

Before discussing the multidisciplinary approach of social media in subsequent chapters, this chapter provides the reader with a common understanding. The most important concepts are defined, such as social media, user-generated content, and Web 2.0. The latter concept is also situated in a broader Internet evolution. It is shown how and to which degree traditional communication models and theories apply to social media and how a social ripple effect can be created. Furthermore, social media tools are classified in social media types. This chapter also gives tips and tricks regarding community management, blogging, social bookmarking, and gamification. By discussing different characteristics of social media, the reader gets an idea about which social media types are more suited for which purposes or business goals.

2.1 Defining Social Media

While Chap. 1 mentioned the existence of different social media tools, the present chapter continues with a clarification of the differences or purposes of these tools. Afterwards, the subsequent chapters will show how organizations can use such tools to create business value. Moreover, social media tools themselves are also likely to fight against each other, figuratively speaking, in order to obtain more user accounts or registrations and thus to obtain more power for selling advertisements or data to other organizations or third parties, among others. In the end, social media tools can also be seen as organizations that want to make profit (possibly at the expense of their users).

As a metaphor, Director Clément Morin translated the opening sequence of the television series “Game of Thrones” to some frequently used social media tools (i.e., based on the concept of Hootsuite). A video illustrates some battles in which social media tools build walls and block access between their different websites and applications: <http://www.stashmedia.tv/?p=20903>.

One example is a battle between Facebook™ and Twitter™ that started mid-2012, when Facebook™ acquired the social media tool Instagram™ to share photos and videos. In response, Twitter™ decided that Instagram™ photos were no longer fully appearing in tweets but that only a link to the web version of the photo would be displayed. Only after clicking on that link, the full picture would appear. In turn, Facebook™ reacted by blocking access to full Instagram™ pictures for tweets. Instead, after clicking on the link, a Twitter™ user would only see a cropped version of the picture (Forbes 2012; TechCrunch 2012). Further on, when Twitter™ launched Vine™ (i.e., a social media tool for sharing six-second videos) in 2013, Facebook™ disabled Vine™ to automatically find friends on Facebook™, and Vine™ users would have to manually search for other users they know (The Huffington Post 2013).

This example also refers to different functionalities of social media tools, such as creating and sharing images or videos. But what is actually meant by social media? The subsequent sections clarify the main concepts that are related to social media.

2.1.1 The Concept of Web 2.0

Social media are often associated with the term Web 2.0. See, for instance, Chap. 1 in which social media have been described as a next step in the Internet evolution.

Web 2.0 refers to the use of the Internet (or the World Wide Web, WWW) in order to create content, share, and collaborate among Internet users. In particular, Web 2.0 is the technical platform for the evolution of social media, as it allows online content and applications (e.g., blogs or wikis) to be modified by all users in a rather participatory and collaborative way (Kaplan and Haenlein 2010).

Web 2.0 follows Web 1.0. Compared to Web 2.0, Web 1.0 allows that online content and applications (e.g., a personal web page, an online encyclopedia, or newspaper) are created and published by individuals in a unidirectional way. Web 1.0 started in the early 1990s, namely, with the official birth of the (commercial) Internet, available to the general public, and thus the start of the information age (Wikipedia 2014a). This means that the Internet was initially limited to providing information as one-way communication (and possibly with feedback by email or postal letter) for Web 1.0, while Web 2.0 can be seen as the second generation of the Internet with multi-way communication in the 2000s.

Nowadays, the literature starts talking about the upcoming Web 3.0 and Web 4.0 as future ways of using the Internet and social media (Aghaei et al. 2012). In these terms, the Internet would continue to evolve from a “read-only” or static web (Web 1.0) over a “read-write” or participating web (Web 2.0) to a “read-write-execute” or semantic web (Web 3.0) and a “read-write-execute-concurrency” or symbiotic web (Web 4.0). The following example of a library website clarifies the different functionalities of the evolving Internet:

- Web 1.0 includes online shopping carts or browsing in online catalogues (e.g., a library website).

- Web 2.0 also gives library users the opportunity to review books online (e.g., by means of liking, sharing, or commenting on book entries in the online catalogues).
- Web 3.0 could enhance a library website by automatically recommending books that an individual user might like, based on the earlier searches and preferences of that particular user, as well as based on the reviews by other users with a similar profile. Web 3.0 is called the semantic web (also smart or intelligent web) because it allows contextual, personalized searches by giving meaning to words in response to the typical information overload in search engines. Particularly, Web 3.0 applications are able to provide context to data in order to understand what is relevant to a certain user and what is not. This can be realized by means of data integration (among web pages and social media posts), which structures data by labels. For instance, if you know someone on Facebook™, then that link or relationship can be considered as data. Similarly, if you tag someone's photo, the name in that tag is also data. By integrating all data available about an individual Internet user, semantic search engines become able to make recommendations (e.g., books) that might be of particular interest for you. For instance, if you search for books on the topic "jaguar," a semantic search engine knows whether you search for a car or an animal (e.g., based on your interests or posts on social media tools, your social media connections, previous searches, etc.).
- Web 4.0 or the symbiotic web goes a step further by proactively recommending new types of books on a library website, even before a user has searched for that book type. Web 4.0 can also introduce you to other users with a similar profile and thus having similar interests. Or it can give you news about your favorite authors or books, e.g., when they are granted a literature reward or appear in a news feed. The symbiotic web refers to a linked web which will communicate with people, similar to people communicating with each other. For instance, as an intelligent personal assistant, a Web 4.0 application on an electronic device will recognize the person that is in front of the machine and might say "good morning" (i.e., based on the time zone); "put a coat on today, because it will be rainy today" (i.e., based on the person's geographical location and the online weather forecast); "your flight of today has been canceled" (i.e., based on a personal agenda, flight details, and an online timetable of the airline company); "you need to leave now to arrive on time for you next meeting" (i.e., based on the personal agenda, location, and online traffic information); etc. One example of an intelligent personal assistant is Google Now™, which is available in the Google™ search mobile application for Android and iOS operating systems (<http://www.google.com/landing/now/>). Google Now™ already looks into your emails for appointments, to find reservations or travel information. Furthermore, a personal assistant is part of the so-called Internet of Things or Cloud of Things, which refers to a network of connected objects (e.g., devices, systems, services). For instance, based on someone's location, a smartphone may know when the smartphone owner leaves home, alert him/her when domestic appliances (e.g., heating or a television) are still on, and offer a remote to switch the appliances

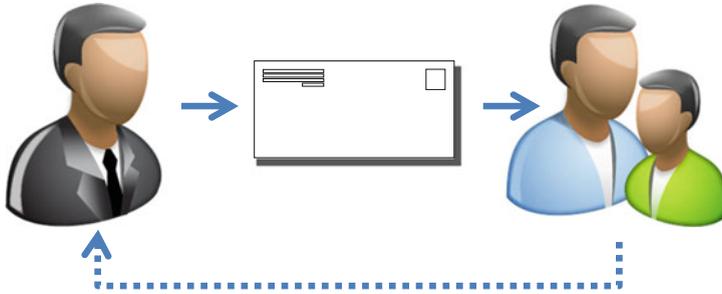


Fig. 2.1 The traditional communication model

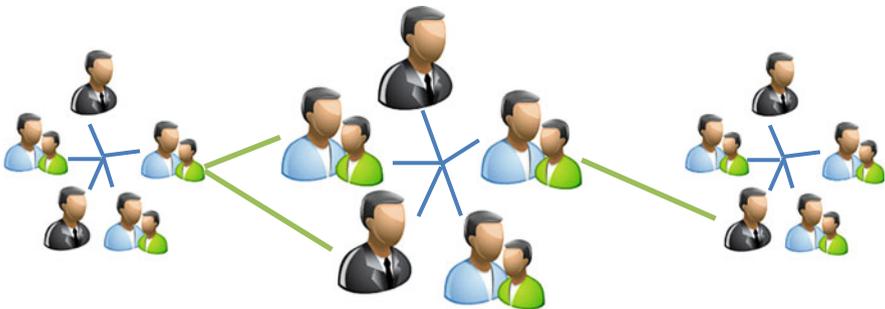


Fig. 2.2 The new communication model, characterized by communities

off (<https://www.youtube.com/embed/sfEbMV295Kk>). Thus, Web 4.0 refers to a symbiotic relationship between the Internet user and the Internet by equally depending on each other.

