Teens’ social media use and collective action

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Abstract

This research examined how social self-efficacy, collective self-esteem, and need to belong can be used to predict teens’ use of social media. The particular focus was on how these social psychological variables together with social media use account for variation in teens’ participation in a flash mob — an exemplar of 21st-century collective action. Empirical data come from a survey of teens in a major Midwestern city in the USA. Teens’ need to belong was positively associated with the amount of time they reported spending on social networking sites, even when controlling for gender, race, and household socio-economic status. Both teens’ social self-efficacy and time spent on YouTube were positively associated with their intention to participate in a flash mob in the future. These and other findings are discussed in the context of the role of social media in youth culture and collective action.

Keywords

Collective action, collective self-esteem, flash mob, need to belong, self-efficacy, social media, teen

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Introduction

The wide availability of digital media has influenced the ways teens build and maintain social networks, as well as how they consume and share information. According to surveys of US teens by the Pew Research Center, the proportion of teens with Internet access has increased from 87% in 2004 to 95% in 2012, and the proportion of teens engaging in some form of social media usage has increased from 55% in 2006 to 83% in 2012 (Duggan and Brenner, 2013; Lenhart, 2012; Lenhart et al., 2011; Madden et al., 2013; Purcell, 2012). Social media refers to Internet-based applications that allow people to create and exchange content using digital network technologies (boyd and Ellison, 2008; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Online behavior of these digital natives – the generation born after the general introduction of digital technologies and that has grown up immersed in and familiar with those technologies – has been studied in many different contexts, including civic engagement, identity, and social inclusion (e.g., Bennett et al., 2011; Hundley and Shyles, 2010; Ito et al., 2010; Ledbetter et al., 2011; Lenhart et al., 2011; Palfrey and Gasser, 2008).

A relatively recent question at the intersection of youth and social media is how teens are using social media to facilitate planning and organizing flash mobs. A flash mob is a gathering of people who assemble in a public place, carry out a brief predetermined public performance, and then quickly disperse (Solecki and Goldschmidt, 2011; Wasik, 2011). The flash mob is an important cultural phenomenon, as it has become a popular form of collective action that has been facilitated by widely available and accessible digital communication tools (Bimer et al., 2012; Earl and Kimport, 2011; Kahn and Kellner, 2004; Rheingold, 2002). Examples of recent flash mobs range from “Social Mob 4 Good”, aimed at drawing attention to the challenges facing local social service agencies in the United States (CNN, 2010), to the London Olympics flash mob at Wimbledon (BBC, 2012).

As with other forms of collective action, flash mobs occasionally have taken a violent turn. For example, gunfire injured three people when hundreds of teens gathered for a late-night flash mob at an upscale shopping area in Kansas City, Missouri, in summer 2011. Philadelphia and Boston faced similar problems with a series of flash mob gatherings turning violent. These events have led to a recognition that flash mobs need to be better understood (Solecki and Goldschmidt, 2011; Wasik, 2011).

The research reported here is aimed at analyzing how teens’ social media use and social psychological characteristics are associated with their participation or interest in flash mobs. In spring 2012, the authors conducted a survey of teens living in Kansas City, Missouri. Survey items covered teens’ understandings and experiences with flash mobs, how teens reported using social media to organize such gatherings, and a variety of demographic and social psychological variables, including social self-efficacy and collective self-esteem. Social self-efficacy refers to how competent an individual feels in forging new relationships (Zullig et al., 2011), whereas collective self-esteem is related to the level of attachment one has to a social group (Barker, 2009; Crocker and Luhtanen, 1990; Tajfel, 1981).

Theoretical and operational linkages investigated in this study are useful for those who study teens’ behavior, group identity, and collective action. In addition, the findings
reported here can help policymakers identify more effective ways to encourage teens in this age of social media and online social networking.

**Teens, social media, and social psychology**

Social media sites have emerged as important forms of communication among teens in the United States (Duggan and Brenner, 2013; Ito et al., 2010; Lenhart, 2012; Purcell, 2012). More than 95% of teens used the Internet in 2012, and about 83% of teen Internet users reported using social media in 2012 – an increase from 55% in 2006 (Brenner, 2013; Lenhart, 2012; Purcell, 2012). In this paper, social media refers to Internet-based applications that allow people to create and exchange content using digital network technologies (boyd and Ellison, 2008; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Facebook is the dominant social media site among teens, with 93% of teen social media users having an account with Facebook, according to 2012 reports (Lenhart, 2012; Purcell, 2012). Texting is the most preferred method of communication among teens (63%), and about 30% of teens consider social networking sites an important communication method.

