PhD thesis

Investigating UK academics' professional social media use: a qualitative analysis using the lenses of digital literacy, UTAUT and the concept of boundary work

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Investigating UK Academics' Professional Social Media Use
A Qualitative Analysis Using the Lenses of Digital Literacy, UTAUT and The Concept of Boundary Work

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Abstract

The integration of social media platforms in academic processes at UK Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) is on the rise. Currently, digital literacy development programmes focus on increasing academics' engagement with platforms and little attention is given to well-being associated with digital disengagement leading to increasing workloads and the blur between personal and professional boundaries. Even so, it is not clear *Why and how academics negotiate boundaries related to their professional social media use? What affects academics' decision-making about their intentions to use or not to use social media*? *Why and how do academics learn to use social media professionally*? and *Which digital competencies do academics require to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with social media?* The present study addressed these questions, in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement, through a qualitative mixed-method research design comprising six virtual focus groups (n=35) and one online survey (n=172).

The findings of the present study show academics' dynamic engagement in boundary work when they make decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media. Academics negotiated boundaries with students, colleagues, support staff, external experts, the public, other academics, activists, research communities and industries. Key challenges appeared to be associated with the predominant ambivalent beliefs about technology and resulted in academics' complexities to understand and manage ethical and identity dilemmas. Their decisions were infused with social influences and affective reactions that appeared to lead to paradoxical experiences and potential negative consequences (e.g., stress, anxiety and exceeding cognitive capacities) for their well-being. Therefore, it seems important for academics to learn to use social media through the building of digital competencies provided by the novel contribution of the TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework that may enable and support academics' holistic decision-making about their engagement and disengagement with platforms towards sustainable development and maintenance of their well-being.

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I am writing these acknowledgements in the National Gallery in room 19 after we walked through rooms 15 and 16. I found it to be the perfect place to write this last piece as it represents the past, present and future. The most important for me during the last three years have been and will always be my personal relationships. The biggest supporter of my academic career is my husband Sathish, who is the love of my life, who likes me exactly the way I am and the only thing he wants is my happiness. He is one of the greatest husbands in the world and I am most thankful for all his ongoing support. Then there are the kids, Suriyan and Nila who became wonderful independent little people, and I am so proud, happy and thankful for their motivational little speeches and their enthusiasm and the ease they bring to my life. Thank you all so much for the great love and care that I have been privileged to experience. I love you all to the moon and back!

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-Christa Sathish-

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List of Abbreviations

ASNS: Academics Social Networking Sites

CPD: Continuous Professional Development

ESA: Emotional Self-Awareness

FoMO: Fear-of-Missing-Out

HE: Higher Education

HEIs: Higher Education Institutions

PTSD: Post Traumatic Stress Syndrome

SNS: Social Networking Sites

TeSEmo: Techno-Social-Emotional

UTAUT: Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology

VLE: Virtual Learning Environment

Chapter 1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the context for the PhD project: *Investigating UK Academics' Professional Social Media Use*. The study explores *how* and *why* academics make decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. The exploration comprises the theoretical foundation of digital literacy and the theoretical considerations of the concept of boundary work and the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT). The study addresses a current knowledge gap in research about academics' digital competencies by utilising a multi-level, mixed-method research approach. Addressing this gap, the study's key contribution to theory is a novel digital competency framework that promises to be practically applicable at academics' personal, professional and institutional levels. The study also contributes empirical knowledge about the digital literacy phenomenon in UK Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) calling for important changes in how HEIs train and develop academics' digital literacy. This chapter provides the background of the study, the rationale of the study, the purpose of the study, the research aims, objectives and research questions, the value of the study, the conceptual framework and the structure of the thesis.

1.1 The Background: Platforms in Higher Education

Following Carrigan and Jordan (2022, p.354), platforms are "digital infrastructures which enable multiple parties to interact with each other at a distance". It seems that the bulk of UK academic activities currently faces increasing *platformisation,* the integration of platforms in Higher Education (HE) processes, caused by the fast emergence of new digital platforms such as social media (Carrigan and Jordan, 2022). HE departments commonly adopt an online presence to promote their teaching and research as well as to communicate with multiple internal and external stakeholders (Carrigan and Jordan, 2021; Jordan, 2022). This is somewhat unsurprising given that currently 4.62 billion, more than fifty per cent of the global population, including academics, use social media (Chaffey, 2022). Historically the development of social media technologies followed the development of Web 2.0, in 2006, also called the social web, which was invented by Tim O'Reilly (van Dijck, 2013). Web 2.0 has been enabling people to interact and participate with others through various activities such as producing, consuming or prosuming [both] content and information. Web 2.0 comprises billions of users and constitutes a myriad of new evolving social media technologies (Naik and Shivalingaiah, 2009). The development of various social media technologies delivers a field of complexity to define social media.

Numerous scholars (such as Boyd and Ellison, 2010; Trottier and Fuchs, 2014; van Dijck, 2013) contribute to the definition of social media from various perspectives. Derived from Boyd and Ellison (2010), Kane *et al.* (2014), Kietzmann *et al.* (2011), Treem *et al.* (2016) and van Dijck (2013) social media are Web 2.0 digital technologies, which can be defined based on their social (e.g., cognition, communication, and cooperation), functional (e.g., affordances) and behavioural (e.g., consumer, producer or prosumer) classifications. As stated by Treem *et al.* (2016) there are multiple types of social media, which are subordinated groups of digital media such as blogs, social networking sites (SNS), wikis, or microblogging. Academics' professional social media use in the present study focuses on Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Reviewed literature, for instance, Arquero and Romero-Frías (2013), Legaree (2015) and Manca and Ranieri (2016a) commonly explain the challenges and opportunities of academics' use of SNS for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. However, there is a knowledge gap because such reviewed literature misses explaining which digital competencies may benefit academics' understanding and management of opportunities and challenges associated with decisions about engagement and disengagement with SNS. Therefore, in order to contribute knowledge to this gap, the present study focuses on SNS while excluding other online locations, for instance, wikis or blogs that may be beneficial to academics.

According to Boyd and Ellison (2008, p.211), SNS are a specific type of social media, and are;

> Web-based services that allow individuals to (1) construct a public or semi-public profile within a bounded system, (2) articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection, and (3) view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system.

The present study focuses on two types of SNS; high-profile social media platforms (Barrot, 2021) such as Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter, YouTube, Instagram, or Pinterest, and Academics Social Networking Sites (ASNS) comprising platforms like ResearchGate and Academia.edu. The use of social media (such as SNS) increasingly becomes an expectation for academics' Networking & Public Engagement and Teaching & Learning (Barrot, 2021; Jordan, 2022). Regarding Networking & Public Engagement, 'Networking' is defined as "a system of trying to meet and talk to other people who may be useful to you in your work" (Oxford Learners Dictionaries, 2023b) and the National Co-ordinating Centre for Public Engagement (2022) defines public engagement as;

the myriad of ways in which the activity and benefits of higher education and research can be shared with the public. Engagement is by definition a two-way process, involving interaction and listening, with the goal of generating mutual benefit.

Carrigan (2020), in his book about social media for academics, argues that while platform affordances enable academics to raise their academic profiles through networking and engagement with a global public audience, there are multiple challenges due to academics' exposure to potential cyber-risks, such as hate or harassment. Furthermore, various studies (such as Dermentzi and Papagiannids, 2018; Donelan, 2016; Jordan and Weller, 2018a) address SNS affordances associated with academics' Networking & Public Engagement. Even so, these studies commonly do not mention digital competencies that academics may require to train and develop in order to manage potential challenges and opportunities. Nevertheless, according to Jordan (2022), challenges (e.g., exposure to cyber-risks) indicate the importance of academics' social media training and development so that they can navigate on platforms and mitigate potential negative consequences. Nevertheless, we do not know enough about which digital competencies academics may require to train and develop in order to make decisions about their social media use as well as the ways they may learn to use social media for Networking & Public Engagement.

On the other hand, as stated by Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham (2020) who conducted focus groups with UK academics, contemporary technology (such as social media) has long been used for Teaching & Learning, which is "a transformation process of knowledge from teachers to students (Munna and Kalam, 2021, p.1)". In addition, in a bibliometric analysis of 2215 international, Scopus-indexed, scientific literature between 2007-2019, Barrot (2021a) demonstrates increasing pressure, derived from platform accessibility and popularity, for academics to integrate social media in Teaching & Learning. More so, social media is increasingly used in education because of social media's flexible pedagogical affordances (Barrot, 2021a).

However, Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham (2020) mention the integration of social media in Teaching & Learning may be complex and may depend on the understanding of social relationships and platform affordances. Manca (2020) supports this in an analysis of 46 studies in the context of social media's pedagogical affordances. Accordingly, social media are not specifically designed for educational purposes and, therefore, understanding the nature of platform affordances and resulting opportunities and challenges is important. Platform affordances are widely addressed by various scholars (such as Bahati, 2015; Çevik

Çelik , Haslaman, 2014; Manca and Ranieri, 2017; Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020; Rambe and Nel, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2012) who elucidate multiple challenges (such as collaboration, improved communication or building of rapport with students) and opportunities (like distraction during classes, perception of low usefulness and accessibility) posed by the integration of social media in Teaching & Learning. These scholars conversely present challenges and opportunities and prescribe social media training and development for academics' efficient integration of platforms in professional practices. Nonetheless, we do not know enough about which digital competencies academics may require to train and develop in order to make decisions about their social media use for Teaching & Learning, as well as the ways they may decide to train and develop such competencies.

More so, Jisc (2021a), the UK provider of digital development programmes for HEIs, states digital literacy is critical to the development of UK HE. As outlined in Section 2.1, the present study defines digital literacy as *the ability to make holistic decisions about engagement and disengagement with digital technologies*, which requires academics to build multiple digital competencies (see Section 2.2) based on their individualistic personal and professional needs. Jisc's (2023) main aim is to benefit HEIs through training and developing academics' digital competencies in order to increase the integration of platforms to enhance professional performance. Jisc (2021a) mentions benefits such as; improved quality of education, the attraction of global students, improvements of processes and organisational capacity as well as maximising of investment in learning technologies. However, as explained in what follows, the aim to train and develop academics' digital competencies in order to improve professional performance excludes current key issues of digital disengagement, well-being and job performance, blurred boundaries, limited techno-social affordances and behavioural intentions to use platforms.

1.2 The Rationale of the Study

1.2.1 Digital Disengagement

As argued by Kuntsman and Miyake (2019, p.906), digital disengagement is a continuum of multidimensional practices that may involve conscious decision-making about disconnection (socially, emotionally or physically) from digital spaces and/or social or behavioural situations, and the ability to connect with and through digital technology. The right to disconnect, in an educational environment, is defined by CIPD (2022) as

A right to disconnect allows employees to disconnect from work outside of normal working hours. With a huge cohort of employees working from home on devices that have been issued by the organisation they work for, many staff are finding it difficult to switch off and are increasingly working out of hours. The right to disconnect is therefore a system that works against this.

In light of this, introduced by Light (2014, p.16-17) in his book about disconnecting with SNS, disconnective practice "involves potential modes of disengagement with the connective affordances of SNS in relationship to a particular site, within a particular site, between and amongst different sites and in relation to the physical world." Following Light (2014), disconnective practices are components of academics' decision-making, which determine the extent of connection and disconnection through automated, manual, human or non-human actions. In addition, Kuntsman and Miyake (2019, p.907) extend Light's (2014) concept of disconnection with the need to consider sociocultural and economic pressure as well as platform affordances that influence the decisions about the return to platforms after deliberate disengagement or the use despite decisions of non-use. For example, peer pressure or Fear-of-Missing-Out may result in the re-negotiation of disengagement (Light, 2014). In this sense, digital disengagement is multi-dimensional and may be prone to constant negotiations and re-negotiations within digital environments. Nevertheless, Fast (2021), who talks about disconnective work in post-digital capitalism, shows that digital disconnection through engagement with technology (e.g., calendars and timers), which is fuelled by platformisation, may lead to increased workload due to extra tasks and, therefore, may negatively affect the well-being.

Therefore, digital environments are increasingly complex and, as stated by some scholars (e.g., Gui, Fasoli and Carradore, 2017; Nguyen, 2021), digital competencies may be important in order to control overload, overuse of- and disengagement with- digital technology to benefit digital well-being. Digital well-being is defined by Büchi (2021, p.4) as an "individuals' affect (e.g. positive emotions), domain satisfaction (e.g. one's relationships or job), and overall life satisfaction in a social environment characterised by the constant abundance of digital media use options." This is corroborated by some scholars (e.g., Dienlin and Johannes, 2020; Meier and Reinecke, 2020; Valkenburg, 2022) who conversely state that multiple aspects of digital media (such as social media) may affect well-being. In addition, some scholars (e.g., Fast, 2021; Pellerin *et al.*, 2023; Vanden Adeele *et al.*, 2022; Varela-Castro *et al.*, 2022) argue that digital disengagement and digital well-being are ways that may enable a mindful use of digital technology towards the development of sustainable well-being and improved personal and professional performances. Ruggeri *et al.* (2020)

define well-being as;

> the combination of feeling good and functioning well; the experience of positive emotions such as happiness and contentment as well as the development of one's potential, having some control over one's life, having a sense of purpose, and experiencing positive relationships.

Well-being appears to be linked to successful personal and professional performances (Badri, 2019; Ruggeri *et al.*, 2020; Samad, Muchiri and Shahid, 2022). As mentioned by Badri (2019) there may be multiple factors that may affect academics' well-being associated with personal and professional lives. Good well-being, for example, good work-life balance, may result in improved mental and physical health as well as improved job performance. On the other hand, developing and preserving good well-being appears to be challenging due to the changing professional roles, the emergence of new technologies and social media. Therefore, poor well-being may lead to low mental and physical health, for example, burnout, stress and depression, as well as poor job satisfaction and performance (Badri, 2019).

Following Fast (2021), *knowledge workers*, "people employed to produce or analyse ideas and information" (Collins Dictionary, 2023), may experience health issues due to the extensive use of digital technology. Even though a lack of consideration of well-being associated with digital disengagement is reflected by Skelton (2023a) who shows Jisc's aim to train and develop digital competencies in order to enhance professional performance. Jisc (2022a) takes a *social-media-as-tools* approach that treats platforms as usable objects, with resulting consequences (opportunities and challenges) for academics' professional activities (Carrigan and Jordan, 2021). Indeed, Jisc's (2022a) focus is on enabling functional and critical digital competencies in order to increase the integration of digital platforms in academic processes, based on how the institution sees the professional social media use by their academics.

While Jisc (2022a) addresses academics' digital well-being, not enough information is provided about which digital competencies may support digital disengagement. Given that various scholars (e.g., Fast, 2021; Kuntsman and Miyake, 2019; Pellerin *et al.*, 2023; Vanden Abeele *et al.*, 2022; Varela-Castro *et al.*, 2022) demonstrate that digital disengagement may benefit the well-being and job performance there is a clear lack of knowledge about which digital competencies academics' may require to train and develop in order to disengage with digital technology. More so, following Pellerin *et al.* (2023) and Varela-Castro *et al.* (2022), creating awareness and learning how to digitally disengage may

be important for academics to sustainably maintain their well-being and job performance.

1.2.2 Well-Being and Job Performance

Academics' well-being appears to be at risk for several decades. In the 1990s, Blix *et al.* (1994) conducted a representative survey with 400 US academics and show almost half reported psychological health problems and the majority considered this to negatively affect their performance. Additionally, resulting from a survey with 2000 UK academics, Kinman (1998) demonstrate more than half of the questioned academics reported unhappiness, depression and sleep disturbance. In the 2000s, Kinman and Jones (2008) who conducted a 12-item general health questionnaire with 844 UK academics reported psychological distress. Also to note, Torp, Lysfjord and Midje (2018), who conducted a questionnaire in 2014 with Norwegian academics (N=2186), show academics' work-life conflicts may result from high professional demands and role overload, which appear to negatively affect (e.g., stress, low mental and physical health or burnout) their well-being and job performance. In this sense clearly, academics' health appears to be not enough addressed by HEIs as decades later we appear to see further degradation of academics' well-being and job performance.

The lack of attention given to academics' well-being and job performance associated with the *platformisation* of HEI processes may be due to utopian views of technology (technology as the means to perfect society). This is recently reflected by Jayman, Glazzard and Rose (2022) who state that a solution for academics' well-being crisis in HE is the integration of digital technology for making well-being interventions (such as psychological interventions) available to academics. Their position appears to reflect the utopian view of technology, which is deterministic and conceives digital technology as the means to *perfect* academia. Nonetheless, such deterministic approaches may obscure the broader, ambivalent (embracing nuances in human-technology interactions) understanding of *why* and *how* digital technology may affect academics' well-being and job performance.

Ambivalent understanding is indeed important because academics' well-being appears to be at risk due to increasing *platformisation.* Indeed, platformisation may result in system features, information and communication overload that may negatively affect academics' well-being and job performance. This is shown by Lee, Son and Kim (2016) who conducted a survey study (online and offline) about ICT overload and SNS fatigue on a sample of 250 Korean university members. Lee, Son and Kim (2016, p.53) define SNS fatigue as "a subjective and self-evaluated feeling of tiredness from SNS usage" caused by information,

communication and system feature overload. In a similar line, Lauri, Virkus and Heidmets (2021) conducted a mixed method (two focus groups, N=14 and semi-structured interviews, N=17) study about information cultures and strategies for coping with information load in four Estonian HEIs. Masood *et al.* (2002, p.3) define information overload as "the state induced by a large amount of information generated on SNS, which beats the capacity a user can process". Lauri, Virkus and Heidmets's (2021) findings demonstrate that information overload may also be the cause of academics' heavy workloads and the increasing need of adopting multiple roles and digital communication channels (e.g., social media, and email). As explained by Lee, Son and Kim (2016), increasing expectations to use SNS may require increased energy to meet the needs of stakeholders. Therefore, this may cause SNS fatigue, which may exceed users' cognitive capacities and may lead to potential negative consequences (such as stress) for academics' well-being and job performance.

Furthermore, Fetherston *et al.* (2021) who recently conducted a representative survey study including 605 Australian and 313 UK academics, shows increasing digitisation of processes may fuel academics' already heavy workloads and poses negative consequences for their physical and mental well-being and job performance. A potential reason appears to be academics' blurred personal and professional lives due to the use of digital technology outside working hours (Fetherston *et al.*, 2021). What is striking is that Fetherston *et al.*'s (2021) findings show that approximately half of the academic population experienced psychological distress due to two potential causes related to digitalisation. First, the habit of academics is to check and use technology outside of working hours. Second, the tendency of heavy workloads and habitual behaviour associated with technology-based communication that takes place outside of working hours may lead to workaholism (addictive work behaviour), which can also be the cause of increasing workloads.

This is also supported by Hanitzsch (2022) who reported preliminary findings at the 9th European Communication Conference. Their findings indicate that 73% of the questioned academics experience difficulties to balance their personal and professional life and 39% appear to be at some risk of burnout. Given the increasing strains of platformisation on well-being and job performances due to the blur of personal and professional lives it is, therefore, important to understand which digital competencies may require to train and develop in order to understand and manage such blurred boundaries.

1.2.3 Blurred Boundaries

The aforementioned spillover, of personal and professional lives, is frequently addressed as the difficulties to manage personal and professional boundaries within academics' Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement (Carrigan, 2020; Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020). A *boundary* is "a real or imagined line that marks the limits or edges of something and separates it from other things or places" (Oxford Learners Dictionaries, 2023a). Derived from the above it is clear that academics appear to struggle to negotiate personal and professional boundaries and, therefore, their well-being and job performance may be at risk. Some scholars (e.g., Arquero and Romero-Frías, 2013; Carrigan, 2020; Legaree, 2015; Manca and Ranieri, 2016a) address academics' professional social media use boundaries in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Even so, they do not explain the ways and reasons for academics' negotiations and re-negotiations of their professional social media use boundaries between themselves and stakeholders. Therefore, the present study uses the concept of boundary work to explore *why* and *how* academics may negotiate such boundaries.

Boundary work attempts to explain the processes of how boundaries are created and re-created and what they are comprised of (Carlson and Lewis, 2019; Oldenhof, Stoopendaal and Putters, 2016). In terms of academics' social media use, the present study defines boundary work as *the process by which academics aim to create and re-create boundaries in their social media use which demarcates their use from that of other communities*. Therefore, boundaries are the demarcations that are created and re-created when academics use social media professionally. Scholars like Arquero and Romero-Frías (2013), Legaree (2015) and Manca and Ranieri (2016a) appear to make clear distinctions between benefits and challenges when discussing academics' professional social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Even so, there is a gap in current knowledge because the existing literature does not address the dynamic, malleable, socially-constructed boundaries that do not take a fixed positive or negative form (Gieryn, 1999). Moreover, we do not know enough about which digital competencies academics may require in order to holistically negotiate boundaries, in consideration of their well-being and job performance, between themselves and their stakeholders.

Understanding academics' boundary negotiations on platforms are also important due to the increased unknown audience on platforms and academics' increasing exposure to online risks, such as racism, hate or homophobia (see Jordan, 2022). This is corroborated by Oksanen *et al.* (2021) who conducted a large-scale survey study about online hate and

harassment of 2,492 Finnish academics. Their findings show that 30% of the questioned academics reported online harassment associated with increased psychological distress as well as Post Traumatic Stress Syndrome (PTSD). Oksanen *et al.* (2021) explain that platform affordances may facilitate the sharing and the spreading of a myriad of content that is visible to a broad limitless audience may increase cybercrimes. There is clear concern among scholars (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Lauri, Virkus and Heidmets, 2021) that academics' exposure to too much content makes it almost impossible for them to know how, in what ways and how far and with whom content may be shared due the wide visibility, persistence, spreadability and accessibility of content. Hence, their exposure to online risks appears to be high due to the difficulties to evaluate unknown audiences.

Despite knowing much about academics' exposure to potential online risks, we do not know enough about how academics can learn to circumvent negative consequences, derived from platform affordances for their well-being and job performance. Indeed, the literature does not inform about which digital competencies academics may require for making holistic decisions about their social media use. This, therefore, renders it more urgent to explore *why* and *how* academics negotiate boundaries between themselves and stakeholders. In addition, it is important to understand *why* and *how* platform affordances may affect academics' decision-making about their potential intentions (e.g., engagement and disengagement) to use social media professionally.

1.2.4 Limited Techno-Social Platform Affordances

Various scholars (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Chugh and Ruhi, 2018; Jordan, 2022; Manca and Ranieri, 2016b; Williams and Woodacre, 2016) who use SNS affordances to either describe or investigate academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement commonly adopt a techno-social perspective (Boyd and Ellison, 2010; Treem and Leonardi, 2013). In that sense, these scholars assume that social media's technological and social characteristics may shape academics' activities, but do not consider how such characteristics may influence academics' well-being and job performance. In light of the aforementioned evidence of academics' well-being, recent conceptual research, about social media's emotional affordances, by Steinert and Dennis (2022) shows a potential link between emotional affordances and well-being. Although the aforementioned studies demonstrate various opportunities and challenges associated with SNS affordances, they do not give attention to emotional affordances, nor explicitly address academics' well-being and job performance. Therefore, this shows a clear gap in current research and there appears to be a potential need to re-conceptualise the way we understand and use SNS affordances in

consideration of academics' well-being and job performance.

Furthermore, recent studies (e.g., Donelan, 2016; Khlusova, 2021; Manca, 2020; Manca and Ranieri, 2016b; Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020; Williams and Woodacre, 2016) conversely discuss opportunities and challenges, which derive from platform affordances (Treem and Leonardi, 2013), in the context of academics' Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. These opportunities and challenges represent *what* platforms enable or constrain academics to do when they use social media professionally. Indeed, challenges seem to represent points of improvement aiming at increasing academics' social media use through, for example, institutional support or digital training and development (see Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020). However, this perspective does not inform us about *why* and *how* academics' behavioural intentions associated with decisions about engagement or disengagement with social media for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement may be influenced.

In view of all that has been said, academics may experience boundary struggles associated with identity and ethical dilemmas as well as increasing exposure to cyber-risks, which all lead to potential negative consequences for their well-being and job performance. Nevertheless, we do not know enough about which digital competencies academics may require in order to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms. Therefore, it is important to understand *why*, *how* and *what* influences academics' behavioural intentions to make such decisions.

1.2.5 Behavioural Intentions

Behavioural intention is a factor that features in the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) developed by Venkatesh *et al.* (2003). The original UTAUT model is a numeric measuring instrument, comprising eight measuring constructs (See Table 10). The UTAUT's two focal points are *behavioural intention* and the *actual use* of systems, which influences the decisions about the acceptance or non-acceptance of technology. Some studies (such as Alabi and Mutula, 2018; Gunasinghe *et al.*, 2020; Hu, Laxman and Lee, 2020; Radovan and Kristl, 2017; Tseng *et al.*, 2022) used the UTAUT model quantitatively to investigate academics' professional social media use. These studies employ the UTAUT construct-specific questions in order to measure which constructs may influence academics' acceptance of social media. In that sense, these studies focus on the use of the system and do not contribute a rich understanding of *why, how*, and *what* may influence academics' decisions about their potential intentions to use social media.

On the other hand, such understanding has been sought, even though widely underexplored, through the qualitative use of the UTAUT. The qualitative use of the UTAUT constructs allows the questioning of *why*, *how* and *what* may influence academics' decisions about their potential intentions to use social media. Using the UTAUT qualitatively is important because it may enable the understanding of academics' decision-making about their potential engagement and disengagement with social media. Even so, there is a clear gap in the literature because it appears only two interview studies in the context of HE used the UTAUT qualitatively. Saleem, Al-Saqri and Ahmad (2016) investigated the acceptance of Moodle for Teaching & Learning and Gruzd, Staves and Wilk (2012) investigated academics' use of social media for scholarly communication.

Indeed Gruzd, Staves and Wil (2012) contribute the only qualitative UTAUT study to date, which focuses on academics' social media use and the recommendation for future research to include anxiety, self-efficacy and attitude toward using technology. Given that academics' well-being and job performance is a central consideration of this study and emphasise SNS emotional affordances (Steinert and Dennis, 2022), which are also widely underexplored in the context of academics' professional social media use, the present study uses the lens of the UTAUT qualitatively and includes the affective constructs (anxiety, attitude toward using technology).

Taken together, increasing workloads associated with the platformisation of professional activities, blurred personal and professional boundaries and increased exposure to cyber-risks may increase potential negative consequences for academics' well-being and job performance. Nevertheless, recent studies focus on the techno-socio social media affordances and exclude the emotional affordances that may affect academics' well-being and job performance. Moreover, SNS affordances comprise opportunities and challenges and it is not clear which influences may affect academics' decision-making about their engagement and disengagement with platforms, nor do we know which digital competencies academics may benefit from to make such decisions. In light of this, the importance of the present study is reflected in the clear gap in knowledge about which digital competencies academics may benefit from in order to make holistic decisions, about their professional social media use, in consideration of engagement and disengagement with platforms, toward the sustainable development and maintenance of their well-being and job performance.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study is to gain a rich understanding of academics' decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media, and the way they may learn to use social media, in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. This study explores, based on the theoretical foundation of digital literacy, *why* and *how* academics make decisions about their potential engagement and disengagement with social media through the theoretical considerations of the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT. The qualitative study uses a mixed-method research design in order to semantically explore academics' intentions to use and their actual use of social media. In doing so, the study contributes a new digital competency framework (see Table 19), which is practically applicable to UK HEIs. In addition, the study contributes knowledge about *how* and *why* academics may learn to use such digital competencies and *how* these may contribute to academics' holistic decision-making about their social media use in consideration of their well-being and job performance.

1.4 Research Aims, Objectives

The present study aims to investigate UK academics' professional social media use; this is achieved using the theoretical foundation of digital literacy and the two theoretical considerations of the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT. The study aims to explore *why* and *how* academics negotiate boundaries of their professional social media use, in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement, as well as *what* influences their decisions about engagement and disengagement with SNS. Further, it aims to explore *why* and *how* academics may learn to use SNS professionally, and which digital competencies they may require to train and develop in order to make holistic decisions about their social media use. The study intends to contribute practically applicable (by HEIs and academics) empirical and theoretical knowledge about academics' digital literacy training and development needs and digital competencies that academics may require to build in order to engage and disengage with social media.

In the endeavour to achieve these aims the present study formulated the following objectives:

To
1) Explore academics' boundary work regarding the ways they negotiate to use or not to use social media professionally.

2) Explore influences that affect academics' decisions about their intentions to use or not to use social media platforms.

3) Explore how and why academics may learn to use social media professionally.

4) Develop a Digital Competency Framework that promises to be applicable at UK Higher Education Institutions.

1.5 Research Questions

In order to achieve the aforementioned aims and objectives, the present study developed the following four key research questions:

1) Why and how do academics negotiate boundaries related to their professional social media use?

2) What affects academics' decision-making about their intentions to use or not to use social media?

3) Why and how do academics learn to use social media professionally?

4) Which digital competencies do academics require to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with social media?

1.6 Value of the Study

As will be seen, this study shows the need for UK HEIs to give new importance to digital disengagement that may benefit academics' well-being and job performance. The present study confirms Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) digital literacy concept, which applies to academics (see Chapter 9), and shows well-being as a core component of the contribution of the novel Techno-Socio-Emo (TeSEmo) digital competency framework (see Table 19). The framework is practically applicable at UK HEIs and constitutes digital competencies that may support academics' decision-making about their engagement and disengagement with social media, in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. As these competencies derive from the lenses of the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT they may support academics' understanding and management of identity dilemmas, ethical dilemmas and evaluation of cyber risks leading to the potentially improved holistic decision-making and demarcations between academics' personal and professional lives (e.g., work-life balance). Therefore, the value of the present study is reflected in the comprehensiveness of the novel TeSEmo Digital Competency

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Framework that is practically applicable, critical and humanistic.

This study also contributes valuable novel empiric knowledge about the digital literacy phenomenon and calls for changes (e.g., integration of disengagement, re-conceptualisation of critical digital literacy) in how UK HEIs train and develop academics' digital literacy. The present study shows that digital competencies may be important for academics' decision-making about disengagement with platforms in order to benefit their well-being and job performance. This finding is valuable and important to consider by the UK HEI digital literacy training and development programme provider Jisc (2022a) and UK HEIs, which currently focus on building academics' digital competencies needed for engagement on platforms. Therefore, this study contributes a plea to extend current UK digital competency training and development programmes (e.g., Jisc, 2022a) with the building of TeSEmo digital competencies that may enable engagement as well as disengagement with platforms aiming at the sustainable development and maintenance of academics' well-being and job performance.

Furthermore, the present study contributes knowledge about the greater need for academics' autonomous digital competency training and development. Nevertheless, some academics were concerned with the lack of support in experiences of online harassment as well as they indicated a need for institutional support in caring for their well-being. This is a valuable contribution that may alert UK HEIs of taking steps to support academics' digital competencies holistically when integrating autonomous learning opportunities, while at the same time providing institutional support for those in need.

In addition, the present study contributes knowledge about a need to re-conceptualise SNS, which is commonly viewed, by scholars (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Chugh and Ruhi, 2018; Jordan, 2022; Manca and Ranieri, 2016b; Williams and Woodacre, 2016) who research academics' social media use, as platforms comprising techno-social characteristics. The present study's findings confirm the SNS emotional affordance concept by Steintert and Dennis (2022) and show academics' emotional experiences associated with decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms, which appear to affect some academics' well-being and potentially also their professional performance. Therefore the present study defines SNS as platforms that comprise techno-social-emotional characteristics (e.g., affordances) that not only shape academics' activities but also influence their decisions about potential disengagement and engagement with platforms. Therefore, the present study calls for the integration of techno-social-emotional perspectives in future research in order to contribute holistic knowledge about social media phenomena in HEIs.

1.7 The Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework (see Figure 1) of the present study comprises the *theoretical foundation* of digital literacy and the two *theoretical considerations* of the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT. Regarding the theoretical foundation, the present study embraces critical digital literacy beyond academics' functional use of social media (Feenberg, 2009; Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022). Therefore, the present study hypothesises that digital literacy has different meanings for academics' depending on their Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement (see also Section 2.1).

Sociology | Information Technology

How & Why?
Boundary negotiations between academics and stakeholder

The Concept of Boundary Work
(Gieryn, 1998)

Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT)
(Venkatesh *et al.*, 2003)

What?
Influences on academics' acceptance of Social Media (systems)
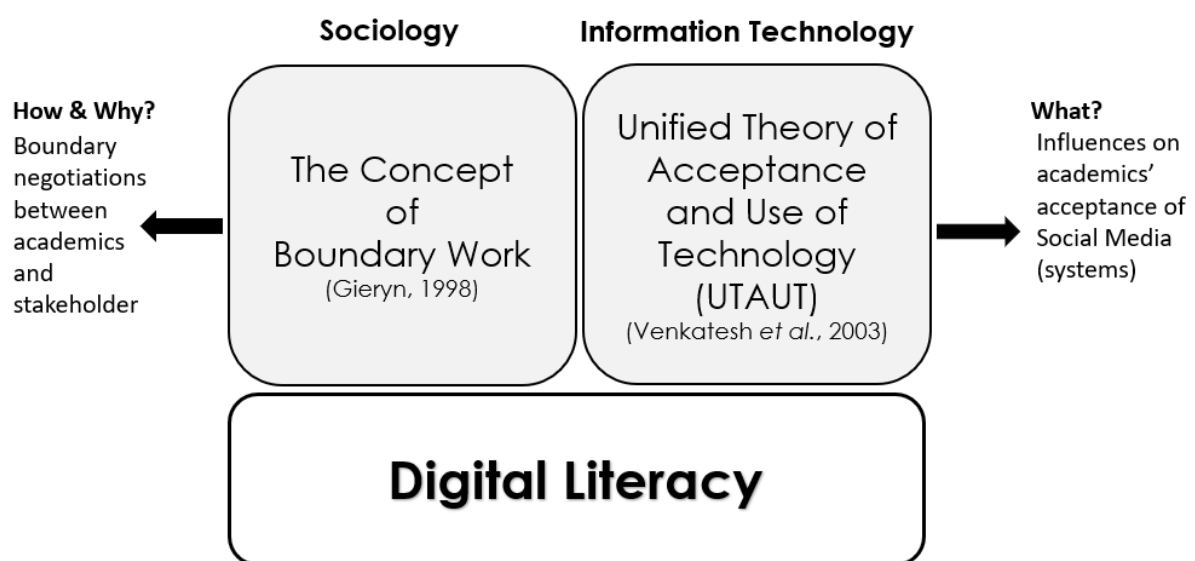
Digital Literacy

Figure 1 The Conceptual Framework

In this sense, it is hypothesised that academics, as part of their digital literacy, which is the ability to make holistic decisions about engagement and disengagement with digital technologies*,* build digital competencies through training and development. Academics may make decisions about the ways they may train and develop digital competencies based on their individualistic needs (see McIntyre, 2014). Academics may use digital competencies to make decisions about their social media use across the multiple digital literacy dimensions of the probably most recent digital literacy framework applicable for academics by Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022). Accordingly, as outlined in Section 2.2, the digital competency dimensions (e.g., critical, cognitive, social, operative, projective and emotional), which are "large areas where the competencies are inherent to digital literacy converge" (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022, p.13), overlap and, therefore, result in *interdimensional relationships* aiming toward the techno-social empowerment of digital competencies.

In terms of theoretical considerations, using the lens of boundary work, it is assumed that academics create and re-create boundaries when using social media professionally (Gieryn, 1999; Lamont and Molnár, 2002). It is hypothesised that academics' boundary work exists at the intersection of their personal, professional and stakeholder levels (see Figure 3). At this intersection, academics may experience identity dilemmas and/or ethical dilemmas (see Section 3.1.2). As will be explained in Section 3.1.2, academics seem to experience boundary struggles in the context of their professional practices and personal propositions (e.g., beliefs). The present study, therefore, hypothesises that academics' boundary negotiations occur fluidly in the context of their stakeholders, professional practices and propositions. In addition, it is hypothesised that if academics engage in boundary work then they may require certain competencies to make decisions about social media use boundary negotiations. Such competencies are explored when using the boundary work lens to identify digital competencies and map them against the digital competency dimensions (see Section 2.2).

Furthermore, in order to shed light on the underexplored knowledge about academics' decision-making regarding their potential intentions to use social media, the present study uses the lens of the UTAUT (Venkatesh *et al.*, 2003). As explained in Section 3.2, the UTAUT is a numeric model, that enables measuring the acceptance and use of technology. Using the model qualitatively, the present study hypothesises that academics' decisions about their potential intentions to use social media may be influenced by the UTAUT technology acceptance constructs (see Table 9). It is assumed that the numerically derived constructs provide a basis for the present study to identify which influences may affect academics' decision-making about their social media use. In that sense, it is assumed that the identified influences shed light on *why* and *how* academics make decisions about their social media use and which digital competencies they may benefit from in order to make such decisions. Such competencies are explored when using the UTAUT lens and comparing competencies with Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) digital competency dimensions (see Section 2.2).

In sum, the lens of boundary work is associated with the *why* and *how* that academics make decisions about their potential boundary negotiations with others on platforms. The UTAUT, on the other hand, is concerned with which UTAUT user acceptance constructs may influence academics' decisions about their potential intentions to use platforms. While the concept of boundary work focuses on the interaction between academics and stakeholders the UTAUT is concerned with what influences academics' potential engagement and disengagement with social media seen as technological systems. Therefore, the two

theoretical considerations complement each other and provide insights from the social (boundary work) and the technical (UTAUT) perspectives, which results in a rich understanding of which digital competencies academics may benefit from when they make decisions about the interaction with stakeholders and their potential intentions to engage and disengagement with platforms.

1.8 Thesis Structure

This section provides an overview of the thesis structure:

Chapter 1 Introduction: This chapter provides background information and history about social media and the *platformisation* of HEIs, explains the rationale of the study, the purpose of the study, the research aims and objectives, research questions, the value of the study, the conceptual framework and lastly the thesis structure.

Chapter 2 Theoretical Foundation: This chapter presents the theoretical foundation of the thesis. It starts with the outline of reviewed literature addressing the definitions of digital literacy, followed by the Digital Competency Framework dimensions, Training & Development for academics' professional social media use and the conclusion.

Chapter 3 Theoretical Considerations: This chapter reviews the two lenses of the concept of Boundary Work and the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology, followed by an explanation of how these two lenses complement each other.

Chapter 4 Social Media Use: This chapter presents the review of the SNS Affordance approach followed by the outline of opportunities and challenges in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement, ending with the presentation of popular SNS and related affordances.

Chapter 5 Research Design: This chapter presents the thesis methodology starting with an introduction, followed by the rationale of the mixed-method research design, the sample, the quantitative method (survey study), the qualitative method (focus groups), the triangulation of the data and the conclusion.

Chapter 6 Boundary Work of Social Media Use: This chapter presents the results derived from the use of the lens of boundary work. It starts with the overview of SNS used for academics' Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement, followed by the

boundary work of academics' professional social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement and the conclusion

Chapter 7 Intentions to use Social Networking Sites: This chapter presents the findings derived from the use of the lens of UTAUT. It begins with performance expectancy, followed by effort expectancy and social influence, the emotional experiences and lastly the conclusion.

Chapter 8 Training & Development: This chapter presents the results of Training & Development for academics' professional social media use addressing the value of autonomy and the value of institutional support followed by the conclusion.

Chapter 9 Conclusions: This chapter starts with the recapitulation of the study aims, objectives and key questions, followed by entwined decisions making that comprises the answers to the research questions and the introduction of the novel TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework, followed by the empirical and theoretical contributions of the study, limitations of the study, recommendations for future research and lastly the summative remarks.

Chapter 2 Theoretical Foundation

This section reviews the literature on the development of digital literacy definitions, in a non-chronological order, based on the commonly identified discourse between functional and critical perspectives, followed by digital competency dimensions, Training & Development and the conclusion.

2.1 Defining Digital Literacy

Over a substantial period, various scholars (e.g., Glister, 1997; Jenkins *et al.*, 2006; Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022; Ng, 2012) attempted to define the term digital literacy from multiple perspectives. This is somewhat unsurprising as the term is known for its fuzziness, looseness and flexibility with various meanings depending on the user context, continuous changes to technologies and related practices (Hbaci, 2018; Ilomäki *et al.*, 2016, p.656; Pangrazio, 2016). In view of that, it has been argued by Coldwell-Neilson (2017, p.79) that "digital literacy is still ill-defined and a misunderstood term." Indeed, several scholars (like Aguilera, 2022; Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif, 2021; Lankshear and Knobel, 2011; Nichols and Stornaiuolo, 2019; Pangrazio, 2016; Poore, 2011) set out different ways in which they define digital literacy but commonly agree on the ambiguity of its components.

Following, Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif (2021), who explore Turkish academics' digital literacy levels and technology integration, argue that for academics digital literacy has multiple meanings such as digital confidence and user proficiency in and outside of the classroom. This multiplicity of meanings reflects the disciplinary context of digital literacy that depends on user needs and highlights the complexity of scholars to come to terms with what digital literacy means and how it is defined (Huvila, 2012). This is reflected in academics' multifaceted professional roles that comprise multiple purposes and responsibilities. As shown in for example (Salford, 2016, p.62), the multiple purposes of the role of a new lecturer are:

> To undertake a range of teaching, assessment and administrative duties and to support students in all aspects of their studies as appropriate. To develop personal subject/research activity in conjunction with professional development as a teacher.

The purposes further vary depending on the roles (e.g., senior lecturer, reader, professor). In addition, the term *digital literacy* is commonly used interchangeably with the also fuzzy

term *digital competency,* which is a set of technical skills (Ilomäki *et al.*, 2016). On the other hand, Huvila (2012, p.31) defines competence from a critical perspective as: "A constellation of abilities and/or capacities embodied in successful activities (tasks) and outcomes." This is corroborated by Hager and Beckett (2007) who stress the importance of neutralising the definitions of competence which may not be deconstructed as a specific set of abilities and/or capabilities.

A conceivable reason for such discourse is mentioned by Lankshear and Knobel (2011), in their book about new literacies, who state that multiple contested digital literacy definitions are related to scholars' individual choices. Therefore, for this study, instead of using the two terms (digital literacy and digital competence) interchangeably, digital literacy is looked at from the perspective of competence as a broad set of abilities and/or capabilities (Huvila, 2012). This reflects the centre point of the investigation of *why* and *how* academics make decisions about their potential use or the ways they may learn to use social media for professional purposes.

After further reviewing some published studies (like Akayoğlu *et al.,* 2020; Goodfellow, 2011; Yazon *et al.*, 2019), two major approaches to defining digital literacy seem to be formed around functional (technical ability to use the system) and/or critical components (considering socio-cultural / emotional competencies) (Pangrazio, 2016). The functional orientation leans heavily on the work of Glister (1997, p.1) who was the first to define contemporary digital literacy as: "The ability to understand and use information in multiple formats from a wide range of sources when it is presented via computers." Following Glister's definition, various scholars (e.g., Baird and Henniger, 2011; Goodfellow, 2011; Gourlay, Hamilton and Lea, 2013; Jones and Hafner, 2012; Yildiz, 2020) conversely define digital literacy as individuals' functional abilities to execute tasks when using digital technology. Such an approach to defining digital literacy focuses only on the technical aspects of using digital technology (e.g., social media) and excludes wider aspects (like understanding and managing of content, behavioural understanding) or influences (socio-cultural, emotional, economic) on relationship between individuals and digital technology.

The functional definitions are contested by scholars (e.g., Eshet-Alkali; 2004; Lankshear and Knobel, 2011; Morgan, Sibson and Jackson, 2022; Ng 2012) who define digital literacy from critical perspectives that consider socio-emotional and sociocultural aspects associated with user behaviour. In this line, Lankshear and Knobel (2011), in their book about new literacies for practices and social learning, departed from the technical capability-centred approach. They orientate towards new literacies, which are digital literacies, developed around the

characteristics of new media such as social media. Ng (2012, p.1066) says:

> A digitally literate individual should be able to adapt to new and emerging technologies quickly and pick up new semiotic language for communication as they arise. The more digitally literate the individual, the easier it is for him/her to adapt, that is switch to the 'new literacies' mode.

In addition, Ng (2012) indicates the importance of integrating the social characteristics of new media as participation, collaboration, communication, and distribution. In this vein, Jisc (2018) defines digital literacy as follows:

> Digital literacy looks beyond functional competencies to describe a richer set of digital behaviours, practices, and identities. What it means to be digitally literate changes over time and across contexts, so digital literacies are essentially a set of professionally situated practices supported by diverse and changing technologies.

From a different perspective, further addressing new media literacies, one of the probably only studies, by Schreurs and Vandenbosch (2021), introduces the social media literacy model focusing on children and adolescents. Schreurs and Vandenbosch (2021, p.5) take a nuanced approach when integrating cognitive and affective subcomponents and define social media literacy as:

> The extent to which cognitive and affective structures are present among users to ensure the risks of interactions with social media content are mitigated and the opportunities are maximized.

Their model focuses on the well-being of users on social media through the ability to regulate one's negative or positive emotions associated with emotional experiences resulting from exposure to social media content. Schreurs and Vandenbosch's (2021) study seems to be one of the only studies, which provides a social media literacy framework that addresses the importance of well-being associated with emotional experiences due to social media content. Nevertheless, their perspective is on engagement with social media and does not address users' disengagement and well-being. We know very little about academics' emotional responses to decisions about engagement and disengagement with social media. Therefore, the present study considers that academics may experience emotions and may also be influenced by socio-cultural, economic, and structural environments.

Furthermore, decision-making appears to be an important component of digital literacy. Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif (2021), who surveyed Turkish academics' digital literacy, mention the importance to consider that digital literacy comprises cognitive processes such as decision-making and the ability to understand wider aspects beyond the functional use of digital technology. Indeed, decisions about engagement with digital technologies may be related to dichotomies between an individual's perceptions of social media, influenced by platform affordances and the socio-cultural and economic environment (McAleese and Brisson-Boivin, 2022; van Dijck, 2013). In addition, Kuntsman and Miyake (2019), who write about the paradox of digital disengagement, explain that decisions are also associated with the concept of digital disengagement. Due to the default of digital technology for everything, disengagement from platforms is becoming increasingly complex and one may question how far disengagement is possible. This is shown in a statement by Deuze (2011, p.xiii):

> The illusion that we can comprehensively control our media (for example by pulling the plug, pressing the off switch on a remote control, by becoming media-wise and developing sophisticated media literacies) in fact preserves media as the primary definer of our reality.

On the other hand, following Light (2014), deliberate disengagement from media may positively affect an individual's well-being. However, the structural (platform affordances), socio-cultural and economic influences related to peer pressure or fear-of-missing-out, may lead to renegotiation of digital disengagement. In addition, Schwarzenegger (2020), who conceptualises the personal epistemologies of the media, explains that individual experiences and practices, associated with the understanding of, for instance, technological affordances, may lead to decisions to reject certain media. Therefore, both, knowing when to engage and when to disengage involve digital competencies beyond functional use. In view of all that has been mentioned so far in this section, the present study redefines digital literacy as *the ability to make holistic decisions about engagement and disengagement with digital technologies*. In the context of academics' professional social media use, this appears to be a novel definition that emphasises multiple digital competencies that enable decision-making, based on individualistic personal and professional needs, about engagement and disengagement with platforms.

In light of this, Aguilera (2022) in her recent book about digital literacies and interactive media, as well as Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022), who developed a digital competency framework, share the opinion that the full picture of the digital literacy phenomenon may not be reached through the development and evaluation of explicit

definitions but through harbouring of greater understanding from multiple digital competency perspectives. The importance of such understanding is reflected in the view that people and digital technology are inseparable (Feenberg, 2009). Due to this inseparability individuals require to adopt hybrid identities associated with the connection and disconnection with digital technology, as well as the ability to manage their analogue and digital footprints (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022). Moreover, to adapt to emerging and changing new digital technologies individuals, therefore, are challenged to develop multiple lifelong digital competencies (Ala-Mutka, 2008). Therefore, academics' digital literacy, *the ability to make holistic decisions about engagement and disengagement with digital technologies,* requires the building of multiple digital competencies that support their individualistic personal and professional needs.

In order to build these digital competencies, it is important to understand how the human being is related to digital technology. This relation forms the techno-social system of digital literacy and without such understanding, digital literacy appears to focus on the functional skills improvement of individuals (McAleese and Brisson-Boivin, 2022). Some scholars (e.g., Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif, 2021; Elçi, 2021; McIntyre, 2014; Yildiz, 2020) discuss academics' digital literacy from a critical perspective and mention a need to consider individual professional needs. Moreover, building digital competencies based on the critical perspectives of digital literacy is important for the mindful use of digital technology (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022).

However, it is not clear which digital competencies academics may require to build to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with social media for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Indeed, up until now, some scholars (e.g., Gui *et al.*, 2017; Harigittai and Micheli, 2019; Nguyen, 2021; Light, 2014; Simunjak, 2022) considered the concept of digital disengagement as a component of digital literacy. Even so, literature that focuses on academics' digital competencies in order to disengage with digital technology is scant, which indicates a clear gap in current knowledge. In addition, we do not know which digital competencies academics may need in order to manage boundary negotiations of their professional social media use. Therefore, in this context, the present study develops a new digital competency framework that may enable the understanding of digital literacy based on critical digital literacy that goes beyond the functional use of technology. In doing so, the present study aims to contribute a rich understanding of academics' digital competencies based on the critical consideration of multiple digital dimensions, which are "large areas where the competencies are inherent to digital literacy converge" (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022, p.13).

2.2 Digital Competency Dimensions

Increasing *platformisation* of the risks this poses for academics' well-being and job performance as well as emerging new technologies raise the importance to build digital competencies (Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif, 2021; Carrigan and Jordan, 2021). The speed of *platformisation* in UK HEIs (Carrigan and Jordan, 2021) requires academics and institutions to keep up with the latest developments in emerging digital technologies and digital competencies. Several scholars across disciplines endeavoured to investigate and conceptualise multiple dimensions of digital competencies. This is reflected, in a recent systematic literature review, between the years 2004 and 2017, by van Laar *et al.* (2017) who analyses 75 peer-reviewed studies about digital competencies. These studies covered 15 disciplines (such as Arts and Humanities, Communication, Education, and Engineering). According to van Laar *et al.* (2017) these studies either focused on the competency development of citizens or students, but not on employees that are supposed to be the focal point of their study. More so, there appears to be a stark focus of all the studies on functional skills development.

Nevertheless, van Laar *et al.* (2017) used their data to showcase digital competencies suggesting that these may be relevant for knowledge workers. Therefore, van Laar *et al.* (2017) address a broad range of workers across multiple industries. Their competency dimensions (technical, information management, communication, collaboration, creativity, critical thinking, and problem-solving) may apply to academics who engage with knowledge workers' activities. However, one may question to what extent these competencies apply to academics' professional social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement because as previously explained, digital literacy is context-depending (e.g., professional purpose, discipline). In this sense, van Laar *et al.* (2017) contribute broad knowledge about digital literacy without sufficient disciplinary context. Therefore, it is doubtful that such an approach is transferrable to the present study's focus on academics' professional social media use.

In contrast, to van Laar *et al.* (2017), Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022, p.3-4) 21st Century Competency Framework derives from a content analysis of eight comprehensive international frameworks, which focused on general education, teaching and learning as well as an organisational workforce. Following Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) statement their digital competency framework is suitable for academic development. Indeed, Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) analysis contribute to an in-depth understanding of interrelated competencies within the six

digital competency dimensions (e.g., projective, cognitive, critical, socio-emotional, social and functional). Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) discuss that the analysis shows an agreement of a techno-critical approach that goes beyond the functional aims of using technologies. Accordingly, the dimensions complement each other and overlap and, therefore, result in interdimensional relationships aiming toward the techno-social empowerment of digital competencies.

This is corroborated by Feenberg's (2009) critical theory, which embraces that the human condition is inseparable from functional conditions resulting in a critical approach to *democratising* digital technology (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche 2022). Indeed, Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022, p.11) concept of 21st Century Digital Competencies embraces critical theory together with humanist and constructivist perspectives suggesting;

> a commitment to techno-social empowerment with a humanistic approach, aiming at social innovation, critical and autonomous use of technology, and creative, reflective, and responsible appropriation of it in everyday life.

Conversely, in the context of humanistic and critical theory perspectives, the critical use of digital technology comprises the competencies to understand and manage multiple situations at personal, sociocultural, economic or civil levels in order to make decisions about actions. While, Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) provide a comprehensive framework that applies to academics it does not focus on their social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Moreover, academics' well-being and job performance appear to be at risk due to the increasing *platformisation* and we do not know enough about which digital competencies may benefit academics' social media use boundary negotiations. Therefore, it is important to explore which digital competencies academics may require to build in support of their decision-making about their engagement and disengagement with social media. The following sub-sections unpack, Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) critical, cognitive, social, operative, projective and emotional digital competency dimensions in the context of academics' professional social media use.

2.2.1 Critical Dimension

Following Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) critical dimension, academics may apply digital competencies to adopt attitudes, values and positions in

multiple situations in order to make sound decisions in consideration of risks, through the development of autonomy, self-control and flexibility (see Table 1). Participation, critical understanding and use of information as well as a critical understanding of ethical and legal issues within the digital environment may be crucial competencies. Additionally, understanding the meaning of information, the judgment of its appropriateness, ethical use and understanding of security issues (privacy concerns, intellectual property rights) may be important.

Critical Digital Competencies
- Adopting a positive attitude in various situations
- Judgment to make effective decisions
- Self-control
- Autonomy
- Flexibility
- Risk assessment
- Critical use of information, tools
- Understanding of ethical and legal issues
- Understanding messages behind ideas
- Understanding and spotting misuse of information
- Understanding security issues and digital standards, intellectual property rights, environmental protection
- Making meaningful connections

Table 1 Critical Digital Competency Dimension

There is strong evidence of academics' need for critical digital competencies derived from recent literature by Oksanen *et al.* (2021). They conducted a comprehensive survey study of 2492 Finnish university researchers and teachers, and show a concerning increase of hate and harassment on digital platforms, especially from within academia (see also Chapter 3, and Chapter 4). Academics appear to be exposed to cybercrimes, death threats, hate speech, and harmful content. Therefore, academics' well-being and job performance may be at risk of, for instance, depression, stress, anxiety and post-traumatic-stress-disorders. Such concerns are also reported by several other scholars such as Carrigan (2020), Hamadi *et al.* (2021), Jordan (2022) and Jordan and Weller (2018). Moreover, according to Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022), critical digital competencies are important across all digital competency dimensions. Indeed, academics' may also benefit from critical digital competencies to make decisions within the cognitive, social, operative (functional), projective and emotional dimensions.

While the reviewed literature (see Section 2.1) addresses critical digital competencies, we do not know enough about *why* and *how* academics may apply critical digital competencies to make decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media. Moreover, it is not clear *how* such competencies may support academics' social media use boundary negotiations. In endeavours to contribute such knowledge the present study emphasises

Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) concept of the critical digital competency dimension.

2.2.2 Cognitive Dimension

Following Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) cognitive dimension, academics may apply high-level digital competencies (see Table 2) such as logical reasoning, problem-solving, creativity, interpretation, evaluation and comparison. The dimension focuses on the creation and curation of content, resources, knowledge development and production of creative material aiming to create sustainable, meaningful learning experiences as well as the strategic use of technology in order to achieve learning objectives, reflection and improvement of learning processes.

Cognitive Digital Competencies
- Problem-solving
- Management of complex environments
- Logical reasoning
- The cognitive process of analysis, comparison, inference, interpretation, evaluation, creativity and production
- Planning and results management
- Understanding and organise the self in order to effectively complete tasks and reaching of objectives
- Understanding of scientific concepts and processes within the digital environment
- Creation and curation of resources using digital technology to acquire knowledge
- Production of creative artefacts
- Development of meaningful learning experiences associated with personal learning aims
- Development of strategies to benefit from technology in order to achieve a reflection of learning processes to improve results

Table 2 Cognitive Digital Competencies

Academics may benefit from cognitive digital competencies when making decisions about *why* and *how* they may develop, use, and share content on platforms (Carrigan, 2020; Jordan and Weller, 2018). Moreover, given the increasing inappropriate, harmful and fake content academics may require skills to evaluate and understand the meaning and appropriateness of information and sources (Oksanen *et al.*, 2021). This appears to be increasingly difficult due to information and resource overload (see Heidmets, 2021; Lee, Son and Kim, 2016), which can have potential negative consequences on academics' well-being and job performance. In addition, problem-solving may be important for academics across all digital competency dimensions (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022). Potential reasons for this are that academics may interact with multiple stakeholders (Jordan, 2022), as well as they may need to adapt to emerging platforms, changing

institutional structures, increasing workloads, identity and ethical dilemmas (see Chapter 3, below).

Furthermore, importance may be given to identity work, which is defined by Bennett (2017, p. 247), who conducted a small-scale phenomenological study about academics' professional identity associated with their social media use, as the "constructing and reconstructing one's sense of self" and may contribute to academics' decision-making about engagement and disengagement with platforms. Identity management is associated with strains (e.g., stress, anxiety) due to potential cognitive overload and emotional labour (see Section 3.1.2, below). It is encouraging to further explore decision-making based on the concepts of conscious and unconscious reasoning, which is conceptualised by Evans (2008) who reviewed dual processing in higher cognition, and Oehman (1988) who conceptualised nonconscious control of responses. Conversely, these scholars show that conscious reasoning may support the decision-making about social media use boundaries (e.g., personal vs. professional boundaries; appropriate vs. inappropriate behaviour), whereas unconscious reasoning results in decisions based on habits and affective reactions and the potential experience of paradoxes, for example, the engagement with platforms despite the negative emotional experiences, that may lead to stress and tensions.

The reviewed literature indicates there is a need for academics to build cognitive digital competencies but does not show enough about *why* and *how* academics may apply such competencies to make decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media. In endeavours to contribute such knowledge the present study emphasises on Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022, p.6) concept of the cognitive digital competency dimension.

2.2.3 Social Dimension

Following Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022, p.6) concept of the social dimension, academics may develop a sense of belonging to global communities and networks within which they communicate with others. Core competencies (see Table 3) focus on teamwork, collaboration, group work, cultivation of collective leadership skills, generation of opportunities, knowledge exchange and sharing of creative, innovative ideas with others. Overall, the dimension comprises competencies that empower the self and others through the use of social media.

Social Digital Competencies
- Development of a sense of belonging to a global community
- Developing of multicultural vision
- Participation in networks and communication within digital environments
- Teamwork and collaboration
- Development of leadership
- Development of opportunities between social actors
- Connecting the needs and motivation of others and solving problems to develop new ideas
- Development of digital citizenship
- Search for opportunities and self-development and technological empowerment
- Development of skills to learn, live and work in an interconnected digital world that is enriched by collaboration with others at local and global levels

Table 3 Social Digital Competencies

This is supported by a recent cross-sectional, purposively sampled, survey study (e.g., Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif, 2021), which explores the digital literacy levels and technology integration competence of Turkish academics. The study shows academics may require skills to lead students on how to use digital technologies, and how to manage resources on those platforms. This is corroborated by Yildiz (2020) who recently conducted a phenomenological study, which involves 10 semi-structured interviews of Turkish academics' opinions about digital literacy. Accordingly, academics give importance to developing leadership skills to guide and instruct students about how to find appropriate, harmless information and content.

Furthermore, academics may associate the need for their leadership with the negative consequences of online risks, such as hate, harassment, cyberbullying and harmful content (see also Oksanen *et al.*, 2021) on students' well-being. Hence, leadership appears to be related to caring for the self and others' digital well-being (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022). Therefore, it is encouraged to compare this with Khilji (2022) approach to humanising leadership in education, which focuses on building learning communities and stakeholder engagement. According to Khilji (2022, p.443) humanising leadership comprises the four humanising principles; "(1) promoting individual dignity, equality, uniqueness and capacity for growth, (2) respect of the individual, (3) fostering "ethics of care," and (4) a concern for the common good." In that line, in a recent review of digital literacy in the context of teachers' digital competencies, Falloon (2020) demonstrates the need for humanistic leadership due to the importance to understand how and why digital technologies may shape and impact the construction of knowledge, social interactions as well as the development of individuals.