Hence, as from Web 2.0, one talks about the influence of social media. Web 3.0 and Web 4.0 are more advanced ways of using the Internet and social media to better serve the users. As such new ways of communicating have drastically changed the way humans typically communicate, the traditional communication model of Fig. 2.1 seems no longer valid.

Figure 2.1 distinguishes a sender (on the left, e.g., an organization), sending a message (in the middle) to a receiver (on the right, e.g., a customer) and possibly including a feedback loop. This traditional communication model reflects the typical way of communicating for Web 1.0 but does not allow multi-way communication as from Web 2.0. Hence, a new communication model seems required, as proposed in Fig. 2.2.

Figure 2.2 consists of networks or communities that are linked to each other. The networks can be intertwined, which means that a person (or Internet user) can be simultaneously part of multiple networks (e.g., professional or private networks and networks such as Facebook™, Twitter™, LinkedIn™, etc.).

Table 2.1 The functionalities of the traditional marketing funnel translated to Web 2.0 and social media tools

AIDA	Translated to a social media context
Attract <u>A</u> ttention/ <u>A</u> wareness	See (e.g., banner, link)
Attain <u>I</u> nterest	Click (e.g., banner, link)
Create <u>D</u> esire	Like (e.g., home page)
Get <u>A</u> ction	Use (e.g., subscriptions, online sales or shop locator for offline sales)

In this new communication model, communication is frequently not initiated by an organization itself. For instance, end users or customers can create leads about a brand, product, or service by sharing (positive or negative) comments and so influencing other users inside and outside their networks. Namely, this message will first spread within a user's own networks, and then possibly reaching other networks due to sharing and commenting activities of others. The latter is called the **social ripple effect**. A ripple refers to the circles or waves that are created when a raindrop reaches the surface of water. The ripple becomes larger and larger, and so reaching other ripples. Translated to social media and Web 2.0, it means that once a message is posted on social media tools, it may spread from the sender's networks to other networks, and so reaching the connections of connections.

Furthermore, the traditional marketing funnel, called AIDA, can be translated to the functionalities of Web 2.0 and social media tools (Table 2.1).

AIDA describes the behavior from prospects to actual customers. First, people have to be aware that a certain brand, product, or service exists. Then, they may become interested in the product or service and start looking for more information. They might even consider buying the product or service if they like the information they found earlier and if they can use the product or service themselves. Such a desire to buy may eventually lead to actual buying (Brito 2011).

Translated to a social media context, Table 2.1 shows which actions or functionalities may apply to the AIDA thinking. Attention or awareness can be facilitated by seeing an online ad or a link to a web page, e.g., on a search engine results page. Interest refers to clicking on the ad or link, and so reaching the corporate web page. Desire means that people start liking the web page or its profile on social media tools such as Facebook™. Finally, action should be enabled by the website. For instance, it can be an online shop or just a list of offline shops. Actions do not necessarily include sales but all desired business actions, e.g., also the registration for an online newsletter. Furthermore, Chap. 5 on social CRM will extend AIDA with the concept of customer loyalty (i.e., AIDAL, with the letter "L" referring to "loyalty").

2.1.2 The Concept of User-Generated Content

The previous section focused on the Internet evolution (in particular the meaning of Web 2.0) and how it affects traditional communication models. As being the technical platform for the evolution of social media, Web 2.0 allows users to create and share content or to “generate” content. Or as Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) briefly state: “User-generated content (UGC) can be seen as the sum of all ways in which people make use of social media” (p. 61). The present section turns to defining the concept of user-generated content (UGC) in order to show that social media are more than UGC (i.e., social media involve UGC but are not limited to UGC).

A widely accepted definition for UGC is lacking (OECD 2007), but the word literally refers to content that is generated by Internet users. Some definitions assume that UGC can entail various forms of media content, as long as this content satisfies two assumptions: (1) **being publicly available** and (2) **created by end users** (Webopedia 2014). The first assumption correctly excludes emails and text messages. Nonetheless, it also seems to exclude private communication in the sense of videoconferencing and is thus restrictive regarding the classification of social media tools. Hence, this first assumption contrasts with Sect. 2.2, in which Safko and Brake (2009) classify interpersonal tools (e.g., Skype™ for videoconferencing) as social media. The second assumption suggests that UGC would be a synonym for consumer-generated content or consumer-generated media. Also this assumption is restrictive, as Chap. 4 will show that viral campaigns are inherently initiated by an organization and that end users or consumers can share this content or post comments. Such refinements should be considered when looking for a general definition for social media in the next section.

Further on, in an attempt to define UGC, OECD (2007) proposes three requirements that should be satisfied before content can be called user generated: (1) published, (2) creative effort, and (3) created outside the professional routines and practices.

- **UGC must be published.** This requirement is in line with the previous assumption which refers to publicly available content and thus involves the same critical reflections.
- **UGC must be the result of a creative effort.** This requirement emphasizes that content must be created, instead of merely being a replication of existing content. The question, however, raises whether merely sharing content (which is frequently done by social media) can thus be seen as UGC in the sense of a creative act of (let’s say) self-expression. Nevertheless, according to OECD (2007), sharing or copying content is not considered as UGC.
- **UGC must be created outside the professional routines and practices.** This requirement excludes, for instance, communication between an organization and a commercial market to gain profit. It rather refers to (unpaid) users that generate content in order to connect with peers, to become recognized as an expert, to express oneself, etc. Also this requirement needs some critical reflections in the

context of social media, as it seems to exclude social media use for professional purposes (e.g., viral campaigns, videoconferencing, or internal social media use to increase productivity).

The comments discussed above should be taken into account when looking for a general social media definition.

2.1.3 The Concept of Social Media

If social media are not a synonym for user-generated content or Web 2.0, then what are social media? Different definitions exist, ranging from more limited to broader interpretations of social media. An example of a limited interpretation concerns the definition of Kaplan and Haenlein (2010), who define social media as “a group of internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of **Web 2.0**, and that allow the creation and exchange of **UGC**” (p. 61). This definition seems to restrict social media to Web 2.0 and UGC, but more general definitions exist. For instance, Wikipedia (2011) adds that social media include web-based and mobile technologies used to turn communication into **interactive** dialogue, while Safko and Brake (2009) refer to media that people can use to be social or “the story is in the tactics of each of the hundreds of technologies, all of the tools that are available for you to **connect** with your customers and prospects, and the strategies necessary to use these tactics and tools effectively” (p. 3). In the end, social media are about online interactions and connections.

2.2 Social Media Types and Tools

This section elaborates on the different social media types and the tools per social media type. Classifying existing social media tools is useful given the many tools that currently exist, and it also allows to gain insight into the way of working of individual social media tools. Two classifications are discussed: (1) based on theories and (2) based on common characteristics.

The first classification relies on theories in the field of media research (in the columns of Table 2.2) and theories on social processes (in the rows of Table 2.2) and is based on Kaplan and Haenlein (2010). According to theories in the field of media research, one can better influence the behavior of someone else with personalized and synchronous communication than with mediated and asynchronous communication (i.e., social presence theory). In particular, social media are more personalized compared to the mass media (e.g., radio, television, newspaper) and allow faster interaction. Further on, social media allow providing a large amount of information in a relatively short time interval (compared to the mass media with predefined time slots), which may result in less uncertainty and more knowledge about facts (i.e., media richness theory).

