



Full length article

## Social media at work: The roles of job satisfaction, employment status, and Facebook use with co-workers

Brett W. Robertson<sup>a,\*</sup>, Kerk F. Kee<sup>b</sup><sup>a</sup> Department of Communication Studies, The University of Texas at Austin, 2504A Whitis Ave., #A1105, Austin, TX 78712, United States<sup>b</sup> Department of Communication Studies, Chapman University, 1 University Drive, Orange, CA 92866, United States

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## ABSTRACT

Limited research has studied workplace satisfaction in a computer-mediated context, particularly with the use of social media. Based on an analysis of an online survey of working adults ( $N = 512$ ) in various companies and organizations in a metropolitan area in Southern California, we tested the relationships among time spent on Facebook interacting with co-workers, employment status, and job satisfaction. Results show that an employee's satisfaction at work is positively associated with the amount of time they spend on Facebook interacting with co-workers. Contrary to our initial predictions, results to the second and third hypotheses revealed that part time employees reported having spent the highest amount of time on Facebook with their co-workers, and contract employees reported the highest degree of job satisfaction at work. Results have implications for Facebook as a strategic platform for promoting employee satisfaction at work, and Facebook a social network/ing platform for part time employees seeking further social integration and professional connection.

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### 1. Introduction

Facebook, along with other social media platforms, has infiltrated the traditional workplace. It is not uncommon for co-workers to befriend each other on Facebook, although some people are still cautious about this practice (Hanna, Kee, & Robertson, 2016). In a study by Vitak, Lampe, Ellison, and Gray (2012), they explore Facebook as a professional tool and the ways in which individuals manage work-life boundaries while using social media. Based on a textual analysis using the grounded theory approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), they identified four common themes: social uses of Facebook at work, task-based uses of Facebook at work, context collapse concerns, and strategies for managing context collapse. These themes suggest that Facebook is blurring the boundary between the social and the professional, and this boundary blurring leads to users' privacy concerns and active boundary management.

In a study by McLaughlin and Vitak (2012), they investigate the evolution and violation of norms on Facebook. They report that Facebook users respond differently to violations by acquaintances

and close friends. For example, a negative violation that is considered minor (e.g., untagging oneself from an unflattering photo on Facebook) by an acquaintance is likely to be ignored. However, when the violation is considered major, a user may terminate the friendship connection on Facebook with the acquaintance. Among close friends on Facebook, a negative violation can also lead to offline confrontation. Overall, these findings highlight the importance of studying how users navigate the blurring boundary between the public and the private on Facebook, an interactional phenomenon that becomes even more complicated among co-workers in a professional context, as full time and part time employees along with contract employees and student interns become 'friends' on Facebook.

The distinction between what is public and what is private has been blurred through social media connections (Peluchette, Karl, Coustasse, & Emmett, 2012). Gibbs, Rozaidi, and Eisenberg (2013) argue, "While knowing more about others may improve working relationships, it may also increase awareness of differences and lead to interpersonal conflict" (p. 103). Therefore, users often engage in deliberate self-presentation and active self-monitoring when they have co-workers as friends on Facebook (Peluchette et al., 2012). On the other hand, Vitak et al. (2012) state, "If users are only willing to share 'sterilized' content, they may not be able to engage in meaningful interactions with their network and receive some of the benefits" (p. 2). Within the workplace, these benefits

\* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: [brettwilliam.robertson@gmail.com](mailto:brettwilliam.robertson@gmail.com) (B.W. Robertson), [kerk.kee@gmail.com](mailto:kerk.kee@gmail.com) (K.F. Kee).

could include one's satisfaction of their job.

Despite the understandable concerns discussed above, research on Facebook has shown that its use can lead to positive feelings and emotions. People who actively participate on Facebook (e.g., write Facebook posts, comment on other's status updates, click the 'Like' button to show support of updates) are more likely to experience feelings of connectedness and higher levels of happiness (Valkenburg, Peter, & Schouten, 2006). In fact, Kim and Lee (2011) state that individuals report greater levels of happiness from the number of Facebook friends they have. This may be due to the frequent visualization of Facebook friends, as a visualization can remind users of their social connections, and of subsequent affirmation or enhancement of self-worth and self-esteem.

