAL EVALUATION	An evaluative statement in a tweet from an individual that indicates an emotional sentiment associated with a social movement issue	LIWC indicators of extreme emotion
MOTIVATION TO POST ONLINE	Internal inclination to talk about the movement	Z scores of #MeToo tweets shared by each user
PERSONAL RELEVANCE	Unification (either through shared experience or through collective action) of individual with others in relation to the movement	Inductive semantic indicators of unification, support, or agreement with others in relation to #MeToo
ISSUE ORIENTATION	How an individual feels about the issue through speaking out against people who oppose the movement or through advocating for the movement	Inductive semantic indicators of attitudes toward or against #MeToo, its members, or its opposition
ONLINE DISCLOSURE OF INTIMATE INFORMATION	Disclosure of intimate information online with social movement hashtag	Inductive semantic indicators of sexual assault or harassment

Table 1. Conceptual and operational variable definitions table.

First, the peer response variable was operationalized by calculating the total number of favorites and retweets that each tweet received. This was done as a way to understand the responses that individuals were receiving from their social networks when joining in the conversation about #MeToo. The reasoning for this is rooted in the observation that an individual's social network ties will not favorite or retweet a post that they do not appreciate or are not willing to show public appreciation for online. Additionally, individuals who notice the positive responses received by people who are using the #MeToo hashtag and who are talking about their sexual assault or harassment experiences may feel more comfortable or more welcome to also join in the conversation.

The motivation to post online variable was calculated by identifying each of the Twitter account usernames associated with the tweets in the dataset and then by organizing the data by user. This was done so that the number of tweets shared by the user in this dataset coincided with the username. Then, I calculated normalized preponderance of #MeToo tweets using the z scores of the proportion of #MeToo tweets to the total number of tweets issued by each user. Z scores reflected the strength of motivation. Motivation is, thus, represented by a numerical value indicative of how motivated an individual was to tweet about #MeToo in relation to the average level of motivation of the other individuals in the dataset to tweet about #MeToo.

Table 2 provides an exemplificatory list of semantic indicators that are organized by dimension and variable as they were employed in the dictionaries applied to these tweets. As previously mentioned, LIWC comes with a preprogrammed dictionary that captures several social and psychological dimensions.

VARIABLE	DIMENSIONS	WORD EXAMPLES	OPERATIONALIZATION
EMOTIONAL EVALUATION	Positive	*Love; nice; enjoy*	Total percentage (out of 100) of Emotional Evaluation semantic indicators in #MeToo Tweet. Considered present so long as at least one indicator occurs.
	Negative	*Hurt; nasty*	
PERSONAL RELEVANCE	Agreement	*Accept; of the same mind; concur*	Total percentage (out of 100) of Personal Relevance semantic indicators in #MeToo Tweet. Considered present so long as at least one indicator occurs.
	Persistence	*Don't give up; remain; persevere*	
	Unification	*Altogether; not alone; relate*	
	Support	*Trust; believe; accept*	
	Value	*Assertive; courageous; resilient*	
	Hashtags	*EndTheStigma; NotAlone; BelieveHer*	
ISSUE ORIENTATION	Raise Topical Awareness	*Advocate; marginalization; awareness*	Total percentage (out of 100) of Issue Orientation semantic indicators in #MeToo Tweet. Considered present so long as at least one indicator occurs.
	Disagreement/Dissonance	*Conflicting; dissent; misinterpretation*	
	Topical Political Conversations	*Accusations; offensive; names of high-profile sexual assault court cases (e.g., Bill Cosby)*	
	Topical Activism	*Allies; walkout; protestor*	
	Growth	*Groundbreaking; forge ahead*	
	Call to End	*Abolish; put an end to*	
	Hashtags	*BreakTheSilence; TimesUp*	
DV: DISCLOSURE	First-Person Pronouns	*I; me: my*	Total percentage (out of 100) of Disclosure semantic indicators where First-Person Pronouns are present with other dimensions.
	Sexual Assault Experience	*Rape; groped; assaults*	
	Against Will	*Coerce; forceful; pressured*	
	Hashtags	*MyStory; MyTruth*	

Table 2. Target Dimensions Table

The emotional evaluation variable was created from the affective processes dimension that is compiled from this dictionary. As illustrated in Table 2, positive and negative emotional indicators compose this dimension and jointly create the numerical emotional evaluation values.

A pilot study was performed in order develop the core vocabularies for personal relevance, issue orientation, and disclosure of intimate information. 500 tweets published between October 2017 and January 2018 that tagged #MeToo were manually coded for words that indicated personal relevance, issue orientation, or disclosure of intimate information based upon the conceptual definitions of each variable. These semantic indicators were compiled into independent lists of each variable, which were then added to by identifying relevant synonyms of each original word and by adding word stems of each word. The semantic indicators were subsequently categorized based on major themes that fit each indicator for that variable.

These themes arose out of the topics of conversation being carried out using the #MeToo tag, the intentions conveyed in the tweets, or the aspects of the conceptual definitions of the variables, as can be seen in Table 2. These major themes constitute the dimensions for each variable, which with the semantic indicators serve to constitute the dictionary of each variable.[2] Each variable consisted of the dimensions that assisted in categorizing the semantic indicators. After having created this dictionary, it was programmed into LIWC and employed for the automated content analysis. Dimensions falling under a single variable were totaled to form the substantive variable score.

---

[2] The original LIWC dictionary that was developed for the personal relevance, issue orientation, and disclosure of intimate information variables is available upon request.

3.4 Data Analysis

After having quantitatively operationalized each of the variables, the data was uploaded into RStudio and descriptive statistics for each variable were called for in order to gauge whether the data meet the preliminary assumptions of a regression analysis (Long & Freese, 2001; Warner, 2013). Table 3 refers to the frequency statistics associated with each variable and Table 4 provides a comprehensive correlation matrix.