In a similar vein, Talib (2018) who writes about social media pedagogy in the context of multimodal critical digital literacy, explains the need to understand students' individual

situations and support them in making decisions about social media. A potential reason for this is the uneven use of technology that can be defined as 'the new digital divide', which explains the difference in access and frequency of use, including the reasons why and how people use digital technologies (e.g., Brandtzæg, Heim and Karahasanović, 2011). Indeed, such understanding may be important for academics to emphasise the potential digital divide between students' access to digital technologies, which is related to sociocultural and economic inequalities (e.g., Büchi and Hargittai, 2022; Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020). On the other hand, digital inequalities may exist as well among academics (e.g., Jordan and Weller, 2018; Rambe and Nel, 2015; Williams and Woodacre, 2016). In that sense, social digital competencies may enable academics to support each other's inequalities of digital knowledge and emphasise potential struggles to integrate the platforms or decisions about disengagement.

On the other hand, based on various recent literature (e.g., Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif, 2021; Carrigan, 2020; Carrigan and Jordan, 2021; Carrigan and Jordan, 2022; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Lupton, 2014), academics' Networking & Public Engagement involves their interaction with a broad range of stakeholders (e.g., public, students, media, practitioners, communities, industries), and may require digital competencies for ambivalent decision-making and social media use boundary negotiations. In other words, academics may need digital competencies to weigh and balance desires, demands, needs and make decisions about the interaction with others on platforms, as well as making decisions about their online identities. The reviewed literature does not show enough about *why* and *how* academics may apply social digital competencies to make decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media. In endeavours to contribute such knowledge the present study emphasises on Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022, p.6) concept of the social digital competency dimension.

2.2.4 Operative Dimension

Following Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022, p.6) concept of operative dimension (see Table 4), academics may apply functional (operative) digital competencies such as the ability to use social media, knowing how to interact, complete tasks and adapt to changes and emerging technologies. Additional functional competencies are the ability to understand technical problems and configurations of platforms to effectively use social media for professional purposes.

Operative Digital Competencies
- Functional, instrumental skills to use digital technologies
- Ability to perform tasks within the digital environment
- Understanding of technological problems
- Understanding of programming principles, data manipulation, soft and hardware operations, configuration and modification of programmes and devices
- Evaluation of processes
- Development and testing of prototypes
- Using digital tools effectively connected to real-world needs

Table 4 Operative Digital Competencies

In that line, several scholars (e.g., Gourlay, Hamilton and Lea, 2013; Jones-Kavalier and Flannigan, 2006; Yildiz, 2020) show the importance of operative digital competencies for academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif (2021) also talk about the importance of operative digital competencies and explain that these may depend on disciplines and prior knowledge and experience of using digital technology. Accordingly, from an operative perspective, academics who may use SNS for personal purposes may find it easier to use them professionally. However, this notion should be treated with caution because academics who have operative digital competencies may experience social media use boundary struggles at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels (see Section 3.1) or are influenced by social pressure, effort expectancy, performance expectancy, facilitating conditions or emotions (see Section 3.2).

Therefore, understanding and managing social media use boundaries may require multiple digital competencies (e.g., critical, cognitive or social) and academics may experience difficulties to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms. While the reviewed literature addresses academics' operative digital competencies we do not know enough about academics' boundary work of their social media use and influences on their decision-making about engagement and disengagement with platforms. In endeavours to contribute such knowledge the present study adopts an ambivalent perspective, which emphasises multiple digital competencies (see Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022) beyond the operative digital competency dimension.

2.2.5 Projective Dimension

Following Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022, p.6) concept of projective dimension (see Table 5), academics may build digital competencies such as developing capacity for innovative, future thinking, pattern recognition, algorithmic thinking, computational thinking, theorising ideas and process modelling. Additional digital

competencies are; attitude and behaviour to adapt to current and future environments, and abilities to develop an awareness of time constraints, resources, and system infrastructures.

Projective Digital Competencies
- Recognising and developing awareness of living in complex and dynamic environments and situations.
- Acquisition of knowledge to make predictions and solve problems associated with innovative technologies
- Development of innovation, inventiveness, future thinking, computational thinking, algorithmic thinking, pattern recognising, data modelling and management
- Theorising and testing of ideas
- Process modelling
- Modifying thinking in order to adapt behaviour and attitude in changing environments
- Recognising limitations of time, resources and systems

Table 5 Projective Digital Competencies

Projective digital competencies may be important for academics due to their need to adapt to ongoing changing processes, increased platformisation (digitisation of institutional processes) and emerging technologies (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Carrigan and Jordan, 2022; Carrigan and Jordan, 2021; Gruzd, Staves and Wilk, 2012). Such changes require academics to stay abreast of developing digital competencies, strategically in order to adapt their engagement on platforms to their Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. As mentioned in recent papers by Fetherston *et al.* (2021) and Torp, Lysfjord and Midje (2018) academics may face heavy workloads and new challenges to manage work-life balances due to increased overlaps, resulting from emerging digital communication, of their personal and professional lives. Academics, therefore, may require projective digital competencies in order to manage the time they spend on platforms, the time they spend preparing resources to be used on platforms, and the time they may spend interacting with others when using social media (Carrigan, 2020; Dermentzi and Papagiannids, 2018; Jordan and Weller, 2018).

Moreover, there appears to be digital inequality among academics who may not have access to harbour digital competencies due to, for example, lack of institutional support, dystopian or ambivalent propositions, unequal access to technologies and lack of time to learn to use social media (Carrigan, 2020; Donelan, 2016; Rambe and Nel, 2015; Jordan and Weller, 2018). The reviewed literature does not show enough about *why* and *how* academics may apply projective digital competencies to make decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media. In endeavours to contribute such knowledge the present study emphasises on Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022, p.6) concept of the projective digital competency dimension.

2.2.6 Emotional Dimension

Following Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022, p.6) concept of the emotional digital competency dimension (see Table 6), academics may benefit from building digital competencies to manage and understand their own and others' emotions and to develop healthy relationships. Hence, there may be a need for interpersonal and reflexive skills that enable the exchange and management of online identities. Such competencies may also enable the protection of the self and others against potential online risks in consideration of well-being and job performance. In addition, academics may develop abilities to cultivate curiosity to drive the desire to learn.

Emotional Digital Competencies
- Management of one's own emotions
- Construction of healthy relationships
- Ability to recognise and manage emotions, motivations and behaviours of the self and others during social interactions
- Development of interpersonal and reflexive skills
- Management of digital identity
- Protecting the psychological and physical well-being against online risks
- Developing curiosity to learn
- Developing the feeling of connection to personal and social human needs and motivations

Table 6 Emotional Digital Competencies

Steinert and Dennis (2021) demonstrate, in their recent concept about social media's emotional affordance, that emotional affordances (further discussed in Chapter 4) may influence academics' well-being and, hence, knowing *how* to understand and manage emotions is important. This is reflected, as previously explained, in academics' increasing exposure to various online risks (see Chapter 3) and their potential experience of strong negative emotions (e.g., anxiety, or fear) and negative consequences (e.g., depression, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorders) for their well-being and job performance.

On a different line, a few scholars mention academics' experience of peer pressure and the result of Fear-of-Missing-Out (FoMO), which both potentially lead to increased stress and anxiety (Dermentzi and Papagiannids, 2018; Gruzd, Staves and Wilk, 2012; Kieslinger, 2015). Indeed, it is argued by Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif (2021) that FoMO may be understood and managed through the digital competency of identity management. What is striking is that according to some scholars (like Carrigan, 2020), identity management itself requires cognition and may result in academics' engagement in emotional labour (further explained in Section 3.1). Hence, academics' may benefit form harbouring of emotional digital competencies in order to circumvent the negative influences that affective reactions may have on their well-being and job performance.

Nevertheless, this field is clearly under-explored and we do not know enough about *why* and *how* academics may understand and manage their experience of emotions. It is, therefore, encouraged to give attention to a recent conceptualised study, about emotional self-awareness (ESA) as digital literacy in learning processes, conducted by Lincenberg (2021). Accordingly, ESA enables the development of emotions, feelings, as well as moods associated with various challenges (e.g., online risks) and opportunities (e.g, interaction, and engagement) and enables the development of awareness. In a similar vein, Iqbal *et al.* (2021, p.906) use the concept of emotional intelligence which is defined as " the ability to deal with, identify, understand, and express emotions". The concept comprises self-awareness and self-regulation, self-motivation, social awareness and social skills (see Table 7).

Furthermore, emotional intelligence is a key component of well-being and job performance (see also Nelson and Low, 2011; Serrat, 2017). Cherniss *et al*. (1998), in their technical report about emotional intelligence in the workplace, provide 22 guidelines for training and developing emotional intelligence in organisations. Accordingly, it is possible to train and develop emotional intelligence through learner-centred, self-directed mentoring and coaching. Taken together, the aforementioned digital competencies derive from scholars who conduct research in the field of education and organisations and may apply to academics. Even so, such digital competencies have not explicitly been identified by Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) and, therefore, the emphasis on their existence, in the present study, is important.

Skills Domains	Competencies
Self-Regulation	Self-control Trustworthiness Conscientiousness Adaptability Innovativeness
Self-Motivation	Achievement drive Commitment Initiative Optimism
Social Awareness	Empathy Developing others Leveraging diversity Political awareness
Social Skills	Building relationships (collaboration, cooperation and teamwork) Communication and influencing others Leadership Conflict and change management
Self-Awareness	Emotional awareness Self-assessment Self-confidence

Table 7 Emotional Intelligence by Serrat (2017, p.331-332)

2.3 Training & Development

The previous section outlined the scope of digital literacy including the digital competencies, and this section reviews the literature about the ways academics may learn to use social media. The section starts with Continuous Professional Development (CPD) and addresses Jisc's (2022a) digital competency framework, followed by formal and non-formal learning approaches, ending with the conclusions.

2.3.1 Continuous Professional Development

Derived from the previous section, digital competencies may be important for any employee to cope and thrive in a society that is prone to changes due to emerging new technologies (van Laar *et al.*, 2017). Drawing on the mentioned learning of digital skills, academics may choose activities as part of their continuous professional development (CPD). According to a recently conducted systematic literature review by Inamorato *et al.* (2019), there appears to be no universal definition of CPD. Based on their review there seem to be three critical challenges around the definition of CPD. First, various terms may be used for the description of academics' learning processes such as, 'professional learning' (Darling-Hammond, Hyler; Gardner, 2017 and Malik, Tabassum and Nasim, 2015), 'technological, pedagogical and content knowledge of faculty' as well as 'faculty training' (Jacob *et al.*, 2019). Second, 'professional development' is a term which may indicate to have an obvious meaning and, therefore, not everybody who uses the term may conceptualise it in their papers. Therefore, the CPD concept in such cases may be individually interpreted by the readers. Third, CPD is a multidimensional concept and may rely on four key aspects as subjects, process, skill targets, and result expectations (Inamorato *et al.*, 2019).

Looking at the subjects, according to Inamorato *et al.* (2019) there appears to be a clear consistency, with a slight difference between terms, with literature defining such as the teaching staff of universities. For instance, Kneale *et al.* (2017) use the term 'academics', Aškerc and Kočar (2015), Darling-Hammond, Hyler and Gardner (2017), Postareff and Nevgi (2015) and Whitworth and Chiu (2015) all use 'teachers' as subjects of CPD processes. However, the non-academic staff-related CPD could not be identified over empirical literature. In contrast, the definition of the process appears inconsistent because it seems not to be clear if informal (unintentional, self-directed) learning can be considered part of CPD. For example, Malik, Tabassum and Nasim (2015, p.171) state, "professional development encompasses all types of facilitating knowledge opportunity, ranging from university degrees to formal assignments, conferences and informal learning opportunities

located in practice" whereas Dysart and Weckerle (2015) focus on training programmes and define CPD processes as centralised professional development opportunities, and the probably shortest definition derives from (Darling-Hammond, Hyler and Gardner, 2017, p.5) who stated processes as "structured professional learning."

Regarding professional development opportunities, Jisc (2022a) is the main organisation in the UK that provides digital competency development programmes for academics, students and other staff in HEIs. Following Jisc (2022a), gaining advanced digital competencies may be crucial for teachers and students for lifelong learning in HEIs. Having said that, there may be barriers to building digital competencies such as access to technology, confidence, attitude, self-efficacy, time and the learning environment (Jisc, 2018). Such barriers may be overcome through learning in collaborative learning environments where people feel free to ask questions and learn through play (Jisc, 2018). Addressing how UK academics may learn to use social media as part of their CPD, the present study focuses on Jisc's (2022a) digital competency framework and related formal and non-formal learning approaches in UK HEIs.

2.3.2 Jisc's Digital Literacies Framework

As previously discussed in Section 2.1, Jisc's (2022a) defines digital literacy from a critical perspective. Jisc (2022a) shows six elements comprising the multiple digital literacies that go beyond the functional use of digital technology (see Figure 2).
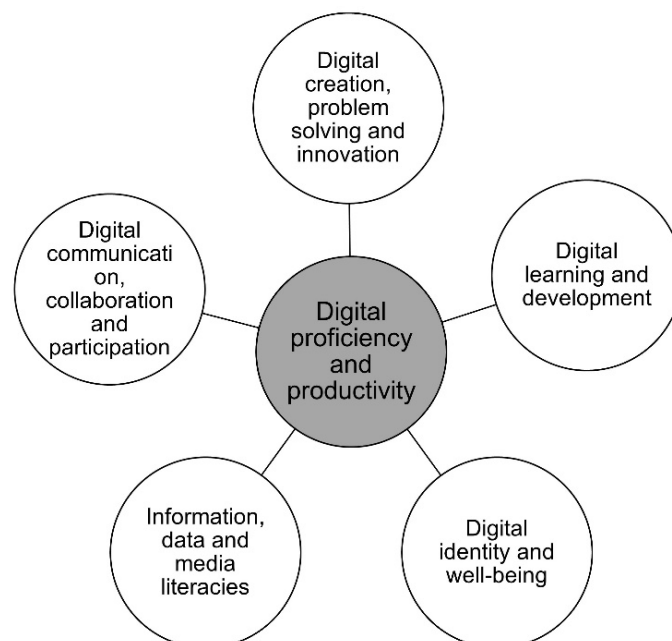
Figure 2 Jisc' (2022) Digital Competency Framework

Jisc (2022a) used this framework to develop role profiles (such as teachers and researchers) that comprise specific digital competencies as well as a measuring instrument (e.g., discovery tool) for UK HEIs, which includes reflective questions about digital competencies for employees and students. At the centre of the framework (see Figure 2) is digital proficiency and productivity. Digital proficiency is the ability to use digital technology and productivity revolves around the digital capabilities to complete tasks. Digital creation, problem-solving and innovation comprise competencies to create digital content, digital problem-solving and digital innovation (Jisc, 2022a).

Furthermore, according to Jisc (2022a) digital learning and development entail the ability to learn from digital opportunities as well as teach others within the digital environment. In terms of information, data and media literacies, the focus is on building digital competencies that enable the finding, evaluation and organising of information in the digital environment, data handling and managing of digital media messages (Jisc, 2022a). Digital communication, collaboration and participation comprise skills to communicate, collaborate and participate in digital networks. Lastly, digital identity and well-being revolve around the development and management of digital identities as well as the development of awareness of how digital devices may impact well-being. Jisc (2022a) includes management of digital stress, workload and distraction as well as looking after personal health and safety. While one may assume that academics who, for example, experience digital stress may benefit from disengagement with platforms to care for their well-being, it appears not mentioned in Jisc's (2022a) digital identity and well-being element.

Moreover, all of the aforementioned six capability elements of Jisc's (2022a) competency framework aim at academics' engagement with digital technology. Although Jisc's (2022a) takes a critical approach when focusing beyond functional use, they do not consider that digital competencies may also apply to decisions about disengagement from digital platforms. This appears to be of potential importance especially when it comes to caring for well-being and job performance (see also Light, 2014). Therefore, the present study emphasises that digital competencies, across the digital competency dimensions (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022), may be important for academics' engagement and disengagement with platforms. Such competencies may be gained through formal and informal learning approaches.

2.3.3 Formal Learning

In terms of formal learning, a curriculum is usually the frame defining the learning needs. Teaching is usually conducted by an appointed educator and learning is assessed followed by accreditation (Hager, 2012). CPD may be conducted over institutionally organised activities, for instance, courses, conferences or workshops. Activities may lead to accreditation in form of certificates such as certificates in learning and teaching. Social media training may be provided by universities in form of training workshops or seminars. An example is the 'social media for academics' workshop conducted by the Oxford e-Research Centre (Oxford e-Research Centre, 2016). Additionally, a more recent example is identified at Edinburgh University (The University of Edinburgh, 2021), which has dedicated digital skills and training teams in place to develop staff's abilities to use technologies such as social media. The team provides various courses and programmes to use technologies for remote working and teaching as well as it is possible to become a certified member of the association for learning technology (The University of Edinburgh, 2021).

Most recently Jisc (2022a) provides the digital discovery tool, based on the previously mentioned digital capabilities framework (see Figure 2), which enables the assessment of digital competencies through a survey study. The focus of the tool is on students' and staff's digital competencies that can be tailored for specific roles or focus areas (such as accessibility and inclusion or effective digital teaching). Jisc (2021) shows multiple case studies of institutions, which adopt that tool in order to align the building of digital capability with their organisational strategy. Their approach to developing digital competencies is clearly formal and students and staff can obtain digital competency badges to demonstrate their engagement in certain development practices. This approach is reflected in multiple UK-based case studies of which four, that focus on increasing platformisation of their academic processes, are reviewed here (Jisc, 2021).

The first case study is about the building of digital capabilities associated with blended learning at the University of Wales Trinity St David (Jisc, 2022b). Accordingly, they integrated Jisc's digital discovery tool in inductions for new employees. They developed a digital framework for blended learning based on Jisc's (2022a) digital competency framework (see Figure 2). Additionally, they collaborated with Human Resources and managers to strategically integrate the tool and surveyed staff about their perceptions of blended learning, pedagogical approaches and the integration strategy of the university. One of the main reasons for the University of Wales Trinity St David to adopt Jisc's (2022a) discovery tool and competency frameworks appears to be that they conducted formal digital competency

training sessions in the past and the turnout of academics was poor due to their workload and related time constraints.

Moreover, despite the fact that the University of Wales Trinity St David's strategy took a formal approach, they aimed to understand what academics wanted to do and integrated these needs within the professional environment. Overall, they were able to increase the uptake of the new approach and 200 staff engaged with the digital discovery tool in 2022. A potential reason for this was that the discovery tool includes an online survey for staff to fill out on their own time followed by institutional-led meetings that may also be held online. This appeared to have less impact on academics' workload than the requirement to attend formal sessions.

The second case focuses on Gloucestershire College (Jisc, 2019a), which tried to answer the question of what difference building digital capabilities makes. Their aim was to align digital competency development with their institutional strategy. Due to the increased digitisation of teaching and learning developing staff's digital competencies was a core objective of their strategy. They use the digital discovery tool to triangulate the data with the inputs of the teaching and learning teams. Therefore, they made decisions more informed and less driven by guessing situations. Like the University of Wales Trinity St David, they used the tool during the inductions of new staff.

However, in contrast to the University of Wales St David, they did not emphasise discovering the staff's wider needs and wants but aimed to develop the staff's digital competencies through coaching, empowerment toward the independency to use digital tools and abilities to adapt to changes. Third, in contrast to the University of Edinburgh (Jisc 2021), the University of Westminster (Jisc, 2019b) used the digital discovery tool to assess the staff's digital competency level. The resulting data was collected in order to develop the digital competencies of the whole department through group workshops. Such workshops were also complemented with an online digital development programme that enabled participants to obtain awards (badges) for the completion of specific modules.

Lastly, the fourth case study is about the University of Edinburgh (Jisc, 2020), which focused on digital transformation across the institution. They define digital transformation as "The changes associated with the complete application of digital technology in all aspects of a modern university" (Jisc, 2020, p.1). Their focus was on improving the user experience in order to contribute to the university's overall success. Such success appears to be underpinned by digital transformation programmes. This is reflected in their digital skills

development, which is explicitly mentioned as integrated into their strategy as

> A cornerstone of our strategy to build a digital culture is that all staff across the
> university have a right to plan and update their skills. Within Information Services
> Group each staff member has an entitlement to a minimum of two digital skills
> training events or activities per year (Jisc, 2020).

In contrast to the previously outlined cases, the University of Edinburgh (Jisc, 2020)
approached the integration of digital discovery too through structured learning. They used
the digital discovery tool to assess the overall competency levels in order to understand their
current digital competency level (Jisc, 2020). They introduced a programme and six
distinctive classroom workshops, which were aligned with the digital competency framework.
Their workshops were inclusively addressing beginners and advanced users and toolkits and
resources for both levels were provided (Jisc, 2020). The participants shared learning
activities via blog posts and earned badges for the completion of each module. Their
approach also actively included students who acted as digital competency trainers and
digital champions. On the other hand, in contrast to the previously outlined case studies, the
University of Edinburgh also included non-formal learning approaches such as self-study
through free online resources and step-through programmes that were complemented with
face-to-face workshops in support of learning to acquire digital competencies (Jisc, 2020).
Such workshops addressed multiple difficulty levels and included participants' engagement
in analysing and presenting data. In addition, they also encouraged staff and students to
participate in LinkedIn Learning for online digital competency development.

2.3.4 Non-Formal Learning

According to universities Bamber (2009, p.13), knowledge is encultured through social
construction between colleagues, which is reflected in non-formal learning which is:

> The non-accredited, often unacknowledged activity could be termed the 'invisible
> curriculum' in an academic's learning. It includes all those professional activities,
> many of which are visible but not conceived of as CPD, but which contribute to the
> academic becoming a more knowing professional.

Non-formal learning is defined as workplace learning, as well as training and development,
and includes non-accredited courses, programmes, and activities with the aim to improve
employees' capabilities (Bamber, 2009). In contrast to formal learning, non-formal learning

may often not be given enough importance in CPD frameworks at UK universities as these activities may be non-accredited and do not follow a formal curriculum (Bamber, 2009). Bamber (2009, p.13) in their analysis argues that non-formal learning entails various learning activities that may be visible but would be treated as an 'invisible curriculum' in the context of academics CPD. Non-formal learning activities for instance could be organisational activities; working groups, academic activities such as reviewing journals, reading or networking, which include blogs and learning from others (Bamber, 2009). In light of this, learning to use social media platforms may be achieved over blogs and online chats as well as learning from own experiences and the experience of others, non-accredited online courses delivered by private organisations or reading books (Carrigan, 2020).

Furthermore, according to McIntyre's (2014) review of the reduction of the digital literacy divide through disruptive innovation, from a strategic perspective, it may be important for HEIs to concentrate on individualistic approaches to academics' professional development. The mentioned reason for this is that emerging technologies are related to diverse circumstances and requirements of academics depending on their professional practices. Therefore, in order that academics can understand their needs and requirements for their professional practices (e.g., teaching and learning or engagement), the individualistic approach to their professional development may support their work authenticity within their field (Koehler, Vilarinho-Pereira and Rezende, 2021). Moreover, such understanding may also support the identification of limitations related to the use of digital technology for professional practices.

Subsequently, McIntyre (2014) discusses the need for informal professional development through sharing of heuristic knowledge. Such knowledge derives from the sharing of academics' experiences, based on personal dispositions, through online forums or open networks which are developed by academics. Such collectively shared and developed heuristic knowledge may benefit the adaption to emerging technology and organisational changes (McIntyre, 2014). Moreover, heuristic knowledge may benefit academics in the building of digital competency because they may be able to relate their experiences to those of others. Collective knowledge harboured through the sharing of experiences may greatly improve the effectiveness of academics' professional development and support the sustainable integration of digital teaching and learning practices (McIntyre 2014).

On the other hand, in the view of Bamber (2009) academics expect autonomy over their CPD. This field seems to be widely underexplored as prevailing studies (e.g., Selcuk, 2020 Ting, 2015; Prior *et al.*, 2016) focus on students' autonomous learning needs. Nevertheless,

drawing on McIntyre's (2014) individualistic approach to CPD, autonomous learning is the representation of individual choices of learning activities based on personal preferences. It is encouraged to compare this with a study, about adult education and human resource development by Ponton and Rhea (2006), which conceptualises autonomous learning associated with self-directed learning activities from a social cognitive perspective. Based on the social cognitive theory Ponton and Rhea (2006, p.38) claim: "Autonomous learning results from the interplay among the environment, the person, and behaviours and is the mechanism through which self-motivated personal development is realized."

Ponton and Rhea's (2006) concept associates autonomous learning with the five abilities of human functioning as *symbolisation*, *forethought*, *vicarious learning*, *self-regulation*, and *self-reflection* derived from the social cognitive theory. *Symbolisation* is an individual's ability to develop mental images deriving from sensory experiences or information. *Forethought* is the ability to use symbolisation in order to mentally develop unrealised scenarios that result in motivation to pursue an action. *Vicarious learning* is the ability to harbour collective knowledge with others and re-learning from mistakes. *Self-regulation* is an individual's ability to make choices about activities in order to reach a goal. Finally, *self-reflection* is the ability to reflect on past experiences through personal propositions, attitudes, behaviour and intentions. Consequently, an autonomous learner demonstrates initiative, resourcefulness, and persistency when engaging with self-directed learning.

From a different perspective, Silamut and Petsangsri (2020, p.4797) define self-directed learning as "a process in which adult learners initiate their inner motivation to learn by themselves to increase their knowledge, skills and experiences from resources and evaluating learning outcomes." Silamut and Petsangsri (2020, p.4801) developed a self-directed learning model in combination with knowledge management in order to improve digital literacy abilities. Digital literacies focus on analysis and evaluation, value and creation, socio-cultural organisation and cooperation and operation competencies. The model addresses the four core elements of self-directed learning readiness triggers, setting goals and planning, learning activities and learning evaluation. Readiness triggers are associated with an individual's interest to learn something new that triggers the desire to learn (Silamut and Petsangsri, 2020, p.4799). This may also inform the training provider who may share resources to nourish the learner's interest. Due to the triggered interest, learners may search for further information and knowledge on digital platforms. They then may capture and store the information as well as apply and share the knowledge with others. Lastly, they may extend and create new knowledge through, for example, content creation on social media (Silamut and Petsangsri, 2020).

In terms of setting goals and planning, once the learner is triggered, they may set goals and plan how to proceed to learn more about their interests. They may acquire knowledge about how to learn the topics via digital platforms, capture and store the information for future reference and share their harboured knowledge about goal setting and planning with others who may provide feedback (Silamut and Petsangsri, 2020, p.4800). Learning activities are chosen by the learner who may decide to involve trainers, experts or instruction, and accesses online resources, journals or websites. Knowledge may be discovered through training sessions and workshops (face-to-face or online) with the support of experts, colleagues, or instructors. Such knowledge may be captured and stored and shared with others via online platforms. The acquired knowledge may be evaluated by experts, instructors or colleagues who provide feedback. Learners then may create new knowledge through content (e.g., blogs, websites and social media) and share it with others (Silamut and Petsangsri, 2020).

Lastly, learning evaluation is related to the experts assessing the learner's knowledge derived from chosen activities through testing or evaluating of content. Knowledge is evaluated through the collection of information about the learner's capabilities and evaluation of achievements (Silamut and Petsangsri, 2020, p.4800). Based on the knowledge evaluation the learner may create new knowledge through the creation of new content on digital platforms that they share with others. What is striking in this model is that although Silamut and Petsangsri (2020) integrate self-directed learning most of the knowledge management is associated with the involvement of experts and instructors. This contradicts the aforementioned autonomous learning concept by Ponton and Rhea (2006) because if self-directed learning is autonomous then knowledge management may also require to be approached from an individualist perspective. Even so, Silamut and Petsangsri (2020) reflect the hindering of self-directed learning through the stark focus on advice and evaluation of knowledge by experts and instructors. However, this may be beneficial for some academics who welcome guidance from experts and instructors. Therefore, the present study appreciates the multiple needs and perspectives that academics may have about the way they train and develop their digital competencies associated with their professional social media use.

2.4 Conclusion

Deriving from the above it is clear that the current digital competency framework for UK academics Jisc (2022a) does not yet consider digital competency development from a techno-social-emotional perspective. While their approach is critical in the sense that

competencies enable the critical evaluation and understanding of content, data and interaction on digital platforms, it is questionable to what extent the composition of well-being is deemed to be important. The problem is that digital disengagement aspects are not consistently integrated into the element of digital literacies and, therefore, appear not as important. Especially, there appears no focus on the emotional dimensions which is mentioned by Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022). This dimension seems important because decisions, interaction, time, and exposure to content may negatively impact academics' well-being beyond the functional use of social media.

We still know little about the techno-social-emotional interrelations between academics and social media and in what ways digital competencies may benefit their well-being. Well-being appears to be a currently important element associated with Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) emotional dimension. Therefore the present study emphasises the importance to understand *why* and *how* social media may influence academics' well-being and which digital competencies may be required. In addition, the present study investigates *why* and *how* academics may train and develop such competencies. The present study is also interested in *how* such competencies may enable academics to understand and manage their relations with multiple stakeholders and to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms. Moreover, the present study aims to understand which digital competencies may benefit academics' professional social media use boundary negotiations and what influences may affect their decision-making. In an endeavour to contribute such knowledge, the present study uses the following theoretical considerations of the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT.

Chapter 3 Theoretical Considerations

The previous chapter reviewed the literature on digital literacy as the theoretical foundation, and this chapter outlines works of the two theoretical considerations of the concept of boundary work, the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT), followed by the explanation of the two complementary lenses and the conclusion.

3.1 Boundary Work

This section starts with an introduction to the concept of boundary work followed by the boundary work intersection of boundaries and the outline of the boundary work framework.

3.1.1 Introduction to Boundary Work

A 'Boundary' is "a real or imagined line that marks the limits or edges of something and separates it from other things or places" (Oxford Learner's Dictionaries, 2023a). Deriving from the strand of sociology, boundary work was first conceptualised by Gieryn (1983) who aimed to demarcate the contests between scientific and non-scientific professional areas. Gieryn (1983, p.782) defines *boundary work* as "their [scientists'] attribution of selected characteristics to the institution of science (i.e., to its practitioners, methods, stock of knowledge, values and work for organisations) for purposes of constructing a social boundary that distinguishes some intellectual activities as non-science". Lamont and Molnár (2002, p.168) define social boundaries as "objectified forms of social differences manifested in unequal access to and unequal distribution of resources (material and nonmaterial) and social opportunities".

According to Lamont and Molnár's (2002) review of the study of boundaries in the social sciences, scholars from cultural sociology (e.g., Levitt, 2011) and anthropology (e.g., Jackson, 2001) focus on understanding the differences and similarities that define, in the context of social boundaries, the identity of groups. In doing so, however, they merely focus on the 'external' (content, interpretative scope) dimension of boundary work while ignoring the 'internal' dimension, which addresses the development of self-worth, tied to distinctive meanings of group identities and definitions of institutionalised, cultural belonging (Lamont and Molnár, 2002). Therefore, Lamont (1992) in his study about the French and American Upper-Middle Class, extends Gieryn's (1983) boundary work concept with symbolic boundaries.

Symbolic boundaries "are conceptual distinctions made by social actors to categorise objects, people, practices, and even time and space" Lamont and Molnár (2002, p.168), but also demarcate individuals into groups within which people share common feelings about their belonging to that group. In other words, actors actively create and re-create socially constructed boundaries that form their social reality. Taken together, boundary work comprises processes within which actors discursively create and re-create socio-symbolic boundaries in order to claim their professional positions and sustain their professional authority (Gieryn, 1983; Lamont and Molnár, 2002).

Derived from what has been said, the present study defines academics' boundary work as *the process by which academics aim to create and re-create boundaries in their professional social media use, which demarcates their use from that of other communities*. These distinctions are contested, and it may not be possible to readily determine based on formal agreements what qualifies as academics' professional social media use. In fact, there is no existing framework or lists that enable such determination. Academics have had to adapt their professional practices in accord with rapidly changing communication ecologies in the wake of social media. This view has been mentioned by Carrigan (2020) who writes that social media's prominence for scholarly practices is on the rise; therefore, understanding the changes and mediation of boundaries resulting from the use of such platforms is crucial. Academics' professional social media use is not stable but is shifting and practised depending on the professional context.

This is reflected in a recent study by Carrigan and Jordan (2021), which shows the increasing trend toward *platformising* processes and practices within UK HEIs. Carrigan (2020) and Carrigan and Jordan (2022) demonstrate how the integration of digital platforms (such as those offered by social media) may restructure processes, behaviour, social relationships and transform private behaviour into public behaviour. In addition, academic speech is increasingly becoming more contested as it comes within reach of a broad audience, as well as academics are increasingly exposed to cybercrimes (like trolling, harassment, and hate speech). Moreover, as previously reviewed in Chapter 2, because academics can reach broad audiences, understanding their stakeholders is a component of their digital literacy (see also Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif, 2021). Even so, we do not know enough about *why* and *how* academics may engage in boundary work associated with decisions about their potential intentions to use SNS or their actual use of SNS to interact with multiple stakeholders. Having said that, in order to contribute such knowledge, we first have to understand *where* academics' boundary work takes place.

3.1.2 The Boundary Work Intersection of Boundaries

In light of what has been said, potential boundary negotiations appear to exist when academics make decisions about using or when they use SNS to interact with stakeholders, as well as such negotiations appear to be associated with ethical concerns. It is, therefore, encouraged to draw on Kimball and Kim's (2013) attempt to conceptualise virtual boundaries associated with ethical considerations for the use of social media in social work. Accordingly, SNS comprise virtual boundaries at the intersection of personal, professional and community levels. Due to the overlapping levels, in order to make sound ethical decisions the ability to set 'virtual' boundaries may be important. The adaption of Kimball and Kim's (2013) virtual boundary concept (see Figure 3) applies to academics, as similar to social workers, academics often negotiate between personal and professional boundaries when they make decisions about or when they use SNS to interact with multiple stakeholders (e.g., students, the public, industries, scholars, communities) and may experience various ethical dilemmas (Carrigan, 2020).
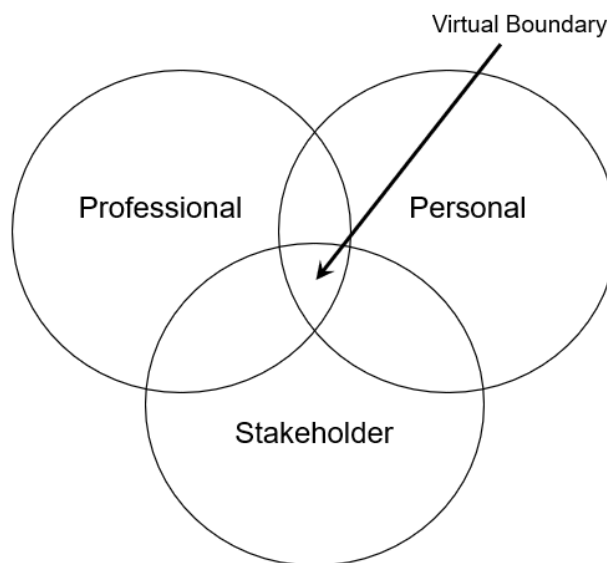
Figure 3 Virtual Boundary: Adapted from Kimball and Kim (2013, p.186)

3.1.2.1 Identity Dilemma

Decisions about intersecting personal and professional boundaries appear to be addressed by Carrigan (2020) who discusses the *identity dilemma* due to the intersection of interactions, on social media, with employers, friends and families, and students. Carrigan (2020, p.164-165) describes the *identity dilemma* due to the interferences of the *public life* with the *private life* and vice versa. On social media, academics require to adopt an online

identity and make decisions about the engagement with stakeholders, which depends on who they are and what academics want them to know (Carrigan, 2020). The complexity arises when academics engage with multiple groups (employers, friends, families) and may decide to adopt multiple online identities (e.g., professional, and personal). This also accords with findings derived from a systematic review, by Kasperiuniene and Zydziunaite (2019), which shows that in the context of academia, boundaries between the private and public spheres are associated with the continuous construction and re-construction of multiple identities.

Indeed, following Lamont and Molnár's (2002) conceptual study of boundaries in the social sciences, boundaries depend on the context of social practices and the *actor* who negotiates their creation and re-creation. These, in turn, seem to impact the *actor's* well-being. This is corroborated in a recent survey study about well-being and work-life merge on a random sample of 605 Australian and 313 UK academics, conducted by Fetherston *et al.* (2021) who discuss academics' blur of the boundaries between personal and professional lives. A mentioned reason for the overlapping boundaries is the digitisation of work (e.g., teaching) including digitised communication, and it is striking that around half of the academic population experienced psychological stress (Fetherston *et al.,* 2021). It is somewhat unsurprising that a mentioned cause of excess workload is academics' opportunity to use digital technology for professional communication outside of working hours. Indeed, such behaviour may lead to obsessive compunction (such as guilt after doing something bad) or addiction (e.g., workaholism) that appears to be driven by increasing workloads.

According to Kasperiuniene and Zydziunaite (2019), it appears that academics may find it easier to negotiate the boundaries of professional identities if they can dissociate their personal and professional lives (Kasperiuniene and Zydziunaite, 2019). This is echoed in a conceptual study, about multiple boundaries of professional groups and individuals, conducted by Mclaughlin (2003). Following McLaughlin's (2003, p.267) concept, strains of multiple identity constructions on one's well-being may be mitigated through the ability of self-preservation, which requires a reflexive and conscious process of defining some personal aspects beyond being a professional.

Furthermore, academics may experience a blur of personal and professional boundaries as there are no strict rules on how social media may be used (Pasquini and Evangelopoulos, 2017). Indeed, institutional social media policies that are integrated into institutions appear to be prone to individual interpretations of regulations (Carrigan, 2020). In addition, boundaries between personal and professional social media use are porous because there appears no

clear definition of what it means to be professional or unprofessional when using social media (Carrigan, 2020). These examples may be related to the potential intentional or unintentional overstepping or dismissal of boundaries (Gustafsson *et al.*, 2019). For instance, academics who, in what may be seen by their peers as deviating from the boundary, may damage an institution's reputation and, therefore, they may face disciplinary actions (Bothwell, 2019). Hence, when boundaries are dismissed or overstepped, new boundaries may be created and participants and/or practices may be expelled.

The overstepping of such boundaries may be mitigated through the control of privacy as the concept of an *interpersonal boundary process* (Altman, 1976, p.13). This is reflected in a recent study by Millham and Atkin (2018) who conducted an online survey with 697 digital natives from public universities in the Eastern United States. According to their study, individuals may require controlling *interpersonal boundaries* in order to make decisions about how much information they may disclose to others on social media platforms (Millham and Atkin, 2018). Such decisions, therefore, may be important for academics because they may be vulnerable due to the exposure of their information to the public on online platforms. Simultaneously, their well-being may be at risk when they receive information or when they are exposed to online content and, therefore, they may need to learn to protect themselves.

Derived from all that has been mentioned so far, there is evidence that academics' well-being is at risk due to potentially blurred boundaries between personal and professional identities, practices and decisions about negotiations of boundaries of professional social media use with stakeholders. Nevertheless, we do not know how academics negotiate boundaries between themselves and stakeholders when they make decisions about or when they use SNS professionally. However, the presented evidence shows that there is a potential need for academics to build digital competencies in order to make sound decisions about their potential use of SNS, holistically in consideration of their well-being. Therefore, the present study develops a novel digital competency framework through the lens of academics' social media use boundary work based on the theoretical foundation of digital literacy in support of academics' holistic decisions making about their potential SNS use toward the benefit of their well-being and job performance.

3.1.2.2 Ethical Dilemma

Academics may experience *ethical dilemmas* as "The situation where 2 moral principles are in conflict" (APA Dictionary of Psychology, 2022). This has recently been mentioned by some scholars like Carrigan (2020), Carpenter and Harvey (2019) or Kasperiuniene and

Zydziunaite (2019). Conversely, these scholars discuss *ethical dilemmas* of academics'
decision-making about; *when* and *how* it is right or wrong to use social media for
professional purposes, disclosure and sharing of content or wider interactions with multiple
stakeholders (e.g., students, the public, industries, scholars). As explained by Vallor (2021)
in his discussion about SNS and ethics, *ethical dilemmas* may arise through the *direct
ethical impacts* of SNS activities. Such activities may impact users beneficially or harmfully.

This is corroborated in Kvalnes's (2020) recent book about digital dilemmas in the context of
social media ethics. Following Kvalnes (2020), academics may experience co-existing
ethical dilemmas, which result from individualistic experiences, are context-driven and
depend on academics' negotiations and struggles of boundaries between their personal,
professional, stakeholders and propositions. According to Kvalnes (2020), *ethical dilemmas*
may appear on a spectrum within five categories as; role dilemmas (conflict between
personal and professional identities), tempo dilemmas (conflict between impulsivity, due to
speed of spreadability of content, and control and role), integrity dilemmas (moral
dissonance between moral convictions and organisational ethical conducts), speech
dilemmas (conflicts between appropriate and inappropriate speech) and lastly, competence
dilemmas (decisions about disclosing one's own or exposing of others social media
competency gaps).

Furthermore, *ethical dilemmas* appear to be the concern of several scholars like Carrigan
(2020), who wrote a book about the social media use of academics, Lees (2018), in their
overview of social media policies in UK HEIs, Pasquini and Evangelopoulos (2017) who
analysed 250 social media policies of HEIs and Sobaih, Hasanein and Elnasr (2020) who
investigated Egyptian academics' adoption of social media. Together these scholars share
the view that social media policies and ethical guidance lack clarity, definitions and
consensus on *why* and *how* academics may define what is appropriate and inappropriate as
well as what is 'right' and 'wrong'. This is also reflected by Joosten, Pasquini and Harness
(2013) who conducted a qualitative web-based survey study with 30 academics of multiple
HEIs. The study shows academics' concerns regarding students' privacy on platforms and
resulting ethical issues involving students' behaviour on platforms. Therefore, Joosten,
Pasquini and Harness (2013) argue that developing social media policies and providing
Training & Development that focus on the interaction with- and ethical behaviour of- students
on platforms may be important.

Moreover, there appears to be a common agreement among these scholars that there may
be a lack of institutional support associated with the provision of ethical guidelines in the

context of interaction with stakeholders on platforms. There appear to be clear boundary struggles at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels that may be influenced by ethical concerns associated with individual propositions. Nevertheless, we know very little about academics' boundary work at the intersection of academics' personal, professional and stakeholder levels in association with ethical dilemmas, and the potential propositions that may impact their decision-making about their SNS use. But what we know is that there are myriads of challenges and concerns associated with cyber security (see Oksanen *et al.*, 2021) and, therefore, as indicated by Kvalnes (2020) and Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) training and development of ethical digital competencies (see Section 2.2.1) may support the understanding and management of *ethical dilemmas*.

3.1.3 The Boundary Work Framework

In order to explore academics' social media use boundary work, the present study adapted Carlson and Lewis's (2019) journalistic boundary framework (see Table 8), which is essentially an adaptation of Gieryn's (1983) principles.

	Expansion	**Expulsion**	**Protection of Autonomy**
Stakeholders	Actors accepted in professional social media use	Actors rejected in professional social media use	Actors outside professional social media use perceived as threats
Practices	Actions accepted in professional social media use	Actions rejected in professional social media use	Actions outside professional social media use are perceived as threats
Propositions	Norms/ideas/beliefs accepted as professional social media use	Norms/beliefs/ideas rejected as professional social media use	Norms/beliefs/ideas perceived as threats to professional social media use

Table 8 Boundary Work Framework: Adapted from Carlson and Lewis (2019)

The framework is particularly suitable for exploring academics' professional social media use boundaries because journalists, like academics, navigate their professional practices within a dynamic and transformative organisational environment (see Carrigan and Jordan, 2021; Simunjak, 2022). In addition, for academics, like journalists, boundary struggles are symbolic and socially constructed. Based on Carlson and Lewis (2019), boundary work exists at the intersection of participants, practices and propositions. Accordingly, negotiations of boundaries can result in an expansion (e.g., professional social media use accepts new practices), expulsion (e.g., some belief is rejected as governing principle in professional social media use) or protection of autonomy (e.g., some non-professional social media use

actor is recognised as a threat to professional social media use). Having said that, academics' professional social media use is highly individualistic due to the personal and professional needs associated with SNS affordances (see Chapter 4). Therefore, the consequences of academics' decisions about their social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement may result in expansion, expulsion and/or protection of autonomy deriving from academics' construction and the reconstruction of their professional social media use boundaries.

3.1.3.1 Expansion

In terms of Teaching & Learning, academics may decide to integrate students, scholars, external experts, alumni and/or industry professionals in their professional social media use (Abegglen, Burns and Sinfield, 2021). As mentioned by Manca (2020) academics may include external experts, alumni, or industry professionals to widen the learning context (see Section 3.2.3). When interacting with students, academics may decide to use social media as part of their Teaching & Learning, due to the opportunities provided by pedagogical affordances of platforms, reviewed in Section 3.2.3.2, to mention just a few, for collaborative learning activities or sharing of information, content and search for resources as part of their Teaching & Learning (Legaree, 2015; Moran, Seaman and Tinti-Kane, 2011; Manca and Ranieri, 2017; Mogaji, 2019). In addition, academics may use social media to care for the well-being of their students in form of pastoral care, promoting professional development and LinkedIn recommendations (Hamid *et al.*, 2014; Husin and Ali, 2022; Manca and Ranieri, 2017; Watermeyer *et al.* 2020; Zachos, Paraskevopoulou-Kollia and Anagnostopoulos, 2018). Academics may also use social media to build their students' digital competencies, create virtual classrooms or create events and activities (see also, Patmanthara, Febiharsa and Dwiyanto, 2019).

Regarding Networking & Public Engagement, academics may integrate the public into their professional social media use. They may use social media to inform, consult or collaborate with the public (e.g., Jordan, 2022; Khlusova, 2021). Academics may also use social media to integrate industries and research communities as well as other academics with whom they may engage in global networking, joining of groups or wider collaborations (Carrigan, 2020; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Meishar-Tal and Pieterse, 2017; National Co-ordinating Centre for Public Engagement, 2022). Additionally, they may also share the beliefs, deriving from their attitudes and motivations (e.g., Elsayed, 2016; Veletsianos and Kimmons, 2013) that using social media for professional purposes is acceptable. Academics may collaborate with colleagues and support staff in order to share knowledge about the use of platforms as well

as to support each-others use. For example, academics who feel uncomfortable using social media may ask colleagues for social media support (e.g., PR department staff) to post for them or use departmental social media accounts (Carrigan, 2020; Silamut and Petsangsri, 2020).

3.1.3.2 Expulsion

In terms of Teaching & Learning, however, while academics may decide to integrate students, they may also decide to, either fully or partially, exclude them from their professional social media use. Potential reasons may be academics' perceived concerns/barriers or hindering factors as well as potential threats (like stalking or cyberbullying, online harassment, cybercrimes), negative attitudes (emotional responses) or low perceived usefulness of platforms (e.g., Calice *et al.*, 2022; Manca and Ranieri, 2016). This is supported by Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham (2020) who conducted focus groups with UK academics and explored their social media use for Teaching & Learning from personal, pedagogical and institutional perspectives. Accordingly, academics may prefer the dissolution of strict personal and professional demarcations between themselves and students.

Furthermore, Sugimoto *et al.* (2015) mention that informal interactions with students in physical spaces (e.g., on-campus) do not leave evidence back, whereas such relationships on SNS are increasingly challenging due to the digital footprint (persistence of information on online platforms). Indeed, the persistence of information may pose challenges especially if the content or, for instance, comments are inappropriate (Sugimoto *et al.*, 2015). Similarly, this is reflected in a survey study conducted by (Manca and Ranieri, 2016a), which reports the data of 6139 Italian academics' use of social media for teaching. Their study shows tensions related to the integration of social media for teaching due to diminished *closed boundaries* (physical boundaries) that exist in physical classrooms on social media.

Additionally, academics may also have certain propositions associated with their professional social media use. Propositions in the context of academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning have been reported by Rambe and Nel (2015). Although Rambe and Nel (2015) focus on Teaching & Learning such beliefs may also apply to academics' Networking & Public Engagement. Based on Rambe and Nel (2015), propositions may depend on academics' utopian, dystopian and ambivalent perspectives of social media for Teaching & Learning. Academics who share the utopian perspective are optimistic and may believe that social media presents various opportunities such as; learning enhancement

across geographical borders, supporting socially constructive learning (interactive learning on social media), the building of communities of inquiry (using social media to share ideas to inform students and to enhance student-student interaction) as well as the development of intellectual/social capital (the forging of kinship between students and educators and facilitate students to ask questions).

From a dystopian perspective, academics are pessimistic and may believe that social media do not possess any educational value (Rambe and Nel, 2015). Hence, these academics may believe that it is unethical to use social media to interact with students and they may share the belief that they need to protect students' privacy. Academics may also believe that social media are not suitable for professional practices and that it is inappropriate to spend time with students on platforms. Such propositions appear to be frequently mentioned in literature as barriers or hindering factors for academics' engagement with platforms. For instance, Manca and Ranieri (2016a) show the most frequent barriers as lack of time, training, support and low perception of usefulness that may hinder academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning.

In a similar vein, Mercader (2020) who conducted multiple case studies, on a sample of 527 Spanish HE teachers, which explore *barriers* to integrating digital technologies in HEIs, report seven main *barriers* as lack of time, technophobia, lack of planning, lack of incentives and lack of evaluation. In this line, academics may also omit to use SNS because they may share beliefs that using social media for Networking & Public Engagement is not suitable due to time concerns, low perception of usefulness or social aversion (Jordan and Weller, 2018). Moreover, academics who do not find their audience trustworthy may decide to exclude them from professional social media use. Furthermore, academics may exclude colleagues as supportive forces because asking others to post may lead to a loss of control over what is posted (Carrigan, 2020). Also, some academics may share the belief that asking others to post on their behalf may be inappropriate. Additionally, academics may be exposed to social influences (see Section 3.2.6), for example, news about scandals (e.g., Criddle, 2020) that may lead to the rejection of stakeholders in their professional social media use (e.g., Gruzd, Staves and Wilk, 2012; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Kieslinger, 2015; Kuntsman and Miyake, 2019; van Dijck, 2013).

On the other hand, academics who share an ambivalent view of using social media for Teaching & Learning are neither pessimistic nor optimistic (Rambe and Nel, 2015). Indeed, these academics may build their beliefs around the acknowledgement of existing opportunities and challenges and make decisions about their potential use of SNS based on

weighing their professional priorities (Rambe and Nel, 2015). However, due to the complexity of challenges and opportunities due to SNS affordances' ambiguity (see Chapter 4) ambivalent academics' social media use boundary negotiations appear to be prone to uncertainties related to their decision-making processes. For example, academics may find SNS useful for Teaching & Learning, but they may also find it difficult to use the platforms (see Rambe and Nel, 2015, p.642)

Ambivalent beliefs are also reflected in Sugimoto *et al.* (2015) who discuss the challenge to know where the boundaries between professional and personal conduct are when arguing that it is believed these boundaries may not exist. This is echoed by Malesky and Peters (2012) who conducted a survey study with 459 students and 159 faculty members from the United States. Malesky and Peters (2012) demonstrate conflicting agreement (ethical dilemma) regarding what appropriate and inappropriate online behaviour is between students and faculty staff.

Similarly, a study by Delello and Mokhtari (2017), which followed a mixed method survey design (open and closed-ended questions) with students and faculty members of the United States, reports a shift and blur of boundaries between faculty and students because social media brings people closer together. It is, therefore, unsurprising that a recent study by Hamadi *et al.* (2021), which reviewed over 80 academic papers between (2017-2019), shows *barriers* such as personal privacy, the blur of social media use between education stakeholders, *technical barriers* to implementing social media (e.g., devices), the negative effect on students' overall performance, as well as wider concerns such as cyberbullying, distraction, wasting of time and workload concerns.

3.1.3.3 Protection of Autonomy

Academics may negotiate boundaries in order to protect their academic autonomy. Academic autonomy is reflected in Quinn and Levine's (2014, p.901) definition of academic freedom as

> right, without constriction by prescribed doctrine, to freedom of teaching and discussion, freedom in carrying out research and disseminating and publishing the results thereof, freedom to express freely their opinion about the institution or system in which they work, freedom from institutional censorship and freedom to participate in professional or representative academic bodies.

In order to protect their autonomy, academics may see government bureaucracies, mega-media corporations and their institutions as potential threats. They may feel that their communication, classroom pedagogies and development of resources on platforms are under constant control and surveillance (Rambe and Nel, 2015), and as stated by Quinn and Levine (2014) political or personal engagement in society appears not protected by academic freedom. Therefore, academics may decide to reject stakeholders and professional practices in their professional social media use in order to protect the academic communities autonomy.

The risk of being drawn into political or personal arguments is reflected by Kasakliev *et al.* (2020), as explained in Section 3.2.6, who argue that social media influencers who spread harmful content and ideas may be a potential threat because they may make inappropriate comments and this may result in personal or even political arguments through posting of non-education content, fake information and may be seen as actions that threaten academics communities (Kasakliev *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, academics may decide to reject public stakeholders in their professional social media use in order to protect their academic community from such threats.

Academics may also decide not to get involved with institutional management (see also Section 3.2.6), when using social media, to avoid observation and criticism that threatens the freedom of the academic community. Further, academics may protect their academic community's freedom by the autonomous definition of appropriate and inappropriate social media practices when referring to the protection of academic freedom and the right to freedom of speech (Carrigan, 2020). Additionally, academics may protect their community's freedom by opposing or not following their institutional social media policies, which may be seen as controlling instruments rather than holistic guidance (Carrigan, 2020).

In sum, derived from what has been reviewed in this section, academics appear to engage in boundary work when negotiating porous boundaries of their professional social media use. Indeed, the definition of what it means to be professional or unprofessional appears to be ambiguous. In addition, academics for instance may experience a blur of boundaries as there are no strict rules of how social media may be used because the lack of institutional guidance or existing institutional social media policies appear to be prone to individual interpretation of regulations. Moreover, there appear to be boundary struggles at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels due to increasing *platformisation*, increasing workloads and resulting difficulties to separate personal and professional lives. In light of this, boundaries may be dismissed or overstepped and

practices and stakeholders may be expelled. Academics may also negotiate boundaries to integrate practices and stakeholders in their professional social media use. On the other hand, academics may make decisions to reject practices and/ or stakeholders in order to protect their autonomy.

Therefore, academics' negotiations of boundaries of their professional social media use, between themselves and their stakeholders, are socially constructed, multifaceted, dynamic, as well as interrelated. Exploring *how* and *why* these boundaries are negotiated may foster a greater understanding of the influences on academics' well-being and professional performance. While academics' social media boundary negotiations contribute a rich understanding of *how* and *why* they make decisions about the use of social media for the potential interactions between themselves and their stakeholders, the present study is further interested in, based on the UTAUT, *what* influences academics' decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms.

3.2 Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology

This section starts with the introduction of the UTAUT followed by the qualitative use of the UTAUT, performance expectancy, effort expectancy, facilitating conditions, social influence and emotional experiences.

3.2.1 Introducing the UTAUT

The UTAUT is a comprehensive, quantitative model focusing on technology acceptance (Venkatesh *et al*., 2003). The UTAUT incorporates eight other acceptance models such as the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1985) and the Technology Acceptance Model (Venkatesh and Davis, 2000). The UTAUT is a positivist research model. The positivist research approach is deductive, tests hypotheses and delivers knowledge assuming there is one reality (Babbie, 1998). Derived from eight theoretical constructs (see Table 9) of the acceptance and the actual use of technology, the UTAUT by Venkatesh *et. al*. (2003) is a numeric measuring instrument that aims to explain the behavioural intentions of using technology.

	Theoretical Construct	Survey Questions
1	**Performance expectancy** – "the degree to which an individual believes that using the system will help him or her to attain gains in job	- I would find the system useful in my job. - Using the system enables me to accomplish tasks more quickly. - Using the system increases my productivity. - If I use the system, I will increase my chances of getting a raise.

	performance" (Venkatesh *et al.* 2003, p.447).		
2	**Effort expectancy** – "the degree of ease associated with the use of the system" (Venkatesh *et al.* 2003, p.450).	-	My interaction with the system would be clear and understandable.
		-	It would be easy for me to become skilful at using the system.
		-	I would find the system easy to use.
		-	Learning to operate the system is easy for me.
3	**Facilitating conditions** – "the degree to which an individual believes that an organizational and technical infrastructure exists to support the use of the system"(Venkatesh *et al.* 2003, p.453).	-	I have the resources necessary to use the system.
		-	I have the knowledge necessary to use the system.
		-	The system is not compatible with other systems I use.
		-	A specific person (or group) is available for assistance with system difficulties.
4	**Social influence** – "the degree to which an individual perceives that important others believe he or she should use the new system" (Venkatesh *et al.* 2003, p.451).	-	People who influence my behaviour think that I should use the system.
		-	People who are important to me think that I should use the system.
		-	The senior management of this business has been helpful in the use of the system.
		-	In general, the organization has supported the use of the system.
5	**Anxiety-** "Evoking anxious or emotional reactions when it comes to performing a behaviour (e.g., using a computer)" (Venkatesh *et. al.* 2003, p.432).	-	I feel apprehensive about using the system.
		-	It scares me to think that I could lose a lot of information using the system by hitting the wrong key.
		-	I hesitate to use the system for fear of making mistakes I cannot correct.
		-	The system is somewhat intimidating to me.
6	**Self-efficacy-** "Judgment of one's ability to use technology (e.g., computer) to accomplish a particular job or task" (Venkatesh *et. al.* 2003, p.432).	-	If there was no one around to tell me what to do as I go.
		-	If I could call someone for help if I got stuck.
		-	If I had a lot of time to complete the job for which the software was provided.
		-	If I had just the built-in help facility for assistance.
7	**Attitude toward using technology-** "An individual's overall affective reaction to using a system" (Venkatesh *et. al.* 2003, p.455).	-	Using the system is a bad/good idea.
		-	The system makes work more interesting.
		-	Working with the system is fun.
		-	I like working with the system.
8	**Behavioural intention to use the system**	-	I intend to use the system in the next <n> months.
		-	I predict I would use the system in the next <n> months.
		-	I plan to use the system in the next <n> months.

Table 9 UTAUT constructs

In recent years, various scholars (e.g., Alsheri, Rutter and Smith, 2019; Dajan and Hegleh, 2019; Lock *et al.*, 2021; Rahmaningtyas and Mulyono, 2020) used the UTAUT (see Table 9) quantitatively. Scholars (such as Hu *et al.*, 2020; Tseng *et al.*, 2019) used the UTAUT2, which integrates the extensions of Venkatesh *et al.*'s (2003) six constructs with hedonic motivation, and price value. In addition scholars (e.g., Gunashinghe *et al.,* 2019) also use the UTAUT3, which comprises personal innovativeness as an extension of the UTAUT. Conversely, these studies exclude the statistically insignificant constructs (see Venkatesh *et al.*, 2003) as anxiety, self-efficacy and attitude towards the use of technology used the

UTAUT.