Taken together, the studies reviewed signal the increasing need to investigate Facebook within the workplace in the age of social media. Sun and Shang (2014) maintain that companies should encourage employees to use social media for work-related tasks. In fact, Leftheriotis and Giannakos (2014) note that social media may offer benefits to organizations by stimulating work performance. By extending the findings of social connectedness and psychological happiness from interpersonal use of Facebook to the workplace, the present study explores if Facebook use among co-workers (who spend varying amount of Facebook time and who are of different employment statuses) is associated with employees' job satisfaction.

## 2. Related work

### 2.1. Enterprise social media and enterprise 2.0

Treem and Leonardi (2012) present a comprehensive literature review of social media in organizations. They note that social media, like Facebook, lists the interests and hobbies of other workers. This provides an easy way for an individual to see who knows what in an organization. In fact, Treem and Leonardi support the use of social media for internal task-efficiency within organizations. They advance the argument to support the available social media options for the purposes of visibility of tasks, work behavior, and the workflow of work-related activities. The ease of access to information about organizational members and their work tasks can facilitate communication and collaboration among co-workers, especially for new and/or other non-full time employees who have limited knowledge about their jobs.

Enterprise social media (ESM), conceptualized by Leonardi, Huysman, and Steinfield (2013), is another term that describes web-based platforms as serving multiple goals within an organization. More specifically, ESM's allow interpersonal communication between specific co-workers and mass communication broadcasted from one worker to everyone else in the same organization. Second, EMS's implicitly and explicitly show who are communication partners among an organization's workers. Third, EMS's allow workers to post, edit, and sort files (e.g., pictures) and text (e.g., comments) that connect themselves or others at work. Finally, EMS's allow the practices of posting, editing, sorting, and connecting the files, text, and participants in a web of relationships to be performed by anyone and accessible by everyone in the organization. Leonardi and colleagues present three metaphors to explain how ESM's have been implemented within organizations: ESM's as a leaky pipe, an echo chamber, and as a social lubricant. These metaphors lend themselves to further investigation of how social media can aid in facilitating relationships among co-workers, especially those of varying employment statuses.

Additionally, McAfee (2009) proposes the term, Enterprise 2.0, to describe how social media can be used within the workplace, such as for collaboration of work-related tasks. He argues that the

concept of Enterprise 2.0 is "[t]he use of technology to bring people together and let them interact, without specifying how they should do so" (p. 2) and "Enterprise 2.0 is all about using technology to bring brains together effectively" (p. 16). Ultimately, Enterprise 2.0 is shorthand for "the use of Web 2.0 technologies by business in pursuit of their goals" (McAfee, 2009, p. 13). Among many examples, he suggested that this could be achieved through the use of wiki's for team projects or groups on Facebook to keep colleagues updated on a project's status. Perhaps by examining an employee's use of social media in the workplace, one can better understand workplace communication, information sharing, and mediated collaboration in current organizational contexts.

Looking at the intersection of social media and communication research, Leonardi et al. (2013) state, "Researchers in the field of communication have focused a good deal on social media use among youth and college students, but they have not considered how such tools are used within organizational contexts" (p. 6). In response to this observation, the present study seeks to extend the ideas to focus on how internal use of Facebook among co-workers may be associated with positive outcomes within the workplace (e.g., job satisfaction) as co-workers of different employment statuses spend varying amount of time on Facebook interacting with each other.

### 2.2. Job satisfaction at work

Job satisfaction is a frequently studied dependent variable in communication research in the workplace (Staw, 1984). Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1297). Employees who are more satisfied with their daily work are more likely to help organizations reach their goals efficiently (Scott & Stephens, 2009). In other words, job satisfaction can reap positive benefits within workplace tasks, roles, and relationships. Organizational research has generally viewed job satisfaction as a variable that is created internally through workplace interactions, practices, routines, and policies.