Variable	M	SD	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
Peer Response	10.70	189.0	35722.4	56.06	3911.1
Emotional Evaluation	6.444	6.683	44.66	1.730	6.108
Personal Relevance	2.701	4.388	19.25	2.750	16.27
Issue Orientation	2.690	4.336	18.80	2.698	13.97
Motivation	.0604	1.044	1.090	1.401	.063
Disclosure of Intimate Information	11.41	14.12	199.4	1.308	1.948

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of each target variable

Note. N = 28,629

After assessing the skewness and kurtosis of these target variables and after having examined the distributions of each variable (see Table 3), it became clear that several of the target variables were zero-inflated, that is, the number of zero values dominated the distribution. Therefore, a zero-inflated Poisson regression model, which models data with excess zeroes into an easy-to-fit, more refined analysis was employed (Lambert, 1992; Long & Freese, 2001).

	Peer Response	Emotion	Personal Relevance	Issue Orientation	Motivation to Post	DV: Disclosure
Peer Response	1	.008	.002	.005	-.003	-.011
Emotion	.008	1	.172	.059	.115	.060
Personal Relevance	.002	.174	1	-.003	.668	-.109
Issue Orientation	.005	.059	-.003	1	-.002	-.095
Motivation	-.003	.115	.668	-.002	1	-.101
Disclosure of Intimate Information	-.011	.060	-.109	-.095	-.101	1

Table 4. Correlation matrix

In order to model the relationships of these variables appropriately given the way that it was presented in the social and emotional disclosure model, four zero-inflated Poisson regression analyses were conducted in order to construct a final path analysis. The first analysis regressed the dependent variable, disclosure of intimate information, against all of the predictor variables (RQ5). Then, the motivation variable was regressed against the rest of the predictor variables so as to determine whether the motivation variable could serve as an effective mediating variable between the other predictor variables and the dependent variable (RQ2 & RQ4). The final two analyses regressed emotional evaluation against peer response and issue orientation against personal relevance (RQ1 & RQ3). After these analyses were conducted, Vuong tests, which assess whether the zero-inflated Poisson regression differs in a statistically significant way from a normal regression, which might justify the use of the zero-inflated analysis (Vuong, 1989), were run for each analysis. The results of these analyses are discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

As mentioned above, four different regression models were conducted. First, and in order to test the significance of each of the predictors on the dependent variable, disclosure of intimate information was regressed against each of the other variables. Then, motivation was regressed against the rest of the predictors so as to test whether motivation could act as a mediator between the other predictors and the dependent variable. Issue orientation was regressed against personal relevance so as to determine its function as a mediating variable between personal relevance and motivation to post online. Lastly, and with the same purpose as that of issue orientation, emotional evaluation was regressed against peer response.

Every analysis was performed using the pscl package in R, which performs zero-inflated Poisson regressions (Lambert, 1992). Table 5 displays the Poisson regression results and Vuong test results (Vuong, 1989). The results of Model 1, which regressed all of the independent variables against intimate disclosure, indicated that each variable functions as a statistically significant predictor. According to the results displayed in Table 5, emotional evaluation and motivation to post online demonstrated positive relationships with the dependent variable, whereas the rest of the variables (issue orientation, personal relevance, and peer response) negatively affected the dependent variable. Model 2 was conducted so as to determine if peer response, emotional evaluation, personal relevance, and issue orientation could serve as predictor variables in the outcome of motivation to post online. Peer response did not serve as a statistically significant predictor of motivation, while emotional evaluation, issue orientation, and personal relevance did. However, emotional evaluation demonstrated a negative relationship to motivation to post online, while issue orientation and personal relevance modeled positive relationships to motivation to post online. Model 3 demonstrated that there is statistically significant evidence that personal relevance

can serve as a proportional predictor for issue orientation, thereby completing the originally mapped mediation of issue orientation between personal relevance and motivation. The results of Model 4 signify that there is no measurable indication that peer response functions as a predictor variable to estimate the values of the emotional evaluation variable with these data.

Variables	Model 1: Intimate Disclosure	Model 2: Motivation to Post	Model 3: Issue Orientation	Model 4: Emotional Evaluation
	b coefficient			
Emotional Evaluation	.0001****	-.0033**		
Peer Response	-.00002*			.00003298 ns
Issue Orientation	-.002****	.0054693**		
Personal Relevance	-.003****	.1330231****	.002988***	
Motivation to Post	.001****			
Model Fit (Vuong Test)	-171.339****	-91.84681****	-106.226****	-99.523****

Table 5. Summary table of zero-inflated Poisson regression results and model fit tests
*Note. Significance codes: 0 = "****" .001 = "***" .01 = "**" .05 = "*"*
No significance = "ns"

The Vuong non-nested hypothesis test compares the results of zero-inflated Poisson regression analyses to non-corrected Poisson regression analyses and determines whether a significant difference exists in the results of the analyses (Vuong, 1989). In this case, the results of each of the tests indicate that the employment of the zero-inflated Poisson regression analyses

were warranted and effective given the distributions of these data, based on the statistically significant nature of each of the tests. The results of each model will now be discussed in relation to each research question.

The first research question was modeled in the fifth regression analysis between peer response and emotional evaluation and is stated as follows:

RQ1: Do the online responses of an individual's peers to his or her social media post about a social movement issue impact the emotional evaluation that he or she forms about that issue?

The results from Model 5 demonstrate that there is not a statistically significant relationship between peer response and emotional evaluation, which means that emotional evaluation does not serve as a mediating variable between peer response and motivation to post online. In response to RQ1, there is no direct relationship where peer response impacts emotional evaluation.

The second research question was modeled as part of the second regression analysis between the independent variables and motivation to post online and is stated as follows:

RQ2: Does the emotional evaluation that an individual forms regarding a social movement issue influence his or her motivation to post online about the issue?