Table 2.2 A theoretical classification of social media tools (adapted from Kaplan and Haenlein 2010), applied to the Cisco™ case (SocialMediaExaminer 2010)

		Instant contact		
		Low	Medium	High
Image building	High (individually)	Corporate blogs and fora	Social communities, e.g., Facebook™ and Twitter™	Virtual world, e.g., Second Life™
	Low (collectively)	–	Content communities, e.g., YouTube™ and Flickr™	Corporate virtual game

On the other hand, according to theories in the field of social processes, people tend to influence what others think of them by acting as such (i.e., self-presentation theory). For instance, if you want that people see you as a creative person, you may post pictures of yourself at a museum or an art exhibition. Hence, social media can be used for reasons of image building. Besides self-presentation, you must ascertain that all personal information you (unconsciously) reveal about yourself (e.g., what you think, feel, like) is consistent with the desired image (i.e., self-disclosure theory). For instance, the image of a creative person is less compatible with a nine-to-five routine job (i.e., being possible information on LinkedIn™) or liking the Facebook™ page of a minister who decided to cut cultural incentives.

By combining these theoretical insights, Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) propose classifying social media tools according to their degree of instant contact (in the columns of Table 2.2) and image-building opportunities (in the rows of Table 2.2). To illustrate this first classification, we rely on a real-life case study of Cisco™, an IT organization. Cisco™ has a specific web page, dedicated to its social media initiatives (e.g., blogs, YouTube™, Facebook™, Twitter™, Google+™, etc.): <http://socialmedia.cisco.com/>. The case study focuses on an offline event, which was organized to launch a new product. During this event, different social media tools were used to let participants feel more involved. Also people who were not able to attend the event could still follow what was going on (SocialMediaExaminer 2010). The social media tools used in the case study are listed below:

- Blogs and fora to let participants feel more involved by sharing opinions and giving product feedback, also available for non-attendees
- Social communities, e.g., Facebook™ and Twitter™
- Content communities, e.g., YouTube™ and Flickr™
- A virtual world (called Second Life™) to create a conference room on an exotic beach with palm trees in order to create a more relaxed atmosphere.
- A virtual 3D game to let participants use the new product themselves

Table 2.2 summarizes how the social media tools used in the case study relate to the theoretical classification of Kaplan and Haenlein (2010). Only one category was not present for the case study, namely, social media tools with low instant contact and less image-building efforts, e.g., for collaborative projects (e.g., Wikipedia™).

In the columns of Table 2.2, it is specified that more immediate contact is possible when directly playing in a virtual world than posting messages on Facebook™ or Twitter™. Nonetheless, these social communities are more frequently visited than personal blogs and fora which usually cover only one individual or one topic (instead of a collection of friends/followers for diverse topics). In the rows of Table 2.2, it is specified that contributing to an encyclopedia (e.g., Wikipedia™), posting a video, or playing a game is more anonymous and reveals less information about someone's personality, compared to personal opinions that are shared on a blog, community (which is a collection of pictures, videos, comments, interests, etc.), or the acts and talks that someone does as a virtual personality (i.e., who someone wants to be or the situation to take part in).

The second classification is based on common characteristics of social media tools to detect social media types, as proposed by Safko and Brake (2009). Table 2.3 lists some examples of specific social media tools that correspond to each social media type. The table does not intend to list all social media tools, but it gives an overview of those social media tools that are commonly used nowadays and merely as an illustration. Safko and Brake (2009) also mention that an organization should not necessarily use all social media types but that it should rather focus on those types that are most important or beneficial and which the authors call the "social media trilogy." Particularly, these scholars advise organizations to start with social media by focusing on the trilogy of: (1) social communities, (2) text publishing tools, and (3) microblogging. Hence, according to Safko and Brake (2009), focusing on these three social media types already seems to pay off.

Safko and Brake (2009) distinguish two other social media types which are not shown in Table 2.3, namely, (1) a search social media type and (2) an interpersonal social media type.

- Regarding the search social media type, search engines *an sich* (e.g., Google™, Bing™, or Yahoo!™) cannot be considered as social media based on our definitions of user-generated content and social media (see Sects. 2.1.2 and 2.1.3), because they only assist in finding web pages or social media pages. Unlike the name suggests, this social media type seems to refer to search engine optimization (SEO; see Chap. 6), which increases in importance as the number of web pages, blogs, and social media pages continues to grow. Particularly, SEO investigates how a page can appear higher in the results of certain search queries. Moreover, SEO is not a tool but rather refers to tips and tricks that can also be applied to web pages (social media pages, among others). Therefore, we do not consider SEO as a social media type or tool but rather as a possible strategy (see Chap. 6).
- The interpersonal social media type refers to tools that allow interpersonal communications (e.g., with employees, customers, or prospects), such as Skype™ to organize videoconferences or for chatting. This social media type is open for discussion, as it does not comply with the conditions of user-generated content, i.e., not necessarily published or outside the professional routines and practices (see Sect. 2.1.2).

Table 2.3 A classification of social media types and tools, based on common characteristics [adapted from Safko and Brake (2009)]

Social media types	Examples of social media tools per type
1/ Social communities	1/ Facebook™, LinkedIn™, Google+™, Yammer™
2/ Social text publishing tools	2/ Blogs, Wikipedia™, Slideshare™, Quora™
3/ Microblogging tools	3/ Twitter™, Tumblr™
4/ Social photo publishing tools	4/ Pinterest™, Instagram™, Flickr™, Picasa™
5/ Social audio publishing tools	5/ Spotify™, iTunes™, Podcast.com
6/ Social video publishing tools	6/ YouTube™, Vimeo™, Vine™
7/ Social gaming tools	7/ World of Warcraft™
8/ RSS	8/ RSS 2.0, Google™ FeedBurner
9/ Live casting tools	9/ Live365, Justin.tv
10/ Virtual worlds	10/ Second Life™, Kaneva™
11/ Mobile tools	11/ Foursquare™, Swarm™
12/ Productivity tools	12/ SurveyMonkey™, Google™ Docs, Doodle™
13/ Aggregators	13/ MyYahoo!™, iGoogle™ (until November 2013)

Subsequently, we have a look at each social media type, without elaborating on all social media tools. If interested, the reader can find tips and tricks for individual social media tools on websites such as (New York University 2014).

2.2.1 Social Communities

Many people might be most familiar with the first social media type, which covers social communities. This first type is typically characterized by “wisdom of the crowd,” which means that a community user can reach out to many people, listen to them, and try to get them involved. Communities can be created for external use (e.g., organizations are increasingly present in social communities to meet customers). But social communities can also be created for internal use (e.g., to stimulate collaboration within an organization). Social communities can be monitored and analyzed as business metrics and knowledge management tools, which reminds the reader that social media should serve a business objective (instead of just using social media because they are hip and trendy). In Chap. 5 on social customer relationship management, we will explain how social communities may act as knowledge management tools (e.g., how customer feedback can be used to improve or to design products and services, etc.).

Some examples of social communities are as follows.

- **Facebook™:** <https://www.facebook.com/facebook/info>
Including a personal timeline, news feeds of connections (called “Friends”), and private messages.
Facebook™ was founded by Mark Zuckerberg and his college roommates at Harvard University in 2004, followed by the initial public offering (IPO),

NASDAQ) in 2012. The name “Facebook™” is derived from the name of a book given to American students at the start of the academic year to help students get to know each other.

Although Facebook™ is one of the largest social media tools today (see Chap. 1), Facebook™ has been frequently criticized for changing its privacy policy without clear communication to its users. Look, for instance, at this parody video, in which a user criticizes Facebook™ for constantly changing his settings: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JvQcabZ1zrk>

- **LinkedIn™**: https://www.linkedin.com/static?key=what_is_linkedin
Networking website for professionals to stay in touch or to find jobs and for organizations to list job vacancies and to search for potential candidates.