While youth’s use of the Internet varies (Hargittai and Hinnant, 2008; Hundley and Shyles, 2010), research suggests that the majority of teens have generally positive interactions online and find a sense of social inclusion through sharing information with peers in the digital sphere (boyd, 2008; Ito et al., 2010; Lenhart et al., 2011). The opportunity for perceived positive experiences and connectedness available through online communication renders social media a popular vehicle for teens to communicate, plan events, and meet new people. Previous studies suggest that teens find social media sites provide a place they can call home – their personal, although not private, digital space to express themselves (boyd, 2008; Correa et al., 2010; Davis, 2011; Ellison et al., 2007; Ledbetter et al., 2011). For example, Ellison et al.’s (2007) study shows that young adults’ use of Facebook is positively associated with the maintenance and creation of social capital. Their research, based on a survey of undergraduate students, also suggests that Facebook usage may benefit users with low self-esteem and low life satisfaction.

Personality traits of teens or young adults have been shown to influence their social media use or online social behavior (Barker, 2009; Correa et al., 2010; Hlebec et al., 2006; Ledbetter et al., 2011; Pelling and White, 2009; Valkenburg and Peter, 2008). Based on an online survey of US young adults, Correa et al. (2010) found that extraversion and openness to experiences were positively associated with social media use. In comparison, young adults’ emotional stability was negatively associated with their social media use, controlling for socio-demographics and life satisfaction.

Barker (2009) examined adolescents’ motivations for using social networking sites, with a particular emphasis on group identification and collective self-esteem. Group identification refers to a member’s identification with an interacting group, and collective self-esteem is defined as an individual’s self-concept derived from his/her “knowledge of membership in a social group together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership” (Barker, 2009; Crocker and Luhtanen, 1990; Tajfel, 1981: 255). According to Barker’s study (2009) of adolescents, those reporting high group identification and positive collective self-esteem tended to use social networking sites.
mainly for contact with their closest peer groups. In comparison, adolescents reporting negative collective self-esteem tended to seek a form of virtual companionship or social compensation through engaging in social networking sites. This can be explained from the perspective of social identity gratifications, which emphasizes opportunities to identify with in-group members who look and act similarly to each other, as well as to compare themselves to out-group members (Harwood, 1999; Hlebec et al., 2006).

Teens’ online social behavior has also been found to be associated with level of loneliness and need to belong (Ledbetter et al., 2011; Pelling and White, 2009; Valkenburg and Peter, 2008). In social psychology, need to belong refers to the motivation to be associated with others and to be accepted by them. Research has found that compared with non-lonely adolescents, lonely adolescents are more likely to experiment with their identities online by leveraging the relative anonymity of the Internet to learn how to interact with people (Valkenburg and Peter, 2008). For example, lonely adolescents may visit chat rooms to practice relationship formation skills and to overcome shyness by examining how people react to them online.

Social networking sites potentially satisfy teens’ need for belonging. While these sites offer diverse features, people are drawn to them primarily for personal connections and sharing of their activity with a growing number of “friends” (boyd, 2008; Ito et al., 2010; Ledbetter et al., 2011; Pelling and White, 2009). A survey of college students indicated a positive relationship between need to belong and attitude toward social networking sites (Gangadharbatla, 2008). These social psychological factors – collective self-esteem, need to belong, and social self-efficacy – may help us better understand why and how teenagers use social media for flash mobs.

**Flash mobs and youth collective action**

Teens’ increased use of social media has important implications for collective action. Studies have shown that digital communication technologies have facilitated mobilization of individuals seeking common goals – whether civic or non-civic (Bimer et al., 2012; Earl and Kimport, 2011; Rheingold, 2002). For example, Bimer et al. pointed out that wide availability of and accessibility to communication technologies has “altered the structures and forms of collective action efforts today toward the direction of enhanced individual agency” (2012: 3). Indeed, these changes are in line with the emergence of more general decentralization and disintermediation as properties of the networked information society (Benkler, 2006; Castells, 2004; Seo and Thorson, 2012).