The results from Model 2 demonstrate that there is indeed a statistically significant connection between emotional evaluation and motivation to post online. However, this relationship is negative, signifying that the more emotional indicators are included in a tweet, the less motivated an individual is to post online. Since motivation to post online is represented as a set of z scores, it represents the extent to which an individual is motivated to post in relation to the average amount of posts shared by users in this dataset. Therefore, tweets with more emotional evaluation were shared by individuals who demonstrated less of motivation to post than average in this dataset.

These results answer RQ2 by showing that emotional evaluation does negatively influence an individual's motivation to post online.

The third research question was modeled in the fourth regression analysis between personal relevance and issue orientation and is stated as follows:

RQ3: Does the extent to which a social movement issue is personally relevant to an individual influence his or her orientation toward the issue?

The results from Model 4 demonstrate that a direct, positive, statistically significant relationship exists between personal relevance and issue orientation. Therefore, RQ3 can be answered by stating that results show personal relevance as influencing an individuals' discussions of their issue orientations in tweets.

The fourth research question was modeled in the second regression analysis between the independent variables and motivation to post online and is stated as follows:

RQ4: Does an individual's orientation toward a social movement issue influence his or her motivation to post online about the issue?

The results from Model 2 demonstrate that a direct, positive, statistically significant relationship exists between issue orientation and motivation to post online. Therefore, the data corroborates the presence of issue orientation as a mediating variable in the relationship between personal relevance and motivation to post online. Answering RQ4, issue orientation does influence an individual's motivation to post online according to the data. Interestingly, above and beyond these results is that personal relevance and motivation to post online demonstrate the strongest relationship amongst the results from these analyses. Therefore, although results show that issue orientation can act as a mediator between personal relevance and motivation to post online, personal relevance has an even stronger direct relationship to motivation to post online.

The fifth research question was modeled in the first and second regression analyses where the independent variables and motivation to post online were regressed against intimate disclosure and where the independent variables were regressed against motivation to post online, respectively. The research question is stated as follows:

RQ5: Does individual's motivation to post online about a social movement issue influence

his or her disclosure of intimate information on social media in relation to the issue?

These results address RQ5 by depicting that motivation to post is significantly and positively related to disclosure of intimate information online, as are each of the other independent variables (see Model 1 in Table 5). Although this addresses RQ5 by stating that motivation to post online does influence an individual's disclosure of intimate information, the mediating relationship between motivation to post online and the rest of the variables also should be discussed here.

As demonstrated by the significant relationships between emotional evaluation, personal relevance, and issue orientation to motivation to post online, motivation to post online does demonstrate a mediating relationship between each of these independent variables and the dependent variable, disclosure of intimate information online. However, the positive and direct relationship between emotional evaluation and disclosure of intimate information online renders motivation to post online as an unnecessary mediator. This differs from the relationships between personal relevance and issue orientation with disclosure of intimate information online, respectively, as both of these relationships are negative. This shows that the direction of the relationship is changed by the mediation of motivation to post online in each of the two relationships.

A path analysis with the results of each of the regression analyses was mapped onto the explanatory model that was proposed in Figure 1. The observed model, which is driven by the

results of these analyses is shown below in Figure 3. This observed model provides deeper and richer insight into the findings as they were derived from observed data and is empirically-grounded.
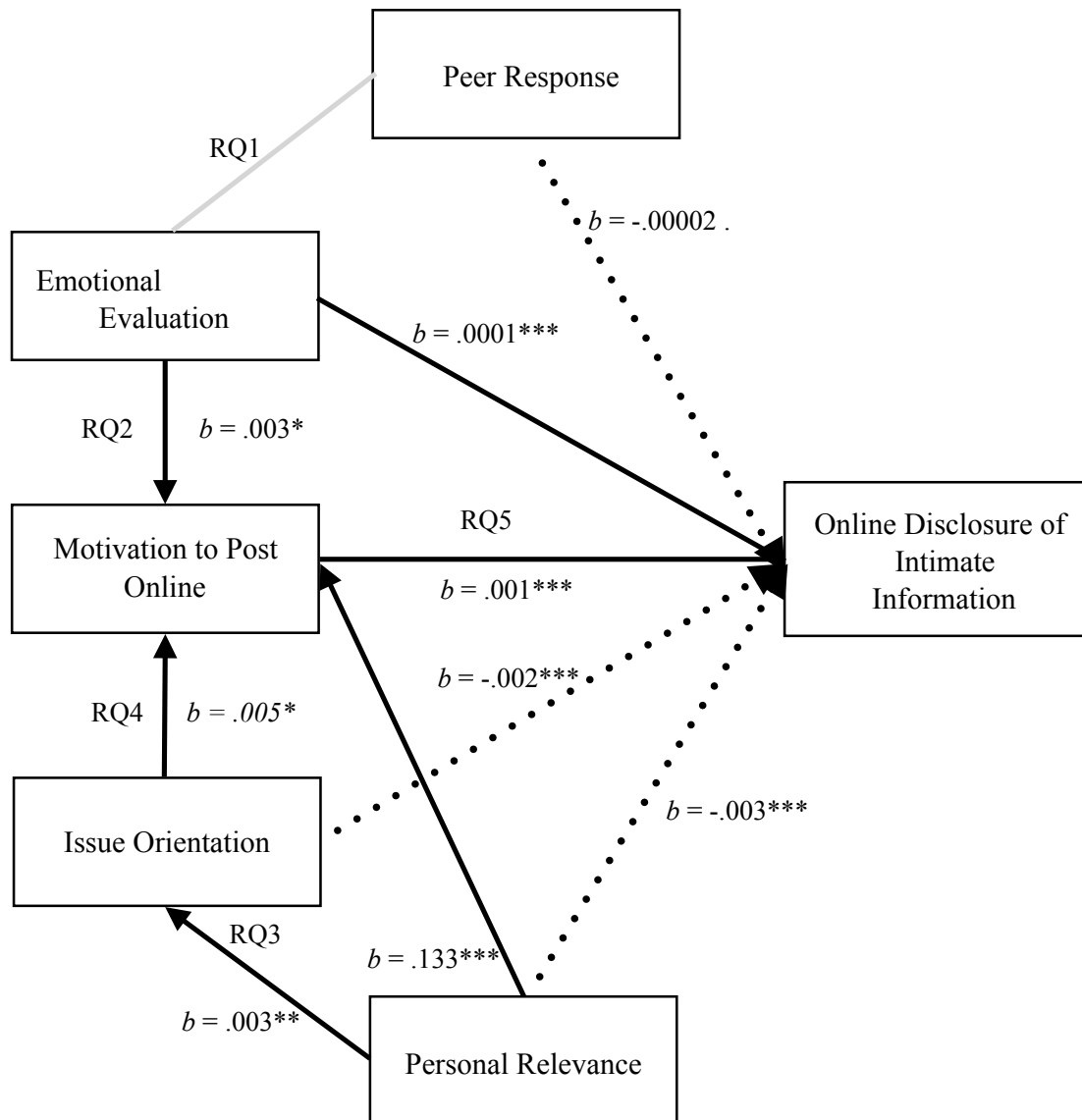