Leiter and Maslach's (1988) study shows that positive interactions between co-workers are linked to higher levels of job satisfaction and decreased symptoms of job burnout. Their research suggests the importance of creating a climate where individuals feel satisfied with their daily work. The association between job satisfaction and burnout has also been addressed by Kalliath and Morris (2002), stating that there is a negative relationship between burnout and satisfaction of one's job. Perhaps by allowing employees time to utilize social media, both during the workday as a break, and outside of work, job satisfaction may flourish. Given these studies, it is important to understand how job satisfaction can be created through interactions between co-workers, especially through computer-mediated communication in the Internet age.

The report of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (2015) demonstrates the degree of variety in current employment trends in the US. Scholarly literature on organizational socialization and employment status also explains these new developments. In fact, 61% of college students reported participating in an internship program at one point in their collegiate career (NACE, 2014). Dailey (2016) explores the role of internship socialization into full time employment, stating that role of a student intern must be examined to understand how individuals transition to future part-time or full-time employment.

Job satisfaction can be influenced by several factors where employment status can be one of them. Communication researchers have addressed contractual obligation (or short-term employment) to an organization (Gossett, 2001), explaining that temporary or contract employees may identify with organizations

differently, as compared to those with differing employment statuses. Taken together, these new inclinations about how workers are employed justifies the need to study employment status as a factor related to social media use and job satisfaction. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine job satisfaction and its relationship with co-workers' time spent on Facebook (e.g., 10 min to 1 h daily, more than 1 h daily) interacting with each other, as well as their employment status (e.g., full time, part time) within the workplace.

### 3. Research model

The goal of the current research is to extend the social media in organizations literature in two ways. First, we seek to explore the relationship between the amount of time employees spend interacting with co-workers on Facebook and the key variable of job satisfaction, linking this topic to positive organizational scholarship (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2011). Much of what mass media report are stories of how a careless comment on social media get someone fired at work, casting the use of social media about work and/or with co-workers as a negative decision that should be avoided (Sánchez Abril, Levin, & Del Riego, 2012). There is also the assumption that time spent on Facebook during work is time away from real work (Leftheriotis & Giannakos, 2014), making managers create policy that prohibits social media use among employees during work. We seek to shift this negative perspective to highlight potential positive outcomes of Facebook use among co-workers.

Second, we seek to explore if the use of social media can be a timely tool for social connections and community building within the workplace among co-workers with different employment statuses. After the 2008 economic crisis, and the slow recovery over the past years, many companies have continued to keep full time employees at the minimum while expanding the employee base to part time and contract employees, as well as student interns (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015). The observation of this shift raises the question of whether job satisfaction is associated with employment status, and if different types of employees use Facebook differently, especially in terms of time investment. These two overarching goals motivated this study to investigate the following three hypotheses.

#### 3.1. Hypotheses about job satisfaction, time on Facebook with Co-Workers, and employment status

First, prior studies on Facebook use among college students (e.g., Ellison, Steinfield, & Lampe, 2007; Valenzuela, Park, & Kee, 2009) treat time spent on Facebook as a contributing dimension of intensity of Facebook use, which in turn is associated with life satisfaction among students at their university. Furthermore, Facebook use is associated with general happiness (Kim & Lee, 2011; Valkenburg et al., 2006). Therefore, we extend this rationale to the workplace, and propose the first hypothesis:

**H1.** An employee's job satisfaction is positively associated with the amount of time they spend interacting with their co-workers on Facebook.

Second, as Peluchette et al. (2012) point out, social media has blurred the boundary between the private and public, and Vitak et al. (2012) report that co-workers actively manage the collapsing of the personal and the professional on Facebook, we predict that Facebook can be used for promoting interpersonal relationships among co-workers. Full time employees have known each other longer, are more familiar with each other's personal lives outside of work, and are more likely to have an interest in cultivating and maintaining interpersonal relationships with each other

for the long term. Therefore, it is assumed that full time employees will likely spend more time on Facebook interacting with co-workers compared to their non-full time counterparts (e.g., part-time and contract employees as well as student interns and other). Given this rationale, a second hypothesis is advanced:

**H2.** Full time employees spend more time on Facebook interacting with their co-workers, compared to their non-full time counterparts.