A flash mob is a form of collective action that has been organized mainly via social media or mobile communication devices. For the purpose of this research, a flash mob is defined as a gathering of citizens who assemble in a public place, carry out a predetermined action, and then quickly disperse (Solecki and Goldschmidt, 2011; Gore, 2010; Lee, 2011; Molnar, 2009; Wasik, 2011). A sudden appearance of hundreds of people at a New York Macy’s in 2003 is widely considered as the first flash mob in the current context (Wasik, 2011). Some have suggested classifying flash mobs into different types (Gore, 2010; Molnar, 2009). For example, Molnar (2009) identified five types of flash mob based on function. They are (i) *atomized* flash mobs, which are original, apolitical, and fun; (ii) *interactive* flash mobs, which are organized often to reclaim public spaces
and related to the urban playground movement – collective activities arranged via
Internet-based communication tools to redeem urban spaces; (iii) performance flash
mobs, involving carrying out brief dancing, musical, or other artistic activities; (iv) polit-
ical flash mobs, aimed at promoting a social agenda; and (v) advertising flash mobs,
used by companies to raise awareness of their brands.

Another widely used term in this area is smart mobs (Rheingold, 2002). One of the
most important characteristics of smart mobs is a clear social purpose. While previous
studies have examined how technologies are used to organize smart mobs (Kahn and
Kellner, 2004; Pickard, 2008), little research has been done to examine the role of new
technologies in organizing flash mobs of non-overtly political nature. The current
research attempts to fill the gap.

There are several reasons why studying youth participation in flash mobs is important.
The first reason relates to the role of new digital technologies in flash mobs. Ranging from
dancing performances and pillow fights to service acts aimed at helping others in need,
flash mobs have a common connecting thread – they are organized, planned, and executed
via social networking or mobile communication devices (Solecki and Goldschmidt, 2011;
Rheingold, 2002; Wasik, 2011). With the emergence of mobile and digital communication
tools, Rheingold predicted that “the combination of computation, communication, reputa-
tion and location awareness” might lead to “cooperation epidemics” or an insurgence of
smart mobs (2002: 169–170). In recent flash mobs, text messaging and social media have
played an important role in spreading word about proposed action and encouraging the
crowd to participate in that action (Wasik, 2011). Research on flash mobs among teens in
connection with their social media use provides an important opportunity to understand
how the interplay of flash mobs and social media may influence youth culture.

Secondly, there are important social psychological and behavioral aspects of youth
that can be studied through flash mobs. For example, participants in flash mobs often
build shared identities, as suggested by Wasik, “What seems like anarchic behavior is in
fact governed by a shared self-conception and thus a shared set of grievances” (Wasik,
2011: para. 3). While flash mobs may appear pointless and spontaneous to observers,
they generally make sense to those who are part of the performances. Like other mass
gatherings, a flash mob requires seed behavior and a degree of personal engagement
(Zeitz et al., 2009). There should be an individual or a group of people who serves as the
seed by engaging the crowd to take action.

Finally, studying flash mobs may suggest clues as to how to better involve teens in
positive community and civic collective activities. Bennett and his colleagues discussed
a shift from dutiful citizenship to actualizing citizenship in identifying a new civic para-
digm (Bennett et al., 2009, 2011). They argue that this change reflects:

... a generational shift from taking cues as members of groups or out of regard for public
authorities (opinion leaders, public officials, and journalists), and toward looser personal
engagement with peer networks that pool (crowd source) information and organize civic action
using social technologies that maximize individual expression. (Bennett et al., 2011: 839)

In fact, this argument is closely related to the observation that the emergence of digital
communication technologies has lowered the “threshold for the collective action” (Bimer
et al., 2012; Earl and Kimport, 2011; Rheingold, 2002). Compared with the industrial information society that relied on capital intensive and professional production, the networked information society has enabled a new environment by empowering individuals to actively create and share content and information rather than merely being passive information consumers (Benkler, 2006; Castells, 2004; Seo and Thorson, 2012). Thus, the flash mob phenomenon can be examined through the lens of collective action in this digital media age.

**Research questions and hypotheses**

Based on the preceding literature review, the following research question and hypotheses are examined in this study. The tested theoretical model considering these variables is shown in Figure 1.

Research Question 1: How are social media used by teens to obtain information about a flash mob?