Figure 3. Observed social and emotional disclosure model
*Note. Significance codes: 0 = "***" .001 = "**" .01 = "*" .05 = "."*

In sum, all of the independent variables regressed against the values of the dependent variable addressed RQ5, by supporting that there are relationships that exist between motivation

as well as the other predictor variables and the dependent variable. In response to RQ2 and RQ4, the relationships between emotional evaluation, peer response, personal relevance, and issue orientation with motivation were modeled. Results of this analysis indicated that emotional evaluation, personal relevance, and issue orientation demonstrated statistically significant relationships with motivation to post online. This demonstrates that motivation serves as a statistically significant mediator between each of these variables and the dependent variable, disclosure of intimate information online.

The relationships between peer response and emotional evaluation (RQ1) and personal relevance and issue orientation (RQ3) were then tested. The results of these analyses indicated a lack of statistically significant relationship between peer response and emotional evaluation and the existence of a statistically significant predictor variable of personal relevance onto issue orientation. These results indicated that no mediation exists for emotional evaluation in the relationship between peer response and motivation to post online. This finding differs from the relationship between personal relevance and issue orientation, where issue orientation does serve as a statistically significant mediator in the relationship between personal relevance and motivation to post online. These analyses followed a path analysis and were mapped onto Figure 3. The results will be further detailed in the following section.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The results of this study provide meaningful insights into the area of mediated communication research and into the ever-increasing overlap between mediated communication and interpersonal interactions. As demonstrated by Figure 3, the primary findings from these regression analyses indicate that motivation to post online and emotional evaluation demonstrate positive and direct relationships to disclosure of intimate information online, whereas peer response online exist in the capacity of an inverse predictive relationship with disclosure of intimate information online. The results of these analyses support that individuals experience each of the variable components in the proposed explanatory model when considering emotional, social, and attitudinal information related to social movement hashtags and posting intimate information online.

There are several findings that are consistent with the research that was previously discussed and that are consistent with the explanatory model that was presented in Figure 1. First and perhaps most centrally, there is a significant and positive relationship between motivation to post online and the outcome of disclosing intimate information online. This finding affirms previous research, such as the relationship between variables that relate to motivation in this study and knowledge sharing (Hsu & Lin, 2008). Relatedly, emotional evaluation and the dependent variable are positively related, where the more that individuals share messages about how they are feeling, the more likely they are to disclose intimate information online. This finding is reinforced by research that indicates that individuals who demonstrate stronger emotions are more inclined to share information as well based upon their higher arousal levels (Berger & Milkman, 2013).

Additionally, emotional evaluation and issue orientation also work to predict motivation to post online, which replicates findings from affect infusion model (Forgas, 1995) and situational

theory of publics (Grunig, 1997) and of problem solving (Kim & Grunig, 2011). This finding also indicates that motivation to post online is a statistically significant mediator in the relationships between emotional evaluation, personal relevance, and issue orientation with the disclosure of intimate information online, respectively. The final finding that coincides with previous research and the explanatory model in Figure 1 is the positive relationship between personal relevance and issue orientation, where the more personal relevance an individual demonstrates in an online post, the more content he or she is also likely to post about his or her advocacy for the issue or against those who do not support the issue (i.e., issue orientation-related content). This finding also indicates a mediating relationship, this time where issue orientation mediates the relationship between personal relevance and motivation to post online.

However, there are also findings that are not consistent with what was expected based upon the relationships mapped in the explanatory model. First, the data indicate that there is not a statistically significant relationship that links emotional evaluation with peer response, meaning that they must function independently of each other. Relatedly, there is not a significant relationship between peer response and motivation to post online either, leaving only a statistically significant relationship that connects peer response directly to the dependent variable of disclosing intimate information online.

This finding reaffirms what previous studies have demonstrated, which is that the impact that our peers and their responses have on our behaviors is unmediated (Friedkin & Johnson, 1990; Metaxas et al., 2017). Yet, this relationship is negative, which indicates that the less favorites and retweets a message receives, the more likely the message is to be a disclosive message about intimate information. In reverse, this also might mean that less retweets and favorites were shared for #MeToo intimate information disclosure messages [about sexual assault and harassment

experiences]. This could have been due to the early collection of data, where not many individuals had yet seen the messages or experienced #MeToo. However, another possible explanation for this occurrence is that social media users did not demonstrate support messages using the functional reaction tools on Twitter because the violation of self-disclosure norms on social media made them uncomfortable. Yet another possibility could have to do with the nature of the Twitter platform, or the significance bestowed upon these reaction tools such as retweets (Metaxas et al., 2017; Nesi, Pantaleo, Paoli, & Zaza, 2018). Other findings that were not anticipated revolve around results from analyses of issue orientation and personal relevance.