LinkedIn™ uses a “gated-access approach,” which means that a user can only directly contact his/her first-, second-, and third-degree connections. Hence, contact with any professional in the community requires either an existing relationship, a direct email address, or the intervention of a user’s contact who introduces the user to other people outside his/her third-degree contact network, which is intended to build trust among the LinkedIn™ users.

More information on LinkedIn™ is given in the chapter on e-recruitment (see Chap. 9).

- **Google+™**: <http://google.about.com/od/p/g/Google-plus.htm>
Social layer that enhances other online properties of Google™. Circles are used to organize and share information (e.g., friends, family, or acquaintances). Similar to Facebook™, the user gets a stream with updates and can send private messages (i.e., Hangouts).
- **Yammer™**: <https://about.yammer.com/>
Private social network for an organization, including productivity applications, a traditional intranet (e.g., a content management system), and an extranet. Examples of social network features are, among others, posting announcements, sharing files, creating events, swapping messages, and knowledge exchange.

For this social media type, **community management** is especially important. The following tips and tricks can be taken into account when creating a community. First, regarding the users, it is important to appoint a community manager (i.e., an administrator) and to identify community evangelists (i.e., who persuade other users to become active members). Different member types exist, which make or break a community, namely (Lemeire 2012): (1) community members who create content and become active content contributors, (2) members who primarily comment on content of someone else in the community, (3) members who rather share and refer content to friends or colleagues, (4) members who simply view content, and (5) members who usually ignore content. Furthermore, in order to compete with other communities, it is better to have a strong community with sticky content than a big community (i.e., rather a community with a few members who actively participate than a community with many members who act rather passively). For this purpose, content should be aligned with the needs of the target audience, and

user-generated content should be encouraged. Organizations can follow some rules, such as (Lemeire 2012):

- Enable conversations among your audience or market.
- Admit that you cannot control conversations with social media, but you can influence them.
- Influence is a basis for economically viable relationships.

2.2.2 Text Publishing Tools

The second social media type is about text publishing tools (e.g., to publish conversations or stories). Some examples of social text publishing tools are as follows:

- **WordPress™ blog:** <http://WordPress.org/>
Open-source software to create and manage blogs or websites, including a content management system (e.g., to create, manage, and store content from web pages in order to organize or archive blog posts). It uses standard templates, so the user can directly start typing content without much knowledge of software development. WordPress™ also allows using plug-ins to other software (e.g., to a Tumblr™ blog; see Sect. 2.2.3) or widgets (i.e., which are apps to use WordPress™ on your mobile phone).
- **Wikipedia™:** http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page
Free encyclopedia that anyone can edit and thus a nonacademic source of information. A revision history is saved to see track changes. Content is subject to certain terms and conditions, e.g., no promotion for commercial products, no copyright infringements, and only verifiable content.
- **Organizational wikis:**
Easily editable web pages for internal or external secured collaboration and knowledge sharing. The use of wikis may require a cultural shift, as employees should be convinced to work with an electronic wiki rather than with files on paper.
- **Slideshare™:** <http://www.Slideshare.net/ceheit3/Slideshare-tutorial-11451091>
Community primarily for sharing presentations, documents, and Adobe™ PDF portfolios.
- **Quora™:** <https://www.Quora.com/about>
Question-and-answer website to ask questions and get answers but also to create and follow blogs.

This social media type covers the many blogs that exist today (e.g., on sports, fashion, traveling, music, your job or pet, etc.). Nowadays, **blogging** is a real hype. Blogs are online diaries or websites about a specific subject, in which content (called posts) appear in chronological order. For an example, see: <http://blog.lewispr.com/>.

A blogger can keep the following tips and tricks in mind (LewisPR 2013). First of all, it is important to choose a subject you are passionate about. Blogging should be fun and comparable with talking to your friends in a pub. Hence, blog posts can be written in your own writing style. It is also advisable to create a list of topics about subjects for your inspiration and for motivating people to regularly read your blog. Furthermore, you can monitor when people are active on your site or when a Facebook™ post or tweet gets a lot of reactions (e.g., by using a monitoring tool such as Google™ Analytics; see also Chap. 3). Based on such monitoring information, you can decide on the number and timing of blog posts. Writing blog posts can be facilitated by templates, in which you can directly write a heading and add some visuals and a short text in the sense of storytelling. To reach more readers, you may also stimulate interaction, invite guest bloggers, read other blogs about your subject, and interact with other bloggers. In sum, according to LewisPR (2013), a blog can be more successful if it is characterized by: (1) regular content, (2) passion, and (3) focus. Regular content means finding a balance between too few and too many blog posts. Posting once a week (i.e., 52 posts per year) may seem rather poor to inspire people. Daily posts or writing three times a week may be better to let people regularly visit your blog, and it allows you to improve your writing. Secondly, regarding passion, bloggers who are having fun are more likely to inspire others. Finally, for focus, readers must understand the aim of your blog (or subjects covered) in order to return.

2.2.3 Microblogging Tools

Microblogging tools are characterized by short text messages to avoid an information overload. Microblogging differs from social communities (e.g., Facebook™) by being publicly available (instead of being limited to the connected community members). It also differs from text publishing tools (e.g., blogs) by limiting the number of characters being published per post.

Some examples of microblogging tools are as follows:

- **Twitter™**: <https://twitter.com/about>; <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0qqDy5BmYKE&feature=youtu.be>

Twitter™ literally refers to “chirps from birds” or the sound that birds produce. Twitter™ posts (called tweets) are limited to 140 characters (not 140 words) in order to be compatible with text messaging. Some typical vocabulary is used, for instance, (1) “@Username” or the “at” sign to indicate a Twitter™ user (e.g., @McDonalds), (2) “tweet” to indicate a Twitter™ post, (3) “tweep” to indicate a Twitter™ user who follows someone else’s tweets, (4) RT or “retweet” to repost and mention a tweet of another user on your Twitter™ list (and which differs from replying to a tweet), (5) “#topic” or “hashtag” to indicate the topic or keywords of the tweet and to group all tweets around the same topic which facilitates search queries for related tweets (e.g., #jobvacancy), etc. The initial public offering (IPO, Wall Street) in November

2013 resulted in an immediate boom in Twitter™ shares. From this perspective, Twitter™ may earn money from tweets that are sent by its users (i.e., 230 million users at the time of the IPO), based on their followers and the average number of tweets sent per day. To calculate the value of your individual Twitter™ account, the newspaper Time developed a tool to measure—what the newspaper calls—“how much money does Twitter™ owe you” (e.g., the value of singer @katyperry for Twitter™ in November 2013 was more than four million US dollar): <http://newsfeed.time.com/2013/11/07/interactive-this-is-how-much-money-twitter-owes-you/>.

- **Tumblr™:** <https://www.tumblr.com/about>

Quick blogging platform for storytelling with multimedia (e.g., short amounts of text, photo, audio, video). For instance, Coca Cola uses Tumblr™ to reach teenagers with animated picture (<http://coca-cola.tumblr.com/>); Newsweek to bring content of traditional media in a more informal and funny way (<http://newsweek.tumblr.com/>); Disney Pixar to share videos and photos from films, including interviews with actors (<http://disney Pixar.tumblr.com/>); and Doctors Without Border to share short texts with stories and links to official online reports (<http://doctorswithoutborders.tumblr.com/>).

2.2.4 Photo Publishing Tools

The purpose of photo publishing tools is primarily sharing photos, pictures, or images. As a picture is worth a thousand words, an increasing number of social media tools are using photos to share experience or to tell stories.

Some examples of social media tools dedicated to photo publishing are as follows:

- **Pinterest™:** <http://about.pinterest.com/basics/>; <https://help.pinterest.com/en/articles>

Using Pinterest™, you can share your interests with others by means of pictures or videos that you organize or “pin” on boards (i.e., one board per topic). People can also follow you (as a pinner) or one of your boards. Pinterest™ collects and organizes photos (or videos) to make a wish list, plan a trip, organize an event, start a collection, plan a project, etc. The “Pin It”—bookmarklet—allows social bookmarking, i.e., if you see a picture or video on another website or blog, you can easily pin it to one of your boards. In this case, Pinterest™ does not save the picture or video on its server or on your computer, but it only saves the link to the picture’s original website.