However, a recent generalisable study, conducted by Gunasinghe and Nanayakkara (2021), integrates the anxiety construct to assess the technological anxiety within the UTAUT to understand the non-user adoption of virtual learning environments (VLEs) on a sample of Sri Lankan lecturers. Their generalisable results show the validated significance of technological anxiety toward the behavioural intention of VLEs. Anxiety in combination with performance expectancy and facilitating conditions appears to negatively influence performance expectancy and effort expectancy as well as decisions about the omitting of VLEs may be triggered. Therefore, Gunasinghe and Nanayakkara (2021) recommend future research to include the UTAUT construct of anxiety. This is an important consideration for the present study because anxiety may also have negative consequences on academics' professional social media use and resulting consequences for their well-being and job performance (see Celik, Akilli and Onuk, 2014; Oksanen *et al.*, 2021).

Furthermore, there seems to be a recent trend among scholars across disciplines (e.g., Gruzd, Staves and Wilk, 2012; Jayaseelan, Koothoor and Pichandy, 2020; Williams, Saunderson and Dhoest, 2021) who apply the UTAUT in qualitative studies to deeper understand the social media use of individuum. In order to capture a rich understanding of academics' intentions (e.g., engagement and disengagement with platforms) to use social media professionally the present study uses the lens of the UTAUT qualitatively.

3.2.2 The Qualitative use of the UTAUT

While in what has been reviewed so far, the scholars applied the UTAUT quantitatively, Saleem, Al-Saqri and Ahmad (2016) conducted qualitative interviews based on their attempt to capture a rich and comprehensive understanding of the UTAUT constructs. They use an interpretive descriptive methodology to describe academics' characteristics but then used quantitative coded frequencies to analyse the data. Their results show some academics reported positive performance expectancy but the overall expectation for the use of Moodle was negative. There appears to be clear evidence that studies employing the UTAUT to investigate academics' social media use are scant.

Indeed, probably the only study which applied the UTAUT qualitatively and contributes knowledge in respect of the social media use of UK academics was conducted by Gruzd, Staves and Wilk (2012). They carried out 51 semi-structured interviews and focused on academics in Information Science and Technology disciplines in North America. Concluding

their study, Gruzd, Staves and Wilk (2012), state that the UTAUT may be suitable to explain academics' social media use, and posit that performance expectancy will affect the intention to use social media. Nevertheless, their study excludes anxiety and self-efficacy and attitude toward using technology. However, Gruzd, Staves and Wilk (2012) state that their findings speak to emotional experiences and they recommend the inclusion of anxiety and attitude toward using technology for future research. Therefore, given anxiety and attitude toward using technology are both of emotional nature the present study includes these constructs under the term *Emotional Experiences* (see Section 3.2.7).

Furthermore, according to Celik, Akilli and Onuk (2014, p.480) who conducted a cross-sectional survey study about academics' motivations to use social media, "emotions are reactions to the actions driven by an individual's needs, goals, or concerns that has many aspects which is always interconnected with cognition and motivation." Based on Celik, Akilli and Onuk (2014) emotions may be joy, surprise, anger, disgust, fear, anxiety, distress, shame or resentment. These emotions may interact with perceptive and cognitive processes that influence the way individuals behave and think. Therefore, emotions may be influenced by an individual's social, cultural and learning contexts and may result in distinctive emotional reactions associated with academics' decisions about their potential intentions to use SNS. Derived from the above and following Gruzd, Staves and Wilk's (2012) recommendations, the present study qualitatively uses the following five constructs; performance expectancy, effort expectancy, facilitating conditions, social influence, and affective reactions (see Table 9).

Additionally, the type of technology and related usefulness may be important elements when analysing the boundaries of new technologies. According to Yonkers (2020) who analysed the boundaries of theories of emerging technology and human behaviour, the UTAUT focuses on environmental factors, the ways technology is produced and the influence of changes created by humans. However, the relationship and impact between technology and human behaviour as well as how the social factors impact technology vice and versa may also be important (Chen, Wu and Wang, 2011; Szuprowicz, 1995; Tsatsou, 2018). While a few scholars (like Rafaeli and Sudweeks, 1997; Szuprowicz, 1995) state the importance and existence of interaction between people and technology, they miss addressing the potential socially constructed boundaries and how these may be experienced when academics use social media professionally.

Overall, deriving from the reviewed literature, it is clear that emotional constructs (e.g., anxiety, attitude towards using technology) may be important in order to understand *why* and

how academics' perceptions of the UTAUT constructs may affect their decisions about behavioural intentions to use social media. Furthermore, numeric approaches to understanding social media ignore the socially constructed, multiple realities within which experience is part of the interaction. Therefore, the importance to acquire meaning and deeper understanding between academics, social media and their environment is not fully addressed. This indicates that there is a need to address the limitations of the UTAUT through a qualitative approach that seeks a rich understanding of the quantitative theoretical constructs.

3.2.3 Performance Expectancy

3.2.3.1 Qualitative Definition

Venkatesh *et al.* (2003, p.447) define performance expectancy as "the degree to which an individual believes that using the system will help him or her to attain gains in job performance." According to Venkatesh *et al.* (2003, p.447) the core statements of this UTAUT construct are as follows:

Statement 1: "I would find the system useful in my job."
Statement 2: "Using the system enables me to accomplish tasks more quickly."
Statement 3: "Using the system increases my productivity."
Statement 4: "If I use the system, I will increase my chances of getting a raise."

In consideration of the aforementioned definition and statements, using the lens of the UTAUT qualitatively, the present study poses the question of *Which benefits and challenges influence academics' perceived usefulness of social media for professional practices*? The following two sections, review literature that shows benefits and challenges associated with academics' perceived usefulness of social media in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. It appears that the benefits and challenges of both practices frequently overlap. Therefore, the sections combine the practices but highlight the distinctions where applicable.

3.2.3.2 Benefits

Various contributions to the literature show the benefits of academics' use of social media for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement associated with communication, finding and sharing of resources and information. The use of SNS to enhance

communication with various stakeholders for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement is mentioned by various scholars. This is unsurprising given that social media enable communication anytime and anywhere (Fetherston *et al.,* 2021). Regarding Teaching & Learning, as mentioned by various scholars (such as Chugh, Grose and Macht, 2021; Hung and Yuen, 2010; Husin, Zulfadli and Zuraina, 2022; Idris and Wang, 2017; Kara, Çubukçuoğlu and Elçi, 2020; Manca, 2020; Manca and Ranieri, 2017; Shahril *et al.*, 2018) SNS may support global communication between students and teachers and may improve relationships with distance learners.

Along this line, Greenhow and Lewin (2016), who conducted a conceptual study on social media in education, show SNS may enhance the sharing of resources and communication about assessments and course content. A reason for such benefits may be the breach of social distance on platforms that may enable authentic communication between students and educators (Rambe and Nel, 2015). In addition, derived from interviews with fourteen Australian lecturers, Hamid *et al.* (2014) also mention the students' improved informal communication and support of extra-curricular activities. In this light, Watermeyer *et al.* (2020) show integrating social media in Teaching & Learning may also enable the pastoral care of students (see also Section 3.1.3.1). Moreover, academics may benefit from students' personalised SNS profiles that provide background information about students and facilitate the building of rapport (Hamid *et al*., 2014). Social media may also benefit academics' and students' career development. From the perspective of Teaching & Learning, academics may use social media to support students' professional development by forging connections with industries and teaching students how to develop their professional online identity (Du, 2021; Manca and Ranieri, 2016a; Taylor, 2018).

In terms of Networking & Public Engagement, following Jordan (2022) who analysed survey text responses in order to investigate academics' perceptions of research impact, social media enable various opportunities for academics' communication with communities. This is reflected by scholars like Carrigan (2020), Donelan (2016) and Jordan and Weller (2018) who conversely demonstrate social media may be of benefit to academics' communication with broad public audiences (such as practitioners, policymakers, research communities, lay people and the media). Communication on platforms may enable academics to keep up to date with the latest scholarly developments and be in touch with others. Furthermore, academics may disseminate, discuss and search for resources and information, as well as they may receive and provide feedback and comments on shared content (Carrigan, 2020; Jordan and Weller, 2018).

Furthermore, networking, collaboration and group work are mentioned in various literature. Collaboration appears to be a benefit of using social media for Teaching & Learning and has been mentioned by various scholars (e.g., Chugh, Grose and Macht, 2021; Greenhow and Lewin, 2016; Mazman and Usluel, 2010, Rambe and Nel, 2015) who report improved peer feedback and support among students and forging of intellectual social capital through group work on platforms. In this vein, Ito *et al.* (2013) in their study about connected learning, present a case where students collaborated with an online writing community, developed a comic and engaged in civil action community. In this sense, engagement on platforms may enable students to collaborate with public communities and enhance students' social capital and knowledge about wider community issues. This is echoed by Murire and Cilliers (2017), in their survey study about social media adoption among 300 lecturers at a South African university, who additionally mention benefits such as the development of students' critical thinking skills and motivation.

On the other hand, academics may collaborate with public communities, other researchers and research communities across the globe. In light of this, according to the LSE Impact blog (2015) and some research (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Jordan, 2022; Jordan and Weller, 2018), academics may network and engage with non-academics and scholar-activism on platforms to obtain research data, crowdsource data as well as to develop opportunities for speaking at events. Hence, academics may enhance their professional development through engagement on platforms with public communities, other researchers and research communities across the globe. More so, Carrigan (2020) and Dermentzi and Papagiannids (2018) who conducted an online survey study with 250 academics, about academics' intention to adopt online technologies for public engagement, further discuss the use of social media for academics' self-branding, which appears to become increasingly important to raise the online profile for building relationships with stakeholders. Indeed, "self-branding is a way of ensuring visibility and standing out in some way" Carrigan (2020, p.153). This seems to be especially important for precariously employed academics who move between institutions and jobs.

3.2.3.3 Challenges

Academics may not find SNS useful due to various challenges. Regarding Teaching & Learning, some scholars (e.g., Barczyk and Duncan, 2012; Greenhow and Lewin, 2016) report academics may not find social media useful for teaching. SNS may be unsuitable due to poor referencing and unreliability of content. Another potential reason may be that some academics perceive SNS (e.g., Facebook and Twitter) as distractive (Galagan, 2010; Manca

and Ranieri, 2016a; Rambe and Nel, 2015). More so, several scholars (e.g., Ajjan and Hartshorne, 2008; Barczyk and Duncan, 2012; Harris and Rea, 2009; Tess, 2013) show plagiarism, grammar issues, potential addiction to platforms and a lack of access to technologies. Also to note, identity dilemmas associated with academics' use of social media for Teaching & Learning are demonstrated by some scholars (e.g., Carpenter, Kimmons and Short, 2019; Celik, Akili and Onuk, 2014; Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020; Veletsianos and Kimmons 2013) who report the difficulties for academics to separate their personal and professional boundaries.

Furthermore, time appears to be an additional reason for academics' low perceived usefulness of platforms for Teaching & Learning. This is reflected by Tess (2013) and Maynard (2020) who conversely argue that using social media may be time-consuming. In light of this, some scholars (e.g., Donelan, 2016; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Lupton, 2014) mention time as a major reason for academics' perceived low usefulness of social media for Networking & Public Engagement. In this line, Carrigan (2020, p.199) dedicates a whole chapter in his book about 'finding time for social media'. He argues that managing the online identity takes time and involves extensive analysis, as well as planning of academics' aims and goals on social media. Moreover, Lupton (2014), in an international online survey study of 711 academics, further explains concerns associated with academics' busy working lives, and the management of knowing when and how to use social media as well as when and how to disengage from platforms. A stated reason for this appears to be the speed of communication on social media which draws time away from professional duties. More so, academics may have low confidence or low digital competencies in creating and communicating content or are disinterested in using social media professionally (Donelan, 2016; Jordan and Weller, 2018).

In addition, academics' perception of the limited usefulness of platforms, for both Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement may also be due to the potential exposure to cybercrimes (such as online abuse, hate, trolling or racism), privacy issues and intellectual property rights conflicts. Indeed, privacy concerns and problems to demarcate personal and professional boundaries are mentioned by some scholars (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Jordan, 2022; Lupton, 2014; Manca and Ranieri, 2016a; Tess, 2013). As shown by some scholars like Celik, Akili and Onuk (2014) or Oksanen *et al.* (2021) exposure of academics to cybercrimes may have negative consequences (such as anxiety, fears or long-term illnesses) on their well-being and professional performance. More so, there may be a lack of institutional support (e.g., Training & Development) for academics' to learn to understand and manage such risks (Celik, Akili and Onuk, 2014; Oksanen *et al.*, 2021).

Along this line, there appear to be several recent concerns about information security and information overload (Carrigan, 2020; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Lee *et al.*, 2016). Regarding information security, in a recent review of teachers' main risks of social media training, Kasakliev (2020) addresses multiple risks. Due to the myriad of online content, the quality of educational content may be harmful, misleading, spam or fake. This is corroborated by Oksanen *et al.* (2021) who conducted a survey study with 2492 Finnish academics to investigate hate and harassment in academia, as well as by Adjin-Tetty (2022) who conducted an experimental, comparative analysis with two groups of Ghanian undergraduate students to investigate the effect of media and information literacy on the ability to detect fake news. Both studies (e.g., Adjin-Tetty, 2022; Oksanen *et al.,* 2021), show the recent increase of fake content (e.g., news, video content) on social media and the potential threats these have for academics and students.

Moreover, content may be plagiarised as there is no moral obligation to quote. Kasaklieve (2020) mentions the protection of sensitive information (e.g., political views, sexual orientation, religious beliefs) to be critical because educational discussions, activities, feedback or case studies on social media may reveal such data if the participants are not familiar with, for example, GDPR laws. Also, information leakage from social media may be possible like in the Facebook-Cambridge Analytica case when data (e.g., dates, locations, personal messages) was leaked from millions of users (Kasaklieve, 2020, p. 2585). Lastly, the existence of fake profiles is also related to the use of content. For example, fake teacher profiles that offer students to buy books may be misused to mislead others or to disseminate harmful content that may damage students' or teachers' reputations (Kasaklieve, 2020).

Further, challenges are related to information overload (see also Section 1.2.2). information overload may lead to academics' exposure to stress and increased workload, which may negatively impact their physical and psychological well-being and job performance (Lauri, Virkus and Heidmets, 2021). This may be intensified in the absence of institutional support, lack of digital competencies and lack of technical support (Corcoran and Duane, 2018; Manca and Ranieri, 2017; Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020; Rambe and Nel, 2015). A reason for academics' experience of information overload is mentioned by Gruzd, Staves and Wilk (2012) who show difficulties to distinguish between private and public content may lead to struggles in managing information flows (see also Jordan, 2022) as well as potential loss of control over content due to a possible *inability* to control what others can do with it.

Overall, this section shows various challenges and benefits of SNS for academics' Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. While SNS seem to improve professional

processes, challenges appear to be associated with boundary struggles and potentially negative consequences for academics' well-being and job performance. In this sense, making decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms as well as managing challenges and benefits may take effort.

3.2.4 Effort Expectancy

3.2.4.1 Qualitative Definition

Effort expectancy is ''the degree of ease associated with the use of the system'' (Venkatesh *et al.,* 2003, p.450).

According to Venkatesh *et al*. (2003, p.450) the core statements of this UTAUT construct are as follows:

Statement 1: "My interaction with the system would be clear and understandable."

Statement 2: "It would be easy for me to become skilful at using the system."

Statement 3: "I would find the system easy to use."

Statement 4: "Learning to operate the system is easy for me."

In consideration of the aforementioned definition and statements, using the lens of the UTAUT qualitatively, the present study poses the question of *What influences academics' ease to use social media?* The following two sections, review literature that shows reasons for academics' efforts to use social media in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement.

3.2.4.2 Learning to Use Social Media

The effort that it takes academics to learn to use social media is reflected, as previously explained in Section 3.1.3, by Rambe and Nel (2015) who show academics who make decisions about or use social media for Teaching & Learning may require considering social conditions (e.g., challenges, and benefits), as well as it may be crucial to comprehend that academics' digital competencies may be mediated by their concerns as well as their propositions. Especially, academics who share ambivalent beliefs appear to experience pedagogical and technological complexities and uncertainties. These academics may struggle to make decisions about opportunities and challenges due to a lack of knowledge

about resources and teaching methods and their individualistic propositions (Rambe and Nel, 2015). Hence, these academics may require investing more effort to make decisions about their social media use due to the negotiation of experienced complexities and uncertainties associated with a potential lack of knowledge.

Furthermore, while there is a lack of literature that addresses the effort it takes academics' to learn to use social media for Networking & Public Engagement, the aforementioned ambivalence and complexities to make decisions about opportunities and challenges are mentioned by Carrigan (2020). Based on his book it is clear that using social media for Networking & Public Engagement involves the need to understand complex issues. Carrigan (2020) guides how to use social media for a wider range of issues such as the dissemination of knowledge, management of information, public engagement, cybercrimes, identity management and time. Therefore, given the broad range of knowledge that academics may require to gain in order to make decisions about their social media use, one may suppose that this indeed takes effort.

3.2.4.3 Identity Management

Identity management is an issue that concerns academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Based on the National Co-ordinating Centre for Public Engagement (2022), academics' dominant challenges of Networking & Public Engagement may be associated with identity management. This is corroborated by various scholars who associated the management of online identities with an effort of time and energy (cognition) resulting in academics' emotional labour (see also Section 3.1). Carrigan (2020), for instance, provides comprehensive discussions about the difficulties to make decisions about personal and professional boundaries and the identities academics choose to adopt when interacting with various stakeholders (e.g., students, media, practitioners and communities). As previously stated in Section 3.1.2, academics experience a blur between personal and professional boundaries when using social media for Teaching & Learning as well as for Networking & Public Engagement. In light of this, Carrigan (2020) discusses the identity dilemma, between academics and employers, students, friends and families and there are various questions (who, why, how to interact on what platform) that academics may have to answer for themselves in order to make decisions about their social media use.

In addition, in a small-scale phenomenological study involving 16 UK academics, Bennett (2017) explains the concept of identity work. Accordingly, identity work reflects the struggles of conflicting professional and personal identities and the blur of boundaries. Such conflicts

require academics' effort to construct and reconstruct their sense of self. This is supported by Marwick (2014), an ethnographer who argues that adopting multiple identities may lead to a lack of integrity because it may be important to act with consistency in private and public life. Marwick (2014) further relates this consistency with *being authentic* and explains that maintaining authenticity requires a substantial amount of emotional labour, which is the management of emotions in order to fulfil professional requirements. Furthermore, Duffy and Pooley (2017) in their conceptual article about the convergence of self-branding on social media logic on Academia.edu, use the term promotional labour to explain that academics' engagement in self-branding takes time and energy in order to build relationships and maintain their profile. Hence, managing online identities and related decision-making appears to take an enormous amount of effort if academics decide to consciously engage with questions about their social media use.

3.2.4.4 Adapting to Platformisation

The changing nature of the academic landscape, emerging technologies, societal changes and academics' management of multiple professional roles are current issues that affect academics' well-being and professional performances (Fetherston *et al.*, 2021; Torp, Lysfjord and Midje, 2018; Veletsianos and Kimmons, 2013). Nevertheless, such knowledge exists for more than a decade and is reflected by Gruzd, Staves and Wilk (2012), in their qualitative UTAUT study about academics' use of social media for scholarly communication. Accordingly, it takes effort for academics to navigate and adapt to the ongoing changing landscape of digital technologies and platformisation (Carrigan and Jordan, 2021).

This is further reflected in a review of 46 studies about the use of social media in HEIs conducted by Manca (2020) who states that social media may bring changes to teaching settings and, therefore, academics may require to adapt their practices to learning needs on platforms. As is echoed by Go and You (2016) in their study, which analysed organisational relations in the context of the social media use of 317 global organisations, a myriad of existing social media for public engagement may require the consideration of specific affordances and platform typologies. Therefore, this may take effort for academics to learn to understand SNS so that they can make sound decisions about their potential intentions to use the platforms. Having said that in order to engage with platforms academics may require facilitating conditions.

3.2.5 Facilitating Conditions

3.2.5.1 Qualitative Definition

Facilitating conditions are ''the degree to which an individual believes that an organizational and technical infrastructure exists to support the use of the system'' (Venkatesh *et. al.* 2003, p.453). To avoid overlaps with the other constructs, the present study explicitly uses the lens of this construct from the perspective of *using the technical (operative) aspects of the system* and not the actual use on platforms.

According to Venkatesh *et al.* (2003, p.453) the core statements of this UTAUT construct are as follows:

Statement 1: "I have the resources necessary to use the system."

Statement 2: "I have the knowledge necessary to use the system."

Statement 3: "The system is not compatible with other systems I use."

Statement 4: "A specific person (or group) is available for assistance with system difficulties."

In consideration of the aforementioned definition and statements, using the lens of the UTAUT qualitatively, the present study poses the question of *Which organisational and technical infrastructures do academics require to use social media?* The following two sections review literature that shows academics' facilitating conditions in the context of their social media use of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement.

3.2.5.2 Resources and Infrastructure

Academics' decisions about their intentions to use SNS for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement may depend on their perceptions of the potential existing organisational and technical resources and infrastructures. The availability of organisational and technical infrastructures for academics' use of social media for Teaching & Learning may involve access, know-how and institutional support. The wide availability of social technologies (e.g., social media) is mostly accessible at no cost and the minimal requirement of financial investment may support *platformisation* in HEIs (Hamid *et al.*, 2014; Vandeyar, 2020). Nevertheless, discussed by Williams and Woodacre (2016), in their non-systematic review of the possibilities and perils of ASNS, argue that digital inequality (access and literacy) among scholars may increase academics' difficulties to adapt to emerging digital

platforms. While there is very little literature about digital inequalities among academics, this is echoed by Jordan and Weller's (2018) secondary survey data analysis of 3579 international academics, which indicates that a few academics experienced inequality of access and digital literacy. As is also mentioned by Rambe and Nel (2015) who indicate the need to consider that there may be digital inequality among academics.

On the other hand, digital inequality is a current issue for students and academics may not always be able to integrate social media into Teaching & Learning (Rambe and Nel, 2015). This is supported by Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham (2020) and Talib (2018) who conversely indicate the importance to consider digital inequalities and the need for holistic considerations when making decisions about integrating social media. This is echoed in a recent conceptual study about digital inequality when researching social media use and well-being, conducted by Büchi and Hargittai (2022, p.1) who define digital inequality as "the systematic differences between individuals of different socioeconomic backgrounds concerning their access to, skills in uses of and outcomes derived from engagement with digital media". Büchi and Hargittai (2022) stress the need to consider that well-being may be influenced by unequal access to digital technology, related support and digital competencies.

Regarding facilitating conditions in the context of Networking & Public Engagement various scholars (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Dermentzi and Pagagiannids, 2018; Donelan, 2016; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Khlusova, 2021) indicate digital competencies and Training & Development may be crucial for academics to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms. Indeed, Khlusova (2021) explains the need for academics to develop skills on an ad-hoc basis due to sudden changes such as the Covid-19 pandemic. Skills involve; knowing how to plan public engagement, interaction with multiple organisations, decisions about the best platforms, adoption of online identities, time management, understanding of online risks, as well as understanding what specific platforms afford. Moreover, Williams and Woodacre (2016), in their non-systematic review of the possibilities and perils of ASNS, argue that digital inequality (access and literacy) among scholars may increase academics' difficulties to adapt to emerging digital platforms. While there is very little literature about digital inequalities among academics, this is echoed by Jordan and Weller's (2018) secondary survey data analysis of 3579 international academics, which indicates that a few academics experienced inequality of access and digital literacy.

Furthermore, in a recent study, about academics' perceptions of research impact and engagement through interactions on social media, Jordan (2022) shows that academics may benefit from training on the use of social media to harbour evidence to show reach and

significance in order to demonstrate evidence of impact. Moreover, Jordan (2022) indicates the need for institutional support to safeguard academics who are increasingly required to use social media and, therefore, are at risk to become victims of online crimes (see Section 3.2.3.3). In this line, Khlusova (2021) shows digital competency training and development as a needed resource in order to overcome the perceived lack of institutional support. Khlusova (2021) finds a lack of Training & Development and a lack of ethical guidelines to be the main barrier for academics to use social media.

3.2.6 Social Influence

3.2.6.1 Qualitative Definition

Social influence is "the degree to which an individual perceives that important others believe he or she should use the new system" (Venkatesh *et. al.*, 2003, p.451). According to Venkatesh *et al*. (2003, p.451) the core statements of this UTAUT construct are as follows:

Statement 1: "People who influence my behaviour think that I should use the system."

Statement 2: "People who are important to me think that I should use the system."

Statement 3: "The senior management of this business has been helpful in the use of the system."

Statement 4: "In general, the organization has supported the use of the system."

In consideration of the aforementioned definition and statements, using the lens of the UTAUT qualitatively, the present study poses the question *Who may influence academics' decisions about their intentions to use social media*? The following two sections, review literature that shows academics' potential social influences in the context of their social media use of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement.

3.2.6.2 Peers, family and friends

Academics' decisions about their intentions to use SNS for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement may be influenced by their peers, family and friends. A few scholars discuss the influence of others on academics' decisions about their potential intentions to use SNS for Teaching & Learning. For instance, Kieslinger (2015) conducted a qualitative study about academic peer pressure in social media from the perspective of heavy, targeted and restricted users. Accordingly, academics' decisions about their

integration of SNS for Teaching & Learning appear to be influenced by community, peers, family and friends. Kieslinger (2015, p.9) defines peer pressure as the "social influence of members of a peer group leading others to take certain actions or adopt certain practices". In light of this, academics may be convinced, by their peers, about the potential benefits of using social media and joining the global online network.

Furthermore, Dermentzi and Papagiannids (2018) conducted an online survey on a random sample resulting in 250 valid responses and demonstrate peer influence strongly influences academics' decisions about the use of online technologies for public engagement. What is striking is that peer pressure appears to predominantly derive from within academia instead from external actors. In contrast, Gruzd, Staves and Wilk (2012) show that peer pressure may derive from colleagues, but also friends and family members if social media was previously used for personal purposes. From an ambivalent perspective Gruzd, Staves and Wilk (2012) report peer pressure may lead to increased stress, anxiety and academics may omit to use social media. On the other hand, academics may use the platforms because they harboured knowledge about the use from their peers.

3.2.6.3 Organisations, Students, the Public

Academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning may be influenced by their organisations that increasingly expect academics to integrate digital platforms into their professional practices (Carrigan and Jordan, 2021; Corcoran and Duane, 2018). Carrigan and Jordan (2022) explain that academics may be influenced by their institutions that increasingly expect the integration of platforms in professional processes. This is also reflected by Kieslinger (2015) who states that academics may need to raise their academic profile due to the UK HEIs impact agenda and are increasingly expected to evidence significance and interaction with public audiences. In addition, academics may also be socially influenced by students who may harass them on social media (Busby, 2019).

In this line, academics may experience pressure resulting from social influences due to identity dilemmas derived from the confrontation of diverse personal and professional audiences (Kasperiuniene and Zydziunaite, 2019; Kieslinger 2015). Although academics may be aware of such audiences, they may feel restricted to share opinions or content because they aim to separate their personal and professional identities. As previously outlined in Section 3.1, identity work, boundary work as well as ethical dilemmas may exceed academics' cognitive capacities and result in potential emotional labour that may negatively impact their well-being and professional performance.

Furthermore, social influence may derive from the public who talk about cyber issues (e.g., data, crime) and appears to be related to economic influences deriving from the actions of third parties (e.g., platform owners, Cambridge Analytica) that own, manage and regulate users' online data (Criddle, 2020; Kasaklieve, 2020). In addition, academics' decisions about their social media use may be influenced by cyber-criminals. Cyber-criminals may target academics for social engineering (human hacking) and dissemination of fake content and inappropriate content may influence academics' actions through a stolen identity (Kasakliev, 2020). Moreover, social pressure and exposure to cybercrimes may result in academics' emotional experiences.

3.2.7 Emotional Experiences

3.2.7.1 Qualitative Definition

As previously explained, emotional experiences are the combination of anxiety and attitude toward using technology. Therefore, both constructs are considered as follows;

Anxiety is defined as "Evoking anxious or emotional reactions when it comes to performing a behaviour (e.g., using a computer)" (Venkatesh *et. al.* 2003, p.432). According to Venkatesh *et al.* (2003, p.451) the core statements of this UTAUT construct are as follows:

Statement 1: "I feel apprehensive about using the system."
Statement 2: "It scares me to think that I could lose a lot of information using the system by hitting the wrong key."
Statement 3: "I hesitate to use the system for fear of making mistakes I cannot correct."
Statement 4: "The system is somewhat intimidating to me."

Attitude toward using technology is defined as "an individual's overall affective reaction to using a system" (Venkatesh *et. al.* 2003, p.455).

According to Venkatesh *et al.* (2003, p.451) the core statements of this UTAUT construct are as follows:

Statement 1: "Using the system is a bad/good idea."
Statement 2: "The system makes work more interesting."
Statement 3: "Working with the system is fun."

Statement 4: "I like working with the system."

In consideration of the definitions and statements, using the lens of the UTAUT qualitatively, the present study poses the question *Which emotional experiences may influence academics' decision-making about engagement and disengagement with social media?* Decision-making influenced by emotions, in the context of academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement are widely underexplored. In order to shed light on this area, the following sections draw knowledge together from the literature that mentions benefits and challenges and supposedly evokes emotional experiences.

3.2.7.2 Identity and Ethical Dilemma, Social Influences, Cybercrimes

Identity and ethical dilemmas may lead to increased stress and potential emotional labour that may negatively affect academics' physical and mental well-being as well as their professional performance (Oksanen *et al.*, 2021). Academics' engagement in self-promotional activities (publicising works, dissemination of information) and self-branding are two folded. Academics may benefit from the visibility and their exposure to the public as many people may see what they do (Jordan, 2022). On the other hand, being exposed to a broad range of audiences may also put academics at risk of receiving negative comments, losing control over what they have said and potentially misunderstanding content (Carrigan, 2020; Duffy and Pooley, 2017; Lupton, 2014). Indeed, as Carrigan (2020) explains decisions about professional engagement on platforms are mostly related to managing identities and as was previously discussed in Section 3.1.2, managing online identity may lead to stress and anxiety due to an overload of cognitive capacities. Moreover, managing identities and engagement on platforms takes time (see Carrigan, 2020; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Lupton, 2014). This is especially difficult for academics who already face heavy workloads and are at risk of a blur between personal and professional lives leading to potential negative consequences on their well-being and job performance.

In addition, as previously mentioned in Section 3.2.6, academics may be influenced by their peers, families, friends or institutions to use platforms and consequently, this may lead to the experience of Fear-of-Missing-Out (FoMO). Indeed, academics may believe that they fall behind others who use the platforms and decide to use the platforms, not because of the enjoyment or benefits but because of their experience of fear (Carrigan, 2020). FoMO may result in stress and anxiety and may negatively affect academics' well-being and job

performance. This is corroborated by Alutaybi *et al.* (2020) who developed a *FoMO reduction approach* on a sample of adult participants. Alutaybi *et al.* (2020) explain that it may be possible to mitigate the impact of FoMO through socio-technical approaches to digital competency training and development. Also, Celik, Akilli and Onuk (2014), in their cross-sectional survey study about academics' motivations to use social media, show anxiety associated with the social influence of third parties (see Section 3.2.6), overload of resources as well as academics' worries about grading learners' activities on social media. Moreover, while some academics reported experiencing discomfort with SNS, others felt confident and comfortable belonging to wider groups and communities.

Furthermore, academics' exposure to cybercrimes on social media appears to be a current concern for some scholars (e.g., Jordan, 2022; Oksanen *et al.*, 2021) who indicate academics' well-being and job performance may be at stake. Academics' use of SNS for public engagement may expose them to cyber risks such as; hate, abuse, xenophobia, homophobia, ableism, misogyny, and hate (Jordan, 2022). Bhardwaj (2013) reports concerns about SNS for Teaching & Learning in the context of privacy, cyber-bullying, fraud, sexual harassment and spreading of fake news. In addition, commenting inappropriately on SNS may lead to harassment of students and teachers (Busby, 2019). Along the same line, Oksanen *et al.* (2021) show rising exposure of academics to hate and harassment in online environments. Accordingly, academics experienced death threats, cyberbullying, hate, harassment, and harmful communication, which result in the experience negative emotions. Consequently, their well-being and job performance may suffer due to negative effects such as stress, sleep problems difficulties to concentrate, post-traumatic stress disorder, anxiety and depression.

Overall, it can be concluded that using the lens of the UTAUT qualitatively may provide insights about the potential influences the constructs; performance expectancy, effort expectancy, facilitating conditions, social influence and affective reactions may have on academics' intentions to use social media. Indeed, it may be answered what reasons underpin academics' engagement and disengagement with social media. However, it does not explain *why* and *how* academics use social media to interact with others and *why* and *how* academics may negotiate boundaries between themselves and their stakeholders (see Section 3.1). In order to understand *why* and *how* academics learn to use social media from a socio-technical-emotional perspective (see Section 1.2.4 and Chapter 4) it is important to understand academics' reasons for engagement and disengagement with social media platforms (system) as well as *why* and *how* they negotiate social media use boundaries and decide on the potential use of platforms to interact with others. In an endeavour to contribute

such knowledge, the present study uses the complementary lenses of the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT.

3.3 Complementary Lenses of Boundary Work and the UTAUT

The previous sections outlined the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT and this section explains *why* and *how* these two lenses complement each other. In light of what has been reviewed until now, the present study investigates academics' professional social media use from a techno-social-emotional digital competency perspective (see Chapter 4), which follows Feenberg's (2009) critical theory, and uses Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) digital competency concept. Following this, the present study seeks an understanding of *what* influences academics' decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media, and *why* and *how* academics may make decisions about their professional social media use boundaries. Such understanding is sought by complementing the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT (see Figure 1).

In terms of boundary work, while literature confirms existing professional social media use boundaries related to academics' Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement, it is not clear why and how academics negotiate such boundaries between themselves and their stakeholders. Awareness of *why* and *how* social media may be used to interact with stakeholders appears to be critical for academics to build their digital competencies (Abegglen *et al.*, 2020; Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif, 2021). Even so, we do not know enough about the digital competencies that academics may apply when making decisions about their engagement and disengagement with platforms. In order to contribute such knowledge, the boundary work concept (see Table 8), based on Carlson and Lewis (2019), provides a framework, which enables the exploration of the dynamic, multifaceted, socially constructed boundaries of professional social media use between academics and their stakeholders, practices and propositions. In this sense, academics' social construction and re-construction of such boundaries may demonstrate *why* and *how* they apply digital competencies when making decisions about their potential intentions to engage or disengage with social media.

On the other hand, the UTAUT by Venkatesh *et al.* (2003), contributes a validated, numeric measuring instrument comprising eight theories (see Table 9) associated with the acceptance and non-acceptance of technology (Alabi and Mutual, 2018). As explained in Section 3.2, an individual's potential intention to use technology appears to be influenced by their perceptions of the UTAUT constructs (see Table 9). The present study uses constructs

performance expectancy, effort expectancy, facilitating conditions, social influences and emotional experiences (see Section 3.2). The UTAUT's constructs aim to quantify the influences of an individual's perceptions related to decisions about their potential intentions to use technology. As explained in Section 3.2.2, the present study follows Gruzd, Staves and Wilk's (2012) ideas and uses the UTAUT qualitatively. The qualitative use of the UTAUT constructs may provide rich data about what influences academics' decisions about their intentions to use social media. Indeed, the qualitative UTAUT lens provides insights beyond UTAUT's numeric origins and explains what may influence academics' decisions about their professional social media use boundary negotiations and engagement and disengagement with platforms.

In the wake of this, using the two lenses as the concept of boundary work, and the UTAUT enables the forming of a combination between their boundary work (socially constructed) and UTAUT (numeric) realities. While academics' boundary work explains *why* and *how* they may make decisions about their potential use or when they use social media to interact with others, the UTAUT provides knowledge about *what* influences academics in decision-making about the intentions to use social media. These two lenses complement each other because they comprise academics' decision-making about social media from a critical, techno-social-emotional perspective.

Following Feenberg's (2009) critical theory and Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) concept, the aforementioned perspective is crucial because there is an interrelationship between technology and academics and vice versa. Academics who use social media require to understand what the platforms afford and make decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms for professional purposes. Such decisions may be influenced by the UTAUT constructs. On the other hand, the use of platforms and potential multifaceted social media use boundary negotiations at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels may also influence academics' decision-making. Therefore, it is important to understand *why* and *how* academics may negotiate the boundaries of their professional social media use in order to sustainably care for their well-being and their job performance.

Hence, it is pivotal to understand *why* and *how* academics may learn to use social media and to explore which digital competencies they may require when deciding about professional social media use boundaries, and their potential intentions (e.g., engagement and disengagement) to use platforms. Therefore, using the two lenses in the present study, enables the multifaceted exploration of academics' social media use when embracing

socially constructed and numeric realities. This combination enables the understanding of *why* and *how* academics negotiate the boundaries of their professional social media use, *why* and *how* they may learn to use social media, and shows us what influences academics' decision-making about engagement and disengagement with platforms. In an endeavour to contribute such a rich understanding through the combination of the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT, it is important to understand SNS affordances.

Chapter 4 Social Media Platform Affordances

The previous chapter outlined the rationale of the theoretical considerations, and this chapter will review academics' social media use from the perspective of SNS affordances for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement followed by an overview of popular SNS.

4.1 Social Networking Sites Affordance Approach

The concept of affordances dates to Gibson (1979), a perceptual psychologist, who studied animals' perceptions of their environments. According to Gibson (1979, p.127) "The affordances of the environment are what it offers the animal, what it provides or furnishes, either for good or ill" he also states:

> Perhaps the composition and layout of surfaces constitute what they afford. If so, to perceive them is to perceive what they afford. This is a radical hypothesis, for it implies that the "values" and "meanings" of things in the environment can be directly perceived.

Gibson (1979) further explains that *objects* comprise the same material for each person, however, affordances are unique and depend on the individualistic perceptions and applications of the object. Affordances are not an object's qualities but the types of applications it affords. Conversely, "The affordances of what we loosely call *objects* are extremely various" (Gibson, 1979, p.133) and depend on the context of the questions under investigation.

In light of this, the present study considers the *why* and *how* of relationships between academics and SNS material (e.g., structure). While the materiality of SNS exists independently of academics, their perceived affordances do not. The reason for this is that academics approach SNS materiality with individualistic goals and perceive SNS as affording distinctive opportunities for their practices. Therefore, SNS affordances may change depending on academics' professional context despite the unchanged materiality. Similarly, academics may perceive that SNS do not offer any affordances for their professional practices, instead, they may perceive that SNS hinder/constrain their ability to fulfil their professional goals.

SNS affordances appear to be widely addressed in multiple studies (such as Carrigan, 2020; Chugh and Ruhi, 2018; Jordan, 2022; Manca and Ranieri, 2016a; Williams and Woodacre, 2016), which focus on academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. These recent studies cite Boyd (2014) and Boyd and Ellison (2010) to elaborate on the definition and SNS affordances. This is somewhat unsurprising as Boyd and Ellison (2010), in their introductory article about SNS definition, history and scholarship, seem to provide a comprehensive definition of SNS based on a historic analysis of SNS between 1997 and 2006. The practicality of their work to understand academics' social media use is reflected by Carrigan (2020, p.17), in his book about social media for academics, who mentions the usefulness of Boyd's (2014) SNS affordances, which derived from the previous work by Boyd and Ellison (2010).

On the other hand, in order to investigate academics' perceptions of research impact and engagement on social media Jordan (2022) analysed 107 survey text responses through the lens of *Networked Publics*. According to Boyd (2010, p.39), *Networked Publics*, shaped by SNS technologies, are "(1) the space constructed through networked technologies and (2) the imagined collective that emerges as a result of the intersection of people, technology, and practice". Therefore, given that the present study focuses on the *why* and *how* of academics' SNS use in consideration of the engagement with multiple stakeholders Boyd's (2010) *Networked Publics* are of particular interest for the present investigation. A reason for this is that academics' decision-making about their potential intentions to use SNS may require techno-social digital competencies (see Chapter 1) in order to understand the intersection of people, technology and practice (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022). In addition, as outlined in Chapter 3, academics may engage in boundary work, at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels, when they negotiate boundaries of their professional social media use between themselves and others.

Boyd's (2010) concept comprises SNS affordance as persistence, replicability, scalability, and searchability. Replicability means that "content made out of bits can be duplicated" (Boyd, 2010, p.46). Persistence means that "online expressions are automatically recorded and archived" (Boyd, 2010, p.46). Scalability means "the potential visibility of content in networked publics is great" (Boyd, 2010, p.46) and searchability means "Content in networked publics can be accessed through search" (Boyd, 2010, p.46). According to Boyd's (2010) concept, these affordances shape the digital environment and participants' engagement. As such, following Boyd (2010), these affordances may shape the publics, which Boyd (2010, p.41) defines as "a collection of people", and how academics negotiate them. Hence, SNS affordances may shape the audiences directly as well as through the

practices that academics developed based on these affordances. Moreover, as argued by Boyd (2010), SNS affordances may have a powerful influence on the control of information and interaction. A potential reason appears to be the bite-sized content produced on SNS, which may enable easy storage, distribution and search, which in turn inflect the *Networked Publics*.

On the other hand, given that academics are employees of HEIs and use SNS for professional communication (Carrigan, 2020), for the present study, it appears to be also important to consider SNS affordances in the context of organisational communication. This is theorised by Treem and Leonardi (2013), in their chapter about the exploration of social media affordances in organisations, who include Boyd (2010) and Boyd and Ellison (2010) to define and theorise SNS affordances. According to Treem and Leonardi's (2013) concept, the aforementioned *materiality* of social media technologies (see Gibson, 1979) appears to lead to limited individualistic perceptions and can be categorised into four common affordances as visibility, persistence, editability and association. Visibility is SNS affordance that enables users to make "behaviour, knowledge, preferences and communication network connections" visible to others Treem and Leonardi (2013, p.150). Persistence is related to the *reviewability* of "communication that remains accessible" (Treem and Leonardi, 2013, p.150) in its original displayed form after it was shared. Editability is a "user's ability to draft, re-draft and craft their shareable communication before others can view it" (Treem and Leonardi, 2013, p.159). Lastly, associations are "established connections between individuals, individuals and content, or between an actor and a presentation" (Treem and Leonardi, 2013, p.162).

Comparing Treem and Leonardi's (2013) concept with Boyd (2010), the affordances of visibility and persistence constitute both concepts. On the other hand, while Boyd (2010) focuses on spreadability and searchability, Treem and Leonardi (2013) do not include these but instead focus on editability and association. Nevertheless, Boyd's (2010) affordance of spreadability and searchability, as previously discussed, appear to be widely used by scholars (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Chugh and Ruhi, 2018; Jordan, 2022; Manca and Ranieri, 2016b; Williams and Woodacre, 2016) to investigate academics' professional social media use.

Furthermore, it appears that Treem and Leonardi's (2013) affordance of association, also called *social ties*, comprises the social component of interaction between two people as well as the ties between a person and information that they have either produced, consumed, or both *prosumed* (Jenkins *et al.*, 2006). According to Treem and Leonardi (2013) social media

may support social connections through the increase of social capital, which is "the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance or recognition" Bourdieu (1986, p. 248). Following Treem and Leonardi (2013), academics may also articulate and make relationships with others explicit by mentioning them in their posts.

Additionally, academics may improve existing or forge new relationships using, for example, recommendations of content and information. It is somewhat surprising that Boyd (2010) did not include affordances focusing on association because their aforementioned definition of *Networked Publics* includes the connection between people, as well as the SNS and the people. Instead, the focal point of Boyd's (2010) SNS affordances appears to be functional and related to the use of content. Therefore, in order to emphasise both Boyd's (2010) and Treem and Leonardi's (2013) affordances, the present study combines their concepts under the technical and social SNS affordance perspectives.

Furthermore, considering the reviewed literature in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, the understanding of academics' emotions associated with their SNS use is important. This is supported by (Steinert and Dennis, 2022) who conceptualise social media's emotional affordances in the context of digital well-being. As Steinert and Dennis (2022, p.36) state, "emotional affordances play a crucial role in the human-technology interaction". Emotions are mental states that are directed at an individual and involve the evaluation of something. In other words, emotions depend on individuals' "care about and on what they value" (Steinert and Dennis, 2022, p.36). It may be important to mention that emotions are not the same as feelings even though emotions evoke certain feelings. Feelings, however, often occur emotionless, for example, hunger, as well as emotions may comprise feelings associated with that particular bodily change (Steinert and Dennis, 2022). In addition, Steinert and Dennis (2022) make a distinction between emotions, which are often short-lived experiences directed at a specific object, and moods which are affective states that appraise the whole environment.

Steinert and Dennis (2022) present four *emotional affordances*; expression, shareability, consumption and evaluation, which likely trigger a user's emotional response. Steinert and Dennis (2022, p.36) define emotional affordances as "elements in the environment that provide an opportunity for emotional reaction". Following Steinert and Dennis (2022), these affordances may enable academics to experience emotions, for example, when they share content that is liked by others. On the other hand, these affordances may also be involved in academics' experiences of negative emotions due to, for instance, the inappropriate

behaviour of others (Steinert and Dennis, 2022). Moreover, these affordances may increase an individual's vulnerability to cyber crimes (e.g., online harassment). Therefore, according to Steinert and Dennis (2022), emotional affordances are inseparably connected to an individual's digital well-being. This is echoed by Oksanen *et al.'s* (2021) study, which shows that online harassment has negative consequences (such as anxiety, depression or stress) on academics' well-being and job performance. Such cybercrimes are enabled due to the opportunities for individuals to express, share, consume and evaluate the content and may have the potential to negatively affect academics' well-being and job performance.

Having stated this, following Steinert and Dennis (2022) emotions may influence academics' well-being from the hedonic and eudaimonic accounts. From the hedonic perspective, which currently dominates digital well-being concepts, well-being appears to be characterised by positive and avoidance of negative emotions. Hence, the hedonic conception of well-being focuses on striving for pleasure. The eudaimonic approach to digital well-being, in contrast, focuses on the flourishing of the human being and embraces negative emotions that may be required to reach a goal (Steinert and Dennis, 2022). Negative emotions may also alert individuals about potential implications or lead to greater self-understanding if and how something should be pursued.

Further, given that the present study investigates academics' SNS use for Teaching & Learning, it is important to include social media's pedagogical affordances. According to Kirschner *et al.* (2004, p.10), in their conceptual study about the design of electronic collaborative learning environments, pedagogical affordances are "those characteristics of an artefact that determine if and how a particular learning behaviour could possibly be enacted within a given context". In the context of the present study, pedagogical affordances describe *why* and *how* academics may use SNS to enact Teaching & Learning behaviour. According to a recent, comprehensive, systematic literature review conducted by Barrot (2021) who analysed 2215 scientific articles from Scopus-indexed journals between 2007 and 2019, there appears to be an increase in research outputs about social media in education, due to the vast raise of active global social media users from less than a billion in 2010 to more than 3 billion in 2020. Therefore, Barrot (2021) argues that social media is increasingly used in education because emerging platforms and increasing flexible affordances provide opportunities for Teaching & Learning.

Although there are some studies (e.g., Manca, 2020; Manca and Ranieri, 2016a; Wang, Woo and Quek, 2012), which report platform-specific pedagogical affordances, only a small number of studies conceptualise common pedagogical affordances of SNS. The present

study focuses on multiple SNS (e.g., technical, social, pedagogical and emotional) and, therefore, the common pedagogical social media affordances form the basis of the affordance approach. McLoughlin and Lee (2007) provide a discussion about pedagogical choices and technological affordances of social software in the Web 2.0 era. Their discussion is formed around the assumption that learning takes place within a socio-cultural system in which students may use various platforms that are associated with technological affordances.

McLoughlin and Lee (2007) demonstrate four pedagogical affordances as Connectivity & Social Rapport, Collaborative Information Discovery & Sharing, content creation, and Knowledge & Information Aggregation and content modification. First, Connectivity & Social Rapport comprises connections between people and engagement in cultural activities. Second, Collaborative Information Discovery & Sharing is associated with making resources and content available to others as well as learning from others through active contributions of user-content. Third, content creation includes sharing, organising, assemble and creating of user-content for consumption. Lastly, Knowledge & Information Aggregation and content modification entail the collection of material from a myriad of sources that can be edited to fulfil personal needs.

In a similar vein, Burden and Atkinson (2008) who conducted a case study about the construction of an online module comprising Web 2.0 technologies used McLoughlin and Lee's (2007) pedagogical affordances. On the other hand, they also used the learning design framework DiAL-e to assess the pedagogical affordances of the Web 2.0 application Voice-Thread. Table 10 shows the affordances derived from McLoughlin and Lee's (2007) affordances and the DiAL-e framework. Burden and Atkinson (2008) show the complexity to define common pedagogical affordances. As evident in Table 10, depending on the perspective and use of the framework the pedagogical affordances may provide different opportunities for Teaching & Learning. Using McLoughlin and Lees (2007) the focus is on the opportunities how students and teachers may use Web 2.0 applications (such as social media). On the other hand, using the learning design perspective appears to create focus on the opportunities of Web 2.0 affordances on students learning. Nevertheless, recent studies focus on affordances potential opportunities and challenges to enable teaching and learning activities without considering the learning design.

McLoughlin and Lees (2007) affordances	DiAL-e framework design / pedagogical affordances
• Focus on learner attention	• Stimulus activities: Posting of media, commenting, reflecting

• Student and teacher feedback about media (e.g., video) • Students and teachers can identify aspects of artefacts (e.g., video, images) • Communities of learners can view and respond to posts • Learning conversations to target an appropriate audience • Managing privacy associated with posts and comments. • Capturing of learning discussions (e.g., text threads)	• Narrative or storytelling: Collective writing, construction of narratives through commenting on posts. • Collaborative: Leaners observations of collected data (e.g., video, voice) • Conceptual: Leaners' prediction of and development of hypothesis of video clips or pictures. • Empathy: Learning to act in different roles on selected media. • Representational: Deconstruction of images, moving images, image text and adding of comments.

Table 10 McLoughlin and Lees (2007) vs DiAL-e Framework Pedagogical Affordances

This is evident in a recent study by Manca (2020) who analysed 46 studies' education value of Instagram, Pinterest, Snapchat, and WhatsApp. Manca (2020) mentions pedagogical affordances as enabling communication, supporting student-instructor communication, enhancing the learning experience and promoting collaboration (in and outside the classroom). On the other hand, Manca (2020) shows consistency of their findings with their previous literature review results (e.g., Manca and Ranieri, 2013; Manca and Ranieri, 2016a), which show pedagogical affordances of social media as; hybridisation of expertise (forming of participatory cultures, interactions with current and past students, external experts, and professional), widening the context of learning (learning through a mix of social and personal life) and mixing information and learning resources (combination of multiple sources derived from multiple channels).

Collectively, the studies reviewed in this section demonstrate social media affordances from functional, social and emotional dimensions. In order to emphasise all three dimensions, the present study combines Boyd's (2010), Steinert and Dennis's (2022) and Treem and Leonardi's (2013) affordances under the framework of Techno-Social-Emotional-Pedagogical SNS Affordance Categories shown in Table 11.

Affordance Category	Affordance
Technical	Visibility Persistence Editability Spreadability Searchability
Social	Association
Emotional	Expression Shareability Consumption Evaluation

Pedagogical	Connectivity and social rapport
	Collaborative information discovery and sharing
	Knowledge and information aggregation and content modification
	Stimulation
	Widening the context of learning
	Hybridisation of expertise
	Mixing information, & learning resources

Table 11 Techno-Social-Emotional-Pedagogical SNS Affordance Categories

Overall, these affordances build the basis, in the present study, to understand the *why* and *how* of potential relationships between SNS affordances, academics, Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. There appears to be a commonality in scholars' (e.g., Boyd, 2010; Carrigan and Jordan, 2022; Manca, 2020; Treem and Leonardi, 2013) views about social media's techno-social characteristics that accordingly shape academics' SNS activities. However, there are two potential limitations associated with this notion. First, based on reviewed literature in Chapter 1 and Chapter 2, it appears that SNS affordances may not only shape academics' decisions about engagement but also their decisions about disengagement with platforms. Having said that, as explained in Section 1.2.4, it seems that taking techno-social perspectives excludes the emotional affordances that have the potential to evoke positive and negative emotional experiences associated with academics' well-being. Moreover, the combination of Techno-Social-Emotional affordances in the context of academics' social media use appears to be underexplored.

Even so, the UTAUT construct of emotional experiences (see Section 3.2.7) demonstrates academics' decisions about engagement and disengagement with SNS may involve positive and negative emotions. This is supported, as evidenced in Section 2.2.6, by Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) digital competency framework, which shows the importance to build emotional digital competencies in order to protect one's well-being and job performance from, for example, cybercrimes (such as harassment, hate speech), and to build healthy relationships with others. Hence, these competencies appear to be linked to well-being that may be positively or negatively affected by SNS emotional affordances.

Lastly, another limitation of the techno-social view of SNS characteristics is the common assumption that building digital competencies may only be required to engage with SNS. This is reflected in the current UK digital training and development programme by Jisc (2022a), which aims to train and develop academics' digital competencies to enable the integration of digital technologies (e.g., social media) in professional practices. However, considering the emotional affordances and potential emotional experiences (see Section 3.2.7) there appears to be a need to consider that academics' may also use digital

competencies in order to make decisions about disengagement with SNS in order to benefit their well-being and job performance.

4.2 Technical Affordances

Persistence, visibility, spreadability and searchability (see Section 4.1) appear to be associated with academics' opportunities and concerns associated with their SNS use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Persistence means that SNS content can never be fully deleted from platforms (Carrigan, 2020). As mentioned in Section 3.2.3.2, there are various benefits, such as searching, finding, sharing, exchanging or disseminating content, for academics' Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement (Dermentzi, 2018; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Khulsova, 2021; Manca, 2020; Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020). In this line, Gruzd and Goertzen (2013) conducted an online survey to investigate academics' professional social media use and found that some academics had concerns about the permanency of their digital records. This is somewhat unsurprising as social media enable and as stated by Carrigan (2020, p.144) "encourages the expression of personal details", which may breach personal and professional boundaries. Therefore, it becomes increasingly complex for academics to determine what personal and professional social media use means and may lead to ethical dilemmas due to boundary struggles at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels (see Section 3.1).

In addition, anything that academics may share on social media leaves a trail and may be picked up on by stakeholders who potentially associate personnel-shared information with professional aspects (Carrigan, 2020, p. 144). This may result in disagreements and/or disputes over professionalism and may even lead to online harassment (Carrigan, 2020). More so, the persistent content is widely visible and accessible to a broad and unknown public audience (Carrigan, 2020). Therefore, this requires academics to limit their visibility in order to mitigate potential exposure to cybercrimes, for instance, online harassment (Boyd, 2010; Carrigan, 2020; Hamadi *et al.*, 2020; Kvalnes, 2020). As explained in Section 3.1, control of privacy is an *interpersonal boundary process* and understanding *why* and *how* to control privacy on SNS is important for academics to make decisions about *what* and *how much* they may want to share and make visible to the public.

Furthermore, criticism or negative comments on online platforms may result in complex problems if the information spreads and reaches a broad and unknown public. There appears to be a risk that misunderstandings, disagreements or criticism from audiences may

lead to reputational damage to academics and their communities (Carrigan, 2020). However, academics may also benefit from the spreadability and editability of content to promote their profile or search information about others, for instance, to collaborate or to engage with students (Jordan and Weller, 2018; Manca, 2020). Also, as Khulsova (2021, p.10) discusses, social media (such as SNS) may enable "powerful information sharing" of academic work, fast, effectively and widely in order to reach a broad non-academic audience. Such sharing may stimulate knowledge exchange through discussions and conversations that may lead to the development of new interests and ideas.

In sum, while persistence, visibility, spreadability and searchability enable academics to use SNS beneficially for their Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement, there appear to be current concerns about the risks of exposure to cyber crimes and the blur of personal and professional lives. In that sense training and developing digital competencies that enable the understanding of technical affordances may improve academics' protection against cyber risks as well as their negotiation of personal and professional boundaries.

4.3 Social Affordances

Academics' opportunities to build and maintain social ties using social media for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement appear to be widely documented.

4.3.1 Social Ties of Teaching & Learning

According to multiple studies, academics may use SNS to connect and interact with internal stakeholders (e.g., students or enable increased student-student interaction as well as external professionals). This is, for instance, supported by Manca (2020) and Manca and Ranieri (2016a) who show the hybridisation of expertise, which is related to peripheral or arising interactions between students-students, students-past-students, teachers-students, teachers-teachers, teachers-external professionals, students-external professionals. In this sense, Manca (2020) and Manca and Ranieri (2016a) discuss SNS may enable the forging of social capital due to the extensiveness of social ties within the networks. This may enable students to learn from external professionals and a global network, as well as academics, may develop their Teaching & Learning through joining, for example, Facebook groups, or reflective discussions. Similarly, Murire and Cilliers (2017) demonstrate the use of SNS to improve student-student and student-lecturer interaction, as well as enable students to build a community of practices through peer-to-peer feedback and assessments.

However, the opportunities for multiple connections on SNS platforms ranging from students to external professionals, are often associated with concerns regarding personal and professional boundaries, privacy risks, time and ethical issues. This is echoed in a conceptual study about technological utopia, dystopia and ambivalence by Rambe and Nel (2015) as well as Legaree's (2015) commentary on the changing face of social media in HEIs. Collectively, these two studies report privacy issues and concerns regarding potential cyberbullying, fraud, sexual harassment and the spreading of inappropriate content (see Section 3.2.7.2) or harassment by students. Busby (2019) also supports this in a recent news article, which reports students at top universities' investigation for offensive online remarks nearly trebled. Indeed, commenting inappropriately on SNS could lead to harassment of students and teachers. From the perspective of students, but seemingly applicable to academics, Shane-Simpson *et al.*'s (2018) survey about social media preferences in the context of privacy and self-expression, shows users may decide to engage on platforms despite privacy concerns if the engagement is beneficial.

Furthermore, tensions in social ties between academics and students are described in a recent focus group study by Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham (2020). Their results show academics prefer to separate their personal and professional online identities. This is corroborated by Kasperiuniene and Zydziunaite (2019) in their systematic literature review about professional identity construction in social media. According to their review, teachers, seem to adopt informal leadership roles and may develop informal professional relationships, therefore, their professional communication may be affected by their informal self-presentation, causing the blur between personal and professional identities. Kasperiuniene and Zydziunaite (2019, p.8) further explain that adopting professional social media communication roles and the clear separation between personal and professional lives may support academics' professional identity construction on social media.

4.3.2 Social Ties of Networking & Public Engagement

Academics may use social media to engage with external stakeholders such as other scholars, practitioners, policymakers, research communities, students, industries and the media. Along this line, various studies (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Khlusova, 2021; Lupton, 2014) report increased opportunities enabled by SNS affordances for academics to interact, collaborate and reach colleagues across departments and disciplines and across the globe. Regarding practitioners and policymakers, Carrigan (2020, p.101) mentions the building of relationships at the *impact interface* which comprises "media, specialist media, professions, entrepreneurs, think tanks, NGOs and policy consultants".

This is supported by Jordan (2022) who demonstrates the importance of social media for academics' integration of stakeholders within their research processes through sharing of data and engagement with non-academic audiences as well as scholar-activism. For example, academics who post about research in progress, for example on Twitter, may attract responses from policymakers (e.g., civil service, governmental departments) who may offer insights, provide access to research participants or make practical use of exchanged knowledge (Jordan, 2022, p.8).

Academics may also build relationships, through, for example, Twitter, with practitioners such as artists as well as research communities with whom they may collaborate. With these stakeholders, academics may collaborate in research projects and events (e.g., conferences and exhibitions), exchange knowledge and may reach collaborative funding opportunities as well as publishers (Carrigan, 2020; Carrigan and Jordan, 2022; Khlusova, 2021). Indeed, SNS enable academics to foster interdisciplinary public ties through collaboration, connection and curation (Jordan and Weller, 2018). This is mirrored by Khlusova (2021), who reports opportunities and challenges of Arts and Humanities researchers' public engagement in digital environments. Accordingly, academics, for instance, may connect with communities through projects like 'Online Orchestra' or 'Creative Citizens' Khlusova (2021), which demonstrate ways to support citizens through online media. In addition, social media may enable the forging of, networking and knowledge exchange with national and global communities (Khlusova, 2021).