Hypothesis 1: Teens’ social psychological characteristics influence the amount of time they spend on social networking sites even when controlling for gender, race, and household socio-economic status.

Hypothesis 1a: Teens’ social self-efficacy has a positive effect on the amount of time they spend on social networking sites even when controlling for gender, race, and household socio-economic status.

Hypothesis 1b: Teens’ collective self-esteem has a positive effect on the amount of time they spend on social networking sites even when controlling for gender, race, and household socio-economic status.

Hypothesis 1c: Teens’ need to belong has a positive effect on the amount of time they spend on social networking sites even when controlling for gender, race, and household socio-economic status.
Research Question 2: How is teens’ stated intention to participate in a flash mob associated with their social media use when controlling for the demographic variables (gender, race, and household socio-economic status) and social psychological variables (social self-efficacy, collective self-esteem, and need to belong)?

Research Question 3: How are teens’ social psychological characteristics (social self-efficacy, collective self-esteem, and need to belong) associated with their intention to participate in a flash mob?

Method

A survey of Kansas City youth aged 13–19 was conducted in March 2012 to examine use of social media, understandings of flash mobs, and social psychological and demographic characteristics. An initial survey questionnaire was developed based on a review of the literature discussed earlier and further refined through focus groups with 50 Kansas City youth. The authors next conducted a pretest of the questionnaire on a sample of 18 youth recruited through a teen-oriented radio station. The participants in the survey pretest were asked to complete the survey and then to identify questions, answer choices, or statements that were ambiguous or difficult to comprehend. Based on their feedback, several questions or statements were rephrased to enhance their clarity and some answer options were added. The final survey questionnaire included a total of 30 questions in a mostly close-ended format.

The online survey was created on Qualtrics.com, one of the leading online survey tools. A paper-and-pencil version of the survey (in both English and Spanish), which included the same set of questions and similar layouts, was created for teens that might not have access to the online version of the survey. Survey respondents were recruited through schools, youth centers, and a youth-oriented radio broadcast. Youth under the age of 18 were required to submit signed parental and youth informed written consent forms prior to participating in the survey.

Survey participants were told the study would deal with use of the Internet and social gatherings and that responses would remain confidential and be read only by the researchers. They were also informed that participation in the survey was voluntary and that they could stop participation at any time. Completing the questionnaire took 10–15 minutes. The survey was in the field for four weeks.

Measured variables

Social psychological variables. The survey examined social psychological variables, including social self-efficacy, collective self-esteem, and need to belong. Previous research guided the measurement of these concepts (e.g., Barker, 2009; Gangadharbatla, 2008; Harwood, 1999; Hlebec et al., 2006; Ledbetter et al., 2011; Pelling and White, 2009; Valkenburg and Peter, 2008; Zullig et al., 2011). Prior questions were adapted to make them more relevant to this study.

Eight items were used to measure a participant’s social self-efficacy. Social self-efficacy refers to individuals’ belief that they are competent in forging new friendships
The items were adapted from Zullig et al.’s study (2011) of US adolescents. Those items included: (i) “How well can you express your opinions when friends or classmates disagree with you?”; (ii) “How well can you become friends with other people your age?”; (iii) “How well can you have a chat with an unfamiliar person?”; (iv) “How well can you work in harmony with your classmates or co-workers?”; (v) “How well can you tell other people your age that you are doing something they don’t like?”; (vi) “How well can you tell a funny story to a group your age?”; (vii) “How well do you succeed in staying friends with people your age?”, and (viii) “How well do you succeed in preventing quarrels with other people your age?” The reliability of the resulting scale was tested by Cronbach’s alpha, the most widely used measure of reliability, and the value was .87.

Collective self-esteem is defined as an individual’s self-concept derived from his/her “knowledge of membership in a social group together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership” (Barker, 2009; Crocker and Luhtanen, 1990; Tajfel, 1981: 255). In this survey, the following items were used to measure participants’ collective self-esteem: (i) “I am a worthy member of the groups or organizations I belong to”; (ii) “I often regret that I belong to some of the groups or organizations I do”; (iii) “Overall, my groups or organizations are considered good by others”; (iv) “Overall, my group or organization memberships have very little to do with how I feel about myself”; (v) “I feel I don’t have much to offer to the groups or organizations I belong to”; (vi) “In general, I am glad to be a member of the groups or organizations I belong to”; (vii) “Most people consider my groups or organizations, on the average, to be more ineffective than other groups or organizations”; (viii) “The groups or organizations I belong to are an important reflection of who I am”; (ix) “I am a cooperative participant in the groups or organizations I belong to”; and (x) “Overall, I often feel that the groups or organizations of which I am a member are not worthwhile.” Cronbach’s alpha for this index was .81.