First, personal relevance demonstrated a positive significant relationship with motivation to post online. This is a notable finding as the explanatory model asserted that issue orientation was a mediator between personal relevance and motivation. However, instead, personal relevance has its own direct and significant relationship with motivation. This finding is reinforced by the social influence and knowledge sharing model proposed by Hsu and Lin (2008), where information that is more personally relatable motivates individuals to share it online.

Personal relevance also has a direct and significant relationship with the dependent variable, signifying that personal relevance functions more as an independent mechanism than a variable mediated by another variable. Interestingly, this relationship is negative, indicating that the more an individual shares messages unifying with groups organized around a social movement issue, the less likely that message is to also include intimate information disclosures. Considering the positive relationship between issue orientation and personal relevance in conjunction with the finding that issue orientation also has a negative relationship with the dependent variable, this may have to do with the content of the posts.

For instance, it is possible that individuals whose messages centered around unification and advocacy (i.e., personally relevant and issue-oriented messages) were not focused on or had already disclosed their #MeToo stories in separate messages relating to the movement and were more concentrated on being involved. If it were true, this would be reinforced by situational theory of problem solving (Kim & Grunig, 2011). First, problem recognition would in this movement take the form of discussing relevant political topics or advocating for organizing around the movement issue and tagging #MeToo. This would differ from indicators of level of involvement, which could be seen through individuals' desires to unify with others and discuss their positions regarding the social movement issue. Disclosing about personal experiences in relation to the issue surrounding the social movement would take the form of communicative action (Kim & Grunig), thereby representing personal relevance and issue orientation in distinct co-occurrence with the dependent variable. As it is commonplace on Twitter to share multiple tweets in a short amount of time, this would be a feasible explanation. Now that the findings of this study have been discussed, limitations and future directions for related research will be addressed.

Limitations

There are four primary shortcomings that should be identified in this study. First, the data that was collected in this study was from the first full day after the #MeToo movement hashtag was popularized. Due to the limited sample and the timing, the distribution of individuals who were tweeting about the movement was more restricted than it would have been if the data had been collected later that week or if there had been more data, thereby impacting the motivation to post online variable. Additionally, the number of individuals who had responded to the posts may also have been restricted by the timing, which would have affected the peer response variable. Related

to this is the fact that the effect sizes of these results, although statistically significant, are extremely small due to the large sample size.

Although the internal dictionary that is employed by the LIWC program reports validity, the variables that were analyzed by LIWC program formed from manually-created dictionaries are less developed and, thus, less valid. This means that it is probable that the variables were not as constitutive of their intended dimensions due to the lack of opportunity for repeated testing. As such, issue orientation, personal relevance, and disclosure variables are limited in the depth and breadth of their reaches.

One example of this was the detection method for indicators of the disclosure variable. The parameters of the disclosure variable are that a first personal pronoun must be included in conjunction with an indicator of harassment or assault. Therefore, if a tweet were to say, "My friend told me that she was assaulted," LIWC would report that there were indicators of intimate disclosure, although it was not experienced by the person who shared the post. However, in manually coding the first 100 tweets, only two false positives existed in the LIWC's coding of the disclosure variable. This indicates that LIWC provides a relatively low error rate for falsely detecting disclosure variables. In conjunction, despite LIWC's utility for automated content analysis, it lacks the capability to detect sarcasm and subtle cues of semantic meaning in its analyses.

Finally, the peer response variable, although valid in its measurement of the quantity of reactions of individuals' peers through the use of reviewing tools afforded by the platform (i.e., retweets and favorite counts), is a very indirect method for measuring individuals' social network ties' reactions to their posts. A more effective method for gathering this information would have been through the examinations of individuals' network ties' comments or online responses to their

posts. Motivation to post online presents a similar issue with operationalization in that it is operationalized not as the cognitive experience of motivation, rather, as the realized demonstration of motivation. This presents a complication when approaching the motivation to post online variable from the perspective that motivation exists as a cognitive or internal process. With that, future directions will be discussed next.

Future Directions and Conclusion

This social and emotional disclosure model has now been applied to a social movement hashtag and is empirically supported as an accurate reflection of the process through which individuals go when disclosing intimate information publicly. Opportunities for further research in this area involve refining the existing target variables and their operationalizations. Additionally, redefining variables such as peer response may be beneficial for future studies. However, beyond the parameters of these target variables as they have been applied to social media and tweets that tag #MeToo, this model has great potential to function on a broader scope. As such, it should be applied to other contexts and platforms both within and outside of the realm of online social movement and hashtags.

By proposing a model that integrates aspects of previous information-processing models into the context of sharing intimate information in the form of public posts on social media, this study offers new insights into the realm of social media research. Specifically, joining emotional, social, and attitudinal information processing and self-disclosure into a cohesive process depictive of online phenomenon offers significant contributions to research on mediated platforms and their effects on communicative behaviors. For practitioners interested in social media habits and hashtag propagation in the ever-growing areas such as user experience and consumer behavior, the utility

of this model is expansive. This study and its findings have especially meaningful applications for individuals interested in social organizing or for individuals who uses social media.

More specifically, social movement strategists who want to start a social movement hashtag about an incident that could provoke self-disclosure, such as traumatic events, could benefit from the findings of this study. By understanding the different facets of this model and their relationships to online disclosure about a social movement issue, social movement strategists could implement these findings into their practices. However, the most relevant application of this study goes beyond the scope of organizational research.