Furthermore, recent conceptual research by Ahmed *et al.* (2022) shows the increasing need to strengthen the ties between academia and industries. On the one hand, an academic theory may inform industry practitioners and industries may provide knowledge from practical experiences to students and academics. In a similar vein, Freberg and Kim (2018) investigate recommendations for social media education by interviewing 20 industry professionals. Freberg and Kim's (2018) findings show that industry professionals see academics in the social media field as negotiators between industries and academia. To build academic–industrial communities, academics who teach social media seem to be expected, by industry professionals, to have industry experience and to be active on social media. This may enable the forging of ties between industries and academia and may increase academics' credibility in teaching social media to students who may additionally benefit from professional role models on platforms (Ferberg and Kim, 2018).

From a different perspective, Carrigan (2020) argues that students constitute part of academics' public audience. His argument is based on Burawoy (2005) whose discussion

about public sociology demonstrates that students may be one of the largest bodies through which academics may reach and impact wider communities and societies. On the other hand, Carrigan and Jordan (2022), in their UK case study of social media and the impact agenda, state that internal communication is aimed at students and staff whereas external communication is directed at funders and publishers. As previously mentioned in Section 3.2.6, students are associated with Teaching & Learning (e.g., teaching-related communication, and interaction on social media). However, given Carrigan's (2020) argument, they also appear to belong to the public audiences. According to Carrigan (2020, p.102), social media may enable academics to support students' integration into universities but this may not necessarily be welcomed by students who see social media as "non-university spaces". Even so, it appears to be important to engage with students as a public audience and interact with them as individual consumers of HEIs (Carrigan, 2020).

Lastly, there appear to be opportunities for academics to use social media in order to build relationships with the media (e.g., journalists) (Carrigan, 2020, p.103-104). Academics may use social media to promote their professional profile, increase their visibility to broad audiences and make them more discoverable by, for example, journalists. Clearly, self-promotion, promotion and creating awareness of research (see also Chapter 3; Jordan, 2022) on SNS may lead to the building of relationships with multiple stakeholders, such as the media (Jordan and Weller, 2018; Lupton, 2014). In addition, the provision of, for instance, YouTube videos about academics' work or careers delivers an increasingly authentic professional profile and media professionals may learn about what academics do. This stands in contrast to university websites that may only show broad aspects of academic work (Carrigan, 2020). Having said that, once academics connected with journalists, they may provide further content through social media (YouTube, LinkedIn, ASNS) before, for example, interviews in order that non-experts may learn about their past and present works, which may result in fruitful conversations.

However, the increased opportunities provided by SNS for academics to reach broad audiences and build relationships with multiple global stakeholders may be challenging. The vast range of possibilities to interact and collaborate internationally may be associated with the complexity to make sense of the broad audiences and to identify who potential connections are, what they do and how and why they may be suitable connections. Some scholars (e.g., Carpenter and Harvey, 2019) indicate the potential problem of determining who is trustworthy and authentic. This is corroborated by Khulsova (2021) who argues that it may be difficult to trust others in online spaces because of the limitless posting, commenting

and overload of information (see Section 3.2.4). Therefore, it seems complex to evaluate the reliability of connections and content (Khulsova, 2021). The issue of trust is also reported in a recent study by Salahshour *et al.* (2019) who conducted a purposively sampled survey study about Malaysian academic researchers' behavioural intention to use ASNS. Although their findings are not generalisable, it seems that trust may be an important factor for academics to forge social ties on SNS. Trust appears to be affected by academics' perceived privacy and security (e.g., data).

Another challenge is to understand and manage communication with stakeholders who comment and feedback on academics' work and posts. It may not be easy to evaluate the meaning of others' comments and feedback. Therefore, this may lead to misunderstandings and potential conflicts. This becomes even more problematic when academics receive hateful or harmful comments (Oksanen *et al.,* 2021). In addition, there appear to be raising conflicts between academics and institutions that potentially monitor their staff's social media communications. This is shown in Bothwell (2018) who reports multiple UK-based cases. For example, an academic at a UK institution shared their view about the excessive workload in his Tweets and was asked, by their institution, to stop using Twitter because it was observed they would use the platform excessively. The affected academic felt intimidated and stopped sharing their view with the public on social media (Bothwell, 2019). Another example is a professor who criticised the universities regulations on Twitter and, therefore, was required to answer to managers and the vice-chancellor. This impacted the academics' mental health in such a manner that they were required to leave the institutions. Evidently, UK HEIs may monitor academics' social media activities and may try to control academics' social media use, which may negatively affect academics' well-being and job performance.

4.4 Pedagogical Affordances

The pedagogical affordances focus solely on SNS use for Teaching & Learning and appear to be widely documented, over the past decade. Collaborative information discovery and sharing as well as knowledge and information aggregation are reflected by some scholars (e.g., Tay and Allen, 2011 and Tess, 2013) who demonstrate collaborative knowledge construction through a community of practices. On the other hand, networked individualism, which is the joining of a group without active participation, may also result in knowledge construction (Tay and Allen, 2011). A potential reason, mentioned by Tay and Allen (2011), is that negotiations between group members are more difficult online as students are not interacting in physical spaces and can hide between the online infrastructures (e.g., video

off). In the same vein, Tess (2013), also mentions the enabling of self-directed learning and personal meaning construction, forging critical thinking through debates and disagreement. Knowledge construction may also result from the opportunity to widen the learning context through external social ties (see Section 3.2.6) since students can learn from external professionals, global communities and individuals (Manca, 2020; Manca and Ranieri, 2016).

Furthermore, Rambe and Nel (2015), take a different approach when focusing on utopia, dystopia and ambivalence of social media for teaching. Their phenomenological study investigates self-narratives of South African computing science and informatic academics' social media use for teaching. Rambe and Nel (2015) report opportunities from the utopian perspective, which reflects technology as the sole determinant for Teaching & Learning. Resulting opportunities are breaching social distances (no geographical boundaries) related to improved communication through increased contact frequency with students to increase enthusiasm and course interests, authentic communication and feedback (updating students about changes, latest news) as well as constructivist teaching (increase interactivity, more study time). Similarly, such findings are reflected in a study by Idris and Wang (2017) who conceptualise Facebook's affordances for learning and Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham (2020) as well as Husin, Zulfadli and Zuraina (2002) and Malik and Rahim (2019). Conversely, these studies show, pedagogical affordances may enable innovative learning approaches, motivating students, presenting authentic materials, students' reflections, supporting communication and peer evaluation/feedback.

However, the main concerns among academics are related to the informal (self-directed 'non-formal learning, out of the classroom) and formal learning (instructor-led, inside the classroom) approach, and inclusivity (access). While SNS affordances enable collaboration and cooperative learning through socially constructed knowledge, some scholars (such as Greenhow and Lewin, 2016; Manca, 2020) indicate complexities to determine the suitability of social media for informal and formal learning approaches. Some academics make clear distinctions between formal learning and informal learning, and for some, both approaches are complementing each other. From a socially constructed perspective, a combination of formal, and informal learning may benefit students from a range of activities within both approaches that empower them to take control of how, why, when and with whom they learn. Based on Vandayar (2020) academics may increasingly integrate social media innovatively in their formal learning approaches. However, earlier studies (e.g., Manca and Ranieri, 2016a) demonstrate reluctance and belief that social media are disrupting formal teaching and learning. Therefore, challenges related to decisions about the pedagogical use of social media seem to be related to academics' propositions about such use.

This is corroborated by Rambe and Nel (2015) who conceptualise academics' distinctive beliefs (propositions) about the integration and usefulness of social media for Teaching & Learning in the context of utopian, dystopian and ambivalent perspectives. As previously explained in Sections 1.2.2 and 3.1.3.2, some scholars (e.g., Jayman, Glazzard and Rose, 2022) may see social media as the solution to solve the well-being crisis in academia and, therefore, share the view of technology as the means to solve all problems and to improve everything.

In contrast, some share the dystopian perspectives (pessimism, uninhibited panic) of social media's pedagogical affordances. Their strong beliefs are formed around access, disruptions to learning, such as access, privacy violations and the blurring of professional boundaries. In terms of access and technological constraints, these are recently reported in UK-based studies conducted by scholars like Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham (2020), or Rambe and Nel (2015). Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham (2020) indicate the need to integrate social media in consideration of the digital divide (see Section 3.2.6) and wider circumstances (socio-cultural) of students who do not have access to technology. Moreover, academics' may also consider students' well-being because as stated by Alt (2018) excessive use of digital technology (e.g., social media) poses risks of depression and anxiety. This is corroborated by a recent conceptual study, by Büchi and Hargittai (2022), which shows that in order to ease digital inequality there may be a need to consider the link between subjective well-being (emotional, psychological, social), socio-economic status, as well as digital competencies.

Regarding disruption, academics may see social media as a learning distraction as students may use the platforms to access content that is unrelated to learning or use devices (e.g., mobile phones) for text messaging during classes (Rambe and Nel, 2015). This view is supported by Koehler, Vilarinho-Pereira and Rezende (2021), who conceptualise social media affordances to support the development of problem-solving skills in learners. Accordingly, using social media for Teaching & Learning may be distractive for learners. A mentioned reason by Rambe and Nel (2015) is that accessing the course and non-course-related material on social media during learning requires multitasking, which may increase cognitive load. Although underexplored in literature, the same may also apply to academics who also multitask when using social media during teaching. Having said that, the increase in cognitive load due to multitasking may negatively affect academics' well-being and job performance (see Section 3.1.2).

This is supported in a study about the consequences of technostress for users in organisations by Ragu-Nathan *et al.* (2008) who mention that multitasking can lead to stress, and, therefore, negatively affect one's well-being and job performance. However, this statement has to be treated cautiously, as like Ragu-Nathan *et al.* (2008), Karr-Wisniewski and Lu's (2010), qualitatively analysed survey study, which explores the technological overload based on a snowball sample of 61 US-based knowledge workers, demonstrates that some technological interruption, because of multitasking, may improve work performance due to an increase of focus on the main tasks.

In addition, Rambe and Nel (2015) discuss that using social media for teaching may negatively contribute to students' independent learning approaches and they may require the lecturers' attention all the time. It is, therefore, unsurprising that, as mentioned by Rambe and Nel (2015), some academics appear to share strict beliefs that using social media is not professional and appear to see the platforms as an inappropriate way to interact with students. Academics may also be concerned about the harbouring of knowledge about social media platforms-related content and time to prepare (Manca, 2020; Rambe and Nel, 2015). Further, perceived usefulness, access to technology, as well as compatibility of technology with Teaching & Learning tasks may critically influence academics' decision-making (see also Section 3.2).

4.5 Emotional Affordances

Referring back to Steinert and Dennis's (2020) research, previously discussed in Section 3.2.7, it is clear that social media may evoke positive and negative emotions and may result in emotional experiences through the expression, sharing, consumption or evaluation of the content. In the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement, there appears to be a wider range of literature associated with academics' negative emotional experiences resulting from emotional SNS affordances. However, literature about academics' potential positive emotional experiences, appears to be scant. Nevertheless, Salahshour *et al.* (2019) conducted one of the few survey studies applying the UTAUT about academic researchers' behavioural intention to use ASNS based on a purposive sample of 717 Malaysian academics. The study's findings show a potential positive significant effect on behavioural intention and trust seems to have a significant effect on attitude towards academics' use of ASNS. Trust "is the willingness of a party to become open to the actions of other parties" (Salahshour *et al.,* 2019, p. 250), and according to Lahno's (2001) discussion on the emotional character of trust, trust is an emotional attitude.

Furthermore, some recent studies (e.g., Husin, Zulfadli and Zuraina, 2022) revolve around students' emotional experiences such as those that mention that SNS may support students' enthusiasm, motivation through sharing of interests, collaborations, communications and interactions. Indeed, academics' use of SNS to support students is mentioned by various scholars (such as Koehler, Vilarinho-Pereira and Rezende, 2021; Manca, 2017; Zachos, Paraskevopoulou-Kollia and Anagnostopoulos, 2018). Indeed academics (see Carpenter and Harvey, 2019), who provide constructive feedback, positive commenting on posts or, for example, provide recommendations (e.g., LinkedIn) (see Mogaji, 2019) may evoke positive emotional experiences.

In contrast to the clear gap in the literature about positive emotional affordances', there is much knowledge about the potential negative emotional experiences associated with SNS' emotional affordances. Such concerns are mentioned by Jordan (2022, p.11) and Oksanen *et al.* (2021) who conversely show multiple potential risks such as; trolling, racism, transphobia, xenophobia, homophobia, ableism, hate and abuse and targeting of academics by political parties. Moreover, as previously mentioned in Section 3.2.3.3, Oksanen *et. al.* (2021, p.544) state that academics' cyber-harassment may have multiple negative consequences for their well-being and job performance such as; experience of negative emotions, physical stress, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), long-term mental health problems, anxiety, depression, loss of self-confidence, quitting of the profession, suicidal thoughts, difficulties to concentrate. Indeed, cyber-harassment, related to strong negative emotions (e.g., anxiety, fear) derives from communication through content on online platforms and, therefore, the emotional affordances (see Table 11) clearly have the potential to evoke negative emotional experiences of academics who use social media for Networking & Public Engagement, and Teaching & Learning.

In addition, academics may experience anxiety related to finding the tone when writing emails and insecurities if the content is not understandable to students. Carpenter and Harvey (2019), who conducted semi-structured interviews and focus groups with 48 educators who had used social media professionals, show tensions may arise between educators who disapprove of each other's posts of content that is unrelated to Teaching & Learning (Carpenter and Harvey, 2019). Indeed, the choices of content and communication of educators may lead to disapproval of the community. Moreover, the purpose of content (e.g., comments, feedback) may be misunderstood and lead to defensive and offensive reactions. Carpenter and Harvey (2019) also show educators' potential avoidance of authentic sharing of negative content, for example, about classroom problems, but at the same time, they may also share authentic negative content if it is helpful and creates

awareness around wider societal issues (e.g., environmental crisis). This is corroborated by Marwick (2014), previously mentioned in Section 3.1.2, who explains that authenticity on social media involves strong cognition that in turn may negatively influence academics' well-being.

Based on the literature reviewed here, it is evident that the consideration of academics' well-being and job performance in association with their emotional experiences may be important. However, literature (e.g., Oksanen *et al.,* 2021) provides limited knowledge (e.g., focus on social media profiles and account restrictions) about how academics may take care of their well-being and their job performance associated with their experience negative emotions when they use SNS. While Jisc (2022a) integrates caring for well-being and job performance (see Section 2.3.2) it is not clear which digital competencies within the emotional digital competency dimension (see Section 2.2.6) may support academics understanding and management of emotional experiences. Moreover, we do not know enough about *why* and *how* such competencies may be associated with academics' boundary work and decision-making about the engagement and disengagement with SNS. Therefore, this study considers the importance of SNS emotional affordances that may affect academics' decisions about their engagement and disengagement with SNS.

4.6 Popular Social Networking Sites

Manca (2020) shows popular SNS as Instagram, Pinterest, Snapchat and WhatsApp, Facebook, and Twitter. Manca (2020) choose to focus on those platforms due to their general popularity among the population. Similarly, in an earlier study, Manca and Ranieri (2017) show the popularity of SNS such as Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, YouTube, ResearchGate and Academia.edu. Clearly, these SNS platforms are currently popular among the UK population (Statista, 2022). Additionally, according to Manca's (2020) literature review about ResearchGate and Academia.edu as networked socio-technical systems, these academics' social networking sites (ASNS) appear to be the most popular ASNS for academics' professional practices. Therefore, this section provides an overview of the opportunities and challenges of Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter, YouTube, Instagram, ASNS, and Pinterest.

4.6.1 Facebook

Facebook for Teaching & Learning seems to be popular due to multiple opportunities. According to Manca and Ranieri's (2016a) review, Facebook enables the hybridisation of

expertise (e.g., finding guest lecturers and professionals), widening the context of learning, sharing ideas and resources as well as developing a supportive collaborative learning environment. This is corroborated Idris and Wang (2017) who wrote a conceptualised article about Facebook for learning and indicate that Facebook may enhance supportive and innovative learning approaches to motivate students as well as enable students' reflective practices. This is also supported by Husin, Zulfadli and Zuraina (2022) in their survey study about academics' use of Facebook for Teaching & Learning, and González-Ramírez, Gascó and Taverner (2015) who conducted a survey study about Facebook's strengths and weaknesses for Teaching & Learning.

On the other hand, limited information appears to exist about the use of Facebook for academics' Networking & Public Engagement, and Carrigan (2020) is one of the few scholars who mentions Facebook groups may be useful for academics to reach a diverse audience, finding of collaborators, informing, and interacting with a broad public audience. Nevertheless, privacy issues, technological deficits and time appear to be the major challenges reported by the aforementioned scholars for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement.

4.6.2 LinkedIn

There is little literature, which addresses LinkedIn's opportunities for Teaching & Learning. Even so, Manca and Ranieri (2016b) in their survey study about Facebook and others, on a sample of 6139 Italian academics, show that LinkedIn may increase students' motivation and involvement, improves collaborative and participative learning, and enables the sharing of content and material. However, LinkedIn is not very popularly used by academics for Teaching & Learning as they prefer the platform for professional development (Manca and Ranieri, 2017).

In regard to Networking & Public Engagement, scholars like Segado-Boi *et al.* (2019) who conducted 18 in-depth interviews and Udenze (2017) in their survey study about LinkedIn for professional networking, on a sample of 84 Australian academics, report multiple opportunities such as; academics may use LinkedIn to contact and stay in touch with alumni, networking with likeminded academics, networking in research networks, accessing of shared publications or contacting of research experts or policy practitioners. A limitation is mentioned by Segado-Boi *et al.* (2019) who found that there are no specific university job listings. While the limitation of LinkedIn for academics Networking & Public Engagement appears underexplored, it is important to consider the general challenges associated with

SNS such as cybercrimes or information overload (see Section 3.2.3, Oksanen *et al.,* 2021)

4.6.3 Twitter

According to Tess's (2013) review, academics may use Twitter for Teaching & Learning due to the opportunities for speedy communication (e.g., quick replies to questions), concise writing, connecting with professional communities and practices and supporting informal learning. However, using Twitter may be time-consuming, lead to potential addiction, grammar mistakes due to the fast communication and it may be a challenge to fit communication within 280 characters (Chawinga, 2017). Nevertheless, derived from semi-structured interviews with 25 digital humanities scholars, Quan-Haase, Martin and McCay-Peet (2015) found that the word count limitation may be beneficial for academics to create focus on how they write and share content and information.

In addition, as shown by Segado-Boi *et al.* (2019), academics may use Twitter for Networking & Public Engagement due to the opportunities for the immediacy of communication, access to a broad range of information, reaching of a wide public audience, engagement in academics hashtags and dissemination of news about projects and self-promotion (see also Carrigan, 2020). Even so, Twitter is known for its information overload and time consumption (Carrigan, 2020; Lee, Son and Kim, 2016; Segado-Boi *et al.,* 2019).

4.6.4 YouTube

In terms of Teaching & Learning, YouTube's opportunities are widely reported by scholars like Amaliyah *et al.* (2021) and Almobarraz (2018) who conducted a review of YouTube in the context of e-learning and surveyed the use of YouTube in Saudi Arabian students and professors. Conversely, their studies show opportunities as enabling students' independent learning, searching and sharing of video content improved understanding of the material through video content, the building of learning communities, the teaching of problem-solving through the development and editing of videos and positive overall influence on student engagement. Nevertheless, content may be misleading and there may be a lack of awareness of how to use the features of the platform (see also Almobarraz, 2018; Maynard 2020)

Regarding Networking & Public Engagement, as shown in a conceptualised study, about how academics may succeed on YouTube, conducted by Maynard (2020), academics may use YouTube to communicate their knowledge and research progresses with a broad public

or private audience. Academics may share the videos to inform the public and promote their academic profile (see also Carrigan, 2020). However, it may be time-consuming and take effort (see Section 3.2.4) to develop YouTube video content.

4.6.5 Instagram

As shown in a case study, about academics' use of Facebook and Instagram during the pandemic by Coman *et al.* (2021), academics may use Instagram to share photos and videos, create learning communities, exchange information and knowledge through public and private messaging, make use of live videos, teach students how to edit and write photo descriptions, which may lead to improved writing skills. Even so, Coman *et al.* (2021) found that students affiliate Instagram with personal and extracurricular use and appear to be less prepared to use the platform for learning.

Regarding Networking & Public Engagement, Ellison (2017) who conducted a case study about the opportunities of Instagram for research dissemination, shows that academics may combine text and images to curate and archive research projects, share ideas with other academics, disseminate research knowledge, develop ideas and may use geotagging (geographical identification) or timestamping to specify their research projects and use hashtags to reach a broad audience. While Ellison (2017) did not mention any challenges one may suppose academics may face general challenges such as cybercrimes and information overload (Carrigan, 2020; Jordan, 2022).

4.6.6 Academic Social Networking Sites (ResearchGate, Academia.edu)

Academic Social Networking Sites (ASNS) are seldom mentioned for the use of Teaching & Learning. Manca (2017) who conducted a literature review, is one of the probably only scholars who mentions the use of ASNS to search and share materials and teaching resources. This is somewhat unsurprising given that the platforms have a strong focus on research dissemination. Indeed, several opportunities are mentioned by various scholars (e.g., D'Alessandro *et al.*, 2020; Manca, 2017; Elsayed, 2016; Segado-Boi *et al*. 2019; Willams and Woodacre, 2016). Together these scholars show opportunities for ASNS; job listings, promotion and dissemination of research, peer and colleagues' feedback, commenting on projects, research questions and answers, motivation to publish, instant access to articles, networking and collaborating with others and reaching a broad audience.

However, conversely, the aforementioned scholars also mention that the platforms may be

prone to unreliable information. In addition, it is doubted that communication on the platforms is meaningful because the platforms appear to be a dumping ground for unpublished work, prone to spamming and blurring of personal and professional boundaries as well as privacy and technical issues. This is also reflected by Da Silva, Al-Khatib and Tsigaris (2020) who argue luring researchers to fake journals or the provision of wrong metrics while making the statement that the message is not SPAM. Therefore, academics may engage with SPAM messages and resulting waste their time and may negatively affect their job performance (Rao and Reiley, 2012).

4.6.7 Pinterest

Based on Manca's (2020) systematic literature review and a survey study about Pinterest in undergraduate education conducted by Baker and Hitchcock (2017), Pinterest appears popular for Teaching & Learning due to a myriad of opportunities for academics to; search, gather, share and organise visual-based information, resharing of updates and comments through republishing, incorporating images in learning projects or give students access to subject related images. However, a potential challenge may be the limitation of the text that can be written (Baker and Hitchcock, 2017).

In terms of Networking & Public Engagement, it is striking that there appears to be a gap in academic articles, which address Pinterest in the context of academics Networking & Public Engagement. However, an LSE blog post by Lupton (2012) about how social scientists can use Pinterest demonstrates multiple opportunities, for instance, displaying images of published books or articles, adding weblinks to boards and adding links to articles and books. Display infographics and curate image repositories for the analysis used in research projects. Moreover, academics may display, promote book covers written by others and promote academic writing on boards. It seems also possible to create boards for research groups or university departments. Although we seem to know some opportunities of Pinterest for academics' Networking & Public Engagement, literature about potential challenges is scant. Nevertheless, as previously stated, it may be challenging for academics' whose disciplines focus on written text to communicate and share information through visual content.

4.7 Conclusion

Taken together, it is clear that SNS technical, social, emotional and pedagogical affordances may enable various opportunities and challenges associated with academics' Teaching &

Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. From the perspective of technical affordances persistence, visibility, shareability and search ability may provide various opportunities for academics to promote their profile and to disseminate knowledge to a wide audience but also result in identity and ethical dilemmas as decisions about the extent of sharing personal information can be complex. This has to do with SNS social affordances that may enable academics to forge social ties at personal and professional levels. Indeed, in view of all that has been reviewed here, one may suppose that the myriad opportunities for academics to forge social ties within and outside of their institutions. This is associated with the need to build digital competencies that may enable them to make decisions about connections with a broad and often unknown audience and the extent and nature of the shared content.

Furthermore, there is evidence that SNS emotional affordances are associated with academics' SNS use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement but we know very little about *how* and *why* academics may learn to understand and manage opportunities and challenges derived from emotional affordances. Moreover, none of the reviewed studies addresses academics' social media use boundary work and the digital competencies, which they may need to cope with emotional experiences when they make decisions about engagement and disengagement with SNS for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Therefore, the present study considers SNS emotional affordances when exploring academics' boundary work and their potential intentions to use SNS in the context of their digital literacies.

On the other hand, it seems apparent that the main pedagogical complexity is the making of difficult decisions and choices about how to integrate multiple platforms and wider media in Teaching & Learning and in how far the enhancement may benefit students and teachers. Indeed, there appears to be a grey area because the definition of best practices of SNS for Teaching & Learning appears to be unclear. There remain several aspects of *why* and *how* academics may learn to use SNS in order to make decisions about best Teaching & Learning practices and if and how they may use specific platforms to teach specific subjects.

In light of the above, academics, therefore, may require digital competencies that enable the understanding and management of SNS affordances in order to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with SNS for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. This may mean that academics' may need to make decisions to disengage with social media in order to protect and manage their personal and professional boundaries, their potential exposure to cyber risk and potential resulting negative emotional

experiences that may negatively affect their well-being and professional performance.

Nevertheless, the presented digital competencies, of UK academics' digital literacy training and development provider, Jisc (2022a) (see Section 2.3.2) are broad and focus on enabling the use of digital technologies. Indeed, we do not know enough about why and how academics may learn to make decisions about engagement and disengagement, what influences such decisions as well as why and how they may learn to understand and negotiate the boundaries of their professional social media use. In the endeavour to contribute with such knowledge, the present study used the following mixed-method research design.

Chapter 5 Research Design

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of the present study was to investigate UK academics' professional social media use. Therefore, using the theoretical foundation of digital literacy and the two theoretical considerations of the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT the following objectives;

To

1) Explore academics' boundary work regarding the ways they negotiate to use or not to use social media professionally.

2) Explore influences that affect academics' decisions about their intentions to use or not to use social media platforms.

3) Explore how and why academics may learn to use social media professionally.

4) Develop a Digital Competency Framework that promises to be applicable at UK Higher Education Institutions.

were necessary. These objectives enabled the exploration of *why* and *how* academics negotiate boundaries of their professional social media use, *what* influences their decisions about engagement and disengagement with SNS, as well as *why* and *how* academics may learn to use SNS professionally, and which digital competencies they may require to train and develop in order to make holistic decisions about their social media use.

Research Questions

1) Why and how do academics negotiate boundaries related to their professional social media use?

2) What affects academics' decision-making about their intentions to use or not to use social media?

3) Why and how do academics learn to use social media professionally?

4) Which digital competencies do academics require to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with social media?

This chapter begins with the rationale for the mixed-method research design followed by the sample, quantitative methods, qualitative method, triangulation and conclusions.

5.2 The rationale of mixed-method research design

Quantitative and qualitative methods appear on a research approach continuum that ranges from positivism to interpretivism, constructivism and pragmatism (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). In the middle of that continuum resides mixed methods research which comprises quantitative as well as qualitative approaches (Table 12).

Quantitative approach	Qualitative approach
Deductive where theories are tested	Inductive where theory(ies) is built
Based on scientific laws, models, and rules	Opposing scientific models
Social reality is externally positioned. There is only one truth, hence one reality	Social reality is continuous and emerging and there is more than one truth, hence more than one reality

Table 12 Quantitative and Qualitative approaches

The definition of mixed-method research, used for this study is:

> Mixed-methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth, depth of understanding and corroboration (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner 2007, p. 123).

In addition, from interdisciplinary perspectives, some scholars conducted mixed-method research studies. Bakan and Han (2019) analysed 1142 published studies across twelve communication journals, conducted between 2012 and 2016. Most studies (70%) were conducted using a quantitative, while fewer (3%) followed a mixed-method approach. A similar trend is identified in a recent systematic literature study conducted by Luo, Freeman and Stefaniak (2020) who focuses on the professional development of scholars through social media. They analyse 23 articles published between 2009 and 2019 and show that only four studies were conducted with a mixed-method approach, five were qualitative and nine were quantitative studies. Accordingly, mixed-method social media study approaches seem to be underrepresented. Single-method approaches may contribute comprehensive knowledge deriving from a qualitative or quantitative perspective, but neglect to address the multiple realities of the socially constructed social media phenomenon (Sandbothe, 2005). In contrast with a single-method approach, mixed-method approaches may contribute comprehensive knowledge deriving from qualitative and quantitative perspectives (Creswell

et al., 2003).

As shown in the Multilevel Research Design (Figure 5), the present study complemented the strengths of the quantitative (survey study) and qualitative (focus group) methods. The purpose of the present study was to gain a rich understanding of academics' decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media and the way they may learn to use social media, in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. In order to gain such understanding the present study used an inductive, exploratory research approach combining the survey method and focus group.

Quantitative data is numerical and may be computed and measurement of scales may be possible (Avedian, 2014). The quantitative approach aims to address the *what* of the research questions over systematic standardised approaches (Taherdoost, 2016). The present study aimed to describe the patterns and trends of use and platforms and social media and training and development methods of UK academics' social media use for their Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. The questions of the survey were concerned with *which* platforms academics use for *what* purposes and which ways academics learned to use social media, *how often* and the extent of the importance of social media training and development. In contrast with the survey method, the focus group method (qualitative) enabled the questioning of *why* and *how* academics may have experienced their professional social media use. Indeed, academics were able to elaborate on the reasons for decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms as well as it was possible to disclose concerns and worries. Therefore, the combination of the two methods enabled the exploration of academics' professional social media use from multiple perspectives comprising multiple realities.

According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), decisions regarding the right mixed-method design are based on the timing (sequencing) of the data collection, the weighting (prioritising) of quantitative and qualitative approaches and the staging of the data (Bryman, 2008). In terms of sequencing, the exploratory approach of this study led to the adoption of a multilevel triangulation design by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) (see Figure 4, overleaf).
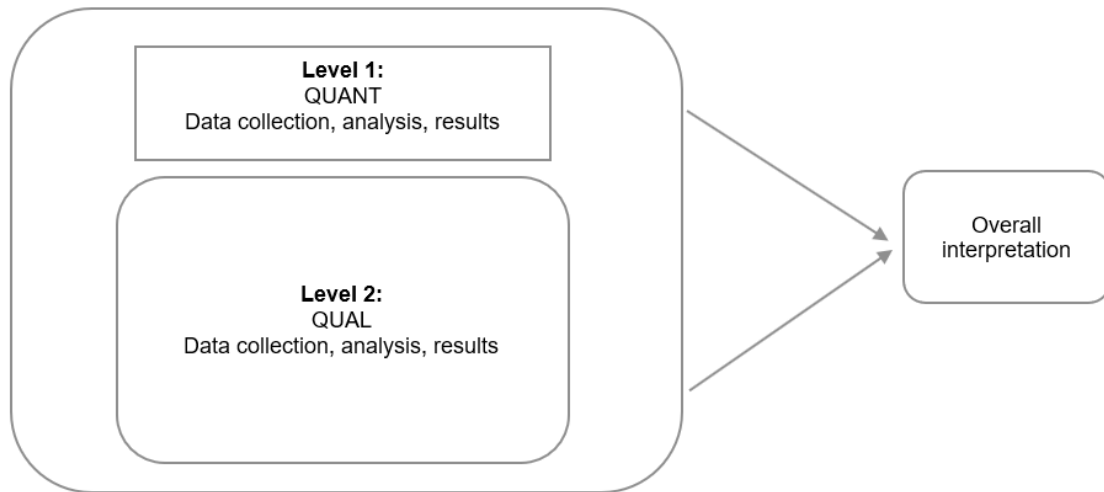
Figure 4 Multilevel Triangulation Design

The multilevel model does not require simultaneous data collection, which stood in favour of the present study (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Regarding sequencing, it was decided to conduct the quantitative method (survey) first to guide the data collection of the qualitative method (focus groups). The survey method revealed patterns and trends of SNS, their use and the ways academics may learn to use the platforms. The focus group questions were then informed by the findings of the survey study (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). For example, preliminary findings indicated that academics may not use social media professionally. In the focus groups, it was then explored why academics potentially decide to omit social media professionally.

Regarding prioritising, the present study gave equal priority to quantitative and qualitative data. Giving equal priority to both methods may lead to the development of a richer understanding of collected data when working with a flexible research timeline (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie, 2003). Equal priorities for quantitative and qualitative data were chosen due to the exploratory research approach and limited pre-existing data about the boundaries of academics' professional social media use. With respect to data staging, the present study combined and triangulated the data (see also Section 5.6), which led to the overall interpretation and the final theory. The discussed criteria resulted in the following multilevel research design (Figure 5).
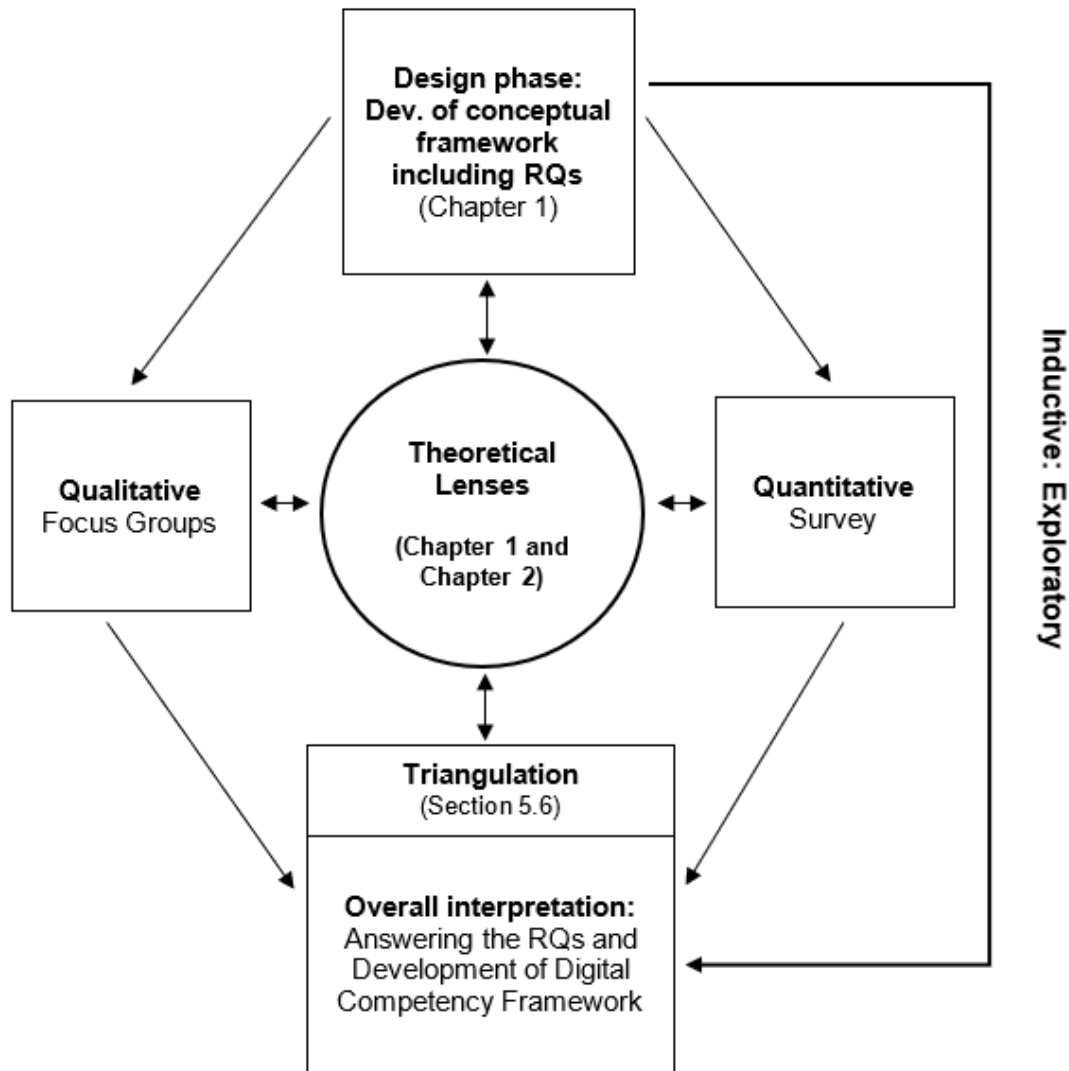
Figure 5 Multilevel Research Design

Commencing at the design phase, the conceptual framework (see also Section 1.7) and research questions (Section 1.4) were developed, followed by the quantitative (survey) and qualitative (focus group) data collection methods. The triangulation (see Section 5.6) then led to the overall interpretation, theorising, and development of the Techno-Social-Emotional (TeSEmo) Digital Competency Framework (see Table 19). The present study applied multiple, interdisciplinary theories at multiple levels. The developed TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework resulted from the acquisition of meaning and rich understanding from the theoretical foundation of digital literacy and the two theoretical considerations of the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT derived from the sample of UK academics.

5.3 The sample

Decisions about the sample for the present study were made before the start of the data collection in December 2020. UK HEIs have been experiencing platformisation due to emerging new technologies (Carrigan and Jordan, 2021). Therefore, training and developing academics' digital competency development is important (Carrigan and Jordan, 2021; Jordan 2022). Along this line, scholars like Donoso, Sefen and Schoolnet (2019) and Newland and Handley (2016) indicate digital competencies are crucial for the population. Nevertheless, many people may not have the ability to use digital technology (such as social media) due to a lack of digital competencies (Donoso, Sefen and Schoolnet 2019). This reflects the uneven use of technology that can be defined as the digital divide, which explains the difference in access and frequency of use, including the reasons why and how people use digital technologies (Brandtzæg, Heim and Karahasanović, 2011). In academia, there seems to be a similar digital divide (see Section 3.2.6) in relation to social media use across academic disciplines.

Some studies (e.g., Dermentzi and Papagiannids, 2018; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Manca, 2018) address academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement and integrate Humanities and Arts academics in their samples. Most of these studies report findings based on the combination of multiple disciplines, and only a few studies directly mention the Humanities and Arts disciplines. Along this line, Manca and Ranieri (2016a) who conducted a representative survey study, explain that Humanities and Arts and Social Sciences academics are inclined to use social media more frequently in Teaching & Learning compared to academics of Natural Sciences. Nevertheless, while these studies conversely report challenges (e.g., privacy issues) and opportunities (e.g., improving communication) they do not explain the reasons for academics' decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms for Teaching & Learning. Moreover, they do not show which digital competencies academics may require to make such decisions and what influence academics' decision-making associated with their well-being and job performance.

Similarly, the need to understand digital competencies associated with Humanities and Arts academics' social media use for Networking & Public Engagement has also gained importance in recent literature. Zhu and Purdam (2017) conducted interviews and a representative survey study with academics from 12 UK Russel Group Universities. Accordingly, Humanities and Arts academics appear to use social media more often for scholarly communication than academics of Natural Sciences. Furthermore, Khlusova (2021) conducted case studies, which focused on UK Humanities and Arts academics' use

of digital technology for public engagement. The case studies show greater training and development needs for academics' use of digital technology. Khlusova (2021) also shows various challenges associated with training and developing digital competencies. Accordingly, challenges to building digital competencies appear to be; the time investment required to learn to use digital methods, a lack of institutional training and development support, and the information overload derived from the myriad of guidelines about public engagement in digital environments.

In light of this, the National Co-ordinating Centre for Public Engagement (2022), for instance, provides such guidelines, which comprise multiple capabilities and advice on how to use digital platforms for Networking & Public Engagement. However, these guidelines focus solely on engagement and do not indicate which digital competencies academics may require to build in order to disengage with platforms. In addition, Carrigan (2020) provides comprehensive guidance about academics' mindful use of social media for Networking & Public Engagement. Carrigan (2020) addresses multiple challenges (e.g., time and blurred boundaries) as well as he explains that academics can decide to disengage with platforms in order to benefit their well-being. Nevertheless, it is not clear which digital competencies academics from the Humanities and Arts disciplines may require to make such decisions.

From a different perspective, Oksanen *et al.* (2021) who investigate hate and harassment in academia report victims of online crimes appear to be more often academics from the Humanities and Social Sciences. Nevertheless, there appears not enough knowledge about which digital competencies academics may require to gain in order to manage cybercrimes and make decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Identifying such digital competencies are of particular importance because academics' exposure to cybercrimes can have negative consequences on their well-being and job performance (Oksanen *et al.,* 2021).

Overall, literature about UK Humanities and Arts academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement is scant and there is a clear gap in the literature about which digital competencies these academics may require to train and develop in order to understand and manage challenges and opportunities and to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms.

5.4 Quantitative method: Online survey

The present study aimed to describe the frequencies of use and platforms and training methods of UK academics' social media use for their Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. There are several data collection strategies such as experiments, surveys with closed-ended questions or quantitative interviews in which the researcher uses a structured closed-ended survey instrument (Babbie, 2020). Experiments follow logical structures within a natural setting and are more suitable for scientific studies (Babbie, 1998). Additionally, according to Babbie (2020), surveys are useful for exploratory research. Surveys are commonly distributed online, over the phone, in physical spaces and public areas or organisations (Avedian, 2014; Babbie, 2020). Online surveys, also called internet or web-based surveys, became popular tools over the last years (see Babbie, 2020; Buchanan and Hvizdak, 2009). The applied online survey in the present study allowed the cost and time-effective survey distribution over various online platforms including emails. Participants were able to access the survey over multiple SMART devices, anytime and anywhere (Avedian, 2014; Babbie, 2020; Evans and Mathur, 2005; Fricker and Schonlau, 2002).

However, the present study considered limitations such as low response rates; accuracy and honesty of answers; data errors due to non-response rates; issues of interpretation of answers (see Babbie, 1998). To minimise the impact of the mentioned limitations, as stated in Babbie (2020), the questionnaire was carefully planned and piloted. The pilot study was discussed in a focus group comprising seven academic participants who gave feedback in terms of questions, survey length and survey design. Additionally, the survey was tested with the supervisory team and another two academics who filled in the online pilot survey (see Appendix A). Furthermore, academics had to confirm the criteria to belong to the Humanities and Arts disciplines before their participation. If they were unable to confirm the criteria, they were not allowed to participate. To minimise potential misunderstandings of questions, clear definitions of the constructs' meanings were included.

5.4.1 Survey design

The present study's multi-level mixed-method design (see Figure 5) followed an inductive, exploratory approach. The exploratory approach was suitable for this study due to the lack of pre-existing literature and outdated evidence of academics' professional social media use boundaries (see rationale Section 3.1). Descriptive survey designs are recommended for exploratory studies (see Stebbins, 2001). In the present study, no hypothesis was tested, the inferential survey approach was rejected and an online survey including questions as part of

a descriptive survey approach was designed.

In order to obtain in-depth qualitative data insights open-ended questions that allow participants to write their answers may be included (Babbie, 2020). In contrast, closed-ended questions are scalar, and the participants can choose between options (Babbie, 2020; Dillman, 2007). Furthermore, closed, and open-ended questions may be combined in a mixed-method questionnaire design, which was adopted in this study (Groves *et al.,* 2004). While closed questions addressed the *what* and *how often*, the open-ended questions include the *why* of academics' professional social media use. Therefore, the inclusion of both closed and open-ended questions enabled the exploration of the multiple realities of academics' professional social media use. The questionnaire included multiple-choice questions, as well as three-point Likert scales based on percentual ordered categories and two open-ended questions (see Appendix B).

The survey was developed and distributed using the Qualtrics survey platform (Qualtrics, 2021) offered by Middlesex University, and it was decided to be the most cost-effective way. The university's custom design was used, which included the logo and university colours (see Appendix B). Qualtrics offers the creation of various drafts, report development and download, real-time data collection observations, analysis tools, as well as a distribution over social media, is possible (Qualtrics, 2021). To avoid the duplication of invitations, use was made of the participant directory where the email addresses of invited participants and lists were stored. In addition, participants were presented with information about the project's background and guidelines, as well as informed consent, which was detrimental to developing trust and credibility (Herring *et al.*, 2004). The discussed survey design comprised the following survey constructs.

5.4.2 Survey Constructs

The survey comprised four sections: first, demographic information about participants' professional background to confirm their academic discipline in UK HEIs as this was the sample criteria for the survey participants. Second and third, multiple choices items about academics' frequency of SNS use and activities on platforms for academics Networking & Public Engagement and Teaching & Learning; the fourth section comprised the ways academics learn to use social media, frequency of social media training and development, the extent of institutional support as well as the importance of social media training and development.

The first construct (demographic section) started with the study background and pre-selection of participants who met the criteria followed by the seeking of informed consent as part of the Middlesex University ethics guidelines (Middlesex University, 2020). Continuing, the section comprised the following items:

- Working in UK-based Humanities and Arts faculty (mandatory)
- Gender (optional, options included: female, male, non-binary, self describe, prefer not to say)
- Current positions (optional, options included: assistant or associate lecturer, lecturer, senior lecturer, reader, associate professor, professor, other [please specify])
- How long been working UK Higher Education sector (optional, options included: 1-5 years, 5-10 years, more than 10 years, other [please specify])

In the second and third sections, the frequency (how often during the last academic year) use of SNS for Networking & Public Engagement and Teaching & Learning was queried and participants were asked to answer based on the following multiple-choice options [only one answer allowed]: 'daily', 'weekly', 'monthly', 'once a year', 'never', 'other' [please specify]. In addition list of SNS platforms and activities was presented and participants were asked to indicate which platforms and activities they used for Networking & Public Engagement followed by Teaching & Learning [multiple answers allowed] as well as others [please specify]. In the fourth section, academics were asked to indicate by which ways they learn to use social media based on multiple choices [more than one answer allowed] and how often they formally trained to use social media over the last academic year based on multiple-choice options [only one answer allowed]: 'daily', 'weekly', 'monthly', 'once a year', 'never', 'other' [please specify].

Following this, the academics were asked to rate how strongly they felt their institutions supported their social media training and development on a slider ranging from 0 [strongly disagree] to -100 [strongly agree]. The participants were then asked to rate the importance of social media training and development for Networking & Public Engagement and Teaching & Learning on a slider ranging from 0[not at all important] to 100 [very important]. The construct inventory of the platforms and activities for Networking & Public Engagement, Teaching & Learning and ways of learning to use social media was informed by existing studies presented in Table 13.

Networking & Public Engagement	
Item	Rationale and foundation
Facebook ResearchGate LinkedIn Academia.edu Twitter YouTube SlideShare Vimeo Tumbler Pinterest Snapchat	Platforms used for Networking & Public Engagement (Jordan and Weller, 2018; Carrigan, 2020; D'Alessandro et al., 2020; National Co-ordinating Centre for Public Engagement, 2021); and inputs from the pilot study's focus groups participants (academics from Humanities and Arts disciplines)
Networking To work with stakeholders To socialise with stakeholders To join groups To raise awareness about projects To attend events or meetings To search for work To search for funding awards I do not find it useful	Networking activities that academics undertake on platforms (Jordan and Weller, 2018; Carrigan, 2020; D'Alessandro et al., 2020; National Co-ordinating Centre for Public Engagement, 2021); and inputs from the pilot study's focus groups participants (academics from Humanities and Arts disciplines)
Public Engagement To inform the public To consult the public To collaborate with the public I do not find it useful	Public engagement activities that academics undertake on platforms (Jordan and Weller, 2018; Carrigan, 2020; D'Alessandro et al., 2020; National Co-ordinating Centre for Public Engagement, 2021); and inputs from the pilot study's focus groups participants (academics from Humanities and Arts disciplines)
Teaching & Learning	
Facebook ResearchGate LinkedIn Academia.edu Twitter YouTube SlideShare Advance HE Connect	Platforms used for Teaching & Learning (Chugh and Ruhi, 2018; Gruzd et al., 2018; Hamid et al., 2014; Manca, 2020; Manca and Ranieri, 2016); and inputs from the pilot study's focus groups participants (academics from Humanities and Arts disciplines)
To search course resources To share resources with students To teach students how to use social networking sites To use virtual classrooms for teaching To create events or activities To communicate with students To assess students learning I do not find it useful	Teaching & Learning activities conducted on SNS (Chugh and Ruhi, 2018; Gruzd et al., 2018; Gao, Luo and Zhang, 2012; Hamid et al., 2014; Manca, 2020; Manca and Ranieri, 2016); and inputs from the pilot study's focus groups participants (academics from Humanities and Arts disciplines)
Training & Development	
Online courses Using books Using websites and blogs Using search engines Institutional development courses Asking someone Learning by doing	Ways of learning to use social media for academics (Carrigan, 2020; Jisc, 2018; Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020) and inputs from the pilot study's focus groups participants (academics from Humanities and Arts disciplines)

Table 13 Survey Construct Inventory

Also note, the questionnaire included two open-ended questions. The first one was asked at the beginning and enquired about academics' first thoughts about SNS. This question was asked to set the scene and stimulate academics' thoughts about their social media use. The second open-ended question was asked towards the end and enquired about what academics think SNS should do for them in the future. This question was asked to capture additional qualitative data about how academics may see the future outlook of their professional social media use.

5.4.3 Sampling Quantitative method

Quantitative data collection methods often depend on a random sampling technique, to generalise data to the wider population (see Babbie, 2020; Lavrakas, 2008). However, quantitative data collection may also employ non-random sampling techniques, such as convenience sampling. Convenience sampling techniques are popular for inductive, exploratory studies (see Etikan, 2016). As explained in Section 5.2 the present study followed an inductive research design to gain a rich understanding of academics' decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media and the way they may learn to use the platforms, in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Without the aim to generalise data, convenience sampling served the selection of participants in an uncomplicated, inexpensive way based on the criteria that participants were academics of the Humanities and Arts disciplines.

Furthermore, during the first year of the program, I built a strong network with more than 600 academics of the Humanities and Arts disciplines on LinkedIn (LinkedIn, 2021). Due to the existing large network of connections with Humanities and Arts academics, LinkedIn served as the best suitable platform to recruit as many participants as possible. Academics on LinkedIn were invited over personal messages. The invitation was not publicised to the wider community, to limit the bias of wrongly signed up participants. The participant invitation followed the guidance of Middlesex University's (2021) ethic system. In addition, academic colleagues sent out the invitation over the Jisc list network (Jisc, 2018) as well as the Middlesex University Research Degrees team announced the survey in their newsletter. An additional recruitment platform was Twitter (Twitter, 2021) which was also used to send out direct messages to potential participants. The online survey was launched on 15th November 2020, and kept open until 18th February 2021; during this period a total of 248 responses were collected of which 172 were usable (e.g., completed surveys) for calculations. Figure 6 Figure 7 shows the demographic (e.g., gender frequency and years of professional experience) distributions of the survey participants.
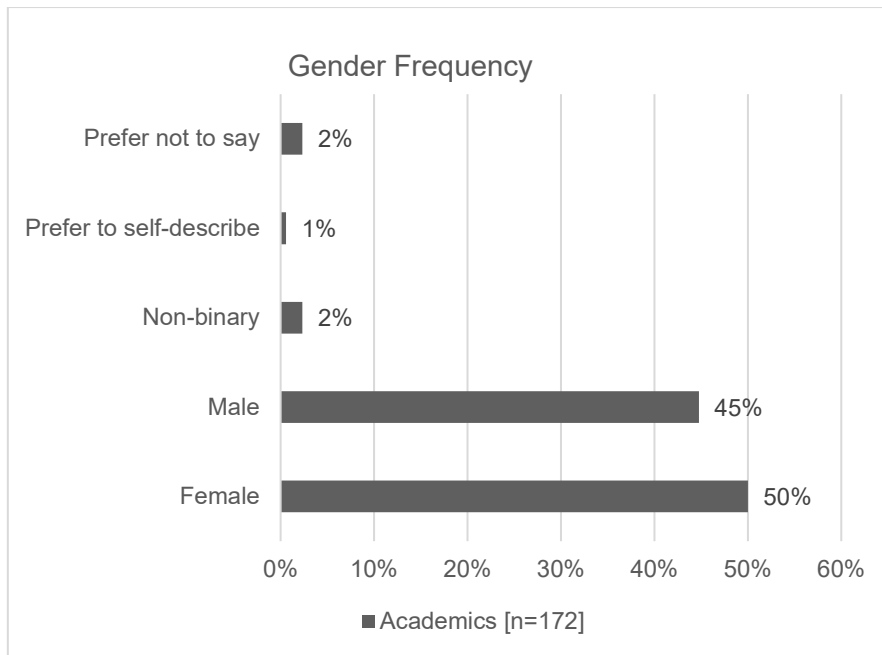
Figure 6 Gender Frequency (Survey)
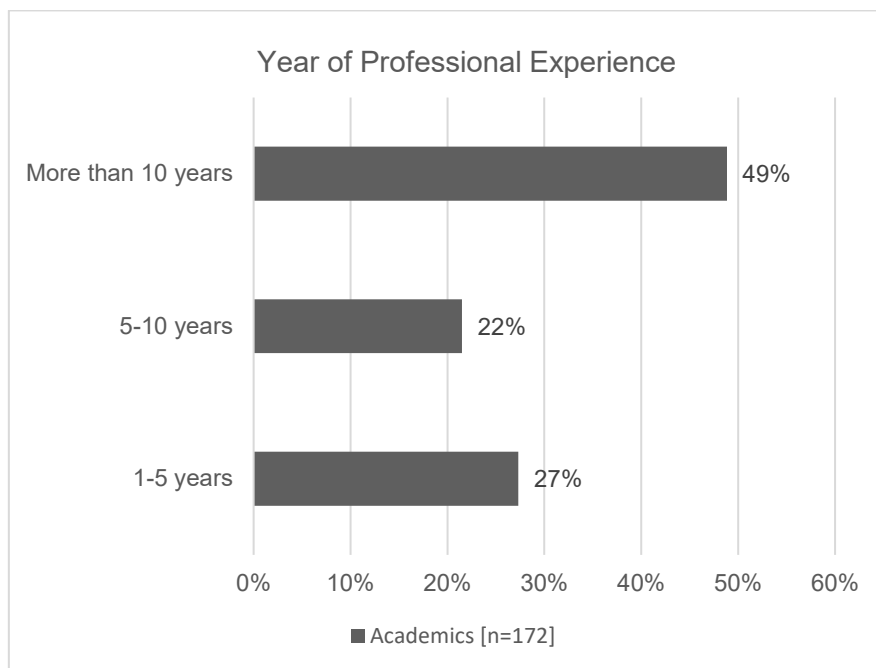
Figure 7 Years of Professional Experience Frequency (Survey)

5.4.4 Quantitative Data Analysis

The survey data was exported from Qualtrics to SPSS (IBM, 2021). The survey resulted in two types of data:

1) Categorical data derived from demographic questions.
2) Nominal data were derived from the multiple choice questions about the platforms

and activities used on the platforms as well as the measurable scales concerning the perceptions of institutional support and the importance of social media training and development.

In SPSS, the coded data was edited in preparation for the descriptive analysis. To analyse the multiple-choice questions and multiple response sets were created and the frequencies were calculated. In addition, crosstabulation between academics' rating of institutional training and development support and the academics' rating of the importance of social media training and development was conducted. The reason for this was that the importance of Training & Development and institutional support were themes that also derived from the focus groups.

To minimise errors, the present study made sure that the exported data set represents the recorded responses in Qualtrics (Avedian, 2014). To minimise flawed survey results, it is recommended to analyse missing data. Missing data occurs when participants do not answer specific questions (Dong and Peng, 2013). During the analysis of missing data, the present study discovered some randomly scattered missing values. Random missing data is suggested not to be of a big concern, especially as it was not aimed to generalise data (Dong and Peng, 2013). Due to the inductive, exploratory approach of the study, the present study did not include missing data. Therefore, the present study worked with the present data (n=172) and applied qualitative, descriptive interpretation to the findings. Concluding this part of the project, the present study discussed the quantitative data analysis and it is now necessary to address the ethical considerations during the planning and execution of the survey data collection.

5.4.5 Ethical considerations

Before the study, ethical approval was obtained and approved by the university's ethics committee (Middlesex University, 2021). Using Qualtrics (2021), informed consent was sought before academics participated in the survey. Furthermore, all data recorded was kept anonymously and any IP addresses were hidden so that no participants' identities could be discovered, and anonymity was granted.

During the recruitment, over LinkedIn, the participants were invited to the study over a personalised invitation (LinkedIn, 2021). Participants were not pressured or lured into participation. The present study never invited any participant twice. To approach any potential participant who had not seen their message, a general message to call any

remaining potential participants was publicised. The survey invitation was only posted on suitable Jisc mailing lists (Jisc, 2018), which focused on the Humanities and Arts disciplines and the message was not sent out twice in order to avoid information overload and annoyance of communities.

5.5 Qualitative method: Virtual Focus Groups

The key benefits of the focus group method are the revelation of participants, experiences, values, thoughts, and attitudes through the communicative interaction between group participants (Krueger and Casey, 2000). In terms of the present study, the focus group method supported the development of a novel digital competency framework that derived from the acquisition of meaning from interaction, experiences and the environmental culture of academics' professional social media use. As discussed in Chapter 3, boundaries are dynamic and socially constructed and occur in the form of multiple realities. The interaction during the group discussions supported the revelation of academics' distinctive boundaries of their professional social media use.

Also, interaction may stimulate and encourage conversations within group discussions (Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014). In this study, the verbal interaction between academics developed creative, in-depth thought and discussions about professional social media use boundaries. Through interaction, the academics learned about similarities and differences between each other's experiences of professional social media use. In addition, introverted participants seemed to feel comfortable talking about an issue if other participants shared similar experiences. Therefore, the group's interaction, during the virtual focus groups, delivered rich, insightful information and ideas about academics' professional social media use.

Because this study was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic lockdown in the UK, using physical spaces was not possible. Therefore, it was decided to conduct synchronous virtual focus groups, which, like traditional focus groups, include real-time discussion. In terms of virtual platforms, the present study decided between the usage of Zoom and Microsoft Teams as meeting spaces (Microsoft, 2021; Zoom, 2020). The main concern was the limitation of non-verbal communication. Microsoft Teams' view of participants was clearer than in Zoom as well as the way people rose their hands followed an easier interface. Additionally, due to previously attended group sessions on the Microsoft Teams platforms, there was prior familiarity with the technical functions. Therefore, it was decided to use Microsoft Teams for the virtual focus group discussions.

Furthermore, there were some limitations imposed. Late attendance may require a partial break in the discussion flow to integrate the late participant (Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014). In the present study, the most challenging part was the management of late-attending academics especially if they had technical difficulties. It was necessary to support late academics politely and simultaneously manage the discussion flow. While this had slightly influenced ongoing discussions it was possible to minimise the disruption through the smooth integration of the late participant.

5.5.1 Sampling qualitative method

Purposive sampling is a sampling technique as part of a non-probability sampling strategy and is popular for qualitative studies (see Palinkas *et al.*, 2015). Purposive sampling aims to acquire rich information from participants who are able to contribute knowledge to a topic (see Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). The present study acquired deep, comprehensive meaning and understanding from purposively chosen academics who were part of the Humanities and Arts disciplines.