“Need to belong” is another social psychological variable examined in this research, given its implications for teens’ online behavior (Gangadharbatla, 2008). Gangadharbatla’s research showed that those who have higher need to belong tend to spend more time online. Need to belong refers to a person’s sense that they want to be associated with others and to be accepted by them. This variable was measured by asking how much respondents feel treated better online than offline and how much they feel online interactions help them feel better when they are down.

Social media use. The survey measured participants’ social media use by asking how much time they spend on social networking sites (Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, Fourquare, and Myspace) on an average weekday and weekend day. These were the most popular social networking sites when the survey was in the field (Lenhart, 2012; Lenhart et al., 2011). Participants were asked to indicate how much they agree with several possible reasons for using social networking sites: (i) “to pass time”; (ii) “to communicate with friends”; (iii) “to learn things outside school”; and (iv) “to help me feel better when I am feeling down.”
Communication methods for meet-ups and flash mobs. Teens were asked how frequently they use certain communication approaches to arrange meet-ups with their friends and to get information about flash mobs. Communication methods included email, text message, Facebook, Twitter, speaking in person, and speaking by phone.

Perceptions of flash mobs. The survey included a series of questions aimed at understanding teens’ perceptions of flash mobs. Firstly, respondents were asked whether they were familiar with the term “flash mob.” Those who said yes to this question were led to a set of questions about flash mobs, which asked whether they have ever participated in a flash mob, how much they might be willing to participate in the future, how they would describe flash mobs, and why they think teens organize flash mobs.

Demographics. A set of demographic questions was included at the end of the questionnaire. Respondents were asked to indicate their age, gender, level of education, race, and household socio-economic status. They were also asked to enter their zip code to ensure that only responses of Kansas City teens were analyzed.

Data analysis

This study used a path analysis with a series of multiple regression analyses to test the theoretical model presented in Figure 1 and the hypothesized relationships among the variables. A hierarchical method was used in conducting the regression analyses. Gender, race, and socio-economic status variables were entered first in the regression equations as control variables. Then social psychological variables – social self-efficacy, collective self-esteem, and need to belong – were entered, followed by social media use and intention to participate in a flash mob. Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIP) statistics were calculated to test for multicollinearity. No significant multicollinearity was identified.

Results

Demographic characteristics of participants

A total of 280 teens in Kansas City participated in the survey. This is an acceptable sample size given the fact that parental consent was required for teens under 18, about 70% of the respondents, to participate in this study. Most of the respondents were high school students (89.7%) with some participation from middle school students (6.2%) and college students or high school graduates (4.1%). About 68% of the survey respondents were female and 32% were male. African Americans were the largest group, accounting for 53.3%, followed by Hispanics (24.2%) and Caucasians (15.4%). A little over half of the respondents (53.9%) described their household socio-economic status as middle class, followed by 30.3% working class, 13.3% upper middle class, and 2.5% upper class. Full demographic breakdowns are shown in Table 1.
Table 1. Characteristics of survey participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percent</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>32.1%</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
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<td>89.7%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle school student</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>College student or high school graduate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>African American</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>53.3%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Asian/Pacific Islander</td>
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<td>2.9%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
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<td>2.9%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Native American</td>
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<td>.8%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle Easterner</td>
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<td>.4%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socio-economic status</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Upper class</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Figure 2. Use of social networking sites.
More than 80% of the survey participants reported spending some time on social networking sites every day (Figure 2). YouTube was the most popular social networking site among youth, followed by Facebook and Twitter. Less than 5% of the respondents indicated that they used Foursquare or Myspace. As shown in Table 2, communicating with friends was the most important reported reason for youth to use social networking sites ($M = 4.99$, $SD = 1.86$), followed by to pass time ($M = 3.80$, $SD = 1.96$), to learn things outside school ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 1.97$), and to feel better when they are down ($M = 2.57$, $SD = 1.93$).