As users of social media in an age of excessive technology consumption and reliance where our communication methods and behaviors are in unceasing flux (Turkle, 2011), understanding study's findings is especially beneficial. In 2018, 68% of Americans reported using Facebook, while 35% reported using Instagram and 24% reported using Twitter (Smith & Anderson, 2018). Of those individuals, 51% of Facebook users, 38% of Instagram users, and 26% of Twitter users stated using the social media sites multiple times per day (Smith & Anderson, 2018). Being that social influence is a reciprocal and continuous process, this information implies that the more social media is accessed, the more susceptible to influence and the more influential individuals may become. As such, individuals' exposure to content presented on social media and how their exposure frames their decisions is vital to consider.

The model proposed in this study offers an in-depth process through which individuals evaluate and share information based on the messages that they receive from others in tandem with the effects of their emotional evaluations of information, identification with the information, orientation toward the information, and motivation to share the information. Therefore, it is my hope that social media users look to this study for understanding a piece of the puzzle in the

influence of social media, social network ties, and social information as they relate to their behaviors. Doing so would boost their social media literacy and awareness of online influence.

REFERENCES

Akpinar, E., & Berger, J. (2017). Valuable virality. *Journal of Marketing Research, 54,* 318-330. doi:10.1509/jmr.13.0350

Altman, I., & Taylor, D. (1973). *Social penetration: The development of interpersonal relationships.* New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Ampong, G. O. A., Mensah, A., Adu, A. S. Y., Addae, J. A., Omoregie, O. K., & Ofori, K. S. (2018). Examining self-disclosure on social networking sites: A flow theory and privacy perspective. *Behavioral Sciences, 8*: 58. doi:10.3390/bs8060058

Azhar, H. (2017, October 20). Emojis of #MeToo. *Prismoji.* Retrieved from https://prismoji.com/2017/10/20/emojis-of-me-too/

Bagozzi, R. P., & Dholakia, U. M. (2002). Intentional social action in virtual communities. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 16*, 2-21. doi:10.1002/dir.10006

Bandura, A. (1965). Influence of models' reinforcement contingencies on the acquisition of imitative responses. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1,* 589-595.

Baxter, L. A., & Montgomery, B. M. (1996). *Relating: Dialogues and dialectics*. New York, NY: Guilford.

Bazarova, N. N., & Choi, Y. H. (2014). Self-disclosure in social media: Extending the functional approach to disclosure motivations and characteristics on social networking sites. *Journal of Communication, 64*, 1-23. doi:10.1111/jcom.12106

Berger, J., & Milkman, K. (2013). Emotion and virality: What makes online content go viral? *Insights, 5,* 18-23. doi:10.2478/gfkmir-2014-0022

Boyd, D. M., Golder, S., & Lotan, G. (2010). Tweet, tweet, retweet: Conversational aspects of retweeting on Twitter. In *System Sciences (HICSS)*. Paper presented at 43rd Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences (1-10), Kauai, HI.

Brandtzæg, P. B., & Heim, J. (2009). Why people use social networking sites. In A. A. Ozok & P. Zaphiris (Eds.), *Online communities and social computing* (Vol. 5621, pp. 143–152). Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-02774-1_16

Carl, C. J., & Duck, S. (2004). How to do things with relationships… and how relationships do things with us. *Annuals of the International Communication Association, 28,* 1-35. doi:10.1080/23808985.2004.11679031

CBS News (2017, October 17). More than 12M "Me Too" Facebook posts, comments, reactions in 24 hours. *The Associated Press.* Retrieved from https://www.cbsnews.com/news/metoo-more-than-12-million-facebook-posts-comments-reactions-24-hours/

Chang, H. (2011). A new perspective on Twitter hashtag use: Diffusion of innovation theory. *American Society for Information Science and Technology, 47,* 1-4. https://doi.org/10.1002/meet.14504701295

Cheshin, A., Rafaeli, A., & Bos, N. (2011). Anger and happiness in virtual teams: Emotional influences of text and behavior on others' affect in the absence of non-verbal cues. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 116,* 2–16. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2011.06.002

Chou, H. T., & Edge, N. (2012). "They are happier and having better lives than I am": The impact of using Facebook on perceptions of others' lives. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking, 15,* 117-121. doi:10.1089/cyber.2011.0324

Cunha, E., Magno, G., Comarela, G., Almeida, V., Gonçalves, M. A., & Benevenuto, F. (2011). Anaylzing the dynamic evolution of hashtags on Twitter: A language-based approach. *Proceedings of the Workshop on Language in Social Media,* 58-65.

Davis, J. L., & Rusbult, C. E. (2001). Attitude alignment in close relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81,* 65–84. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.81.1.65

Deutsch, M., & Gerard, H. B. (1955). A study of normative and informational social influences upon individual judgement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51,* 629-636.

Erber, R., & Erber, M. W. (1994). Beyond mood and social judgment: Mood incongruent recall and mood regulation. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 24,* 79–88. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.2420240106

Fazio, R. H. (1990). Multiple processes by which attitudes guide behavior: The MODe model as an integrative framework. In M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 23, pp. 75–109). San Diego, CA: Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60318-4

Fazio, R. H., & Olson, M. A. (2003). Attitude structure and function. In M. A. Hogg & J. Cooper (Eds.), *Sage handbook of social psychology* (pp. 139–160). London, U.K.: Sage.

Ferrara, E., & Yang, Z. (2015). Measuring emotional contagion in social media. *PLoS ONE, 10*(11): e0142390. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0142390

Forgas, J. P. (1989). Mood effects on decision making strategies. *Australian Journal of Psychology, 41,* 197–214. https://doi.org/10.1080/00049538908260083

Forgas, J. P. (1991). Affective influences on partner choice: Role of mood in social decisions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 61,* 708–720.

Forgas, J. P. (1992). Affect in social judgments and decisions: A multiprocess model. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 25,* 227-275. doi:10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60285-3

Forgas, J. P. (1995). Mood and judgment: The affect infusion model (AIM). *Psychological Bulletin, 117,* 39–66. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.117.1.39

Forgas, J. P. (1998). On being happy and mistaken: Mood effects on the fundamental attribution error. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75,* 318–331.