- **Instagram™:** <http://instagram.com/>; <http://www.wikihow.com/Use-Instagram>
While Pinterest™ is more about sharing (existing) pictures on topics, Instagram™ enables its users to take pictures, apply digital filters, and share them on other social media tools (e.g., social communities).

- **Flickr™**: <http://www.flickr.com/>
You can also use Flickr™ for managing and sharing pictures. Flickr™ is frequently used by bloggers to make photos available to the people who matter to them, i.e., to host images (or videos) for blogs and other social media. Additionally, Flickr™ allows displaying geotagged photos on a map. For instance, photos can be added to OpenStreetMap (OSM), which is a collaborative project to create a free editable map of the world.
- **Picasa™**: <http://picasa.google.com/>; <https://support.google.com/picasa/answer/157000?hl=en>
Picasa™ refers to the name of the Spanish painter Pablo Picasso, the phrase *mi casa* (i.e., which is Spanish for “my house”) and “pic” for pictures (i.e., personalized art). Similar to the previous tools, Picasa™ allows to organize pictures in a photo album, slideshow, and image timeline. Additionally, Picasa™ has also an online photo printing service.

While explaining Pinterest™, the concept of **social bookmarking** was introduced. Social bookmarking refers to a centralized online service which enables users to add, annotate, edit, and share bookmarks (or references) of web documents and which allows tagging with keywords (metadata) to organize bookmarks (Wikipedia 2014b). Social bookmarking can be compared with website favorites that Internet users can save on their web browsers for reuse at a later moment in time, albeit now between multiple computers. Unlike file sharing, bookmarking only shares references to the original sources (e.g., the link to a website instead of the real website content). An advantage is that by adding keywords to a bookmark, you can quickly search on topics and specifically target what you want to see (e.g., recent bookmarks, popular bookmarks, etc.). Hence, social bookmarks can give you an updated overview of social news, i.e., what many people like or what keeps them busy. We must, however, note that social bookmarking is not limited to this social media type. For instance, it is also frequently used by (micro)blogging tools (e.g., Twitter™). For more information and an example of social bookmarking for Del.icio.us™, see <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HeBmvDpVbWc&gl=BE>.

2.2.5 Audio Publishing Tools

The next social media type covers tools for publishing and sharing audio fragments. Audio is frequently used in social media as they are easier to understand than text.

Some examples of social audio publishing tools are as follows:

- **Spotify™**: <https://www.spotify.com/>
Music streaming service to listen to songs or to the radio, including a purchase service. Spotify™ has a clear business model, namely, (1) either you can use Spotify™ for free, but then you have to listen to ads between the songs and you can only use it within a limited period of time, (2) or you can pay for its service without the previously mentioned restrictions.

- **iTunes™**: <http://www.apple.com/itunes/what-is/>
Media player and media library application for audio and video files (e.g., music, movies, games, audiobooks, ringtones, apps, but also podcasts) from Apple Inc™. Some radio stations have introduced an iTunes™ Top (e.g., Top 40) with an overview of the most downloaded songs on iTunes™ within a given time interval and region.
- **Podcast**: <http://www.apple.com/itunes/podcasts/>
The term “podcast” is derived from the terms “iPod” and “broadcast.” It concerns a series of episodes (and thus not a single audio recording), e.g., a series of novels, radio or television series, interviews, music from a garage band, etc. A podcast may cover audio, radio, video, PDF, MP3, or other audio files that users can upload and download from a website. An advantage is that podcasts allow an asynchronous use, which means on demand (i.e., chosen by an individual user, based on his/her interests) and on the go (i.e., whenever and wherever he/she would like to use the podcast, e.g., while driving a car). New episodes in a series can be delivered automatically after subscribing to the series. The latter is done by RSS technology (see Sect. 2.2.8).

2.2.6 Video Publishing Tools

Social video publishing tools are platforms to share video fragments. Compared to text, photos, and audio fragments, videos can give information about body language that is used during communication. A common video publishing tool is YouTube™, but others exist.

- **YouTube™**: <http://www.youtube.com/yt/about/>
Website enabling users to upload, view, and share user-generated video content. It provides a forum for people to inform and inspire others and serves as a distribution platform for original content creators and advertisers. When uploading a video, YouTube™ users see a copyright message which warns them that they must have created the video content themselves or otherwise obtain permission from the copyright owner first. Controversial content (e.g., porn or criminal conduct) can be flagged as inappropriate, which is then examined by a YouTube™ employee.
- **Vimeo™**: <https://vimeo.com/>
To watch, upload, and share videos.
- **Vine™**: <https://vine.co/>
Looping videos limited to six seconds, particularly designed for the microblogging tool Twitter™. Some examples of Vine™ videos can be found here: <https://blog.twitter.com/2013/vine-a-new-way-to-share-video>.

2.2.7 Social Gaming Tools

Social gaming tools aim at online gaming. Organizations can (1) participate in existing online games for building brand recognition (e.g., by means of advertising), or (2) they can build a game for the corporate website to promote products or services, as well as mobile gaming apps for smartphones. World of Warcraft™ (<http://eu.battle.net/wow/en/>) is an example for existing online games. An example developed by an organization to promote a (new) product can be found at McDonalds™. When launching the Spicy Chicken McBites™, McDonalds™ created a game in which the website visitors could make music by clicking on a McBite™, i.e., the McBites™ were used as a piano, with each McBite™ representing a piano key.

This social media type is related to the broader concept of **gamification**, in which real-life situations are turned into competition (Forbes 2013; HayGroup 2014). In other words, gamification applies game thinking and techniques in real situations (thus no simulations). Customers or users are stimulated to do more of something or to do it better than others, e.g., to change behaviors, to develop skills, or to solve problems. Their efforts are quantified in order to give recognition or incentives to users who accomplish a certain action that is desired by an organization. Recognition or incentives can be rewards, a scoring, badges or levels, a progress bar, or benchmarking (possibly publicly available). As such, gamification can stimulate engagement and return on investment (ROI), because people have the natural desire to compete with each other in order to achieve something or to strive for better. Therefore, gamification is increasingly used in social media tools but also in corporate IT tools to help organizations achieve their business objectives and to motivate users (e.g., customers or employees). For instance, Hay Group (2014) defines “corporate gamification” as a “method for activating the full potential of their employees to support strategy implementation. It works because games can be addictive” (p. 2).

The success of gamification builds on Darwinian instincts and can be explained by traditional motivational theories. For instance, in line with McClelland’s human motivation theory (1987), games primarily drive the “achievement motive” in people to meet or exceed a standard but also the “affiliation motive” and the “power motive” by, respectively, focusing on the personal relationships and influence in social media, e.g., by means of interaction and sharing expertise in communities or discussion groups (HayGroup 2014). A more in-depth discussion of other (economic and psychological) theories that cope with intrinsic, extrinsic, or social motivation in the context of gamification can be found in Vassileva (2012).

Nowadays, gamification is widely used in different domains, such as in human resources, marketing, utilities, healthcare, charity, etc. Some examples of gamification are listed below.

- LinkedIn™ (i.e., a social community that we discussed in Sect. 2.2.1) shows a progress bar with a percentage of profile completeness to stimulate its users to complete their profile and thus to reveal more personal information that

LinkedIn™ might sell to other organizations or third parties. Other gamification examples of LinkedIn™ relate to statistics that show how many people viewed your profile, how many times your profile has shown up in search results, etc. Such statistics may stimulate LinkedIn™ users to become a more advanced user in order to get better statistics.