As shown in Table 3, Facebook ($M = 2.25$, $SD = 2.15$) was the most frequently reported communication method for youth to get information about upcoming flash mobs. Facebook was followed by speaking in person ($M = 2.19$, $SD = 1.97$), text messaging ($M = 2.17$, $SD = 2.09$), speaking by phone ($M = 1.67$, $SD = 1.61$), Twitter ($M = 1.59$, $SD = 1.50$), and email ($M = 1.41$, $SD = 1.14$). Texting was most popular ($M = 5.65$, $SD = 1.94$) for arranging meet-ups with friends. This is consistent with previous research showing youth’s heavy use of text messages (Lenhart et al., 2010; Solecki and Goldschmidt, 2011). Texting was followed by speaking in person ($M = 5.44$, $SD = 1.62$), speaking by phone ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 1.86$), Facebook ($M = 3.80$, $SD = 2.19$), Twitter ($M = 2.70$, $SD = 2.35$), and email ($M = 2.33$, $SD = 1.85$).
Teens’ perceptions of flash mobs

Respondents were asked to indicate whether they were familiar with the term flash mob. Of the 260 people who answered this question, 65.4% said they were familiar with the term and 34.6% said they were not. The following responses are from those who said they were familiar with flash mob.

As shown in Figure 3, fun (26%) and random (23.1%) were the two most popular adjectives selected by respondents saying they were familiar with flash mobs. Other adjectives used to describe flash mobs included spontaneous (20.8%) and organized (15%). Only a small proportion of teens described flash mobs as out of control (8.7%) or
violent (6.4%). For this question, the participants were provided those six adjectives that were identified through our preliminary focus group research and were asked to select all that apply. Asked why they thought teens participated in flash mobs, 35% said it was to express themselves (Figure 4). To hang out with friends (30.7%), boredom (27.5%), and to make new friends (24.3%) were the other important reasons mentioned. About 20.4% said there was no particular reason for teens to participate in a flash mob, and 12.5% said it was because of peer pressure. Multiple responses were permitted for this question.

When asked how likely they were to participate in a flash mob in the future, 38.3% said likely, 52.2% unlikely, and 9.7% were undecided. More specifically, 17.7% said very likely, 5.7% likely, 14.9% somewhat likely, 9.7% undecided, 5.7% somewhat unlikely, 13.1% unlikely, and 33.1% very unlikely. In addition, 15.8% of the respondents said they have participated in a flash mob and 29.9% said their friends have participated in a flash mob.

Factors related to teens’ social media use and participation in a flash mob

Figure 5 summarizes the results of the path analysis of the combined hypotheses. Table 4 shows specific statistics for the variables tested – standardized coefficients and t-statistics for the independent variables and total variance explained and F-statistics for the dependent variables.

Hypotheses 1 proposed that teens’ social psychological characteristics would influence the amount of time they spend on social networking sites even when controlling for gender, race, and household socio-economic status. Specifically, Hypothesis 1a posited
that teens’ social self-efficacy would be positively associated with the amount of time they spend on social networking sites. Hypothesis 1b posited that teens’ collective self-esteem would be positively correlated with the amount of time spent on social networking sites. Hypothesis 1c stated that teens’ need to belong would be positively correlated with amount of time spent on social networking sites. The results show that social self-efficacy ($\beta = .05$, $t = .65$, $p = \text{n.s.}$) and collective self-esteem ($\beta = –.02$, $t = –.32$, $p = \text{n.s.}$) are not significant predictors of teens’ use of social media. However, need to belong was a statistically significant predictor of amount of time spent on social networking sites even when controlling for demographic variables ($\beta = .28$, $t = 4.15$, $p < .001$). This finding is consistent with previous research on the role of need to belong in social media use (Ledbetter et al., 2011; Pelling and White, 2009; Valkenburg and Peter, 2008). Thus, Hypothesis 1c is supported, whereas Hypotheses 1a and 1b are not.

Research Question 2 asked how teens’ social media use is associated with intention to participate in a flash mob, even when controlling for the demographic variables (gender, race, and household socio-economic status) and social psychological variables (social self-efficacy, collective self-esteem, and need to belong). The relationship was not statistically significant ($\beta = –.02$, $t = –.24$, $p = \text{n.s.}$). However, a correlation test indicated a strong positive relationship between how much time teens spend on YouTube and their intention to participate in a flash mob in the future ($r = .18$, $p = .05$). No statistically significant relationship was found between teens’ intention to participate in a flash mob and amount of time spent on other social networks sites (Facebook, Twitter, Foursquare, and MySpace).