Forgas, J. P., Bower, G. H., & Krantz, S. E. (1984). The influence of mood on perceptions of social interactions. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 20,* 497–513. https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-1031(84)90040-4

Forgas, J. P., & George, J. M. (2001). Affective influences on judgments and behavior in organizations: An information processing perspective. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 86,* 3–34. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.2001.2971

Friedkin, N. E., & Johnsen, E. C. (1990). Social influence and opinions. *The Journal of Mathematical Sociology, 15,* 193–206. https://doi.org/10.1080/0022250X.1990.9990069

Frijda, N. H., & Mesquita, B. (1994). The social roles and functions of emotions. In S. Kitayama & H. R. Markus (Eds.), *Emotion and culture: Empirical studies of mutual influence* (pp. 51-87). Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Greene, K., V. J. Derlega, and A. Mathews. (2006). Self-disclosure in personal relationships. In A. L. Vangelisti and D. Perlman (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of personal relationships* (pp. 409–27). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Grunig, J. E. (1997). A situational theory of publics: Conceptual history, recent challenges and new research. In D. Moss, T. MacManus, & D. Verčič (Eds.), *Public relations research: An international perspective* (pp. 3-46)*.* London, UK: International Thomson Business Press.

Guerra, P. H. C., Veloso, A., Meira, W., & Almeida, V. (2011). From bias to opinion: A transfer-learning approach to real-time sentiment analysis. In *Proceedings of the 17th annual ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining.* Paper presented at International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining (150-158). New York, NY: ACM.

Hsu, C., & Lin, J. C. (2008). Acceptance of blog usage: The roles of technology acceptance, social influence and knowledge sharing motivation. *Information and Management, 45,* 65-74. doi:10.1016/j.im.2007.11.001

Johnson, C. A., & Hawbaker, K. (2018, July 27). #MeToo: A timeline of events. Chicago Tribune. Retrieved from http://www.chicagotribune.com/lifestyles/ct-me-too-timeline-20171208-htmlstory.html

Kaplan, A. M., & Haenlein, M. (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenge and opportunities of social media. *Business Horizons, 53,* 59-68. doi:10.1016/j.bushor.2009.09.003

Katz, E., & Lazarsfeld, P. F. (1955). The part played by people. In E. Katz & P. F. Lazarsfeld (Eds.), *Personal influence: The part played by people in the flow of mass communication* (pp. 82-115). New York, NY: Routledge.

Kim, J., & Grunig, J. E. (2011). Problem solving and communicative action: A situational theory of problem solving. *Journal of Communication, 61,* 120-149. doi:10.1111/j.1460-2466.2010.01529.x

Kramer, A. D. I., Guillory, J. E., & Hancock, J. T. (2014). Experimental evidence of massive-scale emotional contagion through social networks. *PNAS, 111,* 8788-8790. doi:10.1073/pnas.1320040111

Kunegis, N. N. T. G. J., & Alhadi, A. C. (2011, June 15-17). Bad news travels fast: A content-based analysis of interestingness on Twitter. In D. De Roure and S. Poole (Eds.). *Proceedings of the 3rd International Web Science Conference*. Paper presented at International Web Science Conference, Koblenz, Germany (1-7). New York, NY: ACM.

Kwon, K. H., Stefanone, M. A., & Barnett, G. A. (2014). Social network influence on online behavioral choices: Exploring group formation on social network sites. *American Behavioral Scientist, 58,* 1345–1360. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764214527092

Lambert, D. (1992). Zero-inflated Poisson regression, with an application to defects in manufacturing. *Technometrics, 34,* 1-14. doi: 10.2307/1269547

Lasswell, H. D. (1948). The structure and function of communication in society. In W. Schramm (Ed.), *Mass communications* (pp. 117-129). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois.

Lazarus, R. S. (1991). *Emotion and adaptation*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Levitan, L. C. (2018). Social constraint and self-doubt: Mechanisms of social network influence on resistance to persuasion. *Political Psychology, 39,* 957–975. https://doi.org/10.1111/pops.12458

Long, J. S., & Freese, J. (2001). Models for count outcomes. In *Regression models for categorical dependent variables using STATA* (pp. 223-262). College Station, TX: Stata Press.

Mahmoodi, A., Bahrami, B., & Mehring, C. (2018). Reciprocity of social influence. *Nature Communications, 9,* 1-9. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-04925-y

Martin, L. L., Ward, D. W., Achee, J. W., & Wyer, R. S. (1993). Mood as input: People have to interpret the motivational implications of their moods. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 64,* 317-326. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.64.3.317

Mayer, J. D. (1986). How mood influences cognition. In N. E. Sharkey (Ed.), *Advances in cognitive science* (Vol. 1, pp. 290-314). Chichester, England: Ellis Horwood.

Metaxas, P., & TwitterTrails Research Team (2017). Retweets indicate agreement, endorsement, trust: A meta-analysis of published Twitter research. Computer Science Department: Wellesley College.

Metaxas, P. T., & Mustafaraj, E. (2013). The rise and the fall of a citizen reporter. In *Proceedings of the 5th Annual ACM Web Science Conference,* Paris, France. Paper presented at ACM Web Science Conference (248-257).

Moreno, Y., Nekovee, M., & Pacheco, A. F. (2004). Dynamics of rumor spreading in complex networks. *Physical Review, 69,* 1-8. doi:10.1103/PhysRevE.69.066130

Mustafaraj, E., Metaxas, P. T., Finn, S., & Monroy-Hernández, A. (2012). Hiding in plain sight: A tale of trust and mistrust inside a community of citizen reporters. In *Proceedings of the Sixth International AAAI Conference on Weblogs and Social Media.* Paper presented at International Association for the Advancement of Artificial Intelligence. Dublin, Ireland.

Myers, D. G. (2010). *Psychology*. Holland, Michigan: Worth Publishers.