Third, given the assumption that having a full time job is most stable and most desirable for workers, it is predicted that full time employees have the higher degree of job satisfaction compared to their counterparts (i.e., part-time and contract employees, as well as student interns and other). Therefore, the following hypothesis predicts:

**H3.** Full time employees experience the highest degree of job satisfaction, compared to their non-full time counterparts.

## 4. Method

### 4.1. Participants

In order to gain an understanding of the topic into the workplace, we recruited working adults as research participants ( $N = 512$ ) from local organizations and companies within a metropolitan area in Southern California, USA. Among the participants, females ( $n = 228$ ) make up 53.9% of the sample (89 respondents did not indicate their gender), ages range from 19 to 82 ( $M = 38.36$ ,  $SD = 14.07$ ). The ethnic makeup is relatively diverse, with 67.4% ( $n = 283$ ) Caucasian, 11% ( $n = 46$ ) Asian or Asian American, 6.7% ( $n = 28$ ) Hispanic or Hispanic American, 4.3% ( $n = 18$ ) Black or African American, 1% ( $n = 4$ ) Native American or Alaskan American, 6% ( $n = 25$ ) mixed ethnicity, and 3.1% ( $n = 16$ ) others (92 respondents did not indicate their ethnicity). In terms of employment status, 70.7% ( $n = 280$ ) are full time, 14.3% ( $n = 60$ ) are part time, 7.4% ( $n = 31$ ) contract, 2.1% ( $n = 9$ ) student interns, and 5.5% ( $n = 23$ ) other (92 respondents did not indicate their employment status).

### 4.2. Design and procedure

An online survey was hosted at [SurveyMonkey.com](http://SurveyMonkey.com) for data collection by the researchers, who are affiliated with a midsize private university in Southern California at the time of data collection. With the approval by the university's Institutional Review Board, students enrolled in an undergraduate communication research methods class recruited sponsors of the survey in various local organizations and companies. The sponsors then sent a recruitment email to co-workers in their companies and invited them to fill out the online survey. Willing participants were first presented with an informed consent statement online, then the actual survey questionnaire after they clicked on the "I Agree" button to confirm their consent. At the end of the survey, participants were shown a thank you statement after they submitted the survey responses. The recruitment method is convenience sampling, as the sponsors then sent a recruitment email to co-workers in their companies and invited them to fill out the online survey. Two rounds of the survey were conducted, the first round in April/May 2013 ( $n = 189$ ) and the second in November/December 2013 ( $n = 323$ ). Out of the total of 512 respondents, 299 provided complete responses without missing data.

Due to the recruitment method via organizational sponsors we employed, we were only able to collect information from some

sponsors on the number of people the survey potentially reached. Some sponsors did not provide this number, and some provided the estimate for the first round of dissemination but stated that they encouraged their co-workers to further disseminate the survey link to other departments and/or branch locations. Based on the information we have on record, it is estimated that the response rate is about 20.19%. Although this response rate is below what is common in organizational research (Baruch & Holtom, 2008), the recruitment method allowed us to include organizations and workers from a myriad of industries, including agriculture, health and medical, insurance, law, manufacturing, media and film, non-profit, real estate, retail, and technology (such as software and web development).