Finally, Research Question 3 dealt with teens’ social psychological characteristics (social self-efficacy, collective self-esteem, and need to belong) and their intention to participate in a flash mob. Gender, race, and household socio-economic status were controlled for in testing the effects of teens’ social psychological characteristics on their reported intention to participate in a flash mob. The results show that teens’ social self-efficacy is a significant predictor of their intention to participate in a flash mob ($\beta = .21$, $t = 2.25$, $p < .05$). That is, the higher the level of social self-efficacy, the stronger the

Table 4. Results of multiple regression analyses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$\Delta R^2$</th>
<th>$F$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social media use</td>
<td>Social self-efficacy</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>6.05***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collective self-esteem</td>
<td>–.02</td>
<td>–32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Need to belong</td>
<td>.28***</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flash mob participation</td>
<td>Social self-efficacy</td>
<td>.21*</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>2.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collective self-esteem</td>
<td>–.00</td>
<td>–02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Need to belong</td>
<td>–.00</td>
<td>–06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flash mob participation</td>
<td>Social self-efficacy</td>
<td>.20*</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.06</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Collective self-esteem</td>
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<td>–03</td>
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<td>.23</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social media use</td>
<td>–.02</td>
<td>–24</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Gender, race, and household socio-economic status were controlled for in all analyses.

$p < .05$; $**p < .01$; $***p < .001$. 
intention to participate in a flash mob. Correlations between individual items of the social self-efficacy index and intention to participate in a flash mob were also examined. Of the eight items, how well respondents can become friends of other people their age ($r = .20$, $p < .05$) and how well they succeed in staying friends with people their age ($r = .29$, $p < .01$) showed a significant positive relationship with respondents’ intention to participate in a flash mob. In comparison, collective self-esteem ($\beta = -.00$, $t = -.02$, $p = n.s.$) and need to belong ($\beta = -.00$, $t = -.06$, $p = n.s.$) did not show significant effects on teens’ intention to participate in a flash mob in the future.

**Discussion**

This is one of the first empirical studies to examine both teens’ perceptions of flash mobs and how teens’ use of social media and social psychological characteristics are associated with their reported intention to participate in flash mobs in the future. Studying flash mobs in the context of social media is important, because they are an important exemplar of collective action in the networked information age. Understanding the flash mob phenomenon may help us better make sense of and anticipate other forms of collective action in the 21st century. Results of this study have implications for both academic and policy communities with regard to teens’ use of social media and collective action, as well as youth engagements.

A key result was that among teens who said they knew what a flash mob was, social self-efficacy was a significant predictor of their stated intention to participate in a flash mob even when controlling for gender, race, and household socio-economic status. That is, the higher the level of social self-efficacy, the stronger the stated intention to participate in a flash mob. Social self-efficacy refers to individuals’ belief that they are competent in forging new friendships and was measured by items adapted from Zullig et al.’s study (2011) of US adolescents. Teens’ intention to participate in a flash mob was also positively correlated with how well they can become friends of other people their age and how well they succeed in staying friends with people their age.

The positive relationship between social self-efficacy and intention to participate in a flash mob suggests that flash mobs may be an important form of collective action by teens in this digitally connected society (Bimer et al., 2012; Earl and Kimport, 2011; Rheingold, 2002). Despite the recent episodes of violence in youth gatherings that were sometimes labeled as flash mobs by the media, this study found that teens knowledgeable about flash mobs generally view them as fun and entertaining gatherings that provide an outlet for self-expression. Thus, as the networked information society grows with an accompanying increasing degree of disintermediation and non-market peer production (Benkler, 2006; Castells, 2004), teens may rely more on flash mob-style events to express themselves. It is also possible that a flash mob is a cultural by-product of a shift from *dutiful citizenship*, rooted in responsibility and duty, to *actualizing citizenship*, rooted in self-actualization through social expression (Bennett et al., 2009, 2011). The tendency for teens to want to meet-up and hang out in groups is not new, nor is it solely the product of digital technologies. What social and mobile technologies bring to this is the possibility of broader and more effective peer-to-peer coordination among teens, which in turn may result, for example, in teens from different schools assembling together more often
and more quickly than would have occurred in the past. Teen behavior will become increasingly unmoored from their very local geography.