- The Starbucks™ coffee bars used Foursquare™ (i.e., a mobile social media tool with gamification until mid-2014; see Sect. 2.2.9) to increase customer loyalty by assigning a mayor for their stores. Per visit and per shop, a customer could collect points. The customer with the highest score per shop within a certain time interval (e.g., in the past 60 days) was crowned “mayor” of that shop. The title of “mayor” also refers to the elected leader of a town or city, which symbolizes prestige. Hence, people were encouraged to frequently visit the same Starbucks™ shop in order to become a mayor. This kind of competition may lead to loyalty to a specific shop.
- Opower™, an organization in the energy sector, made people aware of their energy consumption: <http://vimeo.com/41725341>. The video shows that if consumers can monitor their energy consumption with a specific app, they can realize more energy savings than without the app. This concerns competition in the sense of consumers who are striving for lower utility bills over the years and their urge to stay below the average consumption level.
- For more gamification examples, see: <http://www.yukaichou.com/gamification-examples/top-10-gamification-examples-human-race/>.
- For a TED2010 talk on how gaming can make a better world, see: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dE1DuBesGYM>.

2.2.8 Really Simple Syndication

Really Simple Syndication (RSS) is a technology to distribute web content to subscribers. Saffo and Brake (2009) describe RSS as a one-click solution for website readers to subscribe to content and receive updates the moment it is published (e.g., a podcast; see Sect. 2.2.5).

RSS differs from an electronic newsletter that is regularly sent to your mailbox (e.g., every month or every week). Instead, with RSS, you will be notified about every update within your subscriptions once it is published. These RSS updates are called “feeds.”

RSS also differs from alerts, which are notifications when new content about a certain topic of interest appears on the Internet. For instance, Google™ Alerts (<http://www.google.com/alerts>) can send you an email update each time any web page communicates about a topic that you defined as interesting, without having to subscribe to all web pages separately.

RSS can be used for professional use and private use. For instance, a scholar can subscribe to the RSS of an academic journal. Every time a new issue of that journal is released, an email is sent with the table of contents of that issue, including links to the journal articles in that issue. Organizations can also release press conferences by

means of RSS, which is interested for journalists and fans, among others. As an example of private RSS use, the Apple™ website also allows RSS subscriptions for the iTunes™ hit lists (<https://www.apple.com/rss/>). This means that every time a new iTunes™ hit list is released, the RSS subscribers will be notified by email or by an RSS reader, which is an aggregator (see Sect. 2.2.9) or web page that collects all information received from all your RSS subscriptions. Further on, RSS is frequently used by news agencies. An example is CNN, which has also podcasting feeds for video and audio podcasts (<http://edition.cnn.com/services/rss/>). For instance, for an RSS subscription of CNN, you can paste the given RSS shortcut (URL) into an aggregator or RSS reader, or if MyYahoo!™ is used, you can directly click on the My Yahoo!™ button. Or other websites may put an RSS icon on their website to easily subscribe to their content. The previous examples also illustrate that content can be received in different ways, e.g., in an aggregator, an email, or a browser (with an automated signal that indicates new content).

An RSS subscriber will usually receive RSS updates in normal text formats. However, the feeds that are sent are lines of code, which may represent content in XML format (i.e., a computer language to mark text to be shown in computer systems). An example is shown in Table 2.4.

The example in Table 2.4 is structured according to a typical XML format to represent the content of a feed, such as the title of the feed (e.g., “Example Feed”), the authors (e.g., “Ashley Moore”), the actual content with a title (e.g., “Minister Calls For Democracy”), a summary (e.g., “Some Text.”), and a timestamp (e.g., “2014-12-13T18:30:02Z,” which refers to December 13, 2014, at 18h30 or 6.30 p.m.).

Table 2.4 An example of an RSS feed in XML format

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<feed xmlns="http://www.w3.org/2015/Minister">
  <title>Example Feed</title>
  <link href="http://example.org/" />
  <updated>2014-12-13T18:30:02Z</updated>
  <author>
    <name>Ashley Moore</name>
  </author>
  <id>urn:uuid:60a76c80-d399-11d9-b93C-0003939e0af6</id>