It is suggested that homogeneity or partial homogeneity of focus group characteristics is important to maintain appropriate group interaction and dynamics (see Grønkjær *et al.*, 2011). Similarly, Sim (1998) discusses that the more homogeneity between the participants' socio-economic status the more confident the participants may be to contribute to discussions, especially if participants are unfamiliar with each other. The type and level of homogeneity in a study may depend on the phenomenon under investigation (Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014). As stated by Nyumba *et al.* (2018) mixed gendered focus groups may enrich the discussion and outcomes of focus group studies. This study was heterogeneous in terms of gender. The gender difference may contribute to dynamic discussions and may reveal the multiple and distinctive realities of academics' professional social media use.

In terms of homogeneity, a homogenous sample may lead to better results as the similarity of participants may deliver focused findings (see Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014). Homogeneity in the present study existed when the participants fulfilled the criteria to be part of the Humanities and Arts disciplines. To reach homogeneity, potential participants had to confirm their academic field and background during the recruitment processes in a Microsoft form (see Appendix C). Participants who did not meet the criteria were then not further considered for the main application process. For an overview of the demographic details of the focus group participants please see.

Focus Group	Disciplines	Gender
1	Historian	F
	Theatre	M
	Linguist	F
	Fashion	F
	Visual culture	M
	Theatre	M
2	Classics -Ancient Greek	M
	French Studies	F
	Translation Studies	M
	International politics	F
	Dress history	F
	Journalism	F
	Languages	M
3	Law and politics	F
	Art and design, game	M
	Literature and gender studies	F
	Musicology	F
	Victorian literature	F
	Film and TV studies	F
	International relations and politics	M
4	Practical theology and divinity	M
	History of ideas	F
	School of modern languages and cultures	F
	Journalism	F
	Creative Arts	F
5	Anthropologist	F
	Performance studies	F
	Photography	F
	Philosopher	M
	Digital cultural heritage	M
6	Museum studies	F
	Historian	F
	Animation	M
	Journalism and communication	F
	Art and history	F
		n= 35

Table 14 Focus Groups Demographic Data

5.5.2 Virtual focus group recruitment

Academics were virtually recruited over the recruitment process in Table 15.

Stage 1	Initial invitation of Humanities and Arts academics
Stage 2	Registration of interest to join and pre-screening of suitability
Stage 3	Registration of attendance: Choosing between dates and times
Stage 4	Confirmation of calendar invite. Includes invitation, virtual link, and background information as well as a link to the virtual consent form
Stage 5	Sending out a calendar invite reminders and reminders to fill in consent form three times per week

Table 15 Virtual focus group recruitment process

The optimum focus group size is suggested to be between seven to ten participants (see Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014). Qualitative methods, such as focus groups, rely on reaching saturation, meaning the acquiring of meaning and understanding from samples until no new information is discovered (see Palinkas *et al.*, 2015). To reach data saturation, the point where no new information will be discovered, between five to seven focus groups with a length of approximately one hour per group discussion, may be sufficient (Guest, Namey and McKenna, 2016; Halcomb *et al.*, 2007). It was aimed to recruit seven participants per focus group and resulted in a total of 35 academics who participated in the focus groups which lasted one hour. Saturation was reached after the completion of the sixth focus group. For the distribution of the focus group attendance please see Appendix D. The group discussions were based on the following focus group discussion design.

5.5.3 Focus group discussion design

The structure of the focus group interview guide is open and stimulating (see Krueger, 2002). In order to set the discussion frame for the participants the study's background and main constructs of Teaching & Learning, Networking & Public Engagement and social media training and development were defined. The discussions started with primary open-ended questions and were moderated so that participants were able to talk freely as long as they stayed within the discussion frame (e.g., research topic). Following the introduction, as an icebreaker, a picture of SNS was shown to the participants. The pictures worked well as a conversation starter, to explore academics' reasons to use or not to use these platforms professionally. Continuing questions regarding Teaching & Learning, Networking & Public Engagement and social media training and development were asked.

To gain a rich understanding of academics' decision-making about their engagement and disengagement with social media, it was explored *why* and *how* academics used SNS for Teaching & Learning, Networking & Public Engagement as well as their training and

development needs. Several studies (such as Barczyk and Duncan, 2012; Legaree, 2015; Manca, 2020; Manca and Ranieri 2016a; Murier and Cilliers, 2017) commonly discuss various challenges and opportunities associated with SNS affordances (see Chapter 4). Moreover, some studies (e.g., Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020; Rambe and Nel, 2015) mention the need for institutional training and development that aims to enable academics' use of SNS for Teaching & Learning. However, it is not clear which digital competencies academics may require to train and develop in order to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms. Therefore, the guiding questions were formed around; *if*, *how* and *why* academics made decisions about their engagement and disengagement with SNS for Teaching & Learning including reasons for perceived challenges and opportunities.

In terms of Networking & Public Engagement, recent literature (e.g., Argyris and Monu, 2015; Carrigan, 2020; Carrigan and Jordan, 2021; Jordan 2020; Khlusova, 2021) explain the increasing expectations of academics to use social media for Networking & Public Engagement due to the platforms' enabling affordances. Moreover, there appears to be a greater lack of digital competency training and development supporting academics' use of digital technology for Networking & Public Engagement (Khlusova, 2021). On the other hand, challenges are also identified by some scholars (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Khlusova, 2021) and academics who use SNS to reach out to public audiences may be exposed to greater cyber risks (Carrigan, 2020). Nevertheless, current literature ignores academics' need to develop digital competencies in order to make decisions about engagement and disengagement that may circumvent such risks and protect their well-being and job performance. Therefore, the focus group guiding questions aimed to explore *if*, *why* and *how* academics make decisions about their intentions to engage and disengage with SNS for Networking & Public Engagement including reasons for perceived challenges and opportunities.

In order to shed further light on *why* and *how* academics may gain digital competencies that may enable their engagement and disengagement with SNS for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement the focus group discussion also explored *why* and *how* academics make decisions about their potential intentions to learn to use social media and *why* and *how* they may feel supported by their institutions and *why* and *how* they may find such support important.

5.5.4 Thematic analysis

The recorded focus groups were transcribed with NVivo 11 (Lumivero, 2023) and through re-listening carefully proofed for its accuracy, followed by the thematic analysis of the focus group data (see transcripts in Appendix E). It was aimed to explore, identify, and analyse patterns and themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006). This study followed an inductive approach and, therefore, the data was the determinant of themes. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), themes may occur in the semantic and latent approaches. While semantic approaches focus on what is said by participants, the latent approach is interested in the meaning and assumptions within the data. The present study worked with the semantic approach and focused on the explicit meaning of the data that derived from the interaction between the participants' experiences of their professional social media use.

Furthermore, themes may be developed inductively from the data or deductively from prior knowledge and theories (Nowell *et al*., 2017). The present study used the the lens of the theoretical foundation of digital literacy and the two theoretical considerations of the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT (see Section 1.7) and, therefore, followed the deductive thematic analysis approach. The main themes reflected the UTAUT's qualitatively defined constructs (see Table 9) of performance expectancy (see Section 3.2.3), effort expectancy (see Section 3.2.4), facilitating conditions (see Section 3.2.5), social influence (see Section 3.2.6) and emotional experinces (see Section 3.2.2) and the boudary work framework (see Table 8) and its categories of expansion (see Section 3.1.3.1), expulsion (see Section 3.1.3.2) and protection of autonomy (see Section 3.1.3.3). Data were analysed and coded with a focus on subjects and emphasis on patterns derived from similarities and discrepancies between data associated with the main themes. Following the population and analysis of the main themes the data were compared with Martinez-Bravos, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) six digital competency dimensions (see Section 2.2). This resulted in the identification and development of specifc digital competencies, in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement (see Table 17 and Table 18), and the development of the TeSEmo digital competency framework (Table 19).

5.5.5 Ethical considerations

The study was approved by the Middlesex University Ethics Committee (Appendix F). This involved provisions for seeking participant consent, informing them their role is voluntary, their right to withdraw and the freedom to answer as many questions as they want. Informed consent was sought digitally using Qualtrics and data was anonymised (Brennen, 2012). The

focus group sessions were recorded over the Microsoft Teams platform. Data was stored in a research-dedicated, encrypted folder in the OneDrive cloud. Following Middlesex University's (2020) research guidelines, the data was stored on an external hard drive kept in locked storage at my home. All data and information about participants were anonymised and participants are unidentifiable through their contributions. Lastly, the participants were informed about the background of the study as well a clear focus group code of conduct was discussed at the start of the session.

5.6 Triangulation

Triangulation is an analysis technique used in mixed-method research designs. Triangulation enables the combination of data sets that may be collected from quantitative and qualitative research methods (see Bryman 2008). As discussed in the rationale of the mixed-method research design in Section 5.2, it was decided to combine the results of the data sets from the survey study and the focus groups. The results of the survey method were derived from the questioning of *what* and *how often*. In contrast, the focus group method questioned the *why* and *how* of academics' decisions about their engagement and disengagement with platforms for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. While the survey method assumes the existence of one reality, the focus group method assumes the existence of multiple, socially constructed realities (e.g., Babbie, 2020; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). The triangulation of the data sets complemented each other's perspectives and enabled the embracing of the multi-faceted, socially constructed realities of academics' professional social media use.

According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), developing quality results during triangulation requires emphasising design quality and interpretive vigour. Therefore, the present study followed the triangulation process shown in Figure 9. Firstly, considering the study's research design including the research questions, it was decided what the goal of the triangulation was. The goal was the complementation of the data sets. The data was then collected over the survey and focus group methods followed by the independent analysis of the data sets. Continuing, the present study categorised, combined and conceptualised the findings which led to the forming of emergent themes, which were used to develop the TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework (see Table 19). To maintain interpretive vigour, data sets were continuously re-read and the mapping of patterns in NVivo 11 (Lumivero, 2023), followed by the combination of the data in Excel and Word, enabled the alignment of interpretations with the goal of triangulation, the conceptual framework, and the research questions (see Chapter 1).
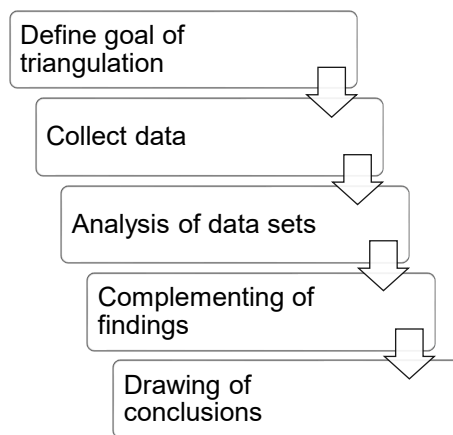
Figure 8 Triangulation process

5.7 Conclusion

An inductive mixed-method research design comprising virtual focus groups and an online survey study were chosen for the present study. The combination of the semantic analysis of the focus group data and descriptive analysis of the survey study enabled the gaining of a rich understanding of academics' decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media, and the ways they may learn to use SNS, in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. The limitations of the research design are mentioned in Chapter 9.

In the succeeding Chapter 6, Chapter 7 and Chapter 8, the findings will be discussed focusing on the main identified themes. Each chapter contributes digital competencies that resulted in the TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework presented in Table 19. Chapter 9 will conclude the discussion and answer the research question (see Section 9.1).

Chapter 6 Boundary Work of Professional Social Media use

Following the triangulation of the quantitative and qualitative data, this chapter presents an overview of social networking sites (SNS) that academics used for their Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. The subsequent sections will show academics' social media use of boundary negotiations, through the lens of boundary work between themselves and their stakeholders.

6.1 Overview of Social Networking Sites

The literature review indicated that, given the myriad of existing and constantly evolving social media, academics can choose from a broad range of social networking sites (SNS) (Carrigan, 2020; Jordan, 2022). Figure 10 shows the most frequent platforms used by the survey and the focus group participants.
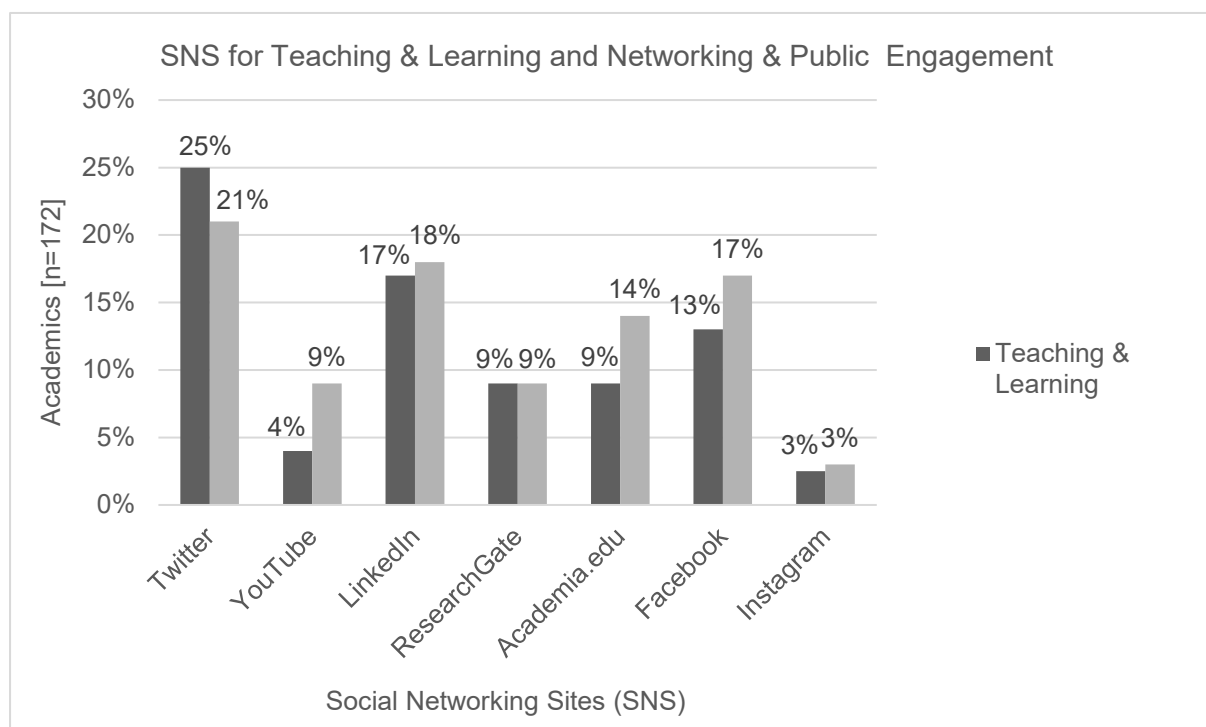
Figure 9 Would you please indicate which of the following SNS that you use for your teaching and learning activities? (allowed multiple responses)

This was somewhat unsurprising as various studies (e.g., Hamadi *et al.*, 2021; Manca, 2020; Mogaji, 2019), which investigate academics' social media use in Higher Education (HE), show the use SNS for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. These SNS are associated with the technical, social, pedagogical and emotional SNS affordances (see Chapter 4), which form a component, in the present study, to understand the *why* and

how of academics' boundary negotiations of their professional social media use.

6.1.1 Twitter

Twitter appears to be the most frequently used platform (see Figure 10) among the survey participants for both Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Additionally, focus group participants reported mixed perceptions of the usefulness of the platform's affordances. Based on the surveyed participants Twitter was more frequently used for Teaching & Learning than for Networking & Public Engagement (see Figure 10). In addition, some academics, who participated in the focus groups, found Twitter useful for Teaching & Learning. For example, an academic reported using hashtags for teaching activities:

> I ask students to turn their mobile phones on and go to Twitter and have a look at the hashtag at particular times during the lecture. I invite them to contribute their thoughts on directing whilst also kind of sort of reading what the others have contributed (Speaker 5, FG1, p.5, line 42).

Academics also used Twitter to gather content for class discussions. An academic explained it like this:

> I don't necessarily ask every student to engage, but if there is a critical mass in a cohort of students for that to be enough students tweeting combined with people outside the module, outside the university, allows us to draw the content from those tweets as points for discussion (Speaker 4, FG1, p.10, line 71).

These results reflect the technical affordances (see Section 4.2) and agree with various scholars (e.g., Hamid *et al.*, 2014; Tess, 2013 and Zachos, Paraskevopoulou-Kollia and Anagnostopoulos, 2018) who show Twitter may enable searching, sharing and gathering of content for academics' Teaching & Learning. Additionally, a comparison of the findings with those of Manca and Ranieri (2016a) and Manca (2020) confirms the pedagogical and social affordance (see Sections, 4.4 and 4.3) of the hybridisation of expertise, which is the forming of participatory cultures, interactions with current and past students, external experts, and professional. Furthermore, academics used Twitter for Networking & Public Engagement such as; promotion and dissemination of research, connecting with other academics internationally, conference tweets, finding guest speakers or following their own interests. These results corroborate the findings of a great deal of the previous work conducted by

some scholars (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Khlusova, 2021; Segado-Boi *et al.*, 2019) who reflect SNS' technical and social affordances (see Sections 4.2 and 4.3; Figure 10) that may benefit academics' Networking and Public Engagement.

However, a few academics indicated a dislike for discussions on Twitter because posts are limited to 280 words (see Chawinga, 2017). A participant explained it like this:

> I use my Twitter mostly for professional engagement in terms of finding out about research, rarely engaging in discussions, because Twitter is not really good for that purpose. It is like very short ping pong, but not in-depth multiheaded conversations (Speaker 5, FG1, p.15, lines 106-107).

There are similarities between the attitude expressed by Speaker 5 in the present study and those described by Carrigan (2020) who argues that it may be difficult to meaningfully compress messages to the public audience. Similarly, Quan-Haase, Martin and McCay-Peet (2015), derived from semi-structured interviews with 25 digital humanities scholars, found that the Twitter word count limit may pose difficulties for some academics to express themselves. On the other hand, some academics also found the limit useful to skim down their thoughts to the essence (Quan-Haase, Martin and McCay-Peet, 2015). In this line, based on an analysis of tweets and blogs of lecturers and students over twelve weeks at a Malawi university, Chawinga (2017) shows some academics may find the Twitter word limit useful to improve students' critical and creative thinking as they need to adapt their content. Therefore, while in the present study a few academics' did not favour Twitter's word count limit, reviewed literature indicates the need for an ambivalent perspective (Rambe and Nel, 2015) as there appear to be some benefits and challenges of the short word count for both Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement.

In addition, Speaker 5 (FG1, p.15, line 110) reported an enjoyable experience on Twitter:

> I also very much enjoy, especially on Twitter, like this kind of like meta-academic humour, and all that kind of stuff. I find those places in accounts very engaging and then somehow allowing me to look back at what I'm doing. So, I see that people in various fields have similar problems and then I can laugh about it.

This finding reflects those of Steinert and Dennis (2022) who examined social media's stimulation of emotions and indicates Twitter's emotional affordances (see Section 4.5) that may influence academics' well-being and job performance. More so, the findings show the

positive effects of Twitter's emotional affordances on academics' well-being, which in turn may positively affect their job performance (Badri, 2019).

6.1.2 LinkedIn

LinkedIn featured second place (see Figure 10) among the survey participants. In accordance with some scholars like Manca and Ranieri (2016b), Segado-Boi *et al.* (2019) and Udenze (2017), some academics who participated in the focus groups found LinkedIn useful to connect and engage with students, alumni, academics, the public and industries (see Section 4.6.2). One participating academic said this:

> I found both Twitter and LinkedIn brilliant and some are part of teaching. We usually have guest speakers and guest lecturers. I found using Twitter and LinkedIn pretty, for those purposes, because as Speaker 2 mentioned, it is really good for contacting someone (Speaker 4, FG4, p.11, line 80).

In this line, Manca and Ranieri (2016a), in their survey study about Italian academics' social media use for Teaching and Learning, show academics may use LinkedIn for circulating course information, supporting communication between academics and students as well as building communities. This result reflects LinkedIn's social affordances (see Section 4.6.2), which may enable the forging of multiple connections with various stakeholders for academics SNS for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. In addition, the findings demonstrate LinkedIn's technical affordances (see Section 4.2); searchability and visibility that may enable the searching and finding of guest lecturers and other stakeholders.

Speaker 4 (FG4, p.17, line 112) also said:

> The university also provides some courses via LinkedIn. So they kind of try to get their teachers to use LinkedIn as a source form kind of learning purposes because there are lots of courses on LinkedIn.

This finding supports the work of Mogaji (2019) who shows, in his book, LinkedIn may become increasingly important for career development and, therefore, may be important to integrate the platform into Teaching & Learning. This was echoed by academics, in the present study, who seemed to use LinkedIn to develop students' professional readiness and their abilities to market themselves online. An academic explained it like this:

The project focused on employability, final year, first year after graduation. One of the things that came out from that was a model which I wrote then, which we call professional practice... what the model did was to not teach skills on content for four minutes, but more focused on how you present yourself for the industry. So, we did things like an elevator pitch. You see these they went to when interviewed somebody in the profession that they wanted to get into and wrote a selection on that. And that particular outcome was a portfolio on LinkedIn (Speaker 6, FG 1, p.10, line 69).

Derived from the above, LinkedIn appears to have pedagogical affordances (see Section 4.4) such as widening the learning context and hybridisation of expertise and mixing information and learning sources through the provision of LinkedIn learning courses. Moreover, supporting students' professional development reflects the pedagogical affordance of collaborative information discovery and sharing as well as connectivity and rapport. In addition, academics who participated in the focus groups voiced to use the platforms for informal conversations and to positively impact students' well-being through, for instance, LinkedIn recommendations as well as to include students in discussions. An academic said this:

I've been encouraging them to link up with me on LinkedIn because I have no problem with that. And when they have done so and when they are part of the discussion, then they're the kind of drive to find positive solutions to challenges. I've been able to put a little recommendation on their profiles, not an academic recommendation, because I'm not teaching them, but just to acknowledge their positive contribution (Speaker 5, FG4, p.4, line 33).

This finding reflects those of Mogaji (2019) who discusses LinkedIn recommendations as one way for students to build their professional profile and network sustainably. Moreover, positive interactions (e.g., liking comments and commenting on posts) with students' LinkedIn activities may build their confidence and promote their professional engagement. Derived from these results LinkedIn's emotional affordances (see Section 4.5) may enable academics to positively impact students' well-being, provide motivational support and guidance for their professional development.

However, some academics may not feel comfortable using social media, such as LinkedIn for Teaching & Learning and prefer to use platforms for their professional development, as Speaker 4 (FG6, p.6, lines 48-49) explained:

I engage with social media more to publicise and get information about other people's research. So, we use LinkedIn, Facebook, Skype for some group meetings, Reserachgate and Academia.edu. I used it more in the past and I'm using it more for research now.

These results are corroborated by, Manca and Ranieri (2016a) who raise the potential issue that academics may prefer to use LinkedIn for their professional development or personal sharing instead of integrating the platform for Teaching & Learning. In sum, the findings demonstrate LinkedIn's affordances of searchability, spreadability, editability and visibility, which enable knowledge sharing and exchange as well as the social affordance that may enable the development of social ties between groups (see Sections, 4.2 and 4.3.2.)

6.1.3 Facebook

Facebook was the third most frequently used platform (see Figure 10) among the surveyed academics and was also frequently used by academics across all focus groups. Several focus group participants reported to us the platform's group function for both Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement practices. Academics of the present study reported that they created groups for alumni, postgraduate students, student cohorts, research groups and frequently used these groups to share resources and information and hold topic-specific discussions in wider communities. An academic said:

I have used Facebook with my students in the past where I have been working on group projects. I might get the students all to join a Facebook group for the module and to interact (Speaker 5, FG5, p.3, line 25).

Another academic said:

I use Facebook to connect with groups or individuals around the world. In terms of research, for example, I edit some books for various publishers, and I'll use Facebook as a means to communicate with some of the people working on that. I use Facebook to talk to my students (Speaker 3, FG4, p.13, line 87).

Furthermore, some academics found Facebook particularly useful to find collaborators as Speaker 2 (FG4, p.11, line 74) reported:

I work with film and on many occasions, I have tried to contact a film director that I want to interview. I send emails to contact the production company, but nothing. I go on Facebook within minutes I get a response. So, it is quite handy.

This is reflected by Carrigan (2020) who shows various benefits (like reaching a diverse audience, finding collaborators or informing the public) of Facebook for public engagement. These findings also accord with recent studies (e.g., Husin, Zulfadli and Zuraina, 2022; Idris and Wang, 2017; Manca and Ranieri, 2016a; Shahril *et al.*, 2018), which found using Facebook for Teaching & Learning may improve students' communication, online discussions, increased motivation and enthusiasm. However, privacy issues and alternative online learning systems were reasons for academics' exclusion of Facebook in their professional practices. An academic explained it like this:

We do have an active alumni Facebook group and all of that, but we don't use it for official teaching for reasons of privacy. We are covered with teams and blackboards, so there is no need necessarily. So, those are two reasons you can't make students have social media accounts, I think (Speaker 2, FG4, p.4, line 26).

In addition, some academics did not find Facebook useful for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement due to negative attitudes, as an academic said: "I don't do anything with Facebook. I'm not very active and don't like to chat. I simply don't like it" (Speaker 1, FG4, p.12, line 82). On the other hand, an academic did not mind the overlap between personal and professional Facebook use. The academic said: "I have a Facebook account that is a kind of mixed personal and professional account. Mostly that's about event sharing rather than publications or activities for students" (Speaker 5, FG6, p.8, line 66). In contrast, a few academics strictly perceived the platform to be useful for personal but not professional practices. An academic reported this: "…I would never use Facebook and think for academic reasons because I see that as just a sort of a family thing, a friendship thing, rather than something academic" Speaker 3, FG3, (p.8, line 54).

Comparison of the findings with those of other studies (e.g., Husin, Zulfadli and Zuraina, 2022; Wang *et al.*, 2012) shows Facebook's privacy concerns appear to be persistent over the last decade. A possible explanation for this is that Facebook's affordances of content persistence and resulting visibility to an often unintended large audience may increase users' privacy concerns (see also, Manca and Ranieri, 2016a). Moreover, the mentioned strict use of Facebook for personal purposes may be due to affordances that enable the forging of social ties with friends and family and users may make personal information

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available to others. Indeed, Facebook is built on the strong foundation of developing personal friendships and as it is widely used for this purpose there may be an increased risk of the blur between personal and professional boundaries.

In light of this, as stated by González-Ramírez, Gascó and Taverner (2015) who conducted a literature review and survey study with 125 students, there may be a risk of work overload due to the ease of sharing and accessing resources. This may also result in information overload and may negatively impact students' well-being but also academics' well-being and job performance. Therefore, an ambivalent perspective and gaining knowledge about such risks associated with Facebook may support academics' well-being and job performance (Fetherston *et al.*, 2021).

Overall, the presented findings show Facebook comprises social affordances (see Section 4.3) that enable the building of various relationships with multiple stakeholders (such as students, publishers and alumni). In addition, spreadability, visibility, searchability and technical affordances (see Section 4.2) may enable the searching and sharing of resources. However, despite Facebook's potential benefits (e.g., widening content of learning, sharing ideas, and resources, supportive and innovative learning) for Teaching & Learning some academics' in the present study had clear concerns regarding privacy issues and the blur between personal and professional boundaries and belief that the platform, therefore, may not be suitable for professional purposes.

6.1.4 YouTube

While a few survey participants indicated using YouTube (see Figure 10), the platform was frequently used by focus group participants for their Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. The low uptake of YouTube by the survey participants is somewhat surprising, given that several lines of evidence (e.g., Amaliyah *et al.*, 2021; Almobarraz, 2018; Maynard, 2020) indicate YouTube to be one of the leading social media platforms for HE, due to its technical affordances (see also Section 4.2) that appear to enable the curation of videos for multiple purposes such as dissemination of knowledge, sharing of teaching resources or promotion of work. An academic said:

> We used YouTube to record and make collections available, although unlisted, which means that you can only access it if you have the link. So, that's been a real-life saver because we started recording and publicising these lectures (Speaker 2, FG1, p.7, line 55).

Another academic noted:

> Some of my seminars are publicly accessible. I always record. And these recordings
> are always posted on YouTube and I also made them into podcasts. So, people can
> access them via their phones and on the university website. There are links there
> (Speaker 3, FG5, p.15, line 98).

It is, therefore, not surprising that academics frequently reported "use YouTube a lot"
(Speaker 5, FG6, p.13, line 84) or they expressed a positive attitude like "…there are lots of
brilliant videos [on YouTube]" (Speaker 4, FG4, p.5, line 39). However, a possible reason for
the low representation of YouTube in the survey study may be that academics experienced
greater effort to create and share content for their Teaching & Learning and Networking &
Public Engagement, as an academic explained:

> I'd say the real problem is it has to do with engagement. So, this is true of seminars
> firstly, but it's also true of the lectures. I think for me to make a YouTube lecture takes
> a lot more effort than preparing one that I've done before with my notes and slides. It
> takes a lot of editing time, and the students don't get as much out of it (Speaker 3,
> FG4, p.6-7, lines 46-47).

This accords with recent findings reported by Carrigan (2020) and Maynard (2020) who
show that academics may require to invest a considerable amount of time to create quality
content on YouTube for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement.
Therefore, one may suppose that investing time to create YouTube video content may be a
potential reason for academics' experience of work overload if the work cannot be conducted
during office hours. More so, a lack of knowledge about how to create videos may be a
reason for academics to omit the use of YouTube for professional practices. Nevertheless,
issues of time and lack of competencies may be overcome by following Maynard's (2020)
workflow that guides academics from developing the video to uploading the recording on the
YouTube platform. More so, Maynard (2020) also states that it takes practice to follow the
workflow and academics may develop skills by repeating the workflow. Hence, while
academics who want to use YouTube may save time by training and developing their skills
they may require to consider that the training also takes time and effort. Although this issue
arises in the context of YouTube, one may also suppose that this applies to wider platforms.

6.1.5 Instagram

Only a few academics who participated in the survey (see Figure 10) and focus groups, used Instagram for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Nevertheless, recently published studies (e.g., Coman *et al.*, 2021; Manca, 2020) show multiple benefits of Instagram for Teaching & Learning, such as video and photo sharing, exchange of information, sharing of knowledge through private and public messages and adding description and comments on published posts. In light of this, Instagram was favoured by academics who shared visual work in form of images, photographs or wider designs, as an academic said:

> I will pull up my Instagram account in class when there's something that I've found that I want to show the students, I encourage them to follow the Instagram that I run for our photography platform because we share so much work on it and a lot of quite obscure work as well that people otherwise might not find themselves. I also find it really useful in helping students to do research on Instagram because a lot of them, when they do research on Instagram, will just find crap. And there are a lot of very good Instagram accounts out there. So, I hope that by checking who we follow and looking at the sort of stuff that we're showing, they can learn a little bit more about how to navigate that world because it's incredibly complex and you can go down rabbit holes of really, really terrible work (Speaker 2, FG5, p.6, line 41).

Indeed, a few academics reported using Instagram to teach students how to research this platform. Academics also used the platform to teach students how to conduct and curate visual online collections and exhibitions. Given that some participating academics worked with visual arts (see Table 14), it is not surprising that they found Instagram useful to archive and curating their visual research materials. An academic said this: "My personal Instagram account is exclusively a visual material that I collect. It's my research material. It's my own work. I never post anything remotely personal, i.e. pictures of myself " (Speaker 3, FG5, p.8, line 41), and another academic reported: "We profile a lot of work on Instagram and Instagram too, you know, particular kinds of campaigns" (Speaker 6, FG6, p.11, line 76). Derived from the above, Instagram's technical affordances (e.g., shareability, editability, visibility and searchability) may enable the sharing of visual content but, on the other hand, may also enable academics to evaluate the content and teach students about how to understand and manage information. Also note, Instagram appears to enable students to follow academics and vice versa and, therefore, the building of social ties (see also Section 4.3).

In addition, the results corroborate the findings of a previous study, by Ellison (2017), which shows Instagram's usefulness for some academics' dissemination and promotion of their research outputs. Academics did not associate Instagram with negative attitudes or experiences. This may be explained by the reason that not many of the survey and focus group participants indicated using Instagram for professional purposes. Nevertheless, the visual content on Instagram may stimulate and provoke positive emotions, as an academic said: "I love the silence of Instagram. It's just images. That's so that's my use " (Speaker 2, FG5, p.6, line 41). This finding shows the potential emotional experiences evoked by Instagram's emotional affordances (see also Section 4.5).

6.1.6 Academic Social Networking Sites

Beyond the use of the previously discussed high-profile SNS (see Section 4.6), very few survey (see Figure 10) and focus group participants appeared to find ResearchGate and Academia.edu useful for their Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Some academics used the platforms to publicise, disseminate and promote their research. This is not surprising given that these are the probably most popular ASNS (Manca, 2017), and various studies (e.g., D'Alessandro *et al.*, 2020; Donelan, 2016; Jordan, 2019) show multiple benefits such as the promotion of professional profile and research outputs, extensions of academic networks or interacting with research communities. Speaker 4 (FG6, p.6, line 48) said the following:

> I engage with social media more to publicise and get information about other people's research, basically. So, we use LinkedIn, Facebook, Skype for some group meetings, ResearchGate and Academia.edu.

Additionally, only a few academics used ASNS to access knowledge, information and resources for their Teaching & Learning. An academic said this:

> Using for instance, Academia.edu or something else, the quality of information you can find is different on academia or ResearchGate than on Facebook. So, it's a matter of finding a balance as well (Speaker 5, FG 2, p.8, line 56).

This result corroborates the findings of recent studies (e.g., Manca, 2017; Williams and Woodacre, 2016), which show that these platforms may afford the allocation of teaching and learning resources. However, compared to the high-profile SNS (see Section 1.1), such as Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn and Instagram, the focus group participants, used ASNS less

frequently (see Figure 10) for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. This finding was somewhat expected as various studies (e.g., Elsayed, 2016; Manca and Ranieri, 2016a) show academics may frequently use ASNS to sharing of publications. Derived from the above results ASNS' technical affordances (see Sections 4.6.6 and 4.2) may enable academics to share and disseminate knowledge, but it seems that the spreadability of content and its visibility may require careful evaluation of the content's quality.

In addition, further possible explanations, for the overall low uptake of these platforms, are the lack of perceived usefulness and the SPAM messages delivered by, for example, Academia.edu. An academic reported: "A little bit we used to teach to try and find resources, but I never used Academia.edu, I just find it spams you all the time" (Speaker 7, FG2, p.6, line 37), and another academic said: "I have an Accademia account, but I don't use either of those very actively because I don't find it so useful" (Speaker 5, FG6, p.8, line 65). These findings support the work of a few studies (e.g., Williams and Woodacre, 2016), which show that some academics may not find ASNS useful due to SPAM emails.

6.1.7 Pinterest

Lastly, the least frequently used social networking site (see Figure 10), by academics in this study, was Pinterest. Indeed, only two academics used the platform for Teaching & Learning but not engagement. An academic explained it like this:

> I've tried Pinterest, I've tried other platforms. It's the one that I've found where I'm actually able to archive all of the visual material that I'm looking at and share it and get feedback on it. A lot of my students follow me. I don't follow back anyone until they graduate. It's just a hard and fast rule (Speaker 2, FG5, p.5, line 41).

and the other academic said this: "I still use Pinterest to gather teaching resources" (Speaker 7, FG2, p.6, line 37). The finding reflects Pinterest's shareability and editability (technical affordances), as well as expression and consumption that enable the commenting and provision of feedback on posts. More so, social ties (see also Section 4.3) may be forged when students or other stakeholders follow academics. From a different perspective, the low use of Pinterest, especially for Networking & Public Engagement is somewhat surprising, given that several scholars (e.g., Baker and Hitchcock, 2017; Manca, 2020) show multiple pedagogical affordances (such as sharing, commenting, resharing and organising visual-based information) beneficial to motivate and engage students with various material and

resources. Moreover, there appears to be a clear gap in the literature on how the platform may be used for academics' Networking & Public Engagement.

6.2 Boundary Work of Teaching & Learning

The previous section presented an overview of SNS and their affordances. This section presents *why* and *how* academics may negotiate boundaries of their professional social media use when using these platforms. Based on Carlson and Lewis's (2019) adapted framework (see Section 3.1.3) the social media use boundary work associated with Teaching & Learning addresses academics' boundary negotiations between themselves and three types of stakeholders: students, internal colleagues, and support staff. Such negotiations revolved around *practices* and *propositions (beliefs, norms)* (see Table 8). While *practices* describe what activities constitute academics' professional social media use, the latter describes what beliefs and norms may guide academics' decisions about their professional social media use.

6.2.1 Academics and Students

In terms of social media use boundary negotiations between academics and students, academics' boundary work revolved around pedagogical benefits, ethical dilemmas, access to technology, time, identity dilemma and students as threats.

6.2.1.1 Enabling Pedagogical Affordances

Academics appeared to negotiate boundaries of their professional social media use in expansion when they made decisions to integrate students into their professional social media use due to SNS enabling pedagogical affordances. In accord with various recent studies (e.g., Hamid *et al.*, 2014; Manca and Ranieri, 2017 or Zachos, Paraskevopoulou-Kollia and Anagnostopoulos, 2018), which explain academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning, some academics of the present study reported some benefits as reasons to accept students in their professional social media use. According to the survey study (Figure 11), academics frequently accepted students into their social media use because they found the platforms (see Section 4.4) useful to share resources. In addition, academics used SNS to communicate, teach students how to use the platforms, as virtual classrooms and create events or activities (see Patmanthara, Febiharsa and Dwiyanto, 2019). Also, a few academics may positively contribute to students' well-being, confidence and professional development through, for example, the provision of LinkedIn recommendations (see Section

6.1.2). Deriving from the above, the presented findings support the work of Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022), in this area, confirming the social (e.g., skills as leadership and collaboration) and the emotional (e.g., skills as care for healthy relationships) dimensions of digital literacy (see Sections 2.2.3 and 2.2.6).
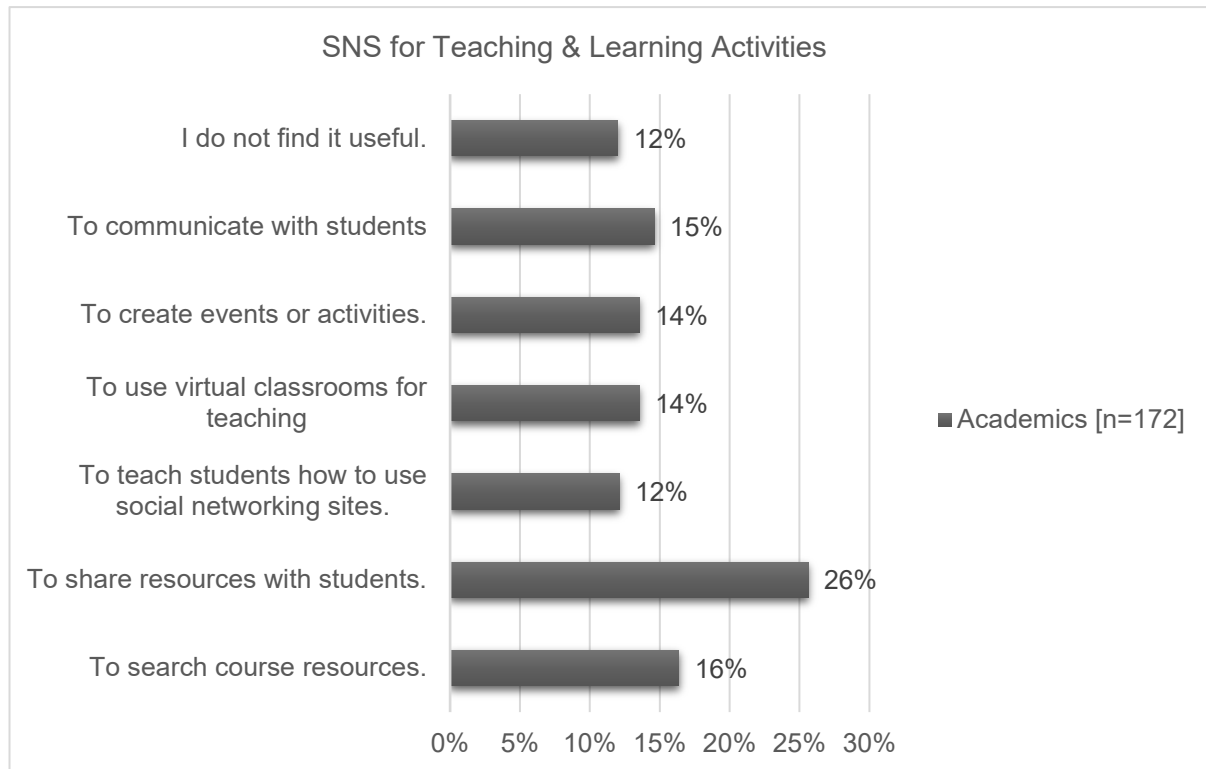
Figure 10 For which Teaching & Learning activities would you find SNS most useful? (allowed multiple responses)

Furthermore, some academics used social media as *well-being spaces* to *humanise* themselves, as an academic explained:

> We've been using social media purely as a well-being space. So, to connect with students, to tell them where they could get support and to kind of yes, we're using social media in a teaching capacity to kind of humanise us and create a link with the students (Speaker 6, FG2, p.3, line 27).

In this excerpt, the academic used the terms *humanise* and *create a link*. In that sense, the academic appeared to engage in humanising leadership practices. Indeed, academics who care for students' well-being appear to reflect the humanising principles of "fostering 'ethics of care' and a concern for the common good" (Khilji, 2022, p. 443). This finding confirms the socio-emotional approach to digital competency found by Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) who demonstrate the need to empower the humanistic, techno-social

use of digital technology (see Section 2.2.6). This is further evident in academics' care for students' online behaviour and digital competency development to understand and manage online risks (e.g., cyberbullying, harassment, or fake news). An academic put it like this:

> See their [students'] online personas, perhaps for the first time as professional and not just this is my Facebook account where I post photos of me getting drunk, but actually I'm presenting myself and there might be theatre directors, there might be other people kind of looking at this because it's a public microblogging site. So, they need to think a little bit more carefully about how they present themselves to the professional world. That follows a bit from what Speaker 6 said. So, I think there are advantages in terms of that type of digital literacy as well. But it needs to be managed carefully (Speaker 4, FG1, p.10, line 71).

It is also encouraging to compare these findings with those of a study, by Talib (2018), which extends digital media literacy with critical digital literacy. Accordingly, the element of critical pedagogy comprises the use of digital platforms for Teaching & Learning and addresses the use of these platforms to develop students' digital competencies (e.g., critical consciousness, understanding environments) through critical analysis of, for example, online content (e.g., media text, communication) and the platform affordances. Overall, the first group of academics believed using social media for Teaching & Learning is, for instance, 'brilliant' (Section 6.1.4) and indicated to have a positive attitude toward accepting teaching and learning activities and students in their professional social media use. Their pedagogical social practices confirm digital competencies within the social (e.g., competencies as leadership and collaboration) and emotional (e.g., competencies as care for healthy relationships and others' well-being) dimensions of digital literacy (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022). Derived from these findings the present study contributes to the competency of *humanistic digital leadership* that has not previously been reported by various recent studies (e.g., Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022; NG, 2012; van Laar *et al.*, 2017) and seems excluded in a current UK digital literacy development program for academics (e.g., Jisc, 2022a).

6.2.1.2 Ethical Dilemma

Academics negotiated boundaries of their professional social media use in the category of expulsion due to ethical concerns. In light of this, Vallor (2021) discusses SNS as involving direct ethical impacts (like harmful, or unjust actions) that may negatively affect oneself and others. Drawing on this, some academics were deeply concerned about how online risks

(e.g., cyberbullying, online harassment) and the difficulties to distinguish between personal and professional boundaries may affect students' well-being, as an academic put it:

> I have heard horror stories about things that students have said about academic staff in their own private spaces, then kind of being reported back. Also, about each other sometimes. I mean, we've all heard those horror stories as well, but I like thinking about what does it mean to ask students to use social media accounts on particular platforms? How do they feel about the ethics of signing up to them? How do they feel about does it create more work for them that we have to recognise as labour to set up another account? So, that they're not mixing the personal and private, that we're then asking them to be in these spaces? I'm like, yeah, and how just we're engaging with them because it's obviously a like a massive power imbalance there. And that's something that we have to think about (Speaker 2, FG3, p.8, line 56).

This appears to resonate with Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) critical digital competencies as risk assessment (see Section 2.2.1). Such competencies may enable the evaluation of how the use of platforms may affect potential interactions with students and resulting decisions about engagement or disengagement with platforms. Following Pangrazio's (2016) reconceptualising of digital literacy, the consideration of these concerns may involve some academics' engagement in critical self-reflective practices, which comprise their reflection on personal and ideological propositions. Further ethical concerns were reported by some academics who believed that they cannot force students to use social media and, therefore, decided to reject the use of social media for their Teaching & Learning. An academic said this:

> We have been discussing for years whether we want to make that anything official or something like that. We chose not to do that because we feel that you can't force students to have a Facebook account. For example, I think Speaker 2 will have had the same discussions, probably. On the other hand, the Facebook group, what I know of it is quite lively. And sometimes actually the students encourage staff members to become part of that. Or to just post something every now and then. We do have an active alumni Facebook group and all of that, but we don't use it for official teaching for reasons of privacy. We are covered with teams and blackboards, so there is no need necessarily (Speaker 2, FG4, p.3, line 26).

Deriving from the above, academics' consideration of ethical concerns demonstrates their ability to be ethically self-aware. This skill appears to resonate with the critical digital

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competency dimension (see Section 2.2.1) identified by Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022). The academic in the above excerpt seems to describe the *weighing of privacy* on social media discussed by Shane-Simpson *et al.* (2018), who conducted a survey study about students' social media preferences related to privacy and self-expression. Accordingly, users may weigh decisions about the disclosure of their platform data against the benefits of interaction with others. This is reflected in the above example where the academic was aware of the benefits of social media for students' interaction but decided to prioritise their protection of privacy and rejected teaching and learning activities from their professional social media use.

Furthermore, some academics had concerns about how universities consider the ethics related to the interaction between themselves and students on social media, as an academic said:

> …I just think it is something that universities are going to have to think about more is the ethics around regulating behaviour between students and academics in these spaces (Speaker 2, FG3, p.8, line 56).

Indeed, some academics may not accept teaching and learning activities in their social media use because they may not know what the rules of interaction with students on social media entail. An academic put it like this:

> That wouldn't be something that I involve myself in. I think that for me, this goes back to that really important question people have raised about ethics. I don't really know what the rules of engagement are with students on public social media platforms, so I avoid it (Speaker 7, FG3, p.9, line 60).

In accordance with the present findings, Kimball and Kim (2013) state that ethical guidelines and policies may support the management of virtual boundaries when users interact with others on SNS. An academic confirms this:

> So, at the University, there's sort of a very clear guideline when it comes to the use of social media on the part of the students, but also for staff as well. They asked us to keep, you know, a sort of academic space that is different from the personal space we're having, just like Speaker 8 was saying, just not to have a message from a student coming through Facebook or LinkedIn or whatever, what I was going to say as well (Speaker 5, FG2, p.8, line 56).

These results are in agreement with those obtained by Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham (2020) who mention the importance of guidance in order to manage personal and professional boundaries. Nevertheless, as shown in Chapter 8, some academics indicated to prefer autonomous decision-making regarding *how* and *why* they may use social media for professional purposes.

6.2.1.3 Access

In addition, academics were concerned about students' unequal access to technology. Such concerns, however, did not determine academics' decisions in expansion or expulsion. Indeed, none of the academics indicated rejection of practices or participants due to such concerns. Nevertheless, they had awareness of students' unequal access to technology and may holistically integrate practices and participants in their professional social media use. An academic said this:

> There is also an assumption that everybody is up to date with these things, and that's just not the case, particularly globally and particularly students who digital poverty is a real concern. It's a real concern. Some of my students don't have a laptop to get to work on (Speaker 7, FG1, p.17, line 128).

This result corroborates the findings of a previous study by Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham (2020), which shows that it may be important for teachers to consider that there may be inequalities in students' access to resources and technology. This importance is reflected in a recent conceptual study by Büchi and Hargittai (2022), which shows a link between subjective well-being (e.g., emotional, psychological, and social) socio-economic status, the positive and negative outcomes of using social media and related digital competencies. Therefore, it may be important that academics who use social media to develop students' digital competencies (see Section 6.2.1) holistically consider how such activities may impact students' well-being. Hence, some academics may benefit from Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) social digital competencies (see Section 2.2.3) like; teamwork, collaboration, connecting the needs of others, cultivating collective leadership and navigating life within the interconnected global digital environment.

In addition, Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) critical dimension (see Section 2.2.1) and the digital competencies of risk assessment and ethical-self-awareness may also contribute to the management of unequal access to digital technology. Moreover,

critical digital competencies may enable academics to consider online safety and the appropriateness of their relationships with students. Also, cognitive (see Section 2.2.2) and emotional (see Section 2.2.6) competencies may be important for academics to make holistic decisions about the acceptance or rejection of teaching and learning activities in their social media use, in consideration of students' individualistic needs. Therefore, the present study combines the aforementioned competencies and names the competency Management of Digital Equality, Diversity and Inclusion (dEDI).

The ability to manage dEDI may enable academics to understand students' situations associated with access to digital technology and the training and development of students' digital competencies. This may lead to equal, diverse and inclusive digital environments that holistically develop and maintain students' well-being. In that sense, this digital competency may support academics' social media use boundary negotiations associated with decisions about engagement and disengagement with SNS in expansion and expulsion. Hence, academics may use the ability to Manage dEDI to make sound decisions about the acceptance or rejection of students and Teaching & Learning activities associated with ethical propositions in their professional social media use.

6.2.1.4 Time

Furthermore, social media use boundary negotiations in expulsion (see Table 8) are reflected in academics' rejection of students due to concerns regarding the time that students spend on social media. An academic said this: "I just felt nervous about the amount of time my students spend on social media regardless" (Speaker 7, FG1, p.13, line 96). Indeed, such concerns reflect those of Alt (2018) who mentions that students' excessive use of digital technology may lead to an increased tendency for depression and anxiety.

On the other hand, academics were also concerned about the time they spend with students as Speaker 5 (FG5, p.7, line 51) mentioned:

> I worry about using something like Facebook or Instagram with my students because I'm worried that I will be in constant contact with them and that they will expect that from me.

This finding supports recent research by Mercader (2020), which demonstrates academics' complexity to find, allocate and manage time to use social media professionally. Indeed, as previously presented in Section 6.1.4 creating content for social media (e.g., YouTube)

appears to require a lot of effort and time. These findings partially reflect the digital well-being element, mentioned in Jisc's (2022a) digital competency framework, which includes academics' capability to manage digital workloads. It seems that Jisc (2022a) associates digital workload with the ease of tasks through the use of digital technology and, on the other hand, the need to manage digital workload through planning, preparation and avoidance of distraction. Indeed, conversely shown in recent studies (e.g., Fetherston *et al.*, 2021; Nguyen, 2021; Vanden Abeele *et al.*, 2022) it seems often not considered that the use of digital technology may not ease the time spent on tasks but increases academics' workload due to platform opportunities (see Chapter 4).

Furthermore, as shown by Fetherston *et al.* (2021) and Torp, Lysfjord and Midje (2018) increased use of digital technology may lead to increasing workloads and the blur between professional and personal lives may have potentially negative consequences (e.g., stress and anxiety) for academics' well-being and job performance. Therefore, following Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) (Section 2.2), academics may benefit from projective (e.g., recognising time limitations, and resources), cognitive (e.g., understanding and organising the self to complete tasks) as well as critical (e.g., self-control, risk assessment) digital competencies, which may enable the prevention of potential information and time overload as well as the ability to manage online identities through the setting of clear personal and professional boundaries. Moreover, these competencies may empower some academics to make decisions, through the understanding of platform influences, to disengage with social media in order to benefit their well-being and job performance (Light, 2014).

6.2.1.5 Identity Dilemma

Social media use boundary struggles between expulsion and expansion associated with identity dilemmas were reported by some academics who participated in the focus groups. Boundary struggles are reflected in academics' experience of discomfort and complexities to manage blurred personal and professional boundaries. Speaker 5 (FG5, p.3, line 26), for instance, explained it like this:

> I don't use it anymore because I'm uncomfortable with the level of crossover between my personal life and my work at the university. And even though they don't really, they don't see my profile like I've made it private in that way, they can't see it. I still feel uncomfortable with them even seeing my picture, for example, on Facebook.

The academic expressed a feeling of discomfort that seemed to alert them to separate their professional and personal identities by rejecting teaching and learning activities in their professional social media use. Moreover, some academics indicated that they use social media despite the discomfort (see Section 7.4.1) associated with overlapping personal and professional boundaries. A potential reason (see Section 7.3.1.2) for this is that they may be socially influenced to use the platforms by their organisations or their stakeholders (see also Duane, 2018; Kieslinger, 2015). On the other hand, they seem to be influenced by students on platforms and experience negative emotional experiences of discomfort (see Section 7.1.1.2). Although Corcoran and Duane (2018) in their qualitative study about HEI staff knowledge exchange on social media and Kieslinger (2015) in their qualitative study about academic peer pressure in social media, conversely demonstrate that some academics may be influenced by their stakeholder (e.g., peers, family, colleagues), they do not address *how* and *why* such influences may impact academics well-being and job performance.

Furthermore, the results correspond with Steinert and Dennis's (2022) hedonic approach to managing emotions associated with the use of social media. Academics may avoid negative emotional experiences, which may benefit their well-being and job performance as their decisions to disengage with platforms, for instance, may ease concerns about online safety. Therefore, academics may reject teaching and learning activities in their professional social media use in order to benefit their well-being and job performance. Consistent with the emotional dimension (see Section 2.2.6) of digital literacy mentioned by Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) academics may be aware of and manage emotional experiences, like the feeling of discomfort, in order to care for their well-being and job performance. Indeed, such emotional self-awareness may lead to the decision of disengagement, which according to some scholars (e.g., Fast, 2021; Light, 2014; Pellerin *et al.*, 2023; Vanden Abeele *et al.*, 2022; Varela-Castro *et al.*, 2022) may positively affect an individual's well-being and job performance.

In addition, the difficulty to distinguish between personal and professional social media use boundaries may be linked to the multiple roles that academics adopt in their professional practices. An academic explained it like this:

> …we've kind of moved from the idea that we entered as teachers and researchers and now we're administrators, we're bureaucrats, we're jugglers. We're everything that we're required to be, you know, and there's a lot of difficulty and complexity and, you know, certainly a lot of challenges in that. And there's no doubt that, therefore, when you work in things like social media for us, what the only way I would say that

it's manageable is that wherever we've kind of like, you know, placed ourselves and work with ourselves, we try to be project orientated (Speaker 6, FG6, p.23, line 138).

These results reflect those of Kasperiuniene and Zydziunaite (2019) who demonstrate that career changes and expansion of the professional field may affect an individual's professional identity construction. Teachers, on social media, seem to adopt informal leadership roles and may develop informal professional relationships, therefore, their professional communication may be affected by their informal self-presentation, causing the blur between personal and professional identities. Kasperiuniene and Zydziunaite (2019, p.8) further explain that adopting professional social media communication roles and the clear separation between personal and professional lives may support academics' professional identity construction on social media.

This is further supported by Carrigan (2020, p.164) who recommends the conscious distinction between personal and professional social media use in order to avoid the blur between personal and professional boundaries. It is also encouraged to compare this finding with Kimball and Kim's (2013) virtual boundaries at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels (also see Sections 3.1.2). Following Kimbal and Kim (2013) the ability to set virtual boundaries is important in order to make sound, ethical decisions about using social media professionally. In that sense academics' are required to develop an awareness of how and why they may accept or reject stakeholder (e.g., personal, professional) or practices (e.g., personal, professional) in their professional social media use. Such awareness may contribute to setting and managing virtual boundaries and may ease the negotiation of strict personal and professional boundaries that may benefit academics' well-being and job performance (Kasperiuniene and Zydziunaite, 2019).

Additionally, the findings shed light on recent research by Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham (2020) who identify overlapping personal and professional boundaries of academics' professional social media use. Their institutional recommendations merely address the importance to guide the development of professional identities, while the findings of this study show the potential importance to consider the cognitive negotiation of personal boundaries (e.g., identity management, virtual boundary management) that may support some academics' well-being and job performance. The results also add to the concept of critical literacy (see Section 2.2.1) and highlight the potential need to consider academics' ability of self-reflection and self-control (see also Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022) when negotiating overlapping personal and professional boundaries in order to make decisions that benefit their well-being and job performance.

6.2.1.6 Students as Threats

Also, to note, some academics experienced students as potential threats to their professional social media use and their well-being, as an academic explained:

> I have stopped using Facebook myself altogether because I was being stalked at one point by a student. It got so bad that I didn't know any other way out than just to delete my presence on Facebook, and I felt it sort of had a good effect on my psychic well-being and I didn't really like it that much. So, I haven't used any of these in my teaching (Speaker 3, FG5, p.3, line 27).

This finding supports the work of recent studies (e.g., Jordan, 2022; Oksanen *et al.*, 2021), which show academics' increased vulnerability to online abuse, on social media, and the potential negative impact (e.g., anxiety and stress) such experiences may have on their well-being and job performance. To circumvent and manage such risks academics may benefit from gaining digital competencies within Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) critical, cognitive and emotional dimensions of digital literacy (see Section 2.2). In light of this, digital competencies, like risk assessment (critical) logical thinking, the management of digital identity (cognitive) to protect one's being against online risks and management of emotions (emotional) and behaviour, may benefit sustainable maintenance of some academics' well-being and job performance.

6.2.2 Academics, Colleagues, Support Staff and External Experts

In terms of social media use boundary negotiations between academics, colleagues, support staff and external experts, boundary work revolved around internal support and hybridising expertise.

6.2.2.1 Internal Support

Some academics negotiated professional social media use boundaries in expulsion (see Section 3.1.3) because they decided to reject stakeholders or practices in their professional social media use. However, these academics also engaged in boundary work in expansion. Although they did not directly accept social media in their professional practices, they integrated colleagues and support staff who posted information on their behalf. In that sense, these academics still engaged in social media use boundary work and they found a way to ease their discomfort with the blur between personal and professional identities. This is

reflected by a few academics who helped themselves to manage their personal and professional boundaries through collaboration with their colleagues and support staff who conducted social media activities for them. Speaker 2 (FG4, p.16, line 104) said this:

> One thing we have at the school, which I think is great, is to have certain people who are designated as social media officers. So, these are people who like engaging in social media. They have the expertise. So, for example, if I am doing an event somewhere and I want to advertise it on Twitter, I don't have to use my personal account, which I never use. But if I ask my colleague to use Twitter to just tweet away. So, I think that's a very clever way of doing things. I would like to have a separation between my personal account and my professional.

These findings support Carrigan's (2020, p.117) idea that departmental social media accounts and colleagues may support academics who do not want to use their social media accounts for professional purposes. More so, this result confirms that partial and/or full disengagement with platforms may require digital competencies (see Gui *et al.*, 2017; Nguyen, 2021), within the operative dimension (see Section 2.2.4), that may enable the understanding of SNS affordances. The academic in the above excerpt appeared to be aware of the option that others can share content on their behalf because SNS appear to enable such actions. Indeed, disengagement may not solely indicate the strict disconnection from the digital environment but contributes to an ability to manage virtual boundaries that may positively affect academics' well-being and job performance. Therefore, this shows the importance to integrate disengagement in digital literacy training and development programmes (e.g., Jisc, 2022a).

6.2.2.2 Hybridising Expertise

Some academics also engaged in social media use boundary work in expansion when they negotiated professional social media use boundaries between themselves and external experts (e.g., guest lecturers). As previously explained in Sections 4.1 and 6.1, SNS may enable academics to search and find various stakeholders. Indeed, it appears easy for some academics to find others who may fulfil their teaching and learning needs as well as they may be found by experts who may have an interest in collaboration. The quote in Section 6.1.2 shows an academic who decided to accept professional engagement practices in their professional social media use in order to find guest speakers for Teaching & Learning. This finding supports recent research into academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning

by Manca (2022, p.44) who shows "hybridisation of expertise (peripheral and emergent interactions occurring in the learning environment, including the participation of past students, experts and external professionals with different expertise)".