#### 4.3. Instruments

For job satisfaction, we followed the example of Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998) and used the five-item subscale from the job satisfaction scale by Brayfield and Rothe (1951). We chose Brayfield and Rothe's scale because it has been cited widely (about 2500 times according to Google Scholar in December 2016; and Judge et al.'s subscale about 1350 times) and stood the test of time (having been used by researchers for more than 60 years). Furthermore, this scale has been found valid and it is a commonly used measure of job satisfaction in the research literature (Rafferty & Griffin, 2009). Using a Likert-type scale between 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree), survey participants rated the following five items: "I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job," "Most days I am enthusiastic about my work," "Each day of work seems like it will never end" (reversed), "I find real enjoyment in my work," and "I consider my job rather unpleasant" (reversed). After recoding the two reversed items, this 5-item scale achieved a satisfactory reliability of cronbach's alpha = 0.842. The data was recoded into three response categories of low (0–3.25), mid (3.26–4.0), and high (4.1–5.0) in order to create a balanced data distribution in three ranked categories for comparisons.

For time spent using Facebook with co-workers, we adapted the time-related item from Ellison, Steinfield, and Lampe's (2007) intensity of Facebook use scale. The use of single item measures, including if the item is a question of self-reported facts (e.g., age, level of education, number of previous jobs), is not uncommon in organizational research (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997). In health research, using a single item of global self-rated health has been found to be a good predictor of mortality in a series of longitudinal studies based on community representative samples (Idler & Benyamini, 1997). Following this logic, Hanna, Kee, and Robertson (2016) use a single item to measure (objective) time spent on Facebook, and find that they employee group which spent the most amount of time interacting with each other on Facebook reported a statistically significant higher degree of perceived job calling compared to the employee group which spent the least amount of time on Facebook.

Modeling after Hanna, Kee, and Robertson (2016), the time-related item we used to measure (objective) clock time in this study is, "In a typical work week, approximately how much time per day (including during breaks, after work, during the weekend, etc.) do you spend on Facebook interacting with people from work?" with response choices: 'less than 10 min,' '10–30 min,' '31–60 min,' '1–2 h,' '2–3 h,' and 'more than 3 h'. Because some response categories received low number of responses, the data was recoded into three response categories of low (less than 10 min), mid (10 min–1 h), and high (more than 1 h) in order to create a balanced data distribution in three ranked categories for comparisons.

Finally, for employment status, we asked participants, "What is

your current employment status with this organization?" with the following response choices: 'Full time employee,' 'Part time employee,' 'Contract employee,' 'Student intern,' and 'Other'. Because the last two choices received low number of responses, they were combined into a single nominal category of 'Student Intern and Other' for subsequence analyses.

## 5. Results

$H_1$  investigates the association between an employee's job satisfaction with the amount of time spent on Facebook interacting with co-workers. Both the variables of time spent on Facebook with co-workers and job satisfaction were recoded into ranked categories of low, mid, and high prior to the analysis. The one-tailed Spearman's rho correlation test revealed a statistically significant relationship between the amount of time spent on Facebook interacting with co-workers and job satisfaction ( $r_s[306] = 0.134$ ,  $p = 0.009$ ). Squaring the correlation coefficients indicated that 1.8% of the variance in the percent of job satisfaction was explained by the amount of Facebook time with co-workers. Similarly, 1.8% of the variance in the Facebook time spent with co-workers was accounted for by the presence of job satisfaction.

$H_2$  explores the association between employee's Facebook time with co-workers and employee groups across employment status, with the prediction that full time employees are likely to spend the most amount of time cultivating social relationships with each other. A Chi-square test was conducted to assess whether employees of various employment statuses differed in their level of job satisfaction. The result for this test was statistically significant:  $\chi^2(4, N = 306) = 26.21$ ,  $p < 0.001$ .

As a post hoc analysis, six pairwise comparisons were calculated to determine where the actual differences lie. To correct for Type I error in this procedure, a Dunn-Sidak procedure was conducted to correct for possible compounded error due to the six pairwise comparisons. The new calculated alpha level is  $p < 0.009$ . Based on the new alpha level, only one pairwise comparison was found to be statistically significant: between full time employees and part time employees. The results indicate that part time employees, instead of full time employees and contract employees, reported spending the most amount of time on Facebook interacting with co-workers. Table 1 (in Appendix) contains the Chi-square statistics for all the pairwise comparisons.