Nesi, P., Pantaleo, G., Paoli, I., & Zaza, I. (2018). Assessing the reTweet proneness of tweets: Predictive models for retweeting. *Multimedia Tools and Applications, 77,* 26371-26396.

Newman, M. E. J. (2010). *Networks: An Introduction.* Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Omarzu, J. (2000). A disclosure decision model: Determining how and when individuals will self-disclose. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 4,* 174-185.

Papacharissi, Z., & Rubin, A. M. (2000). Predictors of internet use. *Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media, 44,* 175-196. doi:10.1207/s15506878jobem4402_2

Parkinson, B. (1996). Emotions are social. *British Journal of Psychology, 87,* 663-683.

Pennebaker, J.W., Booth, R.J., Boyd, R.L., & Francis, M.E. (2015). Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count: LIWC2015. Austin, TX: Pennebaker Conglomerates (www.LIWC.net).

Pennebaker, J. W., Boyd, R. L., Jordan, K., & Blackburn, K. (2015). *The development and psychometric properties of LIWC2015.* Austin, TX: University of Texas at Austin.

Pennebaker, J. W., & Francis, M. E. (1996). Cognitive, emotional, and language processes in disclosure. *Cognition and Emotion, 10,* 601-626

Petty, R. E., & Cacioppo, J. T. (1986). The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 19,* 123-205.

Petty, R. E., Gleicher, F., & Baker, S. (1991). Multiple roles for affect in persuasion. In J. P. Forgas (Ed.), *Emotion and social judgments* (pp. 181-200). Elmsford, NY: Pergamon Press.

Pezzoni, F., An, J., Passarella, A., Crowcroft, J., & Conti, M. (2013, November 25-27). Why do I retweet it? An information propagation model for microblogs. In A. Jatowt, E. Lim, Y. Ding, A. Miura, T. Tezuka, G. Dias, K. Tanaka, A. Flanagin, and B. Dai (Eds.). *Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Social Informatics. Paper presented at International Conference on Social Informatics,* Kyoto, Japan (360-369). Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag.

Poell, T., & Borra, E. (2012). Twitter, YouTube, and Flickr as platforms of alternative journalism: The social media account of the 2010 Toronto g20 protests. *Journalism, 13*(6): 695-713.

Qiu, L., Lin, H., Leung, A. K. Y., & Tov, W. (2012). Putting their best foot forward: Emotional disclosure on Facebook. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking, 15,* 569-572. doi:10.1089/cyber.2012.0200

Raacke, J., & Bonds-Raacke, J. (2008). MySpace and Facebook: Applying the uses and gratifications theory to exploring friend-networking sites. *Cyberpsychology Behavior, 11,* 169-174. doi:10.1089/cpb.2007.0056

Romero, D. M., Meeder, B., & Kleinberg, J. (2011, March 28-April 1). Differences in the mechanics of information diffusion across topics: Idioms, political hashtags, and complex contagion on Twitter. In S. Sadagopan, K. Ramamritham, A. Kumar, and M. P. Ravindra (Eds.). *WWW '11 Proceedings of the 20th International Conference on World Wide Web.* Paper presented at International Conference on World Wide Web, Hyderabad, India (695-704). New York, NY: ACM.

Samanta, B., De, A., Chakraborty, A., & Ganguly, N. (2017, 19-25 August). LMPP: A large margin point process combining reinforcement and competition for modeling hashtag popularity. In C. Sierra (Ed.). *IJCAI'17 Proceedings of the 26th International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence.* Paper presented at International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, Melbourne, Australia (2679-2685). Palo Alto, CA: AAAI Press.

Schwarz, N., & Clore, G. L. (1983). Mood, misattribution, and judgments of well-being: Informative and directive functions of affective states. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45,* 513–523. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.45.3.513

Sheridan Dodds, P. S., & Watts, D. J. (2004). Universal behavior in a generalized model of contagion. *Physical Review Letters, 92,* 1-5. doi:10.1103/PhysRevLett.92.218701

Sinclair, R. C. (1988). Mood, categorization breadth, and performance appraisal: The effects of order of information acquisition and affective state on halo, accuracy, information retrieval, and evaluations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 42,* 22-46. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(88)90018-0

Smith, A., & Anderson, M. (2018). Social media use in 2018. *Pew Research Center.* Retrieved from https://www.pewinternet.org/2018/03/01/social-media-use-in-2018/

Tarde, G. (1903). Universal repetition. In G. Tarde (Ed.), *The laws of imitation* (pp. 1-36). New York, NY: Holt.

Tausczik, Y. R., & Pennebaker, J. W. (2010). The psychological meaning of words: LIWC and computerized text analysis methods. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 29,* 24-54. doi:10.1177/0261927X09351676

Twitter (2018). About Twitter: A few Twitter facts. Retrieved from https://help.twitter.com/en/using-twitter/how-to-use-hashtags.

Turkle, S. (2011). Along together: Why we expect more from technology and less from each other. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Van Kleef, G. A. (2017). Emotions as agents of social influence: Insights from emotions as social information theory. In S. G. Harkins, K. D. Williams, & J. M. Burger (Eds.). *The Oxford handbook of social influence* (pp. 237-255)*.* Oxford, England: Oxford University Press. doi:10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199859870.013.19

Vuong, Q. H. (1989). Likelihood ratio tests for model selection and non-nested hypotheses. *Econometrica, 57,* 307-333. doi:10.2307/1912557

Walker, L. S. (2015). Social influence. In *The Blackwell encyclopedia of sociology*. American Cancer Society. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405165518.wbeoss154.pub2

Warner, R. M. (2013). Multiple regression with more than two predictors. In V. Knight (Ed.), *Applied statistics: From bivariate through multivariate techniques* (pp. 547-610). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review, 92,* 548-573. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.92.4.548

Wheeler, L. (1966). Toward a theory of behavioral contagion. *Psychological Review, 73,* 179-192.