Therefore, it seems that academics may benefit from the social platform affordances (see Chapter 4) due to the ability to collaborate and work with others. In that sense, collaboration and teamwork reflect Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) social dimension (see Section 2.2.3) in which academics may benefit from the harbouring of social digital competencies that may enable them to accept or reject stakeholder in their professional social media use. On the other hand, given the myriad of cyber risks (see Oksanen *et al.*, 2022) some academics may also require critical digital competencies (see Section 2.2.1), such as risk assessment, that may enable them to make the right choices about acceptance or rejection of external experts (e.g., guest lecturers) in their professional social media use. Lastly, critical digital competencies may also apply to academics' decisions about their involvement and collaboration with their colleagues. As explained by Carrigan (2020), in his book about social media use for academics, academics who let others post for them may lose control over what is shared about them on platforms. Therefore, academics may require critical digital competencies (see Section 2.2.1) that may enable them to assess the potential risks (e.g., loss of control) associated with the acceptance or rejection of colleagues who post on their behalf.

6.2.2.3 Overall Identified Digital Competencies: Teaching & Learning

Derived from the previous two sections, the following Table 17 provides the summary of the found digital competencies in the context of academics' boundary work of their professional social media use associated with Teaching & Learning.

Overall Digital Competencies: Teaching & Learning		
Dimension	Digital Competence	Attribute
Social	- Managing Digital Equality, Diversity and Inclusion (dEDI) - Humanistic Digital Leadership - Collaboration - Teamwork, collaboration - Connecting the needs of others - Developing others - Conflict management	Academics with these competencies know how to - Manage access to technology and knowledge - Use social media to care for students' well-being
Cognitive	- Understanding and organising the self to complete tasks - Logical thinking - Management of digital identity	Academics with these competencies know how to - Prevent time and information overload - Manage personal and professional boundaries - Protect themselves against online risks - Disengage with platforms
Critical	- Analyse and understand digital information - Self-reflection - Ethical self-awareness - Risk assessment (weighing of privacy risks and level of disclosure online) - Work ethics - Critical consciousness - Understanding environment - Virtual boundary management	Academics with these competencies know how to - Prevent time and information overload - Manage personal and professional boundaries - Protect themselves against online risks - Disengage with platforms - Make ethical decision-making - Disengage with platforms - Evaluate the use of platforms to develop students' digital competencies
Projective	- Time management (recognising time) - Resource management - Workload management	Academics with these competencies are able to - Manage work overload - Manage time overload - Manage information overload - Disengage with platforms
Emotional	- Self-awareness - Self-control - Care for healthy relationships and the well-being of others - Emotional self-assessment	Academics with these competencies can - Create awareness and management of emotional experiences to care for the self and others - Manage personal and professional boundaries - Disengage with platforms - Build and maintain healthy relationships with students and other stakeholders

Table 16 Overall Digital Competencies: Teaching & Learning

6.3 Boundary Work of Networking & Public Engagement

The boundary work of Networking & Public Engagement addresses academics' social media use boundary negotiations outside their institution. Following Carlson and Lewis (2019) academics' boundary work comprised *participants* as the public, academics, activists, research communities and industries. Negotiations of social media use boundaries between themselves and these participants revolved around *practices* and *propositions* (see Table 8).

6.3.1 Academics and the Public

In terms of social media use boundary negotiations between academics and the public, boundary work revolved around networking, collaboration, peer pressure, mitigation of cybercrime and academic impact.

6.3.1.1 Networking & Collaboration

In expansion (see Table 8), academics engaged in boundary work when they decided to accept engagement practices (e.g., dissemination of knowledge and sharing of information) and the public in their professional social media use. Derived from the survey study (see Figure 12) and the focus groups, academics predominantly used SNS to inform, consult and collaborate with the public. An academic explained it like this: "Carrying on doing something so that somebody in Australia can engage with the content that I create here in the UK. So yeah, I think it will increase" (Speaker 4, FG1, p.22, line 165), and another reported:

> …I think a lot of academics use that sub-stack medium that you can do like longer-form articles that reach out to like the general public, but also kind of informed academic kind of public as well (Speaker 3, FG3, p.11, line 69).

These findings accord with those of recent studies (e.g., Jordan, 2022; Khlusova, 2021), which show the mentioned activities as benefits of academics' social media use for public engagement. In order to share and disseminate content some academics may require to understand their stakeholders (Carrigan, 2020) and, therefore, digital competencies (e.g., connecting the needs and motivation of others) within Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) social dimension (see Section 2.2.3) may be important. Additionally, the generation of opportunities, needs and understanding of stakeholders may also be beneficial to reaching out and sharing information with others. On the other hand, operative digital competencies (see Section 2.2.4) that may enable the understanding of SNS

affordances may ease some academics' decision-making about which platforms to use and which type of content they may share.
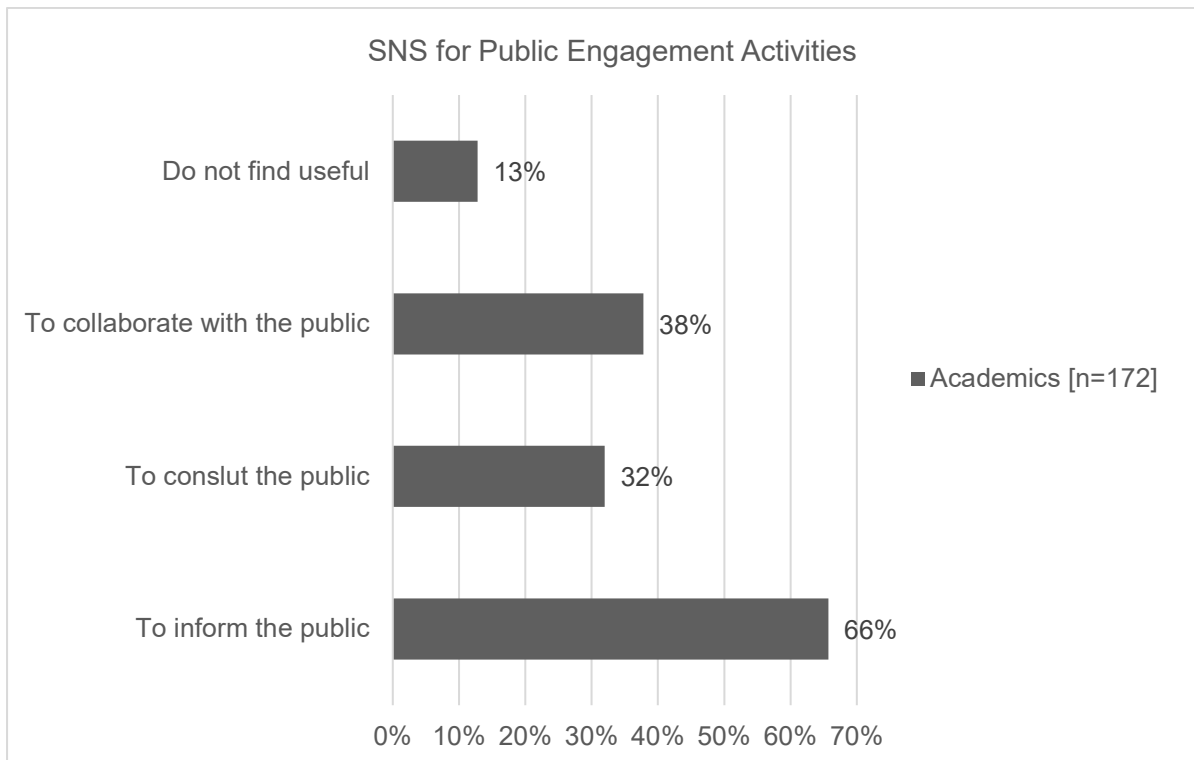
Figure 11 For which public engagement activities would you find SNS most useful? (allowed multiple responses)

6.3.1.2 Social Pressure

Some academics engaged in social media use boundary work when they made decisions in expansion and expulsion (see Table 8) that seemed to be influenced by social pressure and appear to result in greater social media use boundary struggles. For instance, some academics believed that social media is *vital*, as one academic said:

> It had something to do with public engagement. But I mean, it's absolutely vital. Yeah, I expect it now. I don't know a lot about the galleries and the publishers that we deal with. If you don't have social media of some form, people simply don't know you exist (Speaker 2, FG5, p.11, line 70).

or as another academic mentioned: "…as Speaker 2, said really well it's this universe confined in that people think it's pretty much the reality of the world " (Speaker 4, FG6, (p.7, line 51). Consistent with some scholars such as Dermentzi and Papagiannids (2018) or Kieslinger (2015), it is, therefore, not surprising that some academics indicated to be under

social pressure, which is further discussed in Section 7.3, to use social media professionally, as an academic said:

> …I got involved originally before then. The research curiosity just shook my friends up and all the invitations I was getting from Facebook. So, my friends mass invited me to join Facebook around the early 2000s. Whether we have a choice or not (Speaker 4, FG5, p.20, line 133).

The academic, in the above excerpt, described a potential 'illusion of choice', further discussed in Section 7.3 below, due to peer pressure that may lead to increased stress and anxiety (see also Dermentzi and Papagiannids, 2018; Gruzd, Staves and Wilk, 2012; Kieslinger, 2015). Indeed, the academic was aware of having a choice, even though they [the academic] felt that they had to accept networking and public engagement practices in their professional social media use, due to the pressure of their peers. Hence, some academics may experience that they do not have a choice despite that they can make decisions about their social media use.

In light of this, academics may accept peers and engagement practices in their professional social media use, despite their desire for expulsion. This shows social media use boundary struggles between expansion and expulsion and it is encouraging to compare this finding with earlier observations by some scholars (e.g., Gruzd, Staves and Wilk, 2012; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Kieslinger, 2015). Their observations show social influence (see also Section 7.3) may positively impact academics' use of social media but may also be associated with the experience of stress and anxiety that may worsen over time. As explained in Section 7.3, academics may benefit from gaining the digital competency of Emotional-Self-Awareness and Self-Regulation (see Section 2.2.6) in order to manage and understand the potential negative consequences of peer pressure associated with decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media.

On the other hand, some academics may learn to understand and manage the aforementioned social media use boundary struggles by learning to manage virtual boundaries (cognitive digital competency, Section 2.2.2) at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels (see also Section 6.2.1.5). Indeed, managing virtual boundaries may support the ability of self-reflection on the needs and goals within these intersection categories (e.g., personal, professional and stakeholder). Nevertheless, one may not ignore that some academics may decide to endure negative emotions in order to reach a goal (see Section 7.4.1), which reflects the eudaimonic management of well-being

by Steinert and Dennis (2022). This shows the malleability of academics' social media use boundary work and social pressure seems to create complex social media use boundary struggles. Therefore, gaining digital competencies in order to make sound decisions in expansion and expulsion may be important in order that academics can develop and maintain their well-being and job performance sustainably.

6.3.1.3 Mitigation of Cybercrime

The increasing trend toward platformisation of processes of UK universities and the multiple opportunities to reach the public audience, brought by social media, pose various online risks for academics (Carrigan and Jordan, 2021; Jordan, 2022). While cybercrimes may be a reason for academics to reject stakeholders and practices in their professional social media use, such events appear to result in complex social media use boundary struggles in expansion and expulsion (see Table 8). An observed reason for such struggles appears to be that some academics decided to accept stakeholders and practices in their social media use, for instance, experienced the public as a threat to their professional practices (see also, Carrigan 2020, p.139). An academic said this: "I've had death threats and I've had threats of violence against my person from thousands of people online when I've been talking about my research or my academic work" (Speaker 2, FG3, p.17, line 103). The same academic further said: "...to put kind of barriers in place and to put kind of walls up around myself a bit to mitigate against some of the negative effects."

This finding reflects those of Oksanen *et al.* (2021) who conducted a recent study, which investigated online crimes in academia and shows that some academics experienced anxiety due to death threats. According to Oksanen *et al.* (2021), there appears to be a need to develop an understanding of the impact of online risks (e.g., hateful behaviour, inappropriate communication, or hostility). Indeed, victims (e.g., teachers and researchers) may be reluctant to report online crimes and, therefore, may suffer without support and cybercrimes may stay unrecognised. Moreover, based on the above excerpt, it appears that the academic did not decide to reject practices or stakeholders in order to protect themselves, but instead endured the threats by using digital competencies to manage virtual boundaries.

This also shows the importance to consider academics' building of critical digital competencies (see Section 2.2.1) such as risk assessment and safety management but one may also consider the emotional digital competencies (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022). The academic appears to show emotional intelligence (see Section

2.2.6) when making decisions based on the eudaimonic approach to well-being (Steinert and Dennis, 2022). In this case, the academic seemed to understand how to endure negative emotional experiences in combination with critical digital competencies.

Furthermore, the same academic who previously reported the experience of death threats also said this: "The university doesn't really do anything to help with that already to acknowledge it" (Speaker 2, FG3, p.17, line 103). This outcome is echoed by Oksanen *et al.*, (2021) who state that reporting negative experiences may be crucial in order to support academics at the institutional level. This poses the important question of how far institutions are prepared to deal with reported cybercrimes and what support they can provide to support academics' well-being and job performance. Furthermore, it can be questioned how far academics may endure negative emotional experiences to seek benefits from SNS affordances. Indeed, the academic, who reported death threats in the above excerpt, appeared to be aware of the violation of their boundaries and, therefore, created boundaries (e.g., 'walls' or 'barriers') to mitigate negative influences this may have on their well-being and job performance. According to Carrigan (2020), developing awareness of worst-case scenarios before the interaction with stakeholders, on social media, may support academics' mitigation of negativities.

However, the aforementioned academic also indicated feeling unsupported by their institutions and this may indicate that the situation had some potential negative influence on their well-being and job performance. In this sense, following Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) critical dimension (see Section 2.2.1) and Pangrazio's (2016) critical digital literacy concept, some academics may benefit from the ability to be critically self-reflectively, which involves reflections on their practices and processes, in consideration of wider social influences. Such reflections may enable academics' autonomous negotiations of professional social media use boundaries between themselves and stakeholders because they may become aware of how negative or positive their interaction is. Such awareness appears to reflect the need to develop emotional intelligence (see Section 2.2.6), which may enable the understanding and management of emotions that may positively and negatively influence some academics' well-being and job performance. Therefore, such digital competencies may alert academics to prioritise their well-being and job performance through partial or full disengagement with platforms instead of enduring strong negative influences derived from potential cybercrimes.

Moreover, these findings appear to also resonate with the multifaceted disengagement paradox, explained by Kuntsman and Miyake (2019), within which some academics were

emotionally and socio-culturally affected. Following Kuntsman and Miyake (2019) some academics may use social media even though they do not want to because it tends to become the default for everything. Given the increasing platformisation at UK HEIs, this seems plausible. This is also demonstrated by some academics who used social media despite their belief that communication on SNS is 'horrible', as an academic mentioned:

> Twitter became a really horrible space for me after some of the really, honestly, shockingly childish debates that feminists that I love were having over Trump by the trans women and women (Speaker 7, FG2, p.11, line 70).

On the other hand, some academics, as presented in Section 6.1.3, did not use, for example, Facebook because they associated the platform's affordances (see Chapter 4) with an overloaded of information, which is also associated with the increased exposure to inappropriate or harmful content (see Oksanen *et al.*, 2021). Therefore, personal propositions appear to be potential reasons for academics, as indicated in the survey study, to omit their use of platforms to accept stakeholders in their public engagement (see Figure 12). These findings appear to also reflect those of Light (2014) who states that digital disengagement may depend on platform affordances. Further, the platform-specific context was explained like this: "You will get a lot of crossovers of individuals. You can communicate with them in different ways, depending on which platform you're using" (Speaker 2, FG5, p.11, line 74). Following Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022), it seems important for academics to build operative digital competencies that enable the understanding of the platform's technical affordances (see Section 4.2). Overall, based on the findings presented in this section, understanding SNS affordances may be important for disengagement as for engagement with platforms.

6.3.1.4 Academic Impact

Some academics further engaged in boundary work when they negotiated professional social media use boundaries in expulsion and made decisions to reject stakeholders and practices due to their beliefs that platforms may be unsuitable to evidence academic impact (see also Jordan, 2022). This may reflect the low uptake of social media in Networking & Public Engagement (see Figure 12). In the same vein, it appears that if academics believe that social media does not contribute to their impact, they may see the time spent on social media as extra work. An academic put it like this:

> I suppose it's always a lack of time and it's always because, for me something I'm

doing in my own time because it doesn't really count as impact, because for that you have to have the publication. So, it doesn't kind of neatly translate into an impact study. I mean, I suppose it could, you know, but it could need to become quite big. But I'm quite passionate about teaching people about the topic, even though it's very niche and I can see myself doing it. I mean, the thing is, you know, sometimes I'm very enthusiastic for a couple of months and then life takes over, and then I go back (Speaker 6, FG3, p.22, line 142).

These findings support Jordan's (2022) study, which found that some academics may benefit from training about how to use social media for enhancing research impact. Accordingly, it seems not clear how to prove the actual (real-world) impact of academics' social media use on communities and stakeholders because social media metrics and not the actual evidence of real-life actions are commonly used to enhance the evidence of academic impact (see also Jordan, 2022). Despite that only one academic mentioned impact perceptions to inhibit their social media use it may still be important to note. We may infer that there are potentially other academics who may benefit from institutional guidance on how social media may "enhance the impact and public engagement with research through being able to connect with potential new, non-academic audiences" (Jordan, 2022, p. 2).

Furthermore, given the above academics' may benefit from building projective (see Section 2.2.5) and cognitive digital competencies (see Section 2.2.2) in order to understand how social media may be used to evidence research impact. Workload and time management (projective) appear to be important for some academics to learn to use social media professionally during working hours. In addition, logical reasoning, as well as problem-solving, may support some academics' understanding of how platforms may be used to evidence research impact. Therefore, some academics may benefit from developing such digital competencies that may lead to decisions about the acceptance of practices and stakeholders in expansion aiming at a mindful use of SNS (see Section 1.2.1) that may benefit their well-being and job performance. On the other hand, the same digital competencies may also lead to decisions in expulsion. Indeed, some academics may decide to reject practices and stakeholders if they feel uncomfortable or struggle to make use of SNS for professional purposes and disengagement may also benefit their well-being and job performance.

6.3.2 Academics, Activists and Research Communities

Boundary work in expansion is reflected in some academics' acceptance of other academics, activists and research communities in their professional social media use. Derived from the survey study, academics frequently searched, connected, socialised and worked with stakeholders (see Figure 12). Consistent with Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) social dimension of digital literacy (see Section 2.2.3), academics valued the social aspects of social media such as belonging to an international community, as an academic said: "I suppose that's where I keep that word, the social and social media. So, I connect with my tribe of researchers in a very social way" (Speaker 5, FG4, p.13, line 89). This finding corroborates those found in a study, by Meishar-Tal and Pieterse (2017), which quantitatively investigated the reason for academics' use of ASNS. The study shows the sense of belonging to a community or group as one of the benefits of ASNS. In their conclusions, Meishar-Tal and Pieterse (2017) mention that the social factor is distinguished between belonging and interaction of which the latter appeared to be less important.

Therefore, academics who use social media to belong to a community may not necessarily engage in interactions with members of such groups. However, a source of uncertainty is that ASNS, as previously demonstrated in Section 4.6.6, appear to be preferably used by some academics to share, search for resources and promote research outputs. Hence, the academics of the present study seemed to interact with others. It seems that some academics use functional understanding and cognitive (logical reasoning, problem-solving) skills (see also Sections 2.2.2 and 2.2.4) in order to compare and judge which platforms are best suited for their professional aims. Hence, such digital competencies appear to support some academics' decisions about the expansion of their professional social media use boundaries.

The acceptance of other academics and research communities and activists across the globe seems to be a further reason for some academics' use of social media for research purposes. An academic explained it like this:

> I think just Speaker 2 point about social media and space that's extra-institutional is really important. It's really important for networking with academics beyond your institution and also for networking with activists beyond your institution. So, for example, I work at the intersection between studies and indigenous studies. It's really important to my research methodologies that I follow indigenous activists and I know what's going on in their communities so that when I look at the texts, historically, I

can bring that into dialogue with what's going on in the present and, you know, because these people often come from very marginalized communities that have any way of accessing them necessarily or that them in places that are a long way away geographically from where I am (Speaker 7, FG3, p.23, line 147).

These findings are in line with recent studies (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Jordan, 2022; Jordan and Weller, 2018), which show academics' social media use to develop their academic networks, integrating stakeholders in research processes, through for example LinkedIn, Twitter chats, Facebook groups, with stakeholders beyond the academic institutions. In this sense, some academics may expand their professional social media use boundaries by accepting such stakeholders in their professional practices. In addition, some academics accepted other academics during events (see Figure 13) (such as conferences) in their professional social media use. An academic explained it like this:

…we would have conference hashtags and we would have huge amounts of stuff. And, you know, you'd see people like messaging on Twitter during a talk and then you'd like to meet them in the break. And, you know, you would get like I remember giving a paper at a conference and my colleague was like, we've got like five people wanting to talk to us from Twitter. And I've been to three, four conferences since September (Speaker 8, FG2, p.15, line 89).

This finding accords with Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) cognitive dimension of digital literacy (see Section 2.2.2) and demonstrates that some academics applied cognitive skills for curating conference content using hashtags to share knowledge with others (see Section 4.3). Overall, some academics' decisions about the possible expansion of their professional social media use boundaries through the acceptance of engagement practices, academics, activists and research communities may benefit from key digital competencies within the cognitive, operative digital literacy dimensions (see Section 2.2).
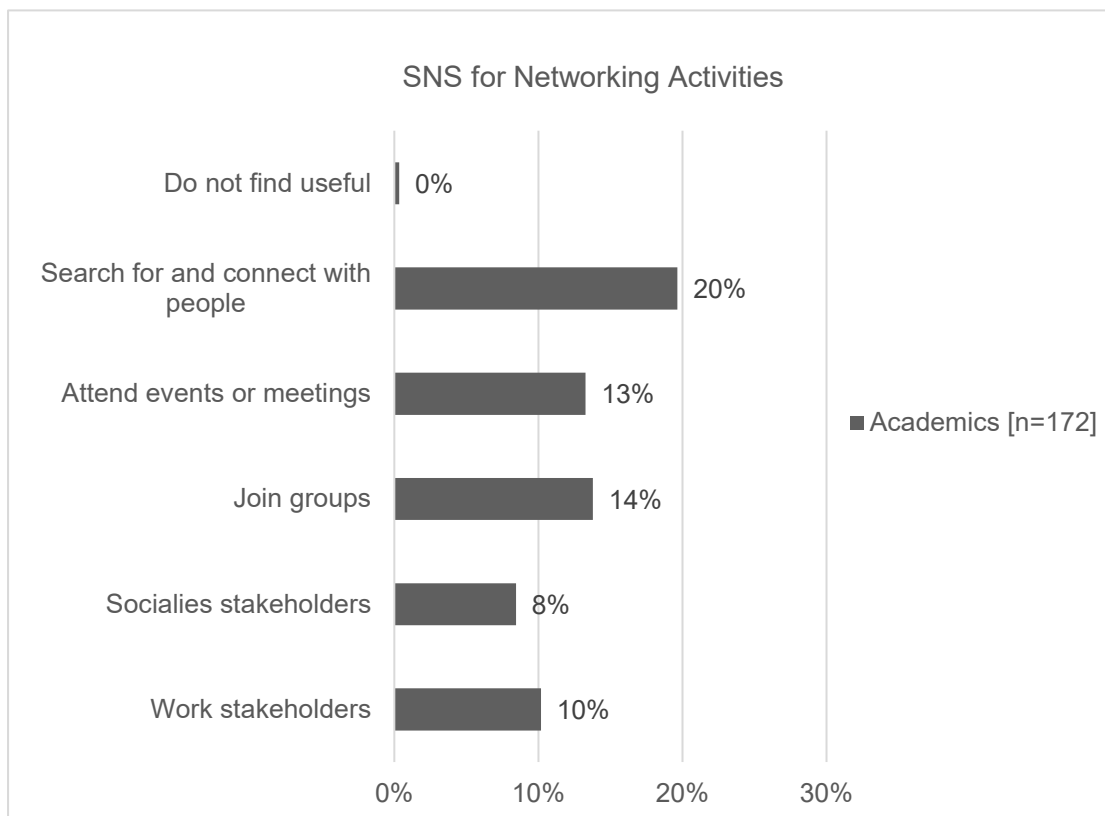
Figure 12 For which of the following networking activities would you find SNS most useful? (allowed multiple responses)

6.3.3 Academics and Industries

Social media use boundary negotiations within expansion (see Table 8) are witnessed by some academics who accepted collaboration with industries that may benefit their students in terms of project development and career opportunities as Speaker 6 (FG6, p.11, line 76) explained:

> Obviously, things like LinkedIn and that kind of relationship between academics and the industry, you know, is very pertinent, very important., I've done interviews with a lot of people, you know, who have contacted me on that platform. And I'm connected to a lot of people that we might work with in relation to projects and relations, kind of student placement in relation to, you know, a whole range of kind of activities. So, so kind of linked in operating as a kind of broker between academic contacts and the industry is enormously enabling for us.

This finding matches those shown in a recent study by Udenze (2017), which demonstrates LinkedIn to be beneficial for some academics to connect with industry experts and wider stakeholders. What is striking is that only one academic of the focus groups mentioned the

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acceptance of industries in their professional social media use. A potential reason is mentioned by Ahmed *et al.* (2022) who state that such links are still weak and the developing of greater understanding, between industries and academia, through improving such relationships and bringing the interests of both stakeholders together may be needed. Along this line, recent studies (e.g., Carrigan and Jordan, 2021; Jordan, 2022) demonstrate the increased opportunities for academics to accept external stakeholders in their professional social media use. However, up to now, literature on academics' acceptance of industries in their professional social media use is scant. Nevertheless, given the wide engagement opportunities related to platform affordances (see also Carrigan and Jordan, 2021 and Jordan, 2022), academics' digital competencies, which may enable the expansion of academics' professional social media use boundaries, appear to be increasingly important to nourish academic research, HE practices and students' employability (Ahmed *et al.* 2022).

Therefore, following Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) some academics may require to build social digital competencies (e.g., participation in networks, communication within digital environments, collaboration and teamwork), but moreover also; recognise, understand and develop an awareness of the complex environment, the capacity of inventiveness and future thinking to develop, generate new solutions to real-world problems together with industries (e.g., projective dimension). This resonates with Freberg and Kim's (2018) study about social media education from the perspective of industry professionals, which shows that industry professionals seem to expect academics who teach social media and liaise with them to possess industry experience. Although not all academics may have industry experience cognitive and social digital competencies (see Sections 2.2.2 and 2.2.3) may enable them to understand the background and concept of industries. Therefore, this may enable the expansion of their professional social media use boundaries through acquiring knowledge on platforms and the potential acceptance of industry stakeholders.

6.3.4 Overall Digital Competencies: Networking & Public Engagement

Digital Competencies: Networking & Public Engagement		
Dimension	Digital Competencies	Attribute
Social	- Collaboration - Teamwork - Generation of opportunities to exchange with others to connect needs - Understanding Stakeholder	Academics with these competencies can - Building relationships with global stakeholders - Understand stakeholder - Share knowledge with global stakeholders

	• Networking • Understanding of others within the interconnected digital environment	
Critical	• Risk assessment • Self-reflection • Risk assessment and management • Critical evaluation of collaborative interactions • Identity management	Academics with these competencies can • Reflect on their practices, and processes, in consideration of wider social influences • Build 'walls' to mitigate negative influences • Understand risks and needs associated when making decisions about the interaction with others • Cope with peer pressure due to clear categorising of personal and professional boundaries • Disengage with platforms
Emotional	• Self-awareness • Self-Regulation	Academics with these competencies know hot to • Understand the influence of others' content on the self • To manage mental health • Disengagement to benefit the well-being • To understand the potential negative consequences of peer pressure on well-being • To disengage with platforms
Projective	• Workload management • Time management	Academics with these competencies know how to • Manage time and resources during working hours
Cognitive	• Logical reasoning • Problem-solving	Academics with these competencies can • Make logical decisions and reasoning based on evaluation and understanding of the use of social media to evidence research impact

Table 17 Overall Digital Competencies: Boundary Work Networking and Public Engagement

6.4 Conclusion

Overall, this chapter contributes knowledge about how and why academics engage in social media use boundary work when they use SNS for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Academics used SNS such as Twitter, LinkedIn, Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, Pinterest and ASNS. Twitter was most frequently used for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. LinkedIn was popular for students and wider stakeholder engagement followed by Facebook, which was used for group works with students as well as research communities. YouTube was mostly used for Teaching & Learning such as recording and sharing lectures as well as knowledge recorded and shared with the public. Less popular was Instagram and academics used it to teach students how to use social media as well as to curate visual research collections. ASNS were not very popular and academics particularly used the platforms to find teaching recourses and to publish but SPAM messages inhibited such use. Pinterest was the least popular and a few

academics found the platform's multiple pedagogical affordances (e.g., sharing, commenting, resharing, and organising visual-based information) useful to find teaching resources and share visual content. Nevertheless, there is a lack of knowledge about how the platform may benefit wider engagement practices.

Regarding the social media use boundary work of Teaching & Learning, some academics negotiated social media use boundaries between themselves, students, colleagues and support staff. Two groups of academics negotiated such boundaries between themselves and students. The first group of academics negotiated professional social media use boundaries in expansion and accepted students and teaching and learning activities in their professional social media use. Their pedagogical social practices confirm digital competencies within the social (e.g., competencies as leadership and collaboration) and emotional (e.g., competencies as care for healthy relationships and others' well-being) dimensions of digital literacy. These findings show the probably novel competency of *humanistic digital leadership* that has not previously been reported by various recent studies and seems excluded in a current UK digital literacy development program for academics (e.g., Jisc, 2022a). The second group of academics negotiated social media use boundaries in expulsion due to ethical and identity dilemmas and saw students as a threat to their professional identity. These academics indicated rejection of students and teaching and learning activities in their professional social media use.

However, it appears that some academics who aimed towards the strict demarcation of personal and professional boundaries negotiated social media use boundaries in expulsion and re-negotiated such boundaries in expansion through the acceptance of colleagues and support staff who acted as intermediaries and engaged on social media on behalf of the academic. In this sense, some academics also engaged in self-reflective practices and were ethically self-aware and engaged in multiple competencies within the social and emotional digital literacy dimension. Conversely, these results show the probably novel digital competencies of Managing Digital Equality, Diversity, and Inclusion (dEDI), self-perseveration and humanising digital leadership, which may enable academics to holistically care for their own and their students' well-being.

In terms of Networking & Public Engagement, some academics negotiated boundaries in expansion by accepting the public, academics and research communities as well as organisations. Regarding the public, some academics predominantly used SNS to inform, consult and collaborate with the public, but were also under social influences and experienced an illusion of choice. Moreover, these findings show that some academics who

had a negative experience while they used social media with the public experienced anxiety and despite reporting such experiences, were unsupported by their institution.

Therefore, this poses the important question of how far UK HEIs are prepared to deal with reported cybercrimes and what support they can provide to support academics' well-being and job performance. One may also question to what extent institutions train and develop academics' digital competencies to circumvent negative consequences for the well-being and job performance of academics who engage with social media. In sum, some academics showed the ability to be self-reflective in order to mitigate negativities on social media. This appears to be associated with the need for individualistic approaches to digital literacies development in order to empower academics' decision-making about their professional social media use. Moreover, there may also be a need to train and make academics aware of how social media may be used to show academic impact and there may be some academics who benefit from institutional guidance. While some academics' boundary work associated with their professional social media use appeared to be multifaceted and dynamic their decisions about their boundary negotiations were also influenced by their intentions to use SNS.

Chapter 7 Intentions to use Social Networking Sites

This chapter reports on the data yielded when UK academics participated in a focus group where they engaged with questions about social media for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Following the triangulation of the quantitative and qualitative data, through the qualitative lens of the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) by Venkatesh *et al.* (2003), discussed in Section 3.2, this chapter presents the main constructs of Performance Expectancy, Effort Expectancy, Social Influence, and Emotional Experiences, which appear to constitute parts of academics' decision-making about their professional social media use.

The construct of Facilitating Conditions (see Section 3.2.5), which focuses on the organisational and technical infrastructure that academics may need to use social media (systems), did not occur as a theme in the present study. None of the academics faced unequal access to social media and none of the academics required institutional support with system difficulties. While academics' did indicate a potential lack of institutional support it was support associated with the actual use of platforms and not support needed to use the systems (social media). In this sense, institutional support did not occur as a theme under 'Facilitating Conditions'. The reason for this was that the participating academics appeared to have prior experience in using social media (see Section 9.4). In addition, social media are freely accessible and do not require organisational infrastructure and since the participants of the present study had prior experiences they did seem to have sufficient functional digital competencies to use social media (systems). Moreover, social media were not associated with the institution but are publicly available. Hence, institutions do not directly handle technical support issues and, therefore, academics may not rely on institutional support with social media system difficulties.

7.1 Performance Expectancy

Usefulness is reflected as Performance Expectancy and defined as "the degree to which a system is useful in order to 'attain gains' when performing a job" (Venkatesh *et al.*, 2003, p.447). Therefore, using the lens of the UTAUT qualitatively, the present study poses the question of *Which benefits and challenges influence academics' perceived usefulness of social media for professional practices*? (see Section 3.2.3) Looking at the data through the lens of usefulness, the findings show distinctive opportunities and challenges for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement.

7.1.1 Teaching & Learning

This section discusses opportunities and challenges for Teaching & Learning.

7.1.1.1 Opportunities

The analysis of the focus group data and the survey study, presented in Section 6.1 and Section 6.2.1.1, shows various platform opportunities for academics' Teaching & Learning. In line with some reviewed studies (such as Arquero and Romero-Frías, 2013; Chugh and Ruhi, 2018), which focus on social media use in HE, one of the main opportunities presented in Chapter 6, is caring for students' well-being as well as motivating students, as an academic said:

> I learned something from it through a couple of years ago, which is directing multi-way, has this directing chat. while the students are in class, they are tweeting live as well about what is directing and different kinds of things. They really enjoyed it because it gave them something different from the usual with my students and it worked really well (Speaker 6, FG1, p.5, line 39).

In addition, consistent with a recent survey study by Watermeyer *et al.* (2020), which investigated the shift to remote teaching and learning during the COVID-19 pandemic, some academics used social media to extend pastoral care to students. Academics, for example, conducted well-being activities, on social media, that stimulated students to talk about their days and personal issues. An academic put it like this:

> But that was kind of not like core to the teaching, but that was so my colleague tried to create a fun activity just every week for the students. He wanted to have that kind of interaction socially or just talk about I mean, one week was talking about your pets and the other week was about whatever. It was almost stupid if you say it like this, but it really worked for the students (Speaker 1, FG4, p.2, line 14).

These findings are in accord with the pedagogical affordances (e.g., connectivity and social rapport, the widening context of learning) shown in Table 11 and recent studies (e.g., Alt, 2018; Salahshour Rad *et al.*, 2019; Talib, 2018), which indicate that the use of SNS for educational purposes may support students' well-being and learning performance. Indeed, using SNS for Teaching & Learning may result in; students' improved self-esteem, socialising and may promote a sense of belonging to the learning community. These findings

also support the idea of Vandeyar (2020) who states that social media's pedagogical affordances may provide academics with innovative and creative opportunities to enhance their Teaching & Learning.

Furthermore, consistent with several scholars (e.g., Manca, 2020; Wang, Woo and Quek, 2012), who show platform opportunities for academics' Teaching & Learning, outlined in Section 4.4, social media (like Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn) may improve the interaction, collaboration, group work, teamwork, communication between students, peers and teaching staff out of class times, as an academic explained:

> I've heard from students who, because of a colleague of mine, uses social media much more with his students and even at this particular time. And they know to message him on that because he responds to them more quickly. So, they've started using that instead of the university email, for example, to try to get responses from him (Speaker 5, FG5, p.7, line 51).

Additionally, consistent with the pedagogical affordances (see Table 11), several academics stated social media opportunities for sharing and accessing resources and information used for lectures and class activities. An academic stated: "We of course, use social media, particularly with the graduate students, and also to advertise obviously with such events, and teaching workshops" (Speaker 7, FG1, p.4, line 28). Also to note, as presented in Section 6.2.1.1., some academics found social media (e.g., LinkedIn) useful to pass on career opportunities, like said:

> Whenever I see something that is interesting potentially for them in terms of career opportunities or shows for them to see, etc., I pass it on to them, so it becomes a tool for broadcasting as well (Speaker 4, FG1, p.11, line 79).

These results are corroborated by some studies (e.g., Hamid *et al.*, 2014; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020), over the past decade, which show multiple opportunities for SNS (e.g., Twitter, LinkedIn, Facebook) for teachers to access and share resources (see also Section 6.1). Making decisions to engage with social media due to platform opportunities appears to require academics to build digital competencies (see also Section 6.2.1.1) that may enable them to understand the functional affordances. In addition, academics may also benefit from gaining cognitive digital competencies, such as logical reasoning, problem-solving and critical digital competencies that may enable the understanding of how content/information may be created and used for Teaching & Learning

(see Sections 2.2.2 and 2.2.1). It, therefore, appears that building digital competencies may be important for some academics' engagement with platforms. This is in line with Jisc (2022a) who shows various digital competencies across the six capability elements (see Section 2.3.2) that may enable academics' engagement with digital technologies.

7.1.1.2 Challenges

Academics also reported challenges regarding ethics, personal and professional boundaries, online safety, privacy and time issues (see also Section 6.1 and Section 6.2.1.2). Speaker 4 (FG5, p.4, line 28) explained it like this:

> So, they go onto social media and in the past, I would ask them to create personas and communicate with others. And we stop doing that for obvious reasons, you know, as more ethical concerns come into play, and rightly so. I find that to utilize social media within a work environment, or a teaching environment, there are quite a number of restrictions there. Much like what Speaker 3 and Speaker 5 already mentioned in terms of the boundaries between personal and professional, there is a bit of stalking. I agree. I've had to make all my accounts that are personal, very, very, very, very private to the point that my friends cannot find them. I have to tell them how they can find it. But yes, much like done in the past, I've used social media in teaching quite a bit.

And another academic said this:

> I'll come in here like others, obviously, online teaching presents a lot of challenges, and not one of them is secure and that's basically one of the main things that stop me from using social media (Speaker 7, FG3, p.4, line 30).

Derived from the above the technical affordances (e.g., visibility and searchability) pose the challenge for academics to manage their personal and professional boundaries. We can recognise two groups of academics. The first group of academics used social media for Teaching & Learning despite their experiences of challenges through using their knowledge (digital competency) about how to mitigate their visibility on platforms. The second group, on the other hand, omitted the use of social media, due to their awareness of online risks. These results show academics may apply critical digital competencies (see Section 2.2.1) in order to assess potential risks, ethical appropriateness of interaction with students and risks to their privacy and breaches of personal and professional boundaries. Therefore, this shows

that academics' decision-making about engagement and disengagement appears to be affected by their perception of usefulness associated with challenges that result from platform affordances.

7.1.2 Networking & Public Engagement

This section discusses opportunities and challenges for Networking & Public Engagement.

7.1.2.1 Opportunities

The analysis of the focus group data and the survey study, presented in Section 6.1 and Section 6.3, show some academics found social media useful for networking, dissemination and promotion as well as for public engagement. Consistent with the literature (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Jordan, 2022; Jordan and Weller, 2018) some academics in the present study, appeared to use SNS to increase their social capital through forging connections with colleagues, joining groups and communities and collaborating with international stakeholders. An academic put it like this:

> I tend to use Facebook to connect with groups or individuals around the world in terms of research. For example, edit some books for various publishers and I'll use Facebook as a means to communicate with some of the people working on that (Speaker 3, FG4, p.13, line 87).

and another academic said:

> You know, it's amazing for building audiences and for engaging with people that you might not otherwise be able to reach and to speak about your work with people who you might value knowing about it (Speaker 6, FG5, p.20, line 137).

In accordance with recent studies (e.g., D'Alessandro *et al.*, 2020; Donelan, 2016; Manca, 2017), and previously presented in Chapter 6, some academics also found social media useful for their dissemination and promotion practices. Academics frequently used social media to promote their work as well as to engage in community discussions. An academic explained it like this:

> Over even before the pandemic, been pushing Twitter away to a very professional thing of like, you know, I would announce publications, I will announce I call for

papers or if there's a conference and I will retweet that sort of thing and anything other than that, I try and stay away from. But I did find it useful for a call for papers that run from like September to February. And so, like being able to retweet that on Twitter was useful and being able to kind of get a few more like awareness of things (Speaker 8, FG2, p.11, line 73).

In terms of public engagement, consistent with various studies (e.g., D'Alessandro *et al.*, 2020; Jordan, 2022) as shown in Section 6.3, academics most frequently used social media to inform the public and a few academics used the platforms for collaboration with industries or to consult the public, as an academic said:

I think a lot of academics use that sub stack medium you can do longer-form articles that reach out to like the general public, but also kind of informed academic kind of public as well (Speaker 3, FG3, p.11, line 69).

Especially during the COVID-19 pandemic lockdown, some academics who used social media appeared to have experienced a rise in public involvement for example, in film or photography exhibition projects. An academic explained it like this:

I do a lot of talks at film festivals and every year I go to these events and help organise them. So, with the pandemic, they have all gone online. So, a funny thing that happened is that we started doing these events online. And what I noticed and what is incredible is the number of viewers, the audience numbers just explode. You know, I normally go to the Film Theatre where we get an audience of 50, 60 on a good night and an event we did have nearly two thousand views. And we were like, what? Where did all these people come from? But, you know, the content is out there. So, people are watching. And I think that's great. So that's one thing that has changed (Speaker 2, FG4, p.11, line 74).

This result supports previous research conducted by Khlusova (2021) whose case studies, about public engagement in digital environments for Humanities and Arts researchers, show using digital technologies (such as social media) may enable widening the reach of broad audiences without geographical limitations. In addition, Khlusova (2021) states that using social media is useful for academics to share photos and videos in order to record their public engagement activities. This accords with Jordan (2020) who argues that social media may be used to enhance the evidence of academic impact. In light of this, both scholars (e.g., Jordan, 2022; Khlusova, 2021) mention the importance of digital training and

development because some academics appear to require new knowledge of how and why to use digital technology (e.g., social media) in order to benefit from platform affordances (see Section 4.1).

Furthermore, both scholars (e.g., Jordan, 2022; Khlusova, 2021) also state that there appears to be a lack of digital competency training and development that focuses on the use of social media for Networking & Public Engagement (e.g., enhancing the evidence of academic impact). Derived from Khlusova's (2021) findings, academics may benefit from digital competencies in order to manage technology and interaction with the public on digital platforms. These skills reflect Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) operative and social digital competency dimensions (see Sections 2.2.4 and 2.2.3). In addition, academics may benefit from functional (operative) digital competencies (see Section 2.2.4) that enable platform affordances and social skills that enable the understanding of interaction and collaboration with others in interconnected digital environments. Therefore, this shows that some academics' decision-making about engagement with platforms for Networking & Public Engagement may be affected by their perceptions of platform usefulness but may also depend on the extent of academics' know-how (e.g., digital competencies) to engage with platforms.

7.1.2.2 Challenges

Some academics' perceived usefulness of social media for Networking & Public Engagement appears to be limited due to key challenges to managing time, online risks and perceived limited platform affordances. In terms of time constraints, Speaker 2 (FG4, p.10, line 74) said the following:

> To some extent, I have always used social media. I would say hesitantly because I must say I'm not a big fan of the reasons that Speaker 1 mentioned. It's time constraints and I don't see it as my core work.

In addition, Speaker 1 (FG3, p.16, line 101) who was instructed by somebody in their university on how to use social media shows that some academics appear to be expected to engage on social media but time constraints appear to be ignored by institutions. The academic put it like this:

> This guy is like, trying to post no more than three times a week on Instagram. I'm thinking if he has time to do three interesting posts a week for their work account and

that much for their personal account. So, I think my institution is totally behind the curve in so many respects in terms of guidance.

These findings are consistent with Carrigan (2020) who emphasises academics' difficulties to manage time on social media due to heavy academic workloads. Further, in line with a recent study by Fetherston *et al.* (2021), the present study shows that some academics' difficulties to manage time may also be associated with the fact that social media afford boundary-less communication that can take place anytime within the personal and professional environment. Indeed, given the heavy workloads (see also Section 7.2.1), it appears that institutional expectations of academics' use of social media may not always be reasonable. Indeed the above excerpt reflects that institutional guidance is provided based on how the institution sees academics' professional social media use and seems to ignore academics' workloads and potential consequences for their well-being and job performance. A few academics indicated the need for change towards mindful institutional guidance, in consideration of academics' time constraints, on using social media for professional purposes.

Furthermore, academics may not perceive social media to be useful due to online risks. As shown in Section 6.3.1.3, consistent with a recent survey study, by Oksanen *et al.* (2021), which shows multiple online risks (e.g., online harassment, hateful behaviour) of academics, some academics described online risks related to Networking & Public Engagement such as death threats (see Section 6.3.1.3). An academic explained safety concerns regarding the extent of disseminating information about projects that focus on sensitive topics:

> Now, I would also say that in some of the work that I've been doing, I've been working on LGBT cinema in country X and which is banned. So, we originally planned to do quite a lot of social media around this and the friends, and we were told not to because it just wouldn't make it safe. So, depending on what you're researching as well, I think, you know, it becomes you don't necessarily want to draw attention to things before they're out or before when they're in process, especially as we were interviewing people (Speaker 8, FG2, p.12, line 73).

This result reflects academics' digital competencies, within the critical digital literacy dimension (see Section 2.2.1). The academic shows awareness of potential online risks and takes the necessary steps to circumvent the potential negative consequences derived from the public audience, for their research project and their academic community. The academic also shows that they used digital competencies to disengage with platforms due to the ability

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to understand and manage online risks. Hence, this shows the importance to include digital disengagement within academics' digital literacy training and development programmes because such skills may prevent negative outcomes for academics' job performance as well as for their well-being.

From a different perspective, some academics found certain platforms unsuitable for Networking & Public Engagement due to limited affordances, as was mentioned by Speaker 5 (FG4, p.13, line 89):

> I wouldn't dream of having a discussion on Twitter. It's a place to start a connection but then take it offline. Then it becomes a much deeper engagement.

In the same vein, in accord with Jordan and Weller's (2018) unused survey text analysis of ASNS for professional engagement and online networking and the results previously reported in Section 6.1.6, a potential reason for the low perceived usefulness of ASNS (e.g., Academia.edu and ResearchGate) are SPAM emails and the quality of content on such platforms. ASNS afford high visibility, spreadability and access and may attract a lot of content and some academics' may find such platforms less useful due to the difficulties to evaluate the myriad of information. This is corroborated by Da Silva, Al-Khatib and Tsigaris (2020) who argue that SPAM messages often comprise false information, misleading metrics about journals and the making of statements that the received email is not SPAM while it aims to lure researchers to, for example, suggested journals. More so, SPAM emails appear to be a waste of time because they may affect professional productivity (Da Silva, Al-Khatib and Tsigaris, 2020). Accordingly, academics may spend time reading and engaging with unreliable content that may negatively affect their job performance if they, for instance, submit papers to 'fake' journals.

Overall, the qualitative use of the lens of performance expectancy shows that some academics who decided to omit the use of social media due to challenges and academics who used platforms due to platform opportunities appear to be both digitally competent. Indeed both groups of academics seemed to apply operative (functional and operational understanding), critical (self-reflection, ethical self-awareness) and cognitive (logical reasoning, problem-solving) digital competencies to make such decisions, about engagement and disengagement, under influence of platform opportunities and challenges (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022; Section 2.2).

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Along this line, the present study's findings oppose those of a recent survey study, by Aavakare and Nikou (2020), which investigated academics' digital literacy associated with performance expectancy (e.g., usefulness) and the intention to use technology. Aavakare and Nikou (2020) measured the self-reported proficiency level in using digital technologies, including social media. Their study indicates that the higher academics' digital literacy is the more useful and, therefore, the higher the intention to use digital technologies. However, their definition of digital literacy is unclear and excludes the multiple dimensions, such as the operational-critical, cognitive, and socio-emotional factors, mentioned in Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022). In addition, they do not address the continuum of social media use boundaries, found in the present study (see Chapter 6), within which some academics appear to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with social media. Academics' boundary work highlights why and how they negotiate their social media use and shows key digital competencies beneficial to manage emotions to protect their well-being and job performance.

Furthermore, Nikou and Aavakare's (2021) assumption that higher digital literacy influences the intention to use digital technology, does not show the need of building digital competencies for disengagement with platforms. Using the qualitative theoretical lens of the UTAUT and the concept of boundary work shows that some academics used digital competencies to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms. Indeed, their perception of enabling platform affordances appeared to affect their decision-making. Nevertheless, while we cannot exclude that higher digital literacy may increase some academics' perceived usefulness and intention to use social media, the finding of the present study highlight the potential importance to consider that higher digital literacy may also lead to decisions about digital disengagement.

In addition, logical reasoning and problem-solving (cognitive dimension, see Section 2.2.2) seem to be important for some academics to make decisions to engage or disengage with platforms in order to protect their safety, well-being and job performance. As discussed in Section 6.2 some academics made decisions in expulsion where they rejected practices and stakeholders in their professional social media use for teaching and learning. This supports previous research into disengagement practices by Light (2014), who provides multiple perspectives on how individuals can make decisions about professional disengagement through, for example, rejections of connections on platforms or decisions to completely omit the use of platforms. In light of this, digital disengagement may require functional, cognitive and critical digital competencies in order to make decisions about disengagement in offline and online environments. In view of what has been said in this section, it seems important to

integrate engagement and disengagement and related digital competencies in current UK digital literacy training and development programmes (e.g., Jisc, 2022a).

7.2 Effort Expectancy

in the UTAUT, is defined as "the degree of ease associated with the use of the system" (Venkatesh *et al.*, 2003, p.450). Therefore, using the lens of the UTAUT qualitatively, the present study poses the question of *What influences academics' ease to use social media?* Looking at the data through the lens of effort expectancy, the findings related to both Teaching & Learning, and Networking & Public Engagement result in the two common themes of workload and identity work.

7.2.1 Workload

As previously discussed in Section 6.3, some academics' concerns associated with the perceived usefulness of SNS for Networking & Public Engagement were time constraints due to heavy workload (see also Fetherston *et al.*, 2021). In this line, there appeared to be academics' who did not perceive social media as useful to create academic impact (see also Jordan, 2022) and, therefore, saw such engagement as extra work. Indeed, some academics associated their professional social media use with increasing workload and negative consequences for their well-being. This is somewhat unsurprising given that recent literature by Fetherston *et al.* (2021) and Torp, Lysfjord and Midje (2018) report results regarding academics' heavy workloads, increasing stress, negative physical and mental health consequences as well as workaholism, which are partial results from increasing opportunities for academics to communicate digitally. Another possible explanation is that the increasing use of social media due to platformisation at UK HEIs (Carrigan and Jordan, 2021) may require academics to put in extra effort to execute the work-related task, potentially outside of working hours. Therefore, the blur between the professional and personal lives is a clear concern for academics' well-being, as an academic put it:

> I opened an account, but I resisted being on it for a number of years just because it was yet another thing that I have to do for work. But I've been there is a benefit, definitely. I don't know, maybe a factor of the work that you put in is what you get out of it (Speaker 2, FG6, p.14, lines 89-90).

and another academic mentioned:

> If it overtakes everyday life and we use it too much, then we wind up being, you
> know, burned out and everything. So, it's finding the sort of balance of interaction
> with it and love (Speaker 5, FG2, p.22, line 138).

Furthermore, as presented in Section 6.2, academics had also faced challenges associated
with time investment, and students' well-being on social media platforms, as an academic
put it:

> That thing about always being there for students, I feel I have done much more work
> and being available for them much more than my contract pays for my hours,
> therefore, which I'm sure everybody else is because I'm really scared about students'
> life (Speaker 3, FG2, p.14, line 85).

These findings are in line with Murire and Cilliers (2017), Rambe and Nel (2015) and
Watermeyer *et al.* (2020), who conversely discuss that platform affordances appear to
enable, for instance, the promotion of academic profiles, dissemination of knowledge,
facilitating of Teaching & Learning and providing pastoral care for students, may require
academics to spend much time on planning, managing processes, evaluating content and
resource (see Chapter 6). This is corroborated by academics who indicated putting in 'a lot
more effort' (see Section 6.1.4) in preparing content, for example, videos on YouTube and
other resources for both Teaching & Learning, and Networking & Public Engagement, as an
academic said this:

> So, meaning like what Speaker 2 was saying and you've got to have kind of an
> engaged audience, otherwise, you cannot really build it from scratch. And it's
> expensive and time-consuming in terms of labour and it's time-consuming (Speaker
> 3, FG6, p.17, line 107).

Indeed, the overuse of SNS as well as the increasing workload is a recent concern found by
Fetherston *et al.* (2021) and Torp, Lysfjord and Midje (2018), who state such challenges
appear to have negative consequences for some academics' well-being and job
performance. Indeed work- and role- overload may result in anxiety, depression, physical
health problems or the Fear-of-Missing-Out (see also Alutaybi *et al.,* 2020). These results
are further in accord with those obtained by Lee, Son and Kim (2016) who demonstrate SNS
fatigue as a concept that comprises information and system feature overload that may lead

to a feeling of psychological stress and tiredness. This is further consistent with a number of studies over the last decade (such as Kasakliev, 2020; Masood *et al.*, 2022; Tess, 2013), which present information overload in association with the potential experience of anxiety and stress. This was a clear concern for some academics and was explained by an academic who omitted the use of Facebook due to information overload (see Section 6.1.3). Such findings have previously been reported by Carrigan (2020) in the context of academics' Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement.

Furthermore, as demonstrated in the above quotation, some academics may put in extra effort due to SNS opportunities, such as raising the profile and dissemination of work. Therefore, some academics may exceed their cognitive capabilities and may engage in emotional labour which may increase stress and anxiety (Marwick, 2014). These findings resonate with those found by Duffy and Pooley (2017) who introduced the term *promotional labour*, which comprises the time and effort for academics' self-branding and building of relationships with their audiences. This is mirrored by Carrigan (2020) who explains a lot of this effort has to do with identity management associated with self-branding, which requires time and effort. This echoes the need for academics' cognitive digital competencies (see Section 2.2.2) in order to logically reason and solve problems based on platform affordances towards the maintenance of their well-being and job performance.

Moreover, in line with Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) projective digital competencies (see Section 2.2.5) appear to be crucial for some academics' professional social media use, in order that they may learn to evaluate how platform affordances may influence their time and workload. More so, some academics may learn to predict how their potential use of platforms may influence their time and workload and make decisions beneficial for their well-being and job performance. Managing time and workloads in order to use digital technology are digital competencies mentioned by Jisc (2022a). However, the present study shows that the ability to manage virtual boundaries (see Section 3.1.2.1) may be important for some academics to evaluate the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels (see also Chapter 6) and may benefit decision-making about disengagement with platforms. Managing virtual boundaries is a digital competency that may enable sound boundary setting between personal and professional lives. In this sense, this digital competency may also benefit the mindful use of digital technology and result in positive consequences for academics' well-being and job performance (Badri, 2019; Ruggeri *et al.*, 2020; Samad, Muchiri and Shahid, 2022).

Also, a potential solution to overcome the negative influences of information overload is reported by Bawden and Robinson (2009), who conducted a study which addresses solutions to manage information overload from a humanistic perspective. In their conclusion, they suggest that overcoming the negative effects of information overload may require the competencies to critically understand information as well as to understand the human behaviour behind such information. This is corroborated by Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) and Pangrazio (2016) whose approaches to critical digital literacy emphasise the importance to understand users' interactions, needs and practices beyond platform affordances. Following Pangrazio (2016) such understanding comprises the fluid continuum of personal and ethical aspects within which some academics make decisions about their social media use. Consequently, this reinforces the importance of a techno-social-emotional approach (combination of humanistic and functional aspects) to digital literacy development mentioned in a recent study, by Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022).

7.2.2 Identity-Work

What is striking is that some academics' reported identity work appears to be associated with increasing workload, as explained in the previous Section 7.2.1. An academic put it like this:

> Just to agree with Speakers, 1, 2 and 6 a sample that you have that we feel it's more workload and this lack of division between professional life and academic life, there is already a blurring itself, the academic life, and I think that's the big question to be solved in the near future. Otherwise, we will I think we are a little bit kind of becoming sort of academic Ubers (Speaker 4, FG6, p.23, lines 140-141).

This accords with Bennett (2017) who conceptualises identity-work work of English academics, and defines it as the struggles of conflicting professional and personal identities due to the blur of boundaries, as an academic mentioned:

> I always kind of revert back to my way of thinking about news. It's difficult to distinguish between your professional and personal persona online (Speaker 4, FG2, p.32, line 124).

The present study explains the occurrence of Bennett's (2019) identity work. It appears that identity-work results from the aforementioned boundary struggle between personal and

professional lives due to academics' increasing workloads. Indeed, identity work may lead to excessive cognition, emotional labour and related potential negative consequences on academics' well-being and job performance (see, Marwick, 2014). In addition, identity work appears to be associated with the ability to adapt to emerging platforms and changing affordances. It takes some academics time and effort to harbour knowledge about changes and make decisions about the use of multiple platforms, their affordances as technical, social, emotional and pedagogical (see Table 11) and how these may be used to interact with a broad audience and multiple stakeholders (Carrigan, 2020). An academic explained it like this:

> In my sense is that that kind like all these platforms in one form or another will develop and grow and kind ultimately takes on shifting identities over time.…..depending on the kind of relationships you have with certain bodies or organisations or user groups or people who, you know, you're developing projects with or want to develop projects for everyone has become sort of so attuned to the idea that you have to get into a cross-platform model of kind of delivery and access, that there's a great there's a greater emphasis on the idea of how you might work together, you know, to kind of in a certain sense deliver those audiences that and in delivering those audiences that you kind of manage them in ways that are particular to, you know, to certain kind of outcomes. I mean, none of that is guaranteed, but part of the kind of process of working, and for any of the platforms is trying to kind of actually know how they kind of function and certainly all the technologies within them enable or don't enable or facilitate certain things (Speaker 6, FG6, p.18, line 113).

There is strong evidence that some academics may benefit from harbouring critical digital competencies in order to develop the ability to become aware of their virtual boundaries (see Section 3.1.2). The ability of virtual boundary awareness (Kimball and Kim, 2013) may lead to academics' ability to make logical decisions (cognitive competency, Section 2.2.2) about their social media use when aiming toward the sustainable development of their well-being and job performance. Nevertheless, there appears to be no specific training available that focuses on some academics' virtual boundary awareness. Although Jisc (2022a) includes the skills to manage time and workload and to engage on social media, the present study shows that virtual boundary awareness may go beyond task management and may require holistic consideration of personal and professional lives (e.g., Badri, 2019; Ruggeri *et al.*, 2020; Samad, Muchiri and Shahid, 2022). In fact, social media use boundary management may also address that critical digital competencies (see Section 2.2.1) may be used to make decisions to disengage with social media in order to benefit well-being and job performance.

7.3 Social Influence

Social influence is defined as "the degree to which an individual perceives that it is important others believe he or she should use the new system" (Venkatesh *et al.*, 2003, p.451). Therefore, using the lens of the UTAUT qualitatively, the present study poses the question of *Who may influence academics' decisions about their intentions to use social media?* While only a few academics indicated to be socially influenced, these findings are important because the present study is not generalisable and there may be other academics who experienced similar issues. Therefore, this section demonstrates the few findings within Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement.