Finally,  $H_3$  states that job satisfaction varies across employees with different employment status, with the prediction that full time employees are likely to report the highest degree of job satisfaction compared to their non-full time counterparts. Using job satisfaction as a continuous variable, an oneway ANOVA test showed that there was a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction across groups defined by their job status [ $F(3, 401) = 3.008$ ,  $p = 0.03$ ]. In order to ensure the appropriate use of inferential statistics, the underlying assumptions of an oneway ANOVA (see Wrench, Thomas-Maddox, Richmond, & McCroskey, 2008) were checked and verified to have been met. The Levine's test of homogeneity of variances was statistically significant ( $p = 0.026$ ), therefore post hoc comparisons using the Games Howell test was performed. Results indicated that the mean score of job satisfaction for contract employees ( $M = 4.18$ ,  $SD = 0.42$ ) was significantly different from full time employees ( $M = 3.78$ ,  $SD = 0.76$ ). Also, contract employees reported a significantly higher job satisfaction than part time employees ( $M = 3.84$ ,  $SD = 0.60$ ). Table 2 (in Appendix) contains the ANOVA statistics.

## 6. Discussion and implications

Overall, this study reported the findings that an employee's job

satisfaction is positively associated with the amount of time they spend on Facebook interacting with co-workers. Contrary to our initial predictions, results to the second and third hypotheses revealed that part time employees reported spending the greatest amount of time on Facebook with their co-workers, and contract employees reported the highest degree of job satisfaction at work. This study has five major implications with theoretical and practical impacts.

Theoretically, first the study shows that Facebook use among co-workers is positively associated with satisfaction at work. As organizational scholars and management practitioners have learned from the Hawthorne studies by Elton Mayo that sparked the human relations movement, job satisfaction and social relationships between co-workers matter, and intangibly promoting satisfying social relationships in the workplace can lead the tangible outcome of productivity and profit for the organization (Miller, 2012). The findings from this study theoretically add to the literature by showing that social media, such as Facebook, can aid in fostering employees' job satisfaction in modern organizations.

Second, the literature on work (Conway & Briner, 2002; Eberhardt & Shani, 1984) may be modified, as the common assumption that having a full time and/or permanent position in an organization is the most satisfying employment status is no longer the case. Interestingly, contract employees reported the highest level of job satisfaction compared to their full time and part time counterparts. Perhaps contract employees are professionals who have their own consulting practices. They were included in the data because they worked on a limited term basis for the organizations we surveyed. Therefore, they are satisfied with their real employment status as an independent consultant regardless of their contract status with the organizations.

Third, social media-related variables (such as time spent interacting with co-workers on Facebook) matter more than demographics in the association with job satisfaction. In response to the manuscript reviews to test if demographic variables are associated with job satisfaction, we conducted additional analyses. Results show that gender [ $t(405) = 0.436, p > 0.05$ ], ethnicity [ $F(0.563, 208.895) = 0.179, p > 0.05$ ], and age [ $r(396) = 0.015, p > 0.05$ ] are not statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction in the organizations we surveyed. These findings suggest that in the age of Internet and social media, the traditional research attachment to demographics as stable grouping dimensions is limiting, at least in this case.

However, an oneway ANOVA comparing job satisfaction scores across employees who self-identified as active users, discontinuers, deactivators, potentials, and resisters of Facebook at work, yielded a statistically significant result [ $F(4, 395) = 3.094, p = 0.016$ ]. The Levene's test of homogeneity of variances was not significant ( $p = 0.103$ ), therefore post hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni test was performed. Results indicated that the mean score of job satisfaction for active users of Facebook (defined by 'I have added people from work to my Facebook network, and I intend to continue doing that';  $M = 3.9039, SD = 0.68$ ) was significantly higher than Facebook discontinuers (defined by 'I have added people from work to my Facebook network, but I stopped doing that. In the meantime, my Facebook account is still 'active'';  $M = 3.54, SD = 0.89$ ). Not only do these results show that Facebook use does differentiate employees of varying levels of job satisfaction, they suggest that a more fruitful way to categorize survey respondents is by their Internet usage patterns, values, and beliefs, an approach advocated by Dutton and Blank (2015).