The positive correlation between the amount of time spent on YouTube and intention to participate in a flash mob in the future is quite interesting. This possibly indicates a YouTube-amplified media effect where teens see certain behaviors and are then more likely to engage in them. As this research did not measure whether the survey participants had watched flash mob videos on YouTube, the results should be interpreted with caution. Still, the positive relationship between the amount of time spent on YouTube and intention to participate in a flash mob is suggestive, as it is consistent with previous research showing effects of media consumption on youth’s behavior (Pardun et al., 2009; Quintelier and Hooghe, 2011). In fact, this finding is in line with the emergence of actualizing citizenship that “favor[s] interactive, networked activities often communicated through participatory media such as videos shared across online networks” (Bennett et al., 2009: 105). The vast adoption of user-generated online videos has made entertainment flash mobs popular throughout the world (Solecki and Goldschmidt, 2011; Joung, 2005). Some flash mob organizers create a video of a proposed public performance of a flash mob so that prospective participants can learn and practice. A social cognitive process involving online videos is an important area to further investigate. A recent Pew survey of teen Internet users (Lenhart, 2012) showed that 27% of Internet-using teens record and upload video to the Internet, up from 14% in 2006. In addition, 37% of teen Internet users reported that they participate in video chats.

This positive relationship between time spent on the YouTube site and intention to participate in a flash mob indicates the importance of engaging teens through video-based interactive channels. In communicating with teens, agencies need to go to the online sphere where those teens are active. City officials and youth leaders need to engage them via YouTube, which is currently the leading video-focused social networking site (YouTube Statistics, 2013). As of February 2013, YouTube has more than 800 million unique visitors each month. Understanding online social behavior of the target audience is key to successful engagement (Li and Bernoff, 2008; Solis, 2011).

Consistent with previous research (Gangadharbatla, 2008), the authors found teens reporting a stronger need to belong also spend more time online. The positive relationship between the two variables was statistically significant even when controlling for gender, race, and household socio-economic status. “Need to belong” was measured by asking how much participants feel treated better online than offline and how much they feel online interactions help them feel better when they are down. This finding indicates lonely teens are more likely to experiment with their identities online, benefitting from the relative anonymity of the Internet in learning how to interact with people (Valenzuela et al., 2009; Valkenburg and Peter, 2008). While social networking sites offer diverse features, people are drawn to these sites primarily for personal connections and sharing of activity with a growing number of “friends.” Social networking sites respond to youth’s need to belong.

No statistically significant relationship was found between teens’ collective self-esteem and their reported intention to participate in a flash mob. This makes sense in that flash mobs are generally gatherings of strangers or loose social networks and thus their sense of association or identity with the group may not be as strong as that with their
ordinary peer groups. Previous research (Barker, 2009) found that adolescents reporting high group identification and positive collective self-esteem tend to use social networking sites mainly to maintain contact with their closest peer groups, and those who showed negative collective self-esteem tend to seek a form of virtual companionship or social compensation through engaging in social networking sites. The flash mob is an interesting case in that it involves both online and offline interactions. Future research should examine mediating variables between collective self-esteem and intention to participate in a flash mob.

There are some limitations of this study that readers should consider as they interpret the findings. Firstly, a larger and more representative sample would have provided more generalizable findings. This study is based on responses from 280 teens, with about 15% of them not responding to some demographic questions. While this is an acceptable sample size given that parental consent was required for teens under 18 to participate in this study, a more effective approach to gathering parental consent forms might have produced more responses. Secondly, this research includes a higher proportion of females than males and this may have affected some of the results. Finally, the proportion of Caucasian participants is only 15% and the representation of Asian participants is limited. Future research should study the topic at the national and international levels. This will allow researchers to investigate whether characteristics of a city or nation may affect relationships between the variables studied in this research.

This research examined teens’ use of social media and perspectives on flash mobs by incorporating theories from communication, sociology, and psychology. Flash mobs are an important example of how collective action is initiated, mobilized, and spread in this age of online social networking. The results of this study have implications for future academic research on youth, social media, and collective action. In addition, this research provides policy-makers with empirically informed suggestions for dealing with this complex issue of youth participation in flash mobs.

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**References**


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