7.3.1 Teaching & Learning

In terms of Teaching & Learning, a few academics who participated in the present study did not indicate being influenced within their institution but indicated the experience of external influences. Academics' decisions about the use of social media for Teaching & Learning appeared to be influenced by external people who raised questions about the sharing of gathered data on online platforms. An academic explained it like this:

> We're more aware of all the data gathering that is happening and how that can be used for all sorts of reasons. So, I think people are now asking questions. And that's why, for example, we're not comfortable sending our students to create a Facebook account with a Twitter account with this account and then let's do that. I mean, none of us will tell our students to do that anymore, whereas maybe a few years ago we would tell them, why can't we have this Facebook group from the module for our program? We wouldn't do it now (Speaker 2, FG1, p.21, line 163).

A current scandal like the failure of the protection of data in the Cambridge Analytica breach, reported by Criddle (2020), offers information that people may talk about and potentially impact academics' decisions about their social media use. A reason for such scandals is mentioned in a recent study (e.g., Kuntsman and Miyake, 2019), which shows the algorithmic tracking of digitised data and information and the digital footprint that people leave behind when they use social media. The digital footprint may impact individuals' freedom even if they disconnect from platforms. The findings also reflect those of some studies (e.g., Husin, Zulfadli and Zuraina, 2022; Jordan and Weller, 2018), which demonstrate academics' concerns regarding the privacy and protection of their data (see also Section 6.2.1.2). These findings show that the social influence deriving from people who

talk about cyber issues (e.g., data, crime) appears to be related to economic influences deriving from the actions of third parties (e.g., platform owners, Cambridge Analytica) that own, manage and regulate users' online data (see also Kasaklieve, 2020). Hence, the findings demonstrate a potential link between social and economic influences that may stimulate some academics' decisions about their social media use (see also Kuntsman and Miyake, 2019).

Furthermore, the presented findings show that it may be particularly important for academics to acquire an awareness of social influences related to socio-cultural and economic concerns. Indeed, based on the above, being aware of such issues may lead to decisions to disengage with social media in order to protect students and the self. Therefore, some academics may benefit from the building of critical digital competencies such as risk assessment, online safety management, critical understanding of ethical and legal issues, critical use of online spaces and critical evaluation of collaborative interactions (see Section 2.2.1). Also, to note, in order to develop critical awareness some academics may also require functional understanding (see Section 2.2.4) as well as this may be associated with the ability to draw logical conclusions through reasoning and problem-solving (see Section 2.2.2) based on individual professional needs. In addition, social digital competencies (see Section 2.2.3), to understand who the stakeholders are and how and why they may influence their well-being and job performance, may be important for some academics' mindful use of social media.

On the other hand, in terms of Networking & Public Engagement, as previously shown in Section 7.4.1, an academic *forced* themselves to use social media because they were influenced by the engagement of the autism community on Twitter. A possible explanation, already mentioned, is the experience of the Fear-of-Missing-Out (FoMO) that may negatively impact academics' well-being. FoMO may be learned to control through socio-technical digital competencies (Alutaybi *et al.*, 2020). The FoMO is further demonstrated by an academic who compared the population on social media with a 'bandwagon'. The academic said this:

> I find it a very contested issue, what constitutes a choice in whether to join or not and that currently the idea that you're left out if you're not on the bandwagon. So, of course, by all means, you can choose not to participate, but then you find out that this happened on Twitter (Speaker 4, FG5, p.20, line 135).

These results, as previously shown in Section 6.3, also corroborate the ideas of Kuntsman

and Miyake (2019) who discuss that the paradox of digital disengagement is reflected in the 'illusion of choice'. Accordingly, disengagement is never fully an individual's choice because digital technology tends to be the default for everything. Having said that, some academics may feel that social media is the default to belong to research communities, and networks in order to acquire information and knowledge. Indeed, their perception of using social media appeared to be stimulated by social media affordances as well as social and economic influences (Kuntsman and Miyake, 2019), which may result in the emotional experiences of FoMO, triggered by online communities. In light of this, some academics' experiences of FoMO appear to be also associated with the eudaimonic approach to decision-making under influence of emotions. Indeed, as is presented in Section 7.4.1, some academics made decisions to use social media despite their experience of negative emotions.

7.3.1.1 Academic Peer Influences

Furthermore, academics also appeared to be affected by their academic peers who used social media and felt 'left behind' if they did not join the online networks. An academic put it like this:

> I have joined lots of like ResearchGate, for example, just because a lot of my friends and colleagues from America, were there already, and I felt like I have to be there as well. So, on some of these, I follow the crowd just not to be left behind as the only person who is not there and more or less watched what others have done (Speaker 2, FG6, p.18, line 115).

A comparison of this finding with those of a case study about academic peer pressure by Kieslinger (2015), confirms that some academics appeared to experience peer pressure that resulted in certain decisions about their social media use. According to Kieslinger (2015), peer pressure may be due to peers' convincement of the benefits to use social media for networking as well as the perceived expectations of audiences, as an academic explained:

> I never had specific training, but I think somebody in my department or somebody somewhere in the university suggested that I set up a Twitter account when I had a new book coming out. So it would be a promotional tool. And that was the main reason why I did it, was to sort of generate an audience around a piece of work that I wanted to promote and also to kind of, you know, to be a participant in the discussions that would have unfolded, whether I was there or not (Speaker 6, FG5, p.20, line 137).

These results are in agreement with those of Gruzd, Staves and Wilk (2012) who found social influence to be an important element that contributes to academics' decisions about their social media use. Accordingly, social influence may lead to apprehensiveness and stress due to peer pressure and the feeling of having no choices. This finding reflects those presented in Section 7.3 and shows that some academics who experience anxiety, due to social influence, may also benefit from the competency of Emotional Self-Awareness. It is also of interest to compare this finding with recent observations, in a study by Iqbal *et al.* (2021), which investigated emotional intelligence and ASNS related to academic performances. As outlined in Section 2.2.6, emotional intelligence may be a key element of well-being and job performance (Cherniss *et al.*, 1998; Nelson and Low, 2011; Serrat, 2017).

Following Iqbal *et al.* (2021), emotional intelligence comprises self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, social awareness and social skills. These competencies appear to be important for some academics to understand and manage the potential consequences derived from social influences on their well-being and job performance. Nevertheless, current UK digital literacy training and development programmes (e.g., Jisc 2022a and Section 2.3.3) do not appear to include emotional digital competencies and, therefore, the present study highlights the importance to integrate such competencies and to provide opportunities for some academics to build their emotional intelligence to make sound decisions, in consideration of potential social influences, about engagement and disengagement with platforms.

7.3.1.2 Institutions

Lastly, the findings of the present study show that institutions may also socially influence some academics' decisions about their professional social media use. An academic described another academics' experience of being instructed to use social media by their institutions.

> I wouldn't be comfortable with the demand that we have to engage in social media. I mean, my husband did have to he was asked by his department to start a Twitter account, which he tweets once a month. But, you know, that's obviously that's anecdotal. But he did have a request to address a requirement to start a Twitter account. So maybe this is happening in some countries (Speaker 6, FG3, p.19, line 126).

In addition, it appears that the institutions' re-sharing of some academics' content may negatively influence their well-being, as an academic said:

> I have a quite difficult relationship with this because my institution, if I say something that they think will take off in the press or that they can use to their benefit, they will be retweeted and retweeted and retweeted and it will be all over their Facebook page (Speaker 2, FG3, p.16-17, line 103).

These results support recent research (e.g., Carrigan and Jordan, 2021), which demonstrates the increasing platformisation of HE processes and the trending expectation of academics to integrate social media into their professional practices. Indeed, social media may increasingly become common means by which institutions engage with various stakeholders (see also Carrigan and Jordan, 2021). It, therefore, seems possible that there are academics whose well-being, job performance and reputation may be negatively affected if they are unable to control the social influence of their organisations. A potential reason is that organisations may share content that may, due to technical affordances (e.g., spreadability, visibility, and shareability (see Table 11), reach an uncontrollable, unknown audience that may pose risks of cybercrimes (Carrigan, 2020).

In addition, as mentioned by Jordan (2022), and presented in Chapter 6 some academics who use social media professionally may be exposed to and concerned with various online risks (e.g., death threats), which may negatively impact their well-being and job performance, especially if they are less likely protected by institutional regulations due to, for example, precarious contracts (Jordan, 2022; Oksanen *et al.*, 2021). These observations lead to pleading UK HEIs holistic understanding of how using digital technologies (e.g., social media) to communicate and interact with multiple stakeholders (see also Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif, 2021, p.17) may affect academics' well-being and job performance. Furthermore, there appears to be a certain resistance by some academics who refuse to be influenced by their institutions and omit to use social media, as an academic said: "I had to open a Twitter account for my research, but I don't use it because the university asked me, but I don't use it" (Speaker 3, FG6, p.17, line 108). This raises important questions regarding how far it is right for institutions to *pressure* academics into using social media for professional practices due to organisational duties to safeguard their staff's well-being and job performance (see also Jordan, 2022).

7.4 Emotional Experiences

Some academics' decisions about their social media use were associated with multiple emotional responses, which show commonly experienced emotions occurring within both Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. This section presents findings based on Venkatesh *et al.*'s (2003, p.432) UTAUT constructs of anxiety as the "Evoking anxious or emotional reactions when it comes to performing a behaviour (e.g., using a computer)", and Attitude Toward Technology, as "an individual's overall affective reaction to using a system" (Venkatesh *et al.,* 2003, p.455). The present study posed the question of *Which emotional experiences may influence academics' decision-making about engagement and disengagement with social media?* Using this UTAUT lens qualitatively this section presents three groups of academics. The first group comprises academics who used social media despite negative emotional experiences, the second group partially or fully omitted social media due to negative emotional experiences and the third group comprised academics who experienced positive emotional experiences.

7.4.1 Group 1: Negative emotional experiences (engagement with platforms)

Academics belonging to the first group experienced negative emotional experiences and continuously used social media for professional practices. Indeed, there appeared to be contradictions between academics' ongoing use, despite that they experienced strong negative emotions. An academic reported:

> The promotional aspect of Twitter is incredibly powerful, but it's actually the bit that I also really hate. I hate the humble brag or even the outright self-publicity of Twitter. I feel disgusted by it, cause a lot of the time I often go on it, I get really into it and lost in it for a while and then I sort of throw my phone across the room in disgust because I just been repulsed by how competitive and posturing and all that kind of performative behaviour that goes on. I can't bear it. So, I sort of love it and hate it (Speaker 6, FG5, p.20, line 137).

Furthermore, an academic said: "I post my research on Twitter. I try to engage, but I consider it a little bit annoying. I think people would say toxic now" (Speaker 4, FG6, p.6, line 51). These result support research by Carrigan (2020) who discusses academics' difficulties to make decisions about their social media use, based on multiple opportunities and challenges (e.g., time concerns, online threats), associated with the experience of emotional experiences (e.g., changes of mood, negative and positive feelings). He provides

comprehensive advice on how academics can care for their well-being (e.g., time management, awareness of threats) and, for example, states that embracing problems 'facing them heads on' (Carrigan, 2020 p.226) may enable the transformation of negativities (e.g., online risks) into opportunities. Nevertheless, while this knowledge may support some academics' decisions about their social media use, we still do not know enough about the digital competencies required to understand and manage contradictory emotions (positive vs negative emotions), and the consequences such emotional experiences may have for academics' well-being and job performance.

Some academics who experienced strong negative emotions (e.g., anxiety) appeared to accept these because they had to use social media for work, as an academic said: "My engagement with social media is just this thing that I find really invasive and quite frightening and personally I don't like it, but I do actually have to learn to use it for my work" (Speaker 1, FG5, p.17, line 111) and another academic stated: "Yeah, I think it's the same with me as well, particularly YouTube, although it's very frustrating and I don't like it, but I have had to do it" (Speaker 7, FG1, p.8, line 57). On the other hand, academics also accepted strong negative emotions (e.g., hate) because they prioritised the use of platform affordances such as global networking (see also Section 6.3), and they were under the pressure of their peers (see also Section 6.3.1.2). An academic explained it like this:

> I've got a lot of collaborations with the US. I used to work in San Francisco. I used to work in Melbourne. So, I've got so many colleagues that are scattered and at different stages of lockdown. So, we found that LinkedIn is actually a good way. I still hate it. I still don't like it, but I find that I've been that's the only difference (Speaker 4, FG5, p.15-16, lines 100-101).

These findings corroborate those of an earlier study, by Celik, Akilli and Onuk (2014), which explored academics' practices and perceptions of social media in education and reports academics' motivation to use social media professionally despite their experience of negative emotions (e.g., anxiety). Accordingly, potential reasons for the experience of negative emotions (e.g., anxiety) are; lack of measuring scale to evaluate the content on platforms, lack of institutional support, system compatibility, workload and time. Therefore, to overcome negative emotions, Celik, Akilli and Onuk (2014) share the belief that it may be necessary to standardise academics' professional social media use as a formal component in HEIs and provide institutional support and policies that support security and privacy issues.

However, as mentioned by Manca (2020) social media were originally designed for personal use and, therefore, it may be complex to formally integrate the use of platforms in HEIs. Indeed, one may suppose that if academics' social media use becomes a formal requirement this may increase the already existing boundary struggles between academics' personal and professional lives because it may constrain the use of certain platforms or academics may require to use even more platforms in order to also interact at the personal level. Hence, the formal integration of social media in HEI processes may lead to further strains on academics' boundary negotiations at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels because they may lose their autonomy to make decisions about their professional social media use based on what is best for their well-being and job performance.

In order to shed light on the co-existence of some academics' contradictory emotions, it is encouraging to compare these findings with a recent study, by Steinert and Dennis (2022), which investigated the digital well-being related to social media's emotional affordances. Accordingly, digital well-being comprises the hedonic and eudaimonic conceptions (see Section 4.1). From the hedonic perspective, positive emotions should be experienced and negative emotions avoided. Regarding the eudaimonic perspective, the co-existence of mixed (e.g., positive and negative) emotions may be beneficial for well-being because experiencing negative emotions, for instance, may alert individuals to take certain actions in order to reach a goal (Steinert and Dennis, 2022). It appears that some academics engaged in eudaimonic decision-making (Evans, 2008; Steinert and Dennis, 2022) about their social media use. However, some academics, in the present study, accepted strong negative emotions as part of their engagement with social media. Indeed, negative emotions were not used as a source of information but appear to comprise academics' actual use. Moreover, one may suppose that academics who engage in eudaimonic decision-making due to emotional responses make decisions based on unconscious reasoning (based on habit and affect) (see also Oehman, 1988). Therefore, they may not be aware of the potential negative consequences such decisions may have on their well-being and job performance.

Hence, while they may benefit from the opportunities of the platforms (see Section 7.1), they seemed to experience negative emotions, which may negatively affect their well-being and job performance. Nevertheless, the academic in the above excerpt voiced the emotion and seemed to be aware of its existence. Hence, they seemed to indicate the capability of Emotional Self-Awareness (see Section 2.2.6 and Section 7.4.2), which may enable the recognition of their emotions (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022). Furthermore, decision-making processes involving negative and positive emotions may also

be supported through digital competencies such as logical reasoning and problem-solving (see the cognitive dimension, Section 2.2.2) as well as the assessment of risks (e.g., the negative consequence for well-being), and self-control (see critical dimension Section 2.2.1). These competencies may support some academics' decision-making about their social media use, which involves contradicting emotional experiences, in order to make eudaimonic decisions to engage or disengage with social media for the benefit of their well-being and job performance.

7.4.2 Group 2: Negative emotional experiences (disengagement with platforms)

Regarding the second group, further emotional experiences were reported by some academics who partially or completely omitted the use of social media. Indeed, some academics' experiences of negative emotions appeared to be a concern for their well-being. An academic described mood swings related to extreme anxiety:

> It's really problematic for your health when you're constantly I think part of it is like having more research around this so that we can actually really structure the way that we use social media because I don't think that that's very clear. But like what I notice is I'm watching something that's really horrifying and upsetting and then a cute cat picture and then something else. And this is a kind of really weird rollercoaster that I'm on when I'm experiencing social media. And I get extremely anxious by that whole process. And I go through periods where I really have to back away from social media completely (Speaker 5, FG5, p.18, line 125).

In addition, some academics' negotiation of boundaries between their personal and professional identities appeared to be associated with the experience of negative emotional experiences, as an academic said:

> I don't use a lot of it in teaching, but I think it's the anxieties that I mean before I did the experiment with tweets that I borrowed from Speaker 1, my anxieties I had around it were about a blurring of the kind of boundaries between the personal and the professional. Obviously, I mean, showing on social media (Speaker 6, FG1, p.8, line 59).

The role of anxiety in analysing academics' intention to use social media is widely under-researched. Thus far, scholars like Celik, Akilli and Onuk (2014), as well as Gunasinghe and Nanayakkara (2021) suggest the negative impact of anxiety on performance expectations

related to the use of technology. These studies merely evidence the potential existence of anxiety but do not consider the underlying reasons for why and how the emotions may be experienced and may influence academics' decisions about their social media use as well as well-being and job performance.

Derived from the previously presented excerpts, it seems possible, from a eudaimonic perspective (Steiner and Dennis, 2022), that anxiety may alert some academics of potential challenges (persona vs. professional boundaries) and may support the holistic decision-making process that may benefit their confidence and well-being and job performance. This agrees with Carrigan's (2020, p.226) view that "things that seem like problems at a distance can seem like opportunities when we embrace them". What he is pointing at are the potential threatening problems associated with platforms and academics' potential need for openness to adapt to challenges in order to use social media efficiently. Nevertheless, it seems important to add here that embracing problems may also be important for some academics to make decisions to engage or disengage with platforms in order to benefit their well-being and job performance. Therefore, it appears to be important for academics to build emotional digital competencies that may enable the management and understanding of one's own and others' emotional responses, behaviour and motivations related to interaction on digital platforms (see emotional digital competencies, Section 2.2.6).

Additionally, as previously explained in Section 6.2.1, a few academics decided to reject teaching and learning activities in their professional social media use due to worries about the time they may spend with students on platforms. These findings are in agreement with those of some scholars (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Gui, Fasoli and Carradore, 2017; Light, 2014; Nguyen, 2021) who demonstrate the positive effects of digital disengagement on well-being and job performance. Therefore, following Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) critical digital literacy dimension (see Section 2.2.1) some academics may adopt a critical attitude when making decisions; to either partially or fully, disengage with platforms in order to benefit their well-being and job performance. These findings have not been reported by some recent studies (e.g., Manca, 2020; Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020), which mention the acquisition of digital competencies in order to enable and improve the use of digital technology.

Furthermore, academics belonging to the second group appeared to be emotionally self-aware (see Section 2.2.6). This is reflected in the decisions leading to disengagement with social media due to concerns about their well-being. Even though there is a clear gap in the literature on academics' digital literacy in the context of Emotional Self-Awareness (ESA), it

is recommended to compare the findings of the present study with a recent conceptual study by Lincenberg (2021), which shows the need to consider ESA as an important element in the digital literacy development of students. According to Lincenberg (2021), ESA is the competency to understand and manage behavioural aspects that may impact well-being. In their study, Lincenberg (2021) discusses various challenges (e.g., online harassment or trolling) and opportunities (e.g., networking and improved communication), which appear to be related to academics' decisions about their social media use.

Lincenberg's (2021) ESA focuses on the understanding and management of digital content and information. However, the findings of the present study indicate the need to extend ESA's focus on decision-making processes that go beyond the understanding and management of content and information. The decision-making comprises emotions that may affect academics' engagement and disengagement with social media. For example, academics who seemed to be digitally literate experienced worries or disliked social media and decided to omit it. Academics also experienced emotions arising from interaction with non-academics (like students or the public) as well as with platform affordances, content, and information. However, up to now, UK digital literacy development providers like Jisc (2022a) do not integrate ESA beyond digital content and information management. The previously discussed importance of emotions that academics experience when they negotiate social media use boundaries and some academics' desire to learn how to manage such emotions, indicates a potential correspondence between social media use boundaries, and ESA as digital competency.

Further, following Steinert and Dennis (2022), understanding and knowing how to manage emotions is important because interactions on social media are associated with the experience of emotions derived from exposure to content and social interactions on social media (Steinert and Dennis, 2022). Indeed, experiencing negative emotions through content may negatively affect the person who shares as well as the users who are exposed to the content. The sharing of positive emotions, on the other hand, may positively affect users' well-being. This is a possible explanation for the previously described mood swings due to an academics' exposure to content that resulted in positive and negative emotional experiences. Therefore, deriving from the above ESA appears to be a digital competency that may support academics' negotiations of their emotional experiences related to their engagement and disengagement with platforms and potential consequences (e.g., positive or negative) for their well-being and job performance.

7.4.3 Group 3: Positive affective reactions (engagement with platforms)

In terms of the third group, academics experienced positive affective reactions to their decisions about their social media use. Only a few academics found social media *interesting* to network and connecting with stakeholders, as an academic explained:

> I found it really interesting to do that [following journalists] on Twitter. And then in terms of LinkedIn, again, that's to make connections rather than present my findings or research that I'm working on. And I found it kind of really interesting that people want to connect and similarly, I want to connect with them (Speaker 4, FG4, p.14, line 92).

These results are consistent with some recent studies (e.g., Jordan, 2022; Khlusova, 2021; Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020), which demonstrate social media may benefit academics' Networking & Public Engagement. In contrast to the present study, these studies did not mention the link between the benefits and positive emotional experiences. But it may be assumed that for some academics the experience of benefits may be associated with positive affective reactions. However, as previously discussed in Section 7.4.1, some academics experienced negative affective reactions despite their awareness of benefits. This shows that academics' decisions about their social media use may go beyond contested opportunities and challenges, mentioned in some studies (e.g., Hamid *et al.*, 2014; Jordan and Weller, 2018; Manca and Ranieri, 2016), due to academics' ambivalent, potential eudaimonic approaches to decision-making.

Additionally, one academic found the use of social media interesting because it facilitates the social interaction of introverts:

> I think introversion is very interesting and it's quite prevalent in a lot of academics actually are fairly introverted. And there is something about social media that allows that level of connection, then withdrawal, it's over, and I think that can be a really interesting way of being social in the space in a controllable manner for busy academics (Speaker 5, FG4, p.15, line 97).

However, Donelan (2016) who conducted a survey study and interviews, with UK academics about professional social media use in academia, found that introverted academics' may less frequently use social media and did not feel that social media impact their career development. Nevertheless, this is a widely under-explored field and we do not know enough

about why and how introverted academics may make decisions about their social media use. Therefore, in order to shed light on this, there is a need for future qualitative and quantitative research.

Furthermore, an academic mentioned the enjoyment of social media because they experienced increased engagement on their project platform:

> I run an online photography platform. We've only launched a few months ago, but we've already got quite a lot of attention. That all came through social media. The person I've run it with is in his 20s. And he's a genius at social media management. He knows exactly how to get people involved. So that's been absolutely vital. I mean, people wouldn't know we existed without it. So, if you link, for instance, what we've got is a static website and then three social media channels associated with it, Instagram, which I manage because I really enjoy that part of it, the Facebook and Twitter, which he manages, and they think they operate very holistically (Speaker 2, FG5, p. 10, lines 64-65).

Additionally, as previously presented in Section 7.4.3 some academics may enjoy the humour on social media that may positively benefit their well-being and job performance. These results match those observed in recent research by Carrigan (2020) and Jordan and Weller (2018) who clearly show there are various reasons (e.g., humour, interaction with colleagues, fun content) for academics to enjoy their professional social media use related to the experience of positive emotional experiences. Lastly, the findings of the present study, presented in this section, shed new light on Venkatesh *et al.*'s (2003) conclusion of attitude toward technology and anxiety's insignificance. The present study shows academics' decisions about engagement and disengagement with social media seem to be associated with their experiences of positive and negative emotional experiences that are often derived from eudaimonic approaches to well-being. Therefore, further quantitative and qualitative research is needed to evaluate the importance of emotional compounds in the decision-making processes regarding engagement and disengagement with platforms.

7.5 Conclusion

This chapter contributes knowledge of digital competency dimensions within which some academics' decision-making about their social media use was influenced by perceptions of usefulness, effort expectancy, social environment and emotional experiences. Regarding emotional experiences (see Section 7.4), three groups of academics were identified. Firstly,

academics who experienced negative affective reactions but continuously used social media, secondly academics who experienced negative reactions and omitted such use and thirdly, academics who experienced positive affective reactions and used social media for professional purposes. Overall, the key competency identified in this dimension is emotional intelligence (see Section 2.2.6), which comprises emotional self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, social awareness, social skills and self-awareness as components of the TeSEmo-Digital Competency Framework (see Section 9.2.4).

In terms of social influences, the current study clearly shows that some academics' social influence may derive from internal (e.g., organisational) and external (e.g., public, companies, or other institutions) stakeholders. The presented findings (see Section 7.3) show that it may be particularly important for academics to acquire an awareness of social influences related to sociocultural and economic concerns because these may negatively impact their well-being and job performance. Identity management may be important to negotiate boundaries at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels and appears to benefit from the building of emotional intelligence (see Section 2.2.6), which comprises the emotional digital competency of the TeSEmo-Digital Competency Framework (see Section 9.2.4).

Lastly, some academics contend that usefulness may be reflected in multiple benefits and challenges associated with their Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement (see Section 7.1). Regarding Teaching & Learning, the main benefits were collaboration, student well-being and accessing and sharing of information. The main concerns were associated with online risks, personal and professional boundaries and time constraints. In terms of engagement practices, academics used SNS to increase their social capital when connecting with colleagues, joining groups, communities and collaborating with international stakeholders. However, academics were exposed to multiple online risks (harassment, death threats) from public stakeholders and had also concerns regarding their privacy, information overload and time spent on social media. Overall, usefulness is strongly related to some academics' care for their own and their student's well-being and there appears to be an entwinement between their perceptions of usefulness, emotional experiences, effort expectancy and social influences. The reason for this is that some academics appeared to consider multiple aspects across these constructs when they make decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms. Some academics' decision-making about their engagement and disengagement with platforms appeared to be individualistic and depended on some academics' personal and professional needs, which is also reflected in the roles academics ascribe to social media training and development.

Chapter 8 Training & Development

This chapter reports on the data yielded when UK academics participated in a focus group as well as in a survey study where they engaged with questions about social media training and development for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Following the triangulation of the quantitative and qualitative data this chapter presents the main themes of the value of autonomy and the value of institutional support followed by the conclusion.

8.1 Value of Autonomy

8.1.1 Importance of Autonomous Training and Development

As shown in Figure 14, some academics preferred to learn to use social media autonomously by way of asking someone about how to use social media, using search engines, websites, blogs, online courses and books. However, most of the survey participants preferred to learn to use social media by doing (see Figure 14) compared to only a few academics who indicated engaging with institutional development courses. This was also voiced by academics who participated in the focus groups. The learning of using social media by trial and error was related to observations of how others are using the platforms, as Speaker 2 (FG6, p.18, line 115) put it:

> I just learned by trial and error how to use social media mostly for knowledge exchange and for my own career. You know, just by looking at what other academics are doing.

and another academic said this:

> Trial and error with every single piece of social media I've ever used, and it's a continual thing because as we know social media like Instagram are constantly updating, adding new features that also amalgamate into the same damn company that owns several of them. That's often very clear, and we have to look around how our data is being used as well, and I think that's continually updated (Speaker 4, FG2, p.17, lines 99-100).

These results broadly support the work of an early review by McIntyre (2014), which outlines the challenges of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) related to the digital divide (see Section 2.2.3). According to McIntyre (2014), professional development strategies, in the

context of digital literacy, appear to focus on the overall strategic aims of institutions and may not address academics' individualistic professional requirements. However, emerging social media are associated with platform affordances that may depend on individualistic perceptions (Gibson, 1979) of academics who make decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels (see Section 3.1.2). Therefore, following McIntyre (2014), professional development approaches that address academics' specific needs and support autonomous decision-making about academics' engagement and disengagement with platforms may be important.

Furthermore, the importance of autonomous decision-making about social media training and development is stated by some academics who preferred their institutions to stay out of how they learn and use social media, as an academic explained:

> I haven't done any I've always felt that social media is something I do how I want to do it, I don't want them to teach me how to do it and I'm happy to do it. So, I have seen the courses and I just think it's social. It's not professional it can be professional I know people who use it professionally, but I think it's yeah (Speakers 6 FG1, p.19, lines 146).
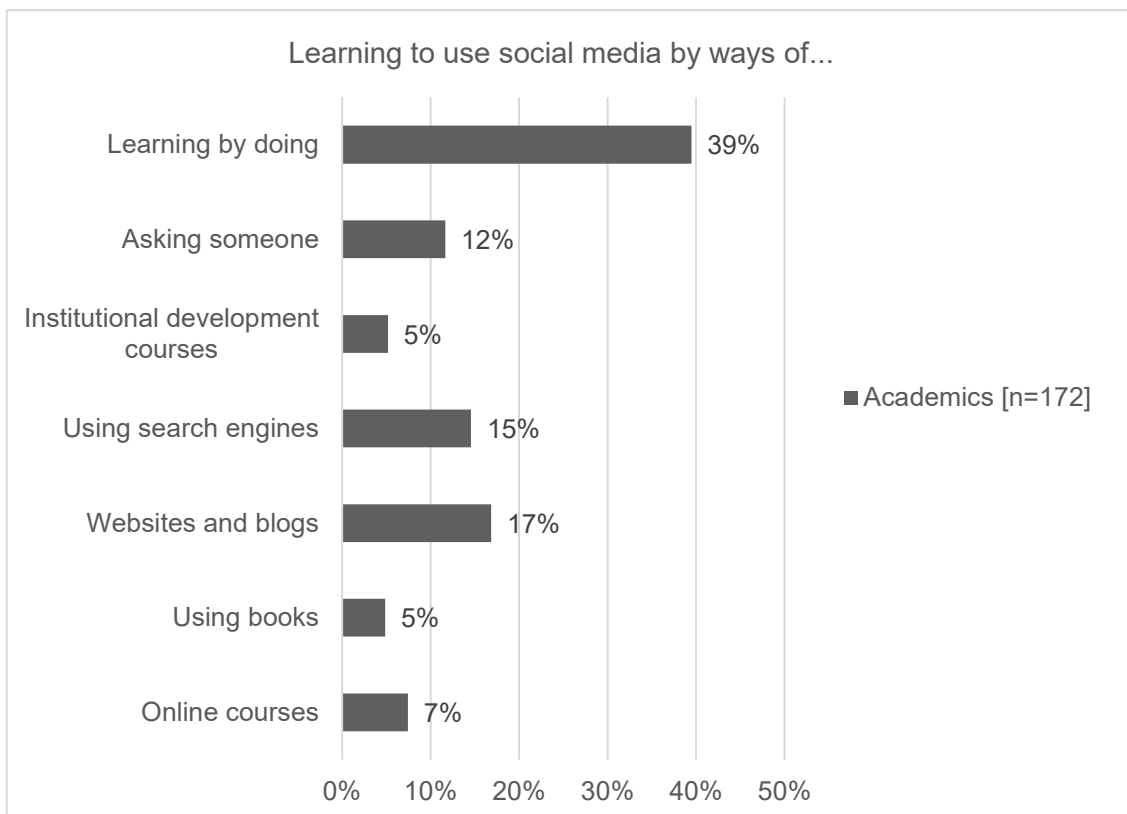

Figure 13 I learn to use social media by way of...(allowed multiple responses)

Additionally, the findings indicating the need to integrate academics' autonomous learning needs, are in line with research by Bamber (2009) who discusses the development of Continuous Professional Development (CPD) frameworks for UK universities (see Section 2.3.1). Bamber (2009) concludes with the importance to focus on academics' autonomous learning abilities and integration of reflective, non-formal but structured learning frameworks. Such an approach may enable academics to cope with the workload and reduces stress to engage with CPD activities. This is furthermore reflected by some academics who did not advocate for institutional-led training and development because of the fear of losing their autonomy to learn to use social media. Instead of institutional-led training and development programmes, they preferred self-learning through collaboration or peer- mentoring. In other words, these academics appeared to prefer to make their own decisions about how they learn to use social media.

This is reflected in the discussion between two academics, which revealed that worries about their academic freedom led to reluctance toward institutional training and development. The two academics said this:

> *Speaker 2:* I mean, I would personally be quite reticent about that, because, at this point, I'm not sure what they could tell me that I don't already know from experience and aside. I mean, I worry this is yeah, this is where I start to get concerned around issues of academic freedom. And I've seen this where redundancies are happening, people being targeted for their social media use, for speaking out, and being critical of their institutions. And I worry about the impact of having kind of guidance from institutions will be a silencing effect and stop people from talking.
> *Moderator:* Speaker 1 you are nodding.
> *Speaker 1:* Yeah, no, I haven't experienced that, I would absolutely agree with
> *Speaker 2:* as to the danger at X (Speakers 1 and 2, FG3, p. 16-17, lines 105-108).

The discussion between Speaker 1 and Speaker 2 also reveals the potential reluctance to accept institutional training and development due to academics' negotiation of negative emotions, which was previously addressed in Section 7.4. As shown in the above quotations, both participants reported being worried about the negative impact formal training and development may have on their academic freedom. The academics were worried that their academic freedom may be constricted if the institutions tell them how to use social media. Indeed, there appears to be a continuum within which the negotiation of academics' decisions about institutional training and development may be influenced by their

emotions (e.g., worries).

The worries about the loss of academic freedom are in line with the cases shown in Bothwell (2019). In their account, academics experienced legal conflicts with their institutions, which monitored academics' social media conversations and interfered in cases of inappropriate comments, excessive use of social media or fear of damage to the organisation's reputation. Several of the cases, mentioned in Bothwell (2019), concern academics' fear of dismissal and the resulting experience of mental health issues because institutions disagreed with what they said on social media. In light of this, the findings, in respect of some academics' worries about institutional guidance and the constraints of academic freedom, resonate with those in discussions by several scholars like Carrigan (2020) and Lees (2018). Each of these authors notes that there may be a lack of clear definitions and consensus regarding how and for what purposes social media may be used by academics at UK universities. They suggest this may lead to reluctance or misuse of social media. The findings of the present study indicate some academics seem to consider their right to academic freedom and tend to avoid potential negative consequences that institutional guidance may entail. These findings indicate that there may be potential insecurities among some academics with regard to institutional social media guidelines.

On the other hand, some academics appeared to expect universities to invest in social media training and development that supports their autonomous learning needs. An academic explained it like this:

> So, I think there's a big distinction between training for use of digital platforms and the innovative use of digital methods, and I think universities are very behind in engaging with that. And I think it is our absolute duty to provide that input for our staff in the same way as we put people through postgraduate certs and learning and teaching and help them in that way. And yet we are not investing in staff collectively in the same way in terms of the use of digital platforms. And we kind of expect people to wing it. And I don't think that's good enough, certainly not for the post-pandemic period. However, on the social media side of the piece, I am not a great advocate of training and development in that space because I think there's something that has to be authentic in how people engage, they can be mentored, or they can work with peers. Or, as Speaker 2 said that it's a kind of collaborative use of social media where one person presents and another person tweets is a great way of doing it. But I think losing the authenticity of self-learning and experimentation and innovation takes away that kind of social part of social media for me. But certainly, I think digital

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skills really, we need to really get wise about investing properly in how people are equipped to teach and learn in the digital space (Speaker 5, FG4, p.16-17, line 110).

It is encouraging to compare these findings with those found by Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif (2021) who conducted a survey study of Turkish academics' digital literacy. According to their discussion, the development of academics' digital literacy is of utmost importance due to technological advancement. They mention the need to develop digital literacy *bilaterally,* which means the inclusion of the views of academics' multiple internal and external stakeholders. Indeed, the collaborative exchange of knowledge between academics and stakeholders may support greater understanding between parties and, therefore, may support a holistic approach to digital literacy development programmes. This is reflected in an early study by Ponton and Rhea (2006), which reports on the perspectives of autonomous learning in the context of the social cognitive theory, and shows autonomous learning may be interrelated and influenced by an individual's environment, behaviour and interaction with others (see also Section 2.3.4). Therefore, academics' autonomous learning may not exist isolated but integrated within their institution's wider organisational culture. Hence, this shows the importance to integrate and support autonomous learning of social media in HEIs and to provide inclusive, holistic digital literacy training and development programmes.

8.1.2 Lack of Institutional Support

The value of autonomy is also reflected by some academics' who experienced a lack of institutional social media training and development support. Based on the data in Figure 15 and additionally based on the focus group participants, one of the possible reasons why academics frequently chose to learn to use social media may be the perceived lack of institutional support and lack of encouragement for social media training and development. An academic put it like this:

> Now, as just said, it's trial and error. So, that's how I learned to deal or not with them. I think it's it depends on the affinity that you have with each kind of platform, but it's more intuitive. Although the university supports the fact that we put their names there when we do some kind of posting, they don't train us to know which way to do this kind of engagement (Speaker 4, FG6, p.20, line 123).

and another academic said:

> I have taken part in one of such workshops, it wasn't specifically on social media, it
> was about more public and public workshops. But also, a part of that was how to
> know how to more effectively communicate and advertise those events through
> social media. So, it had a small component, but it wasn't specifically. But I know there
> are some, but I don't think there is much pressure or encouragement to do so, at
> least not officially. It's more like, you know, people talking to people (Speakers 5,
> FG1, p.19, lines 144).
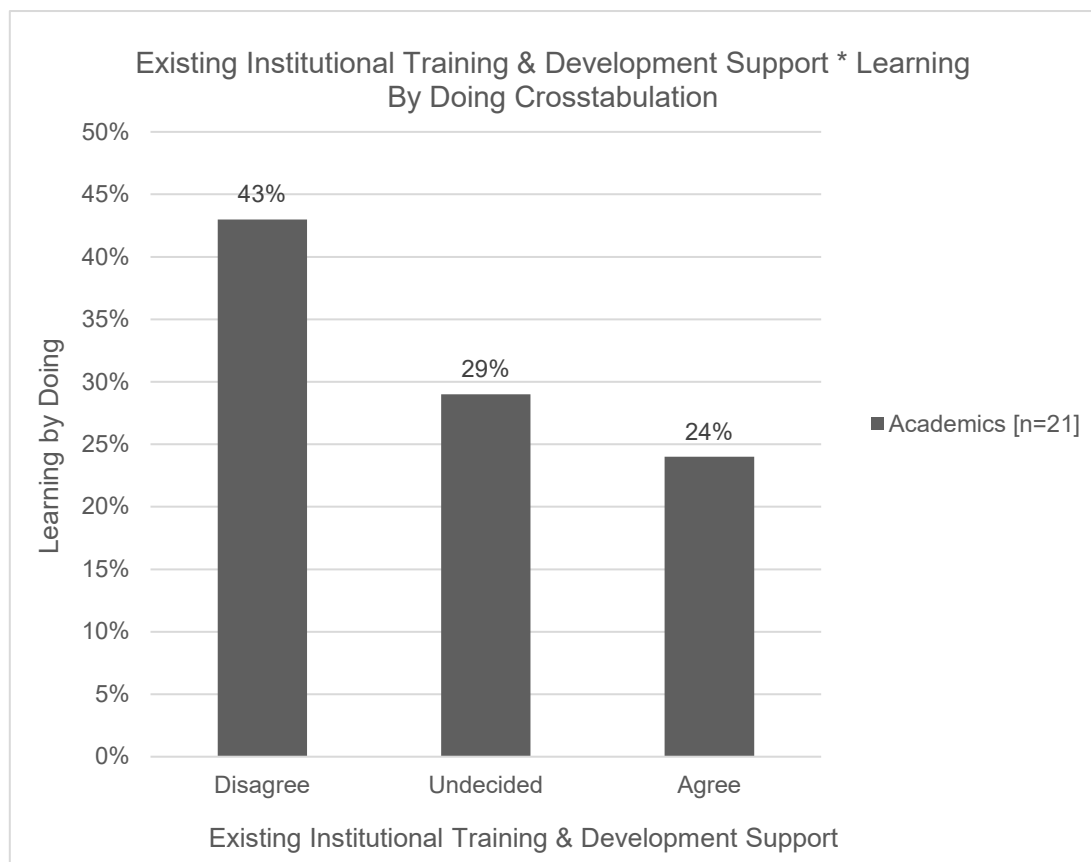
Figure 14 Does Your Institution Support your Learning of Social Media * Learning by Doing
Crosstabulation

The data presented in Figure 15 has to be treated with caution because the result was
derived from only 21 surveyed academics, due to missing data. Nevertheless, this serves as
a basis for further representative quantitative investigations. Despite the small sample, the
present study contributes important knowledge about the existence of a few academics who
felt unsupported by their institutions and indicated learning social media by doing, which was
also indicated by focus group participants. Therefore, this may indicate that a lack of
institutional support results in some academics' need to autonomously train and develop

their digital competencies because this may be the only way for them to learn to use platforms. However, as shown in the previous Section 8.1.1 some academics had a strict preference for autonomous social media training and development and, it may not be excluded that some of the academics, whose answers are presented in Figure 15, may be aware of an absence of institutional support but at the same time such support may not be important to them. This indicates the need of integrating academics' individualistic digital competency training and development needs.

Nevertheless, in contrast to the present study's findings of some academics' preference for autonomous learning approaches, a recent study, by Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham (2020), which investigated academics' perspectives of social media for Teaching & Learning, prescribe formal institutional-led training and development for academics to learn to make decisions about the integration of social media. On the other hand, Khlusova (2021) recommends formal and informal training and the development of digital competencies for Networking & Public Engagement. In light of this, the present study shows that formally led training and development may not be the sole remedy and pleas for an inclusive and holistic approach to digital competency development. Even though a reviewed report recently published by Skelton (2023a) does not indicate Jisc's informal or autonomous approaches to academics' digital literacy training and development. Instead, it is focused on institutional-led short courses and online programmes. Moreover, it is highlighted by Skelton (2023b), who presents insights about Jisc's report, that digital literacy training and development is the solution to solve HEIs' *greatest challenges*:

> Digital can help institutions tackle some of their greatest challenges, e.g. limited space on campus and timetable constraints. It can improve working practices, boost organisational efficiency, and offer greater resilience during disruption.

Clearly, the current approach to Jisc's (see Skelton, 2023a) digital literacy training and development is aimed at increasing HEIs employees' (e.g., academics) engagement with platforms through institutional-led programmes. Jisc's (2022a) description of staff development also mentions accredited programmes such as workshops, and the development of communities of practices as the routes to developing staff's digital literacy. While they integrate the self-learning element as part of the digital literacy framework, practically they appear to focus on formal institutional-led training and development. Therefore, Jisc (see Skelton, 2023a) as well as some UK HEIs (see Section 2.3.3) indicate a lack of supporting academics' autonomous digital competency training and development. Moreover, digital disengagement is not on their current digital literacy training and

development agenda. This is surprising because the present study shows academics' may value institutional training and development that enables them to build digital competencies that support the mindful use of technology (see Section 1.2.1) through engagement and disengagement with platforms.

8.2 Value of Institutional Support

8.2.1 Importance of Institutional Training and Development

First of all, it is striking to see that the majority of the survey participants (see Figure 16) indicated to have never trained to use social media formally during the academic year (2020-2021).
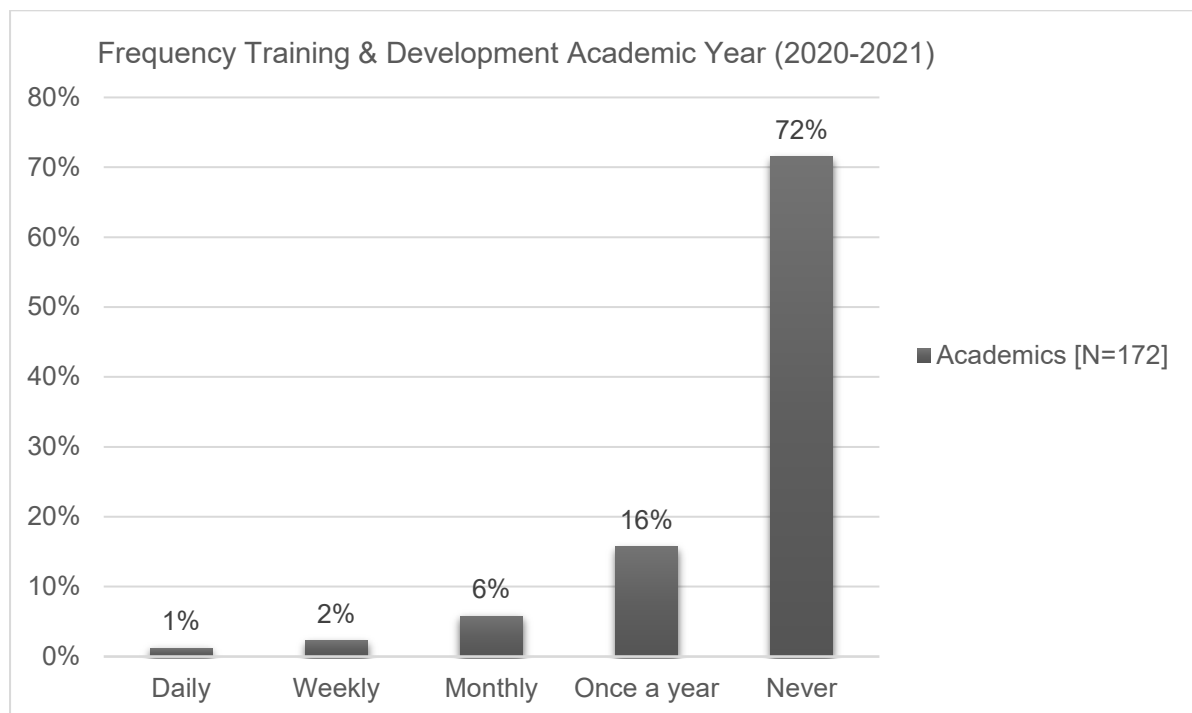
Figure 15 How often you have formally trained to use social media over the last academic year 2020-2021? (one response allowed)

A potential reason for this is reflected in the crosstabulation of the two survey questions about if academics found social media training important and if their institutions supported their social media training and development (see Section 5.4.2).
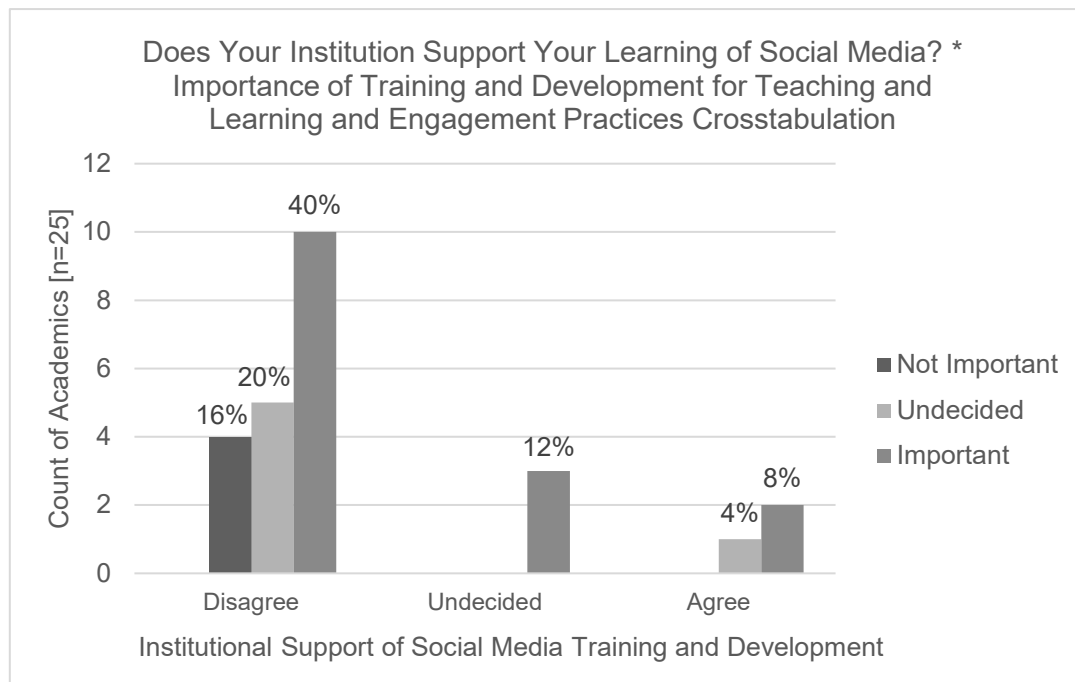
*Figure 16 Does Your Institution Support Your Learning of Social Media? * Importance of Training and Development for Teaching and Learning and Engagement Practices Crosstabulation*

Deriving from the crosstabulation of the two variables, Figure 17 shows most academics indicated that their institution did not support their social media training and development and just over ten per cent indicated to be supported. Moreover, most of the academics who disagreed with being institutionally supported, found social media training and development important. Given that the majority of academics indicated never formally trained and developed social media competencies, one may suppose that a potential reason may be a lack of formal training and development programmes. However, due to missing data, the results presented in Figure 17 are derived from only 25 academics and, therefore, have to be treated with caution and require further representative quantitative investigation.

Nevertheless, a potential lack of institutional support was previously mentioned, in Section 6.3.1.3, by an academic who was unsupported by their institution while they experienced death threats during engagement with the public on social media. As stated by Oksanen *et al.* (2021) institutional training and development aimed at developing an understanding of how to manage academics' exposure to cybercrimes may be crucial because increasing online hate and harassment seem to endanger (such as anxiety, long-term illnesses and sleep problems) academics' well-being and job performance. Therefore, despite the missing data in Figure 17 the matter of the potential lack of institutional support seems to be taken seriously as it is HEIs responsibility to care for their academics' well-being (Jordan, 2022).

In addition, Khlusova (2021, p.41) also recommends formal digital literacy training and

development that may enable academics to "communicate the impact of their digital engagement". This is reflected by Jordan (2022) who argues that academics may benefit from Training & Development on how social media may be used to enhance the evidence of research impact. In support of this an academic, in Section 6.3.1.4, explained the rejection of Networking & Public Engagement activities in their professional social media use because they believed that social media does not contribute to research impact. Therefore, as argued by Jordan (2022), it may be necessary to teach academics how they can use social media to enhance the evidence of research impact and it may be important to integrate such Training & Development in current digital literacy programmes (e.g., Jisc, 2022a).

Nevertheless, according to Khlusova (2021) formal training and development may be important for some academics to gain new digital competencies. However, such programmes may require a considerable amount of time and, therefore, add to academics' heavy workloads that may negatively impact their well-being and job performance (Fetherston *et al.*, 2021). Therefore, while the integration of institutional training and development appears to be important, it may be as important that the provision of training and development programmes is flexible and emphasises academics' workloads. Moreover, derived from the above, institutional digital competency training and development seems to require the integration of material and guidance that nourish the needs of those academics who prefer autonomous learning approaches as well as the integration of formal programmes. Indeed HEIs may require adopting flexible, multifaceted approaches to provide digital competency training and development that holistically addresses the individualistic needs of academics across disciplines in order to sustainably maintain their well-being and job performance.

In addition, the value of institutional training and development appears to be reflected in how some academics perceive their digital competency levels. It seems that for some academics, who use social media as part of their Teaching & Learning, institutional training and development support may be less important. An academic whose social media use is integrated within their discipline of journalism explained it like this:

> *Speaker 4:* I can't remember if there was a specific kind of course, for lectures in terms of social media. I don't think there is yet.
> *Me:* Do think there needs to be one?
> *Speaker 4:* It's a tough question because I'm not sure. Yeah, I'm not sure because I come from an area where social media is very kind of connected to what I do in terms of teaching journalism. So, when I study journalism, I have a kind of course on

social media. Social media was a kind of part of journalism and still is. So, I know a lot of my colleagues from media and journalism, who use social media, and they are really good at using social media, whether for teaching purposes or personal or professional kind of engagement. So, it's really hard for me to say whether there is a need for training in social media because I can see that my colleagues are really good. But then maybe other departments, maybe that would be kind of good. Maybe that would be good. It would be good to have some kind of social media training for them (Speaker 4, FG4, p.17-18, lines 114-115).

This result accords with Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif (2021) who discuss, in their conclusion, that computing science academics, who use digital technology (e.g., social media) as part of their professional practices may require less digital competency training and development. In contrast, foreign language academics who newly integrate platforms into their professional practices may require more training and development support, than computing science academics, because they may not have the same prior digital competencies. Along the same line, Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham (2020) mention that academics' who feel positive about their digital competencies may more likely take the initiative to further develop their competencies associated with their social media use for Teaching & Learning. Even so, the present study shows that advanced digitally literate academics may feel unsupported by their institution to further develop their digital competencies. Indeed, an academic indicated that Training & Development did not meet their needs to develop advanced social media competencies. The academic described it like this:

To be honest, I think university training could be better. They seem to be behind with training needs, you know, and even now taking over other departments. Creating from scratch the department's Twitter account, and people are saying that training needs seem to be very basic. This is how you set up Twitter. This is what you do at the very beginning. But lots of people are further ahead. So, there doesn't seem to be a recognition of how you improve once you've reached a certain point, which is also important. But they are basically flying by the seat of my pants, which is not ideal (Speaker 2, FG6, p.19, lines 116-118).

Despite that only one academic reported the exclusion of the development of their advanced digital competencies, this raises questions regarding the extent of social media training and development at HEIs. As outlined in Section 2.3.3 various UK HEIs (such as the University of Edinburgh, University of Westminster or Gloucestershire College) use Jisc's (2022a) discovery tool, to obtain feedback on academics' digital competency levels in order to

provide the right support for them to learn to engage with platforms.

Nevertheless, based on the above excerpts, it may be possible that some institutions may not sufficiently support academics' digital literacy training and development, or they may provide support but expect academics who master the skills to be fluent users and, therefore, may not give enough importance to train and develop their digital competencies. Both scenarios are problematic for the reason that HEIs processes are increasingly platformised (Carrigan and Jordan, 2021), as well as social media are ongoing changing and new platforms emerge (Kara, Çubukçuoğlu and Elçi, 2020). Therefore, if higher-level digitally literate academics are left behind with their digital training and development then they may become less digitally literate if they are not provided with the opportunity and resources to keep up with recent digital technological developments. On the other hand, they may take the initiative to autonomously develop their digital competencies (see Section 8.1.1).

8.2.2 Lack of Quality Support

From a different perspective, a social media savvy academic who experienced problems during their use of social media felt unsupported by their institution. The academic was required to set individual boundaries, to protect themselves from negativities, when they used social media professionally. The same academic reported that their social media experience, acquired through learning by doing, became of interest to their institution. Therefore, the academic became an advocate to train and develop other academics' social media skills. Speaker 2 (FG3, p.17, line 103) explained it like this:

> They don't really offer any support because talking about some of the things I talk about, whether that's kind of gender inequality or Star Wars, both topics which are liable to get people riled up on social media like I've had death threats and I've had threats of violence against my person from thousands of people online when I've been talking about my research or my academic work. And the university doesn't really do anything to help with that or acknowledge it. But what is quite strange is that while I haven't been given any training and I've just kind of had to learn to work this out for myself and to speak to other people to put kind of barriers in place and to put kind of walls up around myself a bit to mitigate against some of the negative effects. The university has then asked me to go in and train other people on how to do this. So, I've given training to PhD students and to members of staff at quite big, fancy corporate university events where I've gone in to talk about this and to teach them what running a social media account involves.

This example further shows that it may be important to include the development needs of academics who have higher digital competencies, as these academics are still exposed to online risks (see also Jordan, 2022; Oksanen *et al.*, 2021) that may negatively affect their well-being and job performance (see Chapter 7). Moreover, Jordan (2022) indicates that institutions may be unclear about the extent of their responsibilities to safeguarding academics who use social media professionally because social media use appears to be an individualistic activity. This is a potential explanation for the insufficient institutional social media training and development support. Another potential reason may be that institutions are still unaware of academics' professional digital competency training needs. However, given the clear aim of increasing engagement through digital competency training and development (Skelton, 2023a) institutions may lack care for academics' well-being and seem to exclude disengagement from their digital competency training and development agenda.

However, unsupported academics who struggle to mitigate negativities on social media may experience increased anxiety that potentially affects their well-being (see section 7.4). Considering this, the findings of the present study indicate some institutions may not have enough awareness of how social media may affect academics' well-being and that there may be a need to integrate digital disengagement within current digital competency frameworks (e.g., Jisc, 2022a). Therefore, it may be crucial for institutions to emphasise academics' well-being and job performance and integrate digital disengagement while holistically focusing on academics' individualistic digital competencies, in consideration of how key challenges (e.g., the blur between personal and professional boundaries, identity, and ethical dilemmas) may affect academics' well-being and job performance (see also Chapter 6).

Furthermore, Jisc (2019) provides a guide for staff and students in which they show contested positive and negative influences deriving from the use of digital technology on digital personal and digital well-being. It is somewhat surprising that none of the sections mentions online risks (e.g., harassment, harmful content, trolling) as a cause for the potential experience of stress, anxiety, or depression (see also Chapter 7). Moreover, as is presented by Skelton (2023a), Jisc has a clear agenda to train and develop academics' digital competencies in order to further platformise HEIs to solve current socio-economic challenges. Indeed, digital competency training and development, which focuses on academics' well-being and decisions about disengagement with platforms appears not to be included.

Therefore, this fortifies the positioning that the UK academics' digital competency training

and development programme, by Jisc (see Skelton, 2023a), aims to enable the use and integration of platforms without there being enough emphasis on care for academics' well-being and job performance. Further, despite there is awareness of increasing online risks (Oksanen *et al.*, 2021) and the increasing overlapping personal and professional boundaries due to the digitisation of communication (Fetherston *et al.*, 2021), which may have negative consequences for academics well-being and job performance, institutions appear not sufficiently consider such issues in their digital literacy training and development programmes.

Furthermore, academics who experience a lack of institutional support may feel insufficiently supported to teach students how to use social media. An academic described it like this:

> But in terms of social media training, I don't think I've ever had any from any institution. They've just not offered that. So, I'm now one of the coordinators of my department of social media and we rotate through postgraduate research students we've always got one postgraduate research student as one of the coordinators. And every time we get a new one, we kind of have a sit-down and like, you know, 15, 20 minutes just being like, ok, do you know what the platform is? You know what to do. This is what we do as a departmental social media, so we put in that training. And it's not so much it's not training in the technology of the platform. It's more training in use and tone. And I think that, again, the point is to avoid us ending up, you know, we don't want to we don't want the news of like the University of x gets into a fight with y, like that sort of thing, so that it's to avoid kind of controversy and stuff rather than technological issues (Speaker 8, FG2, p.19, lines 115-116).

This finding may be important for two reasons. Firstly, it shows that there are potential academics who experience a lack of support in how to teach students to use social media, and there may be institutions that do not provide enough digital literacy support. Secondly, it may be questioned why academics experience a lack of support. We should treat with caution the assumption that there is a lack of institutional support, as there are various institutions that provide digital training and development (see Section 2.3), because it may also be the case that academics are unaware of or even ignore existing training and development or they may not have the time to attend offered courses. This is shown in a recent case study provided by Jisc (2018) at the University of Wales Trinity Saint David, which demonstrates that despite their offer of digital training and development the uptake of the course was low because academics were too busy (see also Section 2.3.2). In this sense, holistic integration of autonomous learning opportunities alongside formal courses

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may enable academics to better manage time and workload because they may make decisions based on their personal and professional needs (McIntyre, 2014).

As previously discussed in Chapter 6, time constraints associated with the use of social media for professional purposes are frequently experienced and when it comes to digital literacy training and development (e.g., Jisc 2022a) there is no guidance for planning and managing digital training and development. The issue of time solely considers the managing of time spent online associated with academics' actual use of digital technologies. However, the well-being guide of Jisc (2019) mentions that in order to successfully develop academics' digital literacies the balance of workload and the use of digital technologies is not solely the academics' responsibility but also the managers. Therefore, given that many academics felt unsupported by their institutions it may be important to explore further why and how managers may support academics' digital literacy training and development.