Practically, organizations may consider designing programs to promote the use of Facebook among co-workers and revising old policy banning the use of Facebook during work time in light of the findings. As shown in this study, as well as the study by Hanna,

and Robertson (2016), time spent on Facebook interacting with coworkers is associated with a higher degree of job satisfaction (reported in this study) and a higher degree of perceived job calling (reported in Hanna, Kee, & Robertson, 2016). It may be a misconception to treat time spent on Facebook as non-productive and time away from real work. In fact, time spent on Facebook interacting with co-workers may cultivate positive organizational dynamics that can improve the quality of professional life.

Finally, this study suggests that Facebook can be strategically and concurrently used as a social network tool (Boyd & Ellison, 2007) and a social networking tool (Beer, 2008) for part time employees. Contrary to our initial prediction, part time employees turn out to be the group that reported having spent the most amount of time interacting with co-workers on Facebook. Perhaps part time employees feel less integrated within their organizations in the offline space. Therefore, they actively use Facebook as a social network tool to create a stronger sense of integration with their organizations in the online space. Furthermore, it is possible that part time employees use Facebook as a social networking tool with the hope to increase their likelihood of being hired as full time employees when the budget becomes available. Findings suggest that Facebook may play different and concurrent roles for workers with different employment statuses.

### 6.1. Limitations and future research

Findings from this study should be interpreted within the scope of some limitations. First, the data was collected in 2013. Given the wider adoption of Facebook and other social media sites within the workplace and a better general economic condition today, future research can investigate if the associations and differences reported in this research remain the same. Second, the scale we used to measure job satisfaction has a focus on the notion of 'work,' such as in the statement "I find real enjoyment in my work." In response to the items in the job satisfaction scale, perhaps what participants responded to was a measure of work (which defines them as a professional, an expression of their talents, skills, and passions), and not simply their job (something to be done as a responsibility or task in exchange for a paycheck). Future research should tease apart the notions of satisfaction for one's work and satisfaction for one's job, perhaps in a new scale development study. Third, future research can perform an experiment to replicate and verify the causal relationship between social media interaction as an independent variable and job satisfaction as a dependent variable. Performing an experiment can also increase the randomness in the data, which is another limitation of the current sample for parametric statistical tests.

Finally, the study used a single item to measure time from Ellison, Steinfield, and Lampe's (2007) scale of Intensity of Facebook Use. While the use of a single item may be appropriate for the goal of this study, which is to measure clock time, future studies can adapt the entire scale by Ellison et al. (2007) to measure the intensity of Facebook use among co-workers, instead of just clock time, to investigate the relationships between Facebook use and various organizational variables. Also, a more complex construct of time is organizational temporality, which can be measured by using Ballard and Seibold's (2003) scale to understand how employees experience time at work (e.g., urgency, pace, scarcity, nonlinearity). Last, scholars can take a qualitative approach to understand how co-workers use Facebook, beyond simply in terms of the amount of clock time. This will help us further grasp what social media interactions look like inside and outside the workplace.

## Appendix

**Table 1**

Chi-square comparison table of pairs of employees with different employment status.

Employment status (n)	$\chi^2$ (1)	p
Full time (123) vs. Part time (18)	20.51	0.000*
Full time (123) vs. Contract (14)	1.24	0.536
Full time (123) vs. Student intern/other (11)	1.33	0.514
Part time (18) vs. Contract (14)	8.72	0.013
Part time (18) vs. Student intern/other (11)	2.57	0.277
Contract (14) vs. Student intern/other (11)	2.561	0.278

\*p < 0.009.

**Table 2**

One-way analysis of variance of job satisfaction by employment status.

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Between groups	3	4.57	1.52	3.008	0.03
Within groups	401	203.18	0.51		
Total	404	207.75			

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