  <entry>
    <title>Minister Calls For Democracy</title>
    <link href="http://example.org/2014/12/13/minister14"/>
    <id>urn:uuid:1225c695-cfb8-4ebb-aaaa-80da344efa6a</id>
    <updated>2014-12-13T18:30:02Z</updated>
    <summary>Some text.</summary>
  </entry>
</feed>
```

Organizations can make use of RSS for diverse purposes, for instance (Borremans 2012):

- To read industry-specific news (e.g., public relations)
- To monitor basic online issues
- To monitor and send latest headlines, top news relevant for clients
- To monitor competitors
- For brand-name monitoring
- For crisis communication

Together with microblogging (see Sect. 2.2.3), RSS is one of the fastest ways for **crisis communication** (Borremans 2012). For instance, a small topical blog site may sleep until a crisis hits and then suddenly gets filled with “questions and answers” (Q&A), reactive statements, frequently asked questions (FAQ), data, etc. By monitoring blogs that are relevant to the organization in particular, it may become rapidly aware that something is going on in order to start releasing updates via RSS to different platforms and in different formats. For crisis communication, the advantage of RSS is that it can be launched within minutes. However, as it supplements traditional communication and classic public relations, RSS content might be managed by the MarCom department rather than the IT department, according to Borremans (2012).

2.2.9 Other Social Media Types

Other social media types that can be used are (1) live casting tools, (2) virtual world tools, (3) mobile social media tools, (4) productivity tools, and (5) aggregators.

- **Live casting tools:** to broadcast video in real time (e.g., reality television) and usually for free. For instance, students can make their own television show and broadcast it to fellow students. Examples of live casting tools are Live 365 (<http://www.live365.com/>) and Justin.tv (<http://www.justin.tv/>).
- **Virtual world tools:** to meet, talk, exchange ideas, and watch presentations in a virtual environment. For instance, organizations can organize press conferences or hold meetings in a virtual building or store (see the Cisco™ example of Table 2.2). Examples of social media tools with virtual worlds are Second Life™ (<http://secondlife.com/>) and Kaneva™ (<http://www.kaneva.com/>).
- **Mobile social media tools:** apps for social media on mobile devices. For instance, when discussing gamification in Sect. 2.2.7, Foursquare™ was already mentioned as a location-based mobile social media tool (<https://foursquare.com/>). Until mid-2014, Foursquare™ users could be granted points (e.g., per check-in when entering a real venue), badges (e.g., for some place or time check-ins, for check-in frequency, etc.), the title of “mayor” or different levels of a superuser status, among others. Mid-2014, Swarm™ was introduced as a companion app to Foursquare™ for location sharing, and it limits gamification to friends instead of

all users (<https://www.swarmapp.com/>). Since then, Foursquare™ focuses on local search recommendations (see also Chap. 7 on opinion mining) instead of check-ins and gamification. For instance, it can now be used to discover and share tips on real venues. Nonetheless, Foursquare™ works together with Swarm™ to provide recommendations based on a user's profile.

- **Productivity tools:** to enhance an organization's productivity, such as supporting social event management or meetings (e.g., Doodle™: <http://doodle.com/>), online surveys with a large audience (e.g., SurveyMonkey™: <https://nl.surveymonkey.com/>), peer-to-peer downloads, alerts (e.g., (<http://www.google.com/alerts>), or word processing and spreadsheets if in the cloud (e.g., Google™ Docs: <https://docs.google.com>).
- **Aggregators:** websites to gather information from multiple websites (e.g., webmail, news, other social media tools, etc.). They can be used as a personalized homepage, instead of starting with a search engine or corporate landing page. Aggregators give the user a personalized overview of new content that is relevant to him/her, based on his/her social media accounts (e.g., updates of blog posts, tweets, RSS feeds, etc.). The overview may also include incoming mails, a personal agenda, notes to oneself, news items, weather forecasts, etc.). Furthermore, aggregators (or RSS readers; see Sect. 2.2.8) help bloggers read hundreds of blogs per day, i.e., not by visiting each blog separately but by letting the latest blog posts of their favorite blogs come to them. One example is Bloglovin' for fashion, beauty, and lifestyle: <http://www.bloglovin.com/>. However, before receiving those updates, it is required to subscribe to particular blogs by means of RSS.

2.3 Social Media Purposes

Although the previous section showed many different social media types and tools, organizations should not necessarily use all of them. Instead, social media types and tools should be chosen according to the social media strategy that needs to be realized. For instance, if the target group of an organization is not active on Twitter™, then the organization should not use Twitter™. More information on determining a social media strategy is discussed in Chap. 3. Hence, for an organization, it is important to know their customers, i.e., not each of them personally but rather their profiles (e.g., their interests, hobbies, jobs, etc.) in order to provide them with more personalized communication that is relevant to them.

If you navigate to the homepage of an organization, you may already notice multiple social media initiatives that can be classified in one or another social media type and tool. For instance, website visitors may be invited to click on a link to Facebook™, Twitter™, LinkedIn™, RSS, or a blog. However, this chapter explained that not all initiatives to get into contact are necessarily related to social media. Examples are private (one-to-one) emails that a website visitor can send to the organization and which differ from the (social or) multi-way communication that is typical for a publicly available “questions and answers” (Q&A) web page.



Fig. 2.3 Parking lots for “likers” of an organization’s social media page (2012)

Also the registration for a traditional newsletter that is regularly sent to your private mailbox cannot be considered as social media and differs from an RSS subscription.

Some organizations go even one step further than merely using social media in an online context. For instance, Fig. 2.3 gives an offline example of a shop that reserved some parking lots for people that “like” the organization’s Facebook™ page. These parking lots were close to the shop entry and next to the traditional parking lots for disabled people and young parents with babies. It seems that some organizations go really far (maybe too far) in promoting their social media pages.

While social media types and tools should be chosen according to a social media strategy, the latter should serve the organization’s mission and its business objectives (i.e., translated into an organizational strategy). This means that behind the social media initiatives of organizations, business models are present. A good example is LEGO™, an organization of toy building bricks, which has created separate communities for increasing sales or brand loyalty and for product innovation, among others.

- LEGO™’s ReBrick community (<http://rebrick.lego.com/>) for adult fans to share and discuss pictures of designs that they have made by using the LEGO™ bricks. A business goal behind this community is to increase sales, because other users may start building the same design after seeing the pictures. Furthermore, within this community, users can share their building experience and become more fascinated about the brand. Consequently, they may become brand advocates or enthusiasts of the brand.
- LEGO™’s CL!CK community (<http://www.legoclick.com/>, <https://www.youtube.com/user/legoclick>, <https://twitter.com/legoclick>) for users to launch ideas for new building packages that LEGO™ can produce and sell. For this

purpose, each community member can present a new design to the community (e.g., with a picture), and other community member can vote. Only those designs with many votes might be selected by LEGO™ for production. If an idea gets selected, the community member who proposed the idea will be invited to the LEGO™ headquarters and gets the opportunity to explain his idea in real life and to participate in the production process. Moreover, he/she also gets a part of the profit made from this new building package. The corresponding business goal is product innovation and to create real involvement of customers. See also Chap. 5 on social customer relationship management.

The remainder of this section turns to characteristics that are shared among the social media types and tools. Particularly, it concerns general purposes, pillars, or strategies to get the message through (Lemeire 2012). Safko and Brake (2009) explain that social media can be used for four general reasons: (1) for communicating, (2) for collaborating, (3) for educating, and (4) for entertaining.

- **Social media use for communication**, e.g., to convince and to sell. Organizations should think through what they are communicating and how they measure the effectiveness of their communication and the perceptions by the audience. An example of social media use for communicating is the “Will it Blend” series of YouTube™ videos to promote a blender (<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qg1ckCkm8YI>). To show the strength of the blender, a scientist tests which (household) items can be blended. Different items have already been mixed with a “smoothie button.” The given example mixes an iPhone™ and is a real hit on YouTube™ in terms of “likes” and “views.” This video is an example of a viral campaign (see Chap. 4), created by the organization itself in order to promote a product.
- **Social media use for collaboration**, e.g., to convince and to sell. Collaboration has frequently the same purpose of communication. However, it focuses on sharing experience between customers and prospects while using a product. The previously discussed LEGO™ communities are one example of collaboration. Furthermore, a food company can collect recipes for meals that customers have made with their ingredients, in order to motivate other people to make the same meal and thus to buy the products too. Another example involves a games workshop, where gamers can meet and play (e.g., <http://www.games-workshop.com/>).
- **Social media use for education**, e.g., to learn about an organization’s products, brand, suppliers, etc. One example is “the making of” videos that show and explain how a certain product is produced, e.g., how the Prodigy’s track “Smack My Bitch Up” was made (<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eU5Dn-WaEII>). Also McDonalds™’s #MeetTheFarmers campaign aimed at explaining the ecological nature of the ingredients in hamburgers in order to decrease the image of unhealthy food.
- **Social media use for entertainment**, e.g., trying to be funny. Organizations can also use social media in order to be interesting and compelling. They can even

try to experiment. Nonetheless, they should wonder whether the majority of the targeted audience will find the message funny, as people may have different types of humor. They should also be aware of cultural differences between what is considered as being funny. For instance, is a Muslim cartoon funny or rather racial? Here are some successful entertainment examples: (1) a Carlsberg™ commercial (<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RS3iB47nQ6E>) and (2) the Berlitz™ commercial “We are sinking/thinking” (<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VSdxqIBfEAw>).