Finally, a few academics also negotiated their social media training and development decisions through knowledge exchange with students and companies. The indicated reason for such a knowledge exchange is the cause of limited provision of institutional-led training and development. An academic explained it like this:

> We do get some social media training at the university, and it is very limited. But my sense is in areas of kind of professional practice and production universities are always miles behind. Basically, you know, we work with students about how they use social media, and we learn from them about kind of how our social media functions and how they use it and the ways in which they can then apply that professionally. And certainly, from our point of view, that's the best training that we have because they have the best methods and the best ideas about how they use their technologies. So, sort of all in all of those factors really, you know, the bottom-up model of learning for us and the fact that we have some kind of comprehension of the technology and the way in which we can kind of shape that enables us obviously to just kind of like play with those ideas within the classroom (Speaker 6, FG6, p.20, line 126).

A few academics mentioned they learned how to use social media from students and companies because these stakeholders appeared to have advanced knowledge about how to use social media. However, there is no consensus that learning from students and other stakeholders (bottom-up approach) is the best way for academics to learn to use social media. A reason (see Section 2.1) may be that professional social media use may strongly

depend on the disciplinary context (see also Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serif, 2021; McIntyre, 2014). Deriving from the above, it seems that some academics, whose institutions lack to provide social media training and development, appear to adapt to the situation by taking the initiative to build digital competencies through the knowledge exchange with internal (students) and external (companies) stakeholders. This corroborates the ideas of McIntyre (2014, p.96) who discusses that bottom-up (e.g., individualist) approaches to developing academics' digital literacies may lead to sustainable and "effective digital literacy knowledge and practices". Therefore, individualistic acquired knowledge may inform organisational strategies and may lead to sustainable and inclusive integration of digital technology for professional practices.

8.2.3 Consideration of Mental Health

As previously discussed in Chapter 7, several academics experienced difficulties in managing negative emotions when making decisions about their professional social media use. Academics seem to negotiate negative emotions, like anxiety, feeling uneased or even disgusted and, therefore, may welcome institutional-led training and development. In this sense, institutional-led training and development may ease academics' decision-making about their professional social media use, as an academic mentioned:

> Yeah, I don't like it. I find the kind of the politics of it really repugnant. And the idea makes me think about surveillance and it makes me feel very uneasy. But maybe I could draw some distinction between the way I feel about it personally and the uses it could have in my work and have some training about how to use it, I mean, in the way that usually speaks about using it as a resource for like collecting material and networking, that would be quite useful. But my feelings about it are quite personal (Speaker 1, FG5, p.17, line 113).

Some academics also appeared to experience anxiety or horror when seeing distressful content on social media and a sudden emotional mood swing when they see something cute, as an academic explained:

> Anyway, what I think would be really good training for social media is more about how to engage with social media in a healthy way, because it's really problematic for your health when you're constantly part of it. Having more research around this so that we can actually really structure the way that we use social media because I don't think that that's very clear. But like what I notice is I'm watching something that's

really horrifying and upsetting and then a cute cat picture and then something else. And this is a kind of really weird rollercoaster that I'm on when I'm experiencing social media. And I get extremely anxious during that whole process. And I go through periods where I really have to back away from social media completely. And I wonder if there are ways that you can be trained more to sort of be healthier around it, or if social media itself can kind of like if you could filter it in a certain way so that you can have a healthier relationship with it. I think that's the sort of framework I would like to see training around maybe (Speaker 5, FG5, p.18, line 125).

Along the same line, Speaker 6 (FG5, p. 22, lines 142-143) suggested the need to develop a framework, to teach academics how to use social media professionally, comprising anxiety as a central element and explained it like this:

Yeah, I add there isn't a real understanding or conceptualisation of how you might use it in research, let's say, or engagement, I guess it would be really good if somebody came up with a good framework that could be used for teaching purposes. Seems to me, that I also recognize all these things about social media being kind of anxiety machines. And I think that's an important part. If you were to talk about learning how to use them or being taught how to use them, I think this emotive element is going to be the bathos element. It's going to be very important to understand a little bit better how it works and why it works and what you can do with it. I think at that level there's a lot to be done.

In addition, Section 7.4 reflects academics' exposure to and experience of various positive and negative emotions during decision-making about engagement and disengagement with social media. Therefore, as concluded in Section 7.5 there appears to be a need to train and develop academics' emotional intelligence (see Section 2.2.6). The importance of training and development of academics' emotional intelligence is shown by some academics who appear to welcome the integration of Training & Development revolving around the understanding and management of emotions associated with their professional social media use. Emotional intelligence may be a critical component of well-being and job performance (see Section 2.2.6) and it is a competency that can be trained and developed through learner-centred, self-directed mentoring and coaching (Nelson and Low, 2011; Serrat, 2017).

In light of this, Cherniss *et al*. (1998), in their technical report about emotional intelligence in the workplace, provide 22 guidelines for training and developing emotional intelligence in organisations. Although their report is not focusing on emotional intelligence in the digital

environment, this appears applicable to academics' professional social media use because these competencies are reflected in Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) emotional digital competency dimension (see Section 2.2.6).

Following Cherniss *et al.* (1998), developing emotional intelligence may be best achieved through self-directed learning that includes the setting of specific goals and involves learning by doing and repetition as well as reflection on the progress. It is further suggested to work in small groups within which employees (such as academics) motivate and support each other as this appears to be more effective and efficient to develop emotional intelligence than lectures and workshops (Cherniss *et al.*, 1998). On the other hand, while training and development of emotional intelligence may improve employees' self-esteem, well-being and job performance through the reaching of set goals and objectives, employees may relapse into old habits. Therefore, specialist trainers and coaching teams are crucial in order to successfully integrate, implement and support emotional training and development programmes in organisations (Cherniss *et al.*, 1998).

Given that the training and development of emotional intelligence appear to be crucial for employees' well-being and job performance and these competencies are mentioned in Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) digital competency framework, such competencies appear not to be integrated into Jisc's (2022a) digital literacy model. Hence, there appears to be a clear lack of training and development of emotional intelligence associated with UK academics' digital literacy training and development. There appears no consensus that institutional-led training and development is the right support to manage negative and positive emotions. However, it may be important to note that there are academics who may benefit from the inclusion of emotional support through formal digital competency training and development programmes. Even so, as discussed in the previous Section 8.1, individualistic, bottom-up approaches to training and development may lead to the holistic, and humanistic inclusion of academics' digital training and development needs (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022).

Furthermore, a few academics indicated, in Section 6.2, to be concerned about the non-existence of ethical guidelines that inform about the professional interaction with students on social media. An academic put it like this:

> So, in some ways, there's not a huge amount of crossover anyway. I mean, one thing that I think will need to change, which isn't really just about the pandemic or anything that's come out of that, but I just think is something that universities are going to have

to think about more is the ethics around regulating behaviour between students and academics in these spaces (Speaker 2, FG3, p.8, line 56).

These results are in accord with a recent study (e.g., Sobaih, Hasanein and Elnasr, 2020), which investigated the adoption of social media by Egyptian faculty members and students, and indicate that there is a need to develop ethical codes for professional use of social media communication. A mentioned reason for the need to focus on how to guide behaviour and interaction on social media is the unclear understanding of social media policies for professional purposes. What is striking is that a similar finding was reported a decade ago by Joosten, Pasquini and Harness (2013), who conducted a qualitative web-based survey with 30 academics of multiple HEIs. Accordingly, developing social media policies and training and development programmes may require HEIs to emphasise student behaviour and privacy issues. Joosten, Pasquini and Harness (2013) show academics' had clear concerns regarding their and their student's privacy issues, and already then there appeared to be a lack of institutional guidance on how academics can understand and manage ethical issues associated with students' behaviour on platforms.

Moreover, like in the present study, their qualitative study's findings show academics indicate a lack of institutional support for social media training and development. It is somewhat surprising that after a decade academics still feel reticent to use social media due to the lack of ethical guidelines. Nevertheless, ethical issues appear to be commonly integrated into the social media policies of HEIs (see also, Pasquini and Evangelopoulos, 2017). However, a recent study, by Pasquini and Evangelopoulos (2017), which analysed 250 social media policy documents of HEIs, states that despite the effort of HEIs to develop social media policies, these documents appear to be often inexplicit and problematic to understand. A mentioned reason for this is that social media policies are often based on institutional norms, ideologies, strategies and practices and may lack the consideration of the actual engagement between stakeholders on social media. Therefore, this reinforces the previously discussed need to emphasise and integrate autonomous digital competency training and development approaches as well as formal programmes that address academics' individualistic needs associated with their disciplinary practices.

8.3 Conclusion

This chapter contributes novel knowledge about academics' social media training and development associated with their value of autonomy and the value of institutional support. Regarding academics' perceived value of autonomy, the findings demonstrate academics

may choose to learn to use social media by doing if they feel unsupported by their institutions. Important appears to be the bilateral approach to digital literacy development that includes the needs of academics' multiple professional roles and their stakeholders' perspectives. In terms of the value of institutional support, there seems to be a lack of digital training and development that focuses on developing and nourishing advanced digital literate academics competencies and a lack of support on ethical issues associated with student behaviour on platforms.

Moreover, the training and development of academics' emotional intelligence appear to be unaddressed in Jisc's (2022a) digital literacy model. While formal institutional training and development is certainly not the recipe for all academics to build digital competencies, it may be important to note that there are academics who may benefit from the inclusion of emotional support through formal training and development programmes. Even so, individualistic, bottom-up approaches to Training & Development may lead to the holistic inclusion of academics' digital training and development needs. Therefore, the novel Techno-Social-Emotional Digital Competency Framework (see Table 19), presented in the following Chapter 9, appears to provide the potential competencies that institutions potentially can consider when developing techno-social-emotional training programmes that inclusively consider multiple roles, disciplines, competency levels and stakeholders.

Chapter 9 Conclusions

This last chapter reinstates the aims, objectives and research questions followed by answering the latter. It further demonstrates the study's empirical and theoretical contributions, addresses limitations and provides recommendations for future research followed by summative remarks.

9.1 Study Aims, Objectives and Key Questions

The present study aimed to investigate UK academics' professional social media use; this was achieved using the theoretical foundation of digital literacy and the two theoretical considerations of the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT. Using a mixed-method research design, the present study aimed to explore *why* and *how* academics negotiate boundaries of their professional social media use, in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement, as well as *what* influences their decisions about engagement and disengagement with SNS. Further, it aimed to explore *why* and *how* academics may learn to use SNS professionally, and which digital competencies they may require to train and develop in order to make holistic decisions about their social media use. The study intended to contribute practically applicable (by HEIs and academics), empirical and theoretical knowledge about academics' digital literacy training and development needs and digital competencies academics may require to build in order to engage and disengage with social media. In the endeavour to achieve these aims the present study formulated the following objectives:

Objectives of the Study

To

1. Explore academics' boundary work regarding the ways they negotiate to use or not to use social media professionally.

2. Explore influences that affect academics' decisions about their intentions to use or not to use social media.

3. Explore how and why academics may learn to use social media professionally.

4. Develop a digital competency framework that promises to be applicable at UK Higher Education Institutions.

Research Questions

The research questions should also be recapitulated here:

1) Why and how do academics negotiate boundaries related to their professional social media use?

2) What affects academics' decision-making about their intentions to use or not to use social media?

3) Why and how do academics learn to use social media professionally?

4) Which digital competencies do academics require to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with social media?

9.2 Entwined Decision-Making

This section answers the four research questions. Based on the discussed findings in Chapter 6, Chapter 7 and Chapter 8 it can be concluded that academics' decision-making about their professional social media use may be entwined with academics' social media use boundary negotiations, the influences on decisions about intentions to use SNS and their social media training and development needs. In support of academics' entwined decision-making, presented last in this section is the Techno-Social-Emotional (TeSEmo) Digital Competency Framework.

9.2.1 Social Media Use Boundary Negotiations

Answering the first research question (see Section 9.1): *Why and how do academics negotiate boundaries related to their professional social media use? (1)* This sub-section concludes the results from the application of the concept of boundary work, presented in Chapter 6. Following Carlson and Lewi's (2019) adapted framework (see Table 11), UK academics' social media use boundary work is dynamic, socially constructed and multifaceted with key issues differing within a continuum of expansion (e.g., accepting stakeholders), and expulsion (e.g., rejecting stakeholders) and no boundary negotiations took place within the protection of autonomy (e.g., seeing some non-academic as a threat). Decisions about engagement with platforms are reflected by some academics who described their professional social media use boundaries within the dimension of expansion, and with it, social media use boundary negotiations appeared to revolve around beliefs (propositions). These academics did not seem to experience boundary struggles and

described their professional social media use as beneficial for their professional practices. The reason for this is that they strived to benefit from SNS-enabling affordances. In light of this, these academics commonly shared the belief that social media are important for their professional practices.

In terms of Teaching & Learning (see Section 6.2), some academics accepted students and external experts (e.g., guest lecturers) in their professional social media use. Some academics decided to communicate with students, care for students' well-being, create events, share and search for resources. Regarding Networking & Public Engagement (see Section 6.3), some academics accepted the public, other academics, activists, research communities and industries in their social media use. Some academics accepted practices such as global networking and collaboration, dissemination of content and promotion of academic profiles. Taken together, these academics described a positive attitude towards their negotiation of professional social media use boundaries and used SNS to enhance professional practices without that they reported negative consequences for their well-being and job performance.

On the other hand, also within the dimension of expansion, some academics described their professional social media use boundaries to be under influence of social pressure. A reason for their social media use boundary negotiations was that they were influenced by others (e.g., academic peers and institutions). Some academics decided to integrate stakeholders (e.g., other academics, the public and students) into their social media use despite their propositions that they disliked social media, the discomfort of blurred personal and professional boundaries, their experience of negative emotions (e.g., anxiety) and their exposure to negative consequences of cyber crimes. These academics endured negative affective reactions and appeared to prioritise enabling SNS affordances before their well-being. As discussed in Section 7.3, social pressure is associated with the experience of stress, exceeding cognitive loads as well as potential identity dilemmas that may result in struggles for some academics to manage healthy work-life boundaries. Therefore, these academics' well-being and job performance may be at risk.

Furthermore, social media use of boundary work within expansion appeared to pose challenges and difficulties for some academics, which may lead to social media use boundary negotiation in the category of expulsion. Because of the increasing platformisation in UK HEIs – particularly increased exposure to ethical concerns, students' access to technology, time and the blur between personal and professional boundaries–some academics shared beliefs that SNS may not be useful for professional practices and made

decisions to reject students and teaching and learning practices in their professional social media use. These academics distinguished themselves from other participating academics in propositions, practices and stakeholders. They preferred to interact with students face-to-face on campus and were also worried about students' potential difficulties in demarcating personal and professional social media use.

In the same vein, some academics had strong beliefs that it may be unethical to ask students to use social media. They were deeply concerned that social media might negatively impact students' mental health due to online safety risks. Furthermore, some academics mentioned ethics and privacy issues as reasons for the need to strictly demarcate their personal and professional social media use. Indeed some academics felt uncomfortable using existing personal social media accounts for Teaching & Learning. In terms of Networking & Public Engagement, some academics expressed concerns about information overload, time investment and low perception usefulness to engage with the public on platforms in order to evidence research impact. Therefore, these academics negotiated their professional social media use boundaries in expulsion and disengaged with platforms for professional purposes, which appeared to be beneficial for their well-being and job performance. In this sense, these academics indicated that decisions about disengagement may benefit from digital competencies because these academics seemed to be aware of potential risks for their and others' well-being associated with SNS affordances.

Some academics also distinguished themselves from other participating academics who negotiated professional social media use boundaries in the category of expulsion. These academics shared concerns about the blur of personal and professional boundaries and strictly believed that integrating social media directly into their Teaching & Learning is inappropriate. However, they still believed social media is useful and, therefore, integrated colleagues or supporting staff who shared content on their behalf. In that sense, these academics negotiated their professional social media use boundaries in expulsion when they decided to reject practices and stakeholders in their professional social media use but simultaneously negotiated professional social media use boundaries in expansion by integrating a supporting colleague as an intermediary between themselves and platforms.

Therefore, in this sense, such academics appear to not completely circumvent their involvement in using social media professionally because their work, data, information or even their name may still be shared and persist on platforms. However, they appeared to be able to take control over how they felt about their personal and professional boundaries and this appeared to be beneficial for their well-being and job performance. In light of the above,

these academics described their professional social media use boundaries from an ambivalent perspective, which entails shifting social media use boundary negotiations between expulsion and expansion aiming at the demarcation between personal and professional identities.

Furthermore, the present study confirms some boundary struggles at the intersection of academics' personal, professional and stakeholder levels (see Figure 3). Key boundary struggles revolved around identity and ethical dilemmas. Ethical dilemmas were associated with concerns about cybercrimes and online safety, which appeared to overlap with identity dilemmas because academics were concerned about personal and professional boundaries related to ethical regulations and privacy risks associated with the interaction with students on platforms. In addition, social media use boundary negotiations were associated with social influences (e.g., peer pressure) that may also lead to identity dilemmas. Moreover, such negotiations were influenced by the increased effort (see Section 7.2) associated with workload and identity work, which may also lead to identity dilemmas. Increasing workload and identity work may lead to exceeding cognitive capacities, emotional labour and potentially negative consequences for academics' well-being. Therefore, there appears to be an overlap of social media use boundary negotiations that revolve around ethical and identity dilemmas, which appear to be affected by academics' effort expectancy (see Section 7.2) and social influences (see Section 7.3).

In light of what has been said, boundary struggles may also be explained based on academics' prevailing ambivalent decision-making about their social media use boundary negotiations. Ambivalent-positioned academics indicated social media to be beneficial or even vital, but they also indicated to be influenced by concerns (e.g., ethical, identity dilemma, disinformation, information overload, cybercrimes and time issues) (see Section 9.2.1). Furthermore, ambivalent views may increase the complexity of decision-making and greater struggles and uncertainty to weigh opportunities and challenges associated with platform affordances (see Chapter 4). It appears, therefore, important to provide academics with resources and opportunities to gain knowledge and build their digital competencies in order to make holistic decisions about their potential engagement and disengagement with platforms.

9.2.2 Influences on Decisions about Intentions to Use Social Networking Sites

Through the qualitative lens of the UTAUT, this sub-section provides the answers to the second research question: *What affects academics' decision-making about their intentions to*

use or not to use social media? (2) Some academics' decisions about the negotiation of professional social media use boundaries appear to be influenced by the UTAUT constructs of performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influences and emotional experiences.

9.2.2.1 Performance Expectancy

Some academics' decision-making associated with their social media use boundary negotiations at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels appeared to be influenced by their perceived usefulness of platforms. Some academics' perceived usefulness seems reflected in multiple benefits and challenges associated with their Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement (see Section 7.1). Regarding Teaching & Learning, the main benefits were collaboration, student well-being and accessing and sharing of information. The main concerns were associated with online risks, personal and professional boundaries and time constraints. In terms of Networking & Public Engagement, some academics used SNS for networking, collaboration, dissemination of content and promotion of work and academic profiles. However, some academics were exposed to multiple online risks (harassment, death threats) derived from public stakeholders and had also concerns regarding time investment to use platforms and concerns associated with perceived limited platform affordances.

Scholars (e.g., Gruzd, Staves and Wilk, 2012; Nikou and Aavakare, 2021) frequently posit that performance expectancy will positively affect the intention to use social media because it is assumed that the higher academics' digital literacy is, the more useful is digital technology and the higher the intention to use such tools. Similarly, it seems that Jisc (2022a) focuses on enabling academics' digital competencies to increase their use of digital technology. However, these approaches to training and developing digital competencies do not address the continuum (e.g., expansion, expulsion) of the previously discussed professional social media use boundaries, attitudes and emotions, which may influence academics' decision-making about their engagement and disengagement with social media.

Indeed, due to underlying reasons such as ethical and identity dilemmas and care for their and others' well-being some academics decided to partially or fully disengage from social media. This is a potentially important finding that contradicts the suggested need to centralise the development of digital literacy around the need to increase the usefulness and intention to use digital technology (Jisc, 2022a; Nikou and Aavakare, 2021). This demonstrates the complexity and multifaceted application of digital literacy. In light of this, some academics seemed to apply operative (functional and operational understanding),

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critical (self-reflection, ethical self-awareness) and cognitive (logical reasoning, problem-solving) digital competencies to make such decisions, about engagement and disengagement, under influence of platform opportunities and challenges. Some academics were aware of enabling affordances and used such digital competencies to negotiate professional social media use boundaries in order to engage and disengage with platforms. This is a potentially important finding that contradicts the suggested need to centralise the development of digital literacy around the need to increase the usefulness and intention to use digital technology (Jisc, 2022a; Nikou and Aavakare, 2021). Therefore, the present study shows digital literacy development programmes (e.g., Jisc, 2022a) may require embracing the possibility that digital competencies are beneficial to making decisions to engage and disengage with the use of social media.

9.2.2.2 Effort Expectancy

Some academics' decision-making associated with their social media use boundary negotiations at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels were influenced by effort expectancy. Indeed, workload and identity work were key concerns associated with some academics' efforts to use social media for professional purposes. Regarding workload, some academics indicated that it takes a lot more effort and time to prepare content (such as YouTube videos) for both Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. In addition, building an audience from scratch and engaging with them on platforms was also mentioned to be time-consuming and required extensive investment of labour. However, these academics did not make decisions about disengagement but accepted stakeholders (e.g., students) and practices (e.g., teaching and learning activities) in their professional social media use. In this sense, one may suppose that these academics are at risk of work overload because of the concerns regarding time investment to prepare material for their professional social media use. Therefore, these academics may benefit from building projective digital competencies (see Section 2.2.5) that may enable the management of time and resources as well as may alert them to partially or fully disengage with platforms to prevent the negative consequences of increasing time investment on their well-being and job performances.

On the other hand, some academics associated identity work with increasing workload and difficulties to distinguish between personal and professional identities. Also, one academic explained the need to learn, understand and adapt to the shifting identities of emerging platforms, changes and stakeholders and the need to learn to engage on multiple platforms. In that sense, it seemed to take effort, for some academics, to manage digital identities and

time to build and engage with the audiences on platforms. This is also reflected in *promotional labour*, which comprises the time and effort some academics may take for self-branding and building relationships with their audiences (see Section 7.2). Moreover, it was found that some academics' overuse of social media led to burnout. Therefore, while some academics' social media use boundary negotiations showed struggles revolving around identity dilemmas, the qualitative UTAUT lens showed that the effort it takes for some academics to manage such dilemmas also appeared to affect their well-being and job performance.

It is somewhat unsurprising that there appears to be a link between some academics' efforts associated with the work for and/or on platforms and their identity work. Indeed, there is current evidence (see also Fetherston *et al.*, 2021) that contributes knowledge about the need to consider some academics' well-being and job performance due to the blur between personal and professional lives resulting from increasing platformisation. The assumption that using digital technology improves work and communication processes appears to be paradoxical in the sense that it speeds up the task's completion but, on the other hand, increases the workload. Nevertheless, while Jisc (2019) incorporates the need of managing time and workload as part of digital well-being they do not show which digital competencies some academics may benefit from. More so, managing workload and time aims at enabling the use of digital technology and does not consider that partial or full disengagement with platforms may lead to improved well-being and job performance. The present study contributes such knowledge and shows that some academics may benefit from harbouring the digital competency of managing identities and *promotional labour.* Such digital competencies may enable academics to demarcate their personal and professional lives toward the holistic and sustainable development of their well-being.

Therefore, cognitive digital competencies appear to be crucial for some academics' decisions about their social media use, so that they may learn to care for their and others' well-being. *Time management* and *managing workloads* are digital competencies mentioned by Jisc (2022a). Nevertheless, the present study shows that the ability to the setting of virtual boundaries at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels goes beyond managing tasks within the digital environment. It is crucial to consider some academics' personal and professional boundaries and the holistic management of their identities toward sustainable maintenance of their well-being. In other words, digital competencies beyond the focus on enabling activities on platforms are crucial because some academics may use their knowledge about the potential consequences of social media for their well-being to make decisions to disengage fully or temporarily from platforms. Therefore, this presents a plea for

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Jisc (2022a) to extend its current digital competency framework and incorporate digital competencies guided by the TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework (see Table 19). This may benefit some academics' management of workloads, time and training and development of such digital competencies aiming toward the sustainable maintenance of their well-being and job performance associated with their work-life balance.

9.2.2.3 Social Influence

Some academics' decision-making associated with their social media use boundary negotiations at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels were influenced by social influences. Some academics' social influence can derive from internal (e.g., organisational) and external (e.g., public, companies, or other institutions) stakeholders. The present study indicates that social influences may play an important role in academics' decision-making about their professional social media use and associated boundary work. Some academics frequently used social media because others (e.g., academic peers) convinced them about SNS-enabling affordances as well as some academics felt that they did not have a choice because having an online presence appeared important to their professional career success. They felt that without being present on platforms the professional community does not know about their existence. This is particularly concerning because social influences may lead to negative consequences (e.g., anxiety, stress) for some academics' well-being and job performance.

Furthermore, social influence can also derive from HEIs and may affect some academics' decision-making. The present study indicates that some academics may struggle to cope with their institutions retweeting their content due to SNS enabling visibility and reach of a wide audience, especially the press. Indeed, the way institutions interact with some academics on platforms may negatively affect their well-being and job performance. On the other hand, some academics were also influenced by their institutions' prompt to use social media. However, these academics used their digital competencies and even though they opened the social media account, because they were asked to do so, they disengaged with the platforms. More so, the wide reach of platforms appeared to expose some academics to cyber risks and given the frequent lack of institutional support and guidelines, this may alert institutions to take mindful approaches when considering interacting with academics' or their content on platforms. In addition, some academics' decisions about their social media use were influenced by external stakeholders (e.g., organisations) and, for example, the news about data breaches (see Section 7.3). Therefore, it seems important for some academics to acquire an awareness of social influences related to socio-cultural and economic concerns,

because these may negatively impact their well-being.

Overall, the present study indicates some academics' decision-making under social influences, which may lead to negative consequences (e.g., stress, anxiety) for some academics' well-being and job performance. In order to understand and manage social influences, the present study shows that some academics may benefit from digital competencies within the operative, critical, emotional and cognitive dimensions (see Table 19).

9.2.2.4 Emotional Experiences

Some academics' decision-making associated with their social media use boundary negotiations at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels were influenced by their emotional experiences. Three groups of academics were identified. Firstly, academics who experienced negative emotional experiences but continuously used social media, secondly academics who experienced negative emotions and omitted such use and thirdly, academics who experienced positive emotions and used social media for professional purposes.

The experience of negative emotions affected some academics' who made decisions to engage with platforms. The experience of perceived inappropriate behaviour on social media appeared to result in some academics' strong negative affective reactions and negative consequences for their well-being. However, the present study indicates that these academics continued to engage with platforms and did not feel the need to use digital competencies to disengage with platforms. Instead, they used the platforms until their affective reaction was so strong that they, for example, threw the phone through the room. This may show the need to train and develop academics' digital competencies that enable decision-making about disengagement in order to circumvent emotional outrages and empower the mindful use of platforms. Along the same line, academics appeared to experience some negative emotions towards the interactions on platforms and, therefore, they appeared to make decisions to limit their use of platforms. Such academics appeared to apply emotional intelligence in order to mitigate their exposure to negativities and it seems that they prioritised their well-being and job performance.

In addition, the experience of negative emotions appeared to be associated with social influences (see Section 7.3). Some academics explained that they had to use platforms due to institutional requests as well as some academics experienced peer pressure and Fear-of-

Missing-Out and despite strong negative emotions (e.g., anxiety, hate) decided to engage with platforms. These academics although they appeared to be aware of their experience of negative emotions did not seem to use digital competencies in order to fully or partially disengage with platforms and risked their well-being and job performance. It is, therefore, a possibility that some academics may not consciously consider negative emotions when making decisions because they may not be aware of such emotions while they use social media.

Furthermore, some academics' exposure to content on social media resulted in their experiences of mood swings. Nevertheless, some academics appeared to possess emotional intelligence (e.g., self-awareness) that alerts them to disengage from the platforms and enables caring for their well-being and job performance. In such cases, academics may re-negotiate disengagement once they feel that they recovered because they enjoy certain aspects of SNS. On the other hand, some academics experienced negative emotions before their actual social media use. Identity dilemmas and concerns about the blur between personal and professional boundaries were associated with the experience of anxiety to accept students and teaching and learning activities in professional social media use. Anxiety was consciously experienced and alerted one academic of the potential blur of personal and professional boundaries and, therefore, it was decided to limit the use of social media. In this sense, the academic also showed emotional intelligence and applied digital competence to partially disengage with platforms in order to reduce the risk of identity dilemmas and potentially negative consequences for their well-being and job performance.

Lastly, some academics' decision-making about their intentions to use platforms appeared to be influenced by positive emotions. Some academics found it interesting to connect with others and appeared to enjoy the humour and interaction with others on platforms. Under influence of positive emotions, some academics made decisions to accept stakeholders (e.g., students and the public) and professional practices in their professional social media use. Hence, one may suppose that positive emotional experiences may positively affect some academics' well-being and job performance.

Overall, the present study shows emotional experiences may influence some academics' decision-making about their engagement and disengagement with social media for professional purposes. It appears that some academics frequently take a eudaimonic approach to their well-being because they seem to endure negative emotions in order to make use of SNS affordances as well as use emotional intelligence and use such emotions as alert systems and, therefore, limit their use or disengage (partially or fully) with platforms

when needed. The influence of affective reactions may play an important role in some academics' decision-making because it seems that if academics possess emotional intelligence then they may be able to mindfully make decisions about engagement and disengagement with social media for professional purposes.

9.2.3 Training and Development

Answering the third research question (see Section 9.1): *Why and how do academics learn to use social media professionally? (3)* This section concludes the discussion presented in Chapter 6, Chapter 7 and Chapter 8. Deriving from the findings presented in Chapter 6, Chapter 7 and Chapter 8 academics have multiple reasons and ways of learning to use social media for professional purposes. In addition, the discussion in Chapter 8 shows some academics ascribed the value of autonomy, the value of institutional-led training and development as well as the quality of institutional support to their social media training and development.

9.2.3.1 Reasons to Learn to Use Social Media

Derived from the previous two Chapter 6 and Chapter 7 some academics may learn to use social media because they may need to make decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. In this sense, some academics' may learn to use social media due to perceived enabling platform affordances, but may also learn to use social media to decide to disengage with platforms due to challenges associated with platform affordances. On the other hand, some academics may learn to use social media because they are socially influenced by academic peers, institutions or external stakeholders (e.g., organisations). Therefore, some academics may force themselves to learn to use platforms and resulting in their well-being may be negatively affected due to increased stress and exceeding cognitive capacities, identity dilemmas and social influence.

In light of such cases, decisions to use platforms may not derive from logical reasoning but unconscious reasoning, which results from decisions based on habits and emotions and some academics may not necessarily take sufficient steps to learn to use platforms because they merely use them due to social influences. One may suppose that if academics force themselves to use platforms, they may not necessarily have the same motivation to learn how to use the platforms professionally compared to academics who make decisions through conscious, logical reasoning. Along this line, some academics may also learn to use

social media due to their eudaimonic approach to well-being. As shown in Section 7.4.1, academics decided to use social media despite their experience of strong negative emotions, which appears to be associated with the influence of SNS emotional affordances (see Table 11). The eudaimonic approach to managing and understanding emotions may lead to the experience of paradoxes (Ohman, 1988), due to difficulties demarcating challenges and opportunities. Such experiences may lead to tension and stress and may pose risks to some academics' well-being and job performance because some academics may not be conscious of the potential effort (workload, identity work) (see Section, 7.2) that it may take them to use the platforms and to manage their personal and professional identities.

Therefore, gaining digital competencies that support decision-making about engagement and disengagement with platforms may be important and the present study indicates some academics' training and development needs revolved around the value of autonomy and the value of institutional support.

9.2.3.2 Value of Autonomy

Somewhat surprising is that some academics in this study favoured autonomously learning to use social media (see Section 8.1). Indeed, some of these academics were apprehensive to lose their autonomy if institutions interfered with their social media training and development approaches. A small group of academics also indicated that using social media is a personal matter. These academics were strictly against any institutional interference in their Training & Development. Another explanation is that academics felt institutional training may lead to enforced social media use for all. The most frequently autonomous learning method was learning by doing (see Figure 14). However, it may also be possible that academics who feel institutionally supported prefer autonomous learning methods. Indeed, the majority of the survey respondents (see Figure 1) did never formally learn to use social media. On the other hand (see Section 8.1.2)., the survey study shows some academics found training important for their professional practices and may not feel supported by their institutions and may have no other choice than to autonomously build digital competencies (see Figure 17).

The present study also shows that some academics may prefer autonomous approaches for their continuous professional development. A mentioned explanation is that academics' acquisition of knowledge in university settings is often socially constructed between each other (Bamber, 2009). Hence, academics may naturally be inclined toward autonomous learning approaches and, therefore, the present study opposes that formal training and

development may serve as a remedy for academics to overcome barriers to using social media for professional purposes. As previously mentioned (see Section 9.2) some academics appeared to possess skills such as self-reflection, ethical self-awareness and appear to have emotional intelligence. Hence, these academics may show an increased attitude toward independent decision-making. Therefore, it may not be surprising that they may have a similar attitude towards how they learn to use social media.

Academics appeared to be self-reflective when making decisions about their training and development needs based on what is best for them. For instance, academics who indicated institutional training and development may be limited decided to collaborate with colleagues, industries and students and learn from them. Therefore, some academics' decisions about their training and development needs are multifaceted and socially constructed. This suggests prescription of institutional-led training and development may not be the sole remedy to guide academics' professional social media use. Instead, more emphasis on developing academics' critical, and emotional competencies may lead to improved, autonomous decisions making processes that may benefit their practices, well-being and job performance.

9.2.3.3 Value of Institutional Support

This study also shows that some academics preferred formal institutional-led training and development. The reasons discussed are the potential need to support mental health and the related management of emotions associated with some academics' decisions about their social media use. Having said this, some academics' felt that their mental health management is unsupported by their institutions (see Section 6.3.1.3). Therefore, they had to autonomously learn to use social media because it may be expected by their institution. This is surprising because it may be assumed that institutions that expect academics to use social media provide Training & Development. Especially, the focus on caring for academics' well-being and how they can care for others (e.g., students) may be important because they negotiate various boundaries that impact their mental health. Nevertheless, current UK digital literacy development programmes (e.g., Jisc 2022) do not explicitly focus on digital literacies, found in the present study, such as self-reflection, ethical self-awareness and emotional self-awareness.

Nevertheless, some academics mentioned that institutional-led training and development did not meet their needs. Some academics described a lack of disciplinary focus. It appears the potential uptake of institutional-led training and development may require to be discipline

specific. This shows a potential challenge as there are various academic disciplines and it may be difficult to develop formal training and development programmes that address them all. This might explain the finding, of the present study, that institutions increasingly ask academics to learn to use social media by doing and then teaching their colleagues and students. While this approach is not favoured by some academics it may enable the acquisition of discipline-focused organisational knowledge. However, it is obvious in the present study that such approaches may negatively impact academics' well-being. This indicates the potential need to refocus the acquisition of knowledge, about disciplinary social media use, using other methods such as interviewing, storytelling or the creation of knowledge maps in order to circumvent the need to unnecessarily expose academics to cyber risks. But instead, provide opportunities to build digital competencies that may enable the mindful use of platforms.

Regarding the quality of institutional support, quite a few academics mentioned the desire for improved institutional-led training and development. Some academics who indicated to be advanced social media users felt unsupported in their training and development. They felt left out and even though they indicated to be aware of existing social media training resources, they were unable to make use of these. Therefore, it may be important to include the development needs of academics who have advanced digital skills, as these academics seemed to feel unsupported by their institutions. This appears to indicate the need for a holistic approach to social media training and development considering and embracing an autonomous learning approach but also caring for those who need support.

9.2.4 Techno-Social-Emotional Digital Competency Framework

This section answers the fourth research question (see Section 9.1): *Which digital competencies do academics require to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with social media? (4)* Derived from the discussions in Chapter 6, Chapter 7 and Chapter 8, some academics applied multiple digital competencies when they made decisions about their professional social media use. The exploration of these competencies led to the development of the Techno-Social-Emotional (TeSEmo) Digital Competency Framework presented in Table 19. The framework reflects a holistic, multidimensional approach to digital literacy development.

The present study shows the dynamic and multidimensional landscapes of academics' digital competencies. The novel combination of the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT revealed the coexistence of academics' digital competencies across multiple

dimensions. The TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework confirms the six dimensions of digital literacy identified by (Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022). The confirmed dimensions are critical, socio-emotional, operative, cognitive, and social dimensions. Given that *platformisation* tends to increase academics' workloads and consequently leads to the blur of personal and professional boundaries some academics may benefit from the ability to manage time and resources (Carrigan, 2020). The projective dimension (see Section 2.2.5) comprises digital competencies such as innovativeness, computational thinking, testing of ideas and managing time and resources (see also Table 19). Such competencies may enable some academics to make informed decisions in consideration of their workloads, conscious planning and management of time used for social media and personal and professional tasks including the resources (human and/or technology) they may need.

Decision-making is a cognitive process (see Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022) by which academics choose an action, based on specific criteria, from a pool of options. Hence, academics apply reasoning and thinking skills, influenced by emotions, when they make decisions about their social media use. However, decision-making goes beyond the application of cognitive competencies (see Section 2.2.2) because reasoning and thinking also involve the application of criticality. Critical competencies (see Section 2.2.1) are prevalent in this study and overlap with the cognitive dimension. This finding is consistent with those of Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) who mention that there is an association between the cognitive and critical dimensions.

Further, in the present study, criticality appears to overlap with all identified dimensions (e.g., social-emotional, cognitive, operative, and social). For instance, some academics' decision-making about engagement and disengagement with platforms involved the critical consideration of strong emotions (e.g., anxiety) and affected their well-being (see Section 7.4). Academics critically applied social competencies to decide about collaboration and networking with others (see Section 7.3, Sections 6.2 and 6.3). Additionally, these academics applied operational and functional competencies when they made decisions about the usefulness of social media for their professional practices (see Section 7.1). Some academics who felt positive about using social media professionally did not indicate problems understanding or managing emotions. They appeared to be emotionally self-aware and did not show deep concerns about how social media may impact themselves or their students (see Section 7.4).

However, some academics were deeply concerned about how social media may impact

students' well-being (see Sections 6.2). Critical evaluation of ethical and moral values was central to these academics' rejection of social media to protect students and themselves from negativities (e.g., cyber-crimes, inappropriate content). Despite that some academics indicated not to have strong socio-emotional competencies, they decided to use social media. These academics used their critical and operational competencies and prioritised the usefulness of platforms, over their well-being and job performance. They were also concerned about how to cope emotionally and indicated a desire for institutional guidance. On the other hand, some academics who appeared to be socio-emotional competent used this knowledge to disengage with social media (see Chapter 6). These academics applied critical and cognitive competencies when they decided that social media are not useful for their practices. Hence, they also had strong operational competencies that enabled them to understand why that social media may not be the right choice for their practice.

Additionally, the management of personal and professional boundaries between some academics and their stakeholders was strongly related to the protection of mental health and personal identity. Some academics used critical and cognitive competencies to evaluate how social media may impact their personal and/or professional lives. There appears no 'recipe' of best practices to manage personal and professional identities as such decisions are depending on personal and professional needs. Moreover, personal aspects, issues and perspectives always co-exist with any professional decision and, therefore, some academics may never reach the full distinction between their personal and professional identities. This suggests the need to embrace the overlap of critical and emotional competencies. This overlap may be important to make critical decisions about professional social media use boundaries (e.g., personal and professional identities) related to understanding and management of emotions. Having said this, if academics develop their emotional intelligence, combined with their critical and cognitive abilities they may be able to make sound decisions about their professional social media use. This demonstrates the importance of the interplay between academics; socio-emotional, critical, cognitive, projective and operative competencies.

The present study also found that at the core of some academics' decisions about their social media use, is the perceived responsibility of care for the well-being of the 'self' and 'others'. Therefore, their application of digital competencies is focused on 'socially constructed' and 'humanistic' aspects. However, decisions also appeared to be associated with operational aspects of social media because some academics indicated awareness and knowledge of social media affordances related to decisions about usefulness. For example, some academics seemed to know how to manage and avoid the potential risks (e.g., privacy

issues, cyber-crimes) and understand the impacts these platforms may have on themselves or others. Additionally, some academics indicated knowing how social media affordance may benefit their professional practices. Therefore, there appears to be a constant interrelationship between the 'humanistic', socially constructed and functional aspects of social media.

On the whole, some academics' decisions are profoundly associated with identity dilemmas and ethical dilemmas, as spectrums within which some academics engage in boundary work and are influenced by wider societal, instrumental and socio-emotional influences. Therefore, it seems that some academics experienced certain struggles associated with decisions and setting boundaries due to their consideration of challenges and opportunities provided by SNS affordances. In this sense, some academics of the present study took an ambivalent approach to their decision-making about their professional social media use. The ambivalence of social media appeared to involve academics' personal lives that are prone to changes and possible contests over things that involve, for instance, family and friends. On the other hand, social media appears also related to the image and expectations that others (such as institutions or peers) may have of them. Therefore, some academics' social media use is shaped and influenced by such social actors with whom they may compete, experience conflicts or simply engage.

Moreover, social media are ongoing emerging and changing, which results in new opportunities and challenges that feed-back into some academics' professional practices (e.g., Teaching & Learning, and Networking & Public Engagement). Therefore, this may lead to changes in academics themselves along with their needs and expectations of themselves and others. Such changes or distorts within the socio-technical-emotional entanglement reflect the changed meaning of social media and, therefore, academics' position within their socio-cultural and economic environment comprising their personal and professional lives. This poses it to be difficult to come to terms with what proper and improper professional social media use may be because such complexity of entwined malleability of structural, social-emotional and social changes to SNS affordances and academics personal and professional lives within HEIs appears to be individualistic and may change across organisations and cultures.

This appears to resonate with the need for understanding and developing an awareness of digital, diversity, equality and inclusion as this again is influenced by well-being and socioeconomic status. Therefore, based on individual circumstances (e.g., personal, and professional lives), institutional, economic, socio-cultural values and situations, there may be

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certain limitations of what may be seen as realistic for the individual academics learning to engage and disengage with social media. What derives from this study is at the core of decision-making, which as can be seen is highly individualistic, is the development and maintenance of holistic, sustainable well-being and job performance. This can account for everyone, in support of the provision of context-specific digital competencies and contributes to the study's empirical and theoretical contributions.

Table 18 Techno-Social-Emotional (TeSEmo) Digital Competency Framework

Competency Dimensions	Critical	Projective	Socio-emotional	Operative	Cognitive	Social
Digital Competencies	- Self-reflection - Ethical self-awareness - Adopting attitude - Self-preservation - Critical use of social media, content, and online spaces - Being critical when collaborating with others - Critical understanding of ethical and legal issues - Understanding of online risks and safety management - Understanding virtual boundary at intersection of personal, professional and stakeholders	- Managing time - Managing resources - Adapting to changing environments	- Emotional self-awareness - Emotional self-reflection - Understanding emotions - Emotional self-assessment - Self-confidence - Managing emotions - Ability to care for mental health and overall well-being - Understanding how emotions online can affect relationships virtually and in physical spaces - Understanding how emotions can affect other users vice versa - Self-Control - Trustworthiness	- Functional understanding - Understanding of platform affordances	- Understanding of creation and use of content - Creating of learning experiences - Reflection on learning processes - Curation of resources using social media - Logical reasoning and problem solving - Ability to understand and organise oneself - Management of digital identity	- Building relationships on platforms - Teamwork on platforms - Conflict management - Leadership skills - Self-development and empowerment of others when using social media - Digital Humanistic Leadership - Management of Digital Equality Diversity and Inclusion (dEDI)

9.3 Contributions of the Study

The present study empirically contributes novel knowledge about the digital literacy phenomenon in UK HEIs calling for important changes in how UK institutions train and develop academics' digital literacy. Furthermore, the present study makes the theoretical contribution of the novel Techno-Social-Emotional (TeSEmo) Digital Competency Framework, and also contributes to the re-conceptualisation of SNS as techno-social-emotional systems.

9.3.1 Empirical Contributions

Derived from the answers to research questions 1, 2, and 3 (see Section 9.1) the present study contributes novel empirical knowledge about the digital literacy phenomenon in the UK HEIs associated with entwined decision-making. Based on the reviewed literature (see Chapter 2 and Chapter 3), we know much about the advantages and disadvantages of social media for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement (Jordan and Weller, 2018; Jordan, 2022; Manca, 2020). In addition, some scholars (such as Carrigan, 2020; Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2019; Manca and Ranieri, 2016) noted professional social media use boundaries (e.g., ethical and identity dilemmas). They discuss a number of associated dissolutions of strict demarcation, such as those between personal and professional identities, those concerning social interactions, the boundaries of universities and the general public ('town and gown'), plus the reshaping of private and public behaviour and the meaning of social media use. Nevertheless, there are clear gaps in the literature about why and how academics negotiate professional social media use boundaries and what affects academics' decision-making about engagement and disengagement with platforms.

The present study contributes to filling this gap with novel empirical knowledge about academics' entwined decision-making. Entwined decision-making derived from academics' boundary negotiations of their social media use, at the intersection of personal, professional and stakeholder levels (see Section 9.2.1), and the UTAUT influences of social pressure, emotions, effort and performance expectancies (see Section 9.2.2). Key findings revealed some academics made hedonic decisions to reject negative emotions and, therefore, decided to disengage with platforms. However, academics predominantly took a eudaimonic approach to well-being (see Section 9.2.2.4 and Section 4.1) and made decisions under social influences or simply used the platforms despite their exposure to negativities (e.g., increasing workload, ethical and identity dilemmas or online harassment) and resulting negative consequences on their well-being (e.g., anxiety and mood swings). A potential

reason for such behaviour was the perceived usefulness and vitality of platforms for professional practices. Overall, some academics were aware of disengagement practices while others were unaware and struggled to disengage with platforms and risked their well-being and job performance. Therefore, the ability to partially or fully disengage with platforms may support some academics' decision-making about their social media use boundary negotiations toward sustainable development and maintenance of their well-being and job performance.

Nevertheless, up to now, digital disengagement is not an integrated element in the current UK HEI digital literacy capability framework provided by Jisc (2022a). The focus is on building digital competencies to enable engagement with platforms (see Section 2.3.2). Indeed, at the core of the framework are digital proficiency and productivity, which both aim at managed engagement with platforms. However, as mentioned above, some academics may benefit from building digital competencies to disengage with platforms. Moreover, the present study confirms that there is a need to consider *platformisation* as a cause of difficulties in sustainably maintaining well-being (see Fetherston *et al.*, 2021). Therefore, solely focusing on training and developing academics' digital competencies to enable engagement with platforms may add more fuel to the current well-being crisis (see Section 1.2.2) and excludes the important aspects of digital disengagement. Therefore, the present study calls for the revision of Jisc's (2022a) digital capability framework through the integration of digital disengagement, which is a crucial component for academics' holistic decision-making about platforms and sustainable development of their well-being and job performance.

Furthermore, scholars (e.g., Khlusova, 2021; Oksanen *et al.*, 2021; Purvis, Rodger and Beckingham, 2020) commonly recommend institutional-led digital literacy training and development as a remedy for academics to overcome disadvantages (such as time constraints, low perception of usefulness or skills gaps) so that they can engage with platforms. However, the present study shows some academics predominantly made decisions autonomously and, therefore, appear to prefer self-regulated, individual-empowered social media use. Having said that, empowerment also implies that academics may freely choose to adopt institutional support and guidance. Hence, institutional guidance appears to be still important especially to support academics' well-being. Indeed, a few academics desired formal institutional support and guidance to manage and understand their emotions toward improved well-being associated with their social media use. This calls for UK HEIs (see examples in Section 2.3.3) and Jisc (2022a) that focus on formal approaches to digital competency training and development to revise their strategy and focus on

developing an organisational culture that supports academics' autonomous learning needs. Moreover, a nuanced approach to autonomous and formal digital competency training and development is recommended to support academics' managed engagement and disengagement with platforms.

The present study contributes knowledge based on ambivalent perspectives. These perspectives consider the nuanced development of academics' digital competencies that may enable holistic decision-making, about engagement and disengagement, which aims to benefit their well-being and job performance based on personal and professional needs. In support of this, the present study developed the TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework (see Table 19), as the theoretical contribution, which comprises digital competencies across six competency dimensions.

9.3.2 Theoretical Contribution

The theoretical contributions resulted from the exploration of digital competencies that academics may require to train and develop to make holistic decisions about social media for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. The identified digital competencies derived from academics' boundary negotiations as well as the UTAUT influences that appear to affect academics' decision-making about their engagement and disengagement with social media. The present study contributes the novel TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework (explained in Section 9.2.4), which comprises digital competencies that may support academics' entwined decision-making (see Section 9.2) about engagement and disengagement with platforms. The identified digital competencies derived from academics' self-reported practical experiences of their decision-making about their professional engagement and disengagement with SNS. Moreover, the present study confirms Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) digital competency concept (see Section, 2.2). Therefore, the TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework (see Table 19), is practically applicable in the context of academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement.

The TeSEmo framework contributes novel digital competencies that may enable academics' social media use boundary negotiations. In fact, this appears to be the first study that contributes a digital competency framework that may support academics' boundary work of their professional social media use in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Up to now, we have evidence of boundary issues especially the struggles of ethical and identity dilemmas (Carrigan, 2020), but there appears no digital

competency framework that specifically addresses and supports the overcoming of these struggles. Therefore, the TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework provides practical applicable competencies, which may empower academics to overcome these boundary struggles associated with their professional social media use. The TeSEmo framework provides important theoretical knowledge that may inform academics, HEIs and Jisc (2022a) about key digital competencies, across six digital competency dimensions (see Table 19), that academics may require to train and develop in order to make holistic decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms.

In addition, the present study revealed that the identified digital competencies overlap in professional practices (Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement) across the six competency dimensions of the TeSEmo framework (see Table 19). The identified digital competencies may enable academics to conduct various activities within the digital competency dimensions (see Table 17 and Table 18). Although the TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework is derived from Humanities and Arts academics' experiences, the competencies were compared with Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche (2022) comprehensive digital literacy framework, which is suitable for academics across disciplines and, therefore, the TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework may be applicable beyond the sample of the present study.

Furthermore, derived from reviewed literature (e.g., Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche, 2022; van Laar *et al.* 2017) digital competency frameworks are broad and address various disciplinary categories and do not specifically address academics' professional practices (e.g., Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement). The present study contributes to filling this gap with the TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework that focuses on academics' social media use for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. On the other hand, Jisc (2022a) recognises individuals' different needs and, therefore, provides specific digital competency guides for role profiles (e.g., teachers, learners, researchers). Nevertheless, Jisc's (2022a) focus on six capability elements (solely focusing on engagement) is limited and inexplicitly addresses the operative, critical, cognitive, social and projective competency dimensions.

Moreover, Jisc (2022a) do not specifically appear to integrate digital competencies within the socio-emotional dimension, which as shown in the present study, is associated with academics' well-being and job performance. This is a clear gap in Jisc's (2022a) recent digital competency framework and the present study contributes to filling this gap through important theoretical knowledge about the integration of socio-emotional digital

competencies that may benefit academics' well-being and job performance. Therefore, it is recommended that Jisc (2022a) revises its current digital competency framework and explicilty integrate emotional digital competencies.

Furthermore, as outlined in Chapter 4, the reviewed literature (e.g., Carrigan, 2020; Carrigan and Jordan, 2021; Manca, 2020) on academics' social media use commonly treats SNS as techno-social systems and does not include emotional social media affordances. The present study revealed the clear influences of some academics' experiences of emotions on their decision-making processes. The findings confirm Steinert and Dennis's (2022) emotional social media affordances and, therefore, contribute to the re-conceptualisation of SNS as techno-social-emotional systems, in the context of academics' social media use, that comprises technical social and emotional characteristics. The importance of this contribution is reflected in the way training and development associated with the use of SNS may be understood.

Indeed, given the fact that scholars (such as Carrigan, 2020; Carrigan and Jordan, 2021; Manca, 2020) commonly understand SNS as techno-social systems, this may influence the way platforms are used but also trained because it indicates the focus on developing operative and social digital competencies. However, the present study revealed some academics' entwined decision-making about boundary negotiations of their professional social media use appears to be frequently influenced by emotions and may negatively affect their well-being and job performance. It is, therefore, important to understand SNS as techno-social-emotional systems, which academics may learn to understand and use through the building of digital competencies within the competency dimensions of the TeSEmo Digital Competency Framework (see Table 19).

9.3.3 Recommendations

Derived from the aforementioned contributions, the present study provides recommendations for UK HEIs, Jisc and academics:

1) Recommendation for UK HEIs and Jisc as the UK HEI digital literacy development programme provider:

    - Revision of UK HEIs digital literacy development programmes through the adoption of a well-being first approach, which considers the implications of academics' social

media use in consideration of their personal and professional lives and integrates the TeSEmo digital competencies.

- Revising current digital literacy programmes that aim to enable the use of digital technology toward the holistic understanding that digital competencies are important for academics to make decisions about engagement and disengagement with platforms.

- To extend social media policies or guidelines with ethical components that specify what appropriate and inappropriate social media use is, and inform academics about the extent of the appropriateness of conduct with stakeholders on platforms. This element appears to be missing for some academics and it can support the management of identities if they know within which conduct boundaries they should navigate.

- Develop guidelines and social media policies that show academics' right to digital disengagement and inform them about the ways to learn and gain competencies to make decisions about (partial and/or full) disengagement with platforms.

2) Recommendation for academics:

- It is recommended that academics develop an awareness of the importance to train and develop digital competencies as part of their continuous professional development to cope with the increasing platformisation in HEIs and to sustainably develop and maintain their well-being and job performance. It seems beneficial for academics to understand that building digital competencies goes beyond engagement and appears as important as disengagement. Therefore, it is recommended to holistically develop digital competencies, based on the TeSEmo framework, depending on circumstances and institutions either autonomously or through formal institutional-led digital literacy training and development.

9.4 Limitations of the Study

While the combination of 6 focus groups and the online survey (N=172) contributes to a rich understanding of academics' professional social media use it can be argued about to what extent these results are generalisable. The online survey followed a convenience sampling approach and the focus groups were purposively sampled. Therefore, the results are not

representative of the whole academic population. However, the results have transferability due to the confirmation of Martínez-Bravo, Chalezquer and Serrano-Puche's (2022) digital competency concept and Steinter and Dennis's (2022) social media affordance concept based on academics' self-reported data of their experiences with their professional social media use.

The purposive sampling criterion was that academics were required to belong to UK Humanities and Arts disciplines. The reason for this strategy was the aim to address current gaps in the literature (see Section 5.3) and create homogeneity in the focus group (Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014) discussions that may enable the development of dynamic conversations and patterns. The survey study included questions about gender, professional position and years of professional experience. Even though recent literature (e.g., Gutiérrez-Ángel *et al*., 2022) shows some evidence of discrepancies between demographics and academics' social media use, the present study did not include these demographic elements. The reason for this was the choice of convenience sampling that enabled efficient, inexpensive data collection and the fact that it was not aimed to establish correlations between these demographics and wider survey questions. Nevertheless, the expansion of the focus through the integration of such demographic elements would add further useful data and insights about academics' professional social media use. Therefore, this may be addressed in a follow-up study.

Furthermore, a different sample from different disciplines may deliver different results, and it may be possible that digital literacy development programmes and professional practices differ across cultures and borders (McIntyre, 2014). In addition, despite the invitation of users and non-users of social media for professional purposes, the participants all had some prior knowledge and practical experience in using social media. A potential reason is that the present study recruited participants, for the focus groups and survey study, on social media (e.g. LinkedIn) and other platforms (e.g., MECCSA mailing lits), and notable academics who participated had some prior experience in using and knowledge about social media. Expanding the sampling strategy and recruiting non-users, who may have different reasons for not using platforms, would complement the data with useful insights.

9.5 Recommendations for Future Research

Some future research directions are recommended to build upon the outcomes of the present study. The present study developed the TeSEmo digital competency framework, which is derived from the rich qualitative understanding of UK academics' professional social

media use. Further quantitative studies could be undertaken to contribute representative data and develop a measuring instrument that enables the measuring of digital competencies and enables the analysis of relationships between competencies and demographics (e.g., gender, professional positions and disciplines). Moreover, recent research (e.g., Ayyildiz, Yilmaz and Serfi, 2021) demonstrates differences of the use of digital technology and digital literacy between academic disciplines. It is, therefore, recommneded to expand the research sample beyond Humanities and Arts academics through conducting of comparative analysis across different disciplines and countries.

The survey study showed some missing data in the question about the importance of institutional training and development and, therefore, further quantitative studies could be conducted involving a representative sample of UK and international academics. Special focus may be given to autonomous and institutional-led programmes. More so, questions about what affects academics' uptake of digital competency training and development may be beneficial. It is also recommended to systematically analyse UK social media policies (see also Pasquini and Evangelopoulos, 2016), and guidelines in other countries aiming at exploring if digital disengagement is mentioned in such documents. This may further support institutions' digital competency development and holistic integration of platforms in academic processes.

On the other hand, it is recommended to conduct further qualitative research (e.g., in-depth interviews or case studies) with non-users in order to understand how and why they make decisions about disengagement with platforms, followed by attempts to conduct generalisable studies. Further qualitative studies, which investigate professional social media use across specific disciplines, are also recommended in order to shed further light on disciplinary training and development needs. In addition, it is recommended to investigate, which methods HEIs may use to train and develop academics' digital competencies and which methods may support the TeSEmo digital competencies.

It is also recommended to further explore academics mental health associated with their social media use and special focus is given to their experience of emotions and how these may relate to disengagement practices. Lastly, the present study recommends further qualitative (focus groups) as well as quantitative (survey), studies about if and how academics disengage with digital technology and to what extent, why and how this may affect their well-being and job performance.

9.6 Summative Remarks

The present study aimed to investigate UK academics' professional social media use; this was achieved using the theoretical foundation of digital literacy and the two theoretical considerations of the concept of boundary work and the UTAUT. The study aimed to explore *why* and *how* academics negotiate boundaries of their professional social media use, in the context of Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement, as well as *what* influences their decisions about engagement and disengagement with SNS. Further, it was aimed to explore *why* and *how* academics may learn to use SNS professionally, and which digital competencies they may require to train and develop in order to make holistic decisions about their social media use. The study intended to contribute practically applicable (by HEIs and academics) empirical and theoretical knowledge about academics' digital literacy training and development needs and digital competencies academics may require to build in order to engage and disengage with social media.

The findings of the present study show academics' dynamic engagement in boundary work when they make decisions about their engagement and disengagement with social media for Teaching & Learning and Networking & Public Engagement. Academics negotiated boundaries with students, colleagues, support staff, external experts, the public, other academics, activists, research communities and industries. Key challenges appear to be associated with the predominant ambivalent beliefs about technology and resulted in academics' complexities to understand and manage ethical and identity dilemmas. Their decisions were infused with social influences and affective reactions that appeared to lead to paradoxical experiences and potential negative consequences (e.g., stress, anxiety and exceeding cognitive capacities) for their well-being. Therefore, it seems important for academics to learn to use social media through the building of digital competencies provided by the novel contribution of the TeSEmo model that enables and supports academics' holistic decision-making about their engagement and disengagement with platforms towards the sustainable development and maintenance of their well-being.

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Appendix

Please find all appendices in the shared OneDrive folder using the following link:

PhD_Submission_Appendix