Another way to focus on the different social media purposes is by looking at their degree of functionalities. Kietzmann et al. (2011) propose seven functionalities with corresponding implications: (1) presence, (2) relationships, (3) identity, (4) sharing, (5) reputation, (6) conversations, and (7) groups. Each social media tool can be situated in one or more functionality. For instance, Foursquare™ and Swarm™ primarily focus on “presence” or the location where users are, whereas YouTube™ focuses on “sharing” videos, LinkedIn™ mainly focuses on “identity” (i.e., work experience) and “relationships” (i.e., knowing who is connected to whom), and Facebook™ focuses on “relationships” but also on “sharing” content and revealing your personal “identity” (e.g., your hobbies). In their approach, Kietzmann et al. (2011) explain that it is worthwhile to consider the implications per functionality. For instance, revealing your personal “identity” also implies privacy concerns, while “sharing” a lot of content requires a content management system to organize and store the content in a structured way. On the other hand, gathering in “groups” (or communities) implies the need for membership rules and protocols. Other implications are network management for “relationships,” reputation measurement and sentiment analysis for “reputation,” conversation velocity for “conversations,” and creating immediacy for “presence.”

Furthermore, some authors give overviews with advice on which social media type can be used for which purpose or business goal. One example is given by Gillin (2009) for business goals such as building a customer community, counter negative publicity, crisis management, customer conversation, expose employee talent, generate website traffic, market research, new product ideas, product promotion, customer support, sales lead, etc. For instance, for product feedback, Gillin (2009) advises to use a blog or a community rather than a podcast or video, because the latter are less open for direct feedback compared to the former. Such overviews reflect the opinion of an author (e.g., based on his/her experience), which means that organizations can and should make their own choices for selecting one or another social media type. The next chapter elaborates on how a particular organization can define its own social media strategies.

2.4 Takeaways

This chapter defined and gave evidence for the wide variety of social media types and tools and provided tips and tricks regarding community management, blogging, social bookmarking, and gamification. We conclude the chapter with some future social media trends that will be discussed in more detail in subsequent chapters regarding (1) pictures and video, (2) in-house community management, (3) big data, and (4) the business models of social media tools.

The first trend recalls that pictures and videos have become increasingly important to transmit a message and have more power than text nowadays. When it comes to text, publishing happens more in the sense of storytelling, e.g., to share experience on how you can use a product instead of sharing sales promotions about that product (i.e., no direct sales). Furthermore, we have seen that the amount of text is decreasing and is even limited to 140 characters for tweets on Twitter™. With Vine™, also the duration of videos is restricted to six seconds. Hence, social media users and organizations should be very creative on social media. It is to be expected that especially photo and video publishing tools (e.g., Pinterest™, Instagram™, YouTube™, and Vine™) will gain importance during the coming decade, in addition to the power of tools such as Facebook™, Twitter™, and LinkedIn™. This first trend may have an impact on online advertising and viral campaigns, among others (see Chap. 4).

The second trend copes with community management and explains that an increasing number of organizations try to manage their social media initiatives in-house, instead of outsourcing them to external consultancy firms. The reason is that social media have become more important to organizations to reach out to customers. Gradually, more knowledge is also available on the do's and don'ts in order to properly use social media. Furthermore, social media are often used as a complement to physical events, e.g., offline press conferences with social sharing in order to make the message stronger and to reach more people. As this trend predicts the need for more collaboration with online influencers, it relates to Chap. 4 on online advertising and viral campaigns and to Chap. 5 on social customer relationship management. Additionally, Chap. 12 will clarify lessons learned by presenting real-life bloopers of social media use by organizations.

The third trend predicts that more organizations will rely on big data to make business decisions, as will be explained in Chaps. 7 and 8. For instance, by putting all (internal and external) information about a single customer in one meaningful and unified database, organizations get to know their customers better (e.g., hobbies on Facebook™, jobs on LinkedIn™, etc.). This allows more direct marketing with personalized offers and to identify customer profiles.

Finally, the fourth trend predicts that social media will try to make more money from its audience, and this at the expense of people's privacy. This trend reminds the reader that every social media tool also has a business model itself. And similar to a commercial organization, it can try to make profit out of its users. For instance, for many social media tools, users can register for free, but in return they have to agree on the Terms of Service (see Chap. 11). Related to the previous trend, Terms of Service may allow the associated social media tool to sell profile details of users

to commercial organizations or third parties as big data, albeit anonymously, as well as information about the specific pages that a user likes, his/her connections, pictures, etc. (see Chap. 8 on business intelligence). Another example of how a social media tool can make money is by promoting posts and selling space for online ads (see Chap. 4).

2.5 Self-Test

- Can you define what social media are and what they are not?
- Can you explain the evolution of the Internet? What do Web 1.0, Web 2.0, Web 3.0, and Web 4.0 mean? Can you think of possible applications?
- What does the abbreviation UGC stand for? How would you define the concept? Can you give critical reflections on the meaning of UGC?
- To what extent do traditional communication models and theories apply to social media?
- What is meant by the social ripple effect in the context of social media?
- Can you apply the theoretical classification of social media tools to specific case studies, for instance, those cases described by SocialMediaExaminer (2012)?
- Are you able to classify social media tools in social media types? Can you explain each social media type?
- Why are the following examples not part of social media?
 - A website 1.0
 - An email
 - A search engine (e.g., Google™, Bing™, or Yahoo!™)
 - A traditional newsletter
- Browse to a website (e.g., of a university or organization, its competitors, or the website of a famous person) and verify to which degree it uses social media. Can you identify the social media types and tools?
- Can you give critical reflections on the typology of Safko and Brake (2009) regarding social media types and tools?
- Can you explain the social media trinity of Safko and Brake (2009)?
- What does the abbreviation RSS stand for? How would you define the concept?
- Can you give advice on community management?
- Can you give advice on blogging?
- What is social bookmarking?
- Why is gamification frequently used by organizations in software and social media tools?
- Look for two real-life examples of gamification and explain why you have chosen them (i.e., explain why you think this is a good or bad example of gamification).
- Which characteristics can be used to describe social media tools?
- Which social media types would you advise for the following situations and which ones rather not? Explain why.
 - Product feedback, crisis management, exposition of employee talent, idea generation, customer service, etc.

Bibliography

- Aghaei, S., Nematbakhsh, M. A., & Farsani, H. K. (2012). Evolution of the World Wide Web: From Web 1.0 to Web 4.0. *International Journal of Web and Semantic Technology*, 3(1), 1–10.
- Brito, M. (2011). *Smart business, social business*. Indianapolis, Indiana: Que Publishing.
- Borremans, P. (2012). [Guest lecture of Philippe Borremans in the course Creating Value Using Social media at Ghent University, December 2012].
- Forbes (2012). *Twitter has begun to cut off Instagram – Is Facebook next?* Retrieved July 2, 2014, from: <http://www.forbes.com/sites/ericjackson/2012/07/30/Twitter-has-begun-to-cut-off-Instagram/>
- Forbes (2013). *The gamification of business*. Retrieved September 15, 2014, from: <http://www.forbes.com/sites/gartnergroup/2013/01/21/the-gamification-of-business/>
- Gillin, P. (2009). *Secrets of social media marketing*. California: Quill Driver Books.
- HayGroup (2014). *How gamification can help companies achieve their strategic goals*. Retrieved September 15, 2014, from: http://atrium.haygroup.com/downloads/marketingps/us/Gamification_insight_piece_FINAL.pdf
- Kaplan, A. M., & Haenlein, M. (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of social media. *Business Horizons*, 53, 59–68.
- Kietzmann, J. H., Hermkens, K., McCarthy, I. P., & Silvestre, B. S. (2011). Social media? Get serious! Understanding the functional building blocks of social media. *Business Horizons*, 54, 241–251.
- Lemeire, L. (2012). [Guest lecture of Len Lemeire in the course Creating Value Using Social media at Ghent University, October 2012].
- LewisPR. (2013). *Bloggen voor de lot*. Retrieved May 28, 2013, from: <http://blog.lewispr.nl/bloggen-voor-de-lol/>
- McClelland, D. C. (1987). *Human motivation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- New York University. (2014). *Social media: explained*. Retrieved July 7, 2014, from: <http://www.nyu.edu/life/student-life/hashtagNYU/social-media-explained.html>
- OECD. (2007). Participative web: user-created content (Report). Retrieved August 12, 2013, from: <http://www.oecd.org/internet/ieconomy/38393115.pdf>
- Safko, L., & Brake, D. K. (2009). *The social media bible: tactics, tools, and strategies for business success*. New Jersey: Wiley.
- SocialMediaExaminer. (2010). How social media helped Cisco shave \$100,000+ off a product launch. Retrieved March 28, 2012, from: <http://www.socialmediaexaminer.com/cisco-social-media-product-launch/>
- SocialMediaExaminer (2012). Social media case studies. Retrieved March 28, 2012, from: <http://www.socialmediaexaminer.com/category/case-studies/>
- TechCrunch. (2012). *Instagram™ photos will no longer appear in Twitter streams at all*. Retrieved July 2, 2014, from: <http://techcrunch.com/2012/12/09/it-appears-that-Instagram-photos-arent-showing-up-in-Twitter-streams-at-all/>
- The Huffington Post. (2013). *Twitter's 'Vine' app users can no longer find friends via Facebook*. Retrieved July 2, 2014, from: http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2013/01/25/Twitter-vine-Facebook_n_2550681.html
- Vassileva, J. (2012). Motivating participation in social computing applications: A user modeling perspective. *User Modeling and User-Adapted Interaction*, 22(1–2), 177–201.
- Webopedia. (2014). *UGC*. Retrieved July 2, 2014, from: <http://www.webopedia.com/TERM/U/UGC.html>
- Wikipedia. (2014a). *Internet*. Retrieved July 7, 2014, from: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Internet>
- Wikipedia. (2014b). *Social bookmarking*. Retrieved July 9, 2014, from: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_bookmarking
- Wikipedia. (2011). *Social media*. Retrieved August 12, 2013, from